

GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY

HRD IN A LAND DOWN UNDER: AUSTRALIA

A RESEARCH PAPER SUBMITTED TO  
DR. VERNA WILLIS IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF  
EPHR 940, INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY STUDIES

BY

ROBERT J. LAHM, JR.

© 1996

ATLANTA, GEORGIA  
WINTER QUARTER 1996

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION..... 1  
    Country Background  
        Australia’s Early History..... 1  
        Australia Today..... 2

A LAND DOWN UNDER..... 3  
    The U.S. vs. Australia  
        Big Similarities--Big Differences..... 3  
        Trade Barriers..... 5

HRD PRACTICES..... 6  
    An HRD Example  
        Mobil Oil Australia..... 6  
    Australian Values ..... 7  
    Ethnocentrism, Discrimination and Gender Differences..... 8

THE AUSTRALIAN WORKFORCE..... 10  
    Where Australians Work..... 10  
    Government’s Shift in Emphasis  
        From Passive to Active..... 11  
    The Move Toward Privatization..... 12

AUSTRALIAN TRAINING PRACTICES..... 13  
    The Workforce Training Imperative ..... 13  
    National Training Reform Agenda (NTRA) and the  
    Australian National Training Authority (ANTA)..... 14  
    Jobstart, Jobtrain, Jobskills and Skillshare ..... 15  
    Criticisms of Australia’s Training Reform..... 16  
    Trainers’ Professional Qualifications..... 19

CONCLUSION ..... 20

References..... 23

Bibliography..... 25

## INTRODUCTION

### Country Background: Australia's Early History

Once the last outpost of the British Empire, the commonwealth of Australia is an island-continent southeast of Asia, lying between the Pacific and Indian oceans. Australia also shares the unique distinction of being the world's largest island--and smallest continent. With a land mass of approximately 3 million square miles, Australia is almost as big as the continental U.S. The country's geography and climate vary considerably, with a mountain range along the east coast and a large plateau in the west (Sanborn & Brandao, 1992).

It is estimated that the original inhabitants of the continent, the aborigines, arrived some 40,000 years ago. In a sometimes harsh land that would later kill many white pioneers, the aborigines were perfectly at home living the hunter-gatherer existence that had supported them for 400 centuries. Many present-day aborigines live separately from the rest of the population and like native American Indians in the U.S., have made attempts to retain parts of their traditional culture. Efforts have also been made by the government in recent decades to be more responsive to aboriginal rights (Morrison, Conaway, & Borden, 1994).

In 1770, Captain James Cook reached the eastern coast at Botany Bay and took formal control of Australia on behalf of Britain where it subsequently established penal colonies. Accordingly, many of

the first Australian settlers were convicts and soldiers. Later, when word had spread of the opportunities available “down under,” other free settlers arrived (Morrison, et al., 1994). An announcement that gold was discovered in 1851 by an “Australian 49er,” Edward Hargraves (who had just returned from the California gold rush and saw similar geological possibilities), would open the floodgates and bring thousands of new arrivals to the continent.

In 1900, Queen Victoria proclaimed that at the turn-of-the-century, Australia would become a new nation (but still a member of the British Commonwealth). This Commonwealth status had both advantages and disadvantages. Among the advantages, Australians were afforded the protection of mother England.

This was a double-edged sword however, resulting in the deployment of thousands of Australian soldiers in both World War I and II, as they came to the aid of England and fought with allied forces. Later, Australia was officially given complete autonomy in both internal and external affairs, and British authority was finally removed in 1986.

### Australia Today

Today, Australia is a melting pot at the bottom of Asia; its people are cosmopolitan, vibrant and increasingly aware of their regional priorities (Jarratt, 1988). With a population of about 17.5 million (approximately the same as the state of Texas), Australians

are concentrated mainly on the southern and eastern coasts, where frequenting beaches is often worshipped as a way of life. Its 206,000 aboriginals now represent only 1.2 percent of the Australian population (Morrison, et al., 1994).

Immigration to Australia continues to be largely from Europe (Europeans comprise between 90 to 95 percent of the population). However, arrivals from Asia and other world regions are significant.

Due largely to the continent's less-hospitable interior, eighty-five percent of Australia's population lives in cities, making the country's rate of urbanization one of the highest in the world. In the western and central parts of the country desert conditions prevail, while the northeastern portion of Australia enjoys a sub-tropical to tropical climate; in the south inhabitants experience cooler conditions (Lipinski, 1989). Since Australia is in the Southern Hemisphere, one adjustment North American visitors must make is to remember that the seasons are opposite--winter here is summer there.

## A LAND DOWN UNDER

### The U.S. vs. Australia: Big Similarities--Big Differences

Partly because of a shared ancestry by much of our populations, respectively, we in the U.S. tend to regard our English-speaking Australian neighbors in the Southern Hemisphere as being much like ourselves. This sentiment is not without some justification, as many of our cultural notions and values have the same origins. For example,

Australia's settlement in the 1800s shares a number of similarities with our own, and inspired a strong streak of individualism in both cultures.

While the U.S. was born of a tea party revolt, Australia's original settlers--as penal colony inmates--were not exactly enamored with absolute respect for authority either. Yet despite many commonalties, there are some striking differences:

Until very recently, a good number of economists in policy circles seemed to believe that Australia is a highly industrialized nation, and continual comparisons were made with the performance of key industrial nations. However, the available evidence suggests that Australia is not highly industrialized; for example, if one combines the net annual revenue of the three largest firms in Australia, it still only amounts to about half that of General Motors, or is just about as large as the net annual revenue of IBM. (Buttery & Tamaschke, 1992)

Thus, although there is some debate, Australia is at least (or most) considered a modernized, "developed nation." Nevertheless--on a relative scale--Australia can also be fairly described as a small trading nation. Whereas the population in the U.S. (again, with roughly the same land mass) is over two hundred and fifty million, with a population of about 17.5 million persons, Australia's potential as either a producer or a consumer is dwarfed by comparison.

Whereas the United States has established corporate outposts all over the world, Australia's major trading partners are more limited,

and in terms of importing or exporting are comprised mostly of Japan, the U.S., Europe and Southeast Asia (Sanborn & Brandao, 1992). Because Australia is modernized, and boasts highly advanced and beautiful cities such as Sydney, Melbourne and Perth, from afar it may be easy for an onlooker to confuse such advancements with other similarities, like size.

### Trade Barriers

Australia has a number of tariff barriers affecting the consumers' cost for products such as imported automobiles. For example, a recent edition of the Sydney Morning Herald listed a new Honda Civic 3-door hatchback with automatic and air for \$28,990; plus \$995 delivery and other charges--many from the government--amounting to about \$2000 more (1996, January 20). The same car can be delivered for about half that amount in the U.S.

Although the Australian dollar at the exchange rate posted in the same Sydney paper recently traded at \$A/U.S.: 73.78 (\$1 Australian is worth 73.78 American cents), the differences in dollar valuation do not account for the total disparity, and high tariffs still account for a noticeable portion of the increased Australian consumer prices.

### HRD PRACTICES

#### An HRD Example: Mobil Oil Australia

The idea of an organization conducting its strategic planning process without any attention paid to such issues as “what is the market” or “how will operations be financed” would be laughable. However, in an analogous sense, such plans have been and often still are devised with little attention paid to “how will human resources be developed?”

In other words, an organization’s overall strategic planning process needs to devise answers not only to how its people will fit into the plan, but also how the plan will fit its people; organizational plans must consider the individuals who will enact them. “Human resource development implies a belief in self development and a commitment to promoting and rewarding managers’ people development skills and efforts” (Smith, 1984).

Mobil Oil Australia believes the challenge of human resource development and the responsibility for people development “must be shared between each individual and that person's manager” (Smith, 1984). Mobil Oil Australia fills its managerial talent needs through a career development and succession planning process that includes goal setting, appraisal, and developmental planning--based on the company’s performance appraisal system.

In order to meet changing needs it also continually reassesses and updates its human resource development program (Smith, 1984). However, this organization’s practices are not necessarily generalizable to many of its Australian contemporaries.

### Australian Values

When Australia has experienced economic difficulties in the past, its enormously rich and diverse natural resources have aided their recovery, "so that Australia has often been called the 'lucky country'" (Buttery & Tamaschke, 1992). Also, it should be noted that most Australians have enjoyed high living standards, and as egalitarianism is generally favored over pretentiousness and social class, titles and other outward signs of formal rank are downplayed. These tendencies are believed to be a reflection of Australians' wariness of authority and corresponding propensity toward pursuing equality.

Indeed, in the process of writing this article an illustration of this value system suddenly became salient (whereas it had previously escaped my full appreciation), when it was discovered by this researcher that the film "Crocodile Dundee" was actually saying more than I had first thought about this culture's values. When the star character, "Crocodile Mick Dundee," rode in the front of the limousine through the streets of New York City, he was acting out a very normal behavior--for an Australian.

Interestingly, "Australians demonstrate their disdain of class by sitting up front with their drivers, both in taxis and in limousines. If a single passenger goes to sit in the back seat, he or she will be seen as putting on airs" (Morrison, et al., 1994).

### Ethnocentrism, Discrimination and Gender Differences

Equality, however, is not for everyone. Some Australians do share one similarity with many Americans, in that they are very proud of their country, and can be ethnocentric. One outward manifestation of this ethnocentrism can be seen in Australia's strict immigration laws and enforcement of these (this is not to imply there may not be understandable reasons for protectionism, such as Australia's bouts with higher-than-average unemployment). Further, even to visit the country Americans must provide a visa and proof of return or forward transportation (Griffith, 1989).

Other discriminatory decision criteria are operative in Australia as well, for example, age and gender. "The older worker in Australia has been disadvantaged in the labour market, finding it more difficult to gain employment, and access to training and promotion, than comparatively younger people" (Patrickson & Hartmann, 1995).

Although most Australian states have passed legislation to prevent using age, gender or associated characteristics for job applicants, recruiting practices are still biased towards the younger person (Patrickson & Hartmann, 1995). However, as is the case in the U.S., despite a plethora of antidiscrimination laws, here, discrimination on the basis of many more criteria other than those that are operative at the legislative level is just as likely to occur in Australia.

The following research conducted about the actual practices of Australian private employment agencies through interviews with agency managers illustrates:

'If they want a good looking 19-year-old girl that is what they get. Employers have a right to demand the type of person they want. They are paying and running the business.' More insidiously, several respondents indicated that direct requests for ascribed characteristics were unnecessary. For example, following an assertion that certain criteria could not be taken into account due to the existence of anti-discrimination laws, one agency director noted, however, that 'The client pays top dollar. They are looking for a style of person...Because of antidiscrimination laws they may not say, but you pick up on it.' Another respondent referred to knowing what was required by 'osmosis'. This type of comment illustrates the difficulties of regulating practice, and suggests that agency directors' clear recognition of discrimination by employers does not preclude their complicity in its practice.

Gender differences in employment exist as well, and much like their U.S. counterparts, “females occupy positions in the labour market that are paid less or have lower occupational status than the jobs held by males” (Miller & Mulvey, 1994). In both places, women are having to join a workforce where they will have to fight for equality in terms of earnings and occupying positions of power.

## THE AUSTRALIAN WORKFORCE

### Where Australians Work

Small businesses in Australia comprise some 757,000 individual firms employing approximately 2.57 million people, and are a large and important component of the economy contributing almost 30 per cent to GDP. This sector represents 96 percent of all private businesses in Australia (the rest, of course, are mid-sized and large private businesses), and accounts for around 51 percent of private sector employment (Beresford & Gaité, 1994b).

A substantial number of those others in the workforce--approximately 30 percent of wage and salary earners--are employed in the public service in positions ranging from “government employees at state and federal level and directly-funded public institutions such as universities, technical colleges and schools” (Beresford & Gaité, 1994a).

However, similar shifts as those in U.S. industries with respect to the nature of the jobs that are available has occurred in Australia in recent years:

In Australia the demand for middle level managers especially in manufacturing has declined. There has been a rapid growth in the demand for professionals particularly in the service industries. There has been a reduction in the available jobs for skilled tradespeople. There is a new under-class of unskilled workers who can command only periodic employment in a range of low level, low pay jobs. (Anderson, 1994)

Australia's primary industries include iron, steel, machinery, textiles, automobiles, chemicals, ships and aircraft. The country also benefits from its rich mineral deposits including gold, coal, copper, iron, uranium and zinc. Australia is also one of the world's leading agricultural exporters, particularly of beef, lamb, wool and wheat (Sanborn & Brandao, 1992).

#### Government's Shift in Emphasis: From Passive to Active

"Throughout the 1950s and the 1960s there was an expansive and co-operative mood among the Australian population. There was confidence about the longevity of employment and considerable opportunity for people to advance within organizations. There was a thriving market for consumer durables" (Anderson, 1994). By the

early 1990s, significant growth in part-time and casual employment, accompanying a decline in full-time employment and a rise in unemployment all caused concerns on the part of Australians and the government (Boreham, Roan, & Whitehouse, 1994).

As a result, major structural reforms are being devised, including reductions in trade protection levels (Baker, 1994). Prime Minister Keating's "One Nation" statement issued in 1992 marked a change in emphasis with respect to the government's historical approach to the employment (usually referred to as labour) market.

In times past the Australian government usually assumed a passive role, mostly emphasizing income support programs for the unemployed. However, now a number of programs have been started through government efforts to coordinate a job search and concurrent training or retraining process--benefiting those who are unemployed or otherwise disadvantaged--thus, taking on an active role in asserting influence on the labour market.

### The Move Toward Privatization

Another manifestation of Australia's shift in historic emphasis is a move toward fostering greater privatization. Many in the Australian business community consider this an absolute imperative, and believe the high cost of running the Australian government is choking out their ability to be globally competitive. Tax costs themselves--when added to compliance costs--creates the nightmarish complexity of keeping up

with regulations and the regular changes made to these that many U.S. businesses analogously abhor. Beyond these costs however, there are other factors to consider:

Since the turn of the century Australia has operated under a highly centralized and regulated system of industrial relations....The wage setting arrangements have been typically centralized and set by the (Federal) Industrial Relations Commission (IRC) or State wage tribunals, and around 80-85 per cent of employees are covered by job-specific minimum wage awards....How-ever, with the focus on the need to increase productivity and international competitiveness, a substantial transition in the industrial relations framework is currently under way. (Baker, 1994)

#### AUSTRALIAN TRAINING PRACTICES

##### The Workforce Training Imperative

As a consequence of the prevailing competitive, economic and labour market conditions, the focus of much debate within Australian business and political circles has been about the need for training and skill formation in both the public and private sectors. A recurring theme voices that in light of increased international competitiveness, immediate workforce training is imperative.

Upon this star is hitched the argument that the key to enhanced productivity and flexibility is a well-educated and trained workforce (thus, Australia is ripe for an HRD Intervention):

The Australian economy is currently undergoing major structural reform, including reductions in trade protection

levels....Moreover, it is also argued that the extent of investment in worker training has beneficial consequences for the rapid and successful adaptation of new technology....Accordingly, changes are occurring on a number of fronts in order to enhance the returns from training to both individuals and employers. In the employee relations environment, for example, changes are occurring which enable more flexible work practices, long argued to have inhibited Australian industry from becoming competitive. On another front, development of agreed national priorities and goals in training with the establishment of the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) and the setting of national skills standards, competency and accreditation guidelines via the establishment of the National Training Board (NTB), is argued by many to underpin the success of the structural adjustment process. (Baker, 1994)

#### National Training Reform Agenda (NTRA) and the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA)

The National Training Reform Agenda (NTRA) is a set of political initiatives representing the boldest, most comprehensive approach to training reform ever attempted by Australia (Hall, 1995). "One interesting feature of training reform is that it is national (as opposed to federal) and its achievements will depend largely on the success of a new level of 'government', represented by the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA), that sits between the States/ Territories and the Commonwealth; a level permitted by the Constitution but not attempted before" (Hall, 1995).

In the past, formal vocational education and training has almost exclusively been the responsibility of Australia's eight state/territorial education and training systems. "Because of diffuse responsibilities, Australia has never had a national training system, and a main aim of ANTA is to develop such a system" (Hall, 1995). Improving Australia's international competitiveness is a key aim of training reform efforts: "The government's predictions are spelled out clearly. Education and training, together with appropriate management, current technology and a more flexible use of labour will (it is predicted) lead to high economic and employment growth" (Hall, 1995).

However, the National Training Reform Agenda (NTRA) has been widely criticized for failing to meet the needs of employers (Curtain, 1995).

#### Jobstart, Jobtrain, Jobskills and Skillshare

Several programs have been created, such as Jobstart, Jobtrain, Jobskills and Skillshare (Boreham, et al., 1994):

The four major training components of the 1992-93 federal budget are: (1) JOBSTART, a wage subsidy scheme to private sector employers; (2) JOBTRAIN, providing short-term vocational training to "disadvantaged job seekers"; (3) SKILLSHARE, which provides grants to non-profit community groups for structured skills training for the long-term unemployed and disadvantaged; and (4) JOBSKILLS which combines work experience in the community sector and training for those unemployed for

12 months or more. (Baker, 1994)

### Criticisms of Australia's Training Reform

"The national problem is to ensure a match between industry needs and skills training and to attract suitable people to the training" (Phillips, 1995). However, employer involvement in and commitment to providing collective training is seen as undermined by bureaucratic control of publicly funded training (Curtain, 1995).

Certain conflicts have arisen as a result of the "system." For example, the government would like businesses to increase training investment in employees and has even gone so far as to levy taxes to provide impetus for compliance: "The 1990 Training Guarantee Act (TGA) is an Australian Federal Government act, which requires employers who have a payroll above an annual specified amount (\$226,000 in 1993/4) to spend 1.5 per cent of that figure on eligible training for employees each year" (Beresford & Gaité, 1994a).

Meanwhile, with imposed wage levels also set by the government for many occupational categories, Australian businesses are balking by using such strategies as manipulating the definition of training to include expenditures that are iffy at best (e.g., conducting training in combination with get-away adventure trips). For example, Beresford and Gaité, (1994a) reported research findings involving 138 companies which showed:

Two years after the training levy scheme came into operation, only 4 per cent of companies had anything positive to say about it, while 60 per cent said it was ineffective....A number of surveys have suggested that under the TGA many employers choose training courses which have a high recreational component but still satisfy the requirements of the Act without making a direct contribution to creating a trained workforce. (Beresford & Gaité, 1994a).

Industry training advisory bodies are also viewed by many as little more than an extension of government--lacking broad representation; most small businesses can't always afford the time to participate, so big business representatives--with powerful political connections anyway--do the participating without necessarily meeting anyone's needs except their own and those of the Australian government (Curtain, 1995). There is also additional animosity towards the public sector's lack of need for concern about training expenditures, as is illustrated here:

The public sector has embraced the doctrine of training, spending an average of 3.2 per cent of the payroll costs on formal training compared with an average of 1.7 per cent in the private sector. The reasons for the public sector's greater enthusiasm for training lie in the fact that it is a sector subject to specific government directives, management policies and the power of the purse--'who pays the piper calls the tune'. Under these circumstances hearts and minds are more easily won. The public sector, too, is seldom directly involved in pursuing profit and

productivity in the fashion which dominates the private sector, and training schemes and proposals are often shielded from close cost-benefit analysis. (Beresford & Gaité, 1994a)

In response to such widespread discontent, “a major review of the implementation of the reforms over the last five years was commissioned by the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) and was carried out by the Allen Consulting Group (ACG) in 1994” (Curtain, 1995). The June 1994 report by Dr Vince Fitzgerald of the Allen Consulting Group, Successful Reform, was “none too complimentary” (Phillips, 1995), stating:

‘...the National Training Reform Agenda is seen as for the benefit of government and unions’....there is no overall national strategy and...training objectives are imprecise or obscure. Reforms are driven from the supply side, “top down”--a centralist approach which produces a mis-targeting of available training funds. It is a high-cost system and there is a lack of attention to the demand side. Information is lacking about what clients actually want. Inadequate knowledge about the small-business market, in particular, has deterred business commitment. There are administrative and organizational weaknesses at government level producing conceptual confusion, failure to integrate services and a focus on inputs instead of outputs. The system is overly bureaucratic, has no national mechanism for implementation and has no assessment process....Industrial relations matters and training matters are closely intertwined and the system discourages labour flexibility. The Report claims that government regulations are restricting development. This is not a pretty picture. (Phillips, 1995)

### Trainers' Professional Qualifications

"In December 1992, a Development Committee was established by the Faculty of Education, Queensland University of Technology (QUT), to determine the feasibility of offering courses in Adult and Community Education; a serious attempt by the Faculty to broaden its base from teacher education" (Velde, Cooper, & Gerber, 1994). In the process of conducting research to examine the extent and nature of demand for a train-the-trainer program, individuals who were currently practicing in the field were contacted.

Essentially, two kinds of information were sought. One--from the university's vantage point--was to determine if there was a "market" for their proposed program idea; the other, essentially, was what kind of education-qualifications-experience profile did prospective participants already possess (Velde, et al., 1994).

Although the purpose of the study presumably was not to create data for an Australian trainer's "state-of-professionalism" analysis such as the following, it nevertheless provided interesting findings about respondents' training, professional development and qualifications:

[A table shows] the kind of training, professional development and qualifications that Education and Training Officers have undertaken. Fifty-nine per cent had completed a Certificate or a Diploma, 21 per cent a Degree, 9 per cent a higher degree, with 1 per cent

indicating 'other'. Almost half (45 per cent) had no formal qualifications; with 75 per cent indicating that their major training had been achieved through seminar and workshop attendance....There are a considerable number of trainers who have been doing the job for years, and never been included in changes that relate to training...The personal data indicated that many people had no qualifications, and that their major training had been achieved through seminar and workshop attendance. (Velde, et al., 1994)

## CONCLUSION

Australia's wealth has been built almost exclusively on being an efficient and cheap primary producer for decades; with plentiful jobs, the country lagged behind other developed nations in participation rates for post-school training and education (Beresford & Gaité, 1994a). More recently however, Australia, in common with other developed countries, has increasingly sought to discover how best to address the development of an education and training system to support its economy through the 1990s and into the twenty-first century (Velde, et al., 1994).

Byrne (1984) reported a study utilizing a small sample of both private organizations and two Australian federal government departments, selected to participate in order to determine the effectiveness of their training functions. The study's results indicated that "training, management development, or human resource development, whatever the label, has a critical role in creating a

humane, change-conscious ethic in organizations" (Byrne, 1984). However, this role was not being fulfilled by the organizations under study, according to Byrne's findings.

The average rate of economic growth in Australia was four percent in 1993, while at the same time its northern neighbors, including Hong Kong, Malaysia, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand, was seven percent; in Singapore, "where average incomes now equal or exceed those in Australia and New Zealand, economic growth was close to 10 per cent" (Sweet, 1994).

Although these booming East Asian economies have not necessarily invested more in education; they have invested differently- "in their early stages of industrialization they concentrated on raising the educational attainments of the mass of the work-force rather than creating an elite through higher education" (Sweet, 1994). However, "increasingly, adult and community education is being seen as crucial to the employment of all Australians, and thus to the economic well being of the nation as a whole" (Velde, et al., 1994).

As compared to some of the HRD challenges faced in the U.S., this sort of sounds familiar; we too, have a problem with respect to the growing stratification of our society to the point where it is polarized, with the educated-affluent on one end, and the uneducated-poor on the other, as comments from Sweet (1994) effectively illustrate:

Coincidentally [on] the same day that the Prime Minister's employment White Paper announced the creation of the Australian Student Traineeship Foundation, President Clinton signed into law a bill which provides \$300 million to improve school-to-work arrangements in the United States...its heart will be a program to connect businesses with schools through work experience for jobs that exist in local communities. We, like the United States, need a vocational preparation model for the next century that forges new connections between the school and the workplace. In seeking to create it we, like the United States, will need to avoid mediocrity and attempt to emulate world best practice. We are only at the threshold of building this new model. It is not too late to get it right. (Sweet, 1994)

Accordingly, although there is much left to be done before harvesting the full potential of all Australians and the organizations they seek to improve, the ground is fertile for human resource developers. Developing adult learners and their careers--and that means all kinds of possibilities--is Australia's challenge, much like our own. To accomplish this, HRD expertise is, and will continue to be vitally needed. If Australia is to maximize the opportunities that are awaiting and ensure productivity, effective individual performances, worthwhile careers, satisfying work-personal lives, or even survival, they'll be needing a "heaping dose of HRD-TLC."

## References

- Anderson, A. A. (1994). Vocational education and industry training in Australia. Education, 36(2), 31-35.
- Baker, M. (1994). Training down under: An overview of the Australian experience. International Journal of Manpower, 15(5), 70-88.
- Beresford, K., & Gaité, J. (1994a). A cautionary tale: The training levy that misfired. Personnel Management, 26(4), 38-41.
- Beresford, K., & Gaité, J. (1994b). TGA: New amendments. Australian Accountant, 64(3), 27-28.
- Boreham, P., Roan, A., & Whitehouse, G. (1994). The regulation of employment services: Private employment agencies and labour market policy. Australian Journal of Political Science, 29, 541-555.
- Buttery, A., & Tamaschke, R. (1992). Australia's needs and management education. Management Decision, 30(7), 18-24.
- Byrne, G. (1984). The training function - A help or a hindrance to innovation. Work & People, 10(1), 31-35.
- Curtain, R. (1995). Employers and access to publicly funded training. Australian Economic Review(110), 93-100.
- Griffith, S. (1989). Work your way around the world (4 ed.). Oxford, England: Vacation Work.
- Hall, W. (1995). The National Training Reform Agenda. Australian Economic Review(110), 87-92.
- Hornsby Honda automobile dealership ad. (1996, January 20). The Sydney Morning Herald, p. 3-60.

Jarratt, P. (Ed.). (1988). Australia (3 ed.). Singapore: APA Publications (HK) Ltd.

Lipinski, A. (Ed.). (1989). The directory of jobs & careers abroad (7 ed.). Oxford, England: Vacation Work.

Miller, P., & Mulvey, C. (1994). Gender inequality in the provision of employer-supported education. Australian Economic Review(108), 35-50.

Morrison, T., Conaway, W. A., & Borden, G. A. (1994). Kiss, bow, or shake hands: How to do business in sixty countries. Holbrook, MA: Bob Adams, Inc.

Patrickson, M., & Hartmann, L. (1995). Australia's ageing population: Implications for human resource management. International Journal of Manpower, 16(5-6), 34-46.

Phillips, K. (1995). Why training isn't working. Ipa Review, 48(1), 15-17.

Sanborn, R., & Brandao, A. (1992). How to get a job in the Pacific Rim (1 ed.). Chicago: Surrey Books.

Smith, B. (1984). Management development - "An island of change". Journal of Management Development, 3(3), 26-38.

Sweet, R. (1994). Why so few young Australians are learning to work. Ipa Review, 47(2), 11-16.

Velde, C., Cooper, T., & Gerber, R. (1994). [Australia and training]. Education, 36(6), 20-25.

## Bibliography

Adler, N. J. (1992). International dimensions of organizational behavior (2 ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Anderson, A. A. (1994). Vocational education and industry training in Australia. Education, 36(2), 31-35.

Baker, M. (1994). Training down under: An overview of the Australian experience. International Journal of Manpower, 15(5), 70-88.

Barad, M., & Kayis, B. (1994). Quality teams as improvement support systems (ISS): An Australian perspective. Management Decision, 32(6), 49-57.

Beresford, K., & Gaite, J. (1994a). A cautionary tale: The training levy that misfired. Personnel Management, 26(4), 38-41.

Beresford, K., & Gaite, J. (1994b). TGA: New amendments. Australian Accountant, 64(3), 27-28.

Boreham, P., Roan, A., & Whitehouse, G. (1994). The regulation of employment services: Private employment agencies and labour market policy. Australian Journal of Political Science, 29, 541-555.

Brown, J. (1993). Reflections on summer in Bethel. Management Education, 24(4), 459-466.

Buttery, A., & Tamaschke, R. (1992). Australia's needs and management education. Management Decision, 30(7), 18-24.

Byrne, G. (1984). The training function - A help or a hindrance to innovation. Work & People, 10(1), 31-35.

Carter, & S, G. D. (1994). A curriculum model for administrator preparation and continuing professional development. Journal of Educational Administration, 32(2), 21-34.

Catalysts for career development: Four case studies. (1993). Training, 47(11), 26-27.

Curtain, R. (1995). Employers and access to publicly funded training. Australian Economic Review(110), 93-100.

Dawkins, P. (1994). [Restoring full employment]. Australian Economic Review, [First Quarter], 19-23.

Dunphy, D. (1983). Personal and organisational change - Status and future directions. Work & People, 9(2), 3-6.

Fish, A., & Wood, J. (1994). Integrating expatriate careers with international business activity: Strategies and procedures. International Journal of Career Management, 6(1), 3-13.

Fitzgerald, E. P., & Cater-Steel, A. (1995). Champagne training on a beer budget. Communications of the Acm, 38(7), 49-60.

Frenkel, S. (Ed.). (1993). Organized labor in the Asia-Pacific region: A comparative study of trade unionism in nine countries. Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.

Geering, A. (1985). The development and qualifications of trainers. Work & People, 11(3), 15-19.

Geertz, C. (1973). The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.

Global market opportunities for U.S. training companies. (1995). Hr Focus, 72(1), 11.

Gregory, M. (1994). The education and development needs of sole-practitioner management consultants: Current developments in the UK. Management Research News, 17(10-11), 39-50.

Griffith, S. (1989). Work your way around the world (4 ed.). Oxford, England: Vacation Work.

Grosse, R. E., & Kujawa, D. (1992). International business: Theory and managerial applications (2 ed.). Boston: Irwin.

Hall, W. (1995). The National Training Reform Agenda. Australian Economic Review(110), 87-92.

Hornsby Honda automobile dealership ad. (1996, January 20). The Sydney Morning Herald, p. 3-60.

Jarratt, P. (Ed.). (1988). Australia (3 ed.). Singapore: APA Publications (HK) Ltd.

Jones, R. (1995). Implementing a system in the global village. Education, 37(1), 27-32.

Kane, R., Callender, G., & Davis, D. (1994). Change and staff development in Australian manufacturing enterprises. Industrial Management, 94(10), 3-11.

Kramar, R. (1993). Family friendly policies: The experience in Australia. Equal Opportunities International, 12(5), 11-21.

Lipinski, A. (Ed.). (1989). The directory of jobs & careers abroad (7 ed.). Oxford, England: Vacation Work.

Maglen, L. R. (1995). The role of education and training in the economy. Australian Economic Review(110), 128-147.

Managers disregarding safety laws - Survey. (1994, November). . New Zealand Manufacturer, p. 16.

McNeil, M. (1995). Industry simulation: A new type of business game tapping both analytic and synthetic skills. Training, 9(3), 6.27-6.39.

Mead, N. (1995). Career profile. International Journal of Career Management, 7(2), i-iv.

Miller, P., & Mulvey, C. (1994). Gender inequality in the provision of employer-supported education. Australian Economic Review(108), 35-50.

Morrison, T., Conaway, W. A., & Borden, G. A. (1994). Kiss, bow, or shake hands: How to do business in sixty countries. Holbrook, MA: Bob Adams, Inc.

Navaratnam, K. K. (1993). Quality initiatives in technical and further education. Asia Pacific Journal of Quality Management, 2(2), 59-69.

Patrickson, M., & Hartmann, L. (1995). Australia's ageing population: Implications for human resource management. International Journal of Manpower, 16(5-6), 34-46.

Phillips, K. (1995). Why training isn't working. Ipa Review, 48(1), 15-17.

Quiggin, J. (1993). A policy program for full employment. Australian Economic Review(102), 41-47.

Rees, J. (1993). Australia: Troublesome cure - Fees row about overseas students. Far Eastern Economic Review, 156(5), 26-27.

Sanborn, R., & Brandao, A. (1992). How to get a job in the Pacific Rim (1 ed.). Chicago: Surrey Books.

Simmons, D. E., Shadur, M. A., & Preston, A. P. (1995). Integrating TQM and HRM. Employee Relations, 17(3), 75-86.

Smith, B. (1984). Management development - "An island of change". Journal of Management Development, 3(3), 26-38.

Smith, C. R. (1993). Career development for women: Some Australian initiatives. Women in Management Review, 8(3), 17-22.

Sweet, R. (1994). Why so few young Australians are learning to work. Ipa Review, 47(2), 11-16.

Sweet, R. (1995). The naked emperor: Training reform, initial vocational preparation and youth wages. Australian Economic Review(110), 101-108.

Tergeist, P., & O'Leary, L. (Eds.). (1992). New directions in work organization: The industrial relations response. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Velde, C., Cooper, T., & Gerber, R. (1994). [Australia and training]. Education, 36(6), 20-25.

Wooden, M. (1995). Training data and statistics in Australia. Australian Economic Review(110), 116-120.

Yan-Ming, H. (1993). A comparison of organizational structures in universities in Australia and China. Journal of Educational Administration, 31(2), 63-83.

Yeomans, G. (1995). Overseas education. Management Services, 39(6), 16-19.