“From Womb to Tomb”

A Comprehensive Analysis of Tourism Education and Training in the Commonwealth of Dominica

By

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Abstract

National planning for tourism education and training in a Small Island Developing State can be problematic. In the case of the Caribbean Island, the Commonwealth of Dominica now at a relatively immature state of tourism growth and marked by several developmental challenges due to its small size, this phenomenon is particularly evident. Against this background, this thesis seeks to critically examine the current situation and to ascertain the best planning approach to tourism education and training for the island. The study draws on education theory and particularly on the extant tourism education and training literature. In investigating the application and significance of the related tourism education and training concepts and issues in the context of Dominica, the study is also underpinned by key paradigms of organisational and planning theories, namely organisational structures and designs, bureaucracy and adhocracy, restructuring and organisational change, power relations, strategic planning, collaborative planning and collaborative network theory.

Of the existing research on tourism education and training, few works are dedicated to island destinations and among these the focus has mainly been on higher education and industry concerns. It is therefore the premise of this study that a more comprehensive approach is needed; involving all stakeholders impacted by tourism education and training and giving consideration to the curriculum at all educational levels. Accordingly, the empirical research encompassed 65 expert in-depth interviews with representation from all levels of the formal education and training system, industry experts and relevant policy makers and planners. The primary research is framed within the interpretivist paradigm and employs a qualitative design for data collection and analysis. Consequently, multiple constructions and interpretations are observed as thorough understanding of the research puzzle is pursued.

The data which emerged around four broad themes – principles, structures, power and process – reveals that in the Commonwealth of Dominica a lifelong approach to tourism education and training is vital. Thus, tourism should be introduced from early childhood education and developed in a spiral fashion up to tertiary, adult and continuing education and industry training. The thesis also claims that within this context the planning approach should be strategic, holistic, collaborative and driven by a clearly articulated policy. Finally, in an attempt to conceptualise a national planning approach to tourism education and training the study advances Amoah and Baum’s (1997) Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework, advocating, however, that a structures policy-driven approach would best suit Dominica’s context. These findings serve as a springboard for advancing tourism knowledge on Small Island Developing States.
Declaration

I, Violet Vyline Cuffy declare that this thesis is my original work in partial fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. To my knowledge this work has not been previously submitted to the University of Surrey or elsewhere for a similar award. The researcher has sought to exercise care in referencing all works of other authors and sources.
Dedication

To my mother(s) for your loving care, support, guidance and prayers; for indeed though not physically here your hands have been forever upon me!

I humbly give this thesis back to you as a sign of my appreciation and recognition that without you I am but nothing save for with you I achieve everything. I now go forth along this journey of life confident that your continued heavenly gaze and prayers will see me safely to the end.
Acknowledgements

As is well said in another place in this study, 'no man is an island'. Hence, this PhD journey could not have reached successful completion without the input of others. Thus, to the government of the Commonwealth of Dominica through the Dominica Scholarship Agency, and the British Council and the Association of Commonwealth Universities who collaboratively facilitated the award of my Commonwealth Scholarship, I say thank you. This has been an extremely privileged and honourable opportunity.

I am indebted to you Professor John Tribe, my principal supervisor for your unwavering support throughout the process which unfolded during this academic project. I have always felt blessed to have benefited from your professional approach to the task of supervision. Nevertheless, at times, your support was stretched beyond the thorough reading of my drafts and I especially thank you for your ability to bring out a smile from me on some of my darker and troubled days.

I wish to single out Dr. Georgious Papageorgiou for the long hours spent labouring with me in the early stages of my journey. It was difficult to accept your departure, but I felt comforted that I had found a friend who was still willing to listen, help and guide if and when needed. And indeed you supported me right through to the end. Thus, you too, should share the joy in the completion of this research. I am also sincerely grateful for the support and advice provided by Dr. David Airey at a crucial stage, when it was necessary to take an overall view of the study as a whole; your input and critical feedback was certainly invaluable. I also thank my MPhil/PhD upgrade examiners Dr. Caroline Scarles and Dr. Edith Szivas for the confidence and guidance your assessment instilled.

In addition, I extend special gratitude to Henty Polydore, Isaline Titre, Jane Watson, Doreen Valarie, Cynthia Morvan, Joanne Smith, Gina Severin, Maveralla Lecointe, Bernard Parquette, Marcia Christmas, Claudine Charles, Tomomi Wakiya, Joe Tungchawal, Dr. Donna Chambers, Dr. Karen Wu, Dr. Maureen Ayikoru, Dr. Balvindar Kaur Kler, Dr. Abjulhadi Ramadan and Dr. Jang-Hyeon Nam, you were my support network, each in your own unique way. For this, I thank you. And to all my other siblings, family members, close friends and office colleagues I am forever appreciative of the prayers and the calls, and for providing a source from which I could draw strength to go on. But most importantly, I thank my God, his mother and the angels; you were indeed my rock.
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<td>ACP</td>
<td>African, Caribbean and Pacific Groups of States</td>
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<td>BTC</td>
<td>Business Training Centre</td>
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<td>CARICOM</td>
<td>Caribbean Community</td>
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<td>CEE</td>
<td>Common Entrance Examination</td>
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<td>CERT</td>
<td>Council for Education, Recruitment and Training</td>
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<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
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<td>COR</td>
<td>Child Observation Record</td>
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<td>CTHRC</td>
<td>Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council</td>
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<td>CTO</td>
<td>Caribbean Tourism Organisation</td>
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<td>CXC</td>
<td>Caribbean Examination Council</td>
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<td>DDA</td>
<td>Discover Dominica Authority</td>
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<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department For International Development</td>
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<td>DSC</td>
<td>Dominica State College</td>
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<td>DYBT</td>
<td>Dominica Youth Business Trust</td>
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<td>ETDP</td>
<td>Eco-tourism Development Programme</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>National Development Corporation</td>
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PART I: INTRODUCTION
Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study takes a critical analysis of planning for tourism education and training in the Caribbean island, the Commonwealth of Dominica. This Small Island Developing State is currently seeking to pursue tourism development as one of its foremost strategies for socio-economic growth and development. Consequently, the study adopts a comprehensive perspective to the investigation, 'from the womb to the tomb', a concept so coined by one of the experts in the local setting. In so doing, the study takes into consideration the needs and interests of all relevant stakeholders within both the tourism and education sectors. In addition, the study encompasses all education levels from early childhood to tertiary and adult and continuing education, as well post secondary training.

In the context of this study education and training is conceptualised as pivotal strategy for the development and advancement of the local tourism industry. Therefore it is vital that proper planning processes of relevance to the local context are engaged throughout the education and training systems. However, for Dominica like other Small Island Developing States (SIDS), arriving at and the implementation of an effective and well suited planning approach is challenging. Accordingly, this study provides an in-depth analysis of the Dominican scenario to better understand this research puzzle.

This first chapter presents a brief background and context to the research problem in section 1.2, followed by the rationale in section 1.3, the research question and related aim and objectives in section 1.4 and then finally the thesis structure in section 1.5.

1.2 Background and Context

Internationally, tourism has been widely recognised for its significance to the economic growth of developing countries and tourism’s contribution to foreign currency, income and employment generation is well documented in the literature (see for example Shaw &
Williams 1990; Sinclair 1998; Milne & Ateljevic 2001; Durbary 2004; Oh 2005; Lewis 2005a, 2005b; Hall 2008; Lee & Chang 2008). Tourism is the lifeblood of many Caribbean Islands (Charles 1997; Poon 2001; also see Lewis 2005a, 2005b). The Caribbean region, Mather and Todd (1993) and later Poon (2001) state, is one of the most tourism-dependent economies in the world. Further, due to drastic global changes in trade negotiations, the decline in agricultural products and particularly banana trade, and the weakening of the manufacturing sector, there is now a heightened need for tourism 'to work' for the Caribbean (Poon 2001).

For the Commonwealth of Dominica in particular, this need is more critical as the island seeks to gain market share, and position and differentiate itself as a nature destination of choice in the region. According to Carter, “tourism education and training are now recognised as primary components in the future success of the [Dominica’s] tourism industry ... within a highly competitive international marketplace” (2002:179). But despite being accepted as a heavyweight industry, the tourism sector still receives relatively limited investment. As stated in Dominica’s tourism policy document,

The overriding issue for the tourism sector and its future is the absence of a focused commitment to tourism. This is not to say the government does not recognise the importance of tourism and has not made a commitment to it, but rather that the commitment has not been focused to produce the desired results in terms of the expected contribution to Dominica’s economy and social and cultural fabric. (Ministry of Tourism and National Development Corporation 2004:2)

One crucial area which receives little attention in terms of funding, strategic planning and policy development is tourism education and training. Baum (1993) points out that generally tourism education has evolved in a heterogeneous and ad hoc manner. This is partly because by its nature the tourism industry has no clearly defined boundaries and has often been described as fragmented with linkages with and across a large number of sectors and operators (Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake 1994; Hall 1999).
Tribe (1997b) aptly conceptualised the genre of tourism study as indisciplined, that is, lacking a clear body of knowledge and sound theoretical underpinnings. Even more recently Zagonari (2009) has suggested that tourism education is still at an immature stage of development. Not least due to the combination of such challenges, planning for tourism education and training at a national level can be a complex and intricate process involving a diverse group of players. Particularly in tourism-dependent small island states that predominantly employ this industry as a vehicle for socio-economic development, these dynamics, and possibly also the lack of expertise, can create particular education and training dilemmas.

1.3 Rationale
Research in tourism education and/or training in the developed world are fairly well represented in extant literature. For instance, Airey and Johnson (1999) map out three decades of advancement that has been achieved in the United Kingdom and informs that the subject is now fully established at all levels of education. Airey (2008) later plots the path of tourism through a series of developmental platforms from the earlier era of advocacy (concepts which are later discussed fully in chapter three).

Further, there has been a wide range of studies in the area of tourism education but the focus has largely centred on higher education (writers such as Morgan 2004; Ayikoru 2007; Cervera-Taulet and Ruiz-Molina 2008; Ayikoru, Tribe & Airey 2009; Ring, Dickinger, & Wober 2009; Horng, Teng, & Baum 2009) and curriculum planning (Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake 1994; Gunn 1998; Cooper 2002; Tribe 2002 among others). Another well researched area is that of industry training concerns. Zagonari (2009) for example focuses on balancing tourism education and training to achieve optimal benefits to all stakeholders; while many others like Ramos, Rey-Maquieira and Tugores (2004) concentrate on tourism training as an economic factor.

Within the tourism education and training literature minimal works are centred on island tourism and fewer yet are focused on the Caribbean region. Of those that are, two recent
works noted are: Lewis (2005a, 2005b) whose interests rested on higher education curriculum; and Wood and Jayawardena (2003) exploration of Cuba’s education strategy along side an evaluation of the hospitality industry environment and change policy. However, one earlier study by Charles (1997) stands out for its review of tourism education and training in the Caribbean. In his paper Tourism Education and Training in the Caribbean: Preparing for the 21st Century, Charles identifies training needs in three main areas: public awareness; technical/vocational skills training; and management education and development examined through the public school system, the post-secondary level, and the tertiary level. Charles discusses the different programmes available and highlights some of the major challenges experienced. Though the broad view of tourism education and training in the Caribbean presented in his paper is insightful, it does not seek to provide in-depth understanding or explanation of the weaknesses noted in terms of programme availability and quality at the level of individual islands. Moreover, it fails to address general tourism education provision at the various levels within the public school system. In fact, as explained above it singles out particular areas of content provision for review and analysis.

Seemingly noting the vast void demarcated above, Boxill (2002), an academic at the University of the West Indies, expresses much concern about the level of scholarship and academic research in the area of tourism in the region. He argues that what is needed in the Caribbean is a body of research in tourism that focuses on the empirical, theoretical and development aspects of tourism as a single development strategy or part of such a strategy. Similarly, in a paper on the future of hospitality education in Grenada, McDonald & Hopkin (2003) express unease about the lack of emphasis in the region on matters of relevance to the development of the sector’s human resources. Arguably, if one shares this perception, a strong argument can be made for a more focused debate on ‘island’ tourism education and training in general. This is particularly pertinent as islands by their nature are typically tourism destinations, heavily reliant on the tourism industry.

Evidently, there is much need for further advancement of the body of knowledge on tourism education and training with specific relevance to SIDS. Accordingly, this study
offers a novel view by approaching the investigation from an island perspective, from early childhood education throughout the various levels of formal and non-formal education and training, up to tertiary, adult and continuing education and industry training. Additionally, the study seeks to understand and then explain the impact of the characteristics the various organisations and institutions involved in the tourism education and training planning process. Therefore, the study aims to offer knowledge contribution of benefit to island destinations as well as the furtherance of tourism as an area of study.

Upon reflection, a key assumption which drove this investigation is the view of the researcher that a contextual perspective is vital in planning for the tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Moreover, the researcher believes that a comprehensive and calculated planning approach is essential to propel the growth of the local tourism industry. Further, the researcher holds the view that notwithstanding that the island operates within a regional framework, the true knowledge and understanding of a well suited education and training programme for the local industry lies within a clear understanding of the local culture and the nature of the local industry and by extension with the local stakeholders, policymakers, and tourism and education experts.

At this juncture then, it is pertinent to point out that since this study took on a national perspective of tourism education and training planning from an island standpoint, the research purposefully did not adopt a narrow research focus (as is normally the case) but deliberately adopted a broad view of the research puzzle 'as a whole' phenomenon. Hence, in developing the study one challenge constantly held in focus was the balancing of breadth against depth. The researcher thus, implores the reader to consider the element of 'small size' of Dominica in acquiring an appreciation for the research design.

1.4 Research Question, Aim and Objectives
As alluded earlier the Commonwealth of Dominica is a tourism-dependent Island State with a developing tourism industry which encompasses a wide cross section of
stakeholders with a vast range of interests. Also, as will be discussed in detail in chapter two, the island has a fully established education system. Against this background this thesis adopts the research question of whether it is possible to formulate a planning approach to tourism education and training in the context of a Small Island Developing State which is tourism-dependent and which could adequately satisfy the needs of all the various stakeholders. Thus, based on the previously discussed concerns the main aim of the study is to ascertain the most appropriate planning approach for tourism education and training for the Commonwealth of Dominica. To achieve this aim the study sought to gain deeper insight into the local tourism industry and the general educational and training programmes throughout the island. In addition, focus was placed on available programmes and existing planning processes for tourism education and training provision in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Within this context, this research took special interest in all the different levels of the formal education system, as well as in non formal training programmes. In that regard, the investigation takes on a broad yet comprehensive approach to seeking understanding and answers to the research concerns.

That being the case, to acquire such an overall perspective tailored to understand the approach to tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica the investigation sought to address the following specific objectives:

1. To identify and discuss the key principles of education and training and their relevance to the characteristics of the education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

2. To critically review the key characteristics of tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica and its relevance to the local industry.

3. To analyse the planning and implementation process of tourism education and training at the different levels of the education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.
4. To examine the key structures of the organisations and institutions involved in tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

5. To assess power relations within organisations and institutions and their relevance to the characteristics and challenges of the tourism industry and education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

6. To critically explore and apply expert opinion of the major issues and challenges encountered in planning tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

1.5 Thesis Structure

The study is organised into four main parts: the introduction and context; key concepts; research methodology and methods; and the research findings and conclusions. Part I which consists of the first two chapters provides a broad overview and background to the thesis. Chapter one presents the research problem, rationale, aims and objectives and thesis structure. Fundamental to this thesis is the need to have a clear understanding of the context within which the research is carried out. Thus, in chapter two a discussion of the case and the local environment is explored. The chapter is specifically designed to frame tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica within the wider Caribbean context.

Part II of the study, consisting of chapters three, four and five, deals with the theoretical concepts underpinning the thesis. It must be emphasised here that the chapters in this section are in keeping with the assumptions of a qualitative design and do not seek to identify theories which will be tested or falsified during the investigation; rather much of the existing body of theory are utilised in the last part of the study in building emerging theories from the data set during analysis. In this second part of the study the key theoretical arguments on education and training in general, and then more specifically
tourism education and training are explored in chapter three. Central to the discussions in this thesis is the concept of lifelong education. Thus, emphasis is placed on the principles governing education and training at the various levels of education from early childhood to adult and continuing education.

Subsequently, chapter four addresses two other theoretical concerns of the study. First, the chapter deals with the debate on organisational structural design and its impact on policy and decision-making approaches, highlighting the bureaucratic and adhocracy management styles. Relevant discussions on restructuring and organisational change are also presented. Thereafter, the chapter turns the reader's attention to the concept of power and its influence on organisational planning and decision making. Then, chapter five considers fundamental ideas on planning approaches relevant to the thesis. In so doing, it encapsulates the main debates on general planning and importantly curriculum planning and gives particular attention to strategic planning, collaboration and collaborative planning, as well as stakeholder involvement.

Part III of the study explores the methodological underpinnings and the method issues of the research in two separate but related chapters. In chapter six various philosophical matters of the research are considered with focus on the strengths and weakness of varying approaches, clarifying the positioning of the thesis, interpretivism and its appropriateness as the framework on which this investigation is hinged. Next, chapter seven first explicates the qualitative stance chosen as the study design, setting the background of the research strategy with a brief historical overview and clarifies the key procedures for the method of inquiry, interviewing. After this, the chapter delineates the various steps adopted during the investigation and exploration of the research problem. Care is taken to establish a clear trail of the techniques deployed throughout the data collection, transcription and analysis process.

The research primarily focused on 65 semi-structured in-depth expert interviews with tourism and education experts, as well as key public and private sector stakeholders. The interviews were conducted in three rounds allowing for simultaneous transcription and
Chapter 1: Introduction

analysis while in the field. This helped address quality and ethical issues and facilitated triangulation of the data with key documents, the emerging theories with existing theoretical literature, as well as provide for member check pivotal to the methodology of this research.

The final section, part IV, is organised in four chapters. These chapters explore the constructions and reconstructions of meaning and knowledge as it relates to the interpretations and views of the subjects in the sample. In this study the initial literature search served as a general guide for conceptualisation of the research focus. It did not directly drive the theoretical framework in which the thesis was finally grounded. Rather, the knowledge gained and understanding arrived at about the research puzzle unfolded in a cyclical process. Thus, chapters eight, nine and ten deal with the data findings and discussions around emerging themes, utilising the extant literature to elucidate on the findings, while building on new interpretations and understandings of tourism education and training planning in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Hence, as illustrated in figure 1, as new themes emerged new theoretical concepts had to be consulted in making sense of the research phenomena.

![Figure 1: Conceptualisation of the research process](image-url)
Four broad themes – principles, structure, power and process – were identified from the data set. Accordingly, chapter eight focuses on the ‘principles’ which governed tourism education and training planning in the Commonwealth of Dominica. As alluded earlier, discussions adopted a lifelong approach incorporating all the levels of formal and informal education and training. Then, chapter nine entails the contextual concerns of ‘structure’ and ‘power’ which impact on tourism education and training planning on the island. After which, chapter ten presents the main dynamics of the current ‘process’ and the experts’ conceptualisations of a proposed approach for advancing tourism education and training on the island.

Chapter eleven, the final of that part of the thesis presents the research conclusions. Additionally, it outlines the main findings and contributions to knowledge. Also, reflections on, and limitations of the research process are addressed. Then, the chapter ends by demarcating the implications of the study for tourism education and training and recommendations for future research.
Chapter Two: The Case Setting

2.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to set out the background to the phenomenon under study by presenting the context of the 'single case setting' of the investigation, in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Central to the discussions is the fact that over the last two decades Dominica's government has adopted tourism as one of its key strategies to national growth and development. As a result, it is imperative that the right approach for planning education and training is employed as the island seeks to develop the destination and become globally competitive.

The chapter is arranged into three main sections. Section 2.2 offers a brief overview of the challenges faced by small islands. In that regard the section focuses on Small Island Developing State (SIDS) with special focus on the Caribbean context.

Section 2.3 presents a synopsis of the local tourism industry. First, the historical perspective is explored in section 2.3.1; then the local product issues and challenges are explained in 2.3.2; while the tourism labour force and training needs are examined in sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4 respectively.

In section 2.4, the education and training environment in Dominica is discussed. The institutional framework is presented (section 2.4.1); the education policy and strategies are considered (section 2.4.2); and the structure of the education and training system is outlined (section 2.4.3) giving a broad overview followed by details of the various levels of early childhood to tertiary and adult education and training. Section 2.4.4 focuses on key curriculum issues of relevance to the case. Special emphasis is also placed on the national curriculum which Dominica's government has mandated for use in all schools, consistent with the 1997 Education Act.

The chapter ends in section 2.5 where the main arguments are summarised; highlighting the dynamics and intricacies of the tourism industry and the education and training system of the single case being researched.
2.2: Small Island Developing States (SIDS) - The Caribbean Context

Briguglio (1995) explains that many SIDS are greatly challenged due to their small size, insularity, remoteness, proneness to natural disasters, environmental fragility, dependence on foreign financial aid and demographic factors. In addition, Wint (2003) highlights several economic disadvantages including limited natural resource endowment, high import content, limitations on the extent to which they can diversify their economy, small domestic markets and heavy reliance on export markets, dependence on a narrow range of products, limited ability to exploit economies of scale, limitations of domestic competition and high per unit transport costs.

Nevertheless, Easterly and Kraay (2000) contend that empirical evidence shows that small states are no different from large states but in fact reflect on average higher income and productivity levels. Nevertheless, they do acknowledge that for small states per capita GDP growth rates are more volatile because of much higher levels of exposure to international trade and trade fluctuations. They also argue that growth disadvantages in small states are offset by the benefits of trade openness and the available opportunities of international risk sharing.

Conversely, Bacchus and Brock (1987) cite several inherent disadvantages which they deem pose challenges for SIDS. They hold that a limited population base results in very restricted internal markets for products and contributes to limited economies of scale. Further, Bacchus and Bock believe that the high degree of openness of these economies gives rise to outward economic integration at the expense of addressing internal economic problems. Other major challenges they observed were that of large amounts of public expenditure on services such as education, security and health. Moreover, costs of provision and administration of public services were relatively high proportionately, in comparison with that of larger nation states. Additionally, they opine that small islands tend to have problems in finance and often have difficulties in raising commercial loans and therefore tend to have a heavy reliance on foreign donors or suffer from aid dependency. Also very common among small islands is the problem of patronage and nepotism. This is because various sub-groups tend to be characterised by strong personal ties which frequently lead to maladministration and partiality.
Due to the increased pursuit of tourism by small islands as a potential means of socio-economic development, many scholars have focused on the range of unique challenges which they believe are encountered by these destinations. As a consequence a large portion of island tourism literature has been centred on economic development challenges (see for example Bastin 1984; Briguglio 1995; Croes 2006); sustainability development issues (Inskeep 1991; Conlin & Baum 1995; Cooper 1995; Briguglio 1995; Lockhart 1997; Apostolopoulos & Gayle 2002; Kokkranikal, McLellan & Baum 2003 among others) and in more recent years environment and climate change (Belle & Bramwell 2005 and others).

In the literature, the Caribbean is generally viewed as a single destination, however, as Jayawardena (2002) and Daye, Chambers and Roberts (2008) explain, as illustrated in figure 2, it is an archipelago of small islands states. Furthermore, these islands, these authors point out, vary greatly in size, population, culture and economic prosperity. In the past the region, like other SIDS elsewhere, had predominantly relied on the agricultural sector, but in recent decades these tropical islands have come to constitute a subset of microstates distinguished by their dependence on tourism (see de Albuquerque & McElroy 1992; McElroy 2003). These trends have led the restructuring of SIDS economies away from traditional exports of sugar, copra and bananas among other crops towards mass tourism and alternative niches. This, McElroy (2003) opines, has transformed the insular landscapes across the Caribbean and other SIDS. Moreover currently, in the Caribbean, tourism has been conceptualised as a key strategy for growth and development for individual islands and the region as a whole (Holder 2001; Poon 2001 and others).

However, for small islands like Dominica, with a relatively large portion of their limited resources allocated to the tourism industry, it is imperative that the sector is supported by a sound education and training system geared to the development of the knowledge base of the locals operating within the 'tourism world' (Tribe 1999). Although there have been several collaborative education and training initiatives by regional governments and by various tourism organisations, including the Caribbean Tourism Organisation, programme implementation at the national level in Dominica is weak.
Hence, the education and training of persons who manage the sector and who serve the tourists has become central to the tourism development agenda. More importantly, with increased globalisation, the negative impact of the recent global economic crisis, plus the increased demands from more informed customers and the inter-regional competition between the islands, there is urgent need for tourism professionals and highly skilled employees at the national level. Such factors present both a challenge and responsibility for governments in the Caribbean as they seek to facilitate and enhance the growth and competitiveness of the individual destinations.

Moreover, the ability to provide top level service, to create strong tourism awareness, general support and positive attitudes among citizens, clean tourism environments, good infrastructure and adequate support services to the sector is paramount. All of the above goals require an equally strong work force, a feature currently lacking in Dominica’s tourism industry. Adding to this argument, Holder (2001) laments that the tourism industry needs a new type of leader, the right personnel with an innovative mind, capable to respond immediately to change. Thus, central to the development of the regional tourism product is a focused national effort in development of its human resource through education and training.

If one is to support these arguments, it can be assumed that effective human resource and institutional development for tourism through education and training must be carefully planned and structured. Such a high level of organisation and shrewd approach can only be viable, if there is consensus between all sectors of the public. Moreover, planning is necessary not only for the present, but is even more essential in preparing and projecting for the future.

Though the Commonwealth of Dominica has long been an active member of the main regional tourism organisations such as Caribbean Tourism Organisation and Caribbean Hotel Association through its national tourism agency and the Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association, its development as a tourism destination lagged behind most, if not all the other islands in the region. Nonetheless, as a member country of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and a signatory to CARICOM Single Market and Economy among other treaties, the island has benefited from access to regional education and training programmes and initiatives. On a regional level there have been several
developments in policy formulation and planning; the establishment of institutes for tourism education in islands with a more advanced product; and efforts towards certification and standardisation of training programmes. Unfortunately, a problem in Dominica’s case has been one of poor, or lack of, implementation.

For many decades the island lacked an institution with a structured tourism education and training programme. Further, as already stated there has been a notable void in highly trained professionals to plan, design and implement programmes. Moreover, for Dominica, the various challenges delineated above could be a consequence of the normal hurdles faced by a relatively new tourism destination, as described in Butler’s 1980 Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model\(^1\) during the exploration to development phases (see also Butler 1993, 2005). Typically these constraints, Pearce (1987) points out, are often the result of small size, limited resources, diseconomies of scale, a low population and heavy reliance on foreign trade.

From this background, this thesis contends that if the Commonwealth of Dominica is to become regionally and internationally competitive and gain a significant market share, it must embrace the lessons learned by its sister islands (refer for example to Cuba’s experience in Wood and Jayawardena 2003) and aim to develop a relevant and efficient national tourism education and training support system for the local industry. In addition, creating the local mechanism and framework within which to implement such a system effectively and consistently is essential. Hence, in the Dominican context an effective strategy to tourism development should seek to produce a top level professionally trained human resource supply to manage and propel the growth of the island as a differentiated destination of choice in the region.

\(^1\) Butler’s tourism area cycle consists of six stages from exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and decline/rejuvenation (refer Butler 1980).
Chapter 2: The Setting

2.3 The Dominican Tourism Industry

Figure 3: Dominica's Tourism Structural Plan

2.3.1 A Historical Perspective

The Commonwealth of Dominica is a pristine, volcanic, mountainous 754 square kilometer Caribbean island. It is well known for its lush green rainforests, cascading waterfalls, dynamic rivers, sulphur springs and spars, adventurous terrain, marine dive sites, and rich culture, which Hudepohl (2008) claims is enjoyed by both locals and tourists alike. Over the years the island has capitalised on this endowment of natural beauty, differentiating itself as ‘the nature isle’ of the Caribbean (Hypolite, Green, & Burley 2002). Nevertheless, its rugged terrain has long been a significant challenge to the development of the destination. As a result, for decades the industry has been plagued with limited infrastructure, air and land access and visitor facilities at natural sites; factors all of great appeal to the mass tourism industry. Regardless, the island’s industry has survived on the basis of its long standing brand, ‘the nature isle of the Caribbean’.

Fortunately, with the upsurge of alternative tourism, more specifically eco-tourism, the Commonwealth of Dominica has turned its natural resources and topography into a competitive advantage, as one of the region’s premier nature destinations. Commenting on the island’s tourism product, Carter (2002) opines that the island is bequeathed with a rich ecosystem, plus a dazzling unparalleled natural product and resources with which few nations can compete. Hence, it seems natural to some (Boo 1990; Whelan 1991; Weaver 1991; Carter 2002) that the island has adopted a sustainable eco-tourism strategy in developing the industry. Moreover, the Commonwealth of Dominica, Weaver (1991) argues, is the only Caribbean island that has singled out an eco-tourism strategy due to its endowment of natural resources and its limitations of small size.

From the late 1970’s and early 1980’s the island sought to maximise its natural attributes for the economic and socio-cultural development of the country (Cater & Logman 1994; Weaver 1998). In so doing, deliberate efforts were engaged since 1971 to provide a unique visitor experience, as an alternative tourism destination (Weaver 1991) distinct from the 3S (sand, sea & sun) associated with the other Caribbean islands (Boxill & Severin 2004; Cameron & Gatewood 2008). Thus, the government has had as one of its key areas of focus in developing the tourism product, the provision of the basics for sustainable growth through partnership between the government, private sector and local
communities. Such efforts were geared towards not only the maximisation of the industry’s contribution to the local economy, but also to an enhanced quality of life on the island. In that regard Hypolite, Green and Burley (2002) suggest that for the period 1989 to 1993 the island enjoyed the highest annual increase in visitor expenditure in the Caribbean region. Nevertheless, the island’s tourism product for many years continued to lag behind other sister destinations with more advanced industries.

Deliberating on the development of the local tourism product de Romily & de Romily (1995) opine that the government of the Commonwealth of Dominica has acknowledged that if the sector has to be sustainable, in the long term the country would have to establish an institutional capacity to manage the fragile resource base upon which future ecotourism growth depends. Contemplating that objective, Caribbean Futures Ltd (1997) cites the island’s vision for growth as one geared to achieve sustainable, harmonised and holistic development. Further, they claim that another key percept held, is that every Dominican should be provided with the opportunity to have an education, a job, an affordable home, enjoy a reasonable standard of living and enjoy a high quality of lifestyle.

In the 1990’s the local industry moved from what Butler (1993) calls the stage of exploration and entered a period of growth. Among the developments, in 1997 the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) inscribed the island’s Morne Trois Pitons National Park as a world heritage site (UNESCO World Heritage Centre 1997). Plus, over the years the Commonwealth of Dominica benefited from several initiatives from various international donors which led to a number of infrastructural developments. In more recent years, the government has embarked on a detailed Ecotourism Development Strategy, which formed a part of the 1997 – 2002 National Tourism Development Plan to map the path for the country’s ecotourism development. Simultaneous to the above infrastructural developments (among others) and due to increased marketing efforts, the island gained in popularity both for its unspoilt natural beauty and festivals.
Chapter 2: The Setting

The Commonwealth of Dominica became the first country in the world to receive benchmark destination status from Green Globe 21, in October 2004. Between 2005 – 2008 the island received the Scuba Diving Award and the Reader's Choice Award from the Scuba Diving Magazine and was dubbed the whale watching capital of the Caribbean (Discover Dominica Authority 2008). During that period the industry also entered a new investment era with a number of new properties earmarked for construction. To date, the government continues to encourage foreign investment in the sector.

Data from the Dominica’s Central Statistics Office presented in Table 1 below indicates the visitor trends to the island between 2001 and 2007.

Table 1: Visitor arrivals, 2001 - 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Arrivals</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay-over tourists</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruise Pass</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruise Ship calls</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor Expenditure</td>
<td>125.35</td>
<td>122.93</td>
<td>141.35</td>
<td>163.71</td>
<td>153.97</td>
<td>193.56</td>
<td>201.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures in (000’s)

The Central Statistics Office Report (2008) indicates that total arrivals dropped between 2001 and 2003 but increased in 2004 with a slight decline in 2005. This trend in fluctuations continued between 2006 and 2007. However, the figures show that the demand for cruises remained buoyant.

In the 2008-2009 national budget the government reaffirmed its commitment to the advancement of the tourism industry. Thus, the Prime Minister highlighted that an excess of US$ 4.0 million had been allocated to marketing and promoting the island as a nature destination in the previous fiscal year 2007/08 (The Honourable Skerrit 2008). An additional development in 2008 was the launching of a two year Tourism Sector Development Programme (TSDP) financed through the European Union Special Framework of Assistance (SFA) in the sum of 2.7 million Euros. The central goals are to
enable continued growth and improved competitiveness of the tourism sector (Coward 2008).

However, due to a relatively small and untrained work force all these advances pose challenges to the development of the industry in terms of product quality and service delivery. In that regard, the chapter will now proceed by outlining some of the key issues encountered in the sector.

2.3.2 Product Issues and Challenges

The tourism industry in Dominica consists of mainly small enterprises. Further, the accommodation sector comprises predominantly small properties, with the largest hotels (at the time of this research) having 71, 31 and 35 rooms respectively. Generally, of the properties are locally owned and managed, with many of these facilities and services not competitive by modern international standards. This situation remains fairly much the same today with the exception of a few hotels having undergone some level of expansion as well as investment in a few new establishments. At the same time small properties have sought to maximise their limitation of size to fit into the eco lodge concept. To that end, a number of properties acquired Green Globe 21 Certification, furthering the standards of the national product. Nonetheless, several properties remain below the requirements of international standards.

The CHL 2000 Financing Proposal for the Ecotourism Development Programme concurs that the tourism product in the Commonwealth of Dominica is limited by its size. It also claims that due to the quality of many of the operations, the tourism structure is weak. According to the report, the accommodation sector on the island (at that time) comprised of a total of 208 hotel rooms, 113 guest houses rooms and between apartments and cottages, an additional 79 rooms. Nevertheless, further growth in the sector continues to occur due to new entrants and general investment in the industry. Table 2 below shows the level of growth in the accommodation stock between 1997 and 2005.
### Table 2: Structure of the Dominica tourism sector, 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility/Service</th>
<th>Number of Properties/operations</th>
<th>Number of Rooms/units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accommodation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) hotels/resorts (26+ rooms)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) guesthouses</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) apartments</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Accommodation</strong></td>
<td>59</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Restaurant</strong>*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Craft/Gift Shops</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Taxi Services</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tour Operators/Car Rental</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dive Operators</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tour Guides</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* International standard, outside of hotels/guesthouses

The CHL Financing Proposal 2000 highlighted various challenges in the sector: (1) a small number of restaurants which offer poor services for relatively high prices; (2) the shortage of skilled and trained personnel across sector; (3) though the standard of service within the industry was remarkably friendly it lacked ‘professionalism’ (sic); (4) craft supervisory and management skills needed improvement (5) there was weak customer care ethos and (6) lack of appropriate training facilities (CHL Consulting Group 2000).

Generally, labour in the tourism industry is viewed as a cost factor. Rarely is it considered as an input factor that could add value in its own right. In Dominica, though tourism development on the one hand seems pivotal at a policy and national level, on the other hand education and training of the human resource that serves and drives the industry seems secondary. A key challenge is the level of expertise among the main players in the industry remains relatively low. Moreover, training for tourism has been and continues to be purely occupational, restricted to particular jobs or positions.

Another problem identified was the weak link between the tourism and other sectors which strongly interfaced with the industry. Therefore, establishing strong linkages between the local tourism industry and other key sectors such as agriculture, culture, art
and entertainment, energy, and telecommunications, among others is vital and widely advocated. To achieve the sustained industry growth that the island is currently seeking, this to some, is critical. Moreover, it is necessary to adopt and place emphasis on developing internationally competitive standards in all sub-sectors and businesses, as well as among public sector players. Additionally, integration of local customs and traditions needs to receive heightened attention in order to enhance the unique and authentic visitor experience which the island offers, whilst at the same time preserving and valorising the local culture. Nevertheless, there was the concern that weaving of the curriculum to merely address the needs of a particular sector is short sighted and limited in the scope of long term national development.

On a broader level, there are regional policies which impact on the Commonwealth of Dominica's development strategy. Currently, the Caribbean region is embarking on implementation of a single market economy. This initiative allows for free movement of skilled labour among the islands (CARICOM 2009), leading to the possible loss of human resources in the island, particularly in the areas of investors, entrepreneurs and trained professionals. Certainly, that compounds the already high level of migration, as citizens continue to be attracted to other developed and developing countries in search of better opportunities.

Another point of concern was the decline of the national economy during the period 2000-2005; a situation largely due to the near collapse of the banana industry which for decades was the mainstay of the island's economy. Efforts at stabilising the economy through a three year International Monetary Fund arrangement induced a severe structural adjustment programme which brought with it major reductions in earnings. This resulted in the introduction of a 3% stabilisation tax for a period of two years, major job cuts and privatisation of many government services.

These constraints meant that the government was unable to allocate much financial resources towards education and training for the tourism sector. Nevertheless, enhancing the quality of service is pivotal to the customer experience and is inextricably linked to the long term development of the industry. Thus, one could conclude that if the industry is to attain the much sought after development and gain a competitive edge in the global market, a drastic change towards education and training is vital. The argument proposed
in this thesis is that education and/or training programmes for all players and conceivable stakeholders is critical. Furthermore, it is essential that tourism improves its performance and contributes to the economic stabilisation/recovery that the Commonwealth of Dominica is currently seeking.

The central argument here is that tourism is a people based industry. And the industry needs a very high level of trained and efficient personnel, as well as a population with a high level of awareness of the industry's importance to economic and social development. Moreover, in Dominica, tourism is coined and rigorously promoted as 'everybody's business'. Thus, tourism education and training, as well as public awareness are fundamental in ensuring greater public involvement and participation in the national drive in tourism development.

2.3.3 The Dominican Tourism Labour Force

As is commonly said, tourism is a service and labour-oriented industry. Gill (1997) states that this industry provides several times more employment than that provided by normal manufacturing industries. In the case of the Commonwealth of Dominica, the World Travel & Tourism Council (2007) reports that for 2007, 1 in every 4.4 jobs were projected to be in tourism with an increase to 1 in every 3.2 by 2017. Nevertheless, Hjalager and Anderson (2001) hold the view that generally within the tourism industry there is not a distinct career system with clear career paths. They opine that staff usually comes from quite varied experiences and educational backgrounds usually irrelevant to the industry. Moreover, Cowell and Crick (2004) suggest that work within the industry is often viewed as servitude. This they argue further contributes to the limited number of tourism trained employees within the industry.

Given the small size of the island, its limited population, the absence of formal tourism education training for several decades, limitations resulting from the lack of a highly qualified and specialised trained labour force is common place throughout the local sector. In a majority of the enterprises the labour force tends to operate on a part time, seasonal or contract basis. Also, personnel tend to be unskilled, untrained or not tourism qualified. As a result there is usually a very high rate of staff turnover leading to constant
training challenges. This is in keeping with literature concepts, that tourism employment is generally skilled and unskilled, seasonal and perennial. Hence, the earlier view of Conlin and Baum (1995) that the development of human resources and education and training, could emerge as the single most important issue facing island tourism seems to pertain even today.

Table 3 below shows the results of a Caribbean Tourism Organisation survey which indicated the nature of tourism labour force in Dominica.

Table 3: Source of tourism staff in the Commonwealth of Dominica

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE OF STAFF</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Professionals</th>
<th>Skilled/ Semi-skilled</th>
<th>Unskilled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Tourism</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institutions</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Tourism</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Tourism</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institutions</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>58.9%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary/Elementary School</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>26.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Caribbean Tourism Organisation (1999)

As shown in the table 3 above generally there is a recognisable dearth in the number of persons employed within the industry who have been formally trained. The survey results show that though a fair amount of managers have obtained professional training the majority of the staff in sector has not. Fortunately, the Commonwealth of Dominica has accepted that it cannot fully realise its potential or contend within the regional and world wide tourism market whilst it remains devoid of a very high calibre of human resources.
Consequently, tourism education and training are now viewed as primary components in the future success of the local tourism industry. This position is highlighted in policy statements at the national government level. For instance, in 2002 the then Minister of Tourism stated:

Dominica will continue to develop the appropriate standards, necessary training and opportunities for capacity building, and appropriate tourism regulatory and legislative framework that would ensure proper implementation and monitoring of activities within the tourism sector. (Savarin 2002)

Such goals are geared to alleviate the deficiency in a trained labour supply, poor quality service, lack of a unified approach towards ‘the nature island’ ecotourism product and the limited national awareness of the economic benefits of the tourism industry. To that end the specific education and training needs of the local sector are now discussed below.

2.3.4 Tourism Education & Training Needs

The main training needs assessments for the Commonwealth of Dominica were conducted by the Caribbean Tourism Organisation (CTO) in 1998-1999 and 2000-2004. As stated in the report the CTO studies sought to identify the existing level of skill deficiency primarily to inform the governments’ and training institutions’ human resource and training decisions. Results of the studies are shown in tables 4 and 5 which follow on page 28.

Based on a Man Power Training Plan and Policy development consultancy document, produced for the island in 2004, the level of education and training needs dropped between the two periods. However, the greatest needs among industry managers remained in the area of marketing, foreign languages, human resource management, leadership and computer literacy (Caribbean Tourism Organisation 1999; Valiant 2004). At the lower level of employment, customer relations and communication skills were deemed the most deficient. Further, according to the report among other areas, future emphasis was necessary on marketing for managers and customer relations for skilled/semi-skilled and unskilled workers (Valiant 2004).
### Table 4: Dominica tourism industry training needs, 1999

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRAINING NEEDS (1999)</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>Professionals</th>
<th>Skilled/ Semi-skilled</th>
<th>Unskilled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management Financial/Accounting</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Literacy</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Relations</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>51.2%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Languages</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Caribbean Tourism Organisation (1999)

### Table 5: Dominica tourism industry training needs, 2000 - 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management Financial/Accounting</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Literacy</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Relations</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Languages</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that according to Valiant’s (2004) report industry training needs remain essential in some key areas could be a reflection of a lack of sustained approach to the development of the human resources to serve the sector. Further, up to the time of the consultancy report, industry training was provided in an *ad hoc* fashion by the national tourism agency. In addition, as reflected in the results of the past studies, little consideration was given to education and training outside the scope of the immediate instrumental needs. In short there was very little forward thinking and planning. Therefore, one may argue that a broader and more comprehensive approach is required to address the human resource developmental needs, to encompass the national vision and goals for Dominica as a tourism destination.

As earlier contended, such a plan should take on a national dimension inclusive of both the formal and informal education and training system. Moreover, education of the young, the future entrants to the sector, is vital if Dominica’s tourism aspirations as expressed in the tourism policy and masterplan are to be realised. Hence, with a view to continue establishing the background of the study, the education system in Dominica is explored in the following sections.

2.4 Education and Training in the Commonwealth of Dominica

“As the greatest resource of any country a people’s potential can only be realised through a system of education relevant to the aspirations, needs and development goals of that country”. (Andrew 2000:1)

This view expressed above by a local Education Officer (Andrew 2000) exemplifies the significance of the quality of the human resource supply to national development. In recognition of this precept the current government has as one of its main political objectives to empower the citizenry through education by striving to have at least one university graduate per household by 2015 (Henderson 2007).
2.4.1 Institutional Framework

Currently, the entire education system in Dominica is managed by the Ministry of Education and governed by the 1997 Education Act. Hence, The Minister of Education, supported and advised by the Permanent Secretary oversees national educational policy and programmes.

2.4.2 Education Policy and Strategies

In Dominica, the cabinet comprising mainly politically elected officials, based on the advice of the Minister of Education is responsible for national education policy. Generally, the local education policy represents a collaborative strategy among the islands in the sub-region of the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS). Additionally, joint initiatives such as the Regional Vocational and Technical Education Project 1987 – 1995; the OECS Education Reform Strategy and Education for All are among the major international donor projects, which Steward and Edwards (2001) claim defines a ‘projectised’ approach to the development in the education sector in Dominica.

All the same, according to Steward and Edwards (2001), the OECS Reform Strategy is possibly the single most influential element shaping education in Dominica in the 1990s. This led to policy positions being advanced in the form of the Dominica Basic Education Project during 1990 – 1995; an effort which may signify the first planned initiative to promote innovation in the education sector (Steward & Edwards 2001). This reform project was funded through collaboration with the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and co-financed by the World Bank. It focused on the following three key components (1) Strengthening Management and Planning (2) Qualitative Improvement of Basic Education and (3) Expansion and Conservation of School places.

Under the above mentioned project the new Education Act came into effect in 1997. It was the first such act to be legalised as part of the Organisation for Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) Education Reform Initiative. Importantly, and of relevance to this study, one key recommendation of the 1997 Act was the implementation of a national curriculum, which was introduced and developed in stages, first at the primary level.
Later on, additional developments led to the introduction of Universal Secondary Education, first piloted in one school in 1999 and later implemented island wide.

2.4.3 Structure of the Education and Training System

2.4.3.1 Overview

The formal education system in the Commonwealth of Dominica as shown in table 6 below is structured into four levels: early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary education. In addition, as reflected in table 6, special education is provided for in two centres, the government owned School for the Hearing Impaired and the Alpha Centre (privately owned) for the physically and mentally challenged students of compulsory school age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
<th>Provider</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early childhood</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>all private with limited assistance from government</td>
<td>2 – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>54 government</td>
<td>4.3 – 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 government assisted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 fully private</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6 government</td>
<td>12 – 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 government assisted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 private</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 government</td>
<td>16 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 private</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing Impaired</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Government funded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alpha Centre for the</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Private with government assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally Challenged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Andrew (2000)

Except for early childhood education, the government is the main body with responsibility for basic education on the island. However, religious organisations (Roman Catholic, Methodist and Seventh Day Adventist) are significantly involved in
provision of education and are responsible for 22.4% of enrolment at the primary and over 46.4% at the secondary level (Andrew 2000). Despite this, the government assists these religious institutions by meeting the salary costs of staff.

The organisational structure, shown in figure 4, for decades was based on a combination of the British and North American education systems.

However, due to changes required under the United Nations' Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Education for All (EFA) Programme, the system benefited from a straight conversion to grades, in keeping with the most modern international education systems.

### 2.4.3.2 Early Childhood Education

In the Commonwealth of Dominica, it is quite common for children to start attending school at the earlier age of three. According to the Basic Education Reform Project Report, education at that level is voluntary and still in its early stages of development.
Chapter 2: The Setting

(World Bank 1995). This pre-primary phase is commonly referred to as pre-school in Dominica, since formal education generally begins at age five with primary education.

Early childhood care and development on the island is supplied by private providers; the two key players being the Social Centre and the Christian Children Fund (Andrew 2000). In addition, there are a number of small providers throughout the various communities on the island bringing the total to eighty four.

Regardless, the Ministry of Education supervises the early childhood centres and provides regulatory and monitoring functions. The government also ensures that suitable facilities and a uniform curriculum is maintained island wide. Further, the Ministry assists with teacher training and limited funding is provided to a few schools. Direct government expenditure is mainly in the areas of salaries of an Assistant Education Officer and training coordinator; as well as in small grants and subventions (Williams 2001).

In keeping with the trend throughout the Caribbean, where governments’ investment in education begins at primary education after critical shaping takes place (Williams 2001), over the years there has been no major direct government involvement in early childhood provision. However, in recent times there have been increasing concerns on the quality of the learning experiences provided. Therefore, consideration is now given to ensuring a more formal approach. In that regard, early child education and care training has been introduced as part of the programme offering at the Dominica State College. As a motivating factor to acquiring this training, financial assistance is provided by government.

Currently, the principles of High/Scope are being considered for implementation. The main features are: one, the Child Observation Record (COR) which is an observation-based assessment instrument; and two, the Key Developmental Indicators (KDI) which describe the social, cognitive and physical growth of the students (Fatt & Davies 2005). The aim of the programme is to ensure improved standards and quality of early childhood education. In addition, Fatt and Davies (2005) hold that the key practices of High/Scope, COR and KDI enhance the child’s preparation for formal schooling and in the long term entry into the world of work.
2.4.3.3 Primary Education

Primary education in Dominica has long received government's support. For instance, The Minister of Education, in a 1980 Education Policy Statement remarks that “the development of primary education must have priority attention. [As] unless the foundation at primary level is strengthened, one cannot look for much improvement at the secondary or higher levels” (Stewards & Edwards 2001:1). From the 1960's there has been universal access to primary education which is compulsory for a period of ten years. Yet, Steward and Edwards state that, a 1981 UNESCO Education Sector Survey, reports that education had largely been inappropriate and inadequate and needed much reform. Hence, in the 1990's the regional Basic Education Reform Project was a welcomed initiative.

As earlier shown in figure 4, primary education encompasses a two-year infant stage, then a five year stage of regular schooling. Generally, over the years the curriculum has been subject based and geared towards preparation for entry into secondary education. At the end of the seventh year, in grade 6 (more or less if any level was repeated and/or skipped) students prior to 2006 wrote a two day Common Entrance Exam (CEE) for entry into the secondary school system. In that era the number of students selected was predetermined by the Ministry of Education based on the then number of available spaces in Form I at the secondary level. A number of scholarships and bursaries were awarded to top students, to alleviate part of the cost for secondary education. Unsuccessful young students obtained a second opportunity the following year, while those who failed [to be selected] remained within the primary system for an additional three years before writing the national school leaving examinations.

However, the government in its drive to increase equity in education provision transformed the CEE and now provides Universal Secondary Education for all students. The new examination, called Grade Six National Assessment, which became fully effective in the school year 2006/2007, serves to rank students among those writing the exams for entry into secondary education. Scholarships and bursaries are still awarded to a predetermined number of top performing students, but all students are now assured of a natural progression onto secondary education at the end of primary education.
Chapter 2: The Setting

2.4.3.4 Secondary Education

In the earlier era, the last three years of compulsory schooling represented the Junior Secondary Programme (JSP). That programme which was introduced in 1981 in all-age Primary Schools, focused on the development of community skills in Form I and pre-vocational skills in Forms II and III. The programme at that time was developed to cater for the large number of students who did not qualify for entry into secondary schooling at the annual Common Entrance Exam. After attending JSP some students, based on their performance on the school leaving examinations, opt to continue onwards into the mainstream secondary education at the level of Form II or Technical College, while others moved on to the world of work.

Later on, the introduction of a Technical Vocational Programme (TVP) negatively impacted the Junior Secondary Programme, and it was slowly phased out. The TVP offered an alternative (to secondary education) to the upper fraction of students not successful (earlier on) at the Common Entrance Exams. The programme had a heavy technical and vocational base curriculum and offered subject areas such as agriculture, woodwork, food and nutrition, home management, garment making and typing. Graduates of that programme were able to write the London College of Communication Exams.

The traditional secondary system, in contrast, began with Form I and ended after five years (for the students who did not repeat classes) with the regional Caribbean Examination Council Exams (CXC), at the basic or general level depending on the student's abilities. Students with good CXC results (passes in five or more subjects) and who desired to move onto tertiary education, could seek entry to the state owned college or other overseas institutions.

The onset of Universal Secondary Education in 2005/2006 led to many challenges for the secondary education system. For example, all students had to be accommodated within the same number of schools, with limited capacity and resources. In addition, the expertise among teaching and management staff to deal with the vast differences in learning abilities and/or challenges for most schools was lacking. Further, drop out rates
increased significantly. In acknowledging these among other issues, the government is now embarking on a number of remedial initiatives.

Such efforts are ongoing and include: expansion of selected secondary schools; developing infrastructure for technical subjects; enforcement of a zoning system to facilitate student attendance to schools within their locale; and the training of all teachers on the island. Significantly poor performance rates of a large number of entrants to secondary education revealed weaknesses in the primary system. Accordingly, a literacy programme at the primary level which was launched in 2006 gained significance in enabling realisation of growth and productivity objectives.

2.4.3.5 Tertiary Education

Table 7: Tertiary education in the Commonwealth of Dominica

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tertiary Education in Dominica</th>
<th>Government Funded Institutions</th>
<th>Other Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ross University School of Medicine</td>
<td>All Saints University (also medical)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Universities of the West Indies</td>
<td>- both foreign/external providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Open Campus)</td>
<td>Business Training Centre (BTC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica State College</td>
<td>- private/local provider</td>
<td>Resource Development International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(RDI) - foreign/external provider</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Andrew (2000); Alfred (2005)

As shown in table 7 above there are two public funded tertiary institutions; two offshore medical institutions; one other foreign provider (distance learning); and one institute of private Dominican origin.

Tertiary education centred at the Clifton Dupigny College of Arts Science and Technology until 2002 consisted of a technical and academic division. Over the years,
development and mergers at these institutions advanced into the formation of one unit. In 2002 the government implemented The Dominica State College (DSC) Act 4 of 2000, but the formal launching of College as a tertiary education institution did not take place until 2003. The Teachers Training College and the Princess Margaret Hospital School of Nursing are now all under this one umbrella institution. The DSC offers associate degrees in a number of programmes from the following faculty options: Education, Applied Arts and Technology, Arts and Sciences, Health Sciences and Continuing Studies Division. The DSC currently offers an associate degree in Tourism and Hospitality Studies through its Continuing Studies Division.

In addition, the University of the West Indies (UWI), the leading regional government owned university, has four campuses based in Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and an open campus. Prior to 2008 the university provided its programmes through a Distance Education Centre or UWIDEC in Dominica. Now The Open Campuses handles all programmes of the UWI twelve former non campus islands. The ‘new campus’ utilises the concept of blended learning as the means of delivery (print, online resources, e-tutorials, audio-conferencing, and face-to-face) and Moodle to facilitate provision of their programmes to what was previously conceptualised as the non-campus territories such as Dominica.

Further, the two medical universities, Ross University School of Medicine and All Saints University which provide educational opportunities in the field of medicine for foreign nationals are also open to Dominicans. Ross University through the government currently offers two scholarships to Dominicans on an annual basis.

The Resource Development International (RDI) provides distance education up to Master’s level in collaboration with a number of universities. Degrees are pursued from the University of Leicester, University of Sunderland and Edexcel, Sheffield Hallam University and The Chartered Institute of Marketing. A Master of Science in International Hospitality Management is offered through Sheffield Hallam University. The locally owned Business Training Center offers a variety of study options at diploma, certificate and associate degree levels. The center works in partnership with extra-regional institutions for some of their programmes.
2.4.3.6 Adult Education

The Ministry of Community Development and Culture through its Adult Education Division provides educational opportunities for individuals aged 15 plus who have not completed primary education. The division is staffed with an Adult Education Officer, Field Supervisor, 6 Zone Officers, and 2 Office Staff members.

The main aims of this organisation are to provide basic literacy and continuing lifelong education skills. Additionally, they focus on helping adults improve the relevant skills to become self-reliant and independent. Most of the zonal initiatives are implemented on a needs basis.

2.4.3.7 Training

Several government departments and private sector organisations conduct training to address their specific needs as they arise or are required by new initiatives.

The Youth Development Division engages in several training initiatives. Through a general Youth Skills Training Programme a broad range of training opportunities is made available island-wide on a needs basis. Among other major projects are the Youth Skills Programme and the Dominica Youth Business Trust (DYBT). The DYBT is a joint initiative between the Commonwealth Youth Programme and the Government of Dominica. It provides training and support for young people aged 18-35 to establish sustainable small businesses.

The Discover Dominica Authority and the Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association conduct sporadic training as necessary to the needs of funded projects and specific sub sectors of the industry.

2.4.4 The Curriculum

As explained in the National Curriculum Framework for Dominica (2006), prior to 1980, the curriculum utilised was school based for both primary and secondary schools. There were few curriculum guides in subjects at the primary level and none at the secondary
level. The Common Entrance Examinations largely drove the primary school curriculum, while the secondary school curriculum was driven by the syllabi, textbooks and Caribbean Council Examinations. However, the Education Act of 1997, section 137 made statutory provision for the Ministry of Education to establish a national curriculum for public and assisted schools; these efforts were initiated in 1997.

The launch of the Universal Secondary Education initiative, discussed earlier, was in response to parental demands for increased access to secondary education and as a direct attempt to improve the quality of education on the island. This shift in educational structure was followed by the introduction of a national curriculum to the schools in 2006. According to the National Curriculum Framework for Dominica (2006), the Ministry of Education policy for Universal Secondary Education has since brought about an increase intake, moving from less than 40% in 1995, to 90% of the intake in 2004 and a greater diversity in students entering secondary schools.

Interestingly, these changes as mentioned before brought to the fore recognition of low literacy and numeracy attainment at the primary level, especially from the rural less advantaged areas. It also led to a drastic increase in repetition rates and new frustrations among students and staff, as a result of the vast gap and range of students’ performance and abilities.

The second 1997 initiative, the implementation of the Basic Education Reform along with the Secondary Support Projects, led to the expansion of the secondary system and the training of personnel. This allowed for the establishment of a fully trained curriculum unit within the Ministry of Education and the development of the secondary curricula in language, arts, mathematics, science and social studies (National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2006).

The aims of the National Curriculum of Dominica are to: (1) diminish differences in curriculum offerings among schools; (2) reduce inequality of provision to schools and hence improve equity; (3) improve communication among stakeholders as the curriculum would be common to all; (4) provide for progress and continuity in learning from grade to grade, and from one school level to the next; (5) raise standards by providing schools
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with clear programmes of study and attainment targets, which could act as national yardsticks to measure performance (National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2006).

Also, the principles of the national curriculum are geared to reflect the needs of the individual learner and the society. Thus, the curriculum is organised to enable learners to acquire the attitudes, knowledge and skills they require in order to function productively in the world of work. For instance,

Cognisance is paid to Dominica’s current and future economic development, as well as the impact social challenges may, and currently, do pose. [As such] while it may not be possible to predict future employment trends, [one of the apparent thrusts] ...... is support to a burgeoning tourist sector. (National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2006:6)

Hence, the prevailing national focus on tourism as a means of economic advancement, in combination with the government’s assumptions on the role of education and training makes it germane for the Commonwealth of Dominica to critically analyse its policy and national plans for tourism education and training. However, to ensure that all pertinent issues and needs of affected interest groups are considered, all actors at the various levels of education and training, the public and private sectors and other relevant national service providers and tourism stakeholders must engage in the process.

2.5 Conclusions

The chapter explained that the government of the Commonwealth of Dominica is presently pursuing concerted efforts to develop the local tourism industry as a key development strategy. In that regard several international funded product development initiatives have been launched over the years. Overall, projects implemented to advance the sector have been in keeping with the precepts of sustainable ecotourism. As such efforts have been geared at maintaining the pristine features of the island while at the same time differentiating Dominica as a destination of choice in the Caribbean region.

However, typical of the nature of the tourism labour force, Dominica’s tourism is limited by the lack of highly skilled and professionally trained employees. In an attempt to address this problem, the national tourism agency has been involved in industry training,
but unfortunately these have been intermittent and short term in nature. Furthermore, until recently there has been no formal tourism education or training offered on the island. Thus, the onset of the associate degree programme at the Dominica State College is now a welcome change.

Nevertheless, tourism education and training within the formal school system remains *ad hoc*. Although the well established education institutions discussed in detail in this chapter offer some form of tourism education and training programmes, these have been largely inadequate and unsustainable. It is therefore necessary that careful thought and planning be placed on the education and training needs for the local tourism industry. Moreover, due to the low level of professionally trained and highly skill employees throughout the industry, compounded by the great void in provision of organised and properly implemented education and training opportunities, this thesis seeks to investigate the need for a planned national approach to tourism education and training which would cater to the needs of all aspects of the local industry.

That being so, the study develops in part II by exploring relevant education, training, tourism education and training, structural and planning theoretical concepts which underpin the phenomenon of this thesis.
PART II: LITERATURE REVIEW

This second part of the thesis is devoted to a review of the extant literature and comprises three chapters which entail discussions on the key theoretical concepts framing the research.

First, chapter three deals with the main principles of education, training and the curriculum. In so doing, it focuses on the fundamental ideas that help set the broad debates that underpin any education and training programme. Then it explores similar pivotal ideas in the area of tourism education and training.

Next, chapter four presents key theoretical discussions on organisational structure and the concept of power as observed within organizations. This chapter has particular significance in understanding the environment in which tourism education and training is observed and researched in this study, within the context of a developing Small Island State.

Finally, chapter five reviews the fundamental concepts of planning. Specifically, emphasis is given to the planning approaches which were identified as appropriate to the local context of the study.

It must be again explained here, as stated in chapter one, that in this research the literature was advanced in a cyclic fashion as the investigation proceeded and did not serve to direct the study in a unidirectional manner. That is, the literature search and review emerged throughout the entire project as the process unfolded. For that reason, the body of literature is utilised sparingly in this section and then also later in part IV in the discussions of the empirical findings.
Chapter Three: Principles: Education, Training & Tourism Education and Training

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews fundamental concepts and theoretical underpinnings of education, training, the curriculum, and tourism education and training in order to set the foundation for the development of this research.

The discussions on education begin in section 3.2. Focus is also placed on its definitions, core aims and pivotal concepts. The main debate reveals that education is a process which facilitates knowledge acquisition and transmission and the development of the individual for the better good of society.

In section 3.3 the arguments underpinning education at the levels of early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary and higher education and adult and continuing education are presented. As explained, skill development and educational growth is deemed to progress with complexity as one moves along the various levels of the education system. Generally, formal education during schooling is based on a subject perspective with the exception of early childhood education which tends to be traditionally of a child centred orientation.

Section 3.4 highlights elements and principles of training which are based on the transmission of task related skills with less attention on underlying concepts and meaning. The concepts surrounding curriculum issues are later examined in section 3.4 with emphasis placed on the national curriculum in section 3.5 due to its relevance to the case. Also, the key conceptual ideas within the tourism education and training literature are explored in sections 3.5 and tourism curriculum in 3.6. The chapter then culminates in section 3.7 with a recap of central ideas presented and the resulting conclusions drawn.
3.2 Education: Definition and Key Concepts

Education, Cole (2004:350) opines, is geared at provision of “basic instruction in knowledge and skills designed to enable people to make the most of life in general” and tends to be “personal and broadly based”. Kneller (1967) believes that knowledge acquisition and gaining thorough understanding of ideas are among the key goals of education. In his view, education allows one to unearth new data and facts, internalise the new material and then develop the ability to disseminate them to others. For Peters (1981:30), as expressed in his seminal writings, education is the process “which allows one to come to have some body of knowledge and allows one to possess some kind of conceptual scheme to raise the knowledge acquired above the level of a collection of disjointed facts”. In essence, these views imply that education enables an individual to gain new information and to have an in-depth appreciation of its related and underpinning theories.

It appears that to Kneller and Peters, the educated individual should be able to make the necessary links with other and/or new data obtained. Also, it seems that knowledge acquisition must be very broad covering a cross section of disciplines, while at the same time cutting across diverse spheres of life. In addition, one may conclude that, according to Peters, education facilitates the ability to reason and develop the cognitive insight to pull different aspects of acquired knowledge into one whole.

Another concept Peters (1981) presents is that change must occur – attaining a transformed outlook on life – in the individual who has been educated; a sign that the information acquired is understood and internalised. In other words, information attained must be translated into new ways of seeing and doing things. In this light, Peters (1981) gives some insight into the significance of not just having the cognitive requirements of being educated, but also having the added value of “meaning”. So it can be agreed that in many ways Peters’ definition laid the foundation for much advancement in educational theory.
Chapter 3: Principles of Tourism Education and Training

Thomson (1957), Barnett (1990) and Lawton and Gordon (1993) all emphasise that education must not be carried out in a morally objectionable manner; but rather with the learner fully aware of the processes involved. This argument raises several key issues and questions. For example, at what point in life should education begin? Should parents continue to initiate their children into schooling before they become fully aware of the principles of the education process they are exposed to? Certainly, most of this responsibility has been given to the wider society in determining when schooling begins and ends. Moreover, it can be argued that this level of educational awareness would not be reached until early adolescence for most normal individuals. The debate of learner awareness also touches on the issue of 'educational readiness' and the significance of the individual's predisposition to learning. These concepts are of much concern to education planners and of relevance to this investigation and therefore will be revisited throughout the thesis as the discussions proceed.

Continuing the education debate, Farrell, Kerry, and Kerry (1988) commenting on Rousseau's (1911) writings on his quintessential educational text 'Emile', opines that education comes through experience; a process which unfolds throughout the life cycle from infancy to adulthood. Rousseau and Farrell et al advocate education which was child centred based on the work of Froebel 1782-1852, and age appropriate with a view of formation of the 'natural man'. This idea has since been developed by many writers (Peters 1972; Tough 1981; Allman 1982) who appear to agree that education should be centred on the formative years with its termination marked at the point of attaining social maturity. Such concepts are still widely held today (Tzuo 2007) and apparently frame the foundation of many current education systems, where there is a strong link made to the type of knowledge and learning engaged in at the various levels of schooling. These ideas also underpin the key educational debate in this research and will be given special attention as the theoretic debate is advanced.

In his contribution to the education discourse, Moore (1993) holds that education is a process which reveals in the individual specific talents and capabilities that facilitate realisation of one's full human potential in such a way that the individual's overall
contribution may be to the greater good of society (see also Parkay and Hass 2000; Demir & Paykoc 2006). Thus, Moore (1993) advances much earlier conceptualisations by addressing the issue of an enhanced capability to unearth innate abilities to make the type of contribution that would lead to the betterment of humankind. This could be linked to Gunn’s (1998b) thoughts of education of the ‘whole person’ – the educated individual. In this sense, and supporting Barrow and Millburn (1990), education according to Gunn is directed at expanding the individual’s awareness of the human environment and how he or she should cope with it. Gunn’s views also expanded on the concept of the ‘educated man’ (O’Connor 1957; Hirst 1965; Peters 1972; Dearden 1984; Nash, Kazamias and Perkinson 2007) to give attention to the individual’s own interests, needs, capabilities and aspirations. Clearly, Gunn focuses on the entire individual and gives importance to a well formed personality and a wholesome individual in tune with the environment. Such ideas could be argued to underpin later advanced views of education being contextualised (Cornbleth 1990; Jeffs and Smith 1990; Smith & Cooper 2000).

Also brought to the fore is the role of the school in educating individuals for contributing to nation building and for the general betterment of a society (Peters 1972; Tough 1981; Farrell et al 1988; Allman 1982; and Moore, 1993). Education is therefore viewed as vital to national development and an integral tool in fulfilment of governments’ and political agendas. Does this position, then, introduce into the debate the issue of national control of the education system and suggest the utilisation of relevant curriculum and other administrative systems to facilitate this responsibility of the school system in national development? One could contend that if such broad educational goals are to be fulfilled, much detailed planning, clear policy directives and concerted implementation effort is critical in ensuring that relevant goals, aims and visions are translated right down to the day to day activities in the classroom.

Careful analysis of Moore’s definition of education appears to reveal that he does not seem to be advocating much deviation from the national norm, or on the development of programmes geared towards goals or policies outside of the national focus. Rather, he seems to opine that emphasis should placed on development of the individual’s capacity

The literature also reflects that generally education is viewed as an in-school learning experience leading to, upon successful completion, a certificate or degree (O'Connor 1957). This involves being part of an established and recognised learning institute, organised and administered by a group of qualified professionals. Very often some form of accreditation is sought for the programme(s) of study from a governing education body or institution. Thus, education systems usually involve some level of structure and standardisation. Moreover, the end of the process is often marked by some form of certification which indicates that the individual has attained the expected knowledge, skills and qualities as a result of having fulfilled the established conditions and criteria deemed required for ‘having been educated’. Accordingly, in the next section of the chapter, the key educational concepts which underpin the different levels of formal education are explored.

3.3 Formal Education Levels: Key Concepts

Walford (2000) cites various seminal education developmental theories – learning theory (Froebel 1782-1852; Montsessori 1870-1952; Dewy 1859-1952), stages of mental development (Piaget 1896-1980), language and the child’s development (Vygotsky 1896-1934), reinforcement and behaviourism (Skinner 1904-1990), spiral curriculum (Bruner 1915) taxonomy or domains of learning (Bloom 1970) among others – which have framed the debate surrounding fundamental principles at the different levels of education.
Also, there is much discussion in the literature about what comprises age appropriate education and the stage of awareness necessary for educational experiences to which children are exposed at the different levels of the education system. This is a key issue of great concern to education planners and educators as various fields and disciplines compete for their own curriculum space. In addition, the degree of continuity in education from early childhood and throughout adulthood, a concept referred to as lifelong learning (Brennan, Mills, Shah, & Woodley 2000), has received much focus in the literature.

The body of literature is replete with educational debate on these fundamental concepts and will not be reproduced here; instead the discussions which follow serve to pave the way for the dialogue with the primary data presented in part IV of the thesis.

### 3.3.1 Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education is concerned with achieving desirable outcomes or the learning goals that children are expected to attain before entering compulsory education (Kwon 2002). According to Kwon, these include literacy, numeracy, and the development of personal and social skills. Thus, sharing this standpoint, one could argue that the standard of early childhood education is crucial in setting the foundation for lifelong learning. Unfortunately however, there has traditionally been an informal approach to this stage of education. Interestingly though, Pascal & Bertram (1999) notes that governments are now giving more attention to early childhood education and there is renewed pressure for a formalised approach.

Nevertheless, as Kwon (2002) suggests, citing the works of seminal writers, the principles of intrinsic motivation theory (Montessori 1912; Dewey 1959) based on learning by doing (Isaacs 1933) and through play (Hurst 1997; Anning 1997; Curtis 1998) remains pivotal. Proponents of this approach emphasise the individuality of each learner and encourage spontaneity and independent learning within the curriculum (Issacs 1933; Rose 1985; Holt 1989). However, critics contend that the child centred approach
(see works of Froebel 1782-1852) is romantic (Galton 1987) and unrealistic (Kwon 2002). Instead, they advocate a formal and direct (Woodhead 1999) or integrated approach (New 1992). These critics, who share a developmentalism perspective, assert that children may not be sufficiently intrinsically motivated to drive their own learning. Further, some argue that there must be a certain level of readiness and that learning must allow the child to develop in an ordered fashion towards logical and formal thinking (Kwon 2002). However, Li (2006) holds that a child learns by making his or her own connections with the world and the prime purpose of education is to enable the child to achieve higher levels of development through interaction with the physical and social environments. Thus, according to Henderson and Atencio (2007:245), “learning is fundamentally social.”

Nonetheless, the introduction of formal planning, particularly with the onset of the national curriculum, for example in the United Kingdom as elsewhere, is now deemed useful (Rodger 1994) in facilitating efficient learning (Department of Education and Science 1990) and sets new demands of early childhood education. As Rodger (1994) states, early childhood education should seek to enable the child to learn and develop skills, attitudes and understanding which prepares them for continuing education, particularly Key stage 1 of the national curriculum. All the same, Rodger cautions that attention must be given to ‘readiness issues’ in avoiding demanding too much or expecting too little during early childhood education.

### 3.3.2 Primary Education

Generally, education at the lower levels is seen as a means of knowledge transfer, basic personality development and enabling the individual to develop the minimum skills required for effectively fitting into society (Peters 1966). As has been indicated, some (Resnick 1987; Katz 1995 cited in Pascal & Bertram 1999; Richards 1999) place much emphasis on the concept of ‘disposition to learning’ at the level of primary education. This is particularly significant for, as Richards (1999) explains, the early years of schooling set the foundation for continuing education. Even so, he continues, except for
Chapter 3: Principles of Tourism Education and Training

early childhood education the subject perspective has largely framed the school curriculum (Richards 1999).

Nevertheless, educational concepts such as the spiral (Bruner 1960; Ellis & Stuen 1998) versus integrated curriculum, learning by objectives and Tyler's (1949) product approach versus the process approach (Stenhouse 1975; Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake 1994) and a learner-centred focus (Ellis 2004) all frame the debate underpinning primary education. In addition, arguments on the core, common or national curriculum, pedagogy, range, structure, appropriateness and continuity have all served to shape understanding and the development of many education policies (Richards 1999).

With the new advances of the concept of the national curriculum, primary education is now also of greater interest to governments as a means of improving educational standards (Richards 1999). Among key areas of concern to educators involved in primary education, Richards points out, is that of addressing matters of breadth, balance and coherence within the curriculum. Thus, Richards explicates, decisions have to be made about the teaching of the core and foundational subjects as well as making allowance for cross-curricular issues. Then, decisions have to be reconciled in terms of attainment targets, key stages and year groups for the various core, foundation and other subjects. And finally, the relational elements and connectivity between all the different parts and aspects of the curriculum needs to be established and utilised to the benefit of the teaching and learning process.

3.3.3 Secondary Education

At the secondary level education is highly subject based. Moreover, Beck and Earl (2000) elucidate that specialisation within the national curriculum is encouraged from the age of fourteen. This, they state, allows for provision of additional options to students, typically introducing science subjects for those students deemed to possess higher level capabilities while prevocational options are provided for the less academic.
Interestingly, in recent times, educational developments have led to the introduction of universal education providing compulsory secondary education for all. Nevertheless, this programme has not been without its challenges. For instance, in Dominica, as earlier alluded in chapter two a number of repeaters and drop-outs in the system has been observed (Polydore 2001). Further, in the United Kingdom, Beck and Earl (2000) question the quality of secondary schooling. This change, to universal education they contend, contradicts earlier views of Peters (1981) that intellectual abilities were innate and thus children needed to be categorised from childhood into scientifically identified performance groupings. Arguably, Beck and Earl (2000) opine those who subscribe to this view would also hold that universal secondary education is a futile exercise and potentially damaging.

A key focus at the secondary level, however, is career awareness, vocational training and liberal education. Special attention is given to preparation for the world of work (Wolff & de Moura Castro 2000) as students may exit formal education at the end of secondary education. Some authors (Wolff and De Moura Castro 2000; Baum 2002; Deissinger 2007) cite the German apprenticeship program as a good model for preparing students for the world of work. But Hyslop-Margison holds that

"Current vocational education advocates must recognise that preparing students to fill lower strata occupational roles by providing them with instrumental skills and presenting the existing social paradigm as ahistorical, legitimates the class stratification and social inequalities inherent in the present economic structure." (Hyslop-Margison 2001:5)

For as Dewey (1916) much earlier in a seminal piece argued, vocational education should seek to address students’ needs preparing them for life challenges instead of fitting into industry demand and occupational roles. Yet, Galloway, Anderson, Brown, & Whittman (2005) state that educators are responsible for satisfying students’ expectations in preparing them for the economy in which they must function; particularly as the education system shapes the knowledge base, acquisition of skills, competences and attitudes of students career choices (Birdthistle, Hynes, & Fleming 2007).
3.3.4 Tertiary and Higher Education

At the level of tertiary and higher education, critical thinking and employability skills are viewed as central features of the education process. However, a distinction is made between tertiary and higher education based on fulfilment of certain established criteria (Lewis 2002). Generally, in the Caribbean the terms ‘tertiary’ and ‘higher’ are used interchangeably (Marshall & Marrett 2008). But, actually, on one hand, tertiary education represents non-university level programmes, technical and vocational education and training, professional and paraprofessional training and continuing education programmes (Peters 2001). Besides very often tertiary education is viewed as a springboard towards higher education. Higher education on the other hand, Lewis (2002) says, refers to a level of individual development over and above that normally implied by the term ‘education’.

At the level of higher education fundamental concerns, Barnett (1990) holds, involve the search for truth, discovery, character formation, a certain degree of academic freedom, knowledge advancement, and the preservation of society and its intellectual culture. Further, Barnett (1997) adds, higher education has the responsibility of producing graduates of a high reflexive capacity. Also important are the personal qualities of imagination, capacity for change and critical action. Moreover, he contends that failure to achieve a high level of critical thought and underpinnings in higher education programmes, would lead to a corresponding negative impact on the ability of higher education programmes to contribute to reshaping modern society.

An equally important aspect of tertiary and higher education is the need to achieve the right balance between vocational and liberal education. At this level, the importance of research and knowledge creation takes on special meaning for the advancement of various fields of education. However, some authors (Lomas 1997; Scoffield 1999) have expressed concern about what they perceive as the decline of liberal education in favour of a more entrepreneurial model. This matter is of much relevance to this study since, as is observed by Inui, Wheeler and Lankford (2006), the debates over tourism degrees appear to centre around the balance between a vocational or academic focus. Regardless,
as Lewis (2005a) points out, obtaining the right balance at higher education is essential in producing graduates who are broadly educated and knowledgeable on matters of tourism development and equally functional in the field.

As discussed above, it is important that higher education is designed to enable students to acquire employability attributes, self-presentational ability, and continuing learning dexterity (Harvey 2001). Thus, in keeping with the ideas of Holder (2001) and Poon (2001), it contributes to producing leaders and managers for industry; an end result of much importance to a developing Small Island State. In that regard, Hjalager (2003) reassures, many universities worldwide offer programmes geared to managerial careers in tourism. However, as has been mentioned before, in the case of developing countries marked with distinct challenges, the curriculum must be tailored to local needs (Howell & Uysal 1987). Nevertheless, this is becoming increasingly difficult to achieve as according to Fallows and Steven (2000) modern higher education universities are changing and:

- There is increasing recognition that the transition from the world of higher education into the world of employment is not always straightforward
- Academic curriculum is essentially a vehicle through which other attributes are delivered which are constant regardless of subject studied
- The world of employment is also changing rapidly.

(Fallows and Steven 2000:75)

More significantly, they acknowledge that higher education must prepare graduates with the necessary expertise to operate professionally within the environment required for the ‘learning age’ or ‘learning society’.

3.3.5 Adult and Continuing Education

Traditional education has unanimously been centred on pedagogy, which was based on a teacher-focused approach to learning. However, throughout the development of education there has been an adaptation of this method of learning with the addition of andragogy or a learner-directed approach to teaching adults (Iverson 2001). Usually,
adult learning tends to be aimed at developing the skilfulness adults require to fit into the world of work. Thus, Iverson suggests that andragogy allows the utilisation of problem centred techniques, based on specific behaviours which adults must master in order to increase their workplace performance – a concept closely associated to training (further developed in section 3.4). However, according to Collins (2004), these above mentioned concepts are now conceived along a continuum within current theory, with pedagogy on one end and andragogy on the other; the key distinction being the level of previous knowledge of the learner and the degree of control over the process of learning.

Additionally, adult and continuing education is centred on the fundamental ideas of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Knowles 1970; Warnken and Young 1991; Collins 2004) and self directed learning (O’Brien 2004). According to Rogers (1969 cited in O’Brien 2004), adult learning is facilitated when:

- The student participates completely in the learning process and has control over its nature and direction
- It is primarily based upon direct confrontation with practical, social, personal or research problems
- Self evaluation is the principle method of assessing progress or success.

More importantly, however, the adult learning process is based on the following essential principles; which are that adults: (1) hold essential foundational experience accumulated over long periods and have more to lose and gain; (2) have great volume and quality of prior experiences; (3) favour real life situations rather than the theoretical and abstract (4) are quite used to being self-directing; (5) tend to be goal oriented; (6) are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated; (7) expect to be respected; (8) learn in different ways from children and from each other; (9) require timely and pertinent feedback; (10) prefer personal and informal approaches (Collins 2004; O’Brien 2004).

For these reasons, many contend that different approaches must be adopted for adult education and training. For instance, Fretwell and Wheller (2000) advise that adult
training requires different governance, financing and delivery models. In the Caribbean and elsewhere, special adult education units within Ministries are focused on a vast range of adults and cover literacy, personal development, community development and many varied topics and subjects determined and implemented intermittently on a needs basis. Thus, adult and continuing education is also an integral part of lifelong learning and Fretwell and Wheeler (2000) claims that this level of education enrolls more individuals than the initial school and higher education combined and is therefore a major force in human capital development.

3.3.6 LifeLong Education and Training

Lifelong learning, Marshall and Marrett (2008:2) explain, “is linked to the concept of knowledge-based economy, which engenders the need for learning to take place throughout a person’s lifetime”. Parnham (2001) states that lifelong learning entails the establishing of a “learning society” (see Antonacopoulou 2000), with the key aim of education providers being that of making learning easier for the learner. This is a very important phenomenon, McKenzie (1998) argues, since the complexities of modern societies, with a knowledge and information intensive economy, demands one to be able to anticipate and adapt to change, or risk being marginalised.

Of late, lifelong learning has become an accepted and central organising concept in education and training (McKenzie 1998) and encompasses the essential elements of breadth, progression and continuity (DFID-WD Collaboration on Knowledge and the Skills in the New Economy, nd). Many authors hold that it is now a social prerogative (Leader 2003) and a master concept (Tight 1998; Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight 2002) for achieving continuing employment and economic success (McKenzie 1998; Brennan, Mills, Shah, Woodley 2000; Parnham 2001; Vargas 2005; Marshall, Brandon, Thomas, Kanwar, & Lyngra 2008 among many other). According to DFID-WB (2009), based on the following key concepts, lifelong learning seeks to:

- Alter methods and contexts of teaching and learning to promote efficiency in foundation skill acquisition;
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- Create access, recognise or certify skills and competences acquired through formal, informal or non formal learning;
- Introduce incentives that leverage investment by providers and third-parties and participation and investment by learners;
- Provide information on learning opportunities.

If one accepts the above arguments presented thus far within the education debate, then it can be said that much attention must be placed on the educational expectations of both the provider and learner at the various levels of early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary and higher education, and adult and continuing education. Importantly, several issues raised must be considered in planning for lifelong education. First, the individual: the innate ability (as presented as the natural man); the level of readiness of learning at the various stages; the level of interaction with knowledge; and the willingness to become fully part of the process. Second, the education system itself: the idea and definition of education; the view of the role of the education vis-à-vis that of the learner. And then, the third consideration would be the interface of the individual and the education system and all the dynamics of schooling; education administration and planning; and the host society as a support system.

Given the significance of these concepts in the literature, it is therefore not surprising that they often form the background on which various types of curriculum and entire bodies of knowledge have been developed for education at the different levels of education. It must be noted here though, (as is predominantly the case throughout the literature) conceptual discussions often oscillate between education and training (Chitty 1990). Nevertheless, the chapter will now proceed by seeking to establish the distinguishing features between the two, as well as to explore the key underpinning concepts of training.
Chapter 3: Principles of Tourism Education and Training

3.4 Training: Definition and Key Concepts

According to Zais (1976) training is defined as “instructional treatment directed towards a desired finished product that includes setting specific objectives, assessing learning stages, applying instruction and evaluating the outcome”. For Zais, training like education is also a process (Jerris 1999), but one directed at a particular goal or with a specific end in mind and, where instruction is given an instrumental role. In addition, close monitoring seems necessary to ensure that the procedures employed actually achieve the main aims, as initially determined.

But in Peters’ (1979) opinion, the term training is applicable when there is some specifiable type of performance to be mastered for which practice is required, with little emphasis placed on the underlying rationale. According to Dearden (1984), in addition to these earlier mentioned characteristics, in some instances additional qualities like strength, endurance, and emotional steadiness may feature. Further, Dearden holds that, “training typically involved instruction and practice aimed at reaching a particular level of competence or operative efficiency....for adequate and appropriate response to some expected and typical situation” (Dearden 1984:86). Training, in the view of Barrow and Millburn (1990) refers to the ability to relay information and act in accordance with formulae, prescriptions and instruction. In particular, they believe training encompasses the ability to recite dates, answer general knowledge questions or reproduce quite complex pieces of reasoning.

Chitty (1990), advances on previously presented concepts and postulates that training involves a set of tasks which had pre-specified objectives with identifiable criteria for right and wrong. In addition, Chitty provides a broader view by introducing the difference in training for the world of work and training at the school level. The claim being that the type of training obtained at the school level - during the education process - could be viewed as instruction in specific skills thought to be useful acquisitions for all potential citizens. In-school training based on Chitty (1990) tends to be very broad, though kept within the boundaries of objectives set by the specific culture of the society.
Chapter 3: Principles of Tourism Education and Training

Objectives seem to originate from the socially accepted norms and values of what is important and desirable and is the envisioned focus of the education system.

Such concepts appear to indicate that training has a role in the development of an individual's attitudes, values and social development. Thus, an important element of significance to this study, introduced by Chitty's ideas, is that the foundation of training must be set in the specific culture of a society. If, according to his position, training is based on a set of predetermined objectives and procedures, it may be assumed that Chitty implies that an individual must be so shaped that he/she adheres to social rules without much personal choice of which skills are important and which are less significant for being "well adapted" in the general society.

The literature (Deissinger 2007) has a well articulated body on work on the value of vocational training. Wilkins (2001) opines that "the governments of many developing countries believe that a large and successful vocational education sector is an important and necessary element in the development strategies, as it equips citizens with the skills needed by industry and at the same time helps reduce unemployment". In the Caribbean, there has been a heavy focus on the development of a regional technical and vocational education and training programme over the years. However, as discussed in chapter two, the Commonwealth of Dominica earlier on phased out of the programme in favour of universal secondary education.

Nonetheless, Van Wart, Cayer, & Cork (1993) hold that training is application driven and typically involves a prompt response to a specific need for transfer of a particular set of knowledge or skills. In contrast Garavan (1997) suggests that training entails learning in a mechanistic manner. Therefore, he appears to attach a route approach to the learning affiliated to training. The notion presented here is that training demands less cognitive intelligence, but more practical skills. On deeper analysis of these abovementioned concepts, one must question if an individual can be properly trained without attaining a reasonable level of understanding of the tasks or skills learnt. Somehow, this does not
seem possible and questions whether these views on training border on indoctrination.

Regardless, Garavan (1997) believes that training can be strongly associated with continuous learning for one’s role in the world of work. Moreover, he seems to be making a connection between in-school training and that which takes place on the job, by presenting the concept of continuous learning. In building on this perspective, Barrow and Millburn (1990) further suggest that training may be conducted in terms of either intellectual or physical matters. Thus, one may also distinguish between training for some specific task and/or training for a specific profession.

In apparent agreement, training is conceptualised by Jerris (1999) as a process which provides on-the-job experiences and information, that helps employees become more proficient or qualified at a task and at their current jobs. If one accepts that training is a substantial organisational investment, the training function and related activities should be closely linked to overall business goals and activities. It is therefore critical that top management recognise the usefulness of the training exercise to their organisations, its goals, and employees and are able to link these to organisational success. This is crucial in order to gain the support for any training programme within the tourism industry.

Jerris (1999) suggests three main types of training methodologies as shown in table 8 which follows on page 60. These are on-the-job training, off-the-job training and short burst training. These principles and methodologies advocated below by Jerris for use within the hospitality sector can also be applied throughout the entire tourism industry.
Table 8: Types of tourism training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Type</th>
<th>Sub Types</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On-the-job</td>
<td>Job instruction training (JIT)</td>
<td>Mostly used with new employees instructing on how the job is done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>Opportunities for work experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-training</td>
<td></td>
<td>Experience at different types of jobs, geared at developing a versatile set of skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off-the-job</td>
<td>Classroom training</td>
<td>Most common, state of the art conferences, seminars, workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simulation exercises</td>
<td>Artificial environment that imitates working conditions, includes experiential exercises, role playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer-based</td>
<td></td>
<td>computer based and vestibule training programmed instruction, in-basket exercises, alternative learning formats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short burst</td>
<td>Short sessions</td>
<td>Informal, less in-depth, deals with new developments, updates or critical information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Jerris (1999)

In view of this, training is generally seen as the most effective tool to increase performance skills and narrow the knowledge gap between skills employees have and the skills they need for the provision of high levels of customer service (Iverson 2001). However, the nature of the post training feedback environment is crucial in ensuring maximum transfer of skills learnt. Therefore, the extent to which trainees are allowed on the job to apply the knowledge, skills, and abilities gained is paramount in determining the usefulness of the training obtained. According to Iverson, top managers have always supported the need for training and have valued its benefits to the organisation. But, the majority still fail to implement employee training in a consistent and thorough manner since training is viewed as a competitor for the time employees must spend on the job.

Nevertheless, as the market place becomes more competitive the demand for competent, skilled staff becomes even more important. As a consequence, there is a growing need to develop and implement comprehensive training programmes for employees at all levels.
Chapter 3: Principles of Tourism Education and Training

of the organisation (Teare, Adams, & Messenger 1992). Moreover, globalisation and industrial developments have lead to new and greater demands from the tourism industry. In the current era there have been major changes in the area of technological advancements, corporate restructuring, organisational rightsizing and new management paradigms. Fayos-Sola (1997) postulates that this has given rise to the need for a better-trained workforce with strong communication, technological, people and problem solving skills in all fields including tourism. On that note, Dekker (2002) distinguishes between core training for regular updating relevant to current job requirement and career training necessary for professional advancement.

For the most part, the training debate in existing literature is sparse and often linked to education. By illustration, Farrell, Kerry, & Kerry (1988) among others refers to training as part of education. However, they explain that professional training includes knowledge, attitudes and values associated to education. Further, for them training could be considered part of education if the learner through the process encountered wider content and processes. In the view of Cole (2004), the distinction is that training is job oriented rather than personal. Thus, in review of the above discussions it can be assumed that training is closely linked to education but is related to more practical and technical skills, while education addresses more conceptual matters.

Generally, a common and key characteristic of the trained individual is the ability to perform some form of operation. However, more often than not, there may be a lack of theoretical understanding and in-depth appreciation of the principles involved in the concepts forming the foundation of the skills learnt. These views appear to imply that to train a person is merely to provide them with the know-how or the ability to perform certain actions. As such, it can be reasoned that training is geared towards very practical tasks, as well as towards the preparation for a specific career or set of activities. So, in sum, it can be argued that a well trained individual is one who is best able to absorb, retain and reproduce simply to intricate information and skills for well defined tasks.
Developing on these ideas, one means through which the goals and objectives of both education and training can be successfully achieved is through an appropriate curriculum. Consequently, the chapter will now examine relevant curriculum issues.

### 3.5 Curriculum: Definition & Key Concepts

Generally, the curriculum serves to guide instruction during the education and training process. Tyler (1949) conceptualises the curriculum in terms of the objectives of student learning; that is, the knowledge, skills and attitudes actually acquired by students. Accordingly, Tyler views the curriculum as a device that facilitates and enables the realisation of selected learning objectives. Also, these learning objectives are generally closely linked to prevailing concepts of education and training, as well as the demands of the various disciplines. Johnson (2007) discusses the curriculum as planned learning experiences. Such a precept is fundamental to fulfilling the objectives of learning, be they that of the student, the education system or the wider society, since the curriculum is the key vehicle utilised as discussed earlier for acquisition and transmission of knowledge.

Kerr (1968) extends Tyler’s concept of the curriculum to include learning in and outside of school. He also contends that the curriculum should be defined as a selection from a particular culture. He therefore, gives emphasis to preparing the individual for being well adapted into and making valuable contribution to his/her society, a key role of education. Making a contribution to the debate, Stenhouse (1975:4) states that, “a curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice”. So for Stenhouse the curriculum should be able to withstand much critical analysis of its goals, objectives and content. In addition, the curriculum should be so designed to allow for effective and efficient use as a guide during the teaching-learning process.
Later on, the curriculum was defined as: a written official programme of study published by educational experts (Barrow & Millburn 1990); a programme of instruction (Lawton & Gordon 1993); all learning that takes place in schools or institutions, be it planned or unplanned; a structured series of intended learning outcomes (Johnson 2007). In other cases, the curriculum is seen and utilised as a means of controlling what actually happens in the classroom. For example, in certain instances curriculum planners may attempt to design and structure the curriculum to the level of prescribing every classroom activity. In other situations, curriculum planners may provide only general guidelines for programme instruction and expect local authorities or teachers to supplement these to suit the needs of their individual settings. However, as Johnson (2007) claims, the curriculum should do more than just provide a guide for instruction but rather allow for creativity and individuality in style of instruction.

In fact in reality, despite efforts at standardisation, at times there is little connection with the written or official curriculum document and the actual curriculum which unfolds through daily interactions and events during the teaching and learning process. One could contend that such a phenomenon exists when educators believe that the planned or written curriculum is inappropriate for the education and training systems for which they are designed. Arguably, such concerns are particularly pertinent as issues of student readiness for learning, the capability of teachers, resource availability, the influence of culture and the wider society all interact and create implications for curriculum effectiveness. As such, it is important to have a clear understanding of the key concepts and fundamental principles of the various curriculum approaches, so as to ensure the best selection for a given society and the dynamics of its education and training systems.

Within the curriculum literature, there is also a debate surrounding all the experiences children have in schools. This issue encompasses the nature of the subject under study, actions of teachers in the classroom and attitudes fostered in students. Moreover, a number of alternative views have been proposed about what is essential and should comprise the curriculum. Diverse options have arisen in an effort to address difficulties
in designing a curriculum suitable for different types of students and the need to satisfy diverse political and social systems and varying educational objectives.

Among such options are the concepts of basic education, compulsory education, the core or common curriculum and the national curriculum (Barrow & Millburn 1990). These different conceptualisations, Barrow and Milburn suggest, have presented great challenges for educators in determining which subjects or competencies should be significant and held as basic, core or common, for a particular educational system. Nevertheless, according to Lawton and Chitty (1988), egalitarians favour the use of a national curriculum in an effort to push for a broad range of educational opportunities. In addition, Apple (1993) holds that the national curriculum has the potential to coalesce different interest groups around a common agenda. These ideas are now developed further as the national curriculum has special relevance to the case under investigation.

The national curriculum is deemed as having value as a precaution against inconsistencies and inequalities in gender and other concerns and as a means to address these weaknesses in earlier traditional educational approaches. The national curriculum is believed to enable easier transition from one stage to the other, both for the students and teachers involved at the different education levels. Moreover, it also acts as a great bridge between primary and secondary education. As such Moon (1966) states that the national curriculum assists in the reduction of disruption within the education system. Moreover, the fact that it is based on attainment targets absolute standards, rather than relative evaluation, helps motivate higher individual performance levels.

Nonetheless, arguments against the national curriculum include it being too focused on subjects, and limited in allowing teachers to develop the ability to apply knowledge and skills beyond the boundaries of subject disciplines. In addition, critics contend that it neglects among other things social and personal development, and lacks economic and political understanding. Also, opponents seem to think that the entire state system should be dismantled and handed over to market forces, allowing schools the freedom to plan programmes in line with parents and industry interests (Lawton 1988).
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However despite these concerns many countries have employed the national curriculum. For instance, it forms an important part of the education act of the United Kingdom (Moon 1996) and the Commonwealth of Dominica and was made law in 1988 and 1997 respectively. In both situations, the emphasis appears to be on the provision of a curriculum at the policy level, to which both private and public schools and training institutions must subscribe and (in the case of Dominica) any deviation from which permission and approval must be sought (National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2006). However, it must be noted as explained by the United Kingdom’s Department of Education and Science (1990), within each setting there must be curriculum change and adjustment to suit the specific educational environment.

In further establishing the theoretical framework of the study, the chapter will now explore the key concepts of tourism education and training in the following section.

3.6 Tourism Education and Training
3.6.1 Development and Key Concepts
The literature indicates that tourism education and training has advanced significantly from a rather immature academic field after several decades. For instance, Airey (2008) opines that, as an area of study, tourism has progressed through a number of platforms to a stage of maturity. Based on Jafari’s (1990, 2001) platforms theory for developing tourism scholarship (Macbeth 2005), in the early era the advocacy platform, Airey states, was led by economists. In the period which followed, he continues, the cautionary platform highlighted the impacts of tourism and led to the alternative forms of tourism expressed through the adaptancy platform. The next period of conceptual enhancement, Airey (2008) writes, brought on the knowledge platform and greater insight into the field. Adding to the debate, Macbeth (2005) proposes two additional platforms (fifth, sustainable paradigm and sixth, value-full) upon which to advance tourism scholarship. Nevertheless, the focus of this chapter is not to debate the value of these platforms which
are well represented in the literature, but to signpost the advancement of tourism as an area of study over the decades.

According to Airey (2008), the discourse among tourism educators on these various platforms have contributed to tourism’s growth and maturity over the years, taking it

From a small, highly vocational and business dominated field of study to one which now has joined the more established fields of enquiry with its own body of literature, community of scholars, curriculum coverage...and the same concerns and questions as more established fields. ... Tourism education has joined the academic community at large and it is now less concerned with establishing itself and its curriculum and more with addressing the questions and puzzles that occupy social sciences in general (Airey 2008).

As such, Airey proposes a fifth development platform, maturity.

Now, does that mean all matters of curriculum concern, knowledge development and clearly defined boundaries have been resolved? Surely the tourism education and training literature is largely focused on higher education and industry related training. However, Airey (2008) also points out that in the United Kingdom for instance, the majority (80%) of tourism students is in programmes below the degree level. Yet the literature has not advanced in addressing that sector of the education system. If one subscribes to the view of enhancing lifelong learning developmental skills, an argument could certainly be made for more attention within the literature on the lower levels of tourism education. In keeping with this view, Jayawardena (2001) suggests that ‘education must be thought of as a journey, not a destination’. Undoubtedly, much can be debated on the issue of tourism reaching real ‘maturity’.

Further, as suggested earlier, a large part of the academic research, published works and communication networks are biased towards the needs and interest of tertiary education. Airey (2008) seems to observe this trend, when he points out that this ‘is a reflection that changes ... have been more clearly articulated and observed and have had their most immediate and developed expression in higher education’. Hence, there has been much
progress in the establishment of approximately ninety two tourism related journals with
the Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism by the International Society of Travel &
Tourism Educators (ISTTE) focused on travel and tourism education. In addition,
tourism texts and teaching manuals are now increasingly available, with notable works,
done by Burkart and Medlik (1974), Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake (1994, 1996), Airey
and Tribe (2005b) and Hall (2008) among many others.

In addition, several international organisations now focus on enhancing the level of
professionalism in the field. For instance, the United Nations World Tourism
Organisation (UNWTO), World Travel and Tourism Council, United Nations
Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the International
Labour Office (ILO) (among others) all engage in initiatives promoting improved
standards and increased professionalism in tourism education and training. More
specifically, the UNWTO Education Training and Knowledge Management Department
is responsible for education and training efforts of the UNWTO Education Council and
UNWTO Themis Foundation. Some of the most renowned products and services are
UNWTO.TedQual (a certification programme for quality in tourism education) and
UNWTO.Practicum (a biannual two week training programme for UNWTO member
states’ officials).

Yet, only recently Peacock and Ladkin (2002) suggested that there is still ongoing
concern about the quality of tourism education in terms of its ability and suitability to
address the needs of the industry, stakeholders and wider society. And others argue
(Jayawardena 2001) that there is [still] a variety of views on how and what to teach, since
there is no agreement on where tourism belongs within the curriculum (Zagonari 2009).
But, Airey (2008) recognises that the debate persists. In so doing, he cautions that
tourism continues to lack the independence and theoretical coherence of well established
disciplines. Furthermore, he holds that tourism is not yet able to inform debate and
development of its wider world.
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All the same, earlier concepts, well represented in the body of literature which helps frame the development in this academic area over the years, centred on a number of core lingering issues. There has been much discussion surrounding a universally accepted definition (see Lickorish 1991; Amoah & Baum 1997) and body of knowledge for tourism (Airey & Middletown, 1984; Tribe 1997; Airey 1999). Deliberations have also focused on the nature of tourism as a discipline (Jafari and Brent-Ritchie 1981; Leiper 1981: 2000; Airey 1999; Tribe 1997, 2000). Tribe (1997) examines the indiscipline of tourism due to its apparent void in theoretical underpinning and what some term its undefined boundaries (Lickorish 1991; Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake 1994:1996; Amoah & Baum 1997). The word ‘tourism’ itself, Tribe (1997) contends, is problematic since it is often used in ordinary parlance. Moreover, in Tribe’s review of the seminal works of Hirst (1965, 1974, 1993), Leiper (1981), Goeldner (1988), and Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill (1993), he concludes that tourism fails as a discipline on the grounds of lack of epistemological underpinnings, absence of a single method of inquiry, lack of conceptual unity and absence of a single community or network of communication which shares a single set of values and beliefs tradition. Further, Henkel (1988) much earlier seems to share similar views when he suggests that the academic identity of tourism is weak. And still even today, the maturity of the field is being called into question (Airey 2008; Zagonari 2009).

So, despite its notable advances, tourism still suffers from a poor image and presents no clear career path for graduates (Zagonari 2009). For as Tribe (1997) points out, from a theoretical perspective, a programme in tourism studies could be vast and varied, with the content and nature of tourism knowledge dependent on one’s particular field of inquiry. Further, Tribe (1997) continues, as an area of study, tourism draws its theoretical underpinnings from an even wider range of disciplines and fields of study giving it multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and extradisciplinary dimensions. So, if one acknowledges these views, it can help understand the dilemma encountered by those faced with the task of planning for tourism education and training encompassing all levels of the education system.
Nonetheless, Airey (2005) believes that the instrumentalist approach to tourism education may contribute to the lack of growth in some aspects of tourism knowledge. The concept held is that course offerings have mainly been of a skilled, vocational, or managerial in orientation. Again, this could be explained by the heavy concentration that programmes have towards addressing the prevailing needs of the industry. This could be avoided, Zagonari (2009) contends, by balancing the needs of static (those concerned with current needs) and dynamic operators (with interest in future demands). Zagonari seems to suggest that this would necessitate addressing the needs of education (dynamic focus) and training (static focus) in an efficient if not equivalent manner.

Jayawardena (2001) in debating the issue of balancing theory and practice, also expresses caution about the quality of programmes developed, with little emphasis on producing leaders for the industry. Jayawardena appears concerned on the one hand with simply addressing industry needs by the perpetuation of existing practices. Interestingly, on the other hand, Jayawardena further advocates that academics and researchers (particularly when working in foreign countries) could benefit from experience in the industry in their respective specialisation(s) in an attempt to make their published work more relevant to the industry and useful to the student population. These observations all bring to the fore, and rightfully so, the necessity for education and training programmes to address current needs while at the same time catering to anticipated future trends.

Moreover, notwithstanding the advances in tourism, as alluded to earlier, there is a notable gap in the literature on tourism education and training issues as it pertains to the formative years of learning (early childhood, primary, secondary) as well as non degree post secondary education. This presents a void in tourism knowledge of special interest to small developing islands that are by their nature, more often than not, tourism destinations. Since in such islands the larger percentage of the education population comprises of those in the lower levels of the education system and non-degree continuing education, one could contend that this void must be addressed. Thus, this thesis is an attempt to take a comprehensive view of tourism education and training, from early childhood education up to tertiary and continuing adult education and training.
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furtherance of the discussions in that regard, in section 5.3 the tourism curriculum debate is explored.

3.6.2 The Tourism Curriculum

Gunn (1998) points out that in making decisions about the tourism curriculum it is important first to consider how tourism is defined, the level of education and training concerned and the matter of its academic discipline. As such, it can be deduced that the curriculum is developed in accordance with the framework held by its designers. So Gunn cautions that there is no perfect curriculum that could meet all the needs of tourism education and training. What matters is that an effective curriculum must be relevant to its context (Smith & Cooper 2000) giving careful consideration to the existing social, cultural and economic setting (Jenkins & Shipman 1976; Lewis 2005a, 2005b). Thus, the tourism curriculum must reflect knowledge of significance to both the learner and the society within which he/she is to operate (Hegarty 1990). However, as discussed earlier due to its multidisciplinary nature, the curriculum space can be vast, allowing for different educational paths depending on how a particular curriculum is framed (Tribe 2002).

The concept of framing of the curriculum in the context of the Caribbean island states is explored by Lewis (2005a, 2005b) where she establishes the value of stakeholder involvement in curriculum planning and design. Lewis makes the point that wholesale use of the Western imported model is ill suited for the Caribbean. Therefore, she advocates that it is critical to consider what aspects of such models are important, which are of value to the region and then what concepts should be given priority within the local context. Importantly, the results of her study indicate that stakeholders believe that an appropriate tourism curriculum should meet three criteria (1) deliver better tourism services while creating a better tourism society (2) address tourism development issues (3) allow for broad base stakeholder involvement.
In the Caribbean, tourism is studied at all levels of education. However, the aims, objectives and content of the curriculum at each level of the education system are different. At the lower levels, education seeks to address the issue of tourism awareness and career development. Nevertheless, Gunn (1998) laments that students at the grade or high school levels still seem to receive limited guidance regarding careers in tourism. At the level of higher education the focus changes to developing graduates who are occupationally functional (Burke, Hawkins, & Schulman 1990), critical thinkers, able to manage the local industry and plan for its future needs. As already mentioned, the concept of lifelong learning also becomes critical in as much as it sets the stage for advancing the curriculum in appropriate stages, to ensure the required growth at each level, leading to continuous learning and contributing to national tourism development. Gunn (1998) points out that even at the level of adult education, which is less structured than classroom pedagogy, curriculum building is important.

However, the multidisciplinary nature of tourism has made it difficult to establish a universally acceptable definition and clear parameters of study (Tribe 1997; Airey 1999) at each level. As a consequence, tourism education tends to be linked to unrelated departments and courses (Zagonari 2009). Moreover, tourism educators very often may not be specialist but co-opted from other subject areas and in some cases come directly from the industry (Cooper, Shepherd, & Westlake 1994). Hence, tourism is influenced by a wide range of concepts and approaches based on the varied backgrounds of academics (Airey & Johnson 1999). All these factors above give rise to quality issues of the tourism curriculum.

Further, according to Tribe (2000), the curriculum space encompasses a wide range of possible knowledge, skills and attitudes. That being so, there has been much debate (Airey & Johnson 1999; Stuart 2005) surrounding the need for a minimum core body of knowledge (Burkart & Medlik 1974; Nightingale 1980; Airey & Nightingale 1981; Richards 2001; Hjalager 2005) or core curriculum (Middleton 1993) for tourism. Besides, the increasing numbers of providers and range of programmes available have led to further concerns about the quality of education. According to Airey & Johnson (1999),
in discussing the Council for National Academic Awards 1993 report, a common core enables communication, transferability and a sounder basis for subject development. In addition, it facilitates the professional development of the field. Thus, in setting internationally [or at the least regionally] accepted standards, skills and certificates acquired are recognisable (Richards 2001). Moreover, explains Hjalager and Andersen (2001) standards would enable employers to identify clearly and obtain the required skills set, so limiting the level of initial training necessary. However, holding a different view, Baum (1997) believes that such limitations on the curriculum reduce variety, flexibility and innovation.

Even so, Tribe (2005b) explains that tourism knowledge which helps us study the phenomenon of the tourism industry only offers an incomplete account. According to Tribe our knowledge gaze determines what parts of the phenomenon of tourism are studied and how these parts are known and conceptualised. In his view, tourism curriculum issues give rise to the matter of choice and contestability, concerning what aspect of tourism is studied and what type of tourism knowledge is utilised in the process. Without question, the different perspectives and interests of government, education institutions, students and tourism stakeholders all impact such decisions.

Generally, [still] viewed as a lesser academic area, tourism is taught as part of subjects such as social studies, geography, or history, and in some cases as a subject within the primary and secondary school system. One could argue that this phenomenon is a direct result of the absence of a distinct body of knowledge and supports the integrated or multidisciplinary approach most widely adopted in the school system. But,

The way in which tourism is presented and the links it maintains with other subjects and disciplines can influence the degree of integration and consistency, which may be achieved across the curriculum...It is important, therefore, that it is integrated into the curriculum as a whole and that the continuity and progression which characterises other subjects and disciplines is actively sought by those involved in tourism education at all levels. (Cooper, Shepherd, & Westlake 1994:93)
These views seem to support arguments in favour of some key concepts consistent with the ideas presented in this thesis. Following on the ideas of Skager and Dave (1977) on ‘Curriculum Evaluation for Lifelong Education’, Cooper et al (1994) contend that it is important that some key issues are addressed when planning tourism curricula. First, the issues of the interconnectedness of tourism to other subjects/disciplines; second, engaging in comprehensive planning of the curriculum; and third, support to introducing tourism studies at all levels of education.

Again, if one operates within the precepts of lifelong learning (already discussed), when this sort of integration is introduced from the early years, students are given the opportunity to connect any possible experiences of tourism, for example as a tourist, to their later studies. As their experiences are enhanced while they move through the later stages of formal and continuous learning, they are able to attach new meanings to their experiences as a tourist, to tourism as an industry and as an academic discipline. Therefore, an integrated curriculum needs to encompass all these issues, to ensure a design which interfaces with all these varied influences, makes the appropriate links, finds learning patterns, and synthesises them for later learning as the child progresses academically.

In contrast, at the level of higher education, the issue of a core curriculum has been a matter of greater significance. The primary issue is that of establishing international standards (Jasper 1987; Cooper, Scales & Westlake 1992), quality degrees and the furtherance of professionalism of the field of tourism. However, Fletcher (1996) contends that since higher education should be concerned with matters of training students to think effectively, issues of ‘how’ are more important than the ‘what’ at this stage. Sharing this view, Smith and Cooper (2000) express concern that little attention has been given to the principles of curriculum planning by tourism educators. In that regard, the matter of curriculum planning will be discussed in more detail in the last chapter of this part of the study.
3.7 Conclusions

This chapter focused some of the ideas underpinning the thesis by looking at the key theoretical concepts of education, training, the curriculum and tourism education and training. A key concept discussed which strongly underpins the framework of this thesis is that education is considered a process for gaining and transfer of knowledge; developing one’s personality; being well adapted to society and ultimately making worthwhile contribution to nation building. Such a process should be age appropriate and suitable to the student’s level of learning readiness. Importantly, however, education must be relevant to the Dominican culture and appropriate to the nature of the local tourism industry and the characteristics of the education system as previously outlined in chapter two.

Though, as argued by some authors, there can be no education without training the distinctions that exist between them must be acknowledged for the significance that it holds. Thus, within the Dominican setting, tourism education and training should both prepare individuals for the world of work and for making a valuable contribution to the advancement of knowledge and industry respectively. Of particular importance to the Dominican setting are the public education system and the various levels of education and training as they represents the sources of the largest in take of the labour force on the island. Nevertheless, post secondary training is also critical for on-the-job, as well as continuous industry training, particularly due the dearth in professionally trained employees throughout the sector (see discussion in chapter two).

Moreover, society itself is not static and neither is education and training; consequently the curriculum presents one avenue for addressing these needs through implementation of planned learning objectives. In the case of Dominica, the effective utilisation of the national curriculum is essential, as it is currently the medium through which the goals of education and training are sought to be fulfilled. That being the so, this thesis is concerned with the quality and level of planning for tourism education and training within the national curriculum of the island.
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But, within the context of a Small Island Developing State, curriculum choice is often determined first and foremost by issues of political, social, economic and developmental agendas of government and that of the local policy makers. Nonetheless, attention has to be given to proper planning for education and training to ensure that the desired outcomes are obtained. As such, the thesis will advance in chapter four by examining various structural and power challenges that help frame the planning decisions made for tourism education and training within the context of the Commonwealth of Dominica.
Chapter Four: The Impact of Structure and Power on Tourism Education and Training

4.1 Introduction

Previously chapter two established the main features and characteristics of the education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica and the main tourism organisations and education institutions involved were identified. Chapter three then outlined the key theoretical debates underpinning the central concepts of education and training. That being so, here this chapter serves to make the point that planning for tourism education and training involves a diverse group of organisations and institutions with different types of structures. Furthermore, as reflected in the data, different structural designs impact on the planning process in varied ways.

In addition, power relations within the different types of organisations create specific challenges which also impact on planning for tourism education and training. Therefore, this chapter seeks to provide insight and explanation regarding the typical structural features and related characteristics of such organisations. The chapter also entails discussions on the typical power relations inherent within such structures.

Accordingly, the chapter is arranged in two main sections. Section 4.2 examines organisational structure and two basic design configurations – the hierarchical and the simple, web structures – receive emphasis for their relevance to the Dominican setting. The focal point of section 4.2.1 is to explore the impact of organisational design structures on planning and decision making. Next, for the relevance they hold to this study, the bureaucratic and adhocracy designs are featured in section 4.2.2. Then section 4.2.3 elaborates on the central ideas of organisational restructuring and change.

Section 4.3 discusses the main debate in the extant literature of power relations within hierarchical and web organisations. As such the key concepts are presented in section

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2 In this chapter and thereafter, the term organisation is defined as all entities and bodies involved in tourism business or services, all education institutions, as well as all related national planning and monitoring bodies and/or agencies in the field under study.

3 a term coined by Toffler (1970)
4.3.1; with related issues such as legitimate power, politics and control. Leadership and dependency dealt are with in sections 4.3.2, 4.3.3, 4.3.4 and 4.3.5 respectively. The chapter concludes in section 4.4 with a summation of the main ideas presented.

4.2 Structure

An organisation's design or structure is closely linked to the attainment of its goals and objectives (Senge 1994; McMillan 2002). Yet, Senge (1994) laments that structural design is one responsibility often neglected by management. Accordingly, this section seeks to delve into structural and design concepts to attain deeper insight about how these fundamental features influence and impact on tourism education and training planning at a national level within the context of a developing Small Island State, in particular, Dominica.

4.2.1 Organisational Structure and Key Designs

Structure has been conceived in various ways throughout the study of organisations (see Mintzberg 1979; Jones, George and Hill 1998; Pascale, Milleman and Gioja 2000; Mabey, Salaman, & Storey 2001). To Mintzberg (1979) it is the sum of the ways in which [the organisation] divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination between them. However, the conceptualisation made by Jones, George and Hill (1998) is most aligned with the ideas underpinning this thesis. They define organisational structure as a formal system of tasks and management reporting relationships that co-ordinates and motivates organisational members so that they work together to achieve organisational design goals. For Jones et al emphasis is on roles, chain of command, joint effort and cooperation towards a common end.

As stated before, the goal of this chapter, in part, is to gain an appreciation of how organisation structural design impacts on planning, distinctively tourism education and training in Dominica. Currently, as discussed in chapter two, the key organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training in Dominica are the Ministry of Tourism and its relevant departments; the Discover Dominica Authority; the Ministry of Education, its related departments and school administrators; and the Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association. It follows that a good understanding of the complex structure and interdependencies within and between [these] organisations is helpful in
gaining knowledge about how organisations are managed and planning decisions are made (Thompson 1967; Perrow 1970).

In his seminal works, Mintzberg (1980) presents five basic configurations or structural arrangements common to organisations. They are (1) a simple structure, (2) machine bureaucracy, (3) professional bureaucracy, (4) divisional form and (5) adhocracy. Arguably, these are determined by other contingency factors, that is, situational or internal parameters such as age and size, the technical system, environment and power relations (Mintzberg 1979). Organisational typologies, Mintzberg suggests, are also framed by their core functions, type of management style employed and level of departmentalisation. Some of these key concepts, of particular importance to this investigation, will be revisited as the discussions continue throughout the study.

Other writers have presented different elements around which they opine that organisations are structured. For example, Anumba, Baugh and Khalfan (2002) put forward a different structural sub-grouping according to specific functions; approach to decision making; method of communication (top-down or lateral); span of control (tall or flat layout); and chain of command. In addition, Morden (2004) points to a different set of variables that may influence and determine the configuration or shape of an organisation. These include various elements such as hierarchy, specialisation, formalisation, standardisation, centralisation, flexibility and architecture.

The aim here is not to duplicate the debate on these varied perceptions of how organisations are designed, but rather offer a framework by which the structural context of the organisations of relevance to this study can be explained. Thus, for the purpose of this study, discussions are centred on the contrast between typical typologies of large public sector organisations and that of small tourism enterprises (those already mentioned above), the two main configuration types observed among the organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training in Dominica, to develop a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

Cole (2004) explains, based on the previous works and ideas of Mintzberg (1983) and Handy (1993), that two key approaches have been proposed for analysis of organisational structures. These concepts presented by Mintzberg and Handy offer
some explanation of how organisations form their designs based on their core functions, level of departmentalisation, degree of specialisation and/or size of operation. Table 9 which follow set out the main ideas of these two perspectives as proffered by Mintzberg and Handy.

Table 9: Key approaches to analysis of organisational structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis of organisational structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mintzberg 1983</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Apex: chief executive &amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle line: operational management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational Core: suppliers of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisation’s goods and services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techno-structure: specialist staff &amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Staff: provide corporate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Cole (2004)

Whereas Handy provides a description of organisations from the perspective of their varying cultures, Mintzberg (1983) seems to focus only on the hierarchal layered design. That is because, as discussed later, Mintzberg perceives small organisations as not being structured. On one hand, for Mintzberg, as reflected in table 9 above, organisations consist of a strategic apex, comprising of top level managers; the middle level operation managers; the suppliers of the goods or services of the organisation; the technical staff; and the support staff. This design could be deemed typical of large multi-layered organisations. Traditionally, large organisations tend to have a linear, segmented, hierarchical command structure (Handy 1993; McMillan 2002). According to Morden (2004) they also tend to have a great level of centralised external control and sometimes much political control. In contrast small organisations have flat and simple designs, as well as basic and internally centralised command structures.
On the other hand, as shown in table 9, Handy suggests four distinct types of designs representing different organisational cultures. He describes the simple or web structure of small organisations; the Greek temple generally exhibited in bureaucracies; the net which is a matrix of project teams focused specific tasks; and the cluster or galaxy design representing a group of independent and self supporting professionals.

If one accepts these conceptualisations presented above, one would agree that the design typology which best describes the organisational structure in the context of this study are the web structure and the Greek temple or professional bureaucracy. By way of illustration, the specific organisational structures of the organisations of relevance in Dominica are now presented.

4.2.1.1 The Bureaucratic Design

As shown in the structural organisational charts (1 and 2) both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Tourism are headed by a politically elected official, supported by senior public servants some of whom are political appointees. In addition, the ministries are staffed with a few technical officers and administrative and clerical employees. In the context of this small island as elsewhere both ministries are combined with the other ministerial portfolios. Accordingly, the Ministry of Education is combined with Youth Affairs, Sports and Human Resource Development while the Ministry of Tourism is combined with Legal Affairs. For the purpose of this study only the positions of relevance, that is, only the officials operating directly within of the Ministries of Tourism and Education are shown here.
Chapter 4: Structure and Power: The Impact on Planning and Decision Making

Chart 1: Ministry of Tourism Organisational Structure

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Commonwealth of Dominica
Chart 2: Ministry of Education Organisational Structure

Chapter 4: Structure and Power: the Impact on Planning and Decision Making
From chart 1 and 2, it can be seen that these organisations are of a tall hierarchical structure typical to that described in table 9 by Mintzberg (1983). Also, reflected is the high level of departmentalisation, in accordance to specific functions, which exist within the ministries. Hence, these organisations exhibit a complex and tall command structure.

Further, the other organisations discussed in chapter two whose structures are of importance to this study are Discover Dominica Authority (DDA), Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association (DHTA), and the private and public schools which operate within the education system. With the exception of the DHTA, which has a fairly flat command structure (shown in Chart 3 below) though governed by a board, all the other organisations function under the purview of the government and are of bureaucratic design structures.

Greenwood (1965) in his seminal works, seems to believe that such bureaucratic structures, as typical to the public sector in Dominica, are geared at adherence to rules and procedures set by top management. Their large centralised designs are seen as having utility for exercising much power and control within the organisation, concepts fully explored in section 4.3. Nevertheless, Greenwood also contends that the hierarchical top-down system is arguably limiting in the degree of freedom allowed at the lower levels in pursuing the specific objectives which are determined by the goals or values held by top managers.

4.2.1.2 The Web Design

In contrast, Morden (2004) explains that entrepreneurial structures are usually simple and characterised by a strong centralised power culture. Mintzberg (1979) points out that within such simple designs little is formalised and such entrepreneurial organisations are basically organic in nature. In fact, Mintzberg claims as mentioned before that a simple structure is a ‘nonstructure’, with few support staff hired mainly on short contracts. That format was earlier referred to as a single purpose process firm by
Woodward (1965) and later an implicitly structured organisation by Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1969). It could be claimed that this form of structural design and internal arrangement is geared at simplicity of designs for effective functioning, management, decision making and planning well suited to small enterprises. Though this format is typical to small businesses, Morden (2004) points out that such designs remain appropriate only for a limited scale of activity. For as Mintzberg (1980) states organisations eventually alter their structures due to contradictory pressures or while in transition from one configuration to another.

Chart 3: Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association organisational structure

![Organisational structure diagram](chart3)

Source: Researcher, adapted from Association website

Morden (2004) notes, as illustrated in chart 4 below, that the entrepreneur or family holding the decision making power operates within a flat pyramid or web structure. Describing the typical features of the tourism industry, Youell (1998) writes that it is characterised by a dominance of private sector enterprises which is largely small or medium-sized. This is also true of the Commonwealth of Dominica where the accommodation sector comprises predominantly small properties.

Chart 4: Typical accommodation/enterprise organisational structure in Dominica

![Organisational structure diagram](chart4)

Source: Researcher base on product knowledge
Morden (2004) explains that requisite bureaucracy represents the minimum level of organisational formalisation, hierarchy, functional and operational competence and management structure necessary to adjust satisfactorily to changes in scale, diversity and complexity of operations. Moreover, with increasing growth requisite bureaucracy becomes an important issue in the areas of finance (Drucker 1985), operations, functions, management and leadership roles (Jaques 1991). From the perspective of these typical flat organisational structures which predominantly exist in the Dominican setting (as earlier explained) these arguments seem to imply that the entrepreneur may at times face the dilemma of curtailing development or losing control over the business, an issue of much concern to small business owners. Also implicit in these ideas is the view that structural changes tend to occur as the level of requisite bureaucracy alters.

Discussing the early works of Woodward (1965) which were later advanced by Burns & Stalker (1966), Lawrence & Lorsch (1967) and Khandwalla (1971, 1974) and many others, Mintzberg (1979; 1989) discusses contingency theory as a central concept to effective organisational structuring. The key underpinning principle is that ‘organisational effectiveness results from a match between situation and structure’ (Mintzberg 1979:217). However, based on past research findings of Khandwalla and others, Mintzberg contends that there is no single best structure but rather the most appropriate combination of options as relevant to a particular situation. Later on, adding to that aspect of the organisational structure debate, Drucker (1985) and Peters (1993) both appear to agree that a variety of structural approaches could co-exist within one organisation.

4.2.2 Structure: Impact on policy and decision making

Egeberg (1999, 2003) points out that there is little research which has studied the impact of organisational structure on policy decision making. Instead, Egeberg claims emphasis has been mostly on structural descriptions and processes involved in structural change. This study shares this concern, but is differentiated from the work of Egeberg (1999, 2003) by not focusing only on government (public sector) bureaucracies. In this research the impact of the bureaucratic and adhocracy structures are explored.
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The formative work of Max Weber 1864-1920 presents a dimensional perspective of the bureaucratic model comprising of several key attributes including: division of labour, hierarchy of authority, system of extensive rules, separation of administration from ownership, and hiring and promotion based on technical competence (Hall 1963). In a paper ‘The governance narrative: key findings and lessons from the ESRC’S Whitehall Programme’, Rhodes (2000) reviews 23 research projects which were conducted over a five-year period in the area of governance in the United Kingdom. In part, his focal point was on the world view of bureaucracy as a means of co-ordinating policy and thereafter its implementation. From the review of these cases, Rhodes reports that in practice bureaucracies (which he also refers to as hierarchies) typically exhibit:

- A high degree of state control (the result of policies such as nationalisation)
- A large bureaucratic machine
- Legitimacy to undertake large-scale intervention in society
- The incorporation of key economic groups into the policy process
- A high degree of consensus between officials and politicians over their role in governing and decision making

These results seem consistent with the theoretical views in the extant literature (Weber 1949; Hall 1963; Mintzberg 1979; Morden 2004). Also, they can be said to be typical of the tourism and education system in Dominica earlier described, and will help to understand the challenges and planning processes on the island as later discussed in chapter nine.

Interestingly, Rhodes’s review also observed (based on the works of Smith 1999 cited in Rhodes 2000) a trend among the cases which indicated a move away from bureaucratic management towards the formation of networks. This position is supported elsewhere and advancing the concept some writers hold that the Weberian bureaucratic model represents an ideal situation (Hall 1963) whereas in reality bureaucracy exists along a continuum rather than in a present or absent format (Gouldner 1950; Udy 1959; Hall 1963; Mintzberg 1979, 1980; Morden 2004). Table 10 shows key features of the bureaucratic model and points to several of its limitations.
### Table 10: The Bureaucratic Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Features</th>
<th>Limitations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A continuous organisation of functions bound by rules.</td>
<td>Rules, originally designed for organisational efficiency tend to become all-important in their own right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specified spheres of competence: specialisation of work, the degree of authority allocated and the rules governing the exercise of authority</td>
<td>Relationships between office-holders or roles are based on the rights and duties of each role: tend to be depersonalised, leading to rigid predictable behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical arrangement of offices or jobs: one level of jobs is subject to control by the next higher level</td>
<td>Decision-making tends to be categorised: programmed choices discourages search for alternative options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appointment to offices are made on grounds of technical competence</td>
<td>Rigid behaviour tend to be damaging for client/customer relations and management/ worker relationships: lack of tailor-made services; acceptance of standards; imposed framework of rules and controls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation of officials from the ownership of the organisation</td>
<td>Standardisation and routine procedures make change and adaptation difficult when circumstances change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official positions exist in their own right, and jobs holders have no rights to a particular position</td>
<td>The exercise of control based on knowledge led to growth of experts whose opinions and attitudes may frequently clash with those of the general managers and supervisors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rules, decisions and actions are formulated and recorded in writing

Adapted from Cole (2004)

Among the elements identified by Cole (2004) consistent with the observations of earlier writers is a strong adherence to rules, hierarchical arrangements, high levels of specialisation, and separation of administration from ownership.

Of particular interest to this study is the impact that such features have on planning and decision making. As suggested in table 10 above, set organisational rules within bureaucracies take on great significance and a power of their own during decision making.
making processes. Often, this allows for high levels of standardised processes and predictability in behaviour within depersonalised roles, but may be equally limiting where and when flexibility and innovation is required.

However, Fisher, Harris, Bateman, & Brown (2008) note that due to the increasing complexity and dynamism of the environment, organisations have had to shift from hierarchical, bureaucratic structures to more organic, flatter, matrices of network structures characterised by empowered teams and coordinated by vision or purpose rather than policies and procedures. Moreover, Mintzberg (1979) earlier opined that bureaucracies are geared toward perfecting standards. Therefore adhocracies are at times required to pull together experts from different disciplines into a functional project team to facilitate innovation (Mintzberg 1989; Autier 2001; Mendonça, Jefferson, Harrald 2007).

Table 11 which follows highlights the key elements of the adhocracy model as advanced by Mintzberg (1979). Usually, within the adhocracy model there is a narrow span of control and a fluid system of decision making. Further, decision making power is decentralised and distributed among managers and non-managers at all levels of the organisation. Thus, work input is unified towards a common goal patterned towards a team effort rather than in a supervisor-subordinate relationship. In this approach therefore, reliance on expert knowledge and power is pivotal. Nevertheless, the high levels of built flexibility result in capriciousness and a certain lack of formality in decision making approaches.

Within the Dominican setting, it can be argued that this form of organisational structure is very common, particularly when short to medium term international funded projects are implemented on the island. A typical example would be the recently concluded European Funded Eco-tourism Development Project previously discussed in chapter two. In fulfilment of that said project (and many others) a group of local and international professionals were pulled together on a contractual basis. In the case of Dominica which has a high dependency on foreign donor developmental projects, such adhocracies are deemed very useful in enabling highly skilled professionals to bring projects to completion within projected time frames. Nevertheless, because these structures by nature are temporary, sustainability issues generally arise.
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### Table 11: The Adhocracy Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Features</th>
<th>Limitations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly organic structure with little formalisation of behaviour</td>
<td>Changes internal shape frequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrow span of control &amp; little monopoly of power; high level of decentralisation</td>
<td>Lacks the advantages gained from repetitive work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High horizontal job specialisation based on formal training</td>
<td>Has little reverence for classical principles of management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tendency to group specialists into functional units for housekeeping but deploy them into market-based project teams to do their work</td>
<td>Expert power required, but not standardised skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliance on liaison devices to encourage mutual adjustment within and between teams</td>
<td>Amalgamation of expert knowledge essential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective decentralisation to and within teams</td>
<td>High levels of flexibility and adaptability builds instability into the structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work of administrative and operating team members blend into single effort</td>
<td>Effectiveness achieved at the price of inefficiency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Mintzberg (1979)

Some writers view the adhocracy as too casual and unsystematic leading to low levels of operational efficiency and productivity. Morden (2004) points out that this view is widely held among proponents of the scientific management theories. But Mintzberg (1989) holds that adhocracy in the proper context is indeed as logical and reasonable as any other structure. In fact, Mendonça, Jefferson and Harrald (2007) contend that adhocracy serves as a useful emergent phenomenon when emergency responses are deemed essential. Inasmuch as such situations demand improvisation, personnel to think in ways which differ from the original plan, the development of new organisational structures and adaptation to unseen and expanded needs, this structural arrangement allows for collaborative adhocracy formation. From that background, adhocracy is advocated by Mendonça et al as a means of addressing complex and chaotic conditions by supporting the adaptive, evolving processes and structures which emerge during and after unpredicted events and crises.
4.2.3 Restructuring and Organisation Change

Cole (2004) opines that most growing organisations are in a state of tension and that, once an organisation has grown beyond the point where the owners/managers can exercise direct control, differentiation or specialisation is inevitable. Accordingly, a new structure emerges. Earlier in the chapter it was highlighted that an organisation's structure is intricately connected to its goals and objectives (Senge 1994). If this point of view is accepted, it follows that as tourism enterprises offer new products and services, and the focus of the institutions' education and training programmes changes, so too must these organisations' structure, if a high level of efficiency is to be maintained.

In that regard, Burns and Stalker (1961) postulate that one of two different types of structure may result as organisations respond to environmental influence and pressures, namely, mechanistic and organic organisations. According to them, mechanistic organisations are typically bureaucratic and usually exist within hierarchical systems of control, with highly routine tasks and standardised operating processes. Conversely, organic structures are well suited to flatter organisations with little formalisation and standardisation, and therefore they are best able mutually to adjust to environmental changes. Later on, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) proposed that organisations tend to modify their structural arrangement by balancing the levels of differentiation and integration across the organisation in response to environmental changes. In their view, successful organisations are those able to acquire a high level of both differentiation and integration of their processes.

Nevertheless, despite adjustment to environment changes it is imperative that the structure remains relevant to the organisation's goals and objectives. That being so, the formation of strategic structures geared towards goal fulfilment is worthy of note here. Moreover, a number of writers have underscored the link between an organisation's structure and strategy (Senge 1994; Miller 1989; Peters 1993; McMillan 2002) and seem to imply that the primary reason for gaining insight into how organisations are structured is to arrive at designs well suited to organisational strategy.

However, Nicoll (1993) holds that intensely hierarchal organisations tend to resist change that challenges the normal and accepted mode of operations, procedures and
communication. Similarly, he continues, non-hierarchical organisations may totally reject efforts towards change. Generally, then, organisations seem to display a protectionist attitude, with simple or web structured organisations more ruthless in response (Nicoll 1993). Partly, this could be because organisational structure serves as a primary point of reference regarding how employees think and make sense of the context within which they work (Morgan 1986). These ideas needs to be explored as they could provide some level of understanding of the resistance to organisational change observed in the field.

Further, Jorgen (1997) comments that, individual self interest is an important consideration for government bureaucrats’ decision making on organisational matters. That, he suggests, is partly as a result of: the distributional consequence of formal organisations; the risk aversion nature of civil servants; the fact that ministers, whose agenda bureaucrats seek to fulfil, usually discount the long-term benefits of reorganisation; reorganisation involving tangible benefits; a possible loss occurring due to the reorganisation process. Nevertheless, Jorgen contends that though “civil servants are assumed generally to be risk-averse egoists evaluating the consequences of organisational change in terms of job security, career prospects and professional prestige, their interest is not identical” (1997:148). These concepts are of particular interest to this study as the organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training (as discussed in earlier sections of the chapter) largely comprise of bureaucrats within the civil service in Dominica.

Hence, according to Bland, Starnaman, Wersal, Moorhead-Rosenberg, Zonia & Henry (2000), successful change depends on choosing appropriate innovations and implementation strategies that fit the unique circumstances of the organisation; though, they point out, similar organisations in different contexts may take different paths in innovation. Bland et al further suggest that the main contextual elements having great impact on change are mission and goals, history of change, politics and organisation structure. Nevertheless, due to the challenging dynamics involved in achieving organisational change, Heijden (1993) earlier on states that devising a strategic vision should not be hindered by the influence of traditional concepts. He cautioned that a strategic vision needs to be grounded in new concepts, which therefore cannot be in
keeping with the traditional thinking style of a strategic fit (concepts developed further in chapter five).

For his part, Nicoll (1993) advocates that a planned, periodic movement is probably the most effective means for arriving at structural change rather than existing in a position of continuous flux from one state to the other. But, in the view of Robbins (1990), what is important is creating a balanced approach between maintenance and adaptive activities, thus ensuring stability while change occurs. All these ideas serve to attain better understanding of the organisational dilemmas which form part of the context within which this research is carried out.

Thus far, the chapter has explained that structural design has significant impact on management style, chain of command and decision making processes. It has also been shown that as organisations grow in size or product/services structural change becomes unavoidable. However, organisational change is challenging and often resisted both by simple web structures and hierarchical structures. Very often the power relations within structures significantly influence the level of success achieved in change initiatives. That being the case, the chapter will now give focus to the concept of power as observed in and among the typical organisations of relevance to this study.

4.3 Power

4.3.1 Key Concepts

This study takes a special interest in the role of power relations within organisations and the resulting impact on planning and decision making processes for tourism education and training. Power is defined in a variety of ways in the extant literature. For instance, power is perceived as by Foucault (1972, 1977, 1980) from a knowledge-power standpoint; based on concepts of authority and rationality (Weber 1947, 1978); as a force over another minus the force to resist (French in Dahl 1957); from a behavioural standpoint (Dahl 1957); in terms of the mobilisation of resources (Kanter 1977); as something possessed (Salancik and Pfeffer 1977) and in other cases an imposition of will (see McCall 1957).

Nevertheless, a commonly quoted definition is that of Dahl (1957) who claims that A has the power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would
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otherwise not do. From an organisational perspective, however, Bland et al (2000) define power as the ability to affect organisational outcomes either by possessing the authority to make decisions or by influencing those who do. In a practical sense though, discussing tourism, politics, power and place, Hall (1994) writes that power governs the interaction of individuals, organisations and agencies influencing or trying to influence the formation of policy and the manner in which it is implemented. If one accepts these conceptualisations of power, it follows that the individuals who hold managerial and authoritative positions within the key organisation earlier discussed have a pivotal role in directing and influencing planning processes of tourism education and training in Dominica.

However, holding a different view, Pfeffer (1981) opines that power is actually a structural phenomenon. He seems to agree with Perrow (1970) whose comments state that there is an apparent void in the debate on the idea that organisations are arranged into departments and sub-units; not all of which are equally powerful. In so doing, Pfeffer and Perrow give importance to the varying levels of structural power relationship within organisations. In their view the relationship ingrained in an organisation’s departments and sub-units produces unique power relations worthy of study in gaining an in-depth understanding of the organisation as a whole.

Mintzberg (1983) in his book, Power In and Around Organisations discusses power from the standpoint of ‘who gets it, when, how and why’ but not ‘what it is’. For him this is central to gaining an understanding of how organisations work, particularly if the point of interest is to improve an organisation’s functioning from within and to control them from the outside, ultimately to get them operating favourably. If one subscribes to this approach, one could argue that this phenomenon would be of much interest to externally politically controlled bureaucracies like the public sector in Dominica and elsewhere, where politically appointed public servants are often strategically placed and utilised to control the decision making process.

For Mintzberg power is simply defined, as “the capacity to effect (or affect) organisational outcomes” (Mintzberg 1983:4). Like Mintzberg, the concern of this thesis is not on the abstracts of what power is but rather on how its use within organisations impacts national planning processes for tourism education and training.
Furthermore, Mintzberg’s work also stands apart from the organisational literature by placing emphasis on structure and the flow of power in and around organisations rather than on the individual or societal perspective.

However, in that regard this study differs from Mintzberg’s focus due to the concern placed on how power relations both within and between different tourism organisations and education institutions in Dominica influence the national planning and decision making process. As in the literature (see Pfeffer 1981; Mintzberg 1983), in this study, authority or legitimate power and politics are also conceived as subsets of power. In addition, other sub-themes raised by the experts – role conflict, leadership, dependency – are also featured in this second section of the chapter.

4.3.2 Legitimate Power

Weber’s (1978) concepts of power are rooted in ideas of authority, premised according to Gordon, Kornberger & Clegg (2009) on bureaucratic rules of governance. This concept elsewhere is referred to as sanctioned power, that is, the legal mandate that gives authority to bureaucrats (Kawabata 2001). According to Pfeffer (1981), when power is transformed to authority, influence is simultaneously transformed but in a subtle, yet important way. In addition, he suggests that legitimate power is contextual; as it is usually based on activities accepted and expected within a specific context and is actually desired rather than resisted. This process of transformation of power, Pfeffer explains addresses the issue of institutionalisation of social control. Following Mintzberg (1983) and Gray (1989), from an organisational perspective, authority is the formal or legitimate power invested in one’s office; which Mintzberg expounds is the ability to get things done by virtue of the office held.

Invariably legitimate power is notably located and managed differently in flat and hierarchical organisations; and in the context of this study as previously discussed power is exhibited differently in small private enterprises in contrast to large public sector organisations. According to Mintzberg (1989), Morden (2004) and many others, the concept of centralisation is viewed as the location of the decision making authority (legitimate power) within an organisation. Also, Mintzberg (1989) explains that when
all the power rests at a single point in an organisation, its structure is centralised; and when such power is dispersed it is relatively decentralised. For Morden (2004), this is representative of the extent to which power is delegated downwards and outwards within the organisation.

In addition, Morden holds that it is possible to observe different degrees of centralisation as along a spectrum. On one end there may be highly centralised decision making dominated by a small group of individuals at the upper levels of the managerial hierarchy with little or no delegation. It also follows that flat or simple organisations, such as reflected in chart 3, would be internally centralised. On the other end, one may have strong commitment of resources throughout the structure, along with the delegation of authority to the lower levels of management. Nevertheless, Mintzberg (1979) contends that the greater the external control of the organisation, the more centralised and formalised its structure is likely to be.

Following on these arguments, it can be concluded that external control could impact greatly on planning and decision making in private or public sector organisations which depend heavily on government’s subvention. For instance, as earlier illustrated based on the structure of the tourism and education system in Dominica, it can be concluded that degrees of centralisation may exist among school administrators and other technical specialists. However, within such bureaucratic designs, a great level of over arching external and authoritative control also rests with political appointed officials.

Nevertheless, Gray (1989) proposes that a collaborative approach is useful in power sharing. Gray suggests that in collaborative relationships (which will be discussed more fully in chapter five), a key characteristic of building consensus through partnerships is that it lessens the role and power of top managers and (even possibly political) leaders. Furthermore, Gray and Hay (1986) opine that legitimate stakeholders have a certain level of power over the problem of focus in a collaborative relationship. They hold that such stakeholders are able to share knowledge, resources and diverse conceptualisations of the problem domain, partake in arriving at a strategic choice and thus, share ownership of proposed options. Hence, it can be assumed that the inclusion of all stakeholders and actors through collaboration impacts positively on the implementation process. Moreover, the development of emergent networks and
network structures facilitates sustainability and helps curtail *ad hoc* approaches. Thus, understanding and finding the right mix and balance of these structures can be useful in addressing power issues inherent among organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training.

### 4.3.3 Politics and Control

Another element of power of significance in this study is that of politics. Organisational politics involves those activities taken within organisations to acquire, develop and use power and other resources to obtain one's preferred outcomes in a situation in which there is uncertainty or dissensus about choices (Pfeffer 1981). As such, politics is power in action to exercise influence over some form of resistance to enhance or protect self interest. Pfeffer claims that in bureaucratic organisations since decisions are made based on goals, rules and procedures there is no place for, or presumed effect of political activity.

Generally, politics revolve around the allocation of scarce resources, internal networking, resource allocation, and the relationship with the external environment (Bland et al). These ideas seem to indicate that politics arises out of a level of conflict over differing interests and resources available to address varying needs and/or agendas. Thus, as earlier stated a good understanding of the central ideas underpinning such political decisions could help create a deeper appreciation of the context of this investigation.

From a different point of view, Hendry, Johnson and Newton (1983) point out the importance of being alert to the micro politics of decision-making and how ideas for change are generated and steered through organisations. As a result, they advise that it is important to understand the type of leadership styles utilised within organisations. To them, also significant is the nature of existing inter-organisational relationships and competition. These two aspects of the organisation create their own political issues. These concepts all have significance for this study where the limitation of size tends to breed negative institutional cultures, power struggles and competitive dispositions. Such understanding would help clarify how policies are framed, and how planning
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decisions made and are implemented particularly within the various government ministries and their corresponding departments.

Equally important is the social, political and cultural context of individual stakeholder organisations. Within each such structure are hidden cultural rules on how decisions are made and on whose voice is heard or given significance. Often internal lobbying may be commonplace before the actual tabling of major issues to ensure that one’s position receives the merit it requires. Also, departmental or personal office politics may determine which decisions and policies are advanced. All these factors could negatively impact the broader national planning process, particularly in a Small Island Developing State like Dominica (as elsewhere, see discussion in chapter two) where a high degree of familiarity among employees within and across organisations exists.

On another level, Hall and Jenkins (1995) suggest that the political environment and government of a country which influences changes in laws, regulations and policy would impact all planning and decision-making processes on a national scale. Hence, they argue it is critical to be able to establish the source of political power, how power may change and the likely effects on policy and planning. Moreover, analysis of governments, oppositions, election cycles, political environments, government plans, party manifestos and pressure group activities are also important as they play a great role in influencing policy [and planning concerns] in democracies (Tribe 2006).

In the Dominican context, all these issues need to be explored in arriving at a deeper understanding of the research puzzle. Two additional dimensions of power worthy of discussion in this chapter for their apparent importance to the organisational power relations in the local setting of this case are leadership and dependency. Thus, these will now receive some attention in the following sections.

4.3.4 Leadership

Though not a central idea of the study, a brief discussion here, on leadership types is useful in further understanding the matters arising in the case study about the research problem. Therefore, the focus is not to engage in major debate on the vast body of literature on leadership but to help frame the concerns most relevant to the case.
Chapter 4: Structure and Power, the impact on planning and decision making

Parent, Olver and Segiun (2009), in a paper ‘Understanding Leadership in Major Events: the case of the 2005 World Aquatics Championships’, discuss in detail various leadership theories which have been developed to address the needs of varying ‘subordinate types’. They explain that among the approaches available for conceptualising leadership theories are charismatic, transformational, least preferred co-worker or LPC and leader-member exchange or LMX. In his discussions on theories of leadership, Cole (2004) focuses on the charismatic, traditional, situational, appointed, functional and principle-centred leader. Uhl-Bien & Marion (2009), in contrast, highlight a new approach to leadership grounded in complexity theory; while others have also focused on traits and characteristics of the laissez-faire leader (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Engen 2003).

Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter & Ferris (2002), however, look at leadership in organisations from a political theory perspective. They argue that the mere arrangement of organisations into categories of hierarchical authority presents a unique political arena that requires a different set of ‘leader political behaviours’. Ammeter et al explain that in mechanistic, formalised structures there is much hierarchal differentiation and coupling and degree of interdependence between units. Following this line of argument, in this study it therefore becomes necessary to acknowledge and give special attention to the existing political dimensions in-built in hierarchical organisations.

However, in contrast to hierarchical structures, Ammeter et al point out, organic structures are less formalised with much more power striving activities. Thus, leaders operating within organic organisations experience more uncertainty and engage in more political activity as they aim to secure resources and workplace recognition. Moreover, within the context of a Small Island Developing State, such issues create a high degree of internal competition and workplace tension as professionals seek career mobility and vie for the few limited positions of authority.

Nevertheless, from a strategic management planning standpoint the leader(s) have a significant role and are usually largely responsible for sustained organisational development. Lenz (1993) proposes that this role is one of diagnosing situations, making decisions about required action and marshalling collective effort sufficient to
achieve the desired future or to avert significant problems. Hence, it is important that the leaders are able to exercise positive influence over members of their organisations, as well as other stakeholders.

However, as Alexander (1985) much earlier opined, often strategies necessary for an effective organisational change fail at the management hierarchical level. In some cases this may be due to opposition on the part of the top executives or organisational leaders who may hold differing positions and beliefs on the policy direction that should be taken. This type of conflict is referred to as “implementation gap”; however, in other cases it could be a result of the absence of lower level stakeholder ‘buy-in’ (Alexander 1985). Thus, leadership also involves the ability to exercise the power to influence others towards a common organisational goal.

The concepts of implementation gap or lack of stakeholder buy-in seem in keeping with the issues arising out of this study and may serve to explain some of the challenges observed. This could be deemed to be particularly relevant to the implementation of plans, policies and agreed decisions arising from a large number of regional and international projects (refer to earlier discussions in chapter two). Thus, a related challenge closely linked to Small Island Developing States and acceptance of foreign aid through internationally funded projects is that of dependency. An explanation of this concept and its significance to the study is next presented in section 4.3.5.

4.3.5 Dependency
The dependency phenomenon is yet another dimension of power of importance to this study. However, since it was not one of the pivotal issues observed, only a brief discussion is presented here. Dependency theory as presented in the work of Frank (1967) helps comprehend the over-reliance of some countries on the Western world. According to Lepp (2008) citing Frank’s work, the economic system comprises of a developed metropolitan centre and an underdeveloped periphery. Raw materials from the periphery exported to the centre and then exported back out as manufactured goods create a system of constant flow of capital from the periphery to the centre leading to a concept described as economic leakage.
Lepp suggests that dependency theory is useful in understanding the relationship between western tourism generating countries and the less developed world. In this study a similar conclusion can be drawn in reference to the need and dependence of less developed countries on the more developed world for general economic support. Such heavy reliance creates a situation, it can be argued, that transfers a certain degree of policy power to donors. In the case of Dominica, relations with the west can also be framed within the concepts of foreign 'aid dependency'.

This phenomenon, Brautigam and Knack (2004) seem to suggest, is a problematic condition created due to large transfers of aid from the more developed world to the poorer underdeveloped world. The key issues raised as a result of aid dependency are: the lack of stimulation towards 'self help' or self-sustaining development; the loss of capacity to think and the resulting lost of control; and the inability of governments to provide basic core functions such as provision of public services and maintenance of infrastructure. Nevertheless, Brautigam and Knack point out that in seeking to understand the concept of aid dependency one cannot separate it from the numerous other problems facing low income counties.

The Commonwealth of Dominica, being a Small Island Developing State marked by the disadvantage of size and several other limitations has a high reliance on international donor agencies and externally funded development projects. Accordingly, most planning decisions are very often framed by the agendas of foreign aid providers. As such there is a certain level of restriction on the scope of planning for tourism education and training. But more specifically, because the island has a limited number of professionally trained specialists, the island continues to adopt the agendas, policies and plans of regional and international organisations.

4.4 Conclusions
The central focus of this chapter was with organisational structure and the power relations that are associated with them. The chapter sought to explain the organisational structure of the key organisations involved in tourism education and training in Commonwealth of Dominica. This served primarily to help the reader better understand some of the key challenges observed in this investigation. For Dominica, the flat, web
structure and the hierarchical structure are the most typical structural designs among the various tourism organisations and education institutions. Since bureaucratic structures such as the public sector by their nature create levels of hierarchy, they also consist of tall command structures and high levels of centralisation. This has special implications for this study, as it indicates that, on the one hand, in the public sector the tourism and education system in Dominica can largely be described as bureaucratic. But in contrast, on the other hand, the small tourism enterprises, as seen among the private, largely owner/managed accommodation sector in Dominica, are characterised by their simple informal, internally centralised organisations, generally organic in nature and exhibiting fairly flat command structures.

The chapter also drew attention to two main structural management designs for decision making processes, that is, bureaucracy and adhocracy. These perceptions of how organisations are arranged to facilitate decision making point to reasons why the public sector are at times negatively coined ‘bureaucratic’. It must be emphasised though, that as discussed earlier, a purely bureaucratic organisation is an idealist notion. Thus, the existence of various levels of bureaucracy among the organisations involved in tourism education and training, resulting in descriptions such as being ‘highly bureaucratic’ or ad hoc in planning approach have come to be more acceptable concepts.

Also important to the context of this study is the impact of the power relations in and around the various organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training. For small islands like Dominica this is particularly significant as decisions are made about the allocation of limited resources. Moreover, the location of power within organisations provides an explanation of how planning decisions are made for tourism education and training within the public sector as against a small family owned and managed tourism enterprise. Generally, the more formalised the organisation and greater the degree of external control, the greater the centralisation of power; and conversely the flatter and less formalised the organisation, the more decentralised power would be. Nevertheless, small internally controlled structures usually display high levels of centralised power.

Varying dimensions of power including legitimate authority, politics, leadership and dependency are of importance to tourism education and training planning in Dominica.
Therefore, an understanding of these concepts and how they affect organisational relations are insightful in gaining an appreciation of some of the challenges encountered by and between the main organisations involved in planning for tourism education and training in Dominica. Moreover, the limitations and disadvantages faced by a small island create a specific context within which these elements unfold, leading at times to several challenges when planning for tourism education and training.

To address these challenges it is essential to engage sound planning processes. Consequently, the discussions in this part of the study will progress in chapter five, by elaborating on the central planning approaches of relevance to the thesis being advanced.
Chapter Five: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

5.1 Introduction

Thus far in this section the focus has been on pertinent education and training concepts, particularly those of relevance to the different levels of education and training. Also, tourism education and training issues have been explored, with special emphasis placed on the local context, culture and challenges. In addition, it has been shown that national planning for tourism education and training takes place within varied types of organisational structures, which are themselves impacted by power dynamics such as legitimate authority, politics, different leadership types and the dependency phenomenon.

This chapter now gives attention to the planning approaches of relevance to the study. First, the chapter seeks to establish in brief, the broad concept of planning in the extant literature in section 5.2. Next, the chapter examines the key concepts in the area of general curriculum planning in section 5.3. Sections 5.4 to 5.6 turn the point of focus to the specific planning approaches deemed relevant to the study. In that regard, section 5.4 deals with strategic planning; section 5.5 collaboration and collaborative planning and 5.6 stakeholder involvement, inter-organisational collaboration and collaborative networks.

Further, the practice of tourism education and training policy development and planning is explored in section 5.7. Discussions are initially centred on the significance of policy development and the close link to planning. The chapter presents the Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) Conceptual Framework proffered by Amoah and Baum (1997) as useful for arriving at a collaborative policy and effective implementation plan. Two working examples of this framework are discussed, inclusive of current development in both cases.

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5.2 Planning

The concept of planning has a history which is rooted in the idea of efficiency, a process of designing problem-solutions that could be installed and operated cheaply (Rittel & Webber 1973). However, over the years, Rittel & Webber continues, these concepts have advanced to include concerns about what is the right thing to do; questions about outputs of actions; and ... to conceptualise social processes as the link connecting open systems into large interconnected networks of systems. But according to Morden (2004), planning can now be viewed as a means of co-ordination and efficiency, within the context of time as a sequence when synchronization of events is necessary. These principles have underpinned operational processes (Rittel & Webber 1973; Morden 2004), civil engineering, scientific management (Rittel & Webber 1973), Just In Time systems and supply chain management (Morden 2004).

Nevertheless, the literature shows that various planning approaches have also been explored and researched over the years in the field of tourism. Timothy (1989) cites several tourism planning paradigms, which he claims have emerged from the general urban and regional planning traditions. Among these are community-based planning, incremental planning, collaborative planning, comprehensive planning, strategic planning, cooperative planning and contemporary planning approaches such as sustainable development and systems approaches. Certainly, this reflects a voluminous body of literature; however, this chapter is purposely geared towards further setting out the broad context of the study.

As a result, the next section presents a selective review of relevant planning literature, as already delineated in the introductory section of the chapter.

5.3 Curriculum Planning

Curriculum planning can take different forms at varying levels and stages throughout the education and training system. Eraut (1990) suggests that curriculum design is one of the
key tasks in curriculum development and that the concept of curriculum design is a direct reflection of the ideas upheld about its definition. Nevertheless, the actual task of curriculum design includes both theoretical and practical considerations of the varied organisations and institutions involved (Barrow & Millburn 1990). But, the procedures employed for putting the curriculum design into operation are generally a direct result of the actual purpose and scope of the curriculum itself.

Among the curriculum planning models available the most utilised is the objectives model founded on Tyler’s (1949) concepts of the curriculum. A characteristic feature of the objective model is the emphasis placed on patterns of cognitive, affective and psychomotor learning. However, there has been much debate among scholars on setting curriculum objectives exclusively on theories derived from behaviourism. Among the main critics came from Bruner (1960) who recommends that curricula should be designed to reflect the concepts and methods located in the structure of each discipline, with the range of subject matter extending that structure in a so-called spiral fashion as the student proceeds through the various grades. This view appears to be making a strong case for introducing various disciplines at varying levels throughout the life cycle, paralleling the individual progress as he/she moves through the different stages of the education system.

For Lawton (1983) rather than basing the curriculum on objectives, he believes that a form of cultural analysis should form the basis for curriculum planning and design. Furthermore, Barrow & Millburn (1990) suggest that the task of planning should be framed by reflective and critical discussions by those classroom teachers responsible for curricula implementation. Be that as it may, the best approach, one could argue, should be arrived at after careful consideration of the goals and aims of the education and training system, as well as an in-depth analysis of various options in arriving at the most appropriate choice for the local setting.

Nicholls and Nicholls (1978) in their writings advocate the planning of learning opportunities that are aimed at bringing about intentional changes in pupils and the

4 Theories based on observable changes in behaviour.
evaluation of the extent to which this was achieved. What seems to be suggested here is that planners need to focus efforts to achieve calculated changes in the student. This appears to support the view of the use of the curriculum as an element of control of what actually takes place in the classroom. Emphasis is therefore placed on the responsibility held by education planners for developing the atmosphere which would create certain specific outcomes.

Of equal relevance to the curriculum discussion are the principles of curriculum implementation. This aspect of the curriculum debate though not the focus of this study requires consideration during the planning process. It necessitates identifying the principal factors and establishing methodological procedures or models to ensure a pre-defined result (Barrow & Millburn 1990). For effective implementation, focus must be given to and plans made to cater to the school, learning environment and abilities of the mediations required for the successful introduction of the curriculum. It follows that at best, the process for curriculum planning requires careful thought and deliberations on the appropriateness of the specific planning approach chosen to allow for successful implementation and usefulness within the particular environment.

In that regard, the following sections of the chapter will examine key theoretical planning approaches in an effort to fully set the framework which underpins the study.

5.4 Strategic Planning
Strategic planning has at its core the task of arriving at an effective strategy, which aims to provide purposeful direction for action and serves as a road map for planners and policy makers. Thus, proponents to the strategic planning perspective (Andrew 1987; Ansoff & McDonnell 1990) advocate a deliberate planned and executed strategy. Furthermore, De Wit & Meyer (2004) suggest that the strategic planning perspective is developed on the assumptions that humans can assess reality fairly well and that its proponents favour systematic, orderly, consistent, and logical reasoning. Accordingly, Quinn (1980) defines a strategy as,
The pattern or plan that integrates an organisation's major goals, policies and action sequences into a cohesive whole. A well-formulated strategy helps to marshal and allocate an organisation's resources into a unique and viable posture, based on its relative internal competencies and shortcomings (Quinn 1980:5).

The key precept that strategic planning advocates seem to share is the belief that organisational outcomes cannot be left to chance (De Wit & Meyer 2004). Holding a different standpoint, Mintzberg (1994) criticises the belief that failure to plan is to fail to lead. For him, strategic planning is not the same as strategic thinking. Rather he argues strategic planning limits strategic thinking, as the most successful strategies, he contends, are visions not actual plans.

Nonetheless, Hendry, Johnson and Newton (1993) caution that strategic management is not about finding perfect solutions to problems; rather it is about understanding complex relationships and uncertain futures. If one agrees with this concept, then a strategy could be viewed as a detailed guide around which planners and stakeholders can collate their efforts. From that standpoint, a strategy allows for a unified front of operations towards a common vision, goals, and objectives. However, when such a strategy is arrived at, to be effective, once adopted, action must be swift, efficient and controlled (De Wit & Meyer 2004) and there must be buy-in from key players. Thus, in keeping with this stance strategic planning and selection of an appropriate strategic option becomes crucial to organisational effectiveness.

The strategic management literature suggests different strategic models (see Chaffe 1985; Galloway 2001) but the type suitable for use should be determined in relation to the relevant vision, goals, objectives and management styles (Chaffee 1985). Edwards & Rees (2006) raise the issue of the variety of ways in which the term strategy is conceptualised in the literature, but points to one common feature, namely the emphasis on long term planning. Based on Chaffee (1985) writings, the key principles involved are strategic planning, formulation and implementation. However, these issues are not the
Focus of this chapter. In fact, in the framing of this research the concept of strategy is viewed not in terms of profit maximisation dominant in the organisational literature, but rather for the usefulness of its systemic approach to decision making within the context of this investigation.

That being so, strategic planning as presented by Johnson and Scholes (1988) on one hand, involves identifying key objectives and goals and plotting the way forward to achieving them within a particular setting and environment. On the other hand, Hill and Jones (2004) speak of selection of mission and goals; analysis of competitive environment to identify opportunities and threats; analysis of internal environment to identify the organisation's strengths and weaknesses; selection of appropriate strategy; and then implementation. Tribe (2005a) advocates embarking on a four step process: mission selection, strategic analysis, strategic choice and strategic implementation. Alshloo, Castka & Sharp (2005) contributing to the debate, include the elements of monitoring and evaluation. With the exception of the element of evaluation by Alshloo et al (2005), in analysis these varying interpretations can be assessed as not having significant points of departure. But whatever demarcations are given to these steps, it can be agreed that they all focus on a tactical long term planning perspective.

One of the main areas of distinction of strategic planning is the concept of deliberate or emergent approaches (Wickham 2004; De Wit & Meyer 2004) to strategy creation. Mintzberg (1994) argues that the prevalent rigid approaches to strategic planning should actually be termed strategic programming, since it stifles visionary thinking. He contends that it is too rigid to allow for any sort of strategic thinking and only advocates the implementation of a previously decided strategy. Accordingly, he advocates a flexible strategy making approach which allows for continuous learning and synthesis of ideas into a vision that then gives direction to the organisation.

In line with these ideas the strategic incrementalism perspective emphasises emergence over deliberateness (De Wit & Meyer 2004). The proposition is for an unfolding creative process. In this case the approach is one of managing short term capabilities and
exploiting opportunities as they present themselves (Wickham 2004). Advocating also for this standpoint Quinn (1980) proposes what is referred to as the proactive strain of incremental behaviour, logical incrementalism. A key assumption of incrementalism is that strategic planners would be ill equipped to deal with 'wicked' problems, which Quinn (1980) holds are characteristically unique, complex and comprise many sub-problems and at times deemed (Rittel & Webber 1973) as malignant, vicious or tricky. These Quinn (1980) opines, cannot be simply analysed and dealt with by developing a comprehensive plan. So, in such cases a more flexible and adaptive approach is required. Furthermore, proponents (Quinn 1978; Mintzberg 1990) of this position hold that strategy formation is messy, fragmented and piecemeal.

In considering these two opposing schools of thought one needs to analyse the strengths and limitations of both positions. While on the one hand strategic planners focus on a clear direction and setting out specific steps to avoid strategic drift (Tribe 2005a) on the other hand, it can be argued that it is impossible to predict the future. Hence, there is still the need for some element of flexibility and adaptation. A common criticism of incrementalism is that it allows for lack of order, with no sense of direction and no control over future development. However, this same characteristic has much strength in facilitating innovation and spontaneity in coping with unexpected 'wicked' problems. Thus, in keeping with the concept that a strategy must be suitable to the nature and environment that it is to serve, it is critical that decisions are made about how the process will be framed. It may be that a compromise between extremes may be adopted rather than operating under one perspective or the other. As Bracker (1980) argues what is significant is the provision of a framework for developing abilities and for anticipating and coping with change.

Galloway (2001) highlights some key benefits of strategic planning. Importantly, first, it provides a means for employee involvement and support of the broad vision and goals. Second, he suggests, it ensures proactive management rather than being reactive to environmental trends and changes. And, third, it also allows for the assessment of resources and to prepare for their most effective use. Plus, fourth, strategic planning
provides a strong communication network for information dissemination, project planning and evaluation. Fifth, it creates a mechanism to elevate discussions and focus beyond budgetary issues and organisational constraints in favour of long-term effectiveness. Moreover, in contrast to the incrementalism perspective, it limits ad hoc approaches to programme development, allowing for the co-ordination and planning necessary for interdisciplinary programmes (Galloway 2001).

However, Galloway cautions that very often strategic planning is not carefully integrated into management systems and so he points to the following shortfalls: (1) managers of the plan may be faced with difficulties at the implementation stage and consequently, the strategic plans may remain no more than glorified political documents; (2) this is particularly so when such plans are developed with too much formality which may restrain creativity and reduce flexibility; arguments which favour the incrementalism approach; (3) in most cases there may be some prevailing or unpredicted conditions that impinge negatively on the expected outcomes.

Both the above mentioned advantages and challenges of strategic planning raise questions about the degree of deliberateness and flexibility that should be built into a specific plan and the best approach suitable for a specific environment. However, one factor which impacts on strategy implementation is that of the level of stakeholder involvement and suitable approaches which facilitate effective participation, plan development and implementation. As such, this phenomenon will now be discussed in more detail in the next section of the chapter as the key concepts of collaboration and collaborative planning are explored.

5.5 Collaboration and Collaborative Planning

Despite advances in strategic and other planning approaches, the traditional concept of management as the key or primary architect of organisational plans prevails, though the top-down approach to management can be deemed to have had limited success. As such, there is an increasing need for the practice of cooperation and partnership among
organisational planners. This is of particular importance to small developing Island States faced with issues of limited resources which has become even more pertinent due to recent global economic downturns. As a result the collaborative approach represents one set of procedures that can be utilised to enhance effectiveness of a specific strategic option to planning and decision making. This concept has been previously recommended among others, by Jamal and Getz (1995), Trist (1977), Austin (2000) and Todeva and Knoke (2005).

Over the years in the organisational and planning literature there has been much advocacy of a collaborative approach to planning and decision making (Godschalk and Mills 1966; Gray 1989; Moote, McClaran and Chickering 1997; and Wondolleck and Yaffee 2000). According to Lowry, Adler and Miller (1997), this model of planning is characterised by interaction through partnership, towards consensus building, plan development and implementation. In fact, Jamal and Gertz (1995) earlier on seem to support the view that the collaborative process has the potential to give plans legitimacy and credibility since collaboration allows for a relatively coherent and strategic vision.

In a seminal piece, ‘Collaborating finding common ground for multiparty problems’, collaboration is defined as “a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain” (Gray 1989:227). It must be noted here, that this definition and underpinning concepts partly frames the key constructions in the primary data of this thesis and therefore is given particular emphasis throughout this section and later in chapter ten and eleven.

Gray refers to a problem domain as the way in which stakeholders conceptualise a problem. Importantly, she advocates for collaboration to be advanced as a process-oriented emergent interorganisational theory. Gray’s main point of criticism on past planning approaches is that historically organisational theorists largely focused on the transactional patterns and structural arrangements of network relations. In her view, this limited the debate to established patterns of interaction and underrepresented the process
Furthermore, she contends that underpinned by negotiated order theory, ‘the social context in which, relationships are negotiated and renegotiated’ (Gray 1989:228) collaboration seeks to emphasise the cognitive and expressive element of organisational interaction. Negotiated order theory Gray explicates, ignores the rigid hierarchical features of organisations and focuses on their emergent nature and the dynamic web interactions [or softer dimensions] in which they are involved. Thus, Gray (1989) proposes collaboration as a vehicle through which organisations can negotiate collectively.

Other authors have framed collaboration around the concept of negotiated information order, where a network of organisations develop an institutional thought structure (Warren, Rose & Bergunder 1974) of understanding, sharing and negotiating about whether the information exchanged is socially sufficient (Heimer 1985). Once an agreement is reached among the members of the network on the nature and criteria by which the information shared is assessed as sound, technically and scientifically acceptable, then according to Heimer (1985) a negotiated information order has been established. This process emerges through joint appreciation (Trist 1983) of the nature of a phenomenon, of what is known about it and of what would be a possible and desirable course of activity for the future.

Gray (1989) supports the theoretical concept of requisite variety (Ashby 1960) to underpin arguments in favour of collaboration which address the issue of developing an internal level of complexity commensurate to that of the organisational environment. The precept held here is that individual organisations lack the ability to single handedly adapt to the myriad of environmental stimuli. Hence, there is an increase in interdependency levels which functions to favour collective strategies. The collaboration process then is proposed as a measure through which cooperative approaches can be facilitated. The table 12 below illustrates four possible designs to the collaboration.
Table 12: Designs for Collaboration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivating Factors</th>
<th>Expected Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exchange of Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancing a shared vision</td>
<td>Appreciate planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Search conferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community gatherings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolving conflict</td>
<td>Dialogues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Policy dialogues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public meetings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gray (1989:179)

As shown in table 12, according to Gray (1989) collaboration can be conceptualised along two dimensions: motivating factors and expected outcome. Consequently, collaboration can be useful to advance common goals and aims for the future, as well as to address issues that currently or may challenge realisation of these goals and aims. The possible outcome of stakeholder collaboration involves working together to achieve shared visions in collective strategies or to solve common problems through negotiated settlements. As shown the table above in utilising this design for effective collaboration certain criteria must be satisfied. First, stakeholders must be interdependent. Second, solutions must emerge through constructive dialogue. Third, there must be joint ownership of decisions. Fourth, there must be shared and collective responsibility for the future of the domain and lastly, collaboration must be an emergent process.

But more significantly, as Margerum (2002) suggests planning as a collaborative process has the central features of two-way communication and allows for a more significant role for public participation; though, ‘the public’ interest is usually less clearly defined (Born & Sonzogni 1995) than the interest of key actors. These are two principal characteristics of collaboration which lead to shared decision making through long-term, face to face group processes (Innes, Gruber, Neuman 1994) and stakeholder participation geared to
information sharing and consensus building (Fulton 1989). The above views seem to imply that collaborative planning creates the environment for valuable and meaningful stakeholder involvement. And furthermore, according to Lane (1994) it serves to make coordination of the entire process more effective.

The collaborative planning process involves three main phases (Gray 1989) which are here demarcated. First, the problem-setting phase where stakeholders become actively engaged and convenors to the process established. During this early stage a common definition of the problem must be arrived at, relevant stakeholders and resources are identified and a commitment to collaborate established. Secondly, there is the direction-setting phase where stakeholder interaction is engaged in efforts towards consensus. Importantly, this phase is meant to lay out operating rules and procedures; joint efforts in exploring options in seeking information and reaching agreement. Thirdly, the implementation phase involves individual and joint actions to put the agreed plans and policy into operation. During that time external support, structuring and monitoring is key.

Most authors (Gray 1989; Benveniste 1989; Friedmann 1992; McArthur 1995; Bramwell & Sharman 1998; Goodwin 1998; Margerum 2002) agree that collaboration provides a useful means of building consensus. This, they contend, allows for better acceptance of the final plans developed. In addition, they argue collaboration enhances interaction during the implementation phase. However, there maybe cases when not all stakeholders will agree with all aspects of the decisions made and therefore, as forewarned by Bramwell and Sharman (1998), may result in partial consensus.

Since Gray’s (1989) writings, the concept of collaboration has developed over the years giving rise to other variations and interpretations (see Robert & Bradley 1991; Wood & Gray 1991; Jamal & Getz 1995). Advancing on these ideas, in this study collaboration is defined as a ‘process of co-operation among autonomous stakeholders and actors of an inter-organisational tourism education and training domain to share knowledge, build consensus, and advance and manage policymaking and planning issues of the domain’. 
Accordingly, stakeholders in the context of this study would include all key players in the field of tourism education and training, as well as industry stakeholders and other relevant cross sector individuals or organisations in Dominica. In that regard, a discussion on the role of the stakeholders within ‘a collaboration’ follows.

5.6 Stakeholder Involvement, Inter-organisational Collaboration and Collaborative Networks

Again, following Gray (1989) stakeholders [in a collaboration] are the actors with an interest in a common problem or issue and include all individuals, groups, or organisations that are impacted by the efforts employed by others in resolving the conceptualised problem. She further explains that legitimate stakeholders share a common interest on a matter of mutual concern but remain autonomous despite the consensus on decisions made. Hence, Gray (1989) views collaboration as a useful tool for conflict resolution and/or to advance commonly held visions.

Most writers (Gray 1988; Gunn 1988, Haywood 1988, Inskeep 1991; Murphy 1983) recommend that stakeholders should be involved as early as at the design stage in order to avoid political and technical problems (Gray 1985). Moreover, all legitimate stakeholders should have the right and capacity to participate in the collaboration process (Gray 1989; Benveniste 1989). This means that any stakeholder who will be affected by the decisions made have a right to participate, but such a stakeholder must have the relevant knowledge, skills and resources required to impact the process in order to earn that right to be involved.

For Bramwell and Sharman (1998) effective collaboration depends largely on the initial selection process and the extent to which the stakeholders involved are representative of the various interest groups and actors which exist in the wider society. They hold this is critical to ensure that everyone has a voice in the decision making and planning process. In addition, they continue, the individual members participating in the collaboration must be knowledgeable of the standpoints and ideology of the relevant stakeholder groups that
they represent; a situation which would ensure that a true account of the ideas and
concerns of these groups is accurately communicated during the planning process.

Nevertheless, stakeholders must be able to assess the cost benefit analysis of participation
to be favourable (Bramwell and Sharman 1998). It is important that they are able to
deed the purpose of the collaboration as a matter of interest and consequence to their
own concerns. Further, collaboration according Benveniste (1989) gives legitimacy to
the process when it allow stakeholders to have significant influence in the decision-
making that impact on their lives. Nonetheless, Bramwell and Sharman (1998) opine
that the level of power among stakeholders is often unequal and remains biased towards
those with authority. Therefore, for effectiveness stakeholders need to feel that their
input would produce positive results and that they would actually have an equal voice in
influencing the process. But, as Joppe (1996) earlier points out in some instances the
style of communication utilised may inhibit less powerful stakeholders and their
involvement could thus be viewed as no more than tokenism (Arnstein 1996; Joppe
1996).

However, Margerum (2002) contends that generally in the planning literature the
stakeholder is defined in relation to conflict resolution. He argues that according to some
authors (Innes et al 1994; Susskind and Cruikshank 1987) stakeholders are viewed as
representatives of organisations, interest groups or persons with power to obstruct action.
This seems to present a negative concept of stakeholders, one which could undermine
their role in the decision making and planning process. Thus, Margerum argues that
though this phenomenon could at times be true, stakeholders should be viewed as central
to the planning processes as they are the ones who eventually impact upon or are
impacted by decisions made.

In advancing his point of view, Margerum (2002) discusses a series of studies in the area
of environmental planning over three phases in 1993, 1995, 1997-98. The projects
comprised of twenty stakeholder groups using a multiple of case studies in two clusters:
one for the United States and the other from Australia. Margerum discusses successes of
this planning model but appears to focus mainly on the obstacles that impinge on the direction-setting phase. Margerum concludes (among other problems noted) that the local context, its political structure and parliamentary system and level of diversity among stakeholders may all lead to challenging issues in the areas of communication, conflict resolution and building consensus.

The results of his research set out a number of issues for consideration, some of which are relevant to this study. One, the stakeholder selection process and composition must be transparent, inclusive and flexible. Two, the planning group must be representative of the range of all relevant stakeholder interests. Three, political gate keepers may negatively impact the process. Four, inclusiveness is more important to success when compared to the diminishing returns effect of large groups. Hence, these findings suggest that in utilising the principles of collaboration, a clear understanding of the processes and possible challenges involved is critical. That being so, Margerum (2002) recommends that it may be necessary to incorporate an element of training within the framework of the exercise. This he argues would help address or at the least curtail some negative consequences.

Inter-organisational collaboration is one dimension of this approach. To the extent that it allows the actors in the various organisations to take ownership for the plans developed, collaboration can be deemed as a means of ensuring consensus and efficiency of implementation (Susskind & Elliot 1983). As opined by Bramwell and Sharman (1998) transfer of ownership of the agreed plans leads to possible marginalisation of the course of action. This is yet another argument which seems to favour anticipated implementers being co-opted very early in the process and remain an active part from the direction-setting phase. As Gunn (1988) counsels the go-it-alone policies are of the past and neither businesses nor governments can operate in isolation. So it can be assumed that much benefit can be had from inter-organisational collaboration, a position supported in the extant literature (Teye 1988; Selin and Beason 1991; Jamal & Gertz 1995; Long 1997).
Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

For example, Jamal & Gertz (1995) assert that the concept of the inter-organisational domain is critical to collaboration. They state like Margerum (2002) that most authors who write from a business standpoint had predominantly assessed the organisation environment in terms of conflict resolution and that the importance of collective and co-operative response among organisations has been underplayed in the collaboration debate (Astley 1984). These ideas also help frame a fundamental argument of the thesis in favour of a comprehensive and all-inclusive perspective to planning and decision making. It can be contended that conflict largely arises when some stakeholders are excluded or are given partial or no power in the policymaking and planning process. Moreover, if implementers are not actively involved, issues of limited success and low sustainability are likely to occur.

As clarified by Jamal and Gertz (1995) inter-organisational relations can either be from a mutual exchange or resource dependency perspective. In their review of previous studies they cite conditions under which these may occur. In the first instance, organisations may form relations in cases where they can benefit from the interaction (Levine & White 1961) or in the latter gain or maintain control over scarce resources (Pfeffer & Salancik 1978). However, as explained by Schmidt and Kochna (1977) most collaborations are usually comprised of a combination of both symmetrical and power-dependency relations. As discussed in chapter four, issues of stakeholder legitimacy and power to act are of critical importance and hence impact in inter-organisational relations.

What is clear is that, inter-organisational collaboration forms a basis upon which various organisations can work together in achieving common goals when it is impossible to do so effectively alone. What needs to be explored here is how these concepts can be applicable in the context of this study. From a national perspective and in the context of small islands, interorganisational collaboration could be certainly deemed as very useful but more importantly, it may be pertinent and more efficient to establish sub groups or networks under a broad overarching initiative.
Further, utilising collaborative networks could be one means through which a national strategic collaboration can be managed by setting up networks and network structures. Networks comprise horizontal collaboration relationships between the public and private sector, community organisations and other interest groups (Mandell 1999). Key to this form of collaboration is the absence of government control, but very evident is the equal partnership formed in decision making (Mandell 1999) to effect change through strategic alliances (Achrol 1997). In that sense, utilising pockets of networks and structures could represent a strong and efficient model for building a national approach to tourism education and training planning. However, as discussed in chapter three this should embody the different levels of education and training from early childhood education to adulthood as encompassed in the formal and non-formal education and training system on a small island.

Moreover, Mandell (1999) opines that collaborative networks present an approach for achieving effective policy outcomes. This she argues is very important as resources become more limited [particularly in small island developing states] and public programmes fail to meet expectations. Thus, network structures are formed when actors working as individual units while linked to other actors, are unable to achieve success on their own (Mandell 1999; Batt & Purchase 2004). Such networks involve the simultaneous action of actors towards a common aim; but these actions Mandell (1999) explains are representative of the activities of the individual organisations or institutions.

Generally, networks are usually more useful when formed around knowledge bases which allow for the maximisation of knowledge sharing. Hence, the level of the network’s interdependency-reliance is useful in ensuring the collaborative relationship is successfully maintained. Accordingly, it can be argued that the formation of meaningful networks is beneficial in seeking to ensure that the collaboration process is deemed as having added value to all the actors involved. Thus, reciprocity and reliance are two important features of successful network collaborations (Batt & Purchase 2004).
Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

According to Mandell (1999), a network structure exists where there is a broad mission and joint strategically interdependent action. In such arrangements actors within the network do not have the freedom to act on their individual aims but must seek to operate collaboratively. Here again, this seems quite useful from a national planning perspective. Arguably, this sort of linkage though beneficial can be deemed limiting as all parties need to be trusted to honour the collaborative effort. Hence, it is essential that the goals and vision are jointly shared among the network structure. This is particularly crucial as a consequence of the high level of interdependency among the actors (Hakansson & Ford 2002), since actors have limited power to build independent strategies (Gadde, Huemer, & Hakansson 2003). In that sense, the formation of network and network structures could be useful in facilitating a broad destination approach rather than utilising a single broad structure (Scott, Cooper, & Baggio 2007) within the collaboration.

The discussion in this section has shown that collaboration theory, offers a framework through which the strategic alliances and network relationship can be advanced. What needs to be now considered is how applicable are these precepts within the context of tourism education and training in a Small Developing Island State. Seeking to gain such understanding, the chapter now turns the debate to tourism education and training policy development and planning.

5.7 Tourism Education and Training Policy and Planning

Most writers (Akehurst 1992; Godfrey & Clarke 2000; Scheyvens 2002) view policy development as a good strategy for the advancement of the tourism sector. Besides, planning and policy, Hall (2008) says, are intimately related. A number of authors and researchers (Barrett and Fudge 1981; Dye 1992; Hall and Jenkins 1995; Cullingsworth 1997; Hall 1999; Hall 2000; Dredge and Jenkins 2007; Hall 2008; Stevenson, Airey, & Miller 2008 among many others) have widely explored the key concepts and definitions of planning and policy, but this is not the focus of this study. For the purpose of concern here, a definition of tourism policy proposed by Goeldner & Ritchie (2003 cited in Chaisawat 2006) is presented as,
A set of regulations, rules, guidelines, directives and a development/promotion objectives and strategies that provide a framework within which collective and individual decisions directly affecting long-term tourism development and the daily activities within a destination are taken (Goeldner & Ritchie 2003 cited in Chaisawat 2006:2).

According to Ayyar (1996) during policy planning combining strategic vision with tactical decisions and responses to the emerging situation is difficult. Yet, education policy is not usually conceived as a high priority policy, claims Ayyar. Discussing the state of education systems around the world, he states:

Policy leadership lies in scanning the continuously changing environment, identifying the targets of opportunity to get the system [to] do what is right, building a coalition of relevant groups, setting choices that minimise foot-dragging by the unenthusiastic and subversion by the opposed and continuing to retain leeway so that uncertainties are clarified over a period of time (Ayyar 1996:347).

The views expressed above of the required policy leadership in education worldwide, can equally be applied to the context of this study. Further, if one agrees that planning and policy are strongly linked and that policy development is useful for advancement of tourism, then it follows that strong policy leadership is essential in the furtherance of national tourism education and training. From that background, the study now progresses by exploring and engaging this intricate link of national planning and policy planning within the framework of problem domain of this research.

Since it is widely accepted that tourism is a labour intensive service industry (Amoah & Baum 1997; The Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council 2008; Cowell & Crick 2004; Zagonari 2009), for destinations to be competitive and offer high quality products, engaging in human resources as a developmental strategy, is also critical. Thus, Amoah and Baum (1997) advocate that tourism education and training policy should be closely linked to the general tourism development policy. Therefore, they suggest that:

Education, backed by clear and sound polices, can improve the prospects for tourism’s human resources, thus making education highly significant to the overall human resource climate within tourism (Amoah & Baum 1997:5).
Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

Besides, according to Zagonari (2009), such policy should provide a balance between professional skills, basic knowledge and thematic specialisations. In Zagonari's opinion, that requires developing abilities to address the (i) immediate needs of tourism enterprises (ii) future demands of tourism and (iii) the future needs of customers. However, Amoah & Baum (1997) lament that little policy or strategic planning is placed in tourism education and training which would lead to varying curricula and training approaches based on the level of needs, an issue of central concern to this thesis. As Zagonari (2009) contends, even today a lack of binding policy on course contents continues to exist. Hence, it is not uncommon, as stated before for policies to remain nothing more than political documents which are rarely translated into action.

If it is agreed that tourism and education policies should be closely linked to, and direct tourism education and training policy formulation, then it also follows that an all-inclusive approach to planning is necessary. Such an approach would facilitate unity of purpose among key actors and sustainability of the programme and curriculum planned. Amoah and Baum (1997) cite an example where the Georgian College of Applied Arts and Technology in Canada utilises an advisory board comprising successful industry entrepreneurs. Thus, these stakeholders have an active role in tourism education and training policy direction and formation. Such practice of private sector involvement in tourism education and training is not uncommon. However, it is often done in an ad hoc fashion and according to Amoah and Baum, not guided by a clear policy direction.

That being so, the Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework illustrated in figure 5, is proposed by Amoah & Baum (1997) as one possible measure of facilitating a planned policy driven stakeholder approach at the national level. In a paper, Tourism Education: Policy Versus Practice, Amoah and Baum (1997) present this framework (again consistent with most the existing literature) from the standpoint of higher education in the developed countries. Additionally, in advancing these ideas two cases in Canada and Ireland are cited as recommended models.
of the framework in practice. These cases are later discussed in more detail due to their relevance to this study.

The framework places attention on 'the way in which management level education in tourism is currently developed and implemented: the apparent neglect of policy making and implementation' (Amoah and Baum 1997:11). Thus, the main assumption appears to be that a clearly articulated policy and implementation plan is essential to alleviate the *ad hoc* approach to national tourism education and training. The framework acknowledges that the tourism sector is large, diverse and fragmented. It also accepts that tourism as an area of study lacks a sound body of theoretical underpinning and thus, suffers from a weak operating framework.

Nevertheless, since the paper adopted a 'policy versus practice perspective' it ignores the structural dimensions and the power issues which impact on tourism education and training policy planning and implementation. That being so, this study questions whether policy is developed and implemented in a vacuum, separate and apart from the context and place?

As also reflected in figure 5 which follows on page 124, the planning process is framed within and impacted by the operating economic environment, sociocultural perspectives, environmental issues and political climate. However, Amoah and Baum focus as mentioned earlier is limited to tourism higher education and the cases observed by them are placed in the developed world, consistent with the trend in the extant literature. As a result what needs to be explored here is the suitability of this framework in its current format in the context of a Small Island Developing State.
Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

Figure 5: Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) Conceptual Framework

Key: ----► Existing ad hoc policy/implementation consultation  
      ——— Desired policy and implementation process

Source: Amoah & Baum (1997)

In the two cases cited by Amoah and Baum (1997) the main aim of the Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council (CTHRC) and [then] Council for Education, Recruitment and Training, (CERT, the Irish Tourism and Hospitality Training Authority) is the national co-ordination of inputs of education and the tourism industry into a unified system (Amoah & Baum 1997). Table 13 which follows on page 125 shows the main similarities and differences between the two cases, Canada’s CHTRC and the Republic of Ireland’s CERT.

This framework (illustrated in figure 5 above), Amoah and Baum (1997) claim, allows for a comprehensive planning process from the stage of policy setting to implementation. In both cases there are collaborative initiatives with other tourism agencies and sub
regional bodies. Thus, consultation among key players is greatly enhanced. In addition, Amoah and Baum opine, this approach also has great value in directing government expenditure and investment in human resource on the specific needs of the local industry. Nonetheless, Amoah and Baum point out that critics hold that the process is too rigid and may not cater to all the needs and interests of students.

Since the findings of Amoah and Baum (1997) in 2001, the Republic of Ireland on the directive of the Minister for Tourism, Sport and Recreation began efforts in establishing a National Tourism Development Authority (also referred to Fáilte Ireland) officially merging CERT with Bord Fáilte, in 2003 (Travers et al. 2002). A 2002 report of the implementation group explains that Bord Fáilte was initially responsible for product development, marketing, strategic planning, promotions and other supporting functions to the industry. Though CERT is still actively involved in training, certification functions have now been passed on to a new National Qualifications Authority for Ireland. The 2002 report also explains that these changes are geared at streamlining and integrating the delivery of both sets of the government’s activities in furtherance of the growth and development of the tourism industry. In addition, the report states that this would create a one-stop-shop service and the strengthening of the working and funding arrangements of the entities by formation of the new body.

As also shown in Table 13, the Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council (CTHRC) today continues to operate as an overarching institution for human resource development and labour market information. However, CTHRC now manages and operates a variety of functions, inclusive of the Canadian Academy of Travel and Tourism. The council also partners with provincial/territorial organisations, in an effort to enhance the quality of the Canadian labour force and to assist the sector in dealing with changing competitive demands (Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council 2008).
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**Main Responsibilities**

- Representation from provincial/territorial government, labour, equity groups, federal and government agencies & departments, employers, education & training unions, educational institutions, government of Canada |

**Board of Directors**

- Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council (CTHRC) |

**Council for Education, Recruitment & Training (CERT)**

| **Republic of Ireland** | **Canada** |

**Table 13: Use of the TEPE-TTL Framework in Canada and the Republic of Ireland**

**Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes**
Further, in keeping with the current immigration policy of Canada, the CTHRC also provides advice to local tourism human resource organisations on effective use of available immigration and labour mobility programmes, geared at integrating foreign workers into the labour force. That being so, the CTHRC boasts of being,

A leader in a number of areas, including groundbreaking work in the area of temporary foreign workers, foreign credential recognition, and its comprehensive suite of training and certification resources marketed under the emerit Tourism Training brand. (Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council 2008)

The developments in both cases seem to imply that in practice utilisation of the TEP-TEI framework is favourable, but more significant, is the characteristic feature of a central planning body. The Republic of Ireland’s approach of merging the education and training body with the tourism development body, one may assume, is an attempt at centralisation and in favour of a more hierarchical type management of the industry. Also, the broadening of the scope of responsibility of the Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council indicates growth and expansion rather than disintegration or decentralisation.

Arguably, a country would need to assess its local situation to determine the usefulness of this approach to the local setting. And again the appropriateness of such an approach in the context of a developing Small Island State must be questioned. At the least, this framework presents a starting point for a more structured, strategic and collaborative national approach to tourism education and training.

In an attempt to advance the discussion in relevance to the study, the following parts of the study, III and IV, will elaborate on this research puzzle within the setting of the investigation, specifically in the Commonwealth of Dominica. As such discussions on the Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) Conceptual Framework will be revisited in chapter ten.
5.8 Conclusion

This last chapter in part II established a brief overview of general planning concepts, but emphasised those planning approaches which underpinned the empirical findings of the study. In so doing, the chapter showed that curriculum planning has to consider the aims, objectives and programme design of the relevant education and training system. Also, the importance and appropriateness to the local context for which the curriculum is designed is critical. A concept of special consequence to this study is the usefulness of a spiralled curriculum to address the individual’s developmental needs throughout the various educational stages. Additionally, the involvement of the implementers of the curriculum early in the planning process, particularly a small island like Dominica, where power relations between and within organisations are significant, is pertinent.

Strategic and collaborative planning theories were identified as the key planning approaches underpinning this thesis. The degree of deliberateness or flexibility in strategic planning was debated and revealed as a point of tension and concern. Nevertheless, the significance of a systematic planning approach was offered as a desirable feature for exploration in this study. Moreover, as discussed, collaborative strategies were examined and noted to have utility in arriving at shared visions, consensus building, network formation, co-ordination and cooperation among legitimate stakeholders. Further, inter-organisational collaboration was proffered as useful in cases where collective and co-operative strategic alliances are essential. These theoretical concepts further help to understand the research puzzle and could provide a framework for reaching a suitable planning approach for tourism education and training in Dominica. What then needs to be explored is how relevant are these concepts within the Dominican context.

In addition, the relationship between policy and planning for tourism education and training was shown to be of importance, but, more so for a small island, was the need for strong policy leadership. Of relevance to this study therefore, is the Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) Conceptual Framework presented by Amoah and Baum (1997). In this study this framework is further explored in part IV for its usefulness and applicability to Dominica.
Chapter 5: Tourism Education and Training Planning Processes

Since Dominica, the setting of this study is a developing Small Island State with limited resources, it is critical that there is a unified approach to national planning for tourism education and training. Moreover, with Dominica being a late entrant to tourism within the Caribbean region, it is imperative that there is a high quality of professional and skilled human resource supply to address the development of the local industry. Thus, the discussions in this chapter were geared to demarcate from the variety of approaches which could possibly frame national tourism education and training planning in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

Hence, the three chapters in part II have set out the theoretical debates framing this thesis. Again, it is important to stress at this point that the theoretical framework explored in this section from the existing body of literature did not direct the field investigation, but were arrived at in a cyclic fashion as the research progressed. In that regard, in the next part of the study (part III) the methodological framework and method concerns for the arriving at the empirical data is presented.
PART III: METHODOLOGICAL AND METHODICAL ISSUES

This third part of the thesis consists of two chapters which delineate the methodological and methodical issues of the research.

All valid research demands a sound grounding in theory, thus in chapter six the concepts framing the approach of this study is so presented. Care is taken to clarify the research standpoint and the fundamental concepts upon which the study design would then advance.

Hence, chapter seven explains the specific procedures embarked upon throughout the research exercise from the project design, implementation and completion. This is done to ensure a research trail is established for the reader and to add to the quality of the study.
Chapter Six: Methodological Context

6.1 Introduction

An important feature of any well-substantiated study is the ability to identify a methodology that ensures the process is grounded in sound theoretical concepts and that the investigation conducted leads to meaningful research. The central purpose of the field investigation is to gain thorough understanding of the local setting to enable a critical analysis of national tourism education and training planning and decision making in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Consequently, this chapter seeks to address the philosophies of the practice and theory of research in reaching an appropriate choice of methodology.

The discussion begins in section 6.2 with a brief overview of key terminology and perspectives in the research literature to provide the background for the core arguments presented. Then, to clarify the position adopted, the chapter continues with a debate on the main research paradigms to show how they differ on fundamental ontological and epistemological assumptions. A study of the literature reveals that in the field of social sciences researchers have been divided into two main schools of thought based on how they carry out investigations: the scientific empirical tradition and the naturalistic phenomenological mode. Travers (2002) suggests that making a choice favouring one position over the other commits one to a particular ‘way of social science’, the study of human beings and their world and greatly impacts the actual method selection process. These ideas are explored in section 6.3 in an attempt to crystallise the selected approach of the study.

The chapter then proceeds in section 6.4 to illustrate and explain the appropriateness of the use of interpretivism as the methodological approach for conducting the inquiry necessary for this study. Finally, the discussions culminate in section 6.5 in establishing the link between the research methodology and the method, a case employing semi...
structured in-depth expert interviews, indicating the strength of this combination for this thesis.

6.2 Key Methodological Concepts

In order to introduce the discussion on research it is necessary to examine and explain the use of some key perspectives found in the literature. In this section, definitions and the central concepts of ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetoric, paradigm, methodology, and quantitative versus qualitative methods are elaborated on.

To begin, ontology deals with the concept of reality (Lincoln and Guba 2003; Jennings 2001; Creswell 1998). It focuses on whether or not one believes that ‘a reality’ exists; and if it does, how it is defined and what is its nature and form (Lincoln and Guba 2003; Lincoln and Guba 1998; Guba 1990). One’s position and ideas on reality determines how the world is perceived and shapes the basis for one’s views on knowledge and about what can be known (Goodson & Phillimore 2004). Further, it questions what is; what exists; what truth is; what knowledge is; and what and how things come to be known. If a researcher adopts the position that there is such a thing as reality, then he/she has to discern how things actually are and work within that assumed reality.

Therefore, the ontological position adopted allows insight into that which is perceived as real, the ontological representation. Hence, only what is defined as and linked to the matters of this reality is actually considered and included in the research process. The literature suggests two main ontological positions. First, Creswell (1994) explains there is one view of an objective and singular reality separate and apart from the researcher; and second, there is the opposing view of subjective multiple realities. This discussion will be revisited when discussing the various ontological positions of the different paradigms.

It is prudent that a researcher determines and remains clear about his/her position and assumptions on reality. This is necessary so that one is able to approach the investigation
Chapter 6: Methodological Context

from a point of self awareness, understanding one’s own views and biases and the possible impact they may have on the choice of research question(s) and the selection and/or elimination of research data. Arguably, though difficult, much effort must be made to create a level of detachment and value freedom to facilitate the discovery of knowledge and its forms of existence.

Epistemology refers to the matter of how we come to know the world (Denzin & Lincoln 1998) and is conceptualised as the ‘theory of knowledge’ (Morton 2003). It focuses on the relationship between the researcher, what is known and what can actually be known about that being researched (Hollinshed 2004; Denzin & Lincoln 1998; Creswell 1998). That is, whether the researcher views knowledge as objective and his/her role in the process of knowing as a passive one, or whether one believes that the individual plays an active part in knowledge creation. Generally, one’s ontological position is closely aligned to the epistemological ideas held.

The literature (Kerlinger 1986; Tribe 2006) suggests different ways in which knowledge is acquired; namely, methods of tenacity, authority, intuition and science. As explained by the above authors, these varied means function as channels through which one interacts with, discerns and processes what is to be known. Through the method of tenacity, they explain, what is known is held steadfast because it is believed to be true, based on the tenet that ‘what is considered to be true is indeed true’. Further the value of the method of authority lies in the origin of that which is deemed true and is based on the source of the knowledge, more than the concept itself. It suggests a somewhat blind faith in an authority figure. In contrast, these authors write, the method of intuition focuses on one’s internal gut feeling about an issue and is derived from a sort of discernment or reasoning about the situation. Finally, the method of science is described as self correcting and is centred on operational characteristics, control, hypothesis testing and replication.

An understanding of the different ways of knowing offers deeper insight into how one shapes his/her epistemological position and approaches the research process. Moreover,
Chapter 6: Methodological Context

research techniques generally are chosen in agreement with such conceptions. Accordingly, researchers who think that a certain truth exists and can be discovered by objective measures, utilise the scientific method; while those who believe knowledge is constructed, tend to employ one or a mixture of the other three ways of knowing.

Axiological issues (see Creswell 1998; Denzin & Lincoln 1998) are related to the role of ethics and values in research. It is concerned with how individuals assign value and significance on things and what is deemed as salient. Hence, values in research allow for determination of priority positioning of issues, based on assigned degree of importance. Values may also help set standards for what is viewed as good or bad research and the impact of choice of operating paradigms, methodology and methods.

Lincoln & Guba (1985) suggest that values enter the inquiry process at several different points which are at the choice of problem, paradigm, theoretical framework, method, context or situatedness and format used for presentation of findings. As a result, values add meaning and richness, but in some cases may be limiting to research. This is because the filtering of information; processing and analysing of data; making judgments and choices throughout the process are all impacted on by one’s value system. Upon reflection, it can be agreed that one’s values work in conjunction with the ontological and epistemological positions adopted in reaching important research decisions.

Within the field of scientific research values are kept out of the inquiry process by adopting an objective approach and basing arguments only on observable facts (Jennings 2001) that can be proven or falsified (Denzin & Lincoln 2005b). The naturalistic researcher in contrast accepts and advocates that research is value laden making provision for the opinions, beliefs and biases of the research participants. Accordingly, the choice of language used in the research report generally reflects the value positioning of the researcher and the researched.

The term rhetoric refers to the language of the research (Creswell 1998, 1994). That is, whether it is impersonal and formal (utilising terms such as relationship, companion and
within-group) or personal and informal allowing the participants to have a voice (employing words such as understanding, discover and meaning). In some cases, Creswell (1994) opines, it involves the use of language as an art of persuasion, encompasses the dimensions of style, quality of content, method and means of communication and use of words. Rhetoric therefore, will determine what is included and/or excluded in the writing up and the style of a research report. Consequently, it gives life to the research through effective use of language, allowing for the voice of the researcher and the researched to be heard, as well as for emotions and opinions to be expressed.

In scientific realist research, care is taken to divorce the researcher from the investigation and from impacting on the research process. So the use of language generates at best, research reports free of personal expressions. The writing style is a passive, third-person voice, placing physical, psychological and ideological distances between the research and researcher (Foley 1998). The naturalist approach however, takes on a very different slant and is more tolerant of the role of the research participants. In fact, it celebrates their inclusion and voice in the use of language. Therefore, rhetoric in research goes beyond grammar and use of words; it involves the emotions, power, authority, assumptions and their presupposition on the research methodology and methods. In acknowledging their existence and impact on research, one can give attention to the multiple, competing and conflicting perspectives, and their interpretation and analysis.

Usher (1996) explained a research paradigm as an exemplar way of working that functions as a model for what and how to do research and on what problems to focus. Paradigms advance assumptions about the social world, how science should be conducted and what constitutes legitimate problems, solutions and criteria of proof. Additionally, they encompass both theory and method (Creswell 1994) and represent the basic set of beliefs and assumptions that guide inquiries and research decisions (Creswell 1998; Guba & Lincoln 1998; Guba 1990).
Paradigms represent the researcher's view of the world in his/her role as bricoleur (Weinstein & Weinstein 1991; Denzin and Lincoln 2005). That is, a creator of knowledge utilising various research approaches, strategies and methods, while establishing for the researcher the nature of the world and his/her place in it. Hence, paradigms help clarify how the researcher relates to the world and its dimensions. Thus, different types of researchers exist due to the various ways in which they create knowledge, based on their ontological, epistemological, axiological and rhetoric standpoints.

Adding to the complexity of the debate about paradigms, it can be argued that there is really no way of verification of the views and beliefs shared by holders of the different paradigms. Some (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Baker and Galasinski 2001; Denzin and Lincoln 2005; Tribe 2006) hold that, all paradigms are human constructions; inventions of the human mind and a reflection of the human world view. Paradigms, are therefore, open to critical analysis, being by nature, not free of human error. The explanation and defence of various paradigmatic positions lies in the strength of persuasiveness and utility, rather than in the verification of the principles of their position. So it can be said that paradigms are representations of one’s reality and an expression of how subscribers to a particular school of thought opine that knowledge exists and can be discovered.

The literature focuses on two main contrasting and competing paradigm approaches: the scientific and the naturalistic traditions, representing two main research groupings, two different ways of thinking about the world (Guba & Lincoln 1994). The scientific approach, termed as nomothetic is based on (the assumption of) an objective reality (free from human construction) and allows for generalisation. The second contrasting paradigm, the naturalistic or idiographic approach focuses on the specific case being examined and not on general law making. It is however, centred on finding in-depth meaning to phenomena.

Research methodology presents an avenue for the discovery of knowledge; moreover, following on the above discussions not any methodology would be appropriate for use
under every paradigm. As highlighted before, each operates within certain rules and guidelines and therefore would be best served by its own set of methodologies, as will be discussed later in the chapter. A distinction must be made here between the methodology and methods. Briefly, a method is the protocol developed, designed and employed, that seeks to answer specific research question(s). It may also be defined as a specific research technique and is generally arrived at based on the nature of the research question(s) to be answered. Further, methods may be either quantitative (based on the scientific approach) or qualitative (centred on the naturalistic phenomenology). The debate surrounding research methods will be later elaborated on in chapter seven.

Research methodology (research philosophy) seeks to describe and analyse research methods (research approaches). For that reason, the focus of methodology is on the strengths and weaknesses of varying methods. Further, it also provides insight and clarification to presuppositions and consequences (Cohen & Manion 1994). Hence, methodology demands a conceptual and sustained reflection on the philosophical position of various methods, their appropriateness to a particular research and its corresponding research question(s). Supporting this view, Denzin and Lincoln (2005a) hold that methodology focuses on identifying the most appropriate means of obtaining knowledge about the world.

Methodology also demands a great level of reflexivity or critical reflection during research (Hammersely 1992; Usher 1996). Reflexivity provides the researcher an opportunity or means for examining oneself, one’s beliefs and value structure. In critiquing the scientific genre, Denzin (1994) writes that facts do not have a voice, but in social research what pertains is the interpretation of the researcher. Thus, it is important that the individual must be clear on his/her own position of reality, research interests, biases and objectives as they relate to a specific case, and the influences that these different positions introduce to the methodological process.

It must be emphasised here that arriving at the most appropriate choice of methodology is critical to the research exercise, since the choice of research positioning and by extension
method moulds the research outcome. Decisions about matters of objectivity, use of statistical or in-depth data, quality of research, the role of values and use of language, all need to be addressed, analysed and critiqued. Consequently, the chapter will now proceed to discuss these methodological issues in relation to this study.

6.3 The Methodological Debate

As suggested earlier, many varied positions (see Guba 1990; Denzin & Lincoln 1994; Guba and Lincoln 1994; Lincoln & Guba 1998; Jennings 2001; Travers 2002; Holliday 2002; Denzin & Lincoln 2005b among others) have been advanced in the literature on research paradigms giving rise to different methodological assumptions. It is not the aim of this chapter to examine each paradigm in detail, but rather to explore their key conceptualisations critically in arriving at a methodology most appropriate to this research project. That being the case, the emphasis of the discussions here will be on the central and core assumptions of the main paradigmatic approaches which are relevant to this study. The emphasis is on pointing to similarities and highlighting main points of differentiation. This approach is necessary in clarifying the appropriateness of the choice of interpretivism for this study, which will be discussed in greater detail later in section 6.3.2.3. But, to illustrate the degree of intra and extra paradigm conflict which exists, the following is a brief overview of possible paradigm approaches considered during the research exercise.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) by way of categorisation, distinguish four main competing paradigms – positivism, postpositivism, critical theory and related ideological positions, and constructivism. Later on Travers (2002) suggests that four main positions – positivism, interpretivism, realism and poststructuralism – which informs how qualitative researchers collect and analyse data. In contrast, Holliday (2002) proposes the two broad groupings: first, the naturalist comprising postpositivism and realism; and second, the progressive paradigm which includes critical theory, constructivism, postmodernism and feminism. Then building on the above, Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) proffered the following seven major paradigm groupings – positivism and postpositivism;
interpretivism, constructivism, hermeneutics; feminism; racialised discourses; critical theory and marxism; cultural studies; and queer theory.

A study of these varied groupings (elaborated on in section 6.3.1) confirms the typical dilemma resulting from the diverse epistemological and ontological positions in the field of research. Multiple competing and contrasting views exist and are constructed as paradigms remain open to ongoing critique and analysis. The different traditions that have arisen over the years (of which only a limited representation have been highlighted here for the purpose of this research) attest to that fact and present an ongoing dilemma and area of debate for researchers.

Nevertheless, there has been some level of agreement on two broad typologies of grouping (under different labels), of positivism (scientific) and postpositivism and the alternative (subjective in-depth) research paradigms (Denzin & Lincoln 2005b). For the purpose of this chapter and in framing the research undertaken here, further discussion will be advanced on these broad paradigmatic grouping, following on the categorisation of Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) in an attempt to signpost the methodological positioning of this study. The purpose of this section is not to replicate the methodological debate well represented in the extant literature but to signal the logical process by which the ontological, epistemological and axiological among other research decisions underpinning this study was arrived at. Accordingly, the chapter will now proceed to elaborate on the key epistemological and ontological assumptions of positivism/postpositivism and the alternative paradigms so as to highlight their points of differentiations and to clarify the philosophical underpinnings of this research.

6.3.1 The Paradigms

6.3.1.1 Positivism

Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) explain that the positivist modus operandi (the traditional approach to research) developed in an era when the 'other' being studied was somewhat obscure. The key philosophical basis for positivism is that there is a certain truth. It
suggests that reality is not difficult to discern and can be arrived at with use of the appropriate research instruments. Proponents of this philosophy hold that the world is so organised, that it can be made clear by the use of scientific and statistical research and that truth is revealed through objective facts (Holliday 2002). Hence, only that which is rooted in observable events is deemed as valid knowledge.

Typically, positivists work with simplified models of the world to find out how a limited number of variables interact; applying the conventional criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity to social inquiry. Thus, they aim to control variables as much as possible and tend to work mostly with large or broad populations. Positivists search out central tendency within the research data sets to establish a sense of what is average or typical of the group or setting and they present their field reports in numeric terms utilising statistical equations to explain social behaviour.

Positivism seeks to identify uniform, precise rules, which theory suggests organise social behaviour (Ritchie & Lewis 2003; Saunders et al 2003; Holliday 2002). In addition, the focus is on subjective qualities that offer explanations of cause and effect relationships (Ritchie & Lewis 2003; Saunders et al 2003; Holliday 2002; Turner 2001; Halfpenny 2001) although the main aim is to ensure the ability for replication and generalisation of conclusions (Holliday 2002). Generally, this type of research is geared towards producing theory for scientific practice. Moreover, it is characterised for its normative approach, with the aim of creating a new or improved state of that which is being researched.

However, critics (Burns 2000; Sarantakos 1993) argue that it is not possible to produce timeless truth and as such question the level of objectivity of positivism. Further, Walle (1997) informs that logical positivism, statistical investigation and the scientific method continue to hold hegemony, but really only contribute to the dehumanisation of research. Nonetheless, positivism has made great and valuable contribution to the field of social and educational research and is the foundational background upon which the other paradigms have been developed.
All the same, one of the major limitations of this methodology is that it tends to overlook some types of research that pose difficulty when employing its assumptions and techniques. As such, it is noted for the over simplification of reality and the exclusion of phenomena which deal with the in-depth and rich complexity of the world. Critiquing this paradigm, Guba and Lincoln (1994) propound that the focus of positivism on selected subsets of variables does not allow for the expression of variance within specific contexts. Neither does it address meanings and purposes of human activities nor the role of the investigator in the research. Moreover, Guba and Lincoln argue it is too heavily focused on verification or falsification of hypotheses and leads to nomothetic/idiographic disjunction in generalisation, making it very inappropriate to apply general data and conclusions to individual cases.

Also, non-proponents of positivism point out that hypothesis testing and observations are interrelated and that facts are facts only through a theoretical framework. The mere statement of a hypothesis/test, or of an observation, in an objective format does not lead to objectivity in research. Further, facts themselves are equally dependent on the inquirer/subject interaction and hence, are value laden. Moreover, it can also be argued that subjectivity lies within the very selection process of a problem (Tribe 2006) and is greatly influenced by extraneous factors such as authoritative bodies, funding agencies and the researcher’s interest. Besides, different sets of facts might be supported by more than one set of theory, in comparison to those being presented in any single piece of research.

Tribe (2001) and Botterill (2001) both suggest that most research in tourism education and training has traditionally been positivist. But, it can be argued that in employing positivism to tourism education and training research, one is limited to methods and techniques that produce predetermined results. Education and training programmes designed and developed based on these perspectives can be contended to be self perpetuating. They are structured to test theories selected by the researcher, utilising well structured instruments (designed to eliminate variance), with no or little significance
given to issues of value, participants’ interests, in-depth meaning and richness of data set. Such arguments greatly favour the utilisation of alternative paradigms and suggest that their use can help address most, if not all these critical issues related to positivism.

6.3.1.2 Postpositivism

Postpositivists operate within the realist and critical realist ontology and objective epistemology (Denzin & Lincoln 1994). Like positivism, postpositivism works on the same basic assumptions of objectivity, generalisation and quantification utilising largely experimental, quasi-experimental, survey and rigorous methodologies. Whereas positivism contends that there is an exact reality to be studied, captured and understood, postpositivism argues that reality cannot be fully understood but only approximated due to the flawed nature of human intellectual mechanisms and the intractable nature of phenomena (Patton 2002; Guba 1990). Thus, it advocates the concept of falsification of data proffered by Karl Popper (1902 -1994).

Akin to positivists, (see Lincoln and Guba 1998, 2000, 2003) postpositivists focus on identifying cause and effect and operationalising theoretical relations, measuring and quantifying phenomena. A point of difference is that postpositivism seeks to employ the widest possible critical measures as well as multiple methods in an effort to capture as much of reality as possible, while giving prominence to the discovery and verification of theories (Godfrey-Smith 2003; Delanty & Strydom 2003).

In this tradition, a sort of modified version of triangulation is utilised to redress some of the problems of positivism. Inquiry is conducted in natural settings, the element of discovery is reintroduced (Guba & Lincoln 1994) and emic view points, which directs attention to the specifics of a particular case are solicited (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Denzin & Lincoln 2005b). Despite these efforts, the aim of inquiry is still to provide explanation, prediction and control of phenomena, leading to knowledge which is considered as facts or laws. This paradigm is held to be value free as they are deemed to
hold no role in a putatively objective inquiry. Ethics though important is external to the inquiry process and the voice of the researcher reflects that of a passive scientist.

Proponents of this paradigm postulate that all paradigms can be accommodated within the conceptual framework of a single research (Guba & Lincoln 1994) advocating that a reductionist approach can be adopted for data comparison. Yet, there has been much disagreement on these concepts among researchers with some holding that some paradigms are basically contradictory and cannot work in unison. Therefore, the use of the postpositivist approach for research in the field of education and training would come under similar debate and critique to that held about positivism. Nevertheless, this tradition could be suitable for longitudinal research and/or when the developing high level policies.

6.3.2 Alternative Paradigms

It may not be surprising then, that philosophers such as Weber (1949) advocate that social science must employ interpretive methods and address the meaningful character of social action. In opposition, Durkheim (1951) argues that social research should be concerned with macro issues or phenomena, rather than being interested in how individuals understand their own activities and the world around them (Schwandt 2003; Phillimore & Goodson 2004). This old and ongoing debate has led to strong internal and external critiques of positivist and postpositivist traditions, giving rise to such alternative paradigms as interpretivism among others. For instance, Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) discuss in much detail eight distinct periods of advancement in alternatives paradigms. However, here emphasis is given to the areas of development relevant to the purpose of this investigation.

In the modernist phase, what Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) called the second moment of research, a new set of interpretive theories developed namely ethnomethodology, phenomenology, critical theory, and feminism among others. They explain that during that period researchers achieved a breakthrough in obtaining freedom to give a voice to
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society's underclass. Moreover, they continue, the alternative paradigms unlike positivism and postpositivism placed the researcher within the research setting, allowing them to utilise a set of interpretive measures in making sense of the world.

In addition, Denzin and Lincoln state, a mixture of paradigms, methods and strategies developed. Hence, a variety of different means of collecting and analysing empirical data became prevalent. Among them were qualitative interviewing, observational, visual, personal experience, documentary methods and computer data analysis programmes. Further, there was a marked importance in the significance of naturalistic, postpositivist, and constructivist paradigms, especially in the field of education.

Other later advancements, as outlined by Denzin and Lincoln (2005b), allowed for more reflexive writing and bought to the forefront issues of gender, class and race. At the same time there was a move towards new models of truth, methods and manifestations. Significantly, the norm of anthropology lost its prominence and issues of validity, reliability and objectivity once again resurfaced in the research debate. A major period within that time, referred to as 'the triple crisis', was rooted in discourses of poststructuralism and postmodernism, raising the issues of representation, legitimation and praxis (Denzin & Lincoln 2005b). The debates surrounded the arguments of: one, whether the qualitative or interpretive researcher could actually capture lived experiences, as well as the issue of the role of the actual written document; two, the contention of evaluation and validity, generalisability and reliability; and three, the possibility of research actually leading to an effectual change.

However, the alternative paradigms differ on the points of being strongly opposed to the necessity of working with large data and on the importance of objectivity and quantification. Further, they seek to provide in-depth meaning and broad understanding of data, are generally open-ended and are mostly geared towards leading the researcher into unforeseen areas of discovery within the lives of those being investigated. Consequently, the alternative paradigms are useful in addressing the contextual imbalance, providing rich data, uncovering emic (local) views, addressing data
ambiguities, and providing creative and broader inquiry. Besides, the use of emic methods accommodates the introduction of attitudes, motives, interest, responses, conflicts and personality into research (Walle 1997).

In further contrast to positivism, the alternative paradigms allow opinions to be voiced, and the admittance of 'variance type' data, as well as inquiries that are excluded from positivism. Multiple realities are embraced and replace the concept of a single objective truth. In addition, the significance of the participants in the research (researcher, researched and the research audience) are acknowledged and given prominence and issues of axiology and rhetoric are underscored. What's more, the advancement of the alternative paradigms serves to curtail what Bourdieu (1990) refers to as social reproduction and a self legitimating system (a point of critique of the dominant use of positivism).

Focus will now turn to some of the relevant alternative paradigms which were considered in arriving at the methodological approach for this study.

6.3.2.1 Critical Perspective

Proponents of the critical tradition, a paradigm rooted in Marxism, hold the epistemological assumption that the researcher's ability to understand the world is superior to that of the subjects being investigated. Critical theorists make the claim that they are better informed, in comparison to most common people in a society of the nature of human happiness and total well being, and the means by which it should be achieved. Thus, their research focus tends to be one of 'questioning and/or challenging' and 'transformation' (Cohen et al 2000). So, to employ the precepts of this tradition requires that the researcher brings this epistemological position to the data, illustrating how the events occurring in the research setting are related to a wider structural context which may be hidden from the people within that local grouping.
This concept seems to indicate that critical theory seeks to enlighten those being studied of the dominant ideology to which they are subjected, to show them how they have come to have these false beliefs and how things could be changed for the better (Daly 2007). In so doing, it brings to the fore elements of their unconsciousness in an attempt to give them new freedom, what Guess (1981) refers to as 'emancipatory action'. Furthermore, knowledge for critical theory does not exist as a universal truth but is rather subjective and highly dependent on one's perspective, a concept referred to as the standpoint theory (Holliday 2002). For critical theorists such as feminism, ethnic theory, queer theory, cultural studies and green movements, the focus of their research is on the truth of the oppressed. As such, they do not advocate neutrality but rather action research that seeks to bring about change and redress for the poor, minorities, and the silenced. Thus, critical theory could be argued to lead to political action, in which the rights of their group members are acknowledged and respected in society.

Use of the critical theory, as advocated in Habermas (1978) unravels the nature of the ideology being utilised, examines and analyses whose views pertains and what agendas are being accommodated. Moreover it accepts that there is not interest free knowledge but rather knowledge serves varying socially constructed interest (Habermas 1972). Making use of this tradition in tourism education and training planning lends to much in-depth analysis of the philosophies guiding the processes utilised and developed, avoiding the common sense or traditional approach, and allowing for new positions and interests to receive consideration. Significantly, the central focus of this approach as presented by Habermas (1978) would be concerned with creating a new balance through the emancipation from any one or dominant ideology, a feature of little relevance to this study.

Besides, critical theorists favour neither quantitative nor qualitative methods of research, and interestingly, feminists view surveys and statistical analysis as devices of oppression (Travers 2002). They postulate that these techniques do not allow for the freedom of expression of the oppressed and that they favour 'a false neutrality' over the influence of culture. Travers continues that they further postulate that condensing research data to
numbers leading to the loss of the individual voice is dehumanising, not to mention the stripping off of context, which continues to perpetuate unjust systems.

Still, other supporters of the critical tradition believe that quantitative and qualitative methods are complementary and can be utilised together or on their own in critical research. But, it is commonly held that critical research can only be done successfully if one holds a strong feeling of injustice about societal treatment of their interest group. Clearly, this is not the standpoint from which this research is being investigated.

6.3.2.2 Constructivism
As Ayikoru (2007) observes the constructivist approach is often referenced by varied terms, which are the constructivist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln 1994), constructivism (Lincoln and Guba 1998; Denzin & Lincoln 2005) or constructionist/constructionism (Schwandt 2003; Rubin & Rubin 2005). In this study as mentioned before, constructivism is emphasised as it is in keeping with the categorisation of Denzin & Lincoln (2005) being here advanced. Nonetheless, it is a widely held view among the genre of alternative paradigms that all human knowledge, methods of inquiry, theories and generalisations are constructed. Within the paradigm of constructivism there is much difference in the areas of focus, which has led to a vast range of forms and level of complexity within the paradigm, with varying psychological, epistemological, sociological and historical directions (Phillips 1995).

For instance, on the one hand Kant (1959) believes that the human mind is largely responsible for shaping experiences, giving it its various forms, meanings and dimensions. Nonetheless, he cautions not all knowledge arises from experience. On the other hand, Kuhn (1962) suggests that growth and survival of science lies within the power and authority of the scientific community and its self-regulating systems. Longino (1990) however, contends that knowledge must be viewed as being actively constructed not by individuals but by an interactive dialogic community. So, it seems fairly logical that Nelson (1993) would view knowledge construction as a struggle. He argues that it is
really groups or communities who are the gatekeepers and channels of knowledge creation.

For Dewey (1960) whose concepts advanced those of James (1920) reality does not exist independent of human interaction. He strongly contradicts the assumption that knowledge is 'a grasp or beholding of reality unaltered from its prior state'. Rather he advocates the knower as an organic part of the process, the concept of active constructivism. They also suggest another variation to knowledge creation exists; the interactive mode, which occurs when one impacts on the process while simultaneously obtaining knowledge about it. The spectator theory (held by some other constructivists) represents a contrasting perspective to this view. The assumptions are those of: learning by watching, while being passive and not involved or affecting the process in any major way.

In adding to this inter-paradigmatic debate, Alcoff and Potter (1993) suggest that politics particularly influences knowledge construction within public bodies and emphasise the complex ways in which social values influence knowledge. Other constructivists (Kuhn 1962; von Glasersfeld 1991; Phillips 1995) are of the view that the content of our knowledge must be considered the free creation of our culture. Still, there is also the view that knowledge is produced only from intellectual or cognitive processes internal to each individual knower; whereas for others the processes are regarded as socio-political and not simply or solely inner mental or intellectual in nature.

Yet another group of social constructivists focus on the ‘what and how factors’ which impact upon knowledge creation (Burr 1995). They take a critical view of things, while at the same time being cognisant that in the world of research language, concepts and well formed disciplinary rules already exist. Nevertheless, Tribe (2006) proposes that across nations and cultures, human constructions of truth and knowledge differ. Hence, it becomes imperative that careful cultural situatedness is embarked upon during constructivist research, to clarify issues of the ‘what and how’ of reality, impinging upon the specific phenomena of investigation.
Overall constructivism has as its major tenet the claim that knowledge is produced by humans in processes that are unstrained or minimally constrained by inputs or instruction from nature (Phillips 1995). This paradigm offers a range of perspectives from which research can be implemented. The focal point of this study nevertheless, is not on the creation of tourism knowledge for its own sake but rather on critical analysis of the processes involved in planning tourism education and training. Therefore, constructivism would not be the best paradigm fit for this investigation.

Obviously, in considering the different paradigms and perspectives discussed above one would agree that vastly different strategies of inquiry and methods of collecting and analysing data would be adopted. It was thus discerned that such approaches were not well suited to the objectives of this study. Now, the chapter turns attention to addressing the alternative paradigm, interpretivism which supports the ontological and epistemological position of this research and forms the theoretical background on which this thesis is developed.

6.3.2.3 Interpretivism: Methodological position of the study

Interpretivism champions the dynamic and evolving nature of social reality and contends that truth is constructed (Creswell 1998; Silverman 2005) and may be different for each individual within varying or in some cases, even similar settings (Cohen et al 2000; Denzin & Lincoln 2005b). Further, it rejects the assumptions of positivism and its objective and tangible approach to research. Advocators of its use proclaim that it treats the social world [and its research participants] as ‘subject’ rather than as an ‘object’, encouraging it [them] to speak for itself [themselves] (Grundy 1987; Walle 1997).

One benefit of interpretivism is that the complex world can be understood through the eyes of those [subjects] who operate within it (Devine and Heath 1999; Goodson and Phillimore 2004). They [the subjects] are therefore considered central to the research process (Veal 1997; Cohen et al 2000) and would be key participants in the design,
development and implementation of any research project. This is achieved by allowing the views of the participants to gain prominence and not restricting the data to pre-designed agendas and instruments. The subjects' ideas, concerns, knowledge, interests and interpretations would all be valuable and of significant importance throughout the research exercise. In interpretivism, there is no great advantage in having large data sets as this may lead to the tendency of presenting short decontextualised extracts rather than fully exploring how the subjects understand their reality in an in-depth manner.

Engaging the assumptions of interpretivism for this study facilitates two way interaction between the researcher and subjects in the investigation. Importantly, interpretivism aims at co-constructions and minimisation of the distance between the researcher and the researched (Burns 2000; Daly 2007). Participants through this paradigm have an equal voice and become co-authors of constructions about the phenomenon. Through such dialectic interaction, multiple voices and views contend producing a very broad and rich data set, as well as in-depth insight (Ritchie & Lewis 2003; Saunders et al 2003) with no stringent rules of limiting any variant data which may arise. Accordingly, this approach forms the central methodological framework of the thesis and will now be discussed in further detail.

Most importantly, in conducting interpretive research the investigator seeks to find out the subjects' opinions on the various activities and events as they relate to the phenomena being studied (Sarantakos 1993; Veal 1997). Consequently, the significance of the research rests in trying to understand exactly how or from what standpoint people view an object or an experience and their corresponding expectations and the meaning they then apply to it. Interpretivism is primarily concerned with seeking 'profound' meaning (Scott & Usher 1996; Lincoln & Guba 2003; Schwandt 2003) from the research setting and usually adopts the naturalist approach; becoming integral to the research process itself, particularly during observations and interviewing of subjects. The core interest is in moving beyond nuanced accounts of events to construct in-depth meaning from the field data.
Hence, the key epistemological position within this tradition is transactional and subjectivist. That being so, the researcher and the object(s) of investigation are presupposed to be integrally linked, allowing for findings to be literally created as the research process proceeds. Interpretivists have little interest in statistics but are keenly concerned with the understanding achieved from the reports of subjects' experiences. They argue that placing emphasis on quantification strips away the context of the data and impedes on in-depth understanding. What is more, as previously mentioned this methodology is dialectical, allowing for varying and multiple constructions of the research exercise to be interpreted by conventional techniques and then evaluated through dialogue. In this study the interpretive approach facilitates data triangulation with national and regional documents and other subjects while still in the field.

The interpretivist recognises the fact that human beings have different experiences based on gender, class and race and therefore, allows for differences in how individuals view events, circumstances and experiences. Consequently, interpretivism accepts that varying, multiple and sometimes contradictory accounts of the same experience can exist simultaneously. This is explained by the fact that each individual brings to an event a range of different experiences, levels of knowledge, opinions and understanding which all impact significantly on the interpretation drawn.

Moreover, constructions are not fixed and change over time due to varying circumstances and their associated realities. So, it is not uncommon for reconstruction to occur as understanding deepens, further consensus of meaning arrived at and interpretations become more sophisticated; all accommodating the need in some cases for a certain level of advocacy and activism while the data set is being developed. In support of this view, Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) point out that social phenomenon comprises 'meaning making' of groups and their activities. They argue further that it is these 'sense making activities' that shape action or inaction and moreover, as the process unfolds these attributional activities can themselves be changed when found to be incomplete, faulty or malformed.
It must be noted at this juncture that such characteristic features leads to much dynamism and flexibility in the research approach and is in total contradiction to scientific methodologies. Jordan and Gibson (2004) advocate that the aim here is to let the data do the talking. That being so, this paradigm allows for the varying and sometimes conflicting views of the local education experts, industry stakeholders and private and public sector policy makers forming the sample to be expressed and co-exist within the data set.

Furthermore, the research design is socially constructed and incorporates aspects related to the place and setting (Creswell 1998; Denzin & Lincoln 2005; Silverman 2005). As Jordan and Gibson (2004) hold when meanings are shared within members of a particular group or wider society and are passed on from one generation to the next they then become part of the existing culture. For this reason, cultural dimensions are encouraged since they give deeper insight during interpretations allowing for the human mind to be thoroughly engaged in contrast to the passive approach of the scientific positivist methodology. Therefore, shared meaning among participants within the specific cultural arena is given much attention in an effort to better understand how people come to give meaning to the research puzzle.

Nonetheless, it is acknowledged that even within the same culture, individuals based on personal differences, backgrounds and experience will still vary in the methods of interpretation of particular events. It then becomes important within this tradition that researchers learn about the culture of the people to be studied, to gain knowledge about underlying rules, existing practices, usage of words and general operating social norms. Moreover, interpretivists need to be cognisant of their own cultural assumptions and ensure that they do not cloud the researcher’s experience in the field. Hence, it is necessary to exercise much caution when observing, listening and interpreting meaning in different cultural settings.

Encouragingly, Lawton (1983) advocates the use of the interpretative paradigms for curriculum development. And, he suggests a curriculum planning design which involves
philosophical and sociological factors. For Lawton, the aims of education must be first considered and then placed in the perspective of the type of society within which the said curriculum must function and serve. In that regard, Lawton thus champions the case for utilisation of an interpretive methodology along with a critical approach prior to or along with other forms of research.

Based on earlier discussions, it may be no surprise that interpretivism is criticised by the advocates of positivism for not being able to control the research phenomena or to make generalisations. Issues of knowledge accumulation, goodness and quality criteria are common concepts of most frequent attack. But as already clarified, interpretivists assume that truth is constructed and reconstructed through transactional research. The notion of this tradition being ‘value laden’ is actually embraced as that essential ingredient which gives acceptance to emic views and a voice to those being investigated.

Since the focus of the study is to gain in-depth understanding of the dynamics within this case, the researcher holds that it is pertinent to move away from the tradition of positivism/postpositivism and related survey questionnaires to a methodology and method which would seek to delve deep into the understanding of the subjects, the related systems and the knowledge of the experts in constructing the data required from the field. That being so, in the case of this particular study, the investigator holds that the most appropriate alternative paradigm for framing the research is interpretive in nature. In this regard the chapter will proceed in a brief discussion, further developed in chapter seven, on the link between the interpretive methodology and the method employed in this study.

Interpretivism is supportive of the researcher’s ontological and epistemological standpoint of reality and knowledge creation. The researcher believes that this paradigm is well suited for providing a means for the dialectic interaction which is necessary with the participants in the research. With the application of the key assumptions and precepts of this paradigm an avenue is created for the development of rich and varied ‘local knowledge’ and for deep cultural understanding to be brought to the foreground of the research. Further, the inclusion of the participants’ own interpretations of their individual
experiences through a dialectic process will help reveal the reality of the Dominican setting and form the core foundation for the analysis of the tourism education and training planning and decision making processes.

What is more, the researcher strongly believes that the reality of what is appropriate for the local setting lies within the knowledge, experiences, skills, understanding and interpretation(s) of the Dominican experts, particularly the tourism industry and education actors. There is not a discounting here, of regional or international experts, or usefulness of other case studies; as the researcher also believes that through diverse interaction a broad and comprehensive knowledge base is achievable. However, the primary operating assumption of this study is that the core understanding of the local setting is situated within the local context and can be arrived at through mutual interpretations and constructions with the local experts and practitioners.

Interpretivism favours the researcher’s need to interact and talk with, and listen to, and gain deeper understanding from the key players within the local education and tourism environment on the island. The epistemological position underpinning this paradigm legitimates the researcher’s approach to data collection, to gain access to the selected subjects and to the accounts of their varied experiences, all leading to the most appropriate interpretations, constructions and reconstructions of new and relevant meaning. Besides, the researcher acknowledges and accepts that constructions are socially and experientially based on the specific nature and form of the individual participants holding each construction. Hence, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994) the research presupposes that, the local ‘constructions are not more or less true in any absolute sense, but simply more or less informed and/or sophisticated’.

6.4 Conclusions
The pertinent theoretical issues that impact on research and the key concepts that sought to facilitate the selection of the most suitable methodology for the study were raised in this chapter. Such a process is central to any valuable and substantive research, as a
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command of the various paradigms impinging on the research project, clarifies focus and key assumptions of the investigation. In addition, it provides an opportunity for selection of the most well suited research approach and methods.

It has been explained that proponents of the different research traditions understand the world differently and therefore think differently about the research process. In arriving at the chosen research methodology various paradigms were explored for their usefulness and appropriateness to the ontological and epistemological positioning of this research. Accordingly, it has thus been clarified that this study is framed within the alternative paradigms, more specifically interpretivism and thus, acknowledges multiple and subjective realities. As discussed in much detail, such interpretative research is useful and important for seeking deeper meaning and understanding of a research phenomenon.

Hence, in this research little or no emphasis is given to a priori hypotheses, objectivity, and statistics. On the contrary, the role and voice of the individual experts is accentuated, axiology is underscored, the role and interests of the researcher is given prominence, and richness of data is quintessential. Consequently, as will be expanded on in chapter seven, in-depth expert interviews was conducted with national tourism and education experts, as well as with other prominent stakeholders to acquire the rich data set essential to this study.

In summation then, the epistemological position adopted is that to find ‘truth’ it is best to approach the research process employing the traits of thoroughness, credibility, professionalism and honesty (see quality discussions in chapter seven). These transcend positivist prescriptions as to what constitutes valid or scientific research. Additionally, central to this study is the assumption that no one research project can realistically aspire to do more than advance our understanding in some way (Travers 2002). It is therefore more crucial to this study that the research process is as transparent as possible in terms of the intentions, methodology, analysis and findings. Hence, the following chapter will seek to explain and clarify the method used in data collection and to elucidate the various
possible challenges that may be encountered while implementing the precepts on interpretivism through in-depth expert interviews.
Chapter Seven: The Research Design

7.1 Introduction

The deliberations in chapter six illustrated that different research paradigms allow for varying ways of seeking knowledge within their respective traditions and by extension give rise to different types of research procedures. It was also discussed that, research methods based on the nature of information sought can either be quantitative or qualitative depending on whether the research methodology is scientific, or naturalistic and phenomenological. Thus, by engaging the interpretive philosophy this study hinges upon the assumptions of the qualitative method of inquiry.

This chapter first presents in section 7.2 the theoretical concepts framing the research method. In so doing, section 7.2.1 examines qualitative methods design fundamentals and the broad concepts which underpin the method selected for this study. This is followed by a concise discussion on developmental issues of the interview method in section 7.2.2. Then, the interview process, the primary method of inquiry is featured in 7.2.3. Thereafter, the role of the researcher is discussed at some length in section 7.2.4 since being a citizen of the island with direct involvement in the area of study, special emphasis is placed on reflexivity.

Section 7.3 outlines the course of action adopted for the qualitative semi-structured in-depth interviews, the principle instrument of the research. The research design is explained in 7.3.1, and after that the nature of the sample is detailed in 7.3.2; while sections 7.3.3 to 7.3.5 deals with the strategies engaged for data collection, recording, transcription and analysis. Special attention is placed on the narration or rhetoric of the report, as these are usually brought to question in qualitative studies.

The focus of chapter then turns towards addressing the quality issues and the ethical and other challenges faced by the investigator in section 7.4 and 7.5 respectively. Finally, a brief summation of the general discussions draws the chapter to conclusion in section 7.6.
Chapter 7: Research Design

7.2 Methodical Issues: The Qualitative Research Design

Creswell (1994) advises that a qualitative approach is most appropriate when a research problem needs to be explored because little information exists on the topic. This concept has particular bearing to this study as there has been sparse research and literature on the island of the Commonwealth of Dominica from a national tourism education and training planning and decision making perspective. Accordingly, this section explores the theoretical concerns of a qualitative study.

7.2.1. Qualitative Methods Design Fundamentals

The characteristics of qualitative research lend themselves to an emergent design; a format in direct contrast with the predetermined and tightly controlled quantitative design. First and foremost, argues Creswell (1994) since a priori is not employed for creating theory and hypotheses, the literature does not drive the qualitative study. In this sense, the literature does not dictate nor direct the questions asked during field work, but rather is used in a manner consistent with qualitative methodological assumptions. Hence, construction of concepts, understandings and meanings are facilitated inductively.

Such a structure makes for a different and refreshing use of literature for some qualitative approaches as compared to the standardised format of a quantitative study. Accordingly, Creswel (1994) suggests, it can be used very sparingly in the introductory sections to set the background of the research problem. Then, during the discussion of the field results it is engaged to compare and contrast existing theories with the newly emerged interpretations and constructions. Moreover, qualitative research depends heavily on the use of tacit knowledge, as meanings and interpretations are negotiated with the subjects’ realities (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Merriam 1988) as the investigator seeks to make sense of the data.

Whichever paradigm or perspective employed, various strategies of enquiry inclusive of case study, ethnography, ethnomethodology, phenomenology, grounded theory and participatory action research can be utilised (Holliday 2002). Further, the qualitative
Chapter 7: Research Design

researcher has the choice of a range of methods including interviewing, observational techniques, interpreting documents, content analysis, and semiotic analysis for data collection and analysis (Travers 2000; Holliday 2002). It must be mentioned here that though all these methods can all be employed within the different paradigms, they each take a different ontological and epistemological approach of inquiry and employ rhetoric of different styles in presenting their world views; a factor which received much consideration in arriving at a method of inquiry for this study. A few distinctions noted are highlighted below.

According to Travers (2002) during observation the researcher is mainly concerned with gaining understanding of a particular social setting. With participant observation, the investigator becomes an active part of the group and a prime witness to the phenomenon studied (Goffman 1989). Ethnographic fieldwork requires spending extensive time within the group, sharing in their lifestyle while seeking insight into the practitioners understanding of their activities. In contrast, discourse analysis is focused mainly on how subjects communicate through language. A variation of this technique, hermeneutic textual analysis is centred on how one’s prior understanding impacts on the interpretive process (Denzin & Lincoln 2005b).

However, this study aims to neither merely understand the research setting, understand how its subjects communicate through language, nor to analyse texts. Instead, it is interested in arriving at in-depth inquiry leading to interpretations of the local tourism industry, its needs and challenges juxtaposed to the characteristics of the tourism education and training planning systems with an aim to develop new knowledge and meaning about this phenomenon through a dialectic interpretive approach.

Hence, the strategy for inquiry takes on both an intrinsic and instrumental case study format. The researcher purposefully selected the Commonwealth of Dominica for the uniqueness of its tourism product among other Caribbean islands, as well as personal interest being a native to the island. Additionally, tourism education and training planning from an island perspective focused on the various levels of education, presents a
unique dimension of research to this study. The semi structured in-depth expert interview was selected as the principle medium for obtaining data about the case.

As such, the underpinning concepts of interviewing will now be expanded. First, the historical background is established, followed by the process of interviewing, as the chapter proceeds to explicate the specific technique of this study illustrating the benefits of its selection for inquiry in this particular research.

7.2.2 The Interview Design: Historical and Developmental Issues

Individuals have not always been recognised as valuable and important sources of knowledge about personal experiences. Nevertheless, the art of questioning and answering has been around since 'the beginning of talk' (Gubrium and Holstein 2002:4). Over the years there have been various definitions and conceptualisations of interviewing. For instance, Kahn and Cannell (1957) described it as 'a conversation with a purpose' and then Mishler (1986) as an 'interactional accomplishment' where participants simultaneously engage each other in 'a discourse between speakers' guided by the conversation analytic standpoint (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974; Sacks 1992).

These varying perspectives give value and meaning to the nature of the dialogue that occurs during an interview. Highlighting the discursive machinery apparent in interview transcripts Mishler points out:

The discourse of the interview is jointly constructed by interviewer and respondent. Both questions and responses are formulated in, developed through, and shaped by the discourse between the interviewer and respondents. An adequate understanding of interviews depends on recognising how interviewers reformulate questions and how respondents frame answers in terms of their reciprocal understanding as meanings emerge during the course of an interview (Mishler, 1986:52).

Thus, the interview must be managed and implemented in such a manner that the interactions are meaningful and relevant to the investigation at hand.
In the earlier era, the interview was seen as an asymmetrical relationship in which the interviewee was pivotal. Gubrium and Holstein (2002) suggest this meant getting the perfect answers using the right questions, to passive respondents by passive interviewers. But, today’s interview has advanced from being viewed as a purely passive encounter. As researchers are now more accommodating to the role of interviewer and to the ‘site’ as an avenue of meaning making; the interviewer is no longer expected to stand apart from the data. In such ‘active interviews’ every set or series of speech and non-verbal interchange (between the interviewer and interviewee) within a single conversation is an opportunity for interactional work, activity that constructs communicative sense out of the participants as well as the subject under consideration.

Holstein and Gubrium (1995), Scheurich (1995), Atkinson and Silverman (1997), Hertz (1997), Fontana (2002) and Rubin and Rubin (2005) all contend that the interview is not simplistic, not just a matter of asking questions and getting answers. They believe, it is an active process, politically and contextually bound, which leads to a mutually (between interviewer and interviewee) created story. Moreover, a qualitative interview certainly has a different underlying purpose and produces a different type of data set from one derived based on a quantitative approach (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight 2001).

Interviewing may be carried out individually or in a group format and no prescription is available on the exact number of interviews necessary. This is largely a judgment call based on the type of study, the representativeness of the subjects selected and the time available to collect, transcribe and analyse the data. It is nevertheless pertinent that there is sufficient data to explore and develop rich thick data and a range of themes with which to secure meaningful information for analysis. The main aim is to generate in-depth understanding rather than breadth (Marshall & Rossman 2006) and to remain flexible throughout the entire process; adapting the style used to suit each individual interview and the nature of the office of the subject.

Office is used here to describe the position that subject holds or represents as well as the authority and protocol that it commands.
Despite these advances critics to this approach persist. In some schools of thought (See Glaser and Strauss 1967; Cicourel 1970) the interview has assumed some of the quantifiable scientific rigour that preoccupies the survey research (Fontana & Frey 1994) in an effort to obtain the required information without unduly disturbing, biasing or contaminating the respondents (Gubrium & Holstein 2002). Moreover, there is a continuous divide among some groups of current day scholars and researchers who may no doubt even impinge on the standpoint of the interpretive approach being advocated in this study.

It must nonetheless be understood that “each practice makes the world visible in a different way” (Denzin and Lincoln 2005:4). Furthermore, it should be appreciated that every individual has a sense of a controllable self, which enables each person to reflect meaningfully on his or her experiences. Weiss (1994) reminds that every respondent is worth listening to, someone who can provide detailed descriptions of his or her thoughts, feelings and activities, if asked and listened to carefully enough. Moreover, inherent in the interview is a certain level of confidentiality, which facilitates a safety zone for the informant; hence, the ‘relative ease’ of the ‘task of dialoguing’ and its wide usage in current day research. However, these developments have raised some pertinent ethical issues which will be addressed later in the chapter.

It must be emphasised that as advocated by Holstein and Gubrium (1995), this study seeks to create through each interview an occasion to purposefully engage participants to construct versions of reality dialectically, rather than merely to procure data. Also, following on Holstein and Gubrium’s ideas, it aims to give dynamic constructive roles to the respondents through the social interaction played out by active subjects in authoring their experiences about tourism education and training planning and decision making in Dominica. It is not simply a matter of procedure or the richness of data that is important here, it is also a matter of collaboratively making audible and visible the phenomenal depths of the individual concepts at the centre of shared (researcher/subject) concerns. As a result, there is joint ownership to the creation of knowledge and meaning within the context of the study.
7.2.3 The Interview Process

In-depth interviews present an effective means of yielding rich and thick data over a short time frame (Stokes & Bergin 2006). That characteristic feature made this method suitable for this study due to time constraints of this project. It also accommodates immediate follow-up and clarification during the data collection process which was pivotal in fulfilling the criteria of the production of quality data. However, the interview can be critiqued to be somewhat like a normal conversation and care has to be taken to avoid using it in a thoughtlessly under-theorised manner, as if the respondents were just providing ‘an unproblematic window on psychological or social realities’ (Wengraf 2001:1).

Mason (1996) advocates that working from a qualitative perspective the inquirer must be clear on the nature of the phenomenon that he/she wishes to investigate. Hence, an understanding of what might represent knowledge and evidence of the social reality within the local setting was vital. Also, a sense of the broad substantive area was essential. Thus, the researcher engaged in familiarisation and analysis of key documents such as the tourism master plan, the national curriculum, the education act and consultancy documents (discussed in chapter two).

Thus, preparation for the in-depth interviews required that the researcher consult the existing literature, review key theoretical concepts to obtain clear and substantive focus on the specific aspects of tourism education and training to be investigated. Consequently, careful thought was given to (1) the existing nature of and resources available within both the tourism and education system; (2) the existing gaps and challenges; (3) what processes could be employed; (4) at what level(s) of education and/or training should be considered; and (5) which fraction(s) of the public and private sector on the island should be included.

This research lends itself to varying styles of reporting which tend to add a bit of interest and life to the presentation of the information gathered in the field. However, the researcher remained vigilant in refraining from the misuse of this privilege at the expense
of producing sound and valid research. Also, the interpretation and constructions produced about the case, Dominica, through this method of inquiry are from indirect information filtered through the views of the expert in-depth interviews, produced in a designated place and time. Such information is therefore contextually bound to the specific setting, and does not lend itself to generalisation. Nevertheless, the rich and in-depth data can be utilised for further research of the central phenomenon within the same and/or varying settings. It is hoped that the interpretations and constructions of the study will be advanced through further research, but more importantly impact the island’s tourism education and training system.

7.2.4 The Role of the Researcher

Central to qualitative research is the human element and the role of the investigator. In essence, the researcher is the main instrument for data collection and analysis (Creswell 1994). Moreover, inquiries are carried out in person within the natural setting. Simultaneously, the researcher observes and records the behaviour of subjects, noting how their perceptions and experiences shape the manner in which they make sense of the world.

Qualitative research accepts that research is ideologically driven and that there is no value-free design. So, it is common practice for these characteristics to be identified and articulated within the conceptual framework of the design and there is no effort to conceal one’s biases. Thus, inherent in the nature of the qualitative design is the freedom allowed for the expression of the research standpoint of the investigator. Locke, Spirduso & Silverman (1987) concur that this sort of transparency is useful and positive and opine that biases, values and judgments can and should be stated explicitly (Creswell 1994) early in the research report.

The literature presents different approaches to the practice of reflexivity. Advocators of the value-laden approach (Bourdieu 1984; Senge 1990; Creswell 1994; Denzin & Lincoln
1994; Skeggs, 1994; Williams 2000; Hall 2004; Denzin & Lincoln 2005) do not seek to achieve any separation of the researcher and the researched. Although, Foster, Gomm and Hammersley (2000) contend that one’s values do impact on what is researched, they present value-neutrality as an ideal to be sought among social researchers. Nevertheless, Scott and Usher (1999) posit that value and reflexive statements can never be complete or objective since they represent constructions on the part of the writer. Furthermore, Fine et al (2000) suggest that such accounts can be self-indulgent and may lead to marginalisation of the research participants. In contrast, positivist researchers approach the research process by seeking to eliminate the effect of their preconceptions, personal views and value judgements (Sarantokos, 1993). Regardless, Walsh (1999) contends that value-neutrality is itself a value.

Cutcliffe (2003) states that a certain degree of *temet nosce* (a need to ‘know thyself’) is necessary if the researcher is to make his/hers values and a prior knowledge known. However, Cutcliffe argues that only a limited degree of self-awareness is possible, since a majority of one’s values and beliefs remain outside one’s consciousness. Furthermore, reporting on one value and not another suggests a reductionist approach. What is more, Cutcliffe presents the argument that one’s values are constantly changing as the research process unfolds. Thus, according to Cutcliffe adopting a reflexive stance to research in view of the limitedness of one’s consciousness and self-awareness, is a cogent dilemma and the problem remains.

Ahen (1999) focuses on the use of bracketing during the research process as a measure to demonstrate the validity of the data collection and analytic process. This is done in an effort to avoid imposing one’s own understanding and constructions on the data (see Crotty 1996). Thus, bracketing facilitates putting aside one’s values in order to more accurately describe respondents’ experiences. Ahen nonetheless, argues that the ability to put aside personal feelings and preconceptions is more a function of how reflexive one is rather than how objective one is, because it is not possible for researchers to set aside things about which they are not aware.
Greenbank (2003) in a paper, "The role of values in educational research: the case for reflexivity" discusses the role of moral, competency, personal and social values, based on Rokeach’s (1973) categorisation, to analyse how values influence the choice of research method during the educational research process. Greenback highlights the point that in arriving at a decision about what research methods to engage in, the researcher will ‘inevitably be influenced by their underlying ontological and epistemological position’ (1973:792). However, according to Eisner, ‘the facts never speak for themselves, what they say depends on the questions asked’ (1992:14). In spite of this, Janesick (1994) cautions that the data must ‘do the talking’. Nevertheless, Greenback (2003) citing Eisner (1992) proposes that the tendency among interpretivists towards methods that do not focus on objectivity, may lead to researchers slipping into ‘a bottomless pit of subjective solipsism’ Eisner (1992:10). All these among many other arguments lead to further polarisation and critic among researchers on the issue of reflexivity.

For instance, Hall (2004) asserts that he wishes his graduate students to be more reflexive in their work. Even so, he states that:

Taking such positions or making personal statements in their dissertations may also upset some examiners if they do not support the inclusion of reflexive statements. This therefore affects not only the choice of examiners but also the final composition of the student work. (2004:148)

As Hall avers, quoting (Majone 1989) the completeness, shape, structure and beauty of an argument is determined not just by ourselves but by those who receive it.

Nonetheless, there is still an ongoing concern of the lack of reflexivity in qualitative research studies (Denzin and Lincoln 1994; Phillimore and Goodson 2004). Among other concerns, are that reports are presented in a ‘perfect’ manner with no evidence of contradiction in the data, no mention of what was excluded and why, or which voice(s) are heard behind the subjects’ speech, or the influence of the researcher on the process itself.
Reflecting on these issues, being a citizen of the Commonwealth of Dominica the investigator brings to this study a strong personal interest in the island's development. Thus, a certain level of bias is inevitable. The researcher is well acquainted with most of the experts who formed the sample, having worked within the local secondary education system for thirteen years and for over one year within the tourism industry as a Community Tourism Business Development Officer under the Ecotourism Development Programme. In the context of a small island, these factors served as an advantage, but at times also proved equally limiting to the interviewing process.

The fact that the interviewer knew most of the interviewees allowed for ease of access and limited interference from gatekeepers. Nonetheless, 'familiarity breeds content' and the researcher needed to be vigilant for evidence of casualness in approach to the interview encounters. Therefore, the role as inquirer in a very familiar setting had to be exercised with caution, and as far as possible a high level of professionalism and credibility. This was particularly critical as the subjects needed to feel free to reveal as much of the 'truth' as possible, of their perception of the 'reality' of the local setting.

The researcher's perspective on tourism education in the Commonwealth of Dominica evolved over a number of years; it was informed from the knowledge and experience gained as a secondary school teacher in the early years of career development, as well as in the most recent past during tenure on the national European Union funded Eco-tourism Development Programme. Further, the researcher holds academic degrees in areas of business management, secondary education, school supervision and management, and tourism and hospitality management. This broad academic background arguably is pivotal to ideas held on the important role that the researcher believes tourism education and training should hold in the national development of the island. Familiarity with the local culture and nature of the local industry was an asset and created a wealth of knowledge which shaped views in favour of a more concerted and all-inclusive national tourism education and training planning and decision making process.
Chapter 7: Research Design

The researcher’s experience as an educator helped frame the standpoint held on the general education and training programme existing on the island. Likewise, while fulfilling duties as a Community Tourism Officer in the Ministry of Tourism, the researcher worked closely with other key tourism officers and stakeholders in developing community tourism projects across the island. In that position the researcher was able to gain first hand information on the current trends in the local industry and to identify critical gaps in the developmental needs of various sectors of the industry and the quality of human resources available to meet those needs and challenges. These factors expressed above, to a great extent drove the desire to pursue this piece of research in an effort to broaden understanding of the phenomenon at hand; and as a direct consequence to make meaningful contribution to the policy and practice of tourism education and training on the island.

Notwithstanding all of these positives and negatives of being an insider, the investigator acknowledged the importance of the subjects’ voice to the research. Though, an appreciation of the researcher’s point of view is acceptable to this study, all effort, as far as possible was made to limit its impact on overshadowing the experts’ voices one way or the other. Rather, being an insider was exploited to help bring deeper meaning to the phenomenon by exposure of the most relevant issues and proper exercise of the role of the investigator in bringing all ideas, interpretations and construction to a ‘unified and seamless whole’.

Certainly, in this research my values and preconceptions about education and training as alluded above influenced the selection of the research topic. They also impacted on the sample selection and the questions asked during interviews about the phenomenon. Despite that being the case, the fact remains, though I have taught within the education system on the island and worked within the industry at a national project development level, I have been away from active teaching for the past twelve years. More significantly, I have never taught tourism. Notwithstanding the augments on the indisciplinarity of tourism, and the perception of ease of knowledge and skills transfer evidenced by the large number of non-tourism specialist within the field, I strongly hold
the view that the 'truth' of what tourism education and training programme system is needed, and what planning approach is appropriate for Dominica lies 'within' those currently operating in the local setting.

This view is also in keeping with a key assumption upon which the research was developed. That is, the sample of interviewees chosen possess first hand expert knowledge about the case. One may contend that this belief and the above mentioned assumption is in fact routed in my value system (developed over the years), that what is foreign is not always best suited for the island. Regardless, the concept, of tourism education and training being contextual and relevant, as have been discussed throughout this study, and has also been opined by other writers (Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake 1994; Lewis 2005).

However, the debate on how reflexive a piece of research or the actual writing up of the research report is, persists in being polarised by the social, political and value systems of the individual researcher and group of researchers within each discipline. This is an epistemology and ontological problem which continues to preclude some approaches while advocating others. In my own research I have been challenged on not being reflexive enough. Nevertheless, I approached the analysis and up writing process in keeping with the assumption previously delineated above, that, the data should do the talking.

In addition, the qualitative approach required a certain degree of training and insight development on the part of the investigator. Therefore, in preparation for this exercise the investigator engaged in an in-depth secondary research literature review of key scholars from varying schools of thought; examined various past studies related to this case; engaged in qualitative interviewing, data analysis and QSR Nvivo 7 training, as well as seeking advice from other research professionals and academics, inclusive of monthly research supervisory meetings. Nonetheless, the process of learning in the field of qualitative research is a dynamic one and the researcher remained open to deepening her knowledge and understanding as the process unfolded.
7.3 The Methodical Procedures of the Study

Increasingly, there has been a move away from the once dominant objective, quantitative approach, to a more descriptive and exploratory type of research in the field of tourism education and training. Nonetheless, arguments have been made (Walford 1991; Baxter & Eyles 1999) for more detailed information on how qualitative studies are implemented throughout the research exercise to justify the overall research strategy and general decisions made at the various stages of the process (Holliday 2002). Thus, this section serves to present a road map of the procedures taken in the study.

7.3.1 The Design

Janesick (1994) suggests a set of practical decisions that enable sound research. These involve: (1) what specific research problem should be investigated? (2) what setting and format? (3) for how long? and (4) with which subjects? From that background, early in the research process a decision was made to engage in a study of 'the actual case'. This allowed for focus on the island of Dominica, rather than on other islands or countries (to compare and contrast) which would have (by nature of being different) quite diverse features from the 'individual case' under study.

Access and entry decisions were considered early in the process, to establish trust and rapport and ensure that participants were, as well stated by Janesick (1994:211), 'more willing to share everything'. In that regard, in October 2006 the researcher embarked upon an initial trip to the island. This served to sensitisise the likely participants about the research. The trip proved very beneficial in providing added insight into ongoing developments; access to key tourism and education proposals and draft policy documents; in fine tuning the research concept and design; obtaining additional referrals to resources, secondary data and personnel that would later prove useful to the investigation (see trip report in Appendix A).
Next, a decision was made about the most suitable data collection approach. The selected strategy, suggests Janesick (1994) should be intimately connected to the researcher’s views, the purpose of the study and how to best understand the social setting. Thus, engaging in in-depth expert interviews was deemed most appropriate to provide profound understanding about the intrinsic and instrumental dimensions of the case.

Holliday (2002) also advocates the need to make decisions on the length of time spent in the field with individual subjects and the data, to obtain the quality and value required. The focal point was on emic research, placing comprehensive study on key concepts and giving special attention to extremities (if they occurred) instead of controlling them. Qualitative studies inherently embrace all available evidence, without eliminating from the lens of the investigation variances simply because they cannot be researched by ‘expected’ scientific measures.

It should be noted here that quantitative methods are nevertheless, useful in tourism education and training research when it is necessary to have exactness and rigour, and when time is a limiting factor. In contrast the etic approach is utilised to give high priority to objectivity, control of variables and for quantification, in such scientific studies. These techniques are also useful when much insight or in-depth information is not mandatory. More importantly, quantitative research is advisable when one is hoping to verify or falsify theory (Denzin and Lincoln 1994, 2005). Moreover, this approach can also be combined under some designs with qualitative methods, for instance, when different facets of a phenomenon may emerge or where mixed methods add scope and breadth to the study (Creswell 1994).

It must be emphasised that in this particular study none of the techniques, involving quantitative approaches was pertinent. The nature of this research is fundamentally exploratory and therefore in distinct contrast with such modes of inquiry. This research did not in any way seek to use the precepts or assumptions held by the quantitative design. However, some partial proponents of qualitative research hold that issues of validity and reliability should be used for the verification of data (see Creswell, 1994).
Nevertheless, the approach of this study is strongly grounded in interpretive assumptions and does not accommodate such compelling forces to oscillate between the two traditions (quantitative and qualitative). Besides, the value of studying a single case lies in its uniqueness and hence issues of validity, reliability and possibilities for generalisation become less relevant to this particular study (see discussions on quality issues in section 7.4).

7.3.2 The Nature of the Sample

In qualitative research there is purposeful action to select the sample members, thus, in this study no effort was engaged in randomising or quantifying the process. However, as Miles and Huberman (1984) caution the researcher worked within the parameters of the study and the setting in making the appropriate selection of participants, answering the questions of 'who, what, how, where and why'. Thus, the initial steps of the research project involved as advised by Patton (1990) the stratified purposeful sampling of respondents, the unit of analysis of the research. As such, the decision was taken to engage tourism and education experts on the island due to their familiarity with the local setting and the wealth of knowledge they had of the current tourism education and training environment in Dominica by virtue of the professional status or office held.

In selecting the experts a list was created of possible respondents sourced through existing national data-bases, staff lists and consultation with native colleagues and from the investigator's own knowledge. The list was then ranked to achieve diversity in terms of composition in the areas of status, position or office held, sector representation, background knowledge and experience. The aim was to identify the managers, top executives, directors, policy makers, top educators and industry players and/or other relevant professionals in the society.

Creating the right pool of respondents demanded much more than generating a list of potential respondents. Contacting them and convincing them to participate was even more critical and pivotal. Since the investigator is a citizen of the island and had
previously worked within both the education and tourism sectors, this served as a great advantage in facilitating access to a majority of the experts. Nonetheless, formal letters of request were sent out to each prospective respondent one month prior to going into the field in September 2007 to secure their willingness to form part of the sample (appendix B). For the most part, the researcher received positive responses, as a high level of anticipation and support towards this study and its outcome was demonstrated by most if not all of the experts briefed during the initial visit to the island in October 2006.

Following on Rubin and Rubin (2005), to ensure that the research results are credible, the individual interviewees were chosen based on the presupposition of their high level of experience in their field, their knowledge and the ability to articulate views held. In addition, the sample was selected so that the combined views presented a balanced perspective and a rounded group of experts that could help test emerging concepts by enabling juxtaposition of differing views. Further, in keeping with the views of Marshall & Rossman (2006) the sample was expected to supply invaluable information to the data set, in terms of the positions that selected subjects held within the specific realm of the society being investigated. Importantly, the information gathered was based on their individual perspectives of their organisations, their relationship to other organisations, organisation policies, historical background and future plans.

The final composition of the sample shown below in table 14 comprised of 65 experts from both the public and private sector and represented four main categories: education and training, tourism and closely related sectors, public sector professionals, and private sector professionals. In keeping with ethical concerns of the study the specific names of individual experts are omitted from this discussion.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Sector and Private Sector Professionals</th>
<th>Tourism and Related Sector Experts</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cooperator, Regional Forestry Development Association</td>
<td>Hotelier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director, National Development Foundation</td>
<td>Environment Promotor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader of the Opposition and other Politicians</td>
<td>Event Promotor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Officer</td>
<td>Small Business Development Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director ICA</td>
<td>Hotelier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager Airport and Sea Port</td>
<td>Environment Promotor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Officer</td>
<td>Tourism Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry Officer, National Parks, Environmental Unit</td>
<td>Tourism Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Corps, Organization and National Youth Environmental</td>
<td>Hotel, Restaurant, Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex-Coordinator, Tourism Development Officer</td>
<td>Tourism Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Youth Officer</td>
<td>Director of Invest Dominica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Port Officer</td>
<td>Human Resource Manager, Four Young Hotels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Immigration Officer</td>
<td>Cooperator, Community Tourism Development Unit Eco-Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director, Ministry of Culture</td>
<td>Cooperator, Regional Forestry Development Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Utilities</td>
<td>Cooperator, Development Planning Commission</td>
</tr>
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<td>Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Utilities</td>
<td>Cooperator, Development Planning Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 1: The Composition of Purposeful Interview Sample
But, obtaining access to these high profile individuals required implementing strategies that included a mixture of ingenuity, social skills and careful negotiation. As pointed out by McDowell (1998) connections and networks, luck and the particular circumstances at the time, all impacted recruitment of the ‘right’ respondents.

The interviews with the tourism and education experts were of primary importance in better understanding the key characteristics and challenges of the local tourism industry, the national education and training systems and the processes engaged for planning tourism education and training. According to Tierney and Dilley (2002) interviews with policy makers help in developing an understanding of the systems and how a particular strategy or plan could work within the local context. Thus, an important component of the sample comprised of politicians, parliamentary representatives, permanent secretaries in the government ministries and other key officials from the public sector.

Likewise, the private sector experts in the sample assisted in achieving a balanced view and presented some level of triangulation of the data between the parties who impacted on education policies and those who were affected by its implementation. This group included representatives from the local hotel and tourism organisation, environmentalists, hoteliers, events promoters, small business management agency, consultants, top executives and managers of tourism enterprises.

According to Marshall and Rossman (2006) experts generally tend to respond well to very broad areas of content and to open-ended questions, which present them with the opportunity and freedom to use their wealth of knowledge and imagination. Usually, they provide much insight and valuable meaning to research, but caution must be exercised in how ‘credit’ is assigned to their perspectives. This is because in some cases individuals, especially politicians, may have only a vague understanding of a specific phenomenon. This may be further limited by a narrow viewpoint, masked by concepts held due to a particular political ideological affiliation (Marshall & Rossman 2006). In this regard, measures of verification of data (as discussed later in this section) were employed throughout the entire process.
Moreover, interviewing experts raises issues of control and power (Tierney & Dilley, 2002; Marshall and Rossman 2006). Hence, the interviews at times were unpredictable and quite complex to manage due to the busy schedule of managers, executive officers and politicians. The planned structure was also often affected by interruptions from staff or other office duties. Furthermore, experts tend to conduct background checks on interviewers to verify their motives and credibility; thus it was paramount that much preparation was made in advance to present an informed stance to the interviewing process.

In view of these issues, a courteous and friendly approach, along with a professional demeanour was essential on the part of the researcher. Time constraints and the environment of the interview venue also impacted on the richness of the data collected. Therefore, the interviewer had to be adaptable in working with and around the life style demands of respondents so as to maximise interview opportunities. At times this required either working in the offices or homes of experts. Often, last minute changes to scheduled meetings had to be accommodated.

As far as was possible, the higher level experts were interviewed during the later stages of the fieldwork to ensure that utmost benefit was gained from the encounter in terms of refinement of the interview protocol, the emerging data in the field and to ensure optimum preparation on the part of the interviewer. This also allowed for utilisation of initial data onto subsequent interviews; a process also advocated by Papageorgiou (2003). The researcher viewed this as an important positive characteristic of the interpretive approach of this study. Since multiple views, interpretations and constructions were expected, this technique created a means of testing and verifying the emerging ideas and themes at the later stages with the ‘key’ actors in the sample.

7.3.3 Data Collection and Recording
Rubin & Rubin (2005) advise that no style of question is inherently right or wrong. Furthermore, Warren (2002) contends that although research literature is useful, its
relevance is basically confined to the initial stages of the research process. These two concepts largely framed the researcher's decisions about the interviewing format deployed in this study. In this study, as earlier clarified, the theoretical concepts presented in part II which underpin the answers to the research puzzle unfolded in a cyclic fashion as the investigation progressed.

Nevertheless, to ensure that the field investigation was grounded in sound theoretical underpinning and to create the framework for obtaining substantial data from which meaningful interpretations and understanding could be drawn, the researcher developed an initial interview protocol conceptualisation table (presented in table 15 which follows on page 175). This served to establish and maintain a strong link between the main research question, key theoretical concepts in the extant literature and the proposed interview questions. In addition, for the purpose of background preparatory information a broad set of topics was short-listed to serve as an interview guide. As already mentioned this exercise was merely for the interviewer's benefit to ensure that the discussions remained relevant to the phenomenon and contributed to the thick data.

Generally, a semi-structured mode was adopted to secure the rich data required. Therefore, fashioned on Warren's (2002) approach, once the research question was finalised, guided in most instances but not strictly driven by the review of literature, a set of ten (10) to twelve (12) specific questions were developed together with a face sheet used for data descriptors such as date, time, venue to serve as the actual interview protocol (see appendix B). It must be noted however, that the interview protocol was further refined as the process unfolded during the field investigation (again refer appendix B). Moreover, adhering to the interview guidelines of Rubin and Rubin, the flow of the conversation was not 'overly' directed as reflected in the sample interview (see appendix C) since the assumption held was that the experts selected would be highly perceptive and knowledgeable on the topic, able to share their thoughts freely in a semi-structured interview.
Careful planning is necessary to avoid strategic drift; should other industries and public sector departments be involved in planning tourism education?

How can tourism education and training be made more relevant to the local way of life?

Would you be willing to part of a team working together to achieve a more improved tourism and other interest groups and sectors; should consider education system on the island?

W hy? How c an this be achieved?

The needs of the learner

Education and training

What can be done to make tourism education and training more effective?

Where can you be taught in tourism education and training? How can tourism education and training be made more effective?

What is the role of education and training in improving the tourism industry? How can tourism education and training address the local industry needs?

The needs of the people

E ducation and training

How can the current approach to tourism education and training be better developed to suit the needs of the people?

How can the current approach to tourism education and training be better developed to suit the needs of the tourism industry?

What role of education and training play in the future development of the local tourism industry?

Table 15: Conception of Interview Protocol

### Possible Interview Questions

1. What is your view on the current state of tourism education and training in [Country]?
2. How do you think tourism education and training should be improved?
3. What role should education and training play in the development of the local tourism industry?
4. What measures should be taken to ensure that education and training are more relevant to the needs of the tourism industry?
5. Do you think there is a need for more vocational training in the tourism sector?
6. What are the challenges or barriers to effective education and training in the tourism industry?

### Key Theoretical Concepts

- **Economic Development**: The growth and prosperity of the economy, often measured in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
- **Tourism Industry**: A sector that provides goods and services to visitors, such as hotels, restaurants, transportation, and entertainment.
- **Vocational Training**: Education and training programs designed to provide specific skills and knowledge relevant to particular occupations.

### When Research Question

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**Note**: The text appears to be a mix of questions and considerations related to tourism education and planning, with an emphasis on ensuring that education and training are more relevant and effective for the needs of the local economy and society.
7.3.3.1 The Pilot Interview Process

The interview literature strongly advocates the need for training, examining strategies and testing of methods. As such, upon entering the field in September 2007 the investigator embarked on a pre-test exercise; the composition of the pilot sample is presented in table 16 below.

Table 16: Composition of the pilot sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Pilot Sample</th>
<th>Tourism/ Education</th>
<th>Public Sector</th>
<th>Private Sector</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table above, pilot interviews were conducted with experts typical to, but not forming part of the sample to test the proposed interview format, check for logistics and test the performance of the voice recorder and any other unforeseen occurrences which could impinge on the actual interviews.

These trial interviews helped set the tone in the field and allowed the investigator to address technical challenges with use of the equipment, un-anticipated logistic issues and to gain personal interview experience before conducting the scheduled expert interviews. The pilot exercise also assisted in identifying which issues should be advanced and which were potentially controversial.

An analysis of these initial interviews was done and the necessary adjustments made to the existing plan of action and interview protocol (refer Appendix B).
7.3.3.2 Interview Rounds

On arrival on the island in September 2007 for six weeks’ vacation the researcher learnt that the local tourism statutory organisation, then the National Development Corporation was being restructured, an aspect of which involved far-reaching staff changes. An immediate decision was taken to engage in the first round of (25) interviews to capture some of the already selected key experts before any drastic changes which were pending implementation prior to the actual field work visit later in December that year.

The actual interviews took place in three rounds – A, B, C – as shown in table 17 below concurrent to transcription, interpretation in consultation with existing literature and analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert Sector</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Total per Sector in sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Sector</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This format was chosen so as to allow for testing and advancing of emerging concepts and themes. The approach also facilitated thorough understanding of the research phenomenon, as deviant ideas were clarified and meaning and constructions developed with each additional interview.

Each interview began with a short introduction. During that time the researcher briefed the subject(s) of the purpose of the interview and the future use of the data gathered, particularly that of future academic publications. It was clarified that the subject(s) were free to withdraw from the process at any time during or after the interview. The researcher also reassured the participants of the perseverance of their anonymity during
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and after the research was completed, and that the data collected would only be used for its intended purpose as agreed upon. Then, letters of consent were provided for signature before delving into each interview (see appendix B).

As outlined by Rubin and Rubin (1995) three types of questions were employed. A main question to begin and guide the conversation; probes to clarify answers or request further examples; and follow-up questions that pursued the implications of answers to main questions. Most importantly, the interview remained flexible and attentive to the variety of meanings that emerged as the interview progressed. This open stance included being alert to developing constructions and interpretations that rendered previously designed questions irrelevant in light of the changing context of meanings.

The nature and tone of the questions used for conducting the interviews tend to impact on the subjects in a number of ways. Overall, how questions are phrased in the interview determine how much detail was shared and how honestly. So, it was important that the questions used were unambiguous, but more significantly, phrased to encourage open sharing in a spirit of trust and without inhibition. Care was also taken to consider the interplay of social and cultural impact as well as the local rhetoric as these could influence understanding and perception.

Since the technique used was of a flexible semi-structured, open-ended nature, all interviews were audio taped utilising a voice recorder with the respondents' consent. Nevertheless, notes were taken by the interviewer as a safeguard against loss of data, in the event that the device malfunctioned. Care was taken to avoid writing in too much detail to avoid distracting interviewees and limit the free flow of discussions. Regardless, pertinent points of interest or contradiction were noted for the purpose of follow-up or possible quotations for the actual report.

In conducting the interviews respondents at times posed questions to the interviewer. But within this format the strategy used by the researcher, as far as possible, was to redirect these inquiries as points of clarification and to refocus the discussions to the respondents
pointing to the value and significance in the context of the interaction, of their expert opinions and perspectives. Rubin and Rubin (2005) suggest that one way of signalling that what is required is in-depth information, is by not interrupting the sometimes lengthy versions of respondents experiences and events, but rather listening intently, and following up given clues for further clarification and expansion. Bearing this in mind questions were phrased to signal a certain level of demand and knowledge of the phenomenon without giving the impression of superiority in knowledge. Use was at times made of double barrel6 questions on two related issues to encourage scope for broad responses. The art then, of achieving success with the use of this interview style was to maintain a caring and concerned attitude, expressed within that well planned and encouraging format.

All interviews were conducted in person in a face-to-face encounter. Based on the method of respondent selection and the efforts to create a purposive sample, typical of ‘the voice’ of the local education and tourism systems, the experts were able to shed deep insight into characteristics and challenges of tourism education and training planning and decision making processes from a national perspective, while at the same time arriving at new meanings, interpretations and constructions. A journal was kept throughout the fieldwork, as a reference point for both minor and significant details which could not be left to memory, but would be useful once the researcher had left the field. This was later also critical for further reflection of the research process.

All 25 interviews in round A were first listened to and then transcribed as soon as it was possible, while the details of the interaction were still vivid in the mind of the researcher. In some cases transcribers were utilised, but the researcher reviewed each individually, editing as necessary. This practice ensured that key points and notes made could be effectively linked to the information simultaneous to editing. Importantly, each interview was made anonymous and labelled. The system developed is illustrated in table 18 which follows.

6 Two separate but linked questions giving allowance for a wider scope in response style
Table 18: Coding System of Interview Transcripts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coding of Transcripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Round</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As reflected in the table 18 above each interview was assigned a number in the order conducted in each round. The code for each was arrived at by using the letter of the round, the sector the interviewee represented and then the interview number in that particular round.

At the end of the six week period the researcher returned to the United Kingdom in preparation for the upgrade MPhil/PhD examination. This exercise proved valuable as feedback was provided on initial data collection and analysis. Critical comments made were utilised to further advance and restructure the interview protocol. Based on advice obtained from the upgrade examiners and the primary research supervisor the introduction question on the interviewees view on ‘what role tourism education and training should have for the island?’ was changed to a less conceptual idea to allow for easy flow of the interview.

In November 2007 the researcher made a second visit to the island for completion of the last two rounds of interviews. Then the process outlined above continued until the end of the third round. During the second and third round conducted between the period December 2007 and March 2008, the researcher sought to create and facilitate the most suitable environment for developing the rich data set required through a dialectic and transactional process, based on initial analysis and insight obtained from the first round of interviews.
The researcher remained in the field until all interviews were conducted at the convenience of the experts, guaranteeing the full participation of the sample as far as possible. Also, the researcher ensured that data saturation was reached; and that the length of stay in the field allowed for data verification with the experts and written sources such as the national tourism policy, consultancy reports and other relevant documents.

7.3.4 Transcribing and Translating

A central feature to in-depth interviews is the generation of words, the primary symbol system through which meaning is conveyed and constructed (Marshall & Rossman 2006). Therefore, it was important to take decisions on how they would be treated in the research. According to Wengraf (2001) transposing the spoken word from tape recording into text requires much skill from the researcher, can be problematic, and poses some challenges that may not be very obvious. This is particularly the case when the researcher does not share and understand the local language. However, in this study translation did not pose a major area of concern since the investigator is a native of the island Dominica and is quite familiar with the local dialect. Nonetheless, connotation and meaning in the use of words within English language itself could not be taken for granted. Further, it was necessary to interpret the local patios, a broken French Creole, which was often used by interviewees.

Moreover, the interviewees do not speak in paragraphs, nor signal punctuations, therefore judgments had to be made on the use of grammar and punctuation, such as periods, commas, and semicolons, throughout the transcription exercise. This was particularly important since according to Tilley (2003) the transcriber no longer had access to important paralinguistic clues about meaning, as visual clues are unavailable while listening to the taped recordings. However, as stated before, in this study care was taken to transcribe and edit all interviews as soon as they were conducted while the details were still freshly committed to the researcher’s memory.
As mentioned in the literature, in some cases, interviewees moved from one topic to the other, spoke in incomplete sentences and at time lost their train of thought. Hence, interviewees at these times had to be prompted back to the original topic by the interviewer. This usually led to interrupted sentences, unfinished thoughts and topics. Such styles are difficult to transcribe and analyse as overall clarity may be difficult to ascertain. Moreover, pauses may be interpreted in several ways, as indicators of thoughtfulness on an issue or even withholding information. Moreover, the meaning of pauses in conversations is not transparent and caution had to be used in drawing inferences and offering interpretations of these linguistic patterns. Despite all these issues, the researcher made the most of the advantage of being an ‘insider’ while making sense of the transcripts, following up omissions and contradictions to further advance each round of the interviews.

7.3.5 Data Analysis, Verification and Use of Rhetoric

The strategy for data analysis was based on a format advocated by Tesch (1990) in combination with the use of the QSR NVivo7 software. The use of this qualitative data analysis software package allowed for a reasonable amount of data to be efficiently managed and analysed (Bazeley 2007) by means of the qualitative approach on which this study is underpinned. Thus, once all the interviews had been edited they were checked for anonymity and imported into QSR Nvivo 7.

But first, as recommended by Tesch (1990) an overview of the entire data was acquired by listening to and then reading through all the transcripts carefully making notes of ideas throughout the process. This was useful for obtaining a broad feel of the entire data before proceeding to delve into the details of each interview at which point the concern was with underlying meaning. Also as advised by Merriam (1988) colour coding (see sample Nvivo 7 output below table 19) of different key ideas on the actual transcripts and the highlighting of unusual or useful quotes that later could be incorporated into the qualitative story was employed.
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Table 19: Sample Data Coding Nvivo 7 Output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference 1 - 6.37% Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I can tell you when I was there we had.... I think the Social Studies program itself, the tourism program is incorporated under Social Studies, its subsumed in Social Studies ....ok.... we do not have......So that's at the primary schools....Yes, yes, primary, secondary in, it's part of Social Studies, tourism in Social Studies, but I don’t, I think some time ago, well there has, there have been workshops for teachers in tourism; it’s more to create the awareness, for example what is a tourist because the notion is that with many people a tourist is a white person, but a tourist as we know is anybody attending or staying in a region for different reasons sports, education, overnight, more than one day but less than a year. So we try to create that kind of awareness. I think some time ago, the NDC and Curriculum Unit, they worked together, in creating that kind of awareness among students, and as I said there had been a number of workshops that teachers from both primary and secondary schools attended, but I doh know what is the most recent initiatives taken in relation to sensitizing students, that is to the importance of tourism apart from the fact that the NDC when it was called that, they were having the usual attempts, to contact or to work with the schools, to create the awareness where tourism is concerned. But as to where it stands now; as I told you I just came back to that position there. Probably a good person that you could speak to is Jane because she was in that position. But that’s what I know. I know the attempt, the effort is ongoing, that is to create that awareness and participation ...

In addition, use was made of file folders and word documents all in an effort to maintain a high level of organisation while in the field.

At the second stage, four interviews, one from each sector, which were deemed to provide rich data from round one were chosen to begin deeper level probing. Using these as a starting point, emerging thoughts were written in the margin of paragraphs and sections for later reference. Next a list was made of topics which surfaced, clustering similar ones into groups. The developed list was then utilised to create tree nodes (folders used to file text related to a specific code) for the coding process within Nvivo 7 (refer Appendix D).

Then, working initially (within NVivo 7), with round one, the interviews were coded, adding new concepts as additional tree nodes as they unfolded. This third stage of analysis involved matching appropriate segments of texts to codes while being alert to the emergence of new categories. At the end of coding all data from round one, the resulting topics were then turned into categories, making use of the most appropriate wording or
phrase. In so doing, a list of categories that reflected major and minor themes in the data was created. Also created was a special category representing information that was deviant to emerging themes.

An important follow-up step was to further reduce the total list of categories, by grouping topics that were similar or could be used to match related themes. An intricate schema developed of tree nodes (parent codes) and branches (sub codes) representative of the voluminous data obtained from the interviews.

After this preliminary grouping of coding and reducing, the fourth stage, the initial analysis of the data belonging to each of the categories was done. Importantly, the views and attitudes of participants were carefully analysed and interpreted. Very central to the approach of this research was the need to look for different perspectives among the participants of the research (Erickson 1986). This was geared to establish points of tension and addressing anomalies or conflicting evidence in the data. As advocated by Mehan (1979), the aim here was to develop a balanced and comprehensive data set that described the specific phenomena.

By this point it must be clear that round one of the interview data was used to generate a provisional analytic scheme. The scheme was then compared to the second and third rounds of interview data as the analysis continued; and modifications were made to the scheme as necessary in order to accommodate emerging themes. This process involved personal judgement, consultation with the extant literature and supervisory guidance. Then, the provisional analytic scheme (strongly recommended by Mehan 1979; Becker 1998) was continuously cross analysed across rounds and across sectors, with discrepant interpretations and constructions until a small set of recursive rules that incorporate all the data in the analysis was arrived at. After a period of prolonged coding and recoding, critical analysis, and at times consultation with the raw scripts, as a result of this fifth stage, four main categories — principles, structures, processes and power — with various sub themes were developed. These are discussed in great detail in chapters eight, nine and ten of the study.
Finally, member checks were done to receive feedback from subjects on the emerging constructions and interpretations to ensure that conclusions arrived at were accurate.

7.3.6 Emergent Analytic Issues of the Study
As discussed by Yin (1989) the dominant mode of data analysis with regards to the case study design, was the identification of patterns by comparing results with that predicted from the theory or the literature. Yin also holds that causal links or rival alternatives should be used to build explanation about the case. This concept formed an important feature of the technique used in this study. Interestingly, the themes which emerged from the data revealed new understanding of the phenomenon and highlighted issues and challenges impacting tourism and training on the island. Accordingly, the researcher was redirected to the literature to gain insight into the theoretical concepts which underpinned these themes.

As discussed earlier, much of the body of the literature on the phenomenon under investigation was used alongside emerging themes rather than as a framework precursor to data collection. This required that the researcher move away from the data periodically to consult the literature in a cyclical format in building the interpretations and constructions surrounding this case. Interestingly, once an in-depth analysis was completed, the resulting constructions and interpretations led to new theoretical underpinnings for review in the existing literature which had not been previously examined.

The options available in writing up the study are varied and narratives can offer an element of interest through the current alternatives available for the author of a qualitative research report. It is also common in qualitative writing styles to give ‘voice’ to the participants, by signalling important quotes, intertwined with the author’s interpretations. The qualitative design allows for presenting the narrative as an inductively constructed ‘single case or unit of analysis’. Accordingly, the inductive approach of this research
lends itself to making use of the body of literature in the presentation of the research findings, to analyse the case results with that of existing concepts and theories.

As with the nature of the interviews themselves and as encouraged by Richardson (1990) multiple narratives were employed to represent the various voices in the research such as use of the first person ‘I’ or ‘we’, variations of the tense (use of the present or past) for emphasis where and when necessary, direct scripts of conversations, use of long and short text-embedded quotes, intertwining quotations with the authors’ interpretations, using indents to signify informant quotes and presenting text information in tabular form when appropriate (as in table 20, 21 and 22).

7.3.7 Quality Issues

The quality of qualitative research has been a subject of much debate. Some scholars (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen, 1993) contend that the elements of trustworthiness and authenticity are the criteria by which such research should be assessed. As explained by Kler (2007, see also Lincoln and Guba 1985; Decrop 2004) trustworthiness refer to the ability to demonstrate the truth value, applicability, allowance for external judgements about the consistency of procedures employed and the neutrality of findings. Others (Miles and Huberman 1984; Merriam 1988; Creswell 1994) hold that there is a place for validity and reliability and the triangulation of the data set, practices which according to Stenbacka (2001) are strongly affiliated with the quantitative positive approach. For example, reliability is conceptualised in terms of the stability of the findings while validity pertains to the truthfulness of the data (see Whittemore, Chase and Mandle 2001).

In that regard, Creswell (1994) suggests that these criteria should be framed within the procedures of the qualitative plan and writings. He believes triangulation should be utilised to check for internal validity, along with a plan for informants’ feedback and member checks. In addition, it should be made clear how informants and participants are to be involved throughout all phases of the research. For external validity, Creswell
further recommends that a discussion on the limited generalisability of the findings is pertinent. For him, addressing the issue of the limitations in replicating the study, would attend to the matter of reliability.

Even so, these positions seem to question the foundational assumptions and precepts of qualitative research, in favour of quantitative measures. If one is to support and adopt this standpoint, one would actually be legitimising much of the arguments in favour of the 'scientific' approach to research at the expense of the qualitative design. Nonetheless the quality of any piece of research work is greatly accessed by the due diligence given to both the traditional issues of the research process and the contextual issues inherent in the research setting.

Nevertheless, Lincoln and Guba (1985) have advanced the use of four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability which they advocate as suitable judging the trustworthiness of a naturalistic or qualitative inquiry. In discussing this criteria, Seale (2002) explains that credibility should be established through member checks; transferability by creating a detailed rich description of the setting, providing enough information for judging applicability; dependability is achieved through auditing and reflexivity; and finally confirmability is arrived at by presenting a sophisticated consensus of views considered true.

Further, the importance of establishing transparency is of particular significance when engaging in qualitative research. It is necessary to give constant thought to the reader, particularly when utilising Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Software Analysis packages. Moreover, when utilising Qualitative Research Solutions (QSR), in the case of this study Nvivo 7, a clear audit trail has to be established. As Bringer, Johnston and Brackenridge (2004) point out, the software does not decrease the amount of time or human effort required to read, conceptualise and analyse the data and the researcher needs to be transparent about how this was done.
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For the purpose of this study and in keeping with the assumptions of interpretive approaches the creation of meaning is developed through a dialectic and transactional process. Thus, as suggested by Rubin and Rubin (2005) credibility was gained by the careful design of the research and by choosing interviewees who are well-informed of the key concepts and context of the research problem, but more importantly were representative of the views of the body, group or institutions they belonged to. The selection of experts for this study formed a wide and yet balanced group of interviewees bringing to the research a variety of perspectives. Further, based on their background and experience within the local setting the researcher believed they were also well suited to investigate the research problem thoroughly.

The researcher also sought to establish a vigorous approach into the research design. Accordingly, effort was made to investigate all relevant concepts with completeness checking out facts, apparent contradictions, discrepancies and inconsistencies. Care was taken to ensure disparate views were not ignored by employing the meticulousness necessary to piece together a wholesome and comprehensive view of the case. The fact that the interviews were conducted, translated and interpreted in three rounds facilitated this criterion. It allowed for follow up questions when evidence seemed missing. It also facilitated the adjustments to follow unplanned paths which emerged, redesigning the study as necessary to pursue these new directions (Rubin & Rubin 2005), and testing out alternative explanations with the conversational partners. In this study, thoroughness was sought by going back to interviewees when major gaps became apparent. For example, situations arose where a few educators and industry players suggested that the island did not have a tourism master plan; similarly, some tourism and education government officials would speak of specific ongoing programmes in the schools; in both of the cases information was either lacking or contradictory to data collected previously. In such cases, the researcher verified the information with both previous and later interviewees, until a wholesome picture was obtained.

Another key criterion advocated by Rubin and Rubin (2005) was the need for accuracy in reporting. Hence, the investigator was cautious in how the data was obtained during the
interviews, recorded and reported; being sure to reflect the ‘specific voices’ heard. Further, in seeking to achieve believability the researcher tested the interviewees’ responses by triangulation to check that there were no attempts at deception. Again this meant consultation with other experts, written sources, and fact checking with reports and or policy documents. Transparency was aimed at by creating an audit trail for the reader so that it may be clear how the various steps of the research were carried out. This enables evaluation of the process for assiduousness, trustworthiness and authenticity, among the other quality issues on which a qualitative research should be accessed.

7.3.8 Ethical and other Challenges of the Research
Ethical behaviour and values on the part of the investigator are of utmost importance during the research process. The interview style of research allows for the possibilities of recurring ethical dilemmas and problems, so the need for addressing them throughout the study was ongoing. It must be noted here, that the investigator operated within the ethical standards set by the University of Surrey and its research regulations as set out in the University of Surrey Ethical Guidelines for Teaching and Research document (see appendix A). Therefore, all interviews were conducted with the required informed consent. Even so, this research did not require ethical clearance since the study did not include any health risks, venerable groups, deeply personal data or financial payments among other concerns as detailed in the said document. Nevertheless, much care and caution was exercised to address all the research criteria issues discussed therein.

Whereas within interpretive research there may be some level of process tilt for the protection of the values and identity of subjects, it is seen as destructive when introduced on the part of the inquirer. These issues may greatly impact the research process in terms of what participants feel free to share and how far they would go to be open or even in extreme cases become calculative, negative and biased. In other cases, such issues may serve to curtail what the researcher is allowed to narrate in the final document. Hence, Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight (2001) caution that it is very important to correctly assess and
clearly understand the influence of the standpoint, power and political perceptions and positioning of the participants in the sample.

Here, power and politics are not defined only in terms of governmental bodies, political parties and movements and institutions, but also in terms the emerging groups and factions that one inevitably encounters during the research process in and outside of the field. These issues all help in further contextualising the study and the realities which emerged. Some experts tended to be very ‘territorial’ in their thinking and appeared to hold fast to the traits of ‘group think’ as a consequence of the office they held and the fear of ‘rocking the boat’. More critically, as indicated before, the national tourism administrative body was undergoing a restructuring exercise at the time of the field research and this negatively impacted some of the individuals who formed part of the sample. Thus, a great level of skill and tact was required in dealing with these members to encourage them to partake in investigation.

In terms of the philosophy of research, this study is not exempt from the scrutiny of other researchers, academics and professionals. Many may seek to exercise their own view of social knowledge and the practice of research onto the methodology and methods of this study. This is one arena of power and politics that all research has to contend with. The researcher nonetheless prompts the reader to move beyond his/her own preferences of research style, to seek to evaluate and appreciate this study within the framework and context in which it was designed. Arguably, other approaches can be employed in the future for investigation of this study’s phenomenon to further advance the findings and the practice of the art of research.

A high level of confidentiality is always critical to research, but even more so when working with high-profile subjects. This was very pertinent to this study particularly as many of those being interviewed enjoy much visibility in the local communities and may be easily identified even when names are omitted from published reports. Hence, it was crucial not to disclose any personal traits or organisational affiliations through which the respondents could be easily identified. Odendahl & Shaw (2002) recommend the use of
strategies such as composites, vignettes and pseudonyms in the presentation of findings which can help to maintain subjects' anonymity.

Other areas of concern which were dealt with by the researcher and elaborated on in other parts of this chapter are those of voice, training, accommodation, politics, generalisability and hegemony which are all deemed especially important to the interpretive researcher and by other alternative proponents of positivism. That is because they represent areas on which the received view (positivism) is considered particularly weak and/or vulnerable. Nonetheless, as an investigator one must be alert throughout the process and in avoiding methodolatry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Stokes & Bergin 2006), which is, being too focused on the research procedures at the expense of seeking useful meaning and acquiring new knowledge.

7.4 Conclusions

The chapter detailed the steps deployed throughout the various strategies of data collection, transcription and analysis. It was explained that in-depth expert interview was selected as the strategy for seeking answers to the research questions. The sample comprised 65 experts from the tourism, education and other relevant sectors on the island. In this study interviews were conducted in three rounds allowing for emerging themes to be further developed and qualified as the process unfolded. Further, used was made of emergent theme building which required that new literature was consulted to obtain an in-depth understanding of the research problem. As such, much of the literature in part II of the study was arrived at in consultation with the empirical data.

The soft package QSR Nvivo 7 was utilised for analysis of the data. This package as advocated by many served as a good tool for managing the voluminous data set obtained. Nevertheless, the researcher remained thoroughly engaged in the process of coding, recoding, interpreting and arriving at the multiple understandings which are presented in the next part of the study, part IV.
The quality and ethical issues which impacted the study were kept constantly in focus throughout the research process. Therefore, in writing up the actually research project, much care has taken in providing for the reader a detailed audit trail of the thorough process employed, and the challenges and limitations of the interview method which were considered.

Importantly, special mention was made of the emergence of four broad themes from the data – principle, structure, power and processes – which are now advanced in much detail in the following and final main part of the study.
PART IV: FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This fourth part of the study presents the data findings and surrounding discussions around the four main themes which emerged from the data. The section consists of four chapters.

As typical with such qualitative studies multiple interpretations and understandings are represented, with much overlap among and between themes as the experts sought to frame their constructions about the research puzzle being investigated.

In chapter eight discussions are presented around one of the main themes, 'principles', which emerged out of the empirical data. This key theme and related concepts sets the general framework of tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Accordingly, the concepts presented are arranged in three main subthemes around the conceptualisation of tourism education and training.

Chapter nine then addresses two other main themes, structure and power which impact the planning and delivery of tourism education and training in Dominica.

Next chapter ten focuses on one other theme, the 'process' of tourism education and training planning and the recommended approaches within the context of Dominica as emerged from the findings.

Chapter eleven draws together the central conclusions of the thesis.
Chapter Eight: Principles

8.1 Introduction
This chapter takes as its focus one of the four broad themes which emerged from the data, 'principles'. This chapter also serves to set the background on which the other three broad themes from the data are later advanced in chapters nine and ten.

In so doing, the chapter aims to establish a clear understanding of the key characteristics of the tourism education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica. In seeking to achieve that goal the chapter is arranged around the main theme 'the principles' and the related sub themes which emerged from the data.

Accordingly, the key principles which guide tourism education and training in Dominica are explored in detail in section 8.2, with a focus on those principles that govern industry training in section 8.3. The chapter conclusions are then presented in section 8.4.

8.2 The Principles
The theme 'principles' is used to describe the key concepts which govern and direct decisions about tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Informed by general education and training theory, these principles also share some fundamental ideas with that of the existing tourism education and training literature.

The chapter is further sub divided around the key concepts which emerged on the broad theme principles. In section 8.2.1 discussions are centred on the role of tourism education and training; in 8.2.2 conceptualisation of tourism education and training; and 8.2.3 the lifelong approach. Each section then outlines and expands on various sub themes through the voices of the experts.
8.2.1 The Role of Tourism Education and Training

This section discusses the views held by the experts about the role of tourism education and training in Dominica in relation to three sub themes. These are, tourism education and training for: economic development (section 8.2.1.1); the good of society through sustainable development (section 8.2.1.2); and the development and preservation of the local culture (section 8.2.1.3).

8.2.1.1 Tourism education and training for economic development

From a modernisation theory perspective, as one of the world's fastest growing industries, tourism is widely viewed as a tool for economic development (Chaiswat 2006) and a means of providing employment in the formal service economy (Fayoss-Sola 1996; Smeral 1998; Scheyvens 2002). Further, Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1994) suggest that the profile of tourism education and training has been elevated due to governments' recognition of its economic importance. In Dominica's case, one of the experts stated,

... tourism has already demonstrated ... a propensity to providing a significant amount of foreign exchange ... and contributing significantly to gross domestic product ... and the linkages that it provides with ... key sectors like agriculture, entertainment, the arts and craft industry and others ... are critical. Therefore ... as we build [the] economy ... from dominant ... dependence on agriculture, ... to be competitive ... we have to ensure we have... the quality human capital to manage and sustain the industry. (ATOU.19)

As such, most experts viewed the formal education system as pivotal in enabling all students to acquire a deep understanding and appreciation of the economic significance of tourism to the island. Appeals were continuously issued by the experts for the need to establish a strong correlation between tourism's role to national economic development and the emphasis tourism received in schools. For instance, to one politician education was about, "showing the students that ... whatever you become in life, you have a part to play in promoting ... tourism for the economic and social benefit of your country" (APOL.16). This position was reflective of government's national policy of diversification of the Dominican economy by focusing on sustainable eco-tourism development as a source of income,
Chapter 8: Principles

jobs and other socio-economic advancement (Commonwealth of Dominica Ministry of Tourism & European Union 2005).

Across the sample, similar views were echoed by a large number of experts who stressed that based on the economic importance of the tourism sector to the island's development there was need for greater national emphasis on developing a high quality professional trained labour supply. Many experts expressed concern about the lack of prominence placed on tourism education and training in the schools. For example, an expert argued,

If we are looking towards tourism being the main earner in Dominica, then it means that some of our curriculum has to reflect that, so that the teachers who come here\(^7\) to train should be receiving training in terms of tourism and how it affects the economy ... and they in turn ... when they go back to the schools to teach, can play a very great role in terms of educating the persons that they are in charge of, whether is from preschool age up to secondary school, even the college level. (BEDU.11)

Generally, the experts opined that education and training had a fundamental role in first, advancing the local tourism industry and second, by extension the national economy. For these reasons, the experts strongly suggested that tourism education and training should become a national priority (ATOU.23). The role of tourism as a means of addressing poverty alleviation and employability, a concept strongly advocated by proponents of Pro-poor Tourism Partnership (Ashley, Boyd, & Goodwin 2000; Scheyvens 2007) was one key reason given for advocating tourism training in Dominica, particularly in the area of community tourism (ATOU.19).

Consequently, as the tourism experts often explained, most of government's developmental projects in recent years usually comprised of an aspect of training (ATOU.19; CTOU.07). In addition, efforts have been made to introduce tourism education to the schools, at Dominica State College (ATOU.14; ATOU.23; CEDU.11) and to provide financial assistance towards pursuits in higher education (BPUB.14; CEDU.11).

\(^7\) Dominica State College
Chapter 8: Principles

8.2.1.2 Tourism education and training for the good of society through sustainable development

The 'educated man' (Peters 1972) is described as one who has the ability to make decisions and develop values and habits which work towards the better good of society (Farrell, Kerry, & Kerry 1988; Moore 1993). Sharing these precepts a tourism expert reflected: "I think we often get too concerned about the certification of the student and not so much caring about, is that person going to be an asset to the industry when I let them loose from this classroom? To me that's the fundamental question!" (ATOU.18).

Such comments seemed to indicate that the experts believed that tourism education must facilitate the development of the whole individual (Gunn 1998) capable of making valuable contribution to nation building (Moore 1993). In keeping with these principles several experts opined that tourism education had to achieve more than the mere transfer of content and practical skills, but rather transcend to higher goals of individual, national growth and sustainable development (AEDU.07; AEDU.08; BPRI.25; CPOL.08; CPUB.10). Taking this viewpoint further, one educator complained that currently, "the children are taught about tourism, where tourist is from, what it [tourism] should do and so on, but it is just ... too limited! Just do it, finish, you pass and that's it!" (AEDU.06).

Furthermore, some experts stressed the importance of tourism education in developing positive value systems in students and the wider population. For instance, some suggested that tourism education should focus on inculcating national pride and personal dignity (APRI.04; AEDU.07; BTOU.15). One expert pointed out that education should serve to eradicate the concept of tourist as "a walking dollar tree", which he felt was linked to the popular phenomenon of servitude associated to the tourism industry (Cowell & Crick 2004). As this expert explains:

What we need to do now is to build up a cadre of persons, that will be ... informed and have a certain different inclination towards tourism development! ... Education supposed to bring about change of behavior ... but the education has to be a little broader than just [about] tourist[s]! It has to be people building! ... Tourism education in our context has to be environmental; it has to be social and economical, so that it will encompass what we want it to do. (APUB.26)
Developing on these ideas, in the view of another expert tourism has:

To contribute to the holistic development of Dominica by developing, discussing and disseminating through public education and practice the approach that the development of the economy and the conservation of the environment should be conceived together as an interconnected whole; a concept we should apply in all our strategic planning and thinking; it recognises as the reality, that the effective conservation of the environment can only be achieved [through] public support; which itself will depend on effectively addressing the people’s concerns for...their livelihood. (APRI.27)

The key principle advocated here is that, due to the unique natural features of the island, for Dominica, sustainable tourism development presents an effective means of empowering citizens to maximise the economic benefits of tourism while at the same time contributing to preservation of national resources.

Generally, in agreement with this position, the experts held that tourism education and training should encompass: key concepts on sustainable use of natural resources (APRI.27); work ethics (AEDU.07; APR1.20); quality customer service (APRI.04; ATOU.11); pride of country and citizenship (APRI.04; APUB.26; BEDU.08; BPRI.25); all factors which experts considered as impacting the local tourism product while working for the better good of the island’s long term development.

8.2.1.2 Tourism education and training for development and preservation of the local culture

Tourism education and training have an important role in the cultural preservation and the transfer of a society’s norms and values (Layne 1993). This concept had much meaning among stakeholders, as the ‘Dominican’ way of life and cultural heritage were strongly viewed as integral to the local tourism product. Thus, many experts complained of the absence of central aspects of the island’s rich culture in the school’s curriculum. For example, a cultural expert, upon reflection acknowledged:
We haven't placed a lot of emphasis as such on our history, our culture and our heritage within the school system. Yes, it happens, but it's ... whether the principal is interested ... whereas, if it comes from Ministry of Education and it's part of the national curriculum for both primary and secondary, there could be a greater inclusion of things cultural ... I think the College has a programme of tourism and that's good, but it must be accompanied by that background, that root ... knowledge of one's country. (CPUB.09)

Similarly, other experts expressed much concern about the lack of formal knowledge transfer and advancement of the unique traditions such as the local patois\(^8\), culinary skills, herbal medicinal practices, cultural dance, music and dress (APRI.04; AEDU.05; AEDU.06; AEDU.08; CPUB.09). That being so, experiential learning through community projects involving the many centenarians and other elders on island, was viewed by one educator (AEDU.07) as essential in enabling students to gain first hand knowledge of the local traditions. Such practices, among others, incorporated into formal learning experiences were deemed important for acquiring some of the key skills required for the development of specific sub sectors of the tourism industry, particularly community tourism (AEDU.05; APRI.22; BPRI.21).

But, more important, was the role tourism education was believed to play in cultural preservation. One expert, concerned of what he conceived as the negatives of cultural globalisation (Lewis 2002), through infiltration by foreign cultures suggested that emphasis was needed on safeguarding the local product. In so doing, he complained: “what I am saying is, let us develop our own culture! Let us keep it strong and let us tell the tourists, we would like to share this; not to augment it or change it!” (APUB.26). Shepherd (2002), in discussing the degradation of cultures argues that local cultures are often viewed as being altered negatively by interaction with Western cultures. Shepherd explains, citing Hitchcock (1993) and Wood (1993) such views and apprehensions presume a pristine pre-tourist culture which could be utilised to measure the impact of tourist degradation.

In the Dominican scenario, the experts also seemed concerned about ensuring that education and training was used as an avenue to protect the island's heritage and practices from commodification. That is, transformation into an object of utility

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\(^8\) Local dialect of broken French
Chapter 8: Principles

(Marx 1996 cited in Sherperd 2002) for commercialisation at the expense of its intrinsic value. But, as the policymakers later clarified, the government having recognised the value of the local rich culture and the significance of cultural tourism, was currently engaged in efforts to implement a cultural programme in the schools (CTOU.03), as well as to establish a national centre for cultural studies (CPUB.03; CPUB.09). The hope is that, by means of this initiative, through formal education and training cultural knowledge would be transmitted throughout generations.

8.2.2 The Conceptualisation of Tourism Education and Training

The discussions of the conceptualisation of tourism education and training in Dominica are also presented around three sub themes which are: tourism education and training for knowledge development or practice (section 8.2.2.1); tourism education and training as a subject or integrated into the general curriculum; (section 8.2.2.2) and framing of the curriculum in a national or regional context (section 8.2.2.3).

8.2.2.1 Tourism education and training for knowledge development or practice

Airey (2008) suggests that tourism has now joined the more established fields of enquiry with its own body of knowledge and curriculum coverage, having advanced from its former vocational conceptualisations and orientation. Yet, this study seems to indicate that much of the challenges of earlier eras prevail. In fact, the investigation found that there were contrasting views on the level of priority that tourism education and training should hold within the general school curriculum.

On one hand, some tourism experts appeared to favour a vocationally oriented programme (APOL.16; ATOU.18; BEDU.12; BEDU.17; CPUB.01) geared towards entrepreneurship (APRI.04) rather than a theoretical laden curriculum approach. That is, tourism education and training was deemed necessary primarily to address the current and specific human resource training needs of the industry. In that regard one expert remarked,
Every subject taught at school should be tourism oriented... because why are you going to school for? Not to learn to make money? To be an entrepreneur? The best entrepreneurial approach that one can undertake is tourism! ... So, we not training our children, our people properly! We get them ready to pass an exams and that's it! (APRI.04)

In expressing such a widely held bias towards an instrumentalist approach, another tourism expert held that the emphasis in tourism education in the schools should not be about exams, but instead "on the practical aspects of tourism, such as customer service" (ATOU.14). She continued, though theoretical aspects were important, such concepts could comprise part of formal tourism education at the tertiary level, since exams was not as necessary to tourism at the school level, as for other subject areas such as chemistry or accounting.

This commonly shared instrumental philosophy could be due to the conceptualisation of tourism education largely in terms of preparation for an economic activity (as discussed earlier in section 8.2.1.1) rather than as an academic discipline in its own right. Further, the dearth of a body of tourism academics on the island could be another factor contributing to the largely instrumentalist view of tourism education and training. Besides, as elsewhere, the image of tourism as an academic area was weak (Henkel 1988; Zagonari 2009), with some experts suggesting that pursuit of tourism as an area of study was best suited for weaker academic students.

However, on the other hand, some experts opined that education in preparation for the tourism industry was no different from any other service sectors and therefore "...more along the route of knowledge, training, [and] skills development of citizens ... that by the time they get to graduate at the secondary level they are amenable to respond to a service sector in an environment that requires interfacing with visitors and different people" (BPUB.07). Here, this expert's view point seems to reflect a broad and interdisciplinary concept of tourism. Thus, the argument presented is that a sound grounding in a cross section of knowledge and skills should enable the individual to develop the ability to function effectively within the tourism sector.

Such stand points, held among tourism and education professionals alike, exemplified a general poor attitude towards tourism and reinforce what Bodewes (1981) views as
the lack of status attached to tourism as compared to other fields of study. Thus, the principle of balancing the level of theory and practice dimensions of any course of study in tourism in Dominica is essential. This would serve to ensure that students receive quality education and that programmes satisfied both the needs of the static and dynamic operators (Zagonari 2009) as discussed in chapter three.

8.2.2.2 Tourism education and training as a subject or integrated

A closely related issue of interest to the experts was whether tourism should be taught as a subject. On this principle the experts’ views were quite divided. One policy maker explicitly stated,

I don't think that making it [tourism] an individual subject in... pre-school and primary school is to the country's advantage, because while we need tourism we need other fields as well; ...when you take into consideration the time constraints, what justice will you be able to do to it and all the other subjects if you... make it an individual subject from too early? (CEDU.11)

Thus, a major concern affecting the teaching of tourism was the matter of time table scheduling. Teachers often felt over burdened with the volume of subjects to be covered. Moreover, as one principal (AEDU.07) explained timetabling had to be managed in relation to the available skill set of the staff. So, due to these and other constraints the experts reflected, “I don't see it as a special curriculum necessarily for tourism but it [tourism] would be embedded in the existing curriculum” (CPUB.10) utilising an integrated approach (AEDU.05; AEDU.07).

However, the tourism and other non education experts held a different perspective. Most agreed that tourism should be taught as a subject. In fact some argued that tourism education should begin as early as at the stage of early childhood (ATOU.12; APUB.24; APRI.28) while others recommended the primary (ATOU.11) or secondary (APOL.16) stages. Yet still, acknowledging the concerns of the educators (discussed above) some stakeholders held that tourism was too important to the island to be lost in other subjects. Hence, an approach should be designed to ensure tourism forms an integral part of the school’s curriculum (ATOU.19). But, as one expert stated, such a decision should be reflective of government’s priorities and policies for
national economic development (ATOU.23). Nevertheless, the education administrators held that tourism education should remain as a module within social studies (AEDU.09; BEDU.09).

Furthermore, the education experts regularly complained of constraints such as lack of adequate resource material for teaching tourism and lack of specialised human resource support within the Ministry of Education. Consequently, teachers felt ill equipped for teaching tourism content of relevance to the local tourism product. Yet, the education administrators and other policy level experts contended that information was available in various forms and sources. This idea of tourism knowledge being located across the curriculum appeared to support the concept of the multidisciplinary nature of tourism as proposed by Tribe (1997) and challenged the justification of teaching tourism as a distinct subject.

But, as some experts argued, being subsumed under social studies, tourism received very little curriculum coverage and time table hours in most schools on the island (BEDU.13; BEDU.17). In that regard an expert contended, “all the subjects that we teach should be given a tourism twist” (APRI.04). However, expressing a different point of view some educators cautioned against developing a new approach. For instance, one educator commented, “we have to learn to … don’t try to reinvent the wheel” (BEDU.01). Instead another suggested, “we can look at other islands and what they have, but it has to be modified to suit us” (ATOU.14).

In so doing, the experts were highlighting the importance of examining best practices in other countries with more advanced tourism education and training programmes for their suitability to the Dominican tourism product and educational environment. Consequently, the infusion method (discussed in chapter five) was seen by some experts as an effective means of embracing the multi faceted dimension of tourism, while at the same time advocating for the use of best practices from other islands in the region.
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8.2.2.3 Framing of the curriculum in national or regional context

Tribe (2002) explains that framing of the tourism curriculum is based on a vast and varied space in keeping with the tourism gaze of the curriculum designer. Seemingly sharing this view, many experts expressed the need for clearly defining the local tourism product and reconciliation of the varied conceptualisations among policy makers and stakeholders. Articulating these sentiments an expert cautioned, “the first thing [is] ... we have to know what product we have to offer [and] we have to be very clear on that” (APRI.25). In addition, the expert proceeded to emphasise the need for relevance of the curriculum content, “[so] if we talking about nature island ... [and] that’s where you want to go, it’s important that you have everything leading to that” (APRI.25).

These concerns seem consistent with the view held by Gunn (1998) that the tourism curriculum is usually determined by how tourism is defined. The experts often referred to Dominica’s eco-tourism product as distinct from the popular Caribbean ‘sun, sea and sand’ image and thus, unsuitable for mass tourism. In that regard, the unfortunate thing, one interviewee shared is, “I don’t believe that the curriculum deals adequately with things Dominican” (APRI.20). Interestingly, a tourism expert from a different perspective of the situation observed,

I think the problem is you do not yet have specialists in tourism education in Dominica ... people have to depend on what is done elsewhere and they really get a lot of the material ... and really borrow from the CTO [Caribbean Tourism Organisation] programmes and activities. So I think that is the issue! ... you need ... at least a small cadre of persons trained ... to drive a programme like that! (ATOU.19)

So, consistent with the literature (Chitty 1990; Lewis 2005a, Lewis 2005b) a common view was that the tourism curriculum should be relevant to the unique features of the ‘nature island’. Many experts stressed the fact that since “we don’t have sand, sea and sun” (ATOU.11; BPUB.07; BEDU.11; BEDU.12; CPOL.05 among others) the local tourism education and training programme should not adopt the same curriculum aims, objectives and content as that of the other Caribbean islands. As one expert suggested, “I think the content should be a little more probably country specific” (BEDU.19). Therefore, many experts referred to the importance of focusing
education and training on, “nature based tourism, soft adventure ... diving, hiking, whale watching” (ATOU.19) which would help differentiate the island within the Caribbean (refer 21).

However, other experts held that basic tourism fundamentals would always be required. Hence, generic aspects such customer service and hospitality management were deemed essential (ATOU.19). This was because in an era of globalisation and regional integration the curriculum needed to satisfy the advancement of the Caribbean Single Market Economy (APUB.13). Hence, some experts cautioned that students should be prepared for the local industry but also, be regionally and internationally marketable.

For as Cooper (2002) points out, the curriculum should be context related but not context bound. These arguments raised the principle of standardisation of the tourism curriculum. Further, those concepts lead to the consideration of the significance of a common core body of tourism knowledge suited to the Caribbean region as against the benefits of a nationally focused curriculum. Hence, advocates of this stand point suggest a degree of compromise between the need for a regional standardised programme content against a curriculum framed to address the domestic product and cultural specificity. Such an approach the experts held would address the need to produce graduates with the employability skills for the local industry while at the same time gaining skills to be regionally and globally competitive.

8.2.3 A Lifelong Approach

The experts generally held that in the context of a developing Small Island State a lifelong approach to tourism education and training was essential. Thus, in this section of the chapter the proposed principles which should govern tourism education and training planning and delivery in the context of Dominica, at each level of the education and training system and over the life span of the individual is explored.

Rousseau (1962), Peters (1972), Tough (1981), Farrell, Kerry, & Kerry (1988) and Allman (1982) all argue that education is a process which unfolds over the life cycle
of the individual from infancy to adulthood. In Dominica, adopting a lifelong
perspective to tourism education and training was widely supported among the
experts. In the words of one educator the planners of tourism education and training:
“need to just approach it [tourism] all over, from the womb to the tomb!”
(AEDU.07). Therefore, utilising a lifelong approach, tourism concepts would
develop progressively throughout the education system to suit the students’ stage of
learning and levels of readiness.

In order to frame the arguments in this section Table 20 itemises the current approach
to tourism education and training at the various levels of the education and training
system in the Commonwealth of Dominica, as outlined by the experts. Thus, the
views of the experts seem to be in keeping with the information obtained from key
documents earlier discussed in chapter two. That is, in Dominica tourism is currently
mainly taught as part of social studies. However, the insight gained from the experts
was that this was only one topic in some cases and in other instances a single module
(at the secondary and tertiary level) which was optional. Thus, the conclusion can be
drawn that, in Dominica, tourism education and training within the formal education
and training system is minimal.

This information serves to set the background of the situation as it currently exists
and the basis of the proposed approaches and curriculum focus presented in table 21
and table 22 respectively and then discussed in fuller detail in the sections that follow.
Table 20: Current Approach to Tourism Education and Training in the Commonwealth of Dominica

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of tourism education</th>
<th>Key curriculum focus and delivery approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early childhood education</td>
<td>Basic tourism awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning through activities: visiting tourism sites</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual tourism month activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>Tourism awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taught as one module of social studies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ad hoc presentation(s) by industry stakeholders</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in tourism month activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>Taught as one module of social studies/geography</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in annual tourism quiz</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
<td>A distinct course of studies at Dominica State College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two plus two University of the West Indies programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Distance learning programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adult education</td>
<td>Programmes at International Universities</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Formal and informal programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry training</td>
<td>On-the-job training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sector based training and certification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Interview Data
Chapter 8: Principles

The information presented in table 21 was compiled from the empirical data obtained during the interviews in consultation key curriculum concepts advocated by Tyler (1949). As reflected in the table, the experts identified varying education and learning needs at different development levels. These ideas are shown to be in keeping with central ideas in the extant education literature. Thus, it can be argued that planning for tourism education and training from a lifelong perspective must not only deal with the matter of the conceptualisation of tourism to address the instrumental needs of the local industry and culture, but must also address matters of interest and concern to the individual learner and varying levels of educational and training needs.

Though the primary concern of this thesis is not to offer a new curriculum, nevertheless, the ideas presented in tables 22 serve to reflect the views of the experts, which they conceived as being necessary considerations when planning for tourism education and training in Dominica. These are presented here to further contextualise the study, but such ideas would have to be further explored (in future works) before conclusive decisions can be reached.
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Table 22: Proposed Curriculum Focus at the various levels of Tourism Education and Training for the Commonwealth of Dominica

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood</td>
<td>• Pride of Country;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• National Symbols:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>national flower; national flag; national bird; coat of arms;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The Role of Tourism;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Civics;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Know Your Island:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>viewing of slides, programmes on tourism, on the island</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Field Trips: visits springs, waterfalls, island tours</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Preservation of Resources;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>• What is Tourism;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• What is a Tourist;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Economic Value of the Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• The Role Tourism in national development</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The Role Citizens in Tourism Development</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Environmental Protection</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Careers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Civics</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creole Language</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Cultural Heritage</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Arts &amp; Drama</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Social Skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>• Introduction to Tourism and Hospitality</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tourism Systems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tourism Economics</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Environmental Protection</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Customer Service</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Know Your Country</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Social Skills</td>
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<td>• Civics</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Cultural Tourism</td>
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<td>• Nature Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Adventure Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Health Tourism</td>
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<td>• Community Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Language Skills</td>
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<td>• Conservation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Entrepreneurship</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>• Events Management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Eco-tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Environmental Studies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Tourism Development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Community Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Sustainable Tourism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Tourism Management</td>
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<td>• Research</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Botany</td>
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<td>• Archaeology</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Languages</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Marketing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Business Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adult Education &amp; Training</td>
<td>• Culinary Arts</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Front Desk</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Reservation Agent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Dive Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Nature Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Adventure Tourism (soft)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Community Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tourism Guide Training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Entrepreneurial Training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organic Agriculture</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Landscaping</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Arts &amp; Craft</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Pastry Making</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Taxi Operating</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Dive Masters</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Flight Attendant</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Business Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Customer Service</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Interview Data
8.2.3.1 Early Childhood Tourism Education

One of the questions raised in the education debate in chapter three was, when should education begin? Many experts (ATOU.11; ATOU.12; APUB.24; APRI.28; BEDU.11) said that students' interests in the field of tourism should be stimulated and sensitised from a very young age. As reflected in table 21 this meant introducing students to tourism formally from early childhood education. A majority of the experts supported the idea that 'any concept' presented in a simple form could be introduced at early childhood education but cautioned that ideas should be very basic. As an educator mentioned, at pre-school level as shown in table 22, there are certain things the students should be aware of including pride of country, national symbols, name of the national flower, national flag, national bird and the coat of arms (AEDU.15).

In addition, early childhood educators explained, at that level students are usually eager to learn (BEDU.08); a view forming a core principle of intrinsic motivation theory (Montessori 1912; Dewey 1959; see also Lillard 1972). Nonetheless, the experts cautioned that educational experiences must be stimulating and child centered (see table 21) at the appropriate level of content for students’ stage of learning development (BEDU.17). This school of thought is consistent with a seminal position of Peters (1966) and much later Cooper, Shepherd & Westlake (1994) who advocated the use of the process approach to curriculum planning which is student centred, open and quite flexible.

When questioned directly about the level of readiness of the students for exposure to tourism education, the education experts strongly felt that the 'pre-schoolers' (as they were called in Dominica) were very receptive to new ideas. Thus, as per reflections of one educator:

Honestly, I think any subject matter, including tourism education can be taught at early childhood education level; it depends on how you do it. If you give children too many things ...they wouldn’t absorb it. If you make it interesting and relevant for them, they will enjoy it ... their young minds are impressionable...so, I think the earlier we start is the better it is going to be for us [as a country]. (AEDU.06)

Sharing a similar ideology Richards (1999) suggests that learning disposition, a fundamental principle of education (Resnick 1987; Katz 1995; Richards 1999) is
equally important and evident at ages 3 and 4, because it helps shape learning throughout schooling.

One of the experts (BEDU.08) explained, however, that much of the student’s exposure to tourism, as shown in table 22 was through visits to sites and places of tourism interest. As discussed in the literature, at this stage, learning by doing (Isaacs 1933; Kwon 2002) and through play (Hurst 1997; Curtis 1998; Henderson & Atencio 2007) must form key guiding principles in planning for educational opportunities. Generally, the educators also shared that students were quite knowledgeable of tourism concepts due to informal learning from the home and wider community environment.

However, one key concern expressed by an early childhood expert (BEDU.08) was the lack of “smooth continuity into the upper levels” of the education system. This was mainly because, as discussed in chapter two, compulsory schooling in Dominica (as elsewhere) begins at the level of primary education. But as Rodger (1994) and Richards (1999) points out early childhood education is in itself significant in setting the foundation for lifelong learning and continuing education. However, as clarified by an educator at the policy level, government was at that time engaged in efforts aimed at improving the national approach to early childhood education (BEDU.17). This development is consistent with the view of Pascal & Bertram (1999) that governments are now taking a keener interest in having early childhood education formalised. The positive spin off envisioned by the Dominican experts was standardisation of early childhood education and establishment of a stronger link to primary education.

### 8.2.3.2 Primary Level Tourism Education

In Dominica, tourism education at the primary level is minimal and “is really just creating that awareness” (BEDU.09). A majority of the experts were not satisfied with that approach and in the words of one educator, “it is part of ... Social Studies but then, I don’t think the teachers ever even reach ... that topic where they really teach it [tourism] ...?” (BEDU.17)
So, as an expert argued tourism education at the primary level needed a clear structure (AEDU.07). In the context of Dominica, the primary stage was viewed as an opportune time to create students’ awareness towards the significance of the industry (APUB.26; BEDU.17; CTOU.04; CEDU.11). Further, one expert pointed out, such efforts should not be *ad hoc* or abstract. But, clearly, indicating that what is being taught was part of tourism (AEDU.05). More importantly, as one expert explained a key principle is, tourism education at the primary level should set the foundation for student’s later learning and career orientation and discernment (CEDU.11).

A key concern, however, of education policy makers was that of students specialising too early (CEDU.11). Such an approach, this expert warned would negatively impact the objective of presenting primary students with enough options and the ability to develop a broad curriculum knowledge base. The importance of producing students that were well grounded in the basics of education (the 3Rs) was a central principle to these precepts.

The education policy makers supported the idea that tourism was best placed as part of the social studies curriculum at the primary level (AEDU.09). Notwithstanding this philosophy of the educators, stakeholders advocated for a determined effort in having a more structured tourism programme from what is tourism, career awareness, cultural heritage to social skills (refer table 22), linked from one grade level to the next, ensuring continuity throughout the entire education system. The shared position, from the perspective of the industry, seemed strongly in support of a life cycle approach to tourism education. As reflected in the literature, Bruner (1960) in his early writings also argued in favour of a curriculum designed on the principle of a spiralled approach.

In that regard, the educators suggested that the spiral approach of the current curriculum allowed for such continuous learning. Therefore, throughout the student’s educational life cycle concepts begin at a basic level then ideas became more complex spiralling from one educational level to the next. But, in terms of tourism, the experts (AEDU.07; BEDU.08) argued that the existing linkages between the different levels were weak. That being the case, the problem of a lack of smooth
continuity of learning in the area of tourism education seemed to exist at both stages of early childhood and primary education.

For the experts, also critical to the discussion of primary education were the principles of age appropriateness and level of readiness. Accordingly, educators cautioned that what was needed was “a programme that will catch the attention of our young people; [and] something that is relevant to them” (AEDU.06). Hence, education at the lower levels was conceived along the principles of, a means of knowledge transfer, basic personality development, and enabling the individual to develop the minimum skills required for effectively fitting into society (Peters 1966).

Also, these varying concerns expressed in the discussions above raised several fundamental principles of the primary curriculum namely, appropriateness, breadth, balance, relevance and differentiation as cited by Richard (1999). As he discusses in the case of the United Kingdom, schools when implementing the National Curriculum are faced with the challenge of addressing the issues of breath; providing core and foundational subjects and establishing balance with other cross-curricular issues. Based on the arguments raised by the experts, these challenges also seem pertinent in the case of primary education in Dominica. But generally, as mentioned earlier in section 8.2.2.2, infusion of tourism concepts into the general curriculum was a widely favoured approach at the primary level.

8.2.3.3 Secondary Level Tourism Education

Three important principles which must be considered in curriculum planning are economic relevance, vocational relevance and liberal education which emphasise the value of knowledge and understanding for its own sake (Gardner 2000). Additionally, Gardner continues, decisions need to be made about curriculum content, determining whether provision should be the same or vary based on differences such as student ability, gender, social background and locality.

In Dominica’s case, generally, the experts opined that currently tourism education at the secondary level was not addressing the needs of the local industry and the wider
society. Hence, one expert lamented, "... we need a programme that allows children to understand that tourism ... can be something that is lucrative and teach them how to go about setting up their business in tourism" (BEDU.01).

If this assessment is accurate, given the significance of the tourism industry to national development, this could be viewed as a weakness in the secondary education system. That is because the main purpose of education in Dominica as cited in the National Curriculum "is to provide all citizens with high quality education and training and facilitate individual well-being and national development" (Government of the Commonwealth of Dominica, Draft National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2004:12). In terms of the tourism industry for many experts this meant development of entrepreneurial skills (APRI.04; APUB.13).

As expressed above, experts questioned the efficiency of the current programme offered to develop the skills, qualities and abilities in students for the world of work, career development and making valuable contribution to the local industry. This was a matter of much concern to the experts as a key objective of education in Dominica was to develop the entrepreneurial capacity and skills of students (Government of the Commonwealth of Dominica, Corporate Plan Ministry of education, Youth Affairs, Sports and Human Resource Development 2006/2007:4).

Thus, at the secondary level, vocational preparation, inclusive of tourism, especially with the onset of Universal Secondary Education (see chapter two) in Dominica, was conceived as essential in providing students with a wider range of options, as well as addressing the entry level human resource training needs of the industry (ATOU.14; APOL.16). As Birdthistle, Hynes and Fleming (2007) suggest failure to equate the changing needs of the world of work, to skills developed in the education system, leads to reduced employability levels among graduates. Addressing this phenomenon in Dominica was of particular consequence as many students exit formal schooling at the secondary level to enter the world of work.

Accordingly, the experts opined that though tourism was mainly taught as part of the Social Studies Caribbean Examination Council syllabus, in Dominica there was need for standardisation of the secondary tourism programme offering among the various
schools (BEDU.06). Wolff and de Moura Castor (2000) cites rethinking of the structure of secondary education and its relationship to the world work as one of six critical areas for improving the quality of secondary education. From that standpoint, the experts recommended the following measures as alternative options: one, introducing tourism as a subject in all schools at least from third form; two, offering of a certificate in tourism studies by pursuing a set of modules as part of other subjects; and three, introducing project writing as a means of integrating tourism into the general school curriculum (AEDU.05).

As already discussed (section 8.2.2.2) many stakeholders felt that tourism should be taught as a distinct subject at the upper level of secondary education. As in the tourism literature (Layne 1993; Lewis 2005a, 2005b; Copper 2002 among others), experts argued that at that particular stage students should have the option to pursue tourism as a full course of relevant content to the local context. In that regard, experts held that secondary tourism education should cover, introduction to tourism and hospitality, environmental protection, career awareness, entrepreneurship, cultural tourism, health tourism among other options (see table 22).

Further experts argued that specialisation would facilitate the necessary exposure to generate a greater degree of interest in tourism studies at the post secondary level. Such an approach one expert opined would encourage student’s selection of tourism studies as a first choice, rather than an option of last resort or an alternative available to low achievers (AEDU.15). Arguably, this educator continued, this approach could aid in curtailing the prevailing poor image of tourism which was reflected in the very low percentage of high achievers who currently opt for tourism studies at the tertiary level.

8.2.3.4 Tertiary Level, Adult and Continuing Tourism Education
One educator in reflecting on the objective of tertiary education remarked, “at the college level, I think we need to take it [tourism education and training] a step further; one of the things that is needed in Dominica is leadership in tourism! ... So, at the tertiary level we need to train persons to manage tourism products and tourism
enterprises” (AEDU.05). The implication made by experts was that at tertiary level students’ abilities should be developed above and beyond vocational and technical skills sets. This concept appears to be in keeping with the general education principle of offering a distinct course of study at the post secondary level leading to professional development and formal certification. This position seems aligned to the views of Poon (2001) and Holder (2001) who both argue that, in this era of globalisation, it was urgent for the Caribbean region to invest in training and development of a high quality human resource supply to manage the tourism industry in an efficient, profitable and sustainable manner.

One related concern, discussed earlier, was that the curriculum utilised at the Dominica State College was a generic Caribbean Tourism Organisation programme. Some stakeholders did not consider this the best strategy for Dominica. Hence, they asserted that the current curriculum was in contradiction to the concept of ‘Defy the Everyday’ which was a fairly recent marketing brand adopted by the destination. Howell and Uysal (1987) and Lewis (2005a, Lewis 2005b) all hold the view that tourism education must be tailored to the needs of developing countries. But, as Bramwell (2003) suggests studying the regional context of scenarios could provide a holistic view of the specific situation being observed.

This standpoint seems to be shared by some experts (APUB.13; APOL.16) who contended, as mentioned earlier, that with the onset of globalisation and the Single Market Economy in the Caribbean region, at the tertiary level preparation of students to compete for jobs both regionally and internationally was imperative. Hence, this dilemma of framing of the college’s tourism curriculum in a national or regional context also raised the debate of standardisation, which allows for easy transfer of knowledge and skills in the wider market place. Again, such issues necessitate consideration of the position of Smith and Cooper (2000) about the importance of the curriculum being context related but not context bound. Thus, experts suggested a range of programme offering (see table 21) from Eco-tourism development, Environmental Studies, Botany, Event management, Business Management to Languages.
On reflection, much of the ideology framing these arguments above continues to reflect an instrumental approach to tourism education. As reflected in tables 21 and 22, even at the tertiary level the experts largely conceptualised tourism education and training in terms of career preparation and advancement in direct relation to the needs of the local industry. Yet, Scoffield (1999) cautions that despite the growing demand by employers for graduates with high competency levels such objectives must not be at the expense of developing students’ minds. This Scoffield opines is the primary purpose of higher education.

According to Barnett (1990) higher education is geared towards knowledge creation and the development of critical thinking skills. Of particular interest to the experts was the great need for applied research both for advancing the body of knowledge on Dominica tourism and for providing direction to practice (AEDU.15). This concern reflected the lack of programmes in the area of liberal tourism education. However, this could be deemed a direct consequence of the local void in institutions offering higher education (university level) programmes in tourism education.

Inui, Wheeler and Lankford (2006) point out that balancing the vocational and liberal dimension of tourism education is critical to addressing the above discussed concerns. However, as Theunis and Rasheed (1983) suggest developing countries are faced with particular challenges when considering an appropriate choice of tourism programme. To address this gap, in Dominica tourism higher education opportunities are sought from international institutions. But, though scholarships have been awarded by the government in larger numbers in recent years for such educational pursuits the control over the specific areas of study was weak.

As a result, there was not a strong and/or direct link established to the scholarships offered and the needs identified in the local tourism policy and master plan or manpower training needs consultancy report (refer chapter two). As the policy makers disclosed, a prevailing problem in that area was the issue of satisfaction of individual students’ needs and interests (BPUB.14; CED.11). Hence, it may be assumed that the principle of curriculum balance, relevance, knowledge development (for its own sake) all pose critical challenges in the context of a Small Island State; particularly for
immature industries which appears to focus largely on instrumental education and training needs.

Many writers (Lawler 1991; Collins 2004; O’Brien 2004 among others) support the idea that the principles of adult education are grounded in the seminal assumption of Malcom Knowles (1970), who suggest that adults learn differently from children. All the same, Galusha (1998) argues that adult education has not yet established clearly defined guiding principles and therefore is partly framed on key philosophies, aims, typologies and assumptions of the adult learner.

Nevertheless, Fretwell and Wheeler (2000) describe adult and continuing education as a major force in human capital development and a central component of lifelong learning. In Dominica, the experts seem to share similar views and hold that adult education was important in addressing the changing needs of the industry. According to one educator, in the industry,

> We already have people who are over school age, who are stakeholders in the industry; ... [so] that is why I spoke of the adult education programme where persons who are already employed in the industry, will need refreshers courses; will need continuous education so that we can sustain the industry. (AEDU.06)

Thus, a key function of adult education is to meet the human resource needs of the industry and ensure that the labor force is provided with opportunities for skill development and professional advancement. Knowles (1970) and later others (Warnken and Young 1991; O’Brien 2004; Collins 2004) point out that adults are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated; concepts which often frame programme design, nevertheless, it was essential that programmes offered were properly planned and organised. This is because adults bring a vast and varied experience to their learning.

As discussed in the literature (Lawler 1991), in Dominica adult education tends to be offered on a needs basis (BEDU.10). This is a common phenomenon as adults tend to be goal oriented (Collllins 2004) and self directing (O’Brien 2004). Within the formal education setting the programmes respond to the needs of the tourism sub
sector (AEDU.15), providing opportunities in general tourism and hospitality management. Even so, informal education is geared towards the sustainable development of the individual and communities (ATOU.19; BEDU.10). Such initiatives as reflected in table 21 are usually learner directed and geared towards the specific interest of adults or communities concerned; the most common offering is in small business management and customer service among others (see table 22).

Hence, as explained by an adult educator programmes offered usually included elements of literacy, numeracy, and communication skills in addition, to tourism related entrepreneurial skill development (BEDU.10). Furthermore she continued,

> We at adult education, we are dealing with the people in the community, we are dealing with the needs of the people and what the people request; ...we recently ... opened up this adult learning centre where people can come in and learn different skills and we’re teaching people skills not just in tourism but to enable them, to help them make a better life for themselves and to improve on what they do.... [in areas such as] personal development; improve on their job status, allow them for a certification and things like that... (BEDU.10)

Also of significance for Dominica, in terms of advancement of the tourism industry was broad public education; much of which was done through awareness programmes utilising various media. As an expert(s) emphasised,

> I always say you can have a whole set of training programmes, if the people’s mentality is not ready for it, then you going to have difficulties! So we need to try to get a change of mindset among our people, where tourism is concerned. (AEDU.06)

That sort of informal education seemed very important to the experts who gave significance to moral, cultural, sustainable values. Additionally, the idea that 'tourism was everybody’s business' was another concept in Dominica that gave credence to general public education, in addition to the more formal programmes.
8.3 Industry Training

Van Wart, Cayer and Cook (1993) delineate seven training principles which they draw from learning theory and the general training literature. According to them, these key principles are organised sequentially based on their impact on the following phases: (1) pre-training (2) instructional and (3) practice and reinforcement as shown in table 23 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-training Phase</th>
<th>Instructional Phase</th>
<th>Practice and Reinforcement Phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Setting goals</td>
<td>2. Increasing the similarity of training to the work environment</td>
<td>5. Actively involving the learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Teaching underlying principles</td>
<td>4. Increasing the organisation of the material</td>
<td>6. Giving feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Using a variety of techniques and stimuli</td>
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</table>

Source: Adapted from Van Wart, Cayer and Cook (1993)

The experts claimed that there is great need and urgency for an improved supply and quality of training programmes (AEDU.04; AEDU.08). Generally, tourism training programmes were often described as inappropriately scheduled, poorly organised and implemented with poor delivery methodologies (APRI.04; ATOU.11; APRI.27). As such, training initiatives were mostly described as ad hoc and unsustainable (AEDU.04; AEDU.08; BEDU.12). These views widely expressed by the experts, seemed to reflect weaknesses across the seven training principles as presented in table 23 above.

A key constraint cited by the experts was the dearth in professionally trained trainers and the lack of necessary infrastructure to deliver programmes. As one educator (BEDU.13) claimed, institutions suffered from limited human resource capacity necessary for curriculum and programme design in fulfilling the demands of the
national manpower training needs. This deficiency impacted negatively on the quality of local training at the instructional phase of programmes provided.

Thus, from a national level it is important to have "a more coordinated [training] approach ...if we are really serious about tourism" (BEDU.13). This would involve, at the pre-training phase, ensuring the goals of the industry, the institutions and the tourism policy makers are all positively aligned. Often, a key reason trainees complained that training programmes are irrelevant or inappropriate to their practical needs, is due to a weak or nonexistent connection between trainees' and instructor's goals (Van Wart, Cayer, & Cork 1993).

Thus, the importance of training of teachers to deliver the necessary curriculum content was emphasised by many experts (APRI.04; APOL.16; BEDU.11; CEDU.11 among others). This was because lack of trained tourism specialist at the planning level was seen as a major hindrance to the advancement of tourism on the island. As such, many educators felt that the teachers training component of the Dominica State College's programme should be pivotal in enabling tourism education and training to infiltrate all schools. Similarly, experts strongly advocated for train the trainers' programmes to be implemented in a structured and sustainable manner. These concerns would facilitate more organised programmes with improved delivery methodologies. Also, they advocated for training programmes specifically in the area of nature tourism, soft adventure, culinary arts, organic agriculture and landscaping to name a few (refer table 22).

The challenges expressed in the case of Dominica's national training programmes are not unique to an immature tourism destination with limited resources. However, as averred by many experts proper planning and greater stakeholder involvement, a concept revisited in chapter ten, could facilitate a more efficient approach to the development of the human resources for the tourism industry.

8.4 Conclusions

This chapter focused on one of the main themes, the 'principles' of education and training, which emerged from the data. Accordingly, the discussions were centred on
the key principles which served to guide and govern tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

In response to various political, economic and social forces the current education and training debate is largely framed within the discourse of occupational relevance, globalisation and international market competition (Hyslop-Margison & Fraser 2001). This phenomenon was also quite evident in the case of Dominica. Generally, the experts held that the primary roles of tourism education and training in Dominica were economic, cultural and for general national development. Thus, tourism education and training within the local setting seems to be viewed from largely an instrumentalist perspective.

Nonetheless, the principles of curriculum relevance, breath and standardisation were all deemed critical issues and had bearing on the decisions made about the inclusion of tourism within Dominica’s national curriculum. Other major impediments were that of the availability of qualified staff, timetabling and lack of suitable infrastructure. Nevertheless, many experts strongly favoured greater focus on tourism throughout the various levels of the school system, particularly as the majority of individuals exit formal education at the end of secondary education in Dominica.

As such and central to the thesis presented here, in the context of Dominica, the experts strongly advocated a lifelong approach to tourism education and training. This meant offering a spiral curriculum from early childhood up to tertiary, adult and continuing education and industry training. Further, the findings also reflected that at each level, many of the fundamental educational and training principles in keeping to the extant education and training literature were supported for guiding decisions about tourism education and training programme planning and design.

Developing on these concepts the study will now be advanced in chapter nine by exploring two additionally emerging themes, which impact the planning and delivery of tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.
Chapter Nine: Structures and Power Relations Impacting on Tourism Education and Training

9.1 Introduction

Chapter eight presented the experts views of the current tourism education and training system in Dominica and their perspectives on the main principles that should actually govern programme offerings from a national standpoint at the various levels of education and training. This chapter deals with two additional broad themes which emerged from the data, ‘structures’ dealt with in section 9.2, and ‘power’ which is the focus of section 9.3. Hence, the chapter is arranged in two main parts.

Each broad theme is discussed in further detail, highlighting sub-themes as they were advanced by the experts in the empirical data. These themes represent underlying key concepts identified by the experts, which partly frames the approach to tourism education and training planning and delivery in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Thus, the main purpose of this chapter is to identify, clarify and analyse the key features and characteristics of the organisations and institutions involved in tourism education and training on the island.

In addition, the chapter addresses major power relations and challenges encountered by these organisations and institutions as they seek to engage in tourism education and training on a national level. By doing that, the chapter advances and further underpins the discussions in chapter eight on the principles which govern tourism education and training in Dominica. In other words, the chapter serves to situate the research phenomenon and understanding arrived at about the research puzzle from the standpoint of a Small Island Developing State.

9.2 Structures

Here the term ‘structures’ is used to define the key tourism organisations and educational institutions involved in or that impact on tourism education and training at the policy, curriculum planning and/or implementation level. Accordingly, this first
part of the chapter explores how the design configurations of these structures influence management style and decision making processes engaged for planning tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. In so doing, three sub-themes (1) design features (2) capacity and functionality (3) restructuring and change, are explored in sections 9.2.1, 9.2.2 and 9.2.3 respectively.

9.2.1. Key Design Features
In Dominica, the configuration of the tourism enterprises and organisations and education institutions were conceived by the experts, as significantly impacting the approach engaged in planning and implementation of tourism education and training.

9.2.1.1 Tourism Sector Structures
One major factor conceived as having had significant impact on the overall structural designs of tourism organisations and enterprises in the Commonwealth of Dominica is the element of ‘size’. Previously, in chapter two it was established that the tourism sector in the Commonwealth of Dominica largely comprises of small properties and enterprises which are predominantly family-owned. Apart from a few exceptions, these businesses lack the operating and administrative systems and structural resources of larger well developed organisations.

As reflected in the literature (Morden 2004) the majority of the entrepreneurial typologies are typically of a ‘flat pyramid’ design with few levels of hierarchy. Arguably, these may classify as what Mintzberg (1979) refers to as a ‘nonstructure’. Such small organisations also exhibited a high level of internal centralised control of decision making. Consequently, as previously discussed, very little is formalised; and they rely on mutual adjustment in coordinating activities (Mintzberg 1979). In addition, communication and reporting relationships are usually centred on owners/managers or other family members (ATOU.21).

In Dominica’s case, the experts held that the limitations both in number and size of existing tourism businesses could be a characteristic feature of a small island state.
Thus, as one expert observed because of the small size of properties and since the rate of immediate financial returns [to training] is low, private sector participation in training is also minimal (CPUB.15). It must be noted however, that in Dominica as indicated in chapter two, there are a few tourism enterprises that have advanced over the years and expanded in size or into several sub-sectors, necessitating a more multifaceted design.

Nevertheless, a prevailing hurdle for the local tourism sector was that most of the small hoteliers and sub-sector business persons were proprietors and self-made entrepreneurs not professionally trained. Generally, management and administrative systems in the tourism industry were simple. Thus, the experts lamented that training of employees was not a top priority. As opined by one tourism expert,

> From my experience the private sector has never taken responsibility for training; one or two of the hotels, the bigger hotels they will do training ...[but] if you go to all the hotels right now and interview them, none of them have a budget for training ... So, in fact that is one of the problems that we have. (ATOU.23)

Therefore, training was mainly accomplished through on-the-job experiences, workshops and seminar type activities. However, Hernandez-Martin (2008) writes, being a small island is not necessarily a disadvantage but may demand the implementation of specific set of policies. This supposition seems to represent the general view of the experts and will be further advanced in chapter ten.

According to Modern (2004), commenting on the works of Pugh, Hickson & Hinings (1969) implicitly (simple) structured organisations are suitable only up to a limited degree of activity. Hence, growth necessitates a requisite bureaucratic structure (Mintzberg 1979, 1989) of the required level of formalisation, standardisation, hierarchy, functional and operational competence and management structure (Morden 2004) necessary for the degree of activity that an enterprise is engaged in. Moreover, to ensure efficiency and goal accomplishment, organisations alter their design configurations to facilitate growth and/or product diversification.
In that regard, an increased level of layers was observed within some of the structures (ATOU.23), but in contrast to large organisations the degree of complexity still remains low. In these cases, the need for specialised staffing in various departments meant that professionally trained employees were sought for management, technical, support and operating positions (ATOU.23). The experts (APRI.04; ATOU.14; ATOU.23; BTOU.15) nonetheless, held that the tourism industry in Dominica was still at an immature stage of growth and thus, the underdevelopment of most tourism structures.

Consequently, it can be asserted that the element of small size conversely impacts on tourism education and training. What is meant here is, small organisations with simple operating systems demanding a less specialised labour force engage in little or no education and training. On the contrary, as organisations grow and/or expand their services the need for improved standards and efficiency leads to increased education and training needs among the human resource supply. These concepts seem consistent with the view that “the larger the organisation, the more elaborate its structure, the more specialised its tasks. ... the more developed its administrative component” (Mintzberg 1979:230).

9.2.1.2 Public Sector Structures

In contrast, The Ministries of Tourism and Education and relevant government agencies, such as the Discover Dominica Authority, part the public sector, falls into what Mintzberg (1979, 1989) describes as a professional bureaucracy; characterised by reliance on formalised behaviour to achieve key goals and objectives. Weber (1947) in his seminal works, argues that in the ideal situation such organisations have high levels of division of labour, specialisation, formalisation of behaviour, hierarchy of authority, chain of command, regulated communication and standardisation of work processes and skills.

Therefore, compared to tourism enterprises designs, the public sector organisations in Dominica, as elsewhere, are typical tall hierarchal structures with complex layered designs. Common to these typologies is external centralisation and political control
of decision making processes (Morden 2004). For, as one principal explained the directives about tourism education and training, “has to come from up there9 \ldots \text{ ... The ministry should know what is happening at the schools! ... Remember we are accountable to them and we cannot do things without their blessings}” (AEDU.09). The tendency, then, is for a high level of adherence to rules and top-down approach to decision making (Greenwood 1965), which is not only accepted but also desired (Pfeffer 1981).

Thus, the bureaucratic framework helps explain how centralised external and political control of decision making processes held by the government structures impacts on national decisions about tourism, within the formal education and training system. As illustrated above, the educators were particularly concerned of adherence to rules, regulations and procedural operational systems as outlined in the Dominica Education Act (1997) and policy documents. So, though many experts lamented on the great void in tourism offering within the formal school system, they unanimously agreed that any change or advancement would have to be driven by government’s policy and political agenda.

Also characteristic to the bureaucratic design structure is the establishment of organisational boundaries. Egeberg (1999:157) avers that it is the structure of an organisation which determines the bringing together, or separation, of various concerns and considerations within a hierarchy. Hence, in Dominica as in other cases, there is a high level of departmentalisation within public sector organisations which creates the need for much interdependency between the different ministries, agencies and within their various units (ATOU.19; BEDU.13; CPUB.01 among others).

However, in relation to tourism education and training this description of the public sector operating system represents a typical paradox. For, despite the bureaucratic structural arrangement of the public sector in Dominica, the national approach to tourism education and training was generally described as \textit{ad hoc}. But, as one policy maker recognised, “you will appreciate that you cannot wait while you trying to determine \ldots \text{ how \ldots we structure it [tourism education and training]; while that is}

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taking place ... you still need to have something happening in the area of training” (CPUB.01). As Mintzberg (1979, 1989) postulates, the concept of ‘adhocracy’ provides a framework for making decisions in the absence of highly formalised tourism education and training organisational system. And, ad hoc approaches, Mintzberg explains, may exist as an independent approach, or simultaneous to, formalisation of systems for institutionalising planning processes.

Thus, based on the experts’ arguments this phenomenon of varied levels of bureaucracy appears to exist within the structures impacting tourism education and training in Dominica. That idea seems to conform to the views of Hall (1963) who believes that bureaucratic dimensions within organisations tend to exist along a continuum rather than in a present absent format. Consequently, on one hand, many experts advocated for a formally planned approach to national tourism education and training. Yet, on the other hand, some stakeholders complained that government processes were too bureaucratic (AEDU.05).

Hence, the best approach for efficiency would be to develop a design commensurate to the size and objectives (Senge 1994) of the tourism enterprises and education institutions. Based on Morden’s (2004) views this requires formal systems of teams, units or entire departments developed around the management style and degree of complexity of core functions required to achieve key goals and objectives.

In the following section the chapter explores how the simple/flat and the bureaucratic designs influence the structural capacity and functionality of tourism education and training structures.

9.2.2 Capacity and Functionality

Jones, George and Hill (1998) propose that an understanding of the formal system of roles and management reporting relationships within a structure provides valuable insight into its functionality. So too, in the case of Dominica, two key features which underpinned structural functionality were observed. First, the experts explained that significant to understanding the internal dynamics impacting national planning, is the
fact that policy makers and senior administrators in Dominica were usually political appointees, whose positions regularly changed to coincide with the national political cycle, thus affecting policy continuity (APUB.24; CTOU.07). Egeberg (1999), in commenting on this common phenomenon describes a ministry as a flexible, adaptive secretariat of shifting ministers. Thus, it was important to note that most senior public servants and policy makers usually acquired specialist knowledge and skills on-the-job after several years of experience and may not be specialist trained (CPUB. 01).

A second and closely related feature to the Dominican scenario, this public sector officer explained, was that government’s focus was mainly on policy formation and administration. Therefore, training was geared to enhancing staff capacity to support implementation of government programmes and projects rather than on specific sectoral training (CPUB.01).

In the case of tourism enterprises, the experts held that limited professional capacity due to small size of the majority of these businesses greatly impacted service quality. A notably occurrence in Dominica was the fact that many proprietors resided on their tourism properties. This posed unique limitations in relation to product quality and standards. But more importantly, the void in employee training posed additional challenges to the sector. The main problem cited by the experts was that most entrepreneurs believed that they ‘knew it all’ as self-made business owners (ATOU.14).

Building on the above concepts, the chapter will now proceed to examine these issues in relation to specific key education and training structures on the island.

9.2.2.1 The Ministry of Education

In Dominica, the Ministry of Education operating under the directive of the Minister of Education seeks to implement government’s national human resource development goals and vision (CPUB.10). In so doing, a key function is to set the education policy for all schools. As a tourism expert explains,
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... primarily we know that the business of education is with the Ministry of Education and therefore the Ministry of Education must be the one driving the policy and direction and thrust of education in the country; and if tourism education is going to be a key part of the development of the country, the Ministry of Education has to play a key role. (ATOU.19)

Yet, experts lamented that within the structure of the Ministry of Education, and the Curriculum Development and Planning Unit there was currently no tourism trained specialist to influence the national programme (AEDU.07; ATOU.14; ATOU.21; BEDU.13). Consequently, “the responsibility for tourism education and training is subsumed by the Social Studies Education Officer” (BEDU.19). Hence, the incumbent education officer in her functions served as the support officer for tourism education and training in the schools (BEDU.09). As a result, the prevalent view among stakeholders was,

If there was somebody responsible for tourism education within the curriculum unit, hopefully it should move [develop] a little faster ... [and] if there was someone ... who had the necessary skills, background and interest...their first role would be to prepare...a national curriculum for every year level...such that there is training ... for adults, ...for [the] youth, ... so that you could really approach it all around. (AEDU.07)

Also in reflection on the current approach one primary school educator shared,

There should be a connection! ... there must be a way of getting that information to us, to the schools... the Ministry of Education only disseminated the papers and so on ... but there was nobody in charge ... There was the intention! .... because they talk [about it]... is just that nobody to implement it! ... [The] most we get from tourism is, tourism week when somebody will come and give a talk to the children ...[from the] tourism department [or] the Dominica Tourism and Hotel Association will come and give us a video... (BEDU.01)

Such challenges cited above in the fulfilment of the functions of the Ministry of Education and its various departments, seem to reflect the typical “messes” (Ackoff 1974; see Hall 1999) affiliated to tourism.
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9.2.2.2 Formal Education Institutions

Contemplating on the management and administration of schools, an educator observed that the school was "structured institution" (AEDU.06). For that reason, she continued, curriculum guidelines and standards of operating procedures set by government had to be adhered to at the level of individual schools. Such comments served to describe the bureaucratic governance within the school system.

For instance, current staffing structural arrangement at the early childhood and primary levels (in most cases) required teachers who were general practitioners rather than specialist; a situation, experts held negatively impacted tourism education. In contrast, at the secondary level teachers specialised in subjects of their choice and interests, or based on skill set and area of professional training. Consequently, any curriculum plans for tourism education had to be in relation to the available skills of teachers within that framework (AEDU.07; AEDU.24).

At the level of The Dominica State College, an expert admits,

... it was a new thing for them. I can probably say that the proper resources, and infrastructure was not in place ... to handle the training for the sector, but over the past year we have seen an improvement, and they have designated certain persons to organise and run the training programme; although they still left a lot to be done in regards to formalising and putting a structure in place. (CTOU.02)

At the tertiary level, the experts seemed to favour the establishment of a training institute in tourism and hospitality studies, over the college's associate programme. Generally, a specialised training institute was conceived as having a positive impact on tourism in Dominica. Experts envisioned that such an institute would provide (1) students a variety of programme options relevant to the local tourism product; (2) students with increased career awareness; (3) an increased possibility of tourism becoming a career of choice; (4) added value to the sector; (5) graduates appropriately trained for the local industry and (6) industry stakeholders an opportunity to become more involved in the education and training process.
Nevertheless, due to the numerous constraints typical to Small Island States, there were concerns regarding the success and feasibility of such above recommended structural advances within the local formal education system. Sustainability issues due to lack of resources and the immature stage of tourism development were often raised as major challenges to the future development of a specialised tourism education and training institute on the island.

9.2.2.3 The Ministry of Tourism

The macro management and administration of Dominica’s tourism industry was under the leadership of the Ministry of Tourism. Policy expert CPUB.01 shares,

The Ministry provides general oversight and they play a more overarching role in terms of management. [Consequently,] ... persons recruited for the Ministry of Tourism are primarily administrative ... [and] clerical. ... there are project officers, technical officers ... who really must be trained in project management, project development ... but not necessarily in tourism. If you have a knowledge of Tourism, I guess it makes the work much easier. But, if you have project management skills you are expected to apply it in any area that you go. (CPUB.01)

Thus, staffing structure within the ministry, as discussed before, tend to be aligned with government’s emphasis on its key functions on national policy formation and implementation. Further, it was not uncommon for two or more ministerial portfolios to be combined for efficiency and maximisation of limited resources. Hence, in Dominica the Ministry of Tourism was recently merged with the Ministry of Legal Affairs. However, commenting on this structural arrangement an educator opined,

... there should not be anything else attached to the Minister of Tourism in terms of its portfolio, it should be tourism only...within that Ministry; ... there can be several areas that deal with different aspects of tourism. [So that] while there will be one organising body, there will be different aspects; [because] the tourism education aspect of it is critical. (BEDU.11)

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10 The Ministry of Tourism
In that regard, the expert further held that with a single focus on the development of the tourism industry, staff would then be free to engage in effort towards the development of the human resource quality and supply available for the advancement of the local tourism product.

All the same, despite the internal capacity challenges, discussed above, explained an official, the Ministry of Tourism worked closely with the Discover Dominica Authority, the Ministry of Education, and the Dominica State College in planning, organising and implementing education and training programmes for the sector (CTOU.07).

9.2.2.4 The Discover Dominica Authority

As clarified by a tourism expert, due to a recent restructuring exercise the Discover Dominica Authority (DDA) main responsibilities now only include national product development and marketing functions. This expert further commented,

A decision was taken to remove training as one of our responsibilities, because we needed to focus more on what our mandate was, which is to promote the destination. So it was transferred to the Dominica State College as the sole institution responsible for delivering tourism training...Although if, for example, there are funding agencies that fund training programmes, we can coordinate, ... [if] we are the agency responsible for the whole project; however, the Dominica State College is implementing the training component of that project. (CTOU.02)

Advancing the point, this expert explained,

... as part of our project development thrust we are supposed to identify training needs in the sector; so because we will be going out, doing the inspections, we'll be able to see the gaps and the weaknesses and so on and we'll be able to identify and inform the State College of some of the training requirements or training gaps in the sector. So we still play a role, although we do not actively do the training. Like before, we would actually have a training officer in house! That person would actually go out and coordinate all the training. [But now] we don't have that! (CTOU.02)
However, the industry stakeholders, not satisfied with this structural change, strongly felt that the Discover Dominica Authority should maintain a key role in tourism education and industry training programmes. Furthermore, the experts lamented, as a result of the exclusion of the training component within the Discover Dominica Authority, a new void was created in the support provided to schools by the national tourism government agency.

So very often, educators often referenced (as indicated below) the benefits once enjoyed of having had a tourism training officer as part of old National Development Corporation,

I remember ... [in] NDC, there was a tourism education officer ... and what is good about it is that, this person... co-opted persons from within the industry, plus education to assist in delivering the topics on tourism ... [and in] assisting with the tourism education. (BEDU.09)

Notwithstanding the above issues, the Discover Dominica Authority assisted in facilitating training programmes which intermittently formed components of the Ministry of Tourism project initiatives.

Moreover, as experts often complained the new approach to national human resource development for tourism remains ad hoc. But, expert CTOU.04 went on to explain that the Dominica State College and the Discover Dominica Authority are two distinct institutions and “we cannot tell them what to do”.

The various views and issues discussed above, point to the impact of the existing decision making processes, power issues, political agendas and change management approaches commonly observed within the local government tourism and education bureaucracies. Now the chapter will turn the discussion to the capacity and functionality features of the private sector umbrella association, the Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association.
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9.2.2.5 The Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association

The Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association has as its main function the promotion of national tourism and member products and services. Additionally, they seek to create a working relationship with members in improving the standards of their individual enterprises. However, many experts (ATOU.23; BTOU.15; BTOU.26; CTOU.07) opined that the organisation’s structural arrangement was weak and really a reflection of the overall composition of the association’s membership already elaborated on in section 9.1.1.1. As one member stated, “I have always felt the hotel sector in Dominica is too small and when you think about it, all of us are small hotels; none of us have a hundred rooms” (BTOU.26).

Thus, the element size, compounded by limited resources hampers the Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association’s ability to unilaterally embark on planning and provision of education and training programmes for their members, which is advisable by best practices. Most of the development activities the association participates in are usually done in partnership with government or international donor agencies.

Even so, the membership, the public sector, policy makers and educators alike, all held high expectations of the association input in the advancement of the industry’s human resource quality and supply.

So, in light of the current challenges experienced by the various structures in executing the primary education and training functions necessary to fulfil the manpower training needs of the industry, several alternative approaches were proposed by the experts. In that regard, in section 9.2.3 below, the issue of restructuring and change as conceptualised by the experts is presented.

9.2.3 Restructuring and Change

In the context of Dominica, from a national perspective, the experts generally appeared to favour centralisation of the functions of planning, design, implementation and monitoring of tourism education and training. Moreover, the experts held that the establishment of a tourism education and training planning unit was vital to achieve
programme efficiency. In the words an expert, "they need to create that kind of unit... whereby it can ease government on some of these things so they can focus on what the people want to do" (APUB.10). Because, one educator pointed out, "... if you want to be successful ... it has to be structured" (AEDU.08). Among other benefits, such an initiative was deemed essential in addressing the challenges characteristic to departmentalisation experienced by the key structures discussed in the previous sections.

From the background of a policy maker, one tourism employee commenting on the usefulness of a centralised national tourism education and training structure declared, "I would definitely welcome that idea, ... because as I said, it's becoming a problem; different people with different philosophies, different ideas!" (ATOU.14). She then proceeded to opine that the main challenge was, "not only a capacity problem! I think it's just the whole ideologies. We need to have that mediator; I should say a committee that would comprise of the different persons within the sectors to make the system work."

But as discussed earlier, from a government policy perspective, establishment of a new structure was not often supported. In fact, it could be argued that public sector policy experts seemed content with the status quo. For example, this public officer reflected, "I do not see how you could create a new institution" (CPUB.10). As another claimed,

The persons who is (sic) working at Social Studies should be able to do it, but that person would probably need some support .... or training themselves in the field, to be able to do it the way it needs to be done or should be done. So, is not that they cannot do it; but they haven't had the exposure themselves! They haven't had the training themselves! (CPUB.11)

Further, a policy expert (PUB.01) held that due to the government's austerity measures (at that time), it was best to utilise the incumbent curriculum and education officers, focusing on improving their efficiency in delivery of tourism education and training.
Nevertheless, most other experts supported the need for a centralised unit. As envisioned by this politician,

It\textsuperscript{11} has to be coordinated from the management policy level \ldots tourism and hospitality services is (sic) becoming the greatest economic activity in the country. So there is even a greater case for someone at the highest level to be coordinating the activities that are taking place at the various institutions, the primary and secondary level. There is even a greater case, because more and more employment generation is coming from that sector. So why not prepare in our institutions for that eventuality? So why not have someone to coordinate, not only the activities at the College itself, but at primary and secondary level and your continuing education programme in that field? \ldots \textbf{[because]} unless you have some people driving in that direction it will take 15, 20 years and during that time our people will continue to migrate to the other countries. (APOL.16)

These views expressed above perfectly encapsulate the standpoint of the experts who strongly supported the need for a new structure.

In addition, private sector community experts advocated that district tourism education and training officers should form an integral part, within this proposed structure. Such officers, they contended, would facilitate the need for decentralisation at the implementation phase of tourism education and training. In so doing, professional and specialist support would be accessible across the island and at the community level. Such high level of expert availability was deemed particularly important due to the nature of the tourism product and the increased focus on the community tourism niche.

As shown in the above debates among the different group of experts, several factors impact on planning and decision making on a national level. That being the case in section 9.3 of this chapter which follows, another theme ‘power’ and relevant sub-themes is advanced.

\section*{9.3 Power}

Within the context of the experts, power was defined as the ability to impact decision making during the planning process for national tourism education and training. As

\textsuperscript{11} National tourism education and training
already explained the concept of power in this research is framed largely from the perspective of collaborative theory as presented by Gray (1989). As such here, power means possessing the relevant ‘authority, resources, expert knowledge and skills’ (Gray 1989) to co-ordinate and manage the key task of designing, planning, implementing national tourism education and training.

To this end, five central sub-themes emerged as having impact on tourism education and training planning in the Commonwealth of Dominica. These are (1) legitimate authority (2) leadership (3) role conflict (4) dependency (5) and politics and control. The following sections (9.3.1, 9.3.2, 9.3.3, 9.3.4 and 9.5.5) explore these sub-themes as exhibited in the field.

By now it may be clear that power is not used in the conventional sense as often debated in the literature but in the interest of the agenda of this thesis power will be conceptualised in terms of standpoint of Gray (1989) rooted in collaboration theory as defined above.

9.3.1 Legitimate Authority

To Weber (1947) legitimate authority is based on formal positions and subordinates’ beliefs that specific actors hold the legal power to direct the means of achieving organisation objectives. It has been shown through earlier discussions that from a national stand point, the government was viewed as holding the legal authority to direct tourism education and training. To one public sector expert this mandate to influence policy had been bestowed on Cabinet from the electorate (CPUB.10).

But, though the government possessed the ‘legal power’ to affect national tourism education and training, government was faced with the great challenge of prioritising initiatives as pursuits to fulfill national developmental goals were sought. Also, as shown in earlier discussions, plagued by the limitation of small size, inadequate economic and other resources, measures had been recently employed to streamline the public service and operate within a constrained national budget. This meant that there was limited national ‘resource power’ available for investing in tourism education and
training. Thus, in this case, legitimate official and legal authority did not naturally translate into the ability to exercise power to effect change.

Furthermore, among the key government structures discussed in 9.2, the level of actual power to impact the tourism education and training process did not seem clearly defined. For instance, due to the structural changes already mentioned within the Discover Dominica Authority, the national tourism agency, an expert held that,

... even though we make recommendations, the State College is an independent institution... it's not run by us; ... You cannot tell them how to run ... [or] ... put out their programmes. ... if it's not economically viable for them to do a training programme this month ... they will not, and we cannot say yes, to do it for the six people ... [so] there's still that lack of collaboration with the two institutions and it's really not our fault because... The Minister made it very clear he doesn't want us involved in that and he doesn't want us involved in training. (CTOU.04)

Sharing a similar view, from a national perspective, one principal commented on her powerlessness as a principal,

... do I have the right...to go ahead and say gather all the principals of all schools nationally to say we are going to prepare the tourism module the tourism education package ... for it to be like a mandate... a common undertaking, then you would need that directive. (AEDU.07)

In that regard, the principal acknowledges the authority of the Ministry of Education and other government bureaucrats in setting national tourism education policy and operating procedures within the formal school system.

However, according to Gray's (1989) view, the legitimacy of stakeholder involvement in a planning initiative is also attained through their knowledge, skill or resource power to make meaningful and valuable contribution to the process. As shown in the preceding discussions the experts highlighted the void in tourism expert knowledge and technical skills among those involved in tourism education and training at the various levels of the education system in Dominica.

For instance, when questioned on the degree of participation in and influence on the national tourism education and training planning process, one of the educators
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explained, “all I am doing is following the syllabus that I’m given” (AEDU.15). This situation was typical for most of the current educators of tourism, who seemed mainly engaged in curriculum delivery. Thus, the shortage of strategic thinkers and long term planners was evident and could be assumed, a contributing factor to the current ad hoc modus operandi to tourism education and training at the various levels of the education system.

From Gray’s (1989) perspective of stakeholder legitimacy to power, these apparent limitations raised questions about these key actors ability to participate meaningfully and effect change in the national planning process for tourism education and training in Dominica. This deficiency contributed to a high level of dependence on foreign programmes as highlighted previously. Yet, an expert pointed out that,

... sometimes we say we do not have resource persons and when we do a check we may have sufficient and adequate persons; but whether these persons who are there, ... whether their knowledge and their skills ... are being adequately used for the benefit of the tourism education that we want to pass on to our students and the country as a whole, ... is another question! (BEDU.09)

As often expressed by the experts, industry players possessed a wealth of knowledge about the sector, gained from the day-to day operations of tourism business activities, which should be capitalised upon. Nevertheless, as earlier alluded, the experts acknowledged that the tourism stakeholders in Dominica were viewed as void of critical aspects of legitimate power due to a lack of professional training, financial and other resources to unilaterally address the demands of the growing tourism industry.

The issues highlighted above, unearthed additional power dynamics among the key actors; that of ‘role conflict’ and ‘lack of leadership’ in driving a national plan and approach to tourism education and training. This will now be the focus of the next two sections of the chapter.

9.3.2 Role Conflicts

Hall (1999) commenting on Ackoff’s (1974) views of tourism as a meta-problem, contended that this dilemma represented interconnected planning and policy ‘messes’
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cutting across fields of expertise and administrative boundaries, seemingly connected to everything. The scenario described in this case so far, exemplifies this phenomenon. Nonetheless, it also seems to highlight a peculiar type of disagreement among key actors as a result of restricted power to implement change.

Resulting from departmentalisation, was a general disagreement among key actors, about which ministry should to direct tourism education and training. Stevenson, Airey, Miller (2008) in a study on tourism policy making in the United Kingdom also found lack of consensus and congruence as a key phenomenon among tourism policy making actors. In Dominica, experts from the Ministry of Tourism and the Ministry of Education each conceived the other as better equipped with the personnel and technical skills required to fulfill the national mandate. On one hand, the educators felt removed from the national tourism agenda and foci; while on the other hand, the tourism experts viewed all human resource, education and training issues as the domain of the educators.

According to one policy expert, the “Ministry with Education and Human Resource, they have to be able to develop a HR Plan for the country! ... Their concept of HR Development is just providing scholarship!” (CPUB.07). Conversely, this policy maker contended greater emphasis on succession planning was critical! Later on another policy expert clarified, “one officer we have under the HR! ... And she has to handle everything that's going through the Ministry in terms of HR! We can't take on that role! ... The private sector has to fill up the slack and do some of those things for themselves” (CPUB.11).

Expanding on the challenging role issues encountered at the national policy level it was further argued, “… the fact that we are pressed from a lot of issues, is crisis management you do! We have little time to do proper planning. ... everybody just trying to see how they get their money ... but ... every time I ... say let us look at the thing holistically ... nobody wants take that approach …” (CPUB.07). At the level of policy formation, Richter (1983) suggests that an understanding of available resources and its administrative milieu is critical in explaining policy-making decisions. Such

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12 To develop a country human resource plan for tourism
13 Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association
attitudes, as cited by the experts, further demonstrate the negative impact of
departmentalisation within the government bureaucracy.

Moreover, this dilemma discussed above seemed to conform to what Morris, Steers &
Koch (1979) refer to as ‘role conflict’; a concept significantly related to participation
in decision making, supervisory span of control, span of subordination and
formalisation. In Dominica’s case, such ‘role conflict’ seemed to give rise to the
shifting of responsibility and the ‘power to act’ among key players.

For instance, there were conflicting conceptions of the role of the Dominica State
College and the Discover Dominica Authority in implementation of their roles.
“...That's why you may have conflict between what we want as a sector and what's
(sic) the training situation; because...although they are not responsible for
certification, they are responsible for training! ...training is only one pre-requisite for
us!” (CTOU.02). This expert went on to explain that, since the institutions held
different objectives, one of education and the other of certification, establishing
standards and monitoring, the role of being a gate keeper in ensuring high entry
criteria to the industry was different.

At the school level, an educator discussed conflict which arose from the functions of
school supervision by education officers; “...we all need to say the same thing; we all
need to be consistent” she cautioned, “Education Officer B goes to say something and
Education Officer C goes and say another thing; you confuse the teacher[s]”
(BEDU.17). In considering this claim one politician proclaimed,

“... even among the stakeholders ... we do not as yet have a single
objective...as to the way forward. And that in itself...will in fact have a
negative effect on the product; ... you will come across all those...conflicting
views! So, that is going to some extent, to slow down the kind of public
education, because education must not be confusing, it has to focus people's
attention on a particular direction. If you are approaching people who are a
noise or a whole sort of disharmony in terms of the message, you may turn
people off! So that while Government has a major, probably leading role,
Government does not have the only role and everybody has got to be brought
on board! All of the stakeholders!” (CPOL.05)
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The central positions that emerged from these various confrontational issues was the view that national planning for tourism education and training should be a joint team effort, led by the relevant ministries, operating within and guided by, the framework of their respective ministerial policy agendas. Others argued that the Ministry of Education was responsible for national human resource development and therefore should take the lead in close partnership with the Ministry of Tourism. Yet again, some felt that the bureaucratic nature of government was limiting. As a consequence, a few experts advocated that the entire planning and implementation process should be under the headship and management of a non-government body.

9.3.3 Leadership

Gill, Levine and Pitt (1999) suggest that bureaucratic organisations are usually characterised by laissez-faire leadership. They further suggested that under such leadership subordinates are often left to fend for themselves and in the cases where learning takes place it was usually as a result of trial and error. Perhaps these concepts can be utilised to capture the type of the leadership observed by the experts as described below.

For, though the government was conceived as holding the primary power and authority to ensure a strong national emphasis on tourism education and training within the formal school system, experts did not rank education and training among priority measures held by government for advancing the tourism industry. Discussing this viewpoint, a public sector expert pointed out, "we have something called a Committee of Permanent Secretaries where all the Permanent Secretaries meet once a month and they plan policy. It would appear that at that level, there has to be understanding and ownership of the national thrust in tourism" (CPUB.10). But more specifically, as was indicated previously,

The Ministry of Education has the responsibility for primary and secondary school curriculum development [therefore] it is their responsibility to do that in consultation with the Ministry of Tourism, which is the policy driving arm of Government in the Tourism field. So [the] leadership channel is that the Government, Cabinet says we going to push tourism and we want tourism to form part of the curriculum of
primary and secondary schools as [a] subject area. Send down its instructions through the Ministry of Tourism, to education. They now identify the necessary resource persons, teachers, text books, whatever else to make that a reality. (CPUB.10)

Earlier, we noted that the experts questioned the efficiency of this form of leadership. Moreover, according to a private sector expert the message from the political leadership was critical to the advancement of tourism education and training, “they have to show the level of commitment, the capacity to bring the resources to bear on the industry ... [their] leadership has to be out front of everybody” (APRI.20). A common view expressed by experts was that government’s main concern was mainly placed on tourism marketing and infrastructure development. As such one expert lamented,

We play a lot of lip service and say tourism is the driver of the economy; tourism is the future and so on and yet you not seeing it being reflected within Government, within the Ministry... if it's not reflected ... by the heads ... and so, ... it will never trickle down to even to Discover Dominica, to the State College; because State College, that's not their priority! Their priority is ... training! Tourism is not a priority for them! (CTOU.02)

Consequently, much uneasiness was expressed about the absence of government policy and legislative oversight of a national approach to tourism education and training (ATOU.18) Experts often agonised that the lack of a comprehensive and long term education and training plan with precise directives for implementation was a reflection of the prevalent paucity of leadership, uncoordinated and fragmented approach currently utilised (APRI.27). In the literature, Baum & Szivas (2008) describe such shortfalls in a national approach to tourism education and training as simultaneous to an equally inadequate approach to national human resource development for the industry.

Further, the experts argued if the Dominica tourism industry is to become internationally competitive, it was critical that key actors were able to revolutionise the approach to the tourism industry through education and training of the labour force. Thus, experts often spoke of an overall change in mind set and attitude (AEDU.06; ATOU.18; APRI.26; APRI.20; APRI.27). This, Gill, Levine and Pitt
(1999) advise requires moving away from maintenance of the status quo to one of visionary thinking, long term goal setting (Howell & Avolio 1993) and effective transformational leadership (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen 2003).

Nonetheless, one among other challenges which negatively impacted the advancement of tourism education and training on the island was government’s heavy reliance on aid from international donor agencies, a phenomenon now advanced in the following section of the chapter.

9.3.4 Dependency

“Our problem is financial resources...if we do not get some donor agencies, for example the OAS, EDTP training and so on, to really implement training programmes ... To get the persons who are already in the industry trained is costly! Most of the time you have to ... import resource persons; ... that is an additional cost ... to get persons from the region to come in ... So ... the major challenge I would think is finance!” (ATOU.14)

By nature of being a small island state, with very limited resources of all types, historically, Dominica has had a heavy dependency on foreign aid from international donor agencies and friendly governments. As a consequence, though the government has engaged in efforts at national planning for tourism education and training, these have mostly been initiatives directly linked to international donor funded projects. Often, this meant that the programmes implemented were heavily framed by the agendas of foreign agencies or based on the nature of aid available. Typically, however, such endeavors tend not to extend beyond the life span of the individual projects giving rise to issues of lack of continuity of training programmes (ATOU.22).

Moreover, as stated before, there was a great scarcity of trained specialists on the island to design, develop and effectively implement national programmes, which were tailored to the specific characteristics of the local tourism product and its corresponding human resource developmental needs (ATOU.19; ATOU.21). This void enabled a high level of external influence associated to the demands affiliated to
international funding agencies and regional initiatives (Gill, Levine, & Pitt 1999).

So, an expert debated,

... at a policy level there has to be a consistent recognition that if you're saying tourism is one of the development strategies for growth, you have to put in the requisite resources and all the necessary things required [for it] to be sustained, but if you want to recognise it as a growth [strategy] and all the time you just relying on donor agencies, then of course that's the big issue! (CPUB.07)

Generally, experts (ATOU.11; ATOU.21; ATOU.18; ATOU.23; APR1.27) seemed largely agreed that the curriculum and training programmes from other countries or foreign agencies were not totally relevant to the Dominican setting. Regardless, because the island lacked 'legitimate' local expert tourism education and training power; tourism education and training very often many stakeholders echoed the importance of "not reinventing the wheel" (ATOU.14; BEDU.11; CTOU.02; CTOU.07). Despite the experts' opinion of the impact of foreign programmes, they also appeared to view these efforts as a necessary evil. As such one expert pronounced,

I think the problem is you do not yet have specialists in tourism education in Dominica, so a lot of the people have to depend on what is done elsewhere, and they really get a lot of the material from the CTO and really borrow from CTO programmes and activities; so I think that is the issue! I think essentially what you need is to ensure that you have at least the small cadre of persons trained in tourism education to drive a programme like that. So, in the absence of that, people going to have to depend on what they see elsewhere! (ATOU.19)

In that regard, experts recommended the evaluation of regional best practices (particularly, the infusion method and HEART programme in Jamaica discussed in chapter three) utilised for tourism education and training, in islands of close product similarity to Dominica. The relevant core principles of such approaches could then frame the national tourism education and training programme.

Also, in Dominica a subtle hostility seemed to exist among the wider society towards foreign initiatives and consultancies. Experts often complained that, projects were often rushed to completion within time frames set by foreign donor agencies; public consultations when held were insufficient and ineffective; the level of reach was often
limited to few communities or sectors; and since projects were short term there were also sustainably issues (APRI.22; CTOU.04).

These contradictions epitomised Dominica's dilemma inherent in the high dependency on foreign international aid for national development. Yet, the need for international competitiveness meant that the island had to remain abreast of international developments and best practices. Therefore, partaking in international and regional initiatives and trends in tourism education and training was deemed an imperative.

Besides, as one public sector officer explained the training implemented during developmental projects is generally geared to "educating the people so that they can understand the need for them to be self-sufficient and having a measure of confidence on their own and that they can minimise that dependency syndrome that they have. [Because] I think we are still plagued with that dependency syndrome" (CPUB.07).

To further examine the underlying issues framing tourism education and training in Dominica, the close association between international funding agencies and government decision making, it is also necessary to consider the impact of politics and control factors. This will be done in the next section of the chapter.

9.3.5 Politics and Control

As Hendry, Johnson, and Newton (1993) opine, a good appreciation of the micro politics of organisations help one understand how decisions are made and implemented. Generally, education and training efforts in Dominica were conceptualised as institutionalised (AEDU.06; AEDU.09). That is, programmes were largely in keeping with the policy position and agenda of government and school administrators in the case of the education institutions and managers/owners in case of tourism enterprises. Thus, often education officers, principals, teachers and tourism employees felt impeded in directly influencing major change in the day to day operations within the formal school system or at the level of national industry training (AEDU.07; ATOU.11).
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Furthermore, some experts (BEDU.17; CTOU.07; CPUB.09; CEDU.14; CPOL.08) viewed the various tourism and education structures and their relative departments as having an insular culture; each concerned with the protection of their respective area of operations. Hence one expert declared,

We are very territorial! This is my turf! Where you think you coming? And want to take my turf? I will make sure I make life difficult for you not to take my turf! This is a selfish attitude because [then]... it’s all about you ... most of the times these things happen because of personality clashes! (BEDU.17)

Such attitudes, the experts held, impacted negatively on working relationships both within and between various institutions/organisations. In addition, interrelations and interconnectivity between key players proved challenging at times, leading to its own power dynamics. As bemoaned by one expert,

...the communication link or the gap ... is always a problem! We have [one] Ministry ... doing one thing or even preaching one thing and [one] saying another thing...That is just keeping the country behind, too many technocrats and they not willing to work together ... there are certain things I think we should be the ones handling ... and the people up here [top policy makers] see it differently. (ATOU.14)

These power conflicts negatively affected knowledge and resource sharing, as well as continuity of programmes when staff was transferred (as often occurred within the public sector) from one job or position to another. In advancing these arguments another expert asserted,

It is in the national interest to have the education process sustained! ... The government, if they want to continue as a government must do the education! And the populist must take in what is being told, what is being said! If they don’t, if the two don’t marry, the government will not be able to sustain growth in the economy, [and] it will affect them politically! (APUB.24)

At the level of government, experts postulated that the national political and electoral system also contributed its own complications to the development of tourism education and training. One expert averred,
... The whole political framework creates an issue ... because you have Ministers which come in for five years and every one of them wants to see themselves shine! And in essence it trickles down ... The synergy between sectors and the coordinated approach ... around the sectors is not at its best! ... The political agenda drives a lot of things ... as opposed to an integrated development plan ... [so] you have a set of projects to implement every year! ... Sometimes they don't get implemented! And so what you find is that ...we are still ‘projectised’ where development is concerned. (CPUB.07)

The significance of an effective organisational structure and integrated planning, in relation to general tourism management was also advocated in the literature (Inskeep 1991).

According to Hall (2005) governments tend to utilise tourism in creating the perception of producing results from policy initiatives over a brief period. In Dominica, the experts (ATOU.14; CPUB.01; CTOU.07; CPUB.15) affirmed that this often demanded a more short term and project orientation rather than a broader long term national development strategy. In that regard, an expert (CTOU.07) insisted, the government needed to change its approach towards one of fulfilling the human resource developmental needs required in achieving the long term vision and goals outlined in the national tourism policy and master plan.

Nevertheless, shifting the political debate to the level of the bureaucrats, an expert asserted,

I always say politicians are there for five years, sometimes they know what’s happening, sometimes by they time they find out what’s happening, they out of departments ... I am realising ... it’s the bureaucrats...It’s the administrators ... we do not like change! ... Some of the professionals are threatened! ... You come up with something ... they will take your papers and put it underneath the pile and there it shall stay! So, the problem has nothing to do with the politicians! Nothing! It has to do with the bureaucrats! (BEDU.17)

These claims underscore the common political dilemma encountered among key actors at the policy level. Moreover, as Wood & Waterman (1991) point out, political appointment is one of the most significant instruments utilised by governments to exercise control. So, it was not surprising, that based on the existing system of
political appointments, top level public officers seemed focused on self preservation and fulfillment of government's political agendas.

Additionally, from the angle of the industry, private interest groups often held contradictory and competing agendas to government. In Dominica, the environmentalists were particularly publicly vocal in representation of their tourism philosophy. Other sector sub-groups, though not as controversial also led to a certain degree of power struggles in development of the industry. For according to Baum & Szivas (2008) by virtue of the existence and pursuit of their sectoral interests, such groups contribute to further organisational fragmentation.

Such dilemmas mainly centred on conceptions of tourism and the framing of the curriculum within the schools. As discussed in chapter two and raised by the experts, one such problem was on the choice of an eco-tourism destination approach as against focusing on the rapidly growing cruise market niche. Another contested area was based on government’s choice in investment projects which raised environmental and sustainable development issues.

As a result arriving at a shared vision and implementation plan was of paramount importance to most experts, a concept which led to another broad theme, the process.

9.4 Conclusions

In this chapter two main themes, structure and power and their relevant sub-themes which emerged form the data were presented.

The first section of the chapter focused on the main structures which are involved in tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. The experts appeared to believe that the structural configuration of the education institutions and tourism organisations significantly influenced management style and the decision making processes engaged in attaining organisational goals and objectives. Two distinct structural design configurations were observed. A large number of the small tourism enterprises exhibited flat, simple structures and placed little emphasis on
education and training. In contrast, the Ministries of Tourism and Education, as well as other government agencies and institutions such as the schools, were of a hierarchical, professional bureaucracy. These bureaucratic systems, with external centralised decision making processes, the experts argued, hampered efficiency of planning and implementation of education and training for the industry.

In the Dominican setting, the power phenomenon, from a national perspective, was a major factor which the experts conceived as having great impact on tourism education and training. The power factor took on varied forms ranging from the ability to impact on the planning process through a position of legitimate authority, knowledge skills and/or resources, to political and control power. Thus, the experts viewed power as having both positive and negative impacts. From a positive standpoint, power allowed stakeholders to participate meaningfully in the planning process; while from a negative perspective, power led to role conflict, heavy dependency on foreign aid for tourism education and training agendas, and/or short term ad hoc planning often geared to achieve government political goals.

Many key areas of limitation in executing the functions of the structures involved in tourism education on the island were also highlighted by the experts. It was shown that in Dominica’s context, government through the Ministry of Education and Tourism and the relevant departments and agencies, were conceived as the lead players in national tourism education and training programme planning and implementation. However, due to capacity issues, role conflict, poor leadership and political issues among other challenges, the experts argued in favour of a long term visionary approach to national tourism education and training in addressing the manpower training needs of the sector. Moreover, the experts’ accounts stressed the need for better co-ordination of efforts among all the key actors in planning for national tourism education and training.

Accordingly, in further presenting the interpretations and understandings of the case, in the next chapter the thesis will explore ‘the process’, the fourth major theme which emerged from the data.
Chapter Ten: Process

10.1 Introduction
This chapter is centred on one other major theme which emerged from the data, ‘process’.

In the previous chapters of this section, the thesis explored the three other main themes which emerged from the data set. First, chapter eight explored the principles which should govern tourism education and training from a lifelong perspective. Second, chapter nine examined the structural features, power relations and other challenges which currently impact upon planning for tourism education and training in Dominica. Thus, in contrast to the previous two chapters of this part of the study which were analytical, this chapter serves to advance the interpretations and understandings of the experts. In so doing, it summarises the experts’ constructions about the phenomenon and presents a prescriptive view of the research puzzle. Thus, in section 10.2 the chapter discusses the various dimensions of the process as conceived by the experts.

Thereafter, in section 10.3 the chapter encapsulates the conceptions of the experts in proposing a strategic, holistic and collaborative tourism education and training planning approach for tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. In addition, this contextual approach is underpinned by the Tourism Education Policy – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework proposed by Amoah & Baum (1997).

Finally, the chapter concludes in section 10.4.

10.2 The Process
National planning for tourism education and training, akin to that of any public policy formulation, is a social process (Stevenson, Airey, & Miller 2008) comprising a variety of people and organisations. Moreover, the tourism industry is conceptualised as fragmented (Baum, Amoah & Spivack 1997; Cooper, Shepherd &
Westlake 1994; Jamal & Gertz 1995) and linked to several different sectors which all impact on each other as they proceed with interactions during various planning and implementation stages (Stevenson, Airey, & Miller 2008).

Throughout earlier discussions, it was noted that in practice these interactions have been conceived both in the literature and by the Dominica experts as a ‘messy’ process. The key dynamics of ‘the process’ as highlighted by the Dominican experts are advanced in the following sections. Hence, here the chapter expands on five related sub themes which reflect propositions for the Dominican context as conceived by the experts. These are, planning for tourism education and training should be: a strategic policy driven process (section 10.2.1); a holistic approach (section 10.2.2); a collaborative process (section 10.2.3); [allow for] maximum stakeholder involvement (section 10.2.4).

### 10.2.1 A Strategic Policy Driven Process

The fact that national planning for tourism education and training has to cater to the needs of a number of major players with different and conflicting interests makes the process a challenging exercise. This problem can be assumed to reflect the fragmented nature of the tourism industry (Jamal & Gertz 1995). For instance, in Dominica, despite the fact that there was a national tourism policy and master plan, many of the experts (AEDU.07; ATOU.18; APRIL.27 among others) expressed a sense of doubt about the exact direction and focus of government’s developmental plan for the industry. This predicament was possibly best summarised by this public sector expert who probed,

I mean the policy, the master plan and all that, ... while it has been done ... there is little knowledge, ... little information, ... little consultation on it and it’s a number of years now that you hearing [of] that ... master plan! ... we just left in a vacuum! In order words what am saying is, do we know where’re we’re heading? Do we know what we want? Do we have a focus? Do we know what sort of tourism policy we want to create? Do we have a niche? Do we decide we just following what people have? Or we have something unique that is ours? Have we identified it? Have we pushed it? ... Those questions must come up! And while we have a tourism master plan, little knowledge and little information about it is being known to people! I mean is only a few
people that would understand it and know it, would get involved! But the question is who had inputs in it? How is the information being disseminated? How is it being spread across; how .... is it accepted? Because some of our actions is clearly not what we want to do! (APUB.10)

Given that this public sector officer acknowledges the existence of published documents which should direct policy positions and decisions, but remain unclear about the actual national tourism positioning, suggests the need for an approach which would help focus education and training programme plans and curriculum towards achieving long term national industry goals and specific human resources objectives. Developing a strategy, Quinn (1980) advises allows for the integration of major goals, policies and action into a cohesive whole. In addition, he argues, a well designed strategy would help in pooling available resources in an efficient manner, giving consideration to relevant internal competencies and limitations.

It can be said, that such an approach would be useful in Dominica’s case since the questions raised by the expert above, also serve to reinforce previous concerns of other experts on matters of role conflicts, weak leadership, and poor capacity among key actors. Moreover, with regard to this matter and reflecting on the current challenges faced by tourism teachers within the formal school system an educator pondered,

..our whole education process for tourism needs to be formalised and articulated! So that anybody who is involved in education will have a basic idea as to what are the national priorities for tourism ... As a principal sitting right here right now ... I am wondering what do I tell children about tourism? There is nothing available ... you just have to go through a hand book! Go through a brochure! ... but nothing has been articulated to say that is what Dominica is as a tourism product, as a tourism island! (AEDU.05)

As such, many experts felt that a national tourism education and training policy and plan was necessary. Strategic planning advocates the need for clear strategy which seeks to give purposeful and deliberate direction for action (Quinn 1980; Ansoff & McDonnell 1990; De Wit & Meyer 2004). In the words of one tourism expert,
I think the first thing, before we decide on what kind of education and training we need to do, [is] we need to decide and unequivocally agree on what is this tourism product that we educating people to manage! I believe that part of the confusion with training and ... often the mixed signals coming of the training programmes, is that the people who are doing the training are not clear themselves as to what is the tourism product; and they are not clear because the people in the industry have not been very clear! Unambiguously clear! While we've talked about nature tourism and so forth, we have seen lots of things being done that clearly compromise what we can conceive of and talk about as nature tourism! (ATOU.18)

In that regard, it can be argued that there is much need for consideration to be given to a clear contextual definition which could then serve to direct a national tourism education and training policy position and programme plan.

To an extent, it can be claimed that this apparent lack of a national concerted effort and plan for tourism education and training led some of the experts to question the (1) true significance of the industry to the national economy; (2) clarity of national focus in advancement of the sector; (3) purposeful development of a high quality human resource supply for the sector. In order to address this dilemma, an educator suggests, ... you have to think in terms of continuity. In terms of the future; ... in terms of where you want this thing to go; what kind of tourism project you want to build! What are your long terms plans or aims? What should tourism development look like in Dominica in the year 2020? What should it look like in 2030? ... and the HR element is important! ... In other words what we should be aiming at as well is to reach a stage where tourism can actually bring in foreign exchange, that we minimise the amount of charity that we have to depend on; because ... all the more powerful nations are politically opportunistic; and when things change\textsuperscript{14} there is a ebb and flow of foreign aid. (AEDU.08)

This expert again supports the necessity for having a focused long term plan which will not only serve to direct human resources development, but by extension educate the citizens for the good of society, towards national development, thus leading to national economic self sufficiency. As explained in the literature (Taylor & Miroiu 2002) strategic planning provides a framework for identifying the long term direction, which involves planning, designing, implementing and monitoring, so avoiding strategic drift (Tribe 1997).

\textsuperscript{14} Refers, here to national political elections
Also in support of this stand point, another expert commented, “we do things vikey vi\textsuperscript{15}! It sounds good, it looks good, we get the money, let’s run with and when the money is finished it falls flat on its face” (BEDU.17). Such sentiments epitomised the general \textit{ad hoc} approach prevalent towards national tourism education and training, and echoed views on the influence of international donor agencies and friendly governments on education and training programme planning. Hence, reflecting on this general position of the experts an educator cautioned,

\ldots we have to elevate the thing [tourism education and training] to bring it to the level of a science; it’s not just something that is a soft area that anyone can pick up and do! It has to become something scientific, but again the ideology, the culture has to be there where we [view] tourism as something important, something that is systematic, something that has to be planned for, something that you strategise! (AEDU.08)

That being the case, experts advocated for a deliberate and planned approach to the advancement of tourism education and training on the island. As suggested by many experts, a strategic approach would ensure realisation of long term goals and objectives as outlined in the Tourism 2010 Policy document and Tourism Masterplan. This is in keeping with views well represented in the literature (Quinn 1980, Tribe 1997, Galloway 2001, De Wit & Meyer 2004, Edwards & Rees 2006 among many others) on the usefulness of engaging strategic principles in planning processes.

\section*{10.2.2 A Holistic Approach}

For Dominica, the experts also recommended that national tourism education and training “calls for a holistic approach” (APUB.13). In making the point one expert said, “I find it’s too much, just little bits and pieces as against a total package (APRI.22). As Baum, Amoah & Spivack (1997) point out, tourism and human resource development has not always been approached holistically. Sharing a similar view a tourism expert claims “it\textsuperscript{16} has to be broad based; if you are talking about building an economy around a particular industry it means \ldots there has to be a total country approach \ldots so we have to provide education at different levels \ldots education and training has to permeate right through [the] society” (ATOU.19).

\textsuperscript{15}A colloquial expression in Dominica which translates as ‘in any old fashion way’

\textsuperscript{16}Tourism education and training
In addition to exposure to tourism within the school system, a common complaint was that tourism awareness programmes and training was conducted sporadically by various government ministerial departments: agriculture, police, customs, air and sea ports, environmental health, and forestry among others (BEDU.10). Further, on occasion, these departments engaged the schools and wider communities in some form of tourism training activity (AEDU07; BEDU.01; BEDU.08). However, these efforts, the experts lamented, were rarely linked. This is in keeping with the common view that training in the local industry has traditionally been piecemeal (Valiant 2004). As explained by one community educator,

what we see is a duplication of programmes and...we talking about waste of funds...and more or less is nearly the same people we are targeting and that is not necessary. So if we coordinate our efforts...you [won’t] have the same area being bombarded with more or less the same programmes...by different organisations which doesn’t make sense. (BEDU.10)

Consequently, there was a call for harmonisation of tourism training initiatives particularly as, “when you go into a community, sometimes is five basic people [community leaders] everybody dealing with... so... if we have a coordinated effort then things will go better” (BEDU.10). Commenting on this phenomenon one expert shared, “I think all these sectors...have a contribution that they can make [but] it doesn’t make sense that one does one thing, and the other does something else” (BEDU.19). In the literature Jamal and Getz (1995), note that within the tourism industry itself, lack of coordination and cohesion is a well-known problem.

These concerns expressed by the experts were closely linked to the conception of tourism as an all inclusive phenomena necessitating all key players having an active role in the process (APRI.20; BEDU.19). So, in the Dominica setting the experts advocated a single all inclusive approach. To illustrate, and in support of this idea another expert remarked, "I think any thrust like that has to be a national thrust, because if we just see it as the sector response, that is their thing, their business, then we are not going to arrive at the level of success that we want to achieve” (APUB.13 ). Thus, for some, based on the perception that the industry is ‘linked to everything’ (Edgell 1990) a holistic approach had to be ‘multi-pronged’ (AEDU.07) and multi-sectoral (AEDU.07; APUB.13; APOL.17; APRI.25).
Furthermore, as one expert advised, tourism education and training should be viewed from “all angles” to limit the negative impact of the advancing one dimension at the expense of others (AEDU.07). For as one expert argues,

.... we have been training people to manage components of a product without them even recognising that they are just managing a component of a much more complex structure. So, it is not unusual for you to find people maybe doing good at a restaurant but knowing nothing about ... the cultural history of the island which is part of the product; and I think the underlying flaw therefore, has been in the absence of clarity about a product, we have not got a truly coherent and interlocked and cross sector approach to education! (ATOU.18)

That being so, the experts opined that education and training in Dominica should be broad based, incorporate a variety of agendas of all key stakeholders and address the needs of all levels of formal, informal and non-formal education and training (APRI.04; AEDU.07; APRI.27; ATOU.19; CPUB.03; CPUB.09). The experts also believed that the curriculum content should be holistic in its design (ATOU.02; ATOU.18; BEDU.19). That is, incorporating aspects of the local culture, history, agricultural practices, environment protection, town and land planning, among other areas. In addition, clear links needed to be established to other subjects/disciplines, so enabling students and trainees to conceptualise the forward and backward linkages of the sector. To facilitate such an approach some experts recommended that there is a great need for,

.... a tourism desk that is devoted ...solely for tourism ... because what might happen is that...the approach has to be holistic! ...with the State College assuming that role, it might just be a side issue for the college, whereas if you have an organisation that is set up mainly for tourism, somehow divorced from the State College and they have the mandate to concentrate on that, then probably the purpose will be better served. (BEDU.19)

Such an approach was seen as a pivotal strategy to the advancement of the tourism industry on island. Moreover, since the government had placed tourism as part of its central focus to its national developmental goals, experts held that equal emphasis should be placed on a holistic national approach to education and training for the sector. Thus, as discussed above, the experts generally opined that planning for the human resource supply of the tourism sector should become a national priority. But
more significantly a comprehensive, all-inclusive approach was supported to ensure consideration of all sectors and relevant needs and interests. This standpoint is further developed in the discussions which follow.

10.2.3 A collaborative Process

Gray (1989) postulates that collaboration allows all legitimate stakeholders the right and opportunity to influence the planning process in a meaningful way. The importance of working as a team in planning for tourism education and training, as reflected in previous sections, seemed very important to many experts. That position was probably best illustrated by this expert’s comments below,

I think we have reached a stage where we should begin to understand that no man is an island, because experience has taught me that when everybody pull together you get things done better and more things done, than when you just leave it to a selected few; so we have to bring everybody on board and it has to be a national thing! (AEDU.06)

Go-it-alone policies Gunn (1988) points out, is a thing of the past, since no one tourism enterprise or government body can operate in isolation. Hence, he continues, cooperation and collaboration is now more evident among stakeholders. For Dominica, the experts strongly opined that planning for tourism education and training should be a collaborative initiative. As discussed previously, Jamal and Gertz (1995) and Trist (1977) also advocate employing a collaborative approach as an efficient means of executing a strategic plan and vision.

Furthermore, the experts widely acknowledged that each group of stakeholders had relevant roles, which had varied degrees of significance due to the respective occupations, positions and or decision making power held. Lewis (2005a) in a study on rationalising the tourism curriculum for sustainable tourism development in Small Island States, promotes collaborative planning as an effective means of facilitating stakeholder participation in influencing the strategic direction of education via curriculum planning. In addition, she advocates the collaborative approach for its usefulness in incorporating interest of a vast cross section of stakeholders.
The collaborative approach serves to enable stakeholders of tourism education and training to form partnerships, towards consensus building, plan development and implementation (Lowry, Adler, & Milner 1997). In fact, Jamal and Gertz (1995) claim that it has the potential to give plans legitimacy and credibility since it allows for a relatively coherent and strategic vision. Thus, according to Gray (1989), joint decision making of the tourism education and training problem domain about the future direction of a national approach for that domain is arrived at.

As shown in chapters eight and nine, various principles, different stakeholder conceptualisations, different structural and management styles, role conflicts, power relations among other challenges all impact on tourism education and training in Dominica. Accordingly, the experts emphasised the critical need for reaching a shared national vision, clear goals and objectives. Also previously discussed was need for inclusiveness, pooling of resources and conflict resolution. That being the situation, table 24, adapted from Gray (1989) illustrates one possible framework for arriving at a collaborative planning process, as expressed by the experts.

Table 24 was designed (following Gray) as reflected in the up coming discussions by capturing the views of the experts on the appropriate strategies which should be engaged for the planning process for tourism education and training in the context of Dominica.
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Table 24: Design of Framework for Collaborative Planning Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivating Factors</th>
<th>Exchange of Information among legitimate stakeholders</th>
<th>Joint agreement on national tourism education and training policy and plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advancing shared vision</strong></td>
<td><strong>Appreciate planning</strong>  Search consultations  Community and town hall meetings</td>
<td><strong>Collective strategies</strong>  Public-private partnerships  Joint ventures &amp; network formation  Research and development consortia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resolving conflict</strong></td>
<td><strong>Dialogues</strong>  Policy dialogues  Departmental and sub sector meetings</td>
<td><strong>Negotiated settlements</strong>  Regulatory negotiation  Site-specific disputes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Gray (1989:179)

In the Dominican setting, one policy maker expert opines, there has to be that high level of national collaboration between ministries, within departments, various industry stakeholders and the tourism education policy makers and the teachers (APRI.13). As illustrated in table 24, such collaboration allows these legitimate actors an avenue for active participation and for arriving at collective strategies during the planning phase.

From the perspective of the collaborative approach, this feature is important to Dominica, for as a tourism expert indicated, “though the Ministry of Education had some of the best technical skills in human resources, they would not be able to drive a national tourism education programme without a collaborative effort from other stakeholders” (ATOU.19). That is because within the context of a small island, with its numerous limitations joint efforts among relevant government departments and private sector agencies and institutions was deemed critical to pursuit of a national direction for tourism education and training.

In addition, through consultation, a cross section of issues relevant to a lifelong approach to the problem domain, as well as the interest of various actors could be raised and considered; a feature facilitated during the appreciative planning stage.
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Of particular importance, in this locale, was the usefulness of collaboration in ensuring the appropriateness of curriculum content to the needs of the local industry. Therefore, joint planning was viewed as necessary in ensuring a shared vision among the different levels of educators and the industry stakeholders. As one expert suggested,

I think it should be a tripartite kind of thing; everybody coming together with one common goal and all of us heading in the same direction. So when we teach, what we teach in the schools it is the same thing that the private sector wants the children to know; is the same skills that they want them to develop. (BEDU.09)

In that regard, the experts felt that a collaborative approach would enhance the implementation of a suitable curriculum. Thus, in employing a holistic and strategically designed collaboration, stakeholders could engage in dialogue on a range of planning issues and interests in arriving at a satisfactory and content relevant tourism education and training policy and curriculum plan for Dominica.

However, the experts highlighted the importance of co-ordination of stakeholders and maintenance of their interest and motivation levels in the planning and implementation of programmes (BEDU.13). Effective management of the collaboration was therefore critical to success of this approach. As reflected in table 24, this is facilitated through negotiated settlements between the various groups of actors and serves as a method of addressing the role conflict issues encountered. Thus, the importance of building strong stakeholder networks was also viewed as pivotal in the Dominican situation.

10.2.4 Maximum Stakeholder Involvement

In previous discussions it was shown that the experts emphasised the strong need for a holistic, strategic and collaborative approach to addressing a national approach to tourism education and training. But, despite evidence in various consultation reports (Valiant 2004) of engagement in public consultation during past planning initiatives, some stakeholders still complained of feelings of segregation and alienation from the planning and decision making process. For instance, one expert remarked “the
masterplan is basically a creature of the Ministry of Tourism; that is, sort of owned by Tourism and not necessarily has any kind of ownership from anybody else” (CPUB.10). Thus, the importance of maximum stakeholder involvement and establishing strong partnership between and among all the relevant institutions and organisations was advocated as an essential strategy for the advancement of tourism education and training locally. In support of that view one tourism expert said,

I think if we had a partnership, where people felt as a private sector we have a stake, not just an ownership stake, but a decision making stake, so that we would be influencing the direction of the institution [State College], because that institution is going to provide us with the managers and the front line people that are going to make our business successful...that would...encourage much more of a give and take between the public and private [sector players]. (ATOU.18)

In the literature, many authors (Murphy 1983; Gray 1985; Gray 1988; Gunn 1988; Haywood 1988; Inskeep 1991; Lewis 2005a, Lewis 2005b among others) recommended that engaging stakeholders from the onset of a planning exercise is the most effective means of ensuring maximum participation and ownership of the plan during the implementation phases. In earlier discussions it was shown that some experts (largely tourism policy and industry stakeholders) acknowledged the existence of the Tourism 2010 Policy and tourism masterplan. However, it was also demonstrated that a wide cross section of experts either were unclear or totally unaware of the national tourism positioning. Moreover, the educators who had the responsibility for educating and training the human resources for the sector felt divorced form the national tourism agenda.

Interestingly, as stated earlier, in Dominica the popular slogan ‘tourism is everybody’s business’ (AEDU.08) has been widely used and accepted. As a consequence, this motto was often referenced by the experts to expound the view that all key stakeholders, at different levels of the education system, as well as the tourism industry, should be involved in the national planning process. To illustrate this point, one expert commented,
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... at the end of the day is one song we singing ... tourism education and development ... for Dominica ... holistic development .... strategic education and training...targeting all or most of the key sectors ... [and] there must be a strong participatory approach of all the different stakeholders which would led to ownership of the programme. (APUB.03)

Sharing a similar view another expert commented, "we need our local people with the wealth of knowledge and we need to bring these people together; have a meeting of the minds!" (AEDU.06). Adding further on the benefits of this approach yet another expert pointed out, "developing a curriculum, it is not easy; it’s not something that can be done 'en passa'\(^\text{17}\); ...so if it can be done in tandem; if you have service providers or stake holders ...who have experience and can contribute ... I think they should work together" (ATOU.21).

Stakeholder theory (Gray 1988; Gunn 1988, Haywood 1988, Inskeep 1991; Murphy 1983) also indicates that stakeholders should be involved as early as possible at the design stage of the planning process in order to avoid political and technical problems (Gray 1985). Moreover, as alluded before all legitimate stakeholders should have the right and capacity to contribute in the collaboration process. This means that any stakeholder who will be affected by the decisions made have a right to participate, but such a stakeholder must have the relevant knowledge, skills and resources required to impact the process, in order to earn that right to be involved.

For Bramwell and Sharman (1998), effective collaboration depends largely on the initial selection process and the extent to which the stakeholders involved are representative of the various interest groups and actors which exist in the wider society. They hold this is critical to ensure that everyone has a voice in the decision making and planning process. In addition, the individual members participating in the collaboration must be knowledgeable of the standpoints and ideology of the relevant stakeholder groups that they represent; a situation which would ensure that a true account of the ideas and concerns of these groups are accurately communicated during the planning process.

\(^{17}\) with a casual attitude
Among additional benefits cited by experts who were strong advocates of stakeholder involvement were, provision of a means through partnership to address: (1) the cost of education and training; (2) the current lack of training infrastructure; (3) the deficiency in human resources expertise. Hence, wide spread stakeholder inclusion in the planning process was viewed as providing a win-win situation for all parties involved.

The literature presents two frameworks through which this phenomenon can be addressed. First, inter-organisational collaboration, to the extent that it allows the actors in the various organisations to take ownership for the plans developed, can be deemed as a means of ensuring consensus and efficiency of implementation (Susskind & Elliot 1983). As opined by Bramwell and Sharman (1998) transfer of ownership of the agreed plans leads to possible marginalisation of the course of action. This is another argument which seems to favour anticipated implementers being co-opted very early in the process and remaining an active part from the direction-setting phase through partnership arrangements.

Second, Mandell (1999) suggests that collaborative networks present an approach for achieving effective policy outcomes. This she argues is very important as resources become more limited [particularly in small island developing states] and public programmes fail to meet expectations. Thus, network structures are formed when actors working as individual units while linked to other actors, are unable to achieve success on their own (Mandell 1999; Batt & Purchase 2004). The networks involve the simultaneous action of actors towards a common aim; but these actions Mandell (1999) explains are representative of the activities of the individual organisations or institutions involved. In Dominica’s case, one tourism expert illustrated how collaborative networks could benefit the sector,

Well I think private sector participation has to be directly associated .... The other day for example, we\textsuperscript{18} got funding, and we did training for almost twenty dive masters, we had a comprehensive program which took a couple months, the students left there knowing quite a bit, well just private sector, and we got funding from some overseas operation and that’s good... (BTOU.26)

\textsuperscript{18} Dominica Dive Association
Advancing the concept further he shared,

What I am saying instead of having a permanent structure in place, I think you would have to do periodic things! For example, ... all our front desk staff could be trained right through the island ... we could have the bartender staff move from property to property. For example, we know we have a course going and we have twenty bartenders attending the course, Hotel X has a Friday night thing, we send them 4 bartenders to intern with them; and on the understanding that they must behave themselves, if they getting confusion with down there, they out of the course, and you can do the same thing with Property Y ... when there is a wedding or dinner and that kind of thing. We can all make it happen, but it needs to be coordinated. (BTOU.26)

By utilising the above scenario, this expert sought to exemplify a key principle of collaborative networks. That is, networks are usually more useful when formed around knowledge bases which allow for the maximisation of knowledge sharing (Batt & Purchase 2004). Hence, the level of the network’s interdependency-reliance is useful in ensuring the collaborative relationship is successfully maintained. Accordingly, it can be argued that the formation of meaningful networks is beneficial in seeking to ensure that the collaboration process is deemed as having added value to all the actors involved. Therefore, as shown, reciprocity and reliance are two important features of successful network collaborations (Batt & Purchase 2004).

Thus far, the chapter explored the concepts shared by the experts about the process of a national approach to tourism education and training suitable for the Commonwealth of Dominica. In the next section of the chapter the thesis will advance these interpretations and understandings which emerged from the data by applying them to a conceptual framework advocated by Amoah & Baum (1997) utilised in the said problem domain of this investigation, a ‘national planning approach to tourism education and training’ relevant to the context of a Small Island Developing State, more specifically, the Commonwealth of Dominica.

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19 Tourism training institute
10.3 Tourism Education & Training: a strategic, holistic and collaborative approach

Goeldner & Ritchie (2003 cited in Chaisawat 2006) define tourism policy as “a set of regulations, rules, guidelines, directives and development/promotion objectives and strategies that provide a framework within which collective and individual decisions directly affecting long-term tourism development and the daily activities within a destination are taken”. Furthermore many writers (Akehurst 1992; Godfrey & Clarke 2000; Scheyvens 2002) view policy development as a good strategy for the development of the tourism sector.

A central concept underpinning the key argument of this thesis (and supported in the literature) is that, since tourism is a labour intensive service industry (Amoah & Baum 1997; The Canadian Tourism Human Resource Council 2008; Cowell & Crick 2004; Harrison 2004; Zagonari 2009), for destinations to be competitive and offer high quality products, engaging in human resources as a developmental strategy, is critical. Thus, as advised by Amoah and Baum (1997) tourism education and training policy should be directly linked with the general tourism development and education policies. Accordingly, they suggest that:

“education, backed by clear and sound polices, can improve the prospects for tourism’s human resources, thus making education highly significant to the overall human resource climate within tourism” (Amoah & Baum 1997)

It may be argued that this is more relevant in such an era of regionalisation, globalisation, environmental changes and unstable markets. Additionally, such policy should provide a balance between professional skills, basic knowledge and product specialisations (Zagonari 2009). In Zagonari’s opinion these involve developing abilities to address the (1) immediate needs of tourism enterprises (2) future demands of tourism and (3) the future need of customers. However, Amoah & Baum (1997) argue that little policy or strategic planning is placed on tourism education and training which would lead to varying curricula and training approaches based on the level of needs. As Zagonari (2009) contends even today a lack of binding policy on course contents continues to exist.
Hence, as demonstrated in this study, it is not uncommon for policies to remain nothing more than political documents which are rarely translated into action. Therefore, this thesis supports the claim that a national tourism education and training policy should be carefully structured to embrace the diverse and dynamic nature of the specific context of the tourism industry while addressing the goals of the education system within which it operates.

In so doing, it should take into consideration all tourism segments and stakeholders, as well as other sectors of the economy to which the industry is closely linked. But more importantly, it must be accompanied by a thorough plan of execution. As with all other policies, tourism education and training policy formation should involve setting clear objectives and establishing priorities. Also important is identifying the varying roles of central and local government and agencies, and the private sector, particularly national tourism organisations.

But, as shown in this research, very often tourism businesses with minimum resources have no structured policy on training. Besides, at the level of the industry it is not uncommon to notice an absence of a culture of continuous training (CERT 2003). The general view is that training of staff could be a potential loss of investment as employees may move to a competitor where better pay and working conditions exist. Therefore, as reflected in the case of Dominica, the industry tends to depend heavily on government to provide highly qualified trained personnel. At the same time, policy developed solely by educators is at times viewed as out of touch with the reality of the industry.

Arguably then, a good strategy for advancing sound tourism education and training policy should involve both set of players (industry stakeholders and educators) jointly partaking in policy formation and implementation. As shown throughout the data findings this philosophy was strongly supported by the Dominican experts.

In chapter five, The Tourism Education Policy – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework (refer figure 6) proposed by Amoah and Baum (1997) was shown to represent a model by which collaboration between tourism and education actors could be advanced as an effective and relevant national tourism
education planning process. Players within both the tourism and education environment impact on, and interact to help develop policy to guide and govern the activities of their respective domains. According to Amoah and Baum, convergence of the tourism and education policy positions should seek to eliminate the *ad hoc* implementation of tourism education, which in Dominica’s case was the predominate approach.

**Figure 6: Tourism Education Policy-Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) Conceptual Framework**

![Diagram](image)

Key:  
- - - - - Existing *ad hoc* policy/implementation consultation

- - - - Desired policy and implementation process

Source: Amoah & Baum (1997)

As illustrated in figure 6, when there is no governing policy direction, the main force (shown by dotted lines) determining trends in tourism human resource development originate from within the tourism and education environment(s). Thus, as explained by Amoah and Baum (1997) the decisions made are likely to be biased towards the most influential of these forces. In the case of Dominica, as shown in the earlier
discussions in chapter nine, such influence is held within the structures and organisations with the most power, the government bureaucracies. However, Amoah and Baum (1997) explain that guided by a tourism education policy there would be: (1) a systematic process for delivery of tourism education in line with the national tourism policy (2) avoidance of an *ad hoc* approach which results in disparity, debate and discontentment (3) better policy making strategy in the area of human resource issues among others.

However, it must be noted that this framework pays no attention to the structural dynamics within which tourism education training policy plans are designed, developed and implemented. This thesis contends, and the data has revealed that from the standpoint of a Small Island Developing State it is imperative that the relevant principles, structures, operating power dynamics and process is considered as a whole. The empirical findings of this research have also shown that in the case of SIDS role conflicts, departmentalisation, dependency syndrome and politics greatly impinge on policy formation and plan implementation in the area of tourism education and training. Further, the findings indicate that for effective strategy and policy formation much collaboration is essential for small islands marked with numerous and wide ranging limitations. This, the experts strongly recommended should be a holistic approach coordinated by a centralised tourism and education (stakeholder representative) body.

Thus, as later illustrated in figure 7 the thesis takes it point of differentiation from Amoah & Baum's approach by proffering a structure-policy perspective to the conceptual framework. From the standpoint of a Small Island Developing State operating within this revised framework allowance is made for and significance is given to the specificity of the nature and peculiarities of the education and training structures, their respective decision making processes and management styles and the challenges that they encounter.

In support of the concept of a central planning approach for Dominica an expert opined, "all the key sectors should come together, [and] try and have some kind of integrated approach to the whole tourism education thrust, because it impinges and it
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touches every other sector in the economy" (ATOU.21). Advancing that idea, according to a public sector expert,

... it needs to be a collaborative effort between Education and Tourism to come up with a National Policy, a National Plan...we have to probably form a committee of persons with representatives from each of those ...ministries, key stake holders and to come together to look at the whole issue of everything that we would need to do and then put together a plan so that we can take it forward. (CPUB.11)

Yet still, others suggested it needs to be “a coordinated mechanism ... [of] a national education and training planning committee” (CTOU.07) or a “central planning bureau” (CPUB.06) operating from a national policy position (CTOU.02).

However, one policy maker within the government service holding a different viewpoint expressed doubt about the need for a formalised response to addressing national tourism education and training. In contemplation he stated,

The question I am asking myself as you ask that question is, are we over playing the role that formal education, and formal structures have in influencing outcomes in our context. I am asking myself that question aloud because the thing is we might be confident that more formalised structures, more formalised coordinating bodies, more formalised institutions that respond to reports, and programmes and plans and manifestos and policies and all those types of things, will take us to some kind of utopia somewhere in terms of tourism achievement. I am not sure; and the question is there any examples? (CPUB.10)

But, as discussed previously the Tourism Education Policy – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-PEI) conceptual framework advocated by Amoah & Baum (1997) presents a useful model for engrossing stakeholders in a national planning exercise for tourism education and training. In the Dominican context application of a revised framework illustrated below in figure 7 would facilitate a structured approach.

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20 Tourism education and training
As shown in figure 7, and recommended by the experts, for Dominica, this would entail involving formation of a national tourism education and training council. Such a council would comprise of legitimate member representation from the education structures (The Ministry of Education and its department, the school, the Dominica State College and other private sector training institutions/organisations) and the tourism structures (The Ministry of Tourism, Discover Dominica Authority, Dominica Hotel and Tourism Association, and other industry stakeholders).

Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged here that even within this proposed national structure new process and power dynamic would arise and therefore effort would have to be placed on understanding and also addressing these as they occur. Nonetheless, this approach proffers a framework for conceptualising the current planning deficiencies as observed.
Chapter 10: Process

The major problem addressed by this adapted framework is the elimination of the *ad hoc* planning approach which was of major concern to the experts. Throughout the previous discussions it was shown that the experts believed that in an island context a structured approach was critical. It was also revealed that the formation of a single coordinating national body was deemed best for the island to facilitate pooling of resources and effective utilisation of the existing sparse experts knowledge. This framework therefore departs from the policy approach of Amoah and Baum (1997) by inclusion of the structural elements to the conceptual framework.

Consistent with Amoah and Baum (1997) policy approach however, employing the revised TEP-TEI Conceptual Framework would allow for building stronger partnerships between and among the major players, enabling the development of a focused and strategic policy driven approach tailored to the Dominican context. Moreover, through this conceptual framework the principles of strategy development can be engaged to arrive at a holistic plan giving consideration to all tourism sectors and levels of education. Further, by employing the key principles of collaboration theory (discussed previously) a shared vision for advancing tourism education and training in Dominica could be facilitated. Equally important is the possibility of efficiently addressing the variety of resource limitations cited in the details of this case.

Thus, the constructions which emerged out of this investigation support and underpinned the development of this revised conceptual framework for a national approach to tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

In addition, these concepts could be advanced through further research for it practical application and efficiency in the same and similar settings (see chapter 11).

10.4 Conclusions

In this chapter the fourth main theme - process - arising from the data was presented and then advanced. First, the current process employed for planning tourism education and training was examined. Accordingly, the views of the experts appear to
confirm that planning for tourism education and training in Dominica is *ad hoc* and not well suited to the local tourism context. That being the case, the experts advocated for a strategic, holistic and collaborative approach in achieving the long term goals and visions as outlined in Dominica’s tourism policy and master plan. Further, the experts held that proper planning is essential in satisfying the manpower training needs for the tourism industry as identified in the Valiant’s (2004) consultancy report.

For that reason, an approach proposed by (Gray 1989) for developing a collaborative planning design was explored and then adapted for its strengths as a suitable approach for utilisation in Dominica. The key ideas of appreciative planning, collective strategies, and continuous dialogue among and between organisations and key stakeholders were all deemed as pivotal in any new approach adopted within the Dominican context. Also important were the concepts of negotiated settlements in helping address the commonly observed issues and challenges related to departmentalisation and power relations among key players.

Additionally, the Tourism Education Policy – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-PEI) conceptual framework presented by Amoah & Baum (1997) was explored for its usefulness in conceptualising an approach for planning tourism education and training within the context of a Small Island Developing State, specifically the Commonwealth of Dominica. As expressed by the experts, in the case of Dominica, what seems to be relevant is a structured policy-driven collaborative approach. Further, such a strategy should be comprehensive, taking into consideration at the needs and interests of all relevant stakeholders, while adopting a lifelong education and training perspective spanning across all the various levels of the Dominican education and training system.
Chapter Eleven: Conclusions and Recommendations

11.1 Introduction

This final chapter of the thesis presents a recap of the main research focus and objectives in section 11.2. And it also seeks to examine the extent to which these have been achieved. Accordingly, the key findings of the investigation are discussed in section 11.3, noting the point of departure of this investigation. The contributions of the study are also proffered (section 11.4) before focusing on the reflections and limitations of the study for the benefit of the reader. In addition, the main implications of the research to tourism education and training are explored in section 11.6 and finally in section 11.7 recommendations for future works are highlighted.

11.2 Review of Research Focus and Objectives

The study sought to investigate and critically analyse the approach to national planning for tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica. Specifically, the research aimed at gaining deeper understanding of planning approaches suitable within the context and challenges of a Small Island Developing State. In that regard, the main objectives of the study were:

1. To identify and discuss the key principles of education and training and their relevance to the characteristics of the education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

2. To critically review the key characteristics of tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica and its relevance to the local industry.

3. To analyse the planning and implementation process of tourism education and training at the different levels of the education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.
4. To examine the key structures of the organisations and institutions involved in tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

5. To assess power relations within organisations and institutions and their relevance to the characteristics and challenges of the tourism industry and education and training system in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

6. To critically explore and apply expert opinion of the major issues and challenges encountered in planning tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

The central arguments were based on the premise that the existing literature does not adequately address issues related to national planning for tourism education and training needs within the context of small islands. Education programmes for development, Hegarty (1990) contends, must be placed in the context of the needs of the society. Further, Hegarty continues, such programmes must be interconnected with well conceived development plans. Therefore, for Dominica, which has a fairly immature tourism industry and since the government had singled out tourism as part of its developmental strategy, this investigation was of much relevance. To gain deeper insight into the research puzzle, the study took on an exploratory format.

Special emphasis was placed on the significance of the Small Island Developing State research context. Also, the importance of efficacy in planning for a high quality labour force to serve the Dominican tourism industry as a national development strategy was underscored. Of consequence to this study was the fact that formal tourism education and training was relatively new and no higher education tourism programmes were offered on the island.

Central to the pivotal arguments of this study, the literature showed that the tourism curriculum should be framed in terms of the local tourism product, setting and culture (Lewis 2005a). In addition, the utility of the national curriculum for establishing and maintaining continuity throughout the various levels of the education system was of much importance to this research. Additionally, post secondary industry training was...
Chapter 11: Conclusions and Recommendations

deemed essential in addressing the varied needs and interests of stakeholders. Structural designs, specifically simple, flat structures and hierarchal type structures were considered pertinent as planning for tourism education and training occurs within and between tourism organisations and education institutions. Of equal consequence were the power relations in and around these organisations and institutions for the impact they had on the planning process. As such planning approaches, more particularly, strategic, holistic, collaborative and stakeholder planning initiatives, as well as the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework (Amoah & Baum 1997) were explored and considered applicable to the Dominican context.

The research was grounded the interpretive inquiry paradigm; with QSR Nivo 7 employed in conjunction with procedures advocated by Tesch (1990) in analysing the voluminous data obtained from 65 expert interviews. Care was taken to ensure the different perspectives among the experts were represented; while caution was exercised to limit the impact of the researcher on the investigation. This is a central principle in securing the sound quality of the research and also helps to establish points of tension and addressing anomalies or conflicting evidence in the data (Erickson 1986). Through the experts’ voices, understanding and meaning making of the research puzzle led to four major themes – principles, structures, power, and process – emerging out of the data set. These concepts are elaborated on in the next section of the chapter.

11.3 Summary of Key Findings

In addressing the first research objective, the findings of this research were found to be in keeping with most western literature on general education, training, and tourism education and training concepts. The data showed that in the Commonwealth of Dominica, education was conceived as pivotal to knowledge acquisition and transmission for development of the whole person to allow for (1) the better good of society and (2) meaningful contribution to national development. As in the literature, training was largely viewed as short term, job oriented and aimed at fulfilling very particular objectives.
Support a more inclusive policy-driven, structured and collaborative approach.

Generally, experts were unsatisfied with the current planning approach and seemed to strongly

domain weaknesses and limitations encountered in preparing

and planning system in the Commonwealth

and challenges of the tourism industry and education

museums and their relevance to the characteristics and

sector policies and planning bodies and education institutions are still hierarchical externally.

Generally the tourism sector comprises small, flat hierarchially structured institutions with the public

holistic, inclusive and collaborative process

appraisal of the sector's appraisal, key among them being advocacy for a more participatory, more structured approach and recommendations were proposed for

museums and their relevance to the Commonwealth of

Concerned mainly with part of the social and cultural elements, the schools' experiences largely

assessment of the image of tourism is weak and not viewed as a distinct body of knowledge.

prominently among the views of experts

sustainability, cultural preservation and advancement and general national development framework.

resulted from an institutional perspective, however, education and training was largely

research funding in keeping with the current heritage. However, education and training was largely

Table 2. The Link between Research Objectives and Findings

Chapter II: Conclusions and Recommendations
In fulfilment of the first research objective, as reflected in table 25, central to the findings of the study was the importance of tourism education and training as a national strategy for socio-economic development in the context of a Small Island Developing State with limited resources and raw material on which to advance a manufacturing sector or industry. The research also found that in Dominica, the tourism industry was widely recognised as a crucial strategy to cultural preservation and advancement. Moreover, the importance of a readily available supply of high quality professional human resources to lead and manage the industry towards sustainable development was of particular relevance to such islands.

These findings were all consistent to the extant literature (Layne 1993; Lewis 2005a). In Dominica the data supports previous reports which indicated that there was a huge dearth in professional and expert resources to drive the development of tourism education and training. For these reasons, as well as a strong instrumentalist perspective, tourism education and training was seen as a key developmental strategy. But, of particular concern was the lack of significance tourism education and training was assigned in accomplishing these goals.

The findings also showed (in relation to the second objective) that in Dominica, tourism education and training was not currently viewed as a distinct subject but a softer academic area which could be subsumed or otherwise integrated into the general curriculum. The research further revealed that tourism education was currently taught in a limited manner as one module of social studies. It was introduced from early childhood education and then continued through primary, secondary and tertiary education at the Dominica State College. The data also pointed to the claim that in Dominica Tourism education and training is conceptualised largely from an instrumentalist perspective. And the further assertion that the liberal dimensions to tourism education and training received secondary importance as a consequence of more immediate needs of the local tourism industry.

What is more, the findings revealed that planning and implementation of tourism education and training (third objective) was *ad hoc*, unsustainable and void of a concerted national approach. However, empirical results disclosed that the current
approach was not well supported among a wide cross section of stakeholders. The research suggested that a number of resource and structural constraints were among the main contributing factors to the lack of prominence tourism currently received within the formal and informal education and training system.

In shedding insight to the fourth research objective, it was noted that tourism enterprises in Dominica were mostly simple, flat structures with a high level of internal centralisation. In contrast, the education system and public tourism organisations were that of a typical government bureaucracy, having a more complex network and tall structural design. It was further shown that these varied design configurations contributed to a complex set of dynamics in the interaction of the key actors in planning for tourism education and training.

Additionally, the findings seemed to confirm that the nature, design, configuration and management style of the educational institutions and tourism organisations was deemed closely linked to the accomplishment of goals and objectives. These features were revealed to affect how decisions were made during the national planning process. Furthermore, due to the wide and varied range of structural goals, objectives and interests of the different actors involved in tourism education and training the planning processes were generally described as problematic.

In relation to the fifth and sixth research objective, numerous issues and challenges in the area of authority, role conflicts, weak leadership, heavy dependency on foreign international donor agencies, limited resources, and politics, introduced power dynamics into what was already viewed as a fragmented process. Thus, as in the literature, national planning for tourism education and training in this small island was also conceptualised as a messy process involving a wide and diverse range of actors and stakeholders. The multidisciplinarity of tourism (Tribe 1997) and the backward and forward linkages which existed within the industry meant that such a process was as complex as the nature of the structures involved.

Additionally, the findings identified a strategically policy-driven, holistic, collaborative planning process as essential to facilitating the highest level of
stakeholder involvement (fifth objective). Also, it was recommended that formation of strong partnership through networks would allow for effective implementation of a shared vision for the advancement of tourism education and training on the island. This was proposed to ensure ownership of policy and programmes planned and greater efficiency due to sharing of resources, knowledge and skills; a strategy propositioned as holding particular significance in the context of a Small Island Developing State.

The two most significant findings of the study in the context of Dominica discussed in greater detail in section 11.4 below were:

- the suggestion of a lifelong approach to tourism education and training commencing at early childhood education right through continuing education and training. The claim made in this thesis is that a lifelong approach could present an efficient framework for advancing tourism as an academic field within the context of a Small Island Developing State void of tourism higher education opportunities.

- a structured tourism education and training planning approach through a national council, utilising a policy-driven strategic, holistic and collaborative framework was strongly advocated for the island. Thus, the adaptation of the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework (Amoah & Baum 1997) offers a useful measure for arriving at an efficient national system for advancing tourism education and training through a national planning council.

11.4 Contributions of the Study

This study takes as its point of departure a national approach to the exploration of the research puzzle and offers contribution to the body of tourism knowledge in the following three main areas:
Chapter 11: Conclusions and Recommendations

1. The study provides a unique and in-depth understanding of the complexity of planning for tourism education and training within the specific context of a Small Island Developing State, the Commonwealth of Dominica.

2. The study presents the articulation of a lifelong approach to tourism education and training; this is particularly significant for Island States void of higher learning institutions offering programmes in tourism education and training.

3. The study advances the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework adapted from Amoah & Baum (1997) through application of a structured contextual approach. These will now be discussed in further detail.

Accordingly, first, the study provides a unique and in-depth understanding of the complexity of planning for tourism education and training within the specific context of a Small Island Developing State, the Commonwealth of Dominica. By adopting such a comprehensive approach the study encompasses all the elements within the local research environment which impacted the phenomenon under investigation. Thus, the study involved actors within the relevant institutions, national education system and tourism system on the island. In that regard the study offers an in-depth understanding of national tourism education and training planning for a small island. In so doing, this research presents a broad perspective of the complex process of planning for tourism education and training for islands devoid of graduate and post graduate tourism education programmes. The current literature in contrast is biased towards tourism higher education, tourism development or specific sub sectors within the field of tourism. Therefore, the study adds to the exiting tourism education and training planning literature on Island States.

Through empirical data the study was able to provide evidence in support of the multifaceted nature of national tourism education and training planning. Distinctively, the study proffers an island perspective of the relationship between the key principles of education and training, the structures involved and the impact of power dynamics on the national planning process. In establishing a theoretical link with the data the study claims that the most appropriate approach to national tourism education and training within this island context should be strategically driven,
holistic and collaborative. In view of that, the study advances fundamental planning principles by drawing primarily on the concepts of strategic, collaboration and collaboration network theory. Application of this approach to national tourism education and training within an island context is novel.

Further, the tourism education debate is largely centred on the developed and Western world and its challenges. Very little research exists on the Caribbean region and among the few, the focal point remains as already stated, in the realm of tourism higher education. Besides, unlike past research which often featured one level of the formal education system, this study took into consideration all the levels of formal and informal education. In addition, the study also included within its scope, tourism training. That being the case, this study represents a different perspective to tourism education and training, as best said in the voice of an expert, from the standpoint of the "womb to the tomb" (AEDU.07).

Accordingly, another important contribution is the concept of the lifelong approach to tourism education and training. Over time the learner, as occur elsewhere, interfaces with both the formal and informal education and training system in Dominica. As the learner progresses through the various levels of education and training from early childhood up to tertiary, adult and continuing education and industry training, opportunities offered and gained by interactions with various education and tourism institutions contribute to lifelong tourism learning experiences.

In an ideal situation one would expect a continuous and increased level of education and training, however, in the current ad hoc situation tourism begins sparingly at early childhood education, with general product awareness. Exposure to tourism education and training continues in an ad hoc fashion as part of social studies at the primary and secondary level, with a heavy concentration at the upper level of post secondary education and industry training.

However, this thesis argues that tourism concepts developed through a spiralled curriculum from the 'womb to the tomb' would serve to facilitate smooth continuity and sustainability of a national approach; two key principles of primary importance to
the lifelong learning. The ultimate goal of the proposed approach therefore would be to strive 'as far as possible' to move towards attainment of the ideal.

For a Small Island Developing State, the formal school system and its various levels of learning takes on special meaning to national development and fulfilment of governments' developmental strategy, goals and vision. Thus, a lifelong approach to education and training is proposed in this thesis as pivotal to any national tourism education and training plan. But more importantly, in the Commonwealth of Dominica, which currently has no institute of higher education with a programme offering in tourism education and training, this phenomenon is critical.

And so, the third key contribution is in the area of the planning process and proffers a structural model (refer figure 8 and detailed discussion in chapter 10) to the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) conceptual framework (Amoah & Baum 1997). This study provides primary evidence in widespread support for a structured policy driven national tourism education and training planning process. Currently, the predominant complaint in Dominica and reflected in existing reports (Valiant 2004) is the lack of a planned, coordinated and holistic national approach to the development of tourism human resources. Hence, this thesis argues that arriving at a tourism education and training policy was only part of the solution.

That being the case, in the context of such a small island beset with various power challenges and resource limitations, the concept of a central planning approach presents a means for conflict resolution among key actors and arriving at a shared vision for advancing tourism as an academic area. Importantly, the all inclusive element facilitates a holistic system giving legitimate actors an opportunity for the highest level of participation and ownership.

Thus, as illustrated in figure 8 which follows (and already fully discussed in chapter ten) this study posits that employing a strategic, holistic and collaborative planning approach allowing for maximum stakeholder involvement throughout all stages from design conceptualisation to the final plan implementation stage within the Tourism
Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation (TEP-TEI) framework allows for a structured-policy plan and implementation process.

**Figure 8: Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation Structural Model**

In advancing this conceptual framework, this study suggests a useful tool for national tourism education and training planning, within the structure of a National Tourism Education and Training Council to include representation from the various education and tourism structures and their relevant stakeholder interests. Through this structural framework the activities and vision of key players are collaboratively facilitated.

### 11.5 Reflections and Limitations of the Study

This explorative interpretive investigation can be associated to a number of limitations. The researcher introduced into the study, as discussed in chapter seven
her own biases as an insider researcher. Reflexively, (as explained in detail chapter seven; see page 164) the subjective position of the researcher helped frame questions explored and general research debate. Likewise, having prior knowledge of the problem pursued could have served to influence the data analysis process and selection of voices presented in the data set. Therefore, the researcher sought to adopt a reflexive stance throughout the process. Nevertheless, the researcher acknowledges that some level of bias is inevitable in the interpretive qualitative research design.

To obtain expert knowledge about the case, a purposive sample was essential. However, since a large part of the sample comprised of actors involved in policy and planning and/or stakeholders with direct interest in tourism education and training an allowance must be made for possible bias among the respondents. To address this possible weakness in the sample as shown in table 15 some experts not directly involved in tourism education and training but part of the national planning process were included in the sample. In addition, social critics and commentators, specifically the environmentalist, of particular relevance to this case were represented.

The interview process is interactional and both the researcher and subjects impact on each other and produce interpretations, meaning and understanding as the dialectic process unfolded. Thus, knowledge creation was framed within the conceptualisations and meaning making of the individual experiences of the participants in the interviews. As such, it was not uncommon that different experts viewed similar situations in vast and varied ways. That being the so, the decisions on voice representation would be impacted by the story told by the researcher.

Though data saturation was reached before exiting the field, time constraints on completion of this research project did not allow for a longitudinal approach which is advised and favoured by some when studying single cases. Moreover, time did not permit a comparative study which is generally recommended in case study research.

Although a number of challenges emerged from the data findings as having significance during planning for tourism education and training this study did not seek to identify the level of importance each held within the local setting. However, the
thesis acknowledges that issues of small size, organisational and national politics, weak leadership and foreign aid dependency among others would each impact the planning process in different degrees. This phenomenon however can be further advanced through future research.

Also emerging from the data was the general concept of weaving of the curriculum to address the needs of the local tourism industry. Due to the widely held instrumentalist perspective on the island and strongly reflected among the experts the ideas of the infusion model (refer chapter three and eight) was strongly supported. Nevertheless, the thesis recognises that the national curriculum must also be designed to address and satisfy the broad principles of education and training thoroughly discussed in the above mentioned chapters. Thus, the collaborative approach advocated here offers the various actors and stakeholders a means for reaching consensus on such challenges.

Finally, the study of a single case limits the results to the specific setting and conclusions cannot be extended beyond the Commonwealth of Dominica. Nonetheless, current results could lead to further research as discussed in the following sections.

11.6 Implications for Tourism Education and Training

The empirical data of this research supports several key concepts in the theoretical debate on tourism education and training. As explained by Lewis (2005a), the study supports the view that the tourism education and training curriculum should be framed within its context. This phenomenon was strongly supported in this study, particularly, as experts opined, that the local tourism product was distinct from that of its neighbouring sister islands. As such, the study supports the idea of a clearly articulated and policy driven approach to tourism education and training.

However, the study challenges the notion that tourism has reached full maturity and no longer suffers from a weak image. The results suggest that in Dominica, much of
the earlier concerns of lack of a body of knowledge, teams of professionals and distinct theoretical underpinning still exist. Additionally, educators within the formal school system seemed equally challenged by issues of image, disciplinarity and curriculum framing.

As previously mentioned, earlier studies in the area of Caribbean tourism education and training have generally focussed on higher education. However, this study focused on tourism education concerns at the various levels of formal schooling. The findings support the basic concerns of age appropriate content for students’ level of readiness. But, it raised issues for debate on (1) the introduction of tourism as a distinct subject in the school’s curriculum and (2) at what level of schooling. More significantly, this research seems to suggest the need for debate on the development of a lifelong approach to tourism education and training, which could be advanced in a spiral fashion throughout the various stages and levels of learning.

Hence, this research has much implication for tourism education and training theoretical debate, as well as education and training practices within the context of Small Island Developing States. Accordingly, possible works for advancing these claims are suggested in section 11.7 below.

11.7 Future Research

This thesis proffers a foundation upon which the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation conceptual framework of Amoah & Baum (1997) can be advanced within the context of Small Island Developing States. This study revealed a notable gap in the general literature in tourism education and training with a primary focus on the needs of small islands tourism destinations. The thesis therefore presents a springboard on which additional research addressing the tourism education and training needs of Small Islands can proceed.

Accordingly, the main concepts about national tourism education and training planning from an island perspective which emerged from this investigation could be
further investigated and the main claims made developed to build on the understanding of the phenomenon and to provide guidance to national policy practitioners as well as academics. Such works could contribute to the development of tourism knowledge for its own right.

Moreover, the time constraint of completion of this investigation did not allow the researcher to engage in a longitudinal study which would have been useful for the verification of the main findings. Thus, this research opens the door for further studies as discussed below. First, the structured conceptual framework proffered in this study could be critically evaluated through action research and/or other suitable methodologies to empirically verify the practical utility for Small Island Developing States of varying characteristics. Second, comparative studies which were not utilised in this investigation could be pursued to allow for deeper exploration leading to possible generalisability of findings.

Third, the debate on the lifelong approach to tourism education and training needs to be further developed. The existing gap in the literature in this area challenges arguments of the full maturity of tourism as an area of study, particularly within the context of Small Island Developing States. Generally, island tourism literature is largely focused on product, industry and development concerns creating a void in the formal tourism education and training debate as relevant to the educational structure and systems typical to small islands. This is of particular concern as small islands are often by nature tourism destinations and generally limited in higher education opportunities and arguably more focused on lifelong learning.

Fourth, and more importantly though, this study has practical implications for the Commonwealth of Dominica and presents a framework to inform practitioners in tourism education and training on the island. As such, the findings can be further advanced within the same environment through additional research with a view to develop a more specific and tailored conceptual structure and strategic policy-driven, holistic and collaborative design to develop national tourism education and training specifically for the Commonwealth of Dominica.
And finally, further studies on this planning approach in practice, explicitly the application of the Tourism Education Planning – Tourism Education Implementation structural conceptual framework in the Commonwealth of Dominica as proposed in this study are recommended. Future research could then involve empirical verification and further advancement of this approach and its underpinning concepts after a period of six to eight years. Thus, this comprehensive and 'womb to tomb' critical analysis of tourism education and training in the Commonwealth of Dominica, is of contextual significance for the island, has the potential of practical usefulness for other Small Island Developing States and added value to the broader tourism debate.
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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

PREPARATION FOR THE FIELD
The appendices represent a further audit trail to the research process. It includes extracts from the research dairy notes and instruments used for the investigation.

Appendix A deals with the events which took place prior to the actual field work. It contains the report of the initial field visit which occurred in October 2006. In addition, it includes correspondence from Dr. Eves from the ethics committee, Faculty of Management and Law, University of Surrey. Also shown is a sample request letter sent out to prospective interviewees soliciting their participation as part of the expert sample.

Included in appendix B is an example of the letter of consent provided to interviewees prior to commencement of each interview. In addition, this section contains the interview protocols which served as a guide (but not strictly direct) the interview process. As shown in that section of the appendices, the protocols were continuously adapted as the process unfolded. Evidence is also provided of the reflections on the data which further guided the investigation while still in the field.

Appendix C provided a sample interview which was analysed utilising QSR NVivo 7.

The final section appendix D provides reflections, instruments and outputs from the data analysis process.
This initial trip was mainly to obtain secondary information from key sectors and industry experts on the island. As a networking exercise informal meetings were held with the following persons:

- The President of the Dominica State College
- The Director of Tourism (ag)
- The Minister of Tourism
- The Chief Education Office
- The Chief Technical Officer Tourism
- The Senior Curriculum Officer, Curriculum Planning Unit
- The Senior Planning Officer, The Education Planning Unit
- The Community Tourism Development Officer Ecotourism Programme

Generally, the research concept was well received; it was deemed very valuable to the future development and advancement of tourism education and training on the island. Full endorsement of the area of research was obtained by the "key offices" and personnel of both the ministry of tourism, and ministry of education and its main planning units.

There was the suggestion by the president of the state college that the work being done should be limited to the needs and mandate of the Dominica State College as the institution is now being called upon to embrace the total responsibility of all government directed hospitality and tourism education & training programmes on the island. This idea would be facilitated by the researcher becoming a virtual member of staff at the institution, a concept being developed by the president of the state college. Nonetheless, this approach seemed limited in scope of the current research, and the option of utilising the college as the main implementer of the model being developed would work best under the current circumstances.

There was also a great level of discussion surrounding the possibility of entering into a joint partnership in tapping into some of the available sources of project funding under the 9th EU programme. However, due to the constraint of time and the proposal criteria this idea was not feasible at the moment; nonetheless the door was left open for future discussions on sourcing funds for the implementation of the final model as a national project.
Key Documents obtained on this trip:

- Tourism Policy Document
- Tourism Ten Year Master Plan (draft)
- National Curriculum Framework for Dominica 2006
- National Curriculum Guides, Social Sciences, Key Stage 1, Grades K, 1 & 2
- Synopsis of Tourism Courses, Dominica State College
- Proposal for Community Tourism Training in Dominica, Ecotourism Programme
- Eco-Tourism Development Programme, Community Training, Visioning and Strategic Planning for Community-Based Tourism in Dominica
- Community-Based Tourism Training Inception Report

Key issues to consider as work progresses

- Development of a model that has the Dominica State College as the key implementing agent (pursue concept of virtual affiliate)
- Developing an education & training model to reflect the vision of the tourism master plan
- The Man Power Training Plan and Policy consultancy 2004 final report (by Valiant) should form the spring board of model being developed
- Crafting a model that can be utilized across the Caribbean region (in sync with CSME principles / harmonization of the OECS curriculum
- Inclusion of music and sport tourism in the curriculum
- Current thrust in tourism E-marketing and the need for training
- Is the method to be adopted for the development of the model going to be top down or down up?
- Collaboration with other programme such as youth skills training programme
- Key: how is the model going to be useful to Dominica?
- Should there be a plan for adoption and or implementation?

Other Experts recommended for interviews on follow up visit to the island:

- Assistant Chief Education Officer
- Curriculum Officer
- Senior Education Officer secondary Schools
- Curriculum Officer Social Science
- Economist in Education Unit
- Statistician in Education Unit
- Research & Project Management Officer
- Principals and Teachers of primary and secondary schools
- Tourism Trainer, Caribbean Tourism Organisation
- Human Resource Officer, Caribbean Tourism Organisation
- Hotel PomMarine, Barbados
Violet

One the basis that it seems that you will not be interviewing staff or students from UniS, that there is no reason to believe that your questioning could be intrusive or cause offense, and that incentives are not involved, I agree that ethical consent is not needed. If, however, you interview UniS staff to pilot your approach, that would still need approval.

Good luck with your study!

Anita Eves
Best wishes,

Anita Eves

Dr Anita Eves
Reader in Food Management
University of Surrey

-----Original Message-----
From: Cuffy VV Ms (PG/R - SoM)
Sent: 05 July 2007 13:47
To: Eves A Dr (SoM)
Subject: 

Dear Dr Eves,

I am a second year PhD candidate, supervised by Prf John Tribe. I am now engaged in preparation for my upgrade and then to travel to the Caribbean for my field work.

I would like to know if I require ethical clearance from the school/university, and what is the procedure required? Do I need an appointment to discuss this matter further with you, or do I just submit a formal request. I am actually not sure if it would be required for my particular research type.

Please advice.

Violet

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UK
v.cuffy@surrey.ac.uk
Tel # 44 (0) 1483 682 117
Cell# 44 (0) 7932 730 931
Dear …………………

I am currently PhD researcher at the School of Management at the University of Surrey in the United Kingdom. My research focus is in the area of sustainable tourism education and training. More specifically, I am carrying out an investigation on the best suited planning approach for addressing the education and training needs of the tourism industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

To that end, I am currently conducting in-depth interviews with key players and stakeholders on the island. I would grateful if you would consent to an interview with me at your convenience. The interview will be for a period of forty five minutes to one hour. I am due to remain in Dominica until February 4th, 2008.

More than an exercise in partial completion to my doctoral studies, I hope the thesis document and its final output will make meaningful contribution to the development of the local tourism industry. More significantly, the research aims to directly address the critical issue of the development of a well suited and a high quality human resource supply, to meet the needs of the local tourism industry. Your interview will be very valuable in fulfilment of this process.

I will follow up with a telephone call to make the necessary arrangements of date, time and venue. However, I may be contacted by the following means:
Email: v.cuffy@surrey.ac.uk
Tel: 448-8417 (h) 285 7301 (mobile).

I thank you in anticipation of your participation in this research.

Sincerely,

Violet Cuffy
PhD Researcher
APPENDIX B

FIELD INVESTIGATION
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CONSENT FORM

Date: __________________ Version __________________

Project title: PhD Research Interviews Re Sustainable Tourism Education and Training

Researcher: Violet Cuffy ____________ ID No:

Please initial in the box

1. I confirm that I have understood the information explained about the above project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time. I understand that I can ask for any sensitive remarks to be removed from the record and that I am free to withhold information which I regard to be of a sensitive nature.

3. I understand that interview recording/transcripts will be anonymised and that transcripts will be stored within a locked filing cabinet within the research establishment and under the care of a designated custodian for a five years. This will be in accordance with the Data Protection Act, 1998.

4. I confirm that I have / have not agreed for the interview to be tape-recorded as part of the above study.

* please delete as appropriate

Name of interviewee ____________ Date ____________ Signature ____________

Name of researcher ____________ Date ____________ Signature ____________
FIRST ROUND OF INTERVIEWS
Interview Protocol (Guide only) First Round

The interview questions are developed under broad headings and divided into key questions guided by the literature and research objectives. The main research objectives are:

1. The research seeks to identify the key concepts, characteristics and challenges of the tourism industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica and assess the suitability of current tourism and hospitality education and training programmes locally to address the needs of the island’s tourism industry.

2. The research seeks to explore the principles comprising a strategic and holistic approach to tourism and hospitality education and training and how they are correlated to the local tourism industry and national development.

3. The research seeks to design and develop a strategic and holistic education and training model, which is tailored specifically to the tourism and hospitality industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

The interview sample comprise of key experts and stakeholders in the field of education, tourism, the public and the private sector giving a well rounded and balance selection of view points to the phenomenon under study. Multiple and varied views must exist to give credibility to the findings and conclusions drawn form the data.

Comments

John, I think a bit of information on the nature of the local tourism industry is critical, even not in detail; to avoid the proposed model being developed being designed in a vacuum, which is the central argument driving this thesis; the research statement and problem speaks strongly to this issue, though I can use secondary data in this area I think some fresh insight from the subjects would be useful for verification purposes. Also though some of these seem irrelevant I think they are good for laying the foundation of the interview, and if no one feels at this point education and training is not a challenge or tourism is not so pivotal to the island’s development it sort of falsifies my assumptions….again serves to verify the conclusions that will be drawn form the data….rather than allow my own biases and standpoint to read what is not there.
The following are the questions for the interview based on the (3) main research questions. Questions have been altered and combined in some cases in a double-barreled fashion to allow for depth in response style

A. What is the fundamental nature of the tourism industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica?

1. What would you say are the main areas of focus of the local tourism industry and what are the major challenges for the growth of the industry at the moment?

B. What role does or should education and training play in fulfilling the national tourism goals?

1. Tell me about your thoughts on the current tourism education and training programme on the island ............*does it meet the ends of the local tourism industry? And if no, what do you think can be done to make the program more suitable the industry’s needs? (if yes, how can it be better developed) *only use second half of one it necessary

 OR

2. How important do you think the tourism industry is to national development and how effective has the manpower training policy been? And how can tourism education and training be best designed to achieve the aims and goals of the manpower training policy and the national tourism vision for 2010?

Question (1) may be more suited to stakeholders and private sectors subjects, while (2) may be best addressed by the educators and key tourism experts and policy makers who would be familiar with the said documents.

* signals notes for benefit of interviewer
C. What education and training model would best fulfill the tourism human resource development needs on the island?

1. What vision do you have for tourism education and training on the island and what do you believe should be the main aims of tourism education and training locally? Should the national curriculum give more focus to tourism education and training and do you think that continuous tourism education and training is necessary for employees within and outside the tourism sector?

2. At what level or levels of the education system do you think that tourism education and training should be introduced? What are your views on the infusion of tourism into the primary curriculum; what approach do you think is best suited for the secondary level; should there be a link between tourism education and training programmes and the other disciplines in the curriculum?

3. Do you think there is a need for a ‘national and a collaborative approach’ towards education and training, involving both the private and public sector? Should the other non-tourism public sector departments have a role in the development of a tourism education and training programmes? If yes to what extent, and what should that involvement be structured? (Please provide reason*)

4. Do you think it is important for some level of tourism training to be introduced throughout the public and private sector? (If yes, how should such a programme be structured or designed? If no why not?*)

5. What are your thoughts of the suitability of the Dominica State College to satisfy all the education and training needs of the local tourism industry? Do you think there is need for a more central governing body or unit solely focused on the development of an education and training programme to fulfil the developmental needs of the local tourism industry or are satisfied these needs being fully meet through the available human resources and by the programmes of the college?
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<td>Interview with company representative about job responsibilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>2/5/95</td>
<td>1st Floor</td>
<td>Interview with another company representative, focusing on technical skills</td>
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<td>3/10/96</td>
<td>2nd Floor</td>
<td>Interview with HR representative, discussing benefits and perks</td>
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<tr>
<td>4/20/97</td>
<td>4th Floor</td>
<td>Group interview with team members, focusing on team dynamics</td>
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**Technical Interests**
- Java
- Python
- SQL
- Databases
- Cloud Computing

**Personal Interests**
- Traveling
- Reading
- Hiking

**References Available Upon Request**
Initial Report on First Round of Interview

Three interviews were done for pilot testing. One of the subjects chosen was from the private sector, one from the public sector and one based on her experience represented the view of both the tourism and education/training sectors. This exercise proved useful for testing the logistics of the process. As a result some changes were made. The consent form was revised as in all cases there was no one to witness the signing of the form. Also, point one on the form was reworded as verbal explanation was provided on the purpose of the research project being investigated. Further, sensitivity of the voice recorder was also noted and efforts made to ensure proper use was thereafter employed.

Just a few weeks prior to my visit to the island, the Ministry of tourism embarked on the restructuring of the National Development Cooperation now renamed as Discover Dominica Authority. As a result, a number of subjects in the tourism group of the proposed sample lost their jobs with a few being relocated to new positions. An apparent tension in the industry was noted and more over some of these subjects had left the island in pursuit of other opportunities. As such, it was deemed necessary to embark on the first round of interviews soon after the pilot interviews were completed, rather than waiting until my return after the upgrade meeting. This change in the previous planned was accessed as being critical to capture the views of the subjects who were no longer in the tourism positions they had held for several years. This meant that changes had to be made in the arrangement of some of the individuals who had to be interviewed in the second and third rounds to ensure that their views were captured at this point, as a precautionary measure of them being unavailable upon my return to the island in December.

In all 25 interviews were conducted in this first round (see attached sheet). Effort was also made to obtain a balanced group of subjects among the sub section in the planned sample. Accordingly, 6 subjects each were interviewed from the following groups: tourism, education, private sector and public sector. In addition, one of the subjects interviewed had experience in both areas of tourism and education. To date half of the interviews conducted has been transcribed. The others have been distributed to a pool of three typists, but progress is not as fast as I anticipated it would have been.

NVivo 7 software had been obtained and the data will be uploaded upon completion of upgrade, and some initial level of analysis done as previously planned before commencing on round two of the interviews. However, a broad overview of the data collected to date indicates the following initial interpretations to be further tested and analysed:

General views
There is no structured approach to tourism education and training on the island; the little being done is ad hoc and exists in a vacuum;
There is no direct link between tourism goal, visions and policy with education and training in the schools at a national level;
There is an ongoing capacity problem among the human resources within the tourism and education system to fulfil the tourism education and training needs on the island;
There is general consensus for a more unified approach to tourism education and training on the island;
There is much support among the subjects to the life cycle approach to tourism education and training in Dominica; there is also the strong view that tourism education and training needs to be more relevant to the local culture, way of life of the people and the local tourism product.

**Conflicts**

It was felt that government themselves needed to be clear on the national tourism focus, goals, visions and policy and to avoid making policy decisions in other government ministries that contradicts and impedes upon the local tourism industry.

It was felt that there was a divide between the various ministries, and more collaboration was necessary in achieving the national tourism goals, as well as in engaging in tourism education and training.

**Points of interest**

Training of existing teachers within the education system to teach tourism education; introduction of tourism extension officer or tourism education officers;

**Points of concern**

Issue of curriculum space for introduction of tourism as a distinct subject in schools; human capacity issues for embarking on the structured approach deemed critical to the development and advancement of Dominica’s tourism industry; lack of collaborative approach to tourism education and training at all levels and among major stakeholders;

**Method issues**

The problem of familiarity surfaced strongly in some interviews. For instance, one subject invited a village visitor to be part of the interview mid stream. One subject spent a lot of time on personal matters and conversations (with me and her colleagues) before being willing to begin a planned interview. In other cases appointments were not kept and had to be deferred to later rounds due to time constraints. In other instances, some subjects questioned me on my views of the local situation during the interview and also alluded to the fact that they hoped that my research would help bring about some of the much needed change in tourism advancement and human resource development on the island.

**General comments**

Thus far the initial round of interviews revealed much support to major thesis arguments. The challenge going forward will be the accurate analysis, interpretation and construction of an approach to national tourism education and training that will help address the much needed education and training issues for the tourism industry in Dominica.
Early reflections on data analysis, Interview Round One

Recurring themes
- Introduce tourism education at early education level
- Develop programme along the life cycle of the individuals
- Integrated approach at the lower level of the school system
- Collaborative approach in planning
- Make use of what is typically Dominican: the way of life of the people (philosophy of the centenarians, the local farming practices)
- Tourism education should be taught at schools as a distinct subject and also across the curriculum as part of other subjects since they can all be given a tourism twist
- Need for a separate institute for tourism education and the arts

Variant ideas
- Need for removing tourism education at the state College and establishing a hotel school
Reflections of on the research

Now after this first round of interviews and going back to the literature having read up on units one an 2.1 of ‘Tourism Hospitality Education’ by Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1994), I am beginning to wonder if my study is more about a national approach to tourism education and training.

The data seems to suggest so far that such a national approach be strategic and holistic in terms of its planning tactics.

Reflections on Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1994 p90-97)

This involves horizontal integration and vertical articulation. Horizontal integration refers to factors which affect and influence the understanding of the student during the learning process: student’s home life, the local community, work experience, social experience and broader society. All these affect the students learning experience one way or another - consciously or sub-consciously, implicitly or explicitly.

Vertical articulation refers to the co-ordination of different levels of education which draws together the student’s school experiences of the formal curriculum with pre and post compulsory education. Here issues such as the continuity of education and the development of educational experiences are very important factors; it is concern with the learning process through time; how it is affected and connected temporarily ie. Prior experiences, current experiences within the curriculum and possible future experiences with regard to the continuation of learning.

This approach rest on the view that students take their learning from the whole learning environment (horizontal) together with past experiences and aspirations for the future (vertical)....this holistic concept if integration is what the process approach is seeking to achieve.

Nevertheless, I must keep in mind that the research focus is not so much on curriculum development as on arriving at a national planning approach; but these concepts could serve to frame the lifelong approach which seem to be emerging from the data......these ideas should be revisited is necessary.
**Reflections November, 2007**

First round of interviews was discussed with Supervisor. Generally progress satisfactory, but more probing was recommended for seeking appropriate responses to some of the interview questions; also a change in the order of the questions may be necessary starting with simple to more in-depth items.

A review of the structure of the thesis was done, and the functionality of the chapters in connection with the aims/research objectives was discussed. It is still undecided whether the strategy chapter will be relevant and it was decided that this will become clearer during the data analysis and write up of the data findings.

Sample composition was reviewed and the overlap of some members in the sub groupings need to be limited but if unavoidable stated clearly and considered throughout the process as it may impact on the findings. It was mentioned that attention must given during data analysis to new information coming out of the data which may not have been previously anticipated.

In addition, some guidelines questions were provided in preparation for the upgrade meeting.

A brief discussion was also held on the main contribution to knowledge and the elements of innovation of the thesis. This should be considered throughout the rest of the research process and a list complied (of at least ten areas) as these are discovered.

**Key points for consideration going forward:**
- Identify clear gap in the literature that this research will seek to address
- Make decision on the usefulness of chapter four (strategy chapter)
- Develop a clear and concise view of how this will be analysed
- Engage in preliminary data analysis of first round of interviews

**Other matters**
Continuation of field trip dates agreed upon: Dec 2\textsuperscript{nd} 2007 – Feb 6\textsuperscript{th} 2008. Attendance of intermediate training for NVivo 7 discussed for 6\textsuperscript{th} February. Meeting set for 3:00pm on the 7\textsuperscript{th} February upon return from the field.

Possible conferences for next year to be confirmed, but tentatively conferences of interest are:
- Education conference in Athens, Greece, in May
- Tourism conference in Athens, Greece, July 3-6\textsuperscript{th}
- Atlas conference in Brighton, July 2-4\textsuperscript{th}
- ATHE conference in UK, Dec 3-5\textsuperscript{th}
- Caribbean Tourism Human Resource Conference
SECOND ROUND OF INTERVIEWS
Interview Protocol (Guide only) Second Round

The interview questions are developed under broad headings and divided into key questions guided by the literature and research objectives. The main research objectives are:

1. The research seeks to identify the key concepts, characteristics and challenges of the tourism industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica and assess the suitability of current tourism and hospitality education and training programmes locally and in the region to address the needs of the island’s tourism industry.
2. The research seeks to explore the principles comprising a strategic and holistic approach to tourism and hospitality education and training and how they are correlated to the tourism industry and national development.
3. The research seeks to design and develop a strategic and holistic education and training model, which is tailored specifically to the tourism and hospitality industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica.

The following are the questions for the interview based on the (3) main research questions

A. What is the fundamental nature and vision of the tourism industry in the Commonwealth of Dominica?

1. What would you say are the main areas of focus of the local tourism industry?
2. In your opinion what are the main challenges facing the local tourism industry at the moment?
3. What if any are the current developments taking place in the industry at the moment?
4. At what stage of growth would you say the local industry is currently?
5. What changes if any do you think needs to be made to facilitate the development of the industry and to allow it to become globally competitive?
6. How important do you think the tourism industry is to national development?
7. On a national level do you think a unified approach should be adopted towards tourism development or do you it should be left to only those directly involved in the industry?
B. What role does or should education and training play in fulfilling the national tourism goals?

1. Do you think the current education and training programme is structured to meet the needs of the local tourism industry?

2. Do you think the current tourism education and training programme being implemented locally is structured to address the challenges of the tourism industry adequately?

3. Tell me about your thoughts on the current education and training programme on the island does it meet the ends of the local tourism industry? (may replace 1 & 2 above)

4. If no, what do you think can be done to make the program more suitable to the needs of the local tourism industry?

5. What role do you think education and training play or can play in the development of the local tourism industry?

6. What should be the aims and focus of a programme designed specifically to address the needs and challenges of the local tourism industry?

7. Should the national curriculum give more focus to tourism education and training?

8. Do you think that continuous education and training is necessary for employees within and outside the tourism sector.

9. Are you satisfied with the level of training and education of industry employees?

10. Are you satisfied with the current level of available programmes on the island geared towards industry training?

11. Is the current education and training programmes able to sufficiently prepare the citizens for the development of the various areas of focus within the industry?
C. What education and training model would best fulfil the tourism human resource development needs on the island?

1. Do think there is need for a national policy on tourism education and training?
2. What should be the focus of such a policy?
3. What vision do you have tourism education and training on the island?
4. What should be the main aims of tourism education and training on the island?
5. At what levels should [it] be introduced within the academic system?
6. Do you think the current approach and curriculum design meets the needs of the industry?
7. Do you think it is important for tourism education and training to be introduced at all levels of the education system?
8. Should there be a link between tourism education and training programmes and the other disciplines in the curriculum.
9. Should the private sector play a role in the development of a tourism education and training policy? If yes to what extent, and what should such a policy involve?
10. How can tourism education and training be best designed to achieve the aims and goals of the local tourism policy and the national tourism vision for 2010?
11. Do you think there is a need for a ‘national approach’ towards education and training geared towards the development of the local tourism industry?
12. Do you think that there is need for a more collaboration approach between the private and public sector in the effort towards tourism education and training? What changes would you like to see introduced?
13. Do you think other public servants need to be training and or educated about the tourism industry? Why do you think so?
14. Do you think it is important for some level of tourism training to be introduced throughout the public and private sector? If yes, how should such a programme be structured or designed?
15. How much focus does your organisation place on staff development? To what extent does this involve tourism education or training?
16. Do you think the goals of the various institutions offering tourism education and training institutions should be linked with the goals of the various public sector departments?
A brief review of the main points:

- The main focus of the document is on the importance of effective communication in ensuring successful collaboration between two offices.

- The document highlights the benefits of effective communication, such as improved decision-making, increased productivity, and stronger relationships.

- Effective communication is essential for the success of any organization, particularly in the workplace.

- The document suggests that managers and employees should prioritize effective communication to achieve their goals.

- The document provides examples of effective communication techniques, such as active listening and clear messaging.

- The document concludes by emphasizing the importance of ongoing training and development in communication skills.
Reflections on Round Two

At the end of round two the process was reflected upon and a revisiting of the literature based on the voices who advocated not reinventing the wheel but looking at past cases.

Thus the cases of:

- The Alberta Tourism Education Council
- The Irish Model – CERT (Baum, 1995)
- The Barbados Model
- The Jamaican Model
- Belize and Costa Rica
- Tortola
- Bahamas

The questions were reconsidered as related to the theory, and primary data found in round one and two; this was done to bounce off initial analysis and information from data by the policy makers and key stakeholders in the sample comprising round three in an effort to answer the research questions as to what model is best suited for tourism education and training in Dominica.

As discussed by Baum, Amoah and Spivack (1997) the data thus far seem to suggest the need for tourism education and training policy to be developed and implemented that would facilitate a more collaborative and integrated approach to the development of the human resources required to satisfy the needs of the local tourism industry. In the case of Dominica, there are a number of structures and institutions in place both within the private and public sector which are involved in or thorough their duties can utilised to advance the national gaps and challenges in the area of tourism education and training.

Among the existing challenges to be addressed are:

- The apparent lack of financial resources to drive and sustain education and training programmes;
- The heavy dependency on foreign aid from international donor agencies;
- The lack of local experts and specialists in the various sub sectors of the industry;
- The local inherent cultural precepts
- The local political environment and system of governance;
- The current format of administration and of the public sector ministries and their various departments;
- Lack of clear ownership of the mandate for national human resource development
- The dynamics of scale – common to all small island states;

Existing contradictions:

- Public sector should not be too involved in tourism education, it always fails; should be left to the private sector
- Tourism education and training should be left to the ministry of tourism
• Tourism education and training should be left to the ministry of education
• Tourism education and training should be the responsibility of both – a collaborative effort
• Do not reinvent the wheel; use the state college as the main hub for all programs
• State college is ill suited to address the industry needs
• There is the need for a hospitality institute

Key recommendations to date:
• A clear policy direction must be articulated; this requires much more than just having a policy document in print; it has to be agreed upon and adopted by all key stake holders; more over it has to be widely circulated nationally and brought in-sync with all other ministrial policies.
• Tourism education and training must be brought to the fore of the national curriculum; a much more structured approach is needed
• there may be a need to reassess the suitability of implementation of the infusion method or other such strategy.
• Reassess the possibility of introducing tourism as a subject in the schools especially at the higher secondary classes
• A holistic and collaborative approach must be adopted between and among the public and private sector.
• There is the need for a more active role among the private sector stake holders.
• There is the need for a change of mind set: attitude, values and cultural behaviour.
• Need to extension or district officers / national tourism education and training council
• Need for a tourism education and training officer at the curriculum level
• Broadening the scope and duties of the scholarship selection committee
• More research required at all level of sector in developing the industry and the education and training programs: things must be evidence based not ad hoc
• Change management is required as a cultural change is needed; develop the tourism mind set and service culture nationally.
• Use of zoning concept
• Use of institutions such as adult education, village councils,
• Using elementary and primary education to set the foundation; tourism education at the secondary level to include projects that involve studying the local history, culture, rain forest and different niches patterned along the 1997 regional CHA program (refer Herbert Sabrouche); possible are of knowledge contribution
**Follow up questions**

- How long is the OAS programme- name when did it start?
- When does it end?
- who did policy framework? When and was it officially adopted?
- there is an inconsistency in approach: certification for cruise ship taxi operators but not for those at the airports (conflict in signals)
- How many scholars change the programs mid stream
- Are scholars under the ecotourism program bonded
- program develop in the region: hello tourist program 1997; also PAHO Brochure
- Adult education report on STABEX prg
- OECS reform unit doc
- Social studies teacher
- Social studies teachers and principals to verify the schools that actually teach social studies
- Tourism current reach in schools in the social studies curriculum
- role of scholarship selection committee
- In the absence of CAPE at the state college – students continue to migrate never to return
- civics, manners and etiquette must be place on the syllabus
THIRD ROUND OF INTERVIEWS
Interview Protocol (Guide only) Third Round

The interview questions are developed based on the themes which emerged from the two previous rounds. In addition, questions asked were tailored to the specific expert’s sector. The main aim in this round was to verify concepts and to test emerging theme, so as to ensure co-construct of the knowledge and insight gained.

In that regard the questions asked in each interview were unique and specific to the expert being interviewed. Below are two questions typical to this round.

1. In your opinion is the local education and training system preparing the workforce through the programmes in the schools, at the State College and the scholarships given to persons who go on to higher level education to service the industry in terms of a focused curriculum geared at meeting the aims of the tourism Masterplan?

2. Do you think more consideration needs to be given to the process at the selection point in an attempt to address the specific gaps or deficiencies in the sector, within DHTA, and at the College?

Please refer sample interview sample Appendix C for full details of a typical interview in this round.
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Reflections on Round Three

This round of interviewees seemed most difficult to reach;

Many gate keepers to contend with at this stage

More persons asked for tape to be put off and to be place off record on certain issues than in other rounds

Interviewees generally well informed and provided rich data

Data saturation was reached before all interviews were done
APPENDIX C

SAMPLE INTERVIEW
Question: In your opinion is the local education and training system preparing the work force through the programmes in the schools, at the State College and the scholarships given to persons who go on to higher level education to service the industry in terms of a focused curriculum geared at meeting the aims of the tourism Masterplan?

Expert Response: Yes, tourism is one of the development strategies that is being developed, or is being continued to be developed for national growth and development. The Masterplan has been approved and the Ministry of Tourism has the responsibility to drive the implementation of that Masterplan. In terms of the HR development required for that drive and thrust, we in the Ministry of Tourism we see the merit in it and we focus on ensuring that we have requisite people; in that the people we provide support to come back in the industry and give support to... but one of the problems I think that is always instituted in the issue is, you come back but the organisation may not have the requisite space for absorbing the persons who have gone to train in tourism. So there is need for a whole rethinking of the absorption into the industry to propel it. Because what you find, a lot of people, I don't know, as you rightly recognised from the school level it's just considered a small part of the curriculum, is not say it's like, it's one of the development strategy and hence you make it an important element all though from primary, secondary, tertiary. We have began that process; we began it at the State College where we have the hospitality department and people go there for training. But I think the issue is after these persons are trained, how do we absorb them into the practical work environment so they can make a contribution? And the problem is if you do not have the requisite allocated space to absorb them it becomes a problem. So even on the whole structure of the economy and how do we make provision for that, are those varying sectors that needs to be taken into account? Because of the fact that I was aware or I was involved in the persons we sent to train which I think of every time they come back or they come to see

1 Coded for anonymity
me, we try to see how we can get them on board. But the problem is if you don't have the space that becomes a problem.

**Question:**
*Do you think more consideration needs to be given to the process at the selection point in an attempt to address the specific gaps or deficiencies in the sector, within DHTA, and at the College?*

**Expert Response:**
From a public sector standpoint, the Establishment and Personnel Department, they take those things into account. So what they do, they have a priority list in terms of what is priority for the country. Of course because of experiences that people have whereby they select priorities, that you say are priorities but when they come back they are not able to fit in employment. You find that what people do, they choose priority areas that will give them lucrative opportunity that if they don't find employment in Dominica they can find elsewhere. And I think that is the big problem we have, how do we make the space available for persons when they come back so that they can fit in? We are always constraint by the issue of our wage bill and so therefore you cannot go and create two many posts, positions; and so what you find is that we are always struggling with putting people in based on those who leave, those who have moved up the ladder, or those who moved in other lucrative opportunities locally. That is the big struggle we have. The Public Sector makes provision to ensure that people obtain scholarship in keeping with the priorities of the country, because there's a need for us to have skilled and trained personnel for the industry. Right now the people who are coming down are coming out of the institutions at the associate level. You need a level of maturity; so either there needs to be an intermediary mechanism where you can have these people who come out of the college as associate degree persons, they go into internship and then you equip them so that at least later down you can see their strength, then weaknesses and therefore you can plow them back into whether it be at the public or private sector; because, the problem that the private sector have an issue with even those kinds of persons because they look for mature people. People in the private sector their goal is profit and they look at these people coming from the associate degree programme as children, and they ask
themselves what are they going to contribute to making them profitable? Because, it is like they find that they will probably invest too much in them, maybe they will disappear after a while, and then they ask themselves the investment gone down the drain. So, all those things hamper the availability of persons for working at both the public and private sector.

**Question:**
*But should there be more focus on specific areas under the broad listing of priority areas?*

**Expert Response:**
One of the things that we had done under Eco-Tourism Development Programme, we had done a Manpower Training Policy and Plan as to in terms of .....all of that was taken back to the Ministry of Education to see how we can introduce a model that would enable us to develop the skills that would go back to the industry. Some of it was absorbed into the development of the hospitality management programme but in terms of whether it went to a next level, I think that was lacking. So the Manpower, Training Policy and Plan Report is there, I'm not sure how many people use it and go back to it and see well, let us make sure that these are the people who get trained so that they can go back in the industry.

**Question:**
*So you think that is a document that the Ministry of Education should have?*

**Expert Response:**
They have it. They have it but I think they just need... maybe it's up for review because we did it in 2002 there about so maybe.

**Question:**
*But would you say this is something that needs to be reviewed?*

**Expert Response:**
Probably it needs to be review, because we have to say, do we still need that requirement? Because there were gaps in terms of the middle manager level and of
course the basic skills required for persons to come into the industry, and that is why we placed the issue of the basic skills as well as the associate degree within the armpit of the Dominica State College, so at least it would get the rightful status that it ought to have, so that if a basic person goes in to do catering as a course at the college, they would get a certification for it. The college which is a certified institution! So from that angle you put in the basic sills and of course, the development of the associate degree into the college. And we are hoping that one of the things that as a member of the board of that State College is that we are hoping that they themselves can see tourism as a development strategy and have a requisite goal that they would develop the human resource at the college that would filter back into the industry. So I'm hoping that they can have that vision and I keep emphasising that to them and I'm hoping that we can execute.

**Question:**
How well fitted do you think the state college is to fulfill that national education and training mandate that has been entrusted on them? How do they fit into that broad scheme of things as far as the destination is concerned and is there room for other players?

**Expert Response:**
Okay. In the context of their role developing, enhancing the HR for national development, I see that as important, and as far as I know they should see that as part of their role too, whether they do it for education, whether they do it for tourism, but they have a role to play in ensuring that requisite human response base is available, is skilled, is trained for the country. Of course, it depends on who is at the helm of the ship they may choose to say okay, let's just focus on developing the children so that they can get a degree overseas. But I still feel within that context of that development they must be able to say to them, this is our development strategy and these are the areas we need to focus on. They still can say these things. Well, as I say it depends on who is at the helm of it and what priority they take on because they themselves they are struggling with resources. When you're struggling with resource; that's part of the problem! When you're struggling with resource issues you are constraint to develop a holistic approach to
national development and you're constraint to move forward in a direction that should show you the big picture, because your pre-occupation is crisis management, trying to resolve issues on a day to day basis. Whereas if you were settled with the requisite amount of resources you would be able to say, okay, let us sit and see how many people can be trained, for that sector, for this sector, for the other sector. So at least at the end of the day we can say we have the requisite persons trained. In terms of tourism they are bringing out a couple of people at the associate level, but as to whether these persons have the skill in terms of the practical experience to come on board, even if they don't have the full experience but they have the energy and dynamism and that you would have seen that would have acquired coming but of academia. But then is like they come out routine. They just accept the fact that they have a degree to get a job. They did not acquire no skills in creativity, initiative and just being dynamic, "whoa! I've got this degree and I'm confident about myself, I can do that!" They come to you very cold and you ask yourself, can I take somebody with that kind of coldness and I want somebody with zest, with dynamism that will help you move. *Push your business forward!* Exactly, and even the private sector have an issue about that! Because they ask whether these people can come in into the job market immediately, and so there's a missing dimension, and that is one of the things I think that that the college has to address, that you cannot just train people for having an associate degree. If there are some who cannot go on to acquire first degree immediately to the States, then they have to get absorbed into the job market. So it means that we have to give them the education for life. The Youth Division interestingly through their youth skills programme, they are another player. They try to equip the young people with skills for the market, maybe that is something probably I'll have to discuss with the Youth Division as to whether they equip them to get back into the industry. I'm not sure! Or they just equipping them for skills to be employed in the job market. To me that's how I'm seeing it. Of course, you can talk with them because they are another player that provide basic skills, entrepreneurial skills.

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2 Comment by interviewer in italic for differentiation with expert response
Question:
So is there not need for other players other than the State College? Because there seem to be different people doing things but there doesn't seem to be ....The cohesiveness.....Yes.

Expert Response:
The cohesiveness I think, the synergism required for development is always a problem in Dominica. I don't know if everybody seem to want to have an empire, they want to run to feel important and does not realise that all of us, we must work together to the common good of the country, and if we do it we will be more cost effective and we'll achieve more.

Question:
Is there need for a tourism education specialist with the mandate to pull all the various resources together so that Education and Human Resource Development is given focus in relation to tourism?

Expert Response:
That is why you have an HR Ministry. So therefore if you have a ministry with education and human resource, they have to be able to develop a HR plan for the country.

Question:
So you say that lies with the Ministry of Education?

Expert Response:
Yes, that's education and human resource development. Their concept of HR development is just providing scholarship to go and study by that's not only the concept. It must be able to also say, okay, this year we sending five (5) to do medicine, five (5) to do Tourism and five (5) to do ....we projecting! We collaborate also with the Establishment Department because we in the public sector. Succession planning, that is the thing we talking. Although the public service is trying very much to do that, but in terms of the fact that we are so engrossed in crisis management, we have very little time to do succession planning and the issue of....
Question:
And you feel that is throughout the Ministries as well?

Expert Response:
Everywhere, because the fact that we are pressed from a lot of issues is crisis management you do! We have little time to do proper planning. Most times when we try to do a bit of planning is planning for the resources that Finance will give us, and there we factor all the issues pertinent to the ministry. But in terms of when we now meet all as a ministry and say you know what, this is what I need for my money, everybody just trying to see how they got their money, but every time I go to that discussion I say, let us look at the thing holistically. Ok, what is it we want to achieve for 2008? and it that's what we want to achieve for 2010, then okay, we need so many people there, we need so much money there, we need so much equipment; nobody wants take that approach because everybody wants to preserve .... Their own...preserve and ensure they implement what they have, and I suppose that is governed....again the whole political framework creates an issue there; because you have Ministers which come in for five years and everyone of them wants to see themselves shine. And in essence it trickles down, because if you trying to have a focused approach to development and you say, okay, I'm going to make sure I finish that project.....There's another national committee that looks at, in particular when there's scholarships to be given, there's a national committee that sits on that to ensure that persons who apply are applying for scholarships that are within the national priority, those kinds of things; and that is led by Education. It used to be before by Establishment when Establishment had human resource matters but now that national HR is under Education, so they suppose to take that leading role to ensure that people who get scholarships, people who get trained are getting trained and getting scholarships in the priorities of the country. But I think when we have the problem is when these people come back, you don't have jobs to offer them and you find that they either disappear and so you're struggling to find the requisite skills at the time when you need to find them, and I think is because you probably need to take a closer look at how we do the succession planning, so you say, okay, in two years you send 5 people to do medicine, so in five years time you have to cater for those five (5) people
coming back. That kind of succession planning to fitting back these people when they come back. That I think is not being done.

**Question:**
*And you say that happens in the Tourism Sector as well?*

**Expert Response:**
The whole country on a whole; the country on a whole! Every time somebody come back they cannot find jobs, is because we don't do that national planning succession planning for human resource development.

**Question/Statement:**
*But interestingly, there is the view that to have somebody in Education who would be responsible for Tourism Education and Training at a national level, that person would be lost because they won't be in tune with developments in Tourism; the feeling here is that the Ministry of Tourism should be leading as far as developing the Human Resource for the Tourism sector is concerned.*

**Expert Response:**
They may feel that because then again they looking at it sectorally; and that is the problem we have. Every time we look at the issue sectorally, we not getting the big picture. So there has to be a core competence of people that will sit down and look at the proper succession planning for the country. Yes, it may be at each sector that you put somebody of course, there is the personnel, people, what they do, they look for people in the context of upward mobility, lateral mobility, horizontal and upward ......

**Question:**
*To do with Establishment?*

**Expert Response:**
No, each ministry looks at the needs of what they require in their sector, so when somebody go on leave, when somebody go and study, they will tell you they need that person, and that happens at the ministry level. But in terms of a sector, its not only the public sector that the sector you have the private sector. So can I sit down and determine,
so it means for the public/private sector human resource needs for tourism then we would have to create the mechanism for that? *Right!*...Then do you want to create at each sector a mechanism to handle that or you have a big organisation that has both public/private sector representation and people look at the needs of the country, and that is why the issue of the integrated planning is critical. It goes back to that again, national planning is a big thing, and that's what we are not doing! We are not doing that!

**Question:**
*So is there a problem with the connectivity between departments?*

**Expert Response:**
The synergy between sectors and the coordinated approach to ensure that it’s filtered around the sectors is not at its best. That's what I would say. But as to when we get to that point I think part of that is driven by the political agenda. The political agenda drives a lot of things. We are a country that every five years politicians have to go up for election and the issue is that, they will want to achieve certain things sometimes that drives the process as opposed to an integrated development plan and that is, okay,. Five years where we want to be as a country. Ten years, this is where we want to be. We not doing that! Everybody just implementing and you have a set of projects to implement every year, as to how they implement it, sometimes they don't get implemented, and so what you find is that projects, we are still ‘projectised’ where development is concerned. But development is a national programme where we have goals, we set goals, we going to say okay, this year we want to make sure so many people are trained in tourism, so many people in medicine, so many people in agriculture, to address the issue of increased productivity in agriculture, to address the issue of marketing and arrivals in the tourism sector. So you equip set goals for the sector and you equip it with the requisite people. Yet we try at our sectoral levels to do it, but how does it filter at the national level?
**Question:**
Do you see a role a private sector organisations in taking up some of the training responsibility?

**Expert Response:**
The private sector themselves must get their act together!

**Question:**
Do you see a role for them taking up some of the training?

**Expert Response:**
But of course they have a role, because just as I have to see to the fact that there are requisite skills and personnel within the industry from a public sector... they have to do likewise. But what you find is that they all do is for their own properties. The smaller properties, I don't even think they do it. The DHTA has been constrained. You notice now they went and implement a project, but in terms of they getting their act together they are limited themselves in terms of what they can do.

**Question:**
Do you see the need for a separate institution taking up the mandate to push the national education and training? Should it be privatised or should it remain within the mandate of the Ministry of Education as is?

**Expert Response:**
I think Education have to lead with it with a coordinated mechanism. If you want to call it like a national education and training planning committee, something like that. And so you will bring private sector, tourism, not only Tourism you have Agriculture, varied representation on....or you can broaden the mandate of that committee that's sits on deciding who gets scholarships, you can broaden it's scope. I remember I attended the meeting once or twice and these were the things I said to them. But the problem is when you have the type of people who are busy in many other things, and when they come all they want to do is sit and discuss and select people for scholarship, they don't meet to plan otherwise.
**Question:**
*So you need persons that can really plan?*

**Expert Response:**
So even that committee can take up that role as well; you don’t necessarily need to reinvent the wheel; and we need to do that, because we losing our best brains. The few best ones who stay they just want to stay because they love Dominica.

**Question:**
*Do you think there's need for a more specialised institution in tourism studies or an institute for sciences and the arts which include tourism as a subject?*

**Expert Response:**
If you say, it's so important and people need to understand what tourism is all about, maybe that’s where you develop the drive or the excitement for them to even consider it as something that they can pursue as a career and there are many opportunities there for them in it. I don't know if you want to reinvent the wheel by having another institution.

**Question:**
*But some key players are saying we need an institution that can just focus on the local product rather than the State College generic CTO Programme.*

**Expert Response:**
But there are similarities in our region so why go and reinvent the wheel? The issue I think at the College is that they have to get to....because really it suppose to be an institute within a college. All Colleges have departments. So it can have a hospitality department, as part of an overall.... because it's intended that the College will become a real College, in the context of a real College and then you will have issues like Hospitality being in depth as it ought to be, in terms of not being a CTO... but being one defined. But an organisation like CTO has been in the region for a while can give merit to an institution that is putting forth a programme that will lead the island's or the country's tourism development. So they can provide guidance. So I don't have difficulty with them.
**Question:**
*Because some stakeholders are thinking of the local music, arts and dance?*

**Expert Response:**
Well then in terms of the culture, in terms of the culture... then is where you find that the whole issue of culture and heritage, the college probably needs to pick that up. So there are the avenues; to me I will not reinvent the wheel with another institution. The College can develop capacity to take on those things but again, it is constraint with resources, and for you to go and establish a department of culture and heritage within the College, you need to have the requisite people that would be able to facilitate the lecturers; you have to have the requisite facilities because you just don't want to bring people to teach them about culture; they have to have the practical aspect of it, because that is happening even the programme of hospitality at the College. We do not have a full fledged hospitality institute, where people are really trained, they do the hands on. *culinary skills...*, the customer... the hands on thing; there was provision made in the Ministry of Education's budget to do it but it took so long that all of a sudden the funds were diverted to another...

**Question/Statement:**
*Well there's the argument that if you move it away from the State College and it is privately run as a private institution that is owned and managed as a hotel school then it can be managed like a business.*

**Expert Response:**
Nothing can deter ... anyone can come up with that just like the lady came up with the Business Training Institutive who say that you cannot come up with a hospitality institute a private sector run institution? Of course!
**Question:**
The question is whether that might solve some of the current problems?

**Expert Response:**
It would help because there's always room for competition and support. No one man can do it. No one man can do it. There is always room for others to come in and be players in the market.

**Question:**
How do you think the tourism curriculum should be structured or developed for the different age groups?

**Expert Response:**
The Manpower Training and Policy that we developed, that is one of the things that it recommended. So there is a special model that I think in some school in Jamaica that they advocated the introduction of tourism. The Infusion Model? ... The Infusion Model that they advocated at the school level and we were moving towards...... We began having discussions with Education in that regard to see how they could incorporate, mindful of that kind of recommendation.

**Question:**
Would you support the addition of a Tourism Curriculum Officer on the Education staff? Because currently at the Curriculum Unit there is nobody there with a tourism background. ...so they just teaching some basic facts! And the feeling was Ministry of Tourism would know best about the industry, the sector's policies and what's going on in the industry?

**Expert Response:**
Well, we were prepared to work with them not necessarily have somebody on their curriculum. If they see it as a ....we can make that pitch but were also making the pitch at the initial stage that we would work with them. We would work with them and provide the support required.
Question:
A lot of stakeholders are saying care must be taken not make the same mistakes with agriculture, where is was not taken very seriously in terms of proper planning and foresight and then it collapsed; the concern is though a lot was done the sector still failed, so the need not make the same errors as with those made with developing the agricultural sector has been a common concern. What are your views on that issue in relation to tourism?

Expert Response:
The amount of money agriculture got cannot be compared with what we need and not getting. So agriculture has received a lot of support. They have all the infrastructure, they had all the resources. Up till now they still have the infrastructure and they still getting the support base. As to whether that same kind of energy is put into nationally, I'm not sure!

Question:
But do you think it is necessary?

Expert Response:
Of course it is absolutely necessary because you must develop a second sector, so that you can have a buffer for economic development because it will generate revenue. Look at the cruise ship industry, when the cruise season is on. There are some people whose revenue generation is good because of the cruise industry, the cruise season. The stay overs are good for the hotel sector when they have full occupancy. They doing well! Of course, when it is slow they complain which is nothing because they are not paying their bills. But when it is good, it is good because they get a high turnover.
Question:
Do you think there is the need for tourism education extension officers working at the community level?

Expert Response:
Oh, we need it because if you notice when we implemented the EDTP it was necessary; but of course, we could have only done it through the length of the project and I think more and more it's becoming necessary.

Question:
I'm thinking..... especially with the trail that's going to be developed?

Expert Response:
Well, the Waitukulbuli Trail, we sort of putting that kind of staff on board; so that they could work at the community level, you need it because only when you infiltrate the rural areas and people begin to understand through awareness, through dialogue, through discussion with them, you can get a sense that they begin to feel that it is trickling down to them. All the time that you sit at the government level, the hotel level in town, they don't see it. They only see it when they begin to inter-phase with them they understand what is happening; then they can appreciate the distribution of the wealth where tourism is concerned. So it's critical! So every project we have like the SFA we going to implement, we will maybe .... What is SFA? Small framework of assistance; it's an instrument under which the European Union provides certain kinds of windows of resources for ACP countries.

Question:
Okay. Is that something with DCIF or a different project?

Expert Response:
No, it's on its own merit. That is a window of resources they have made available for tourism for us to implement, expand a bit on what we did under the EPDP, as well as strengthen the capabilities within the Ministry of Tourism. So we will need a technical specialist from somewhere around March and we will need somebody to come in to be like programme coordinator for the programme and somebody just to do basic accounts.
Question:
Interesting! So you think that there is room for the media, the village council and other such structures?

Expert Response:
Tourism is everybody's business. What we did when we established the EPTP was that we had what you call, tourism development committee that comprised both the local authority and the group that were interested in tourism a combined group to form what you called a tourism development committee, okay. So to me we sought of established the structure at the rural level already that we can piggy back on. We made them non-profit organisations, so that they are an organised grouping and so on, so that at least they can do what is required.

Question:
What can be done to ensure that when foreign funded projects end that there is continuity?

Expert Response:
You see a lot of the things that we do when the projects are being implemented in terms of educating the people so that they can understand the need for them to be self-sufficient and having a measure of confidence on their own and that they can minimise that dependency syndrome that they have. I think we are still plagued with that dependency syndrome and these are attitudes, these are inherent things, how do you cure those things. Of course at a policy level there has to be a consistent recognition that if you're saying Tourism is one of the development strategies for growth you have to put in the requisite resources and all the necessary things required to be sustained, but if you want to recognise it as a growth and all the time you just relying on donor agencies, then of course that's the big issue.

Question:
Do you think then that there should be a policy decision on education and training particularly in the area of human resources for the tourism sector?
**Expert Response:**

I think it's necessary, but I don't think it's something that should be sectoralised. I think if you're going to move any country forward education and training has to be across all sectors. Of course, your priority is tourism at this juncture, so of course one would say, yes, it's necessary. Indirectly we do it but it's not consistent and structured, in a sense that we see it as a requirement to have the requisite human resource for the sector. When the opportunities present themselves we make sure we have the skilled personnel to come on board to work, we make sure the persons, when we get the opportunity to have fund available to send people for training, we do that! But in terms at the national level where you should have the impetus; where people should say okay, if agriculture and tourism are going to be the two driving development strategies, we must plan properly so that we have the necessary human resource every year that would be coming in, going out, coming in, going out; so that at any one time you have the requisite skills available to run these two critical sectors that are required for national development. I think it needs to be functioning effectively. There is a committee I said to you that looks at the issue of people going for training, in terms of when scholarships are made available but I think their scope needs to be broaden so that it takes on a more succession planning aspect of it, so that when people come back they can be placed in positions that are made available to them. I think that is important. In general education and training are requisite for tourism. It's necessary both basic skill, intermediary and, of course, tertiary and higher academic training, because more and more people must be skilled in policy development, in understanding how you develop plans for integrated development planning you need that kind of skill within the industry. Of course, you will always need people at the basic level because we'll have high turnover, people move forward; and so you'll need people with customers skills, culinary skills, housekeeping skills, all those things are required. So you will always need people trained in that area. The college will provide the necessary base for the associate degree but as they themselves recognise, there's a need for us to have the hospitality institute established at the college, and that is one of the goals that they will seek to achieve. I'm not sure within what time frame, but it is one of the goals.
Question: any closing comments?

Expert Response:
I think for one, how the resources are allocated to tourism. If you say it's an industry that's the engine of growth, how the resources are allocated, if you give me the chance I would, how it is allocated; of course, you would demand accountability for it and, of course, the consistent support and back up from donor agencies, you will always have to continuously ensure it is there to give you the back up because with small islands the resources are limited, but I think, how you allocate the resources for tourism, I think that needs to be changed for sure. A lot of emphasis is placed on the infrastructure, the road network, although that is important for us because you can't bring people to Dominica and your road network is not the best; but it seem to be the one absorbing the greater allocation of government budget in terms of the road networks, the infrastructure, bridges and again, of course, for us being prone to hurricanes and so on, that affects it. So I think is the availability of resources and how do we allocate it, I would love to see a different picture in that regard.

OK, thank you very much for your help.
APPENDIX D

DATA ANALYSIS
REFLECTIONS
FROM
JOURNAL ENTRIES
**Reflections March 2008**

Generally, the work done in the field seemed well done and led to some initial interesting reflections and preliminary analysis. Time plan look feasible but allowance needs to be made for unforeseen eventualities. The chapter outline looks fine but the word count and distribution has to be carefully worked out to the 80,000 limited. A good approach is ten chapters at 8,000 each; allows for good flow and easier reading. Four to six weeks must be allowed between submission of the final document and the actual viva; and some further allowance for corrections.

There were some issues of concern and for further consideration as the data analysis proceeds. The overall aim of the research may have changed. Some discrepancy existed between the research objectives, the main research questions and the interview protocol. Therefore changes made as a result of the interaction and the actual dynamics in the field must be reflected in these key documents.

Thought needs to be given to the usefulness of the strategy chapter and sections of the literature. Other surrounding literature may be needed base on what is coming out of the data analysis.

Rethink the research process and ensure that a tight link is established and maintained between the research questions, objective, literature, data analysis throughout the exercise.

The process use for data analysis must be clear. That is the progress from broad research questions – themes – sub research question – themes.

Some over arching themes and concepts coming out of the data set to date might be:
- process
- structure
- principles
also:
- politics
- policy
- government/governance

the use of the concept member check needs to be clarified as what is done so far is data verification; member checks is done towards the end of the data analysis to check out final interpretations.

Need to explain in detail how Nvivo is to be utilised.

Points to note:
- raw data is not necessary for the supervisory meetings.
- Avoid the over use of the term holistic and strategic
- Avoid reference to my personal role in solving issues and challenges in the industry
- Seek to reach for broad and higher level theoretic contributions rather than focusing on specific minuscule issues
Explain key terms and phrases when utilised example:
Data saturation
Infusion method
Zoning concept
Life cycle approach
A more unified approach
There was a divide

Future tasks

• continue transcription, editing and analysis.
• Report on closely linked relationship between research questions, objective, literature, data analysis throughout the exercise.
Reflections on Data: May 2008

Editing is a much slower process than anticipated; still working with the first round of interviews.

Writing the conference paper may have contributed to slight delay, however the exercise was very fruitful on a number of counts. It helped me work through some issues coming out of the data and to test the usefulness of the strategic concept. Though I am still not clear on whether it needs to be dropped completely; I do think that chapter could be refocused to look at more country approaches to tourism education and training with a possible inclusion of my recommendation to the strategic approach. This would include cases already discussed as well as include additionally cases recommended at upgrade meeting and also coming out of the data. The strategy literature could then be utilised more or less to support the country approach for this research.

Working with the data, I think I may have to look at literature on education planning and policy. This may support the concepts and themes tested in the conference paper (i.e. the role of government and other structures/institutions; process; principles). Also this would help create the tight link discussed at last meeting. All this will become clearer as data analysis proceeds. This may give me an additional chapter (4), see revised Table of Content.

Research objectives and questions have been revisited as advised; see attached, but this will continue to be examined throughout the process.
Reflections on Data Analysis June 2008

I have now been to the conference and done some reflections on the progress working with the data. I think I have found my philosophy which drives my approach to this piece of research as expressed by Max Andrews....the importance and significance of utilising the human resource power of a country for the development of the nation. I need to keep this in mind.

To date I have done overall analysis of data generally while in the field and now I have edited round one and one third of round two. Time is against me. A new strategy must be implemented.

After discussion with John it was agreed that I would rank the balance of the interviews and priorities my edited; then do the balance in the same detail if time permits. This I have now done and it means I will now complete the strong interviews in B and then move to the good interviews in round C before completing all of round B. The weak interviews may only be done manually but we will see what happens as time progresses.

I now need to start draft of the data analysis chapters. The approach to that will be three chapters under the three main themes emerging from the data Process, Structure, principles. For now I think we will have the issues discussed in the three rounds under each heading in the three chapters, building on the concepts as the unfolded in the field.
Reflections September 2008

Attended 7th Qualitative Research Conference at Bournemouth University. Presentation was on “Insider Impact in a Qualitative Study of Tourism Education and Training in the Commonwealth of Dominica.” The presentation was very well received and the discussion which followed and the conference presentations in general gave me much deeper insight into my own work and the how I interpret and analysis the information coming out of the data.

Intermediate level Nvivo training was very beneficial and enabled me to improve on my skills and understanding of some more tools in the package. It was useful to learn how to utilise the software to help analyse the data across sectors, within rounds and across then finally across the entire data set.

I therefore took the decision to focus the rest of the month to employing the skills learnt at the Nvivo training rather than on trying to do any write up.

Hence a lot of this month work involved clean up data. Un-coding and recoding. Much of which is still to be done.
A broad discussion was held on progress to date.

A new challenge surfaced: the gap which now exists between the information arising from the data and the current literature and objectives. Emphasis was placed on the importance of finding the necessary literature and trying to fill in this gap. A table to show how this will be done is required to ensure that this problem is addressed.

We both agreed on this and decided on a way forward. A point was made to be careful not to prolong the process so that the PhD period goes on forever.

Some addition discussion was held on how to make sense of the huge volume of data and whether it is still necessary to continue in-depth analysis of weaker interviews. It was decided to begin working on developing the body of literature and continue analysis over the long term as time progress.

Among possible strategies for coping with the volume of empirical data would be to either:

- Edit some elements
- Summarize key points
- Use quotes verbatim
- Delete irrelevant segments

Other guidelines given:

- Have a clear introduction to each chapter which states what the chapter is going to do
- The section on public/private sector does not work well as is; there is the need to express clearly its relevance to the section
- Outcome of the PhD is to either – develop theory; understand phenomenon or describe phenomenon
- Contribution to knowledge refer to what one finds out or how things are/should be done
Reflections on Data analysis process End of October

At this point it is apparent due to the themes and key concepts coming out of the data that some major shifts have to be made to the topic, objectives and literature in order to maintain a common thread through the thesis.

After my monthly supervision meeting I took some time out to go back to the literature now focusing on policy and planning theories and literature.

Data analysis continues and the various approaches below will be tested to develop the best flow of the thesis:

Set up a folder with printed copies of NVivo coded scripts
By questions asked
- By rounds
- By sectors
By rounds
- By sectors
- By themes
By themes
- By rounds
- By sectors
DATA ANALYSIS
INITIAL WORK DONE WHILE IN FIELD

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Green: coded  
Red: weak  
Good: but not yet transcribed  
Transcribed: but not yet edited
### DATA ANALYSIS RANKING OF INTERVIEW DATA
#### AFTER FIRST GENERAL READING

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#### COLOUR CODING

- **Blue**: Key interviews
- **Black bold**: Above average interview
- **Pink**: Good background information- pilots
- **Black**: Normal interview
- **Green**: Deviant interview
- **Red**: Weak interview
Audit Trail of Data Analysis

Ongoing transcription by pool of typist August 2007 - 2008

Listening to rounds of interviews by researcher

Editing of transcripts
- Identification of key concepts - highlighting
- Identification of deviant views – highlighting
- Creating list of emerging themes
- Creating list of key terms and phrases
- Grouping of data extracts under key themes within individual interviews

Writing up interim reports based on:
- reflections on the process
- emerging themes
- challenges and issue

Coding

Data was export to NVivo in groups of ten.

First ten done on ........

Key interviews to date: ATOR.19, CTOU.07

Some thoughts:
What would be a good systems approach to decision making for a country approach; who are the players; what are there roles; where do they fit into the model; who are the institutions; who are the clients; who are the trainees

How does this differ from other tourism education and training models in the region and internationally.
WORKING WITH DATA IN NVIVO
SAMPLE INTERVIEW OUTPUT (after analysis in NVivo)

Name: CTOU.07
Description: Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Tourism

1 O/Q: Tourism education and training in Dominica
2 In your opinion is the local education and training system preparing the workforce through the programmes in the schools, at the State College and the scholarships given to persons who go on to higher level education to service the industry in terms of a focused curriculum geared at meeting the aims of the tourism Masterplan?
3 Yes, tourism is one of the development strategies that is being developed, for or is being continued to be developed for national growth and development. The Masterplan has been approved and the Ministry of Tourism has the responsibility to drive the implementation of that Masterplan. In terms of the HR development required for that drive and thrust, we in the Ministry of Tourism we see the merit in it and we focus on ensuring that we have requisite people; in that the people we provide support to come back in the industry and give support to…. but one of the problems I think that is always instituted in the issue is, you come back, but the organisations may not have the requisite space for absorbing the persons who have gone to train in tourism. So there is need for a whole rethinking of the absorption into the industry to propel it. Because what you find, a lot of people, I don’t know, as you rightly recognised, from the school level, it’s just considered a small part of the curriculum, is not say it’s like, it’s one of the development strategy and hence you make it an important element all though from primary, secondary, tertiary. We have began that process; we began it at the State College where we have the hospitality department and people go there for training. But I think the issue is after these persons are trained, how do we absorb them into the practical work environment so they can
make a contribution? And the problem is if you do not have the requisite allocated space to absorb them it becomes a problem. So even in the whole structure of the economy and **how do we make provision for that**, .......are those varying sectors that needs to be taken into account...because of the fact that I was aware or I was involved in the persons we sent to train which I think of every time they come back or they come to see me, we try to see how we can get them on board. But the problem is if you don’t have the space that becomes a problem.

**O/Q: Training, policy conflicts**

6. Do you think more consideration needs to be given to the process at the selection point in an attempt to address the specific gaps or deficiencies in the sector, within DHTA, and at the College?

7. From a public sector standpoint, the Establishment and Personnel Department, they take those things into account. So what they do, they have a priority list in terms of what is priority for the country. Of course because of experiences that people have whereby they select priorities, that you say are priorities, but when they come back they are not able to fit in employment. You find that what people do, they choose priority areas that will give them lucrative opportunity that if they don’t find employment in Dominica they can find elsewhere. And I think that is the big problem we have, how do we make the space available for persons when they come back so that they can fit in? We are always constraint by the issue of our wage bill and so therefore you cannot go and create two many posts, positions; and so what you find is that we are always struggling with putting people in based on those who leave, those who have moved up the ladder, or those who moved in other lucrative opportunities locally. **That is the big struggle we have.** The Public Sector makes provision to ensure that people obtain scholarship in keeping with the priorities of the country, because **there’s a need for us to have skilled and trained personnel for the industry.** Right now the people who are coming down are coming out of the institutions at the associate level. **You need a level of maturity; so either there needs to be an intermediary mechanism where you can have these people who come out of the**

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5 Annotations (that is notes) done within NVivo; refer from page 16
College as associate degree persons, they go into internship and then you equip them so that at least later down you can see their strength, then weaknesses and therefore you can plow them back into whether it be at the public or private sector. Because, the problem that the private sector have an issue with even those kinds of persons because they look for mature people. People in the private sector their goal is profit and they look at these people coming from the associate degree programme as children, and they ask themselves what are they going to contribute to making them profitable? Because, it is like they find that they will probably invest too much in them, maybe they will disappear after a while, and then they ask themselves the investment gone down the drain. So, all those things hamper the availability of persons for working at both the public and private sector.

3. But should there be more focus on specific areas under the broad listing of priority areas?

9: One of the things that we had done under Eco Tourism Development Programme, we had done a Manpower Training Policy and Plan as to in terms of ... all of that was taken back to the Ministry of Education to see how we can introduce a model that would enable us to develop the skills that would go back to the industry. Some of it was absorbed into the development of the Hospitality Management Programme but in terms of whether it went to a next level, I think that was lacking. So the Manpower, Training Policy and Plan Report is there, I’m not sure how many people use it and go back to it and see well, let us make sure that these are the people who get trained so that they can go back in the industry.

10: So you think that is a document that the Ministry of Education should have?

11: They have it. They have it but I think they just need... maybe it’s up for review because we did it in 2002 there about so maybe.

12: But would you say this is something that needs to be reviewed?

13: Probably it needs to be review, because we have to say, do we still need that requirement?
14: **Q: Dominica State College**

Because there were gaps in terms of the middle manager level and of course the basic skills required for persons to come into the industry, and that is why we placed the issue of the basic skills as well as the associate degree within the arm pit of the Dominica State College, so at least it would get the rightful status that it ought to have, so that if a basic person goes in to do catering as a course at the College, they would get a certification for it. The College which is a certified institution! So from that angle you put in the basic skills and of course, the development of the associate degree into the college. And we are hoping that one of the things... that as a member of the board of that State College, is that we are hoping that they themselves can see tourism as a development strategy and have a requisite goal that they would develop the human resource at the college that would filter back into the industry. So I'm hoping that they can have that vision and I keep emphasising that to them and I'm hoping that we can execute.

15: **Q: the main role of education and training**

16: how well fitted do you think the state college is to fulfill that national education and training mandate that has been entrusted on them? How do they fit into that broad scheme of things as far as the destination is concerned and is there room for other players?

17: Okay. In the context of their role developing, enhancing the HR for national development, I see that as important, and as far as I know they should see that as part of their role too, whether they do it for education, whether they do it for tourism, but they have a role to play in ensuring that requisite human response base is available, is skilled, is trained for the country. Of course, it depends on who is at the helm of the ship they may choose to say okay, let's just focus on developing the children so that they can get a degree overseas. But I still feel within that context of that development they must be able to say to them, this is our development strategy and these are the areas we need to focus on. They still can say these things. Well, as I say it depends on who is at the helm of it and what priority they take on because they themselves they are struggling with resources. When you're struggling with resource; that's part of the problem!
constraint to develop a holistic approach to national development and you're
closed to move forward in a direction that should show you the big picture,
because your pre-occupation is crisis management, trying to resolve issues on a day
to day basis. Whereas if you were settled with the requisite amount of resources you
would be able to say, okay, let us sit and see how many people can be trained, for that
sector, for this sector, for the other sector. So at least at the end of the day we can say we
have the requisite persons trained. In terms of Tourism they are bringing out a couple
of people at the associate level, but as to whether these persons have the skill in
terms of the practical experience to come on board, even if they don’t have the full
experience but they have the energy and dynamism and that you would have seen
that would have acquired coming out of academias. But then is like they come out
routine. They just accept the fact that they have a degree to get a job. They did not
acquire no skills in creativity, initiative and just being dynamic. "whoa! I've got this
degree and I'm confident about myself, I can do that!" They come to you very cold and
you ask yourself, can I take somebody with that kind of coldness and I want somebody
with zest, with dynamism that will help you move. Push your business forward!
Exactly, and even the private sector have an issue about that! Because they ask
whether these people can come in into the job market immediately, and so there's a
missing dimension, and that is one of the things I think that the College has to
address, that you cannot just train people for having an associate degree. If there are
some who cannot go on to acquire first degree immediately to the States, then they
have to get absorbed into the job market. So it means that we have to give them the
education for life. The Youth Division interestingly through their Youth Skills
programme, they are another player. They try to equip the young people with skills for
the market, maybe that is something probably I'll have to discuss with the Youth Division
as to whether they equip them to get back into the Industry. I'm not sure! Or they just
quip them for skills to be employed in the job market. To me that's how I'm
seeing it. Of course, you can talk with them because they are another player that provide
basic skills, entrepreneurial skills.
19: O/Q: what approach?
20: So is there not need for other players other than the State College? Because there seem to be different people doing things but there doesn’t seem to be ....The cohesiveness.....Yes.
21: The cohesiveness I think, the synergism required for development is always a problem in Dominica. I don’t know if everybody seem to want to have an empire, they want to run to feel important and does not realise that all of us, we must work together to the common good of the country, and if we do it we will be more cost effective and we’ll achieve more.
22: Is there need for a tourism education specialist with the mandate to pull all the various resources together so that Education and Human Resource Development is given focus in relation to tourism?
23: That is why you have an HR ministry. So therefore if you have a ministry with education and human resource, they have to be able to develop a HR plan for the country.
24: So you say that lies with the Ministry of Education?
25: Yes, that’s Education and Human Resource Development. Their concept of HR Development is just providing scholarship to go and study by that’s not only the concept. It must be able to also say, okay, this year we sending five (5) to do medicine, five (5) to do Tourism and five (5) to do .....we projecting! We collaborate also with the Establishment Department because we in the public sector. Succession planning, that is the thing we talking. Although the Public Service is trying very much to do that, but in terms of the fact that we are so engrossed in crisis management, we have very little time to do succession planning and the issue of....
26: And you feel that is throughout the Ministries as well?
27: Everywhere, because the fact that we are pressed from a lot of issues is crisis management you do! We have little time to do proper planning. Most times when we try to do a bit of planning is planning for the resources that Finance will give us, and there we factor all the issues pertinent to the Ministry. But in terms of when we now meet all as a Ministry and say you know what, this is what I need for my money, everybody just trying to see how they got their money, but every time I go to that
discussion I say, let us look at the thing holistically. Okay, what is it we want to achieve for 2008? and it that's what we want to achieve for 2010, then okay, we need so many people there, we need so much money there, we need so much equipment; nobody wants take that approach because everybody wants to preserve. Their own... preserve and ensure they implement what they have, and I suppose that is governed....again the whole political framework creates an issue there; because you have Ministers which come in for five years and everyone of them wants to see themselves shine. And in essence it trickles down, because if you trying to have a focused approach to development and you say, okay, I'm going to make sure I finish that project.....

28: O/Q: training issues and challenges
29: There's another national committee that looks at, in particular when there's scholarships to be given, there's a national committee that sits on that to ensure that persons who apply are applying for scholarships that are within the national priority, those kinds of things; and that is led by Education. It used to be before by Establishment when Establishment had Human Resource matters but now that national HR is under Education, so they suppose to take that leading role to ensure that people who get scholarships, people who get trained are getting trained and getting scholarships in the priorities of the country. But I think when we have the problem is when these people come back, you don't have jobs to offer them and you find that they either disappear and so you're struggling to find the requisite skills at the time when you need to find them, and I think is because you probably need to take a closer look at how we do the succession Planning, so you say, okay, in two years you send 5 people to do Medicine, so in five years time you have to cater for those five (5) people coming back. That kind of succession planning to fitting back these people when they come back. That I think is not being done.

30: And you say that happens in the tourism sector as well?
31: The whole country on a whole; the country on a whole! Every time somebody come back they cannot find jobs, is because we don't do that national planning succession planning for Human Resource development.
But interestingly, there is the view that to have somebody in education who would be responsible for tourism education and training at a national level, that person would be lost because they won’t be in tune with developments in tourism; the feeling here is that the Ministry of Tourism should be leading as far as developing the human resource for the tourism sector is concerned.

They may feel that because then again they looking at it sectorally; and that is the problem we have. Every time we look at the issue sectorally we not getting the big picture. So there has to be a core competence of people that will sit down and look at the proper succession planning for the country. Yes, it may be at each sector that you put somebody of course, there is the personnel, people, what they do, they look for people in the context of upward mobility, lateral mobility, horizontal and upward...

Do you want to create at each sector a mechanism to handle that or you have a big organisation that has both public/private sector representation and people look at the needs of the country, and that is why the issue of the integrated planning is critical. It goes back to that again, national planning is a big thing, and that’s what we are not doing! We are not doing that!

So is there a problem with the connectivity between departments?

The synergy between sectors and the coordinated approach to ensure that it’s filtered around the sectors is not at its best. That’s what I would say. But as to when we get to that point I think part of that is driven by the political agenda. The political agenda drives a lot of things. We are a country that every five years politicians have to go up for election and the issue is that, they will want to achieve certain things sometimes that drives the process as opposed to an integrated development plan and that is, okay,. Five years where we want to be as a country. Ten years, this is where we want...
to be. We not doing that! Everybody just implementing and you have a set of projects to implement every year, as to how they implement it, sometimes they don't get implemented, and so what you find is that projects, we are still 'projectised' where development is concerned. But development is a national programme where we have goals, we set goals. we going to say okay, this year we want to make sure so many people are trained in Tourism, so many people in medicine, so many people in Agriculture, to address the issue of increased productivity in Agriculture, to address the issue of marketing and arrivals in the Tourism sector. So you equip set goals for the sector and you equip it with the requisite people. Yet we try at our sectoral levels to do it, but how does it filter at the national level?

Q: role of the private sector – tourism sector stakeholders

Do you see a role for private sector organisations in taking up some of the training responsibility?

The private sector themselves must get their act together!

Do you see a role for them taking up some of the training?

But of course they have a role, because just as I have to see to the fact that there are requisite skills and personnel within the industry from a public sector… they have to do likewise. But what you find is that they all do is for their own properties. The smaller properties, I don’t even think they do it. The DHTA has been constrained. You notice now they went and implement a project, but in terms of they getting their act together they are limited themselves in terms of what they can do.

Q: Who should be involved

Do you see the need for a separate institution taking up the mandate to push the national education and training? Should it be privatised or should it remain within the mandate of the Ministry of Education as is?

I think Education have to lead with it with a coordinated mechanism. If you want to call it like a national education and training planning committee, something like that. And so you will bring private sector, Tourism, not only Tourism you have Agriculture, varied representation on... or you can broaden the mandate of that committee that's sits on deciding who gets scholarships, you can broaden it's scope.
I remember I attended the meeting once or twice and these were the things I said to them. But the problem is when you have the type of people who are busy in many other things, and when they come all they want to do is sit and discuss and select people for scholarship, they don’t meet to plan otherwise.

46: **So you need persons that can really plan?**

47: So even that Committee can take up that role as well; you **don’t necessarily need to reinvent the wheel**; and we need to do that, because we losing our best brains. The few best ones who stay they just want to stay because they love Dominica.

48: **O/Q: what approach - having a tourism institute**

49: Do you think there's need for a more specialised institution in tourism studies or an institute for sciences and the arts which include tourism as a subject?

50: If you say it’s so important and people need to understand what tourism is all about, maybe that’s where you develop the drive or the excitement for them to even consider it as something that they can pursue as a career and there are many opportunities there for them in it. I don’t know if you want to reinvent the wheel by having another institution.

51: **But some key players are saying we need an institution that can just focus on the local product rather than the State College generic CTO Programme.**

52: **But there are similarities in our region so why go and reinvent the wheel?** The issue I think at the College is that they have to get to...because really it suppose to be an institute within a college. All Colleges have departments. So it can have a hospitality Department, as part of an overall...because it’s intended that the College will become a real College, in the context of a real College and then you will have issues like Hospitality being in depth as it ought to be, in terms of not being a CTO...but being one defined. But an organisation like CTO has been in the region for a while can give merit to an institution that is putting forth a programme that will lead the island’s or the country’s tourism development. So they can provide guidance. So I don’t have difficulty with them.

53: **Because some stakeholders are thinking of the local music, arts and dance?**
Well then in terms of the culture, in terms of the culture... then is where you find that the whole issue of culture and heritage, the college probably needs to pick that up. So there are the avenues; to me I will not reinvent the wheel with another institution. The College can develop capacity to take on those things but again, it is constraint with resources, and for you to go and establish a department of culture and heritage within the College, you need to have the requisite people that would be able to facilitate the lecturers; you have to have the requisite facilities because you just don’t want to bring people to teach them about culture; they have to have the practical aspect of it, because that is happening even the programme of Hospitality at the College. We do not have a full fledged Hospitality Institute, where people are really trained, they do the hands on. culinary skills..., the customer... the hands on thing; there was provision made in the Ministry of Education's Budget to do it but it took so long that all of a sudden the funds were diverted to another...

Well there’s the argument that if you move it away from the State College and it is privately run as a private institution that is owned and managed as a hotel school then it can be managed like a business.

Nothing can deter ... anyone can come up with that just like the lady came up with the Business Training Institutive; who say that you cannot come up with a Hospitality Institute a private sector run institution? Of course!

The question is whether that might solve some of the current problems?

It would help because there's always room for competition and support. No one man can do it. No one man can do it. There is always room for others to come in and be players in the market.

O/Q: tourism education structure

How do you think the tourism curriculum should be structured or developed for the different age groups?

The Manpower Training and Policy that we developed, that is one of the things that it recommended. So there is a special model that I think in some school in Jamaica that they advocated the introduction of Tourism. The infusion Model? ... The Infusion Model, that they advocated at the school level and we were moving towards......
began having discussions with Education in that regard to see how they could incorporate it, mindful of that kind of recommendation.

62: O/Q: organisational issues - tourism education, unit or officer

63: Would you support the addition of a Tourism Curriculum Officer on the Education staff? Because currently at the Curriculum Unit there is nobody there with a tourism background. . . . so they just teaching some basic facts! And the feeling was the Ministry of Tourism would know best about the industry, the sector's policies and what's going on in the industry?

64: Well, we were prepared to work with them not necessarily have somebody on their curriculum. If they see it as a . . . we can make that pitch but were also making the pitch at the initial stage that we would work with them. We would work with them and provide the support required.

65: A lot of stakeholders are saying care must be taken not make the same mistakes with agriculture, where is was not taken very seriously in terms of proper planning and fore sight and then it collapsed; the concern is though a lot was done the sector still failed, so the need not make the same errors as with those made with developing the agricultural sector has been a common concern. What are your views on that issue in relation to tourism?

66: The amount of money agriculture got cannot be compared with what we need and not getting. So Agriculture has received a lot of support. They have all the infrastructure, they had all the resources. Up till now they still have the infrastructure and they still getting the support base. As to whether that same kind of energy is put into Tourism nationally, I'm not sure!

67: But do you think it is necessary?

68: Of course it is absolutely necessary because you must develop a second sector, so that you can have a buffer for economic development because it will generate revenue. Look at the Cruise ship industry, when the cruise season is on. There are some people whose revenue generation is good because of the Cruise Industry, the cruise season. The stay-overs are good for the hotel sector when they have full occupancy. They doing well! Of course, when it is slow they complain which is nothing because they
are not paying their bills. But when it is good, it is good because they get a high turnover.34

169: O/Q: organisational structure - tourism unit or officer

70: Do you think there is the need for tourism education extension officers working at the community level?

71: Oh, we need it because if you notice when we implemented the ETDP it was necessary; but of course, we could have only done it through the length of the project and I think more and more it's becoming necessary.

72: I'm thinking especially with the trail that's going to be developed.

73: Well, the Waitukubuli Trail, we sort of putting that kind of staff on board; so that they could work at the community level, you need it, because only when you infiltrate the rural areas and people begin to understand through awareness, through dialogue, through discussion with them, you can get a sense that they begin to feel that it is trickling down to them. All the time that you sit at the government level, the hotel level in town, they don't see it. They only see it when they begin to inter-phase with them they understand what is happening; then they can appreciate the distribution of the wealth where tourism is concerned. So it's critical.36 So every project we have like the SFA we going to implement, we will maybe ... What is SFA? Small framework of assistance; it's an instrument under which the European Union provides certain kinds of windows of resources for ACP countries.

74: Okay. Is that something with DFID or a different project?

75: No, it's on its own merit. That is a window of resources they have made available for tourism for us to implement, expand a bit on what we did under the ETDP, as well as strengthen the capabilities within the Ministry of Tourism. So we will need a technical specialist from somewhere around March and we will need somebody to come in to be like programme coordinator for the programme and somebody just to do basic accounts.

76: O/Q: approach - informal education

77: Interesting! So is there room for the media, the Village Council and other such structures?
Tourism is everybody's business! What we did when we established the ETDP was that we had what you call, Tourism Development Committee that comprised both the local authority and the group that were interested in tourism a combined group to form what you called a tourism development committee, OK. So to me we sought of established the structure at the rural level already that we can piggy back on. We made them non-profit organisations, so that they are an organised grouping and so on, so that at least they can do what is required.

O/Q: Challenges and issues

What can be done to ensure that when foreign funded projects end that there is continuity?

You see a lot of the things that we do when the projects are being implemented in terms of educating the people so that they can understand the need for them to be self-sufficient and having a measure of confidence on their own and that they can minimise that dependency syndrome that they have. I think we are still plagued with that dependency syndrome and these are attitudes, these are inherent things, how do you cure those things. Of course at a policy level there has to be a consistent recognition that if you're saying Tourism is one of the development strategies for growth you have to put in the requisite resources and all the necessary things required to be sustained, but if you want to recognise it as a growth and all the time you just relying on donor agencies, then of course that's the big issue.

O/Q: role of the policy makers

Do you think then that there should be a policy decision on education and training particularly in the area of human resources for the tourism sector?

I think it's necessary, but I don't think it's something that should be sectoralised. I think if you're going to move any country forward education and training has to be across all sectors. Of course, your priority is tourism at this juncture, so of course one would say, yes, it's necessary. Indirectly we do it but it's not consistent and structured, in a sense that we see it as a requirement to have the requisite human resource for the sector. When the opportunities present themselves we
make sure we have the skilled personnel to come on board to work, we make sure the persons, when we get the opportunity to have fund available to send people for training, we do that! But in terms at the national level where you should have the impetus; where people should say okay, if agriculture and tourism are going to be the two driving development strategies, we must plan properly so that we have the necessary human resource every year that would be coming in, going out, coming in, going out; so that at any one time you have the requisite skills available to run these two critical sectors that are required for national development. I think it needs to be functioning effectively. There is a committee I said to you that looks at the issue of people going for training, in terms of when scholarships are made available but I think their scope needs to be broaden so that it takes on a more succession planning aspect of it, so that when people come back they can be placed in positions that are made available to them. I think that is important. In general education and training are requisite for tourism. It's necessary both basic skill, intermediary and, of course, Tertiary and higher academic training, because more and more people must be skilled in policy development, in understanding how you develop plans for integrated development planning you need that kind of skill within the industry. Of course, you will always need people at the basic level because we'll have high turnover, people move forward; and so you'll need people with customers skills, culinary skills, housekeeping skills, all those things are required. So you will always need people trained in that area. The College will provide the necessary base for the associate degree but as they themselves recognise, there's a need for us to have the hospitality institute established at the College, and that is one of the goals that they will seek to achieve. I'm not sure within what time frame, but it is one of the goals.

85: O/Q: Final comments – more challenges

86: any closing comments?

87: I think for one, how the resources are allocated to tourism. If you say it's an industry that's the engine of growth, how the resources are allocated, if you give me the chance I would, how it is allocated; of course, you would demand accountability for it and, of
course, the consistent support and back up from donor agencies, you will always have to 
continuously ensure it is there to give you the back up because with small islands the 
resources are limited, but I think, how you allocate the resources for tourism, I think that 
needs to be changed for sure. A lot of emphasis is placed on the infrastructure, the road 
network, although that is important for us because you can’t bring people to Dominica 
and your road network is not the best; but it seem to be the one absorbing the greater 
allocation of government budget in terms of the road networks, the infrastructure, bridges 
and again, of course, for us being prone to hurricanes and so on, that affects it. So I 
think is the availability of resources and how do we allocate it, I would love to see a 
different picture in that regard.48

88: Okay, thank very much for your help.

Annotations
1 lack of fit with existing education and training provision and the needs of the sector
2 instrumentalist concerns
3 training viewed as a cost factor for the private sector stakeholders
4 ad hoc; unsustainable approach
5 ad hoc; unsustainable approach
6 issue of relevance
7 evidence of lack of clear policy directive; decisions seemed to be based on individual interest of key 
actors
8 Impact of the limitation of lack of resources
9 questions programme suitability in developing skills required; leadership, initiative, drive etc.
10 education for knowledge or practice; issues with curriculum lack of focus on needs of local industry in 
programme focus
11 need different players to work together; and co-ordination of players
12 need for co-ordination and national education and training plan for the island
13 stresses need for planning at the policy level put cites challenges which hinder such efforts
14 explains concerns of policy makers and key actors with budget concern rather than broader 
developmental issues
15 impact of departmentalism and national political system of governance
16 need for planning to link needs to training provided
17 stresses need for a national and holistic approach to education and training
18 issues and challenges of departmentalism and sectoral approach
19 emphasises the need for national planning; expresses concern about negative impacts of sectoral 
approach to planning
20 Again concerns with lack of a national approach to planning; explains the impact of politics and system 
of governance
concerns with current project approach to national development
alludes to inadequacies within the private sector
challenges and limitations of small enterprises in private sector
Again need for a national planning committee for education and training
need for players who would be focused on national planning; issues and challenges of limited resource persons
need to maintain link with what happens in the region; 'no need to reinvent the wheel', this concept keep recurring among some experts;
acknowledges the need for training to be relevant to local culture
nature of programme structure/alludes to inadequacies
planning challenge/resource reallocation
concept expressed here links to that of other experts who claim that 'no man is an island'
reference to regional best practices, infusion model utilised in Jamaica is another concept referred to by several experts
interested in collaborating but expressed a certain level of departmentalism
interesting comment, in terms of experts' role as a key policy player
economic importance of tourism
evidence of project approach to development and lack of continuity in programmes offered
need for specialist at the ground level
further evidence of project approach to development and reliance on foreign aid for national development;
all inclusive concept; common motto used within the local sector
alluded to usefulness of national planning structure
need for structure nation-wide
issue of dependency raised
challenge of continued heavy dependence on foreign aid for development of the local industry
supports policy driven approach; all inclusive and holistic approach
need for structured approach
needs for proper planning at national level
importance of education and training to the sector; suggestions of specific training needs
acknowledges needs for advancement of education and training in a structured manner
developmental challenges of a small island state; dependency on foreign aid and donor agencies

Note
Annotations and continuous coding and recoding as shown in the above comments in margins throughout this interview and within Nvivo into various trees and free nodes (reflected in the following output documents from Nvivo) lead to the four broad themes and sub themes discussed in detail in chapters eight to ten.

17
For the most part free nodes where use to code useful but not quite pertinent concepts (as far as addressing the research objectives of this investigation). Tree nodes were engaged for coding data into relevant parent tree and branches, that is, broad or overall themes and sub themes.
Reflections while working with data in NVivo July 2008

What will I theorise about??????

How tourism education training policy decision are made
- What affect the policy development and implementation process
- Who is involved
- What is their impact
- What are the uncontrollable circumstances or forces

What are the planning issues involved here
- Policy
- Education
- Tourism
- National

What theories in the literature can I utilise
- Education
- Tourism
- Planning
- Policy

What is the broad role of education .....and in terms of national development and how those it conflict with or impact on what is done at the sectoral level;
On the other hand how should what is done at the sectoral level fit into the broad national vision

Round A

ATOU.19

The interviewee feels that the main role for tourism education is capacity building be it at the level of the schools or the industry. There was a strong emphasis on the need for developing a cadre of person who could “run and manage” the sector. The state college though deemed as a good initiative is not seen as sufficient to make provision for all the needs. A country approach was strongly recommended, with a lot of synergies particularly between the ministry of education and tourism. Interviewee suggested that through these linkages training remains within the roles of various other public sector department in fulfilment of their duties.

Think there is need to rethink the approach to tourism education and that it should not be lost among other subjects but addressed as a subject by itself.

“the matter of policy in education is the purview of the Ministry of Education, so clearly that’s where it resides but in terms of the programming you would have to determine where you can put the programs;”, state college however has a
critical role to play. Advocates the need for specialists to develop the HR in the sector just like there are marketing and other specialists.

Need to focus on generic tourism areas as well as those where there is a competitive advantage, soft adventure, eco tourism.

Who should be involved......tourism is everybody business approach....but training remains ad hoc and project oriented.... Not aware of what goes on in the schools

We have to make tourism education a priority in development in the country, driven by competent professional staff.

**APUB.26**

Value and importance of the people and the sector as an economic driver were key issues raised; developing the pride of the people and local culture

Developing human capacity was central to most arguments

Education and training does not get enough budgetary support for the amount place on the sector itself.......value of education questionable; imbalance in government planning for tourism and tourism education

Question the general thinking to the type of education of the masses....value systems and what is given importance and priority.....people building need to receive more focus....change of mind set required.

More collaboration

More structure to programmes

Approach to policy and planning is also critical

More focus on environmental and marine education

Private sector relies heavily on public sector to do training; they should be more proactive

**AEDU.06**

Begin education at early childhood.

Continuous education...ongoing

Taught as a subject
Everybody has a role

Make education relevant to history and culture

Train the teachers to teach

Sustainability is important

**ATOU.21**

Comments on the quality of the training programs done at old NDC and college level;
issues with structure and content;
value for money
capacity issue of trainee and staff
duration and evaluation of programs flawed

think more focus and support and better planning need to be given to tourism education and training generally
Emerging themes emerging from data under broad categories

These were utilised initially to guide and build core ideas and themes while still in the field. Also served to direct interview process as rounds proceeded.

Later the list continued to be complied and developed after the fieldwork and as analysis continued.

Approach
- we need a structured approach
- a multi sectoral approach is required
- a holistic approach
- participatory approach
- integrated approach
- collaborative approach
- all inclusive approach
- national approach
- multi sectoral approach
- multi sectoral approach and lead by the ministries of education and tourism
- a broad base country approach is necessary
- there must be a convergence of ideas
- strategic education and training targeting all or most or key sectors
- we need to listen to the people; get everybody involved
- more consultation with the masses; particularly at the grass root level; and listen to the people
- we need to consider what D/ea need to develop its tourism product and develop our education program along those needs; our education program should drive the need of Dominica
- we need to strategise, develop a systematic approach; bring it up to the level of a science

College
- The state college is no the best place to have placed the total mandate for national education and training
- need for evaluation of program
- generic program is ok as we need satisfy the regional job market
- effects of the policy under which the college operates: focus is on preparation for American universities not on CAPE
- evaluation of program is critical in planning ahead to development of the program
- state college may not have enough staff for conducting training
- interviewee A10 not aware of state college program
- attachment program with the hotels is not structured; the properties are free to do what they like with the students and further they come in for only a few weeks
- the college program does not provide for the needs of entry level positions at the college
college does not address the limitations of the industry in culinary arts
there are issues with the programs: lack of structure in programs offered and proper organisation; inappropriate timing, last minute attitude to deliver
interviewee 12 not sure of details of state college program
feeling that program was moved to the college to make it look like they are a college
the needs of the industry should drive the program at the college
is the soul boy to train tourism employees but interviewee does not think that college can fulfil the current government's mandate; only one individual in the department (find out if another one has joined) more resources and staff needed.
College to build hospitality institute
There is n evidence of cross collaboration in content among disciplines at the college level
Students do not need to have tourism prerequisite to enter program but this would be welcomed by lecturer
College training at the college down when funding is available, in some cases once a year

Careers needed
Botanist, mineralists, hydrologists, farm tour operators, volcanist,

Community
- more structured approach at the level of community
- advocates community advisory officers
- education is also required at the level of the community
- you need to infiltrate the communities and this cannot be done by sitting in the ministries or offices so there is need for the support at the community level
- community tourism needs to be developed
- community program is very important for d/ca as well as what happens at schools
- community empowerment is necessary

Content focus areas
- soft adventures: sulphur baths, rivers, turtle watching; we should train our students in what we have; the various sites, rain forest

Challenges
- Raises issues of curriculum space
- Getting trained persons to return to communities
- The issue of training persons for outside of Dominica rather than for the local industry
- Issue of size of the island may be a limitation but established private sector institutions can consider including these in their curriculum
- Lack of funding is a problem for implementation of training programs as consultants usually have to be brought in
Culture
- we need to cultivate an entrepreneurial culture
- need to preserve knowledge base of the elders
- need to preserve traditional agricultural practices “agri-culture”
- preserve our unique habits and way of life so we can pass them on one from one generation
- the arts and other professionals could be utilised to educate and train students; a form of partnership with incentives for the artist
- make use of the life of the centenarians, their philosophy and experience;
- we need to use what is typically Dominican
- use of food, culture, architecture, design etc. in presenting our way life

Curriculum Unit
- persons assigned to tourism education at the curriculum unit may not have the skills, knowledge and interest in tourism education
- suggest the need for curriculum officer for tourism education (of DDA officer)

DHTA
- Has to play a more active role
- Have their own challenges
- Needs to take over the programs of the old NDC; they need to take up that role; picking up the slack form NDC because they need best know their needs

DDA
- The DDA needs to be proactive and drive the needs the industry:
- after doing member check it was clarified that the new DDA will still be identifying needs of the industry and bring these to the attention of the college as they are charged with the certification of the players in the industry; find that in interactions with schools students do not even know what is tourist and the benefits we get from the tourist dollar
- concern now is mainly with tourism awareness in schools all training has now been shifted to Dominica state college

Education
- education should be everybody’s business
- we have to look at education from all angles because we may seek to develop one aspect and at the same time destroy another: we have to learn from all the lessons of the past; then capture, note and highlight the simple things
- no serious education is taking place; we need to get serious
- education is a process
- we need to stop training our students to just pass exams; we need to train them to be entrepreneurs
• we are not informed and educated on what tourism is
• we need general education on tourism
• develop program along the life cycle
• whole tourism education needs to be more formalised and articulated
• there is the issue of home schooling are we catering to those needs
• education should be formal, informal and non-formal
• education is also necessary for hotel owners as well
• has to be broad base and incorporate a number of agendas
• of the general public
• education must have greater reach; more can be done to reach other groups than
the groups targeted at the state college
• our education system does not cater for the ecotourism product
• need to educate general public towards a service culture
• education will take a vital role in terms of what direction we take
• we want to give to much at the primary and lower levels and the children do not
get a chance to learn the basic so we do them an injustice and this is of no benefit
to the country in the long run
• there is need for the generic programs as we are also catering for preparing
persons for jobs in the region (ie) satisfying the regional market, but we must also
concentrate on ecotourism to meet our local product and its needs, so curriculum
must also de developed on eco-tourism and nature tourism
• if you going to move the country forward education should not be sectorised; at
the national level there should be proper planning so that at any one time there is
the required HR to run the various department and industries, succession planning
with those going out and coming in at all level across the board
• education should help persons opt for tourism careers
• education is the base for laying the foundation for the development of the industry
in the various institutions
• must have different categories of education to meet the different needs of the
industry there is no one stop shop
• education must start in the school and reach the homes
• method of teaching and learning must also be multidisciplinary in approach
• we need to use more local literature produced by d/cans
• there is need for professional continuing education
• we have to stir up the desire for further and general public education

Employees
• need a change of attitude to customer service

General concepts
• Continuity
• need for exposure and knowledge of product
• need for understanding of local product
• there is a need to appreciate and maintain the simple things such as the way of life
of the local people particularly in the rural communities
• not sure what the national priorities for tourism education and training and what should be our main focus
• change of mind set is required
• teachers must be trained
• learn from other countries: their successes and failures
• use of verifiable and performance indicators is key
• need for new research
• structure of the local political system is a limitation
• do not need to reinvent the wheel; we have to get people to take ownership and to do things how we want it done
• what needs to happen will be determined by the education planners
• importance must be given to the public debate as they common man may have important views that the professionals would miss if not in touch with what is happening on the ground
• importance must be given to public consultation
• there needs to be an understanding of the local tourism product
• intimacy with the product is required
• thorough knowledge base is key
• there is a strong link between tourism and agriculture
• there should be a strong internship programme
• we should not use foreign concepts designed by foreigners (verify)
• change of mind set required
• there is a lack of awareness among students, the key public sector departments etc.
• local experts must be consulted
• voluntarism is important
• personality attributes is important for service
• there must be some ongoing structure in the way things are done
• have a program that develop in concepts and is sustained and ongoing throughout the system
• we need to look at the social aspects of our capital projects
• we need to think in terms of continuity; what are the long term develop plans
• we need to sensitise the general public
• Dominicans must know the country before theory can sell
• Heavy focus on training for sustainability of the sector particularly at the community level
• We need to get to the point where we have people who have both professional training and experience
• Study or research the whole community and then develop programs around that; look at the whole product and the various niches
Government
- government has to give direction as private sector is small in this country but it has to be willing to support education and training financially
- national planning is not at its best, the political agenda drives a lot of things and most times that drives the process
- “we still projectised” as far as development is concerned

Human Capacity
- develop capacity on our people
- need to develop creativity in our people
- need for capacity building at grass root level and through practical learning
- need for empowerment of the people at all spheres and all levels
- training of staff within the system should be key; this should be broad base so as to ensure that they are persons qualified and trained to develop the product
- we should have specialist as tourism educators
- need for human resource development aspect of tourism development
- “we put the cart before the house……some of the implementers of the curriculum are not trained in tourism prior to their involvement in the tourism curriculum
- We do not engage in national HR and succession planning and that is the main problem
- Capacity at college limited personnel could not expressed a vision for transformation of the current program (find quote)

Institute
- Strong views expressed in favour of establishment of an institute to deal with education and training for tourism and the arts; in favour of removing it from the state college; have an academy for the arts, drama, theatre, self expression
- This institute must be driven by professionals in the field
- It should be set up specifically for students in that field be they nationals, regional or international
- An institution would be good but not in the short term
- Utilise institutions outsides of the schools: youth groups, church
- Supports need of hospitality institute concept
- There is the need for an institution to provide formal training to the sector
- Interviewee has a vision for a hospitality institute in D/a to serve regional market as well and with an international connection
- Institute will not answer all the problems but it is a good idea

Master plan
- little information is being circulated on the master plan and policy document
- interviewee A7: educator not aware of tourism master plan and policy
- there is a divide in what is the master plan and the policy document and what is actually taught in schools
- master plan and policy must be disseminated and focus must be clear
Media
- role of the media should be more positive
- role of the media is more information provision
- media needs to be more proactive: should go into private sector partnership
- media has a role in educating the public
- role of the media should be more focused on building that creating conflict

Ministries
- ministry of tourism and education must work together
- education should look at implementing summer programs in skills training
- collaborative approach needed between the ministry of education and tourism and among other ministries
- there is a gap between the ministries of education and tourism

Policy
- Policy should be people driven and government has a supporting role
- Interviewee A7 not aware of national priorities and objectives
- Policy makers must give mandate and directive to the nation on priorities and objectives
- The politicians should seek through cabinet to set these priorities for tourism education
- Policy & legislation should be left to government but the private sector and statutory body could take over the business of education and training
- Tourism minister directs policy but sometimes we have policy but we do things viti vie; the people involved allot depend on them
- At the policy level there is need to put in all the structures needed to support the growth
- Policy in education must be conducive to the direction of attitude change as it is the ministers who are the ones that ratify the policies at UWI and CXC; our arguments re CAPE; our college is geared towards preparing students for American universities; thus the magnetic pull from our local college is out of Dominica
- Support the need for policy direction to move the master plan and tourism document from being just part of a document to something that is implementable and actually implemented

Possible quotes
“At the end of the day we singing different parts in a song but is one song we singing....”A3:29.30

“As a principal........what do I tell students about tourism?” A5:

“ must have the ministry of education blessings” A9
“Tourism is everybody’s business must not only be a saying, we have to make everybody tourism business” A9

Se ou pa vale ke ta......you see it you like it, but if you do want it leave it

What path did you follow to get to a PhD in tourism maybe you could be a role model for other students

Is one big tree with different branches......and everybody coming together to build

We talk a lot about the certification of the student rather than whether students will be effective in the industry.....people managing the education needs to see things beyond the certification...we are sending someone out their who is going to represent who we are...

**Private sector**
- infantile in the country
- has to play their part
- has to take up a more active role
- must be involved and play a pivotal role
- they will have to be sold on their social and political responsibility to the tourism industry A8: pg6-7
- private sector ahs to take some ownership
- support strong input from private from private sector and get the involvement of national experts at the community level
- very few budget for education and training though they know it is expensive

**Purpose for training**
- Training for management and development of the sector
- Building capacity

**Public sector**
- tourism education occurs in some government departments: police, customs, air and sea ports, environmental health, forestry; these departments sometimes do some programs with schools but not linked with each other in their efforts, hence a disconnect exist
- collaboration among public sector required: focus on agriculture, communication & works, planning, community development
- training of top and senior officers in the public sector

**Research**
- Nation wide research and data collection is needed to address this issue; then utilize the findings
Resources
- lack of resources is a major
- there is a need for officers operating at community level building local capacity
- large dependency on foreign funding
- we need to utilize what we have, know it, understand it, preserve it and past it on to the youth
- we need to look at what we have that other islands do not have; or should we develop our product along other islands like Jamaica and Barbados
- proper resources must be located to tourism training

Recommendations
- Need for national education and training planning committee
- Do not reinvent the wheel

Ref to others
- HEART Trust
- HEART Runaway in Jamaica
- Hotel schools
- St Lucia, Bahamas
- Look at other countries, it help to identify best practices and also ones inadequacies
- Analyse the successes of other countries
- Learn from neighbouring countries

Scholarships
- More scholarships required

Schools
Early childhood
- introduce at early childhood education
- begin an elementary
Primary level
- begin at primary school
- integrated approach at primary and secondary levels
- should not be ad hoc at the primary level
Secondary level
- tourism should be introduced at post secondary level
- certificate in tourism studies by doing courses in tourism as part of other subjects
- should be introduced from third form as a subject but should be involved none the less at an early stage as part of other subjects
- there is a case for tourism to be taught as a subject in secondary schools
- project writing is important
Tertiary level
at the tertiary level we should train our people to manage and lead

Other
- Adult education programme needed
- Make use of existing private education and training institutions
- Basic skills for less academic individuals

- tourism should be taught as a subject
- there is a divide between what is on the national curriculum and what is actually taught in schools
- there is no structure approach to education and training
- there is some awareness taking place in the schools but much more is needed
- there need to be some level of interest and awareness stimulated at the lower levels of schools which can be built upon at the state college.
- Awareness should include live experience with the local product not only theory
- A model with a focus on tourism in the short to medium term is the best approach
- Health and fitness, adventure, site visits, develop knowledge of the products; field trips in various subjects
- A school/class can adopt a senior: (in helping them learning can also take place) interaction with the elders can help the youngsters learn about our way of life; we need to develop and document our history
- More coordination needed form school up to.....
- Schools must also be
- focused on a range of subjects so we are no locked into one area of focus; there must be a built in flexibility
- there must sensitivity at not only the levels of the students but also at the level of the teachers
- need for entrepreneurial skills at schools

Service
- We are not service oriented
- Pay attention to customer service
- We need change the “if you do not want it leave it attitude”
- Cultural sensitivity to tourism as a career option of choice rather than a sub servant industry
- As a people we do not demand quality service as persons so we ourselves as a people have difficulty give good service; so we have to find a way to change that mind set

Syllabus/curriculum
- Civics, manners and etiquette must be place on the syllabus
- Rich and diverse cultural heritage
- Creole language, foods
- Agro-tourism, coconut & banana
- Tourism should be integrated into other subjects
- No subject should be taught in isolation
Essay writing in schools
We need an integrated approach to develop; our history, culture, geography etc to avoid the errors of agriculture
Spread tourism education throughout the curriculum
There should be an integrated approach throughout the curriculum
We need to introduce curricula that speak to tourism
A lot more can be done through social studies
Management studies is essential in various aspects of the sector
Taught as part of social studies is limited
Sustainable tourism, natural resource management, environmental studies
We need to be creative in integrated the subjects within the curriculum
Should be introduced to students before they get to the college
Involve other aspects of training like environmental issues
Serving people is the same every where so what we need to teach is our history, culture; total education about Dominica not just tourism
"A whole" curriculum should be develop

Issues of the indiscipline of tourism recurs in the discussions where persons think that we do not need to teach tourism but we need basic skills and it can be integrated into all other subjects as it is linked to almost all disciplines

Stakeholders
- Need a certain level of awareness
- Business owners must train their employees or ensure that they can get trained
- Owner/managers of properties who are not trained are part of the problem of our sector

Teachers/Trainers
- need for dedicated unit of tourism education officers
- train teachers to teach tourism
- if this has to be left to them, teachers need to be trained, but a high level of collaboration is required
- teachers need to have a certain level of knowledge

Training
- wholesome training is required
- training should be at all levels and areas of public and private sector
- quality training is needed at the community level
- training is also required in quality and variety; so that we can train persons to offer options
- training has to be as per international standards
- train for entrepreneurship
- train our people to develop the product
- there is an inconsistency in approach: certification for cruise ship taxi operators but not for those at the airports (conflict in signals)
• training for service is key and to love what we do
• we need to train persons at the higher level for a specific areas of tourism education so that they can teach and train at the college level
• languages are important to every child
• there is a culture of expecting payment when training is being conducted
• training must be adapted to suit the specific sector in industry
• training of trainers at community level is necessary and bring in persons from other communities as facilitators
• training in presentation and packaging
• all Dominicans need to be trained or at least informed
• we do not focus on our training needs: heritage, sustainable tourism, archaeology, nature tourism, landscaping
• training must also focus on the indigenous people, whale watching, heritage and develop of these niches
• we need to train our people so that they can stay here to work
• more training at the community level
• wholesome training is now required, sessions are still piece meal even at the college level (two week certification is not sufficient)
• current training is limited
• train the middle and top managers; however a lot of people out now studying now at universities and hospitality and other areas
• NDC once viewed and training important enough that it formed an integral part of its product develop mandate, now it has been limited to public awareness
• Offer basic skills program for entry level positions for 2-3 months on demand basis (training for employment/employees)
• There is a need for extended programs leading to further and higher level training
• A more localised package focused on the D/can experience
• Training in schools are important environment and health
• Attitude training is key: psychology - you have to know how to bullshit the tourist so they can spend their money
• People doing the training are not clear themselves of the tourism product; neither are people in the industry
• We are actually just training people to manage components of the product
• Individuals need to be trained so that they can have a holistic knowledge of the product

Tourism education and training
  • Tourism as part of other subjects
  • Tourism linked throughout curriculum to other subjects
  • we are nice people but we need to train our human resources how to be more
  • tourism education is urgent
  • taught as a subject by itself will help identify students who have an inclination to that field as a career choice
• should tourism be introduced as part of other subjects or subjects as part of
tourism? Where should emphasis be? How is it going to be time tabled and
approached at a national level
• should be ongoing
• tourism is part of social studies both at the primary and secondary. It forms
one module of the CXC curriculum
• should be from the womb to the tomb
• tourism education not institutionalised at lower levels of the system
• we should go beyond letting the children just write on tourism they need to get
involved in community projects
• to be successful must be structured and lead by the ministry of education;
• more effort and funding should be placed on tourism education and training

Tourism
• we have to define tourism in terms of Dominica
• do not think we are serious about tourism develop
• the same emphasis that was placed on agriculture should be placed on tourism
• advocates training our people in terms of what we have our biodiversity etc
• we need to lay the foundation in our institutions of d/ca as a safe haven and a
country of longevity
• needs extension officers

Deviant views
• Need to listen to public debate
• Trainer persons to lead the tourism industry
• Certificate in tourism government should never get into tourism education
because everywhere in the would that they have done so it has fail; it is a private
sector industry and the private sector should take up the responsibility for
education and training
• Absence of CAPE at the state college – students continue to migrate never to
return
• Training is necessary for political survival (from the prospective of winning
elections)
• Voluntarism and utilizing gov’t schools interview he communities for education
and training
• Incubators at schools
• Master plan is not where we are going; new branding led to an abandonment of
the master plan
• Ministry of finance maybe should take the lead if tourism is that important to our
economy
• we should not use foreign concepts designed by foreigners
• gov’t should not be involved in tourism education and training; tourism should be
left to the private sector
Follow up questions

- who did policy framework? When and was it officially adopted?
- How long was the OAS programme- name
- Caribs in Venezuela on tourism scholarships
- percentage of our remittances which come from elsewhere

Documents to find

- Shanlan and Cox doc.
- Branding doc
- IICA report from agro tourism seminar
- Adult education report on STABEX prg
- College tour guide prg. Modules develop by the state college
- program develop in the region: hello tourist program 1997; also PAHO Brochure
- My island
- OECS education reform unit

Member check

- What model should be adopted for national tourism education and training
- Effects of the political system of governance: the five year agenda
- Suitability of the CTO program at the state college for Dominica
- DHTA: role in responsibility for total training of employees
- DHTA involvement in schools
- Check patio words; possible purchase dictionary
- How many scholars change the programs mid stream
- Caribs on tourism scholarships? How many there and else? And what courses are they doing?
- Are scholars under the ecotourism program bonded
- Social studies teachers and principals to verify the schools that actually teach social studies
- Tourism current reach in schools in the social studies curriculum
- Role of DDA in education and training
- role of selection committee
- is the youth division dive master program linked to that done at the local properties in that niche
- look at the ecotourism projects, success or failures
General reflections on the case
The people in the communities know its issues in a way that an outsider would never know it nor understanding it; hence some problems, challenges are best dealt with at that level. In the social setting it may be best to allow small issues to be dealt with by that equal size structure within the social setting best suited to handle it, rather than force it on to a higher level order structure or institution.

The role of the media
Management need to ensure that an opportunity is given for both education and for mass information and public expression
the media epitomises the voice of the masses which not have been expressed otherwise

Possible quotes

Hunter song: (DBS reading competition)
Turn your flicker to a flame and always believe in the father’s name;
with dedication we could take back this nation
With education we could rescue this nation
**Key terms/words arising from the Data**

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**Interesting concepts**

- Volunteerism
- Articulation
- Readiness for training
- Ability to propel industry growth
- Personal knowledge
- Meeting of the minds
- No man is an island

**Recurring phrases and concepts**

- Everybody’s business
- The private sector
- From the womb to the tomb
- Continuous training
- School system
- Tourism impact
- Best practices
- Lack of structure
- Migration issues
- Concept of the sector
- Issues retraining adults
- Level of collaboration
- Training needs
- The mind-set of our people
- Best practices
- Tourism industry
- Continuous evaluation
- Public debate
- Marketing issues
- Comparison efforts
- People driven
- Capacity issues
- Career awareness
- Administration issues
- Project orientation

**Other key concepts expressed**

- Development
- Ownership
- Involvement
- General tourism education
- Relevance of tourism education
- Develop entrepreneurship
- Program focus

- Impact of tourism on local community
- Spiral approach to education
- Process
- Correlation of education to the tourism product
- Agro tourism
- Integrated curriculum
- Level of students interest in tourism studies

**Deviant views**

- Extend secondary school by two years
- Increase the school day by a few hours
**Conceptual framework coming out of data**

**New theories for review in consultation with literature as a result of initial data findings**

Education theories

Planning and process theories: strategic, collaborative

Organisational theory: Structure and design

Power

Dependency

**Data analysis**

- Open coding
- Colour coding of units of meaning surrounding themes
- Generate concepts, patterns, recurring ideas and experiences and axial coding to cluster concepts into *board characteristics* or *categories* leading to *sub-themes*
- Comparative analysis
- Use of literature to conceptually connect to the emerging theory to existing theory
- Inductive or deductive analysis or a combination

**Writing up**

4 Categories

Sub themes
Broad Themes and sub-themes/concepts

PROCESS

1. Is the school system equipping students for the Dominica tourism industry?
2. Is enough being done in the area of tourism education within the school system?
3. How should tourism education be structured?
4. Tourism training in Dominica
5. Tourism education at the primary level
6. Tourism education at the secondary level
7. What should be the focus of the program?
8. Level of relationship between the tourism policy and education and training
9. How should education and training be organised to suit the local setting and way of life of the people?
10. Tourism education at the pre-primary level
11. Relationship between ministry of education and ministry of tourism
12. Scholarships
13. What specific programs would suit our tourism product
14. Who should be involved?
15. human capacity
16. holistic, strategic, collaborative, all-inclusive, policy driven, structured

STRUCTURES

17. Tourism education in schools
18. Having a tourism institute
19. Dominica State college
20. Importance of tourism education and training unit or officer
21. What should be the role of the industry stakeholders?
22. What should be the role of the public sector?
23. What should be the role of the private sector?
24. DHTA
25. DDA
26. Curriculum Unit
27. Media

PRINCIPLES

28. What should be the main role of tourism education and training?
29. Other roles of education and training
30. Tourism as a subject
31. curriculum issues
32. What approach should be used?
33. When should tourism education begin
34. Culture/relevance
POWER CHALLENGES/ISSUES

35. Challenges and issues of dependency
36. Development challenges
37. Leadership/role conflict
38. Politics
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