

MODELING BRAND LOVE IN RURAL TOURISM: A CASE GENERATION Y CONSUMERS

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I. ABSTRACT

Generation Y's position in tourism market is getting more and more important. Generation Y is also important in rural tourism market; however, there has been little empirical research on this issue. Currently, there lacks knowledge in hospitality academy to clarify how to form brand love in rural tourism and its linking to brand loyalty. Hence, this study based on Generation Y's perspective to modeling brand love in rural tourism. The study collected responses from 459 questionnaires, from Checheng leisure agricultural area, Taomi ecological village and Hugo Assam tea farm and applied a linear structural equation model for model testing. It was found that rural tourism's cognition has a significant positive impact on visitors' brand identification and that "emotional characteristics" has the greatest influence on brand identification, followed by "symbolic characteristics" and "functional characteristics". Brand identification has positive impact on brand love, and brand love has positive influence on brand loyalty. Empirical results of this study can not only enrich theoretical knowledge in rural tourism but also provide valuable information for hospitality firms in marketing strategy planning.

Keywords: brand love, Generation Y, rural tourism

II. INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism is tourism which takes place in the countryside (OECD, 1994). To minimize the impacts caused by admission into GATT in 1990 and WTO in 2002 on the domestic agricultural industry, the government in Taiwan has launched a series of measures directed at improving use of lands, especially agricultural lands, in hope of increasing the income of agricultural workers. These measures include promotion of tourism farms, leisure farms and leisure agriculture, and development of rural tourism (Tsai, 2007). The tourism industry in Taiwan is undergoing a big change, as an increasing number of young people of Generation Y are coming into both the job and visitor market of the industry. Generation Y is taking on a more and more important role in the tourism industry. Generation Y refers to the generation of people who were born between 1982-2002 and are currently between 14-34 of age in 2015 (Pendergast, 2010). According to Haibo and Ruihu (2012) and Rid, Ezeuduji and Pröbstl-Haider (2014), the ratio of young people to rural tourists has exceeded 50%. This implies that Generation Y is a key target market for rural tourism. However, the extant research has very limited coverage of issues regarding Generation Y in rural tourism.

Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) defined brand love as the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular brand. Brand love can be seen as a strong consumer connection with a brand, and such connection affects consumers' loyalty and willingness to pay for a higher price (Rodrigues & Reis, 2003). Fernandez (2009) suggested that in order to retain young generation's loyalty, brand managers need to build an emotional attachment to their brand among consumers of this generation. Therefore, brand love is not simply an important connection between consumers and a brand but also an important factor affecting the brand's ability to create a long-lasting relationship with young consumers. However, the extant research of rural tourism has focused primarily on tourist motivations (Farmaki, 2012; Rid et al., 2014), benefit segmentation (Frochot, 2005) and visitor satisfaction and loyalty (Loureiro & González, 2008). Little attention has been paid to how consumers' brand love for a rural tourism brand is formed as well as its effects.

The purpose of this study is to explore the formation of brand love in rural tourism based on Gartner's (1994) theory about destination image formation. Gartner's theory suggests that destination image is formed from three components, including cognitive, affective, and conative components. The cognitive component is the sum of evaluations and beliefs about the known attributes of a destination, often informed by external stimuli and sources. The affective component refers to the way that an individual values the attributes of a destination. The conative component refers to the attitude and behavior that arises from the influence of internal and external stimuli. This study argues that destination image in the rural tourism context is also formed from these three components. For instance, the functional, emotional, and symbolic attributes of rural tourism can be seen as how visitors perceive and imagine about the functions, scenes, and images of the destination; brand identity can be seen as visitors' affection for the destination; brand love and brand loyalty, which are analogous to visitors' behavioral attitude and intention after stimulation of information about the destination, belong to the conative component. Generation Y is rising in the consumer market. How brand love is formed in this population an issue worth investigating. In this study, we will explore the antecedent and outcome variables of brand love and further analyze Generation Y visitors' psychological and behavioral responses during formation of brand love for rural tourism brands. Results of this study are expected to contribute to planning of marketing and managerial strategies for rural tourism.

III. LITERATURE & THEORY

1.1. Brand Love

Brand love is the passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). In the discipline of tourism, little attention has been paid to brand love, and no research has addressed brand love in rural tourism or analyzed the antecedent and outcome variables of brand love in a specific market. According to Gartner's (1994) theory about destination image formation, the conceptual framework of this study consists of three parts. In the first part, based on Tsai (2012) who proposed antecedents of place attachment and previous literature about Generation Y consumers, we hypothesize that the functional, emotional, and symbolic characteristics of the destination have an effect on Generation Y's brand identification (i.e. identification of a rural tourism destination). In the second, based on discussions about consumer behavior

in Kressmann et al. (2006), and Hwang and Kandampully (2012), we hypothesize that Generation Y's brand identification has an effect on their brand love (i.e. love for a rural tourism destination). In the third, based on O'Cass and Choy (2008) and Hosany and Gilbert (2010), we hypothesize that Generation Y's brand love has an effect on their brand loyalty (i.e. loyalty toward a rural tourism destination). In the following section, we will first discuss the antecedents and consequence of brand love.

1.2. Antecedents of Brand Love

Brand Identification and Brand Love

Kressmann et al. (2006) indicated that consumers tend to have a stronger emotional connection with a brand they identify with. Their self-brand congruity also has an effect on the brand relationship quality (BRQ). Higher self-brand congruity can lead to higher love/passion, inter-dependence, intimacy and brand partner quality. Among the six dimensions of BRQ, love/passion is the most critical element of consumer-brand relations. According to Kastenholz (2004), rural tourism is often characterized by the images of fun and informality. These images are analogous to the pleasure and relaxation commonly pursued by Generation Y. Hwang and Kandampully (2012) probed into younger consumers' relationships with luxury brands and found a positive relationship between self-concept connection and brand love. Therefore, we infer that Generation Y consumers develop brand love for rural tourism when they perceive congruity between images of rural tourism and their self image.

Hypothesis 1: Brand identification has a positive effect on brand love.

1.3. Antecedents of Brand Identification

1.3.1. Functional Characteristics

Functional characteristics include functional benefits and uniqueness. Functional benefits refer to the practical and useful functions that a destination can offer to consumers, such as the environment and facilities. Uniqueness refers to attribute that make a destination special and different from others (Tsai, 2012). If the functional benefits and uniqueness of a destination or a brand meet the needs of consumers, consumers are likely to identify with this destination or brand. Moore and Graefe (1994) probed into the place attachment of recreational trail users. Their empirical findings indicate that trail users had greater dependence on places that could facilitate their activities. In the long run, they would develop affective connections and stronger identification with the places. As to uniqueness, So, King, Sparks, and Wang (2013) suggested hotel managers underscore the uniqueness of their hotels as brand identity and features promote customers' identification with a hotel brand. Generation Y consumers are fond of exploring places which they have never been to and prefer independent hotels or facilities to stay or visit. They love to seek new and special experiences in every trip. They expect high quality services or products at their tourist destination and are willing to pay a higher price for the services or products (Glover, 2010). To sum up, Generation Y's behavior, no matter in shopping or tourism, is characterized by a considerable emphasis on and pursuit of the functional benefits and uniqueness of the service, the environment or the quality they pay for. Farmaki (2012) also pointed out that rural tourism is attractive to tourists mainly because it allows them to appreciate natural scenery, participate in natural environment related activities, and visit historical sites or unique scenic spots in rural areas. In summary, the tourist environment and

services, natural scenery, and unique cultural experiences offered by rural tourism conform to Generation Y's emphasis on functional benefits and uniqueness of tourism. Generation Y can better identify with rural tourism brands with these characteristics. Based on the above discussion, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Functional characteristics have a positive effect on brand identification.

1.3.2. Emotional Characteristics

Emotional characteristics include emotional benefits and attractiveness. Emotional benefits refer to the ability of a destination to improve mood and relieve stress in consumers, and attractiveness refers to the beauty of the scenery at the destination and the appeals of the destination to consumers (Tsai, 2012). Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Caušević, and Odeh (2014) investigated emotional experiences of visitors to Jordan and Thailand. Their finding indicated that strong positive emotions have an effect on behavioral intentions and are also positively related to destination identification. Cheng, Wu, and Huang (2013) found from visitors to Penghu that destination attractiveness is positively related to place dependence and place identification. It can be inferred that the attractiveness of a place and the positive emotions it can induce in consumers are positively related to consumers' identification with the place. Faced with stress from numerous sources in life, Generation Y looks for ways to relieve their stress. One of the ways is participation in thrilling and more risky tourist activities, such as diving, Bungee jumping, and skiing. Participation in these activities has also become a means for backpackers to make new friends (Wilks & Pendergast, 2010). Generation Y may not put a strong emphasis on natural scenery compared to older generations. However, natural scenery is also one of their concerns about tourism (Li et al., 2013). Therefore, Generation Y pays attention to attractiveness of natural scenery at their destination and the special experiences offered by the destination. They would use tourism as a mean to relieve their burden and stress. According to Gopal, Varma, and Gopinathan (2008), the attractiveness of rural areas for tourism is mainly associated with the image of rurality, and rurality is closely related to the romantic idea of the good old days, simple lifestyles, and an aspiration for perfect integration of human in the natural environment. Frochot (2005) noted that many visitors participate in rural tourism for relaxation. To sum up, the natural and rural scenes at rural tourism attractions are attractive to visitors, as they help visitors relax and relieve their stress. To Generation Y consumers, beautiful sceneries and emotional relaxation are equally important as far as tourism is concerned. Given a number of tourism choices, they will better identify with the one that offers emotional functions and satisfactory appeals to them. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Emotional characteristics have a positive effect on brand identification.

1.3.3. Symbolic Characteristics

The symbolic characteristics of a destination are the connections between consumers' self-concept / preferred lifestyles and the destination's images (Tsai, 2012). Üner and Armutlu (2012) suggested that tourists' self-concept is closely related to identifications, and destination-self congruity has a positive effect on destination identification. Therefore, the symbolic characteristics of a destination are positively related to tourists' identification with the destination. Pratt (2008) found that self-image congruity had a positive effect on intentions to visit a winery among Generation Y respondents. In a study of tourists in rural tourism, Kastenholz (2004) identified five images of rural tourism destinations, including natural, simple, fun, casual, and cultural,

and suggested that higher congruity between consumers' self images and these images can lead to higher revisit intentions and destination identification. These images conform to Generation Y's characteristic of being less concerned about formalities. In other words, Generation Y can more easily find a match between images of rural tourism and their self images, and such match will further increase their identification with destinations of rural tourism. It can be inferred that the symbolic characteristics of rural tourism have a positive effect on Generation Y's identification with rural tourism brands. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 4: Symbolic characteristics have a positive effect on brand identification.

1.4. Consequences of Brand Love

Brand Love and Brand Loyalty

Hoyer, MacInnis, and Pieters (2012) mentioned that brand loyalty is not just about repurchase but also about commitment to a certain brand. Visitor emotions, including joy, love, and surprise, would also positively affect visitors' intentions to recommend tourism destinations (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). According to O'Cass and Choy (2008), Generation Y consumers are willing to pay more for brands they favor. Fernandez (2009) suggested that brand managers build stronger emotional connections with Generation Y so as to maintain their loyalty to the brand. It can be inferred that when Generation Y consumers develop brand love for rural tourism, they will show brand loyalty to rural tourism as well. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 5: Brand love has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

IV. METHODS

1.1. Sample Design and Data Collection

Nantou County has the highest number and the largest average scale of leisure farms and leisure agricultural areas among cities and counties in central Taiwan (Taiwan Leisure Farms Development Association, 2014). According to a survey on tourism expenditures conducted by Tourism Bureau of R.O.C. (2012), Sun Moon Lake is a popular tourist attraction among both domestic and foreign tourists. Based on the taxonomy adopted by the government of Alberta, Canada (2010), we selected three scenic spots around Sun Moon Lake for research. These scenic spots are (1) nostalgic and cultural orientation: Checheng Leisure Agricultural Area, (2) natural and ecological orientation: Taomi Ecological Village, and (3) agricultural business orientation: Hugo Assam Tea Farm. Our research subjects were Generation Y visitors at these scenic spots. We administered 200 copies of the questionnaire at each scenic spot and received 151, 151, and 157 valid responses from visitors to Checheng Leisure Agricultural Area, Taomi Ecological Village, and Hugo Assam Team Farm respectively. At last, we obtained a total of 459 valid responses, resulting in a 76.5% valid response rate.

1.2. Measurement

Questionnaire content comprised measurement scales for the six constructs, brand love, functional characteristics, emotional characteristics, symbolic characteristics, brand identification and brand loyalty, in the theoretical model and an area to collect basic respondent data. All measurements were based on literature and were modified to match phenomena in the rural tourism, which will be specified as following. Brand love was operationalized as "the degree to which the visitor loves the rural tourism destination". The brand love scale,

from Carroll and Ahuvia (2006), had 10 items. “Functional characteristics” was operationalized as “the degree to which the visitor perceives the functional benefits and uniqueness of the rural tourism destination”. The functional characteristics scale, from Tsai (2012), had 4 items. “Emotional characteristics” was operationalized as “the degree to which the visitor perceives the emotional benefits and attractiveness of the rural tourism destination”. The emotional characteristics scale, adopted from Tsai (2012), had 4 items. “Symbolic characteristics” was operationalized as “the degree to which the visitor perceives that his/her personality traits are connected with the images of the rural tourism destination”. The symbolic characteristics scale, adopted from Tsai (2012), had 3 items. Brand identification was operationalized as “the degree to which the visitor perceives the destination-self congruity”. The brand identification scale, adopted from Tsai (2012), had 3 items. Brand loyalty was operationalized as “the visitor’s attitude and behavioral intention toward the rural tourism destination”. The brand loyalty scale, adopted from Boo, Busser, and Baloglu (2009), had 4 items. All responses to items were on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

V. RESULTS

1.1. Characteristics of respondents

Descriptive analysis of the sample showed that there were more female respondents (51.9%) than male (48.1%). The majority of the respondents were between 18 and 22 years old (34.2%), followed by 23-27 (33.1%) and 28-32 (32.7%) age groups. A total of 38.1% were students, 36.8% were administrators, business executives and technical personnel and government official (11.7%). The majority of respondents (54.2%) were first-time visitors to these destinations, and another 45.8% were repeat visitors. The findings of this study closely match the characteristics of rural tourism travelers identified by Haibo and Ruihu(2012); Rid, Ezeuduji, and Pröbstl-Haider (2014).

1.2. Measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to investigate measurement reliability and validity, and the results indicated an acceptable model fit (table 1). All items (Table 1) are significant ($p < 0.01$) with a coefficient of factor loading of 0.60–0.85. The t values for the factor loading of all measurement items were significant ($p < 0.01$). Average variance extracted (AVE) for each measurement item was 0.52–0.65. Consequently, the scale in this study had acceptable convergent validity. To achieve discriminant validity, the coefficient for a correlation between a pair of constructs should be lower than the squared root of AVE for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Every construct in the model achieves this requirement, indicating adequate discriminant validity. Composite reliability (CR) of all constructs was 0.77–0.91, and almost all were above the recommended value of 0.7, indicating adequate internal consistency (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

1.3. Structural model

Fits indices of the estimated structural model indicated that the model provided an acceptable fit, with $\chi^2/df = 3.65$, GFI = 0.85, SRMR = 0.064, CFI = 0.98, NFI = 0.97 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). Path coefficient and indicated that brand identification was significantly affected by functional characteristics ($\gamma = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$), emotional characteristics ($\gamma = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$), and symbolic characteristics ($\gamma = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$). Brand love was significantly affected by brand identification ($\gamma = 0.89$, $p < 0.01$). Brand loyalty was significantly affected by

brand love ($\gamma = 0.86$, $p < 0.01$).

Table1. Confirmatory factor analysis of constructs and items

Construct / Variable		M	SD	SFL	CR	AVE
Functional Characteristics					0.81	0.52
	This destination provides high-quality rural settings and facilities.	3.71	0.80	0.67**		
	The environment and facilities at this rural tourism destination satisfy my needs.	3.59	0.83	0.75**		
	The rural characteristics of this destination is unique in many aspects.	3.89	0.89	0.73**		
	Comparing with other destinations, this destination is extraordinary.	3.75	0.89	0.74**		
Emotional Characteristics					0.88	0.65
	I feel happier when I visit this place.	4.15	0.76	0.86**		
	My concerns and worries are soothed at this destination.	4.20	0.79	0.78**		
	This destination's rural characteristic is beautiful.	4.10	0.79	0.78**		
	The rural features of this place are attractive to me.	3.88	0.88	0.80**		
Symbolic Characteristics					0.77	0.52
	This place reflects a part of my styles.	3.15	0.92	0.72**		
	This destination reflects who I wish to become.	2.77	0.98	0.74**		
	The images of this place conform to my lifestyle.	3.36	0.97	0.71**		
Brand Identification					0.77	0.53
	This destination seems to be a part of me.	2.97	0.98	0.70**		
	My life was enriched after I visited this place.	3.52	0.95	0.74**		
	I identify with the image of this destination.	3.79	0.90	0.75**		
Brand Love					0.91	0.58
	This is a wonderful brand.	3.47	0.90	0.70**		

	This brand makes me feel good.	3.76	0.88	0.85**		
	This brand is totally awesome.	3.59	0.90	0.85**		
	This brand makes me very happy.	3.84	0.80	0.78**		
	I love this brand!	3.56	0.87	0.84**		
	This brand is a pure delight.	3.80	0.78	0.79**		
	I am passionate about this brand.	3.42	0.93	0.60**		
	I'm very attached to this brand.	2.18	0.98	0.61**		
	I have neutral feelings about this brand. (–)					
	I have no particular feelings about this brand. (–)					
Brand Loyalty					0.87	0.63
	I enjoy visiting this destination.	3.83	0.80	0.77**		
	This destination would be my preferred choice for a vacation.	3.05	0.92	0.71**		
	Overall, I am loyal to this destination.	3.60	0.94	0.83**		
	I would advise other people to visit this destination.	3.56	0.90	0.85**		

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

1.1 Antecedents of Brand Love

1.1.1 Brand Identification and Brand Love

Results indicate that brand identification and brand love are positively related to the level of significance. This finding is consistent with Kressmann et al.'s (2006) argument that the more that one identifies with a brand, the more likely that he/she will have brand love for the brand. Among the items in the brand identification dimension, the effects of "I identify with the image of this destination" and "My life was enriched after I visited this place" are relatively greater. This suggests that all the three scenic spots have the images of relaxation and simplicity, which are important for people who expect to temporarily escape from their hectic life. Due to these characteristics, respondents showed high identification with Taomi, Checheng, and Hugo. As they had a chance to observe the tea making process, take part in doing a wooden work or join an ecological tour, they agreed they gained rich tour experiences and had feelings of love for these rural tourism destinations.

1.1.2 Antecedents of Brand Identification

Functional characteristics and brand identification are positively related to the level of significance. This finding conforms to findings of previous research indicating that usefulness and uniqueness promote consumers' identification with a brand or a product (Moore & Graefe, 1994; So et al., 2013). Among items in the functional characteristics dimension, the effects of "The environment and facilities at this rural tourism destination satisfy my needs" and "Comparing with other destinations, this destination is extraordinary" are relatively greater. A

plausible reason is that although the environment and facilities offered in these rural tourism destinations are simpler compared to urban tourism destinations, these destinations are unique and can satisfy the various needs of visitors. These functional characteristics of rural tourism meet the needs of Generation Y, so Generation Y consumers will better identify with rural tourism brands.

Results suggest that emotional characteristics and brand identification are significantly and positive related. This finding supports findings of previous literature that attractiveness and emotional benefits contribute to visitors' destination identification (Cheng et al., 2013; Hosany et al., 2014). Among the items in this dimension, the effects of "I feel happier when I visit this place" and "The rural features of this place are attractive to me" are greater. It can be inferred that the simple and natural rural atmosphere combined with rural scenery in these scenic spots form a strong attraction to tourists. Tourists feel relaxed when they visit these places and thus can better identify with them. For instance, the ecological pool and Lotus Pool in Taomi Ecological Village are surrounded by well-designed landscape elements, and there is no high-rising building or statue that distract visitors' attention in the park. Besides, small musical performances will be held on holidays, so visitors can really relax their mind and soul at this place. The emotional characteristics of rural tourism meet the needs of Generation Y, so Generation Y can better identify with rural tourism brands.

Results indicate that symbolic characteristics and brand identification are positively related to the level of significance. This finding is consistent with previous literature suggesting that higher destination-self congruity leads to higher destination identification (Kastenholz, 2004; Üner and Armutlu, 2012). Among the items in the symbolic characteristics dimension, the effects of "The images of this place conform to my lifestyle" and "This place reflects a part of my styles" are relatively greater. With the images of slowness and simplicity, Taomi, Checheng, and Hugo all allow visitors to have full relaxation of their body and mind during the tour. The rural images of these destinations probably reflect the lifestyle that tourists prefer and also represent a part of their personal styles. In short, the symbolic characteristics of rural tourism match with the personal styles of Generation Y, so Generation Y consumers can better identify with rural tourism brands.

2.1. *Consequence of Brand Love*

The relationship between brand love and brand loyalty is also positive and significant. This finding is consistent with Hosany & Gilbert's (2010) view that consumers and visitors show higher loyalty to destinations they favor. Among items in the brand love dimension, the effects of "I love this brand!" and "This brand is totally awesome." are relatively greater. All the three scenic spots selected for this research have their unique features, including ecological and artistic landscape, traditional and innovative ways of tea tasting, and a recovered rail station. Integrated with images of rurality, these tourist destinations offer tourists a variety of unique experiences. Tourists love everything offered by these places and will thus show higher loyalty to rural tourism. Our empirical finding has confirmed that in order to improve Generation Y's love and loyalty to a tourism destination, managers of the destination should improve the atmosphere of rurality at the destination, create images that conform to the needs of Generation Y, and provide a unique environment and facilities. In this study, we obtained data from tourists at rural tourism destinations located around Sun Moon Lake. It is a limitation of this study that other types of rural tourism destinations were not included. Besides, we attempted to

model Generation Y's brand love for rural tourism destinations. As there is a wide diversity of rural tourism destinations, and destinations from different industries have different features, we suggest future researchers consider other types of rural tourism destinations to obtain more generalizable results.

VII. REFERENCES

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SLUM TOURISM AS A REMEDIAL MEASURE FOR PRO-SUICIDE BEHAVIOUR OF YOUTH GENERATION IN USA

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to provide valuable insights for future slum tourism market segmentation by targeting the young depressed adults in United States. Doctors suggest that long time deprivation, loss of love, death of beloved one, parent negligence and other reasons of depression influence young people to commit suicide at an earlier stage of their life. Suicide is one of the major causes for developed world's young death and surprisingly bigger cause than cancer or other fatal deceases for this aged group people and especially for young male adults. While this group cannot find any reason to live longer in this beautiful world, people in other parts of the same planet are struggling for food, shelter or for basic needs by living in slums of the cities in developing nations. Although humanitarians are working hard for both of these two groups to stop suicide focusing on mental health and to eliminate poverty but none of them have focused earlier thinking of the remedy measures for each other by linking them together. Since suicide rate reduction and poverty eliminations are two different areas of study in formal higher education system as well as research streams, not much link has been found in previous research studies to kill these two tigers with the same bullet. While traveling to slums as slum tourists, pro-suicide adults may find the motivation and love for life to see the struggles of slum people in their daily lives, slum residents can also get direct monetary benefit from slum tourists to remove poverty.

Keywords: Slum tourism, Poverty elimination, Market segmentation, Targeting, Mental health, Pro-suicide.

INTRODUCTION

The third largest cause of young adults death in United States is suicide (11%) after injuries including motor vehicle accidents (48%) and homicide (13%) as reported by NCHS (2006). However, 48% American population strongly believes that suicide prevention is possible as found in a survey by Research America, (2006). Further, National Action Alliance for Suicide Prevention's (Action Alliance) Research Prioritization Task Force (RPTF) emphasized on the help seeking stage of victims before committing suicide. Suicide prevention researchers stated that potential victims go through several stages of mental struggling before suicide such as problem recognition, seeking help, range of services required etc. where other people can help them to divert their dangerous path to suicide (Niederkrötenhaler et al., 2014).

While these youth generation are mentally struggling and living in isolation, other parts of the same planet are struggling physically and financially to live their livelihood by living in the slums of developing countries. In such situation, slum tourism can open the door for these high-risk youth to visit the slums and to view the alternative way of observing the life. Slum tourism will help them to recognize how precious the life is and how slum residents including the children are involved in working not in education just for food and shelter.

This interdisciplinary exploratory study attempts to make a bridge between these two distinct disciplines of research streams and tries to find the possible ways about how each other may help. The study will try to provide valuable insights about the niche market segmentation for 'Slum Tourism' as well as an instant remedy for high-risk youth. Findings of this study on the target market (high risk youth group) will help to customize slum tourism suitable for this vulnerable target group. Since, youth in United States belongs to a free and open society to visit different places and not much budget required for accommodation and food in developing countries, slum tourism could be a possible answer to remove their depression and frustration in life.

Therefore, the objective of this study is to explore the potential use of slum tourism for reducing the rate of suicidal attempts among youth adult generation in developed countries as well as to understand the current viewpoints and potential acceptance of slum tourism among slum people.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Slum Tourism

The word 'Slum' has no unique meaning rather it is largely context specific, vague and relational (Gilbert, 2007). In general, slum tourism is a kind of tourism where tourists visit a specific urban area characterized by poverty and violence (Durr and Jaffe, 2012). Slum tours are of two types – cultural and entertainment. While entertainment tours are like 'Safari' type tour, cultural tours are highly educational and focus on the reality of slums (Ma, 2010). For instance, how the slum residents live their livelihood or how does the slum community survive etc. (Ma, 2010). This study focuses on the 'cultural' type of slum tourism.

Slum Tourism vs. Suicidal Behavior

Although 'Slum Tourism' and 'Suicidal Behavior' are two different disciplines of research, there are few common criteria embedded both of these concepts that make them linked with each other. This section has been organized based on the common phenomena exist in these two distinct areas of human study.

Motivations

Earlier studies reported that travel motivations are determined by the complex interactions of 'Push-Pull' factors. Push factors are intrinsic, personal desires regarding travel destination (Gartner, 1993; Kim & Lee, 2002; Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya, McLellan & Uysal, 1996) whereas 'Pull' factors are extrinsic and largely dependent on the destination attributes (Ma, 2010). Finally, tourists arrive on the decision about a travel plan that suitably matches with 'Push' and 'Pull' factors (Lundberg, 1971; Jang and Wu, 2006; Nicholson and Pearce, 2001).

On the other hand, common motivations for suicidal attempt are mental illness (Nock, et al., 2010; Nock et al., 2009), intense emotional reactivity (Nock et al., 2008) and aggression (Mann et al., 1999) and cognitive or problem solving insufficiency (Neuringer, 1964). All of these factors also may work as a 'Push' factor for suicide victims and they also look for alternative ways of suicide, which act as 'Push' factor for them.

Inequality

Slum tourism is about experiencing the inequality in terms of race, social class and nationality (Durr and Jaffe, 2012). In slum tourism encounters, slum dwellers and slum tourists both parties come to recognize the global inequalities and figure out more about this differences and inequalities by involving in person with each other (Durr and Jaffe, 2012).

Likewise, Dour et al. (2011) in their study on prediction of suicidal attempt reported that inequality in emotion-cognition interaction procedure leads to commit this fatal behavior. They stated that people experience high unequal emotional reactivity and poor problem solving cognitive skills are responsible for influencing them to make decision about suicide.

Urge for action

Travel comes from an urge to get involve something or to go somewhere. Potential tourists make a travel plan, search for information and look for convenient time and place for travel. Similarly, most of the victims committed suicide; also feel an urge to do something and start thinking how to make the end of his or her life.

Mental Relief

Slum tourism is about escaping from one's own surroundings and having mental relief from observing someone who is struggling more than the tourist. Earlier slum tourism critics therefore criticized this 'entertainment of poverty', but in other way, slum tourism provides mental strengths to the tourist to fight with their own problems.

Similarly, the suicide victims also think that suicide is also a way of mental relief for one. Refocusing on the interaction between huge emotional stress and poor problem solving reasons for suicide, in fact, inspire victims to get rid of mental stress and to give oneself the mental relief. They have a false expectation that suicide will end up their current stressful situation and they will get an instant mental relief after it. In such a way both slum tourism and committing suicide work as a mean of getting mental relief.

METHODOLOGY

The study will be conducted at three different slums in Dhaka city, Bangladesh. Reasons for selecting this city are – this is the highest densely populated city in the world. It is host of 15.4 million people but they fitted only in 134 square miles. Surprisingly, while there are numbers of slum tourism studies conducted earlier on neighboring country India, there is no significant academic research study has been conducted before on this largest populated urban city of the World, Dhaka.

The study will use mixed method analysis by using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative analysis will be used for having deep understanding of current slum residents' intention to participate, expectations and readiness for accepting slum tourism in their slums. Quantitative analysis will be conducted on the potential patients who are identified by the mental health centers as 'high risk' stage for committing suicide.

Qualitative Analysis

In qualitative phase, research assistants in Bangladesh will take in-person interview at the slums. Initially, the biggest slum in Dhaka city, 'Korail Bosti' has been chosen for the study. It has 1.5 lakh inhabitants and becomes the largest slum in this city (Burri, 2013). A sample of 250 slum residents will be interviewed on one to one basis to get their personal opinions on the potential acceptance of 'slum tourists' in their living area. Additional queries will also be made on their expectations from slum tourism initiatives and their intention to participate in slum tourism by selling some souvenirs.

Quantitative Analysis

In quantitative phase, lead researcher will contact with different mental health centers in Boston, USA and based on their information, prepare a list of 350 potential high-risk young adults and will invite them to take part in a survey. Five point 'Likert' scale will be used for data collection. Survey questionnaire will include the item scales to identify their intention to participate in slum tourism. The survey will be conducted online mostly by using social media networks and/or by mail. Since the potential suicide adults may feel uncomfortable with face-to-face interview or in-person survey, online, email or mail survey questionnaire will help them to feel comfortable to answer freely and it will raise the response rate as well as will get the true results. For the nature of the subject matter, non-personal, without face-to-face survey will help respondents to avoid the social pressure too.

The study will use different software for qualitative and quantitative analysis. To explore the major themes of qualitative data, 'LEXIMANCER' software will be used for mapping the interview data. On the other hand, 'Structural Equation Modeling' will be used with 'Partial Least Square Method' for analyzing the quantitative survey data. Finally, data interpretation will be made based on the findings of both phases of data analyses.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this exploratory study is to find out the possible use of slum tourism as a remedy to reduce the suicide rate of youth generation in USA. In implementing this aim, the study will conduct mixed method analysis on both slum residents and on high-risk suicide victims. The study will try to measure the participation intention of young depressed adults to visit slums and will also understand the current slum residents' level of interest to accept slum tourists in their locality.

In theory, there are very limited research has been carried out to find the applications of slum tourism for curing mental illness, depression and suicidal attempts. While the application of 'Push-Pull' theory has been separately applied before in identifying slum tourism or investigating the motivations for suicidal attempts but how this theory works by combining these two disciplines of research streams together has not been explored yet.

There are huge potential of practical implications of this study if implemented properly. First, thousands of dollars spending on counseling to the high risk youth generation could be saved only by arranging comparatively cheaper slum tourism packages in developing countries. Second, universities and higher educational institutions in developed countries can initiate educational training and student exchange programs collaborating with developing country educational institutions for including slum tourism package in study program. So undergraduate students (targeted high risk group) can get in hand real life experience of slum life and can discover human struggling to survive in this world. Finally, suicide research centers and mental illness treatment centers who have better understanding about the depression stage and capabilities of their patients can

suggest slum tours in developing countries for their patients. They may also develop collaborations with mental illness treatment units in the different hospitals in developing countries as well for arranging slum tours.

In future, eventually, we are expecting that slum tourism will merge with medical tourism and will be an important remedy to reduce and to remove mental depression as well as suicidal attempts in youth generation in developed countries. This study will serve as a pioneer platform to call for future tourism theorists to explore new area of slum tourism research for applying in mental health sector.

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TOURISM AND AIR TRANSPORTATION IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

The transportation sector is constantly evolving, with changes resulting from technological transformation, innovation, and national and/or international policies, along with the ever-increasing demand for better-quality services. These developments all have implications for the tourism industry. The most important component of the tourism is industry of air transport. An integral whole, the tourism and aviation industry throughout the world and in Turkey in recent years, showed an rapid development. However, in Turkey, growth potential in the aviation sector has brought with it many problems. The purpose of this research is identifying the current state of the Turkish civil aviation sector and to determine the problems encountered. However, air transport is the main reason of the development of tourism in Turkey. In this research the impact has been investigated. The most important aspect of the study is tourism, transport and public sector evaluations by its employees. Aviation brings a healthy and steady growth to tourism and in this research wished light on the important tips for tourism which contribute to the growth.

Keywords Air Transport, Tourism and Transport, Transport in Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

Transportation science, with recently developed technology, gained an increasingly momentum, this acceleration also had a direct impact on other departments. One of the most important branches which have been affected is, tourism. Because of the travel and motion activity has takes place with transportation systems. In this sense, “speed”, “trust” and “regularity” these basic issues showed us that the tourism and the transport is inseparable. Transportation and transportation services covers departure of the tourists from their residence, after their arrival in the destination country where they will stay, and returning process to their own country.(Spring and Kozak, 2005). Tuncsiper (1995) mentioned that a rapid increase in world population, increases in per capita income levels, technological developments in the study of shortening the duration of the transportation service in the comfort and speed, the increasing consciousness of leisure, led Tourism grow faster. Vacation, education, health, or those who travel for business or work purposes, or on a visit to relatives or friends, makes transportation, and tourism is an inseparable whole (Page, 1994).

A good transportation system in the country will provide transportation costs get reduced make tourism demand higher and as a result of this positive influence, rise in tourism revenues and an increase in the number of tourists will be provided. As a result, a country of tourism is essential for the continuation of the development, for that reason the transportation network and transportation services should be organized in a very good way.

LITERATURE & THEORY

In the tourism sector, public transport is concerned with the need for speed, need for comfort and with number of the passenger transport capacity, and of course need of benefits such as airlines, transportation, and tourism is a very tight relationship is known. According to the studies of international travel is the preferred way of transport, the distance between the two countries, designates the choosing, but the distance increases, airlines, and sea, are the more preferred rather than road transportation (Birzhakov, 2004). 1960's tourism boom in air transport is closely associated with Rapidly growing technological developments, increasing living standards, border procedures is gradually decreasing, and facilitate the movement of international tourism. These things make tourism huge.

The relationship between Transportation and Tourism organization, such as airlines, contributes to large to world economic and social globalization also. International tourism in the last 30 years in the process of continuous development and diversity, it is the world's fastest growing sectors.

Turkey's geographical location is important due to the airline and tourism industry association of the inevitable combination of both industries. Serious contribution to the Turkish economy will be the brought to life and led the satisfaction of visitor increase. Culpan (1987) identified transportation modes and management as the “important ingredients of the international tourism system,” acknowledging that linkage by air, sea and land modes is essential for the operations as well as the availability of support services such as fuel stations, auto repair, motels and rest facilities for land travel. Also, another important factor is economy. air transport operates within dense and occasionally obtuse regulatory environments that concurrently (and thus somewhat paradoxically) restrict and unchain modern international commercial aviation. Debbage and Alkaabi (2010) argue correctly that economies of scale (as well as scope and density) of airline operations have, in many ways, shaped tourism demand, an airline's Access to a market is governed by economic regulation that has foundations in international law and politics (Bogosian 1981).

The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) are the intergovernmental organizations responsible for each of these areas. In this framework, and aiming to bridge the gap between tourism and aviation policies, UNWTO has closely collaborated with ICAO since a Working Arrangement between the two Organizations was established in 1978. In 2010, this collaboration was strengthened through a Memorandum of Understanding identifying a number of areas of mutual interest and action. Symbol of increased commitment to work together, the Secretaries-General of the two Organizations signed a Joint Statement in March 2013 aiming to further optimize the benefits of aviation and tourism through maximizing synergies; cooperating for the modernization of the air transport regulatory framework; enhancing air transport connectivity, including visa and other document formalities and issuances; contributing to the protection of passengers, tourists and tourism service providers; reducing greenhouse emissions; addressing air transport for tourism development in long-haul destinations and landlocked or island countries; and assessing the economic impact of taxes, charges and other levies on aviation and tourism.

As a bridge between Asia and Europe, at the crossroad of civilizations, Turkey has excelled in establishing itself as a mainstream destination for many European nations because of its rich culture, history and natural beauty. The industry's share in total GDP is around 4%, while its total contribution was USD 32.3 billion in 2012. In 2023, the direct contribution of the travel and tourism industry to the economy is expected to exceed USD 60 billion which will be approximately 3.4% of Turkey's economy.

The contribution of the travel and tourism industry to Turkey's GDP has a higher growth forecast compared to that of Europe. From 2013 to 2023, average growth is expected to remain around 3% for Turkey. Meanwhile in Europe, average growth from 2013 to 2023 is projected as approximately 2%. After 2010, the travel and tourism industry recovered strongly with a 19.5% rate of growth in 2011, significantly greater than the growth rate of the Turkish economy in that respective period (Figure 1). The reason for this fluctuation was domestic demand, capital investments and indirect revenues had decreased significantly in 2010 compared to 2009. However, the Turkish economy recovered in 2011 and the percentage of growth returned to higher levels.

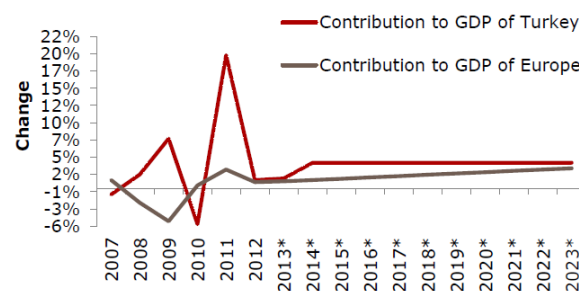


Figure 1. Travel & Tourism Growth, 2007-2023

The annual growth rate of airline passenger numbers has remained strong from 2007 to 2012. Double digit growth rates were experienced every year except for 2009, which was a crisis-recovery year all around the world. More than 130 million passengers arrived in 2012, indicating an 85% increase from 2007 (Figure 2).

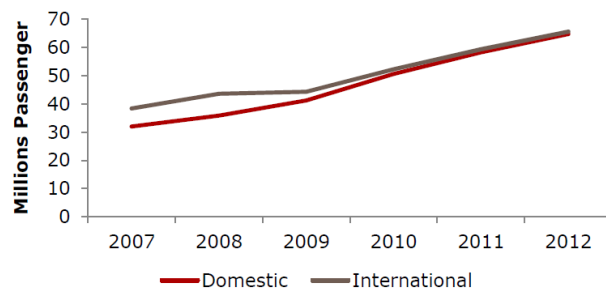


Figure 2. Airline Yearly Passenger Numbers (General Directorate of State Airports Authority)

Turkish Airlines is Turkey's premier airline. It successfully connects to all the major geographic locations of Turkey through its main hub in Istanbul's Atatürk Airport. Turkish Airlines received The Best Airline in Europe Award from Skytrax, World Passengers choice awards, three years in a row in 2011, 2012 and 2013. Turkish Airlines has a fleet of 200 planes that flies to over 180 destinations in 98 countries with 36 domestic lines. Despite a weak global economy, Turkish Airlines is expanding and has ordered 117 Airbus airplanes for its fleet. The total number of airplanes in the fleet is projected to be 235 by the end of 2013.

Even the global economic recession of 2008 and 2009 did not have an adverse impact on passenger traffic for Turkish Airlines. The total number of passengers surged from 20 million to 39 million from 2007 to 2012 with the exceptionally large increase of approx. 98%. During the same period, international passenger traffic increased 138%, while domestic passenger traffic increased 59% (Figure 3).

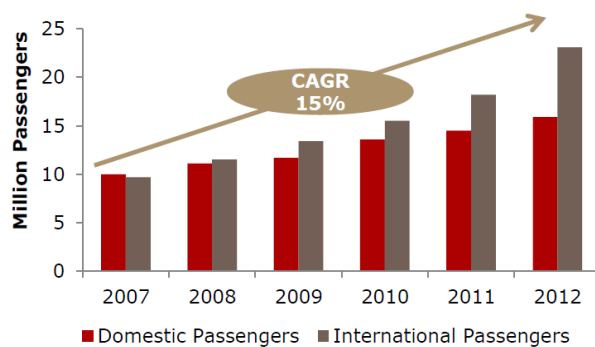


Figure 3. Passenger Growth (Turkish Airlines Statistics)

METHODOLOGY

Turkey's passenger and freight transport, aviation jobs, engaged in domestic and foreign enterprises with many airlines at the airports, and 50 operates. Research aviation is limited with, passenger and tourism sector in the transport of passengers, airline companies and tourism in terms of a high degree of importance in the airports they answered the survey questions. Research conducted airports are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 Evaluated Airports

<u>Airport Name</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Capacity (Total)</u>		<u>IATA Code</u>
		<i>2012</i>	<i>2013</i>	
İstanbul Atatürk Airport	İstanbul	45.091.962	51.320.975	IST
Sabiha Gökçen Airport	İstanbul	14.686.052	18.641.842	SAW
Antalya Airport	Antalya	25.096.144	27.003.712	AYT
Dalaman Airport	Muğla	3.811.958	4.057.173	DAL
Adnan Menderes Airport	İzmir	9.355.902	10.208.627	ADB
Esenboğa Airport	Ankara	9.273.108	10.928.403	ESB
Milas-Bodrum Airport	Muğla	3.530.460	3.631.922	BJV

The study's research method is based on a survey. At the airports questioned people are who work for the airlines and they are airport operators. They were asked 20 questions. Participants answered questions, to be answered in the survey to facilitate the researcher's assessment data more quickly to make the closed-ended. Also, a five-point Likert scale questions were used. In this research, quantitative data for the comparison of Kruskal Wallis H, Mann Whitney-U tests and Spearman's Correlation analysis was performed. Survey forms to the offices distributed by hand, for the units were not available, e-mail was sent. Time scale of the Collection and the distribution the survey data, approximately 11 months. Questionnaire on the implementation of January 2013-December 2013 date covers.

In this research, knowledge obtained from the 123 survey was analyzed using SPSS. With Program through the research, all of the variables number and percent distributions were calculated. However, on the assessment of the data, such as mean and standard deviation descriptive statistical methods were used. Quantitative data for the comparison of more than two groups of the parameters in the case of comparisons between groups using the Kruskal Wallis H-Test, and difference, which is why in the determination of the group Mann-Whitney-U test was used. Scales the relationship between tested with Spearman's Correlation analysis.

The finding of a 96 %confidence interval of 4 %level of significance has been assessed. Air transport related to the scale, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated based on. Reliability coefficient value is between 0 and 1, this value is closer to 1, increasing reliability. Air transport of the problems Faced by the scale of the Significance of the general reliability of the 0,889; the Development of air Transport for the importance of Activities related to the general reliability of the scale is 0,615; Airline of the development of tourism on the Impact of the general reliability of the scale is 0,857.

Research in the scope of airport and airline businesses (AAC) with the findings in terms of frequency and percentage distributions specified in Table 2, the individual factors were analyzed.

Table 2. Research In The Scope Of Airport And Airline Businesses (AAC) Features And Analysis

Airport and Airline companies	Description
Activity Time	The starting 1 year and over 50 years
Property	Public/Private/Rent/Joint Stock Company
Number of staff	The starting 10 people and over 50 people
The average salary (Monthly)	The starting \$250 and ove \$1500
Nationalities of employees	Domestic/Foreign
Average Age of Aircraft	The starting 1 year and over 15 years
Fleets	The starting 1 fleet and over 50 fleets
Seat Capacity	The starting 100 seats; 1000 and over
Number of offices	The starting 1 office and over 25 offices
Areas of activity	Domestic / Foreign / Both
Number of Domestic and International Routes	The starting 1 city and over 50 cities
Total annual campaign	The starting 1000 and over 1 million
Future of Flight Plan to Increase	Yes/No/Don't Know
Travel Purpose of passengers	Business/Tourism/Transit/Private/Education/Visit
Most Favorite Cities of passengers (Domestic)	İstanbul/Antalya/İzmir/Ankara etc.
Most Favorite Cities of passengers (International)	Roma/Paris/Viyana/New York etc.

“What are the most important problems Aviation in Turkey encountered in your opinion?” questions in the survey respondents for their answers on the assessment made. Evaluation is very important (5) Important (4) important (3), Junk (2), and no junk (1) values were measured. Such analyses, as well as in the transport sector in Turkey, problems have been identified. These problems are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Evaluation of Turkey's Aviation Encountered Problems

Problem	Q	Average	SD
High tax for Airport	123	3.99	1.08
High fuel prices	123	4.12	1.01
The architectural problems passenger terminals	123	4.21	0.71
Obsolete fleet	123	4.64	0.76
Lack of trained staff	123	4.43	0.88
The lack of competition among airlines and Turkish Airlines is dominant (in Domestic)	123	4.23	0.96
Service charge and there is no quality equality	123	4.03	1.10
Air transport is underdeveloped in many tourist areas	123	3.50	1.12
Local airways are unable to compete with foreign airlines	123	4.21	0.97

Domestic charter was not developed for business.	123	2.12	1.21
Passport control and customs control problems for passenger	123	2.70	1.24
Visa Issues	123	3.12	1.08
Global economic crisis	123	3.44	1.50
Economic problems for Turkey	123	3.56	1.28
The low purchasing power of citizens of Turkey	123	3.61	1.16
People are giving up their habits and they choose railway and other transport modes	123	3.33	1.15

In addition, the development of air transport's impact on tourism evaluated. According to the Research participants which are airline and the airport authorities, the development of the airline industry in Turkey and abroad, most of the resulting ($x=4,50$), business ($x=4,34$) the expansion of tourism has provided. The majority of experts considers in the development of air transport, domestic tourism ($x=3,99$) and Turkey in the remote areas of travel between quite affected ($x=3,98$). Majority of the participants of the air transport; abroad, eco, culture, health and thermal tourism's the affect is stay on middle levels.

It has been evaluated from participants' opinions the general average of the scores for all business of given in Turkey, the effect of "the development of aviation," to the country's tourism sector," participants' 67,66% very effective 21,94% effective, 5,61% moderately effective, 4,12% less effective, 0,67% were considered to be not effective. Participants from the airport authorities 55,49% of them thinks that, air transport has a positive effect on tourism. The development of tourism in turkey, the country's airline sector in the development of active participants on the question, there is 39,77% of medium effects, 27,59% effective, 32,41% answered very effective.

RESULTS

In the world, the truth that tourism activities have a strict relationship between air transports is known fact. Especially with the rapidly growing airline technology, people, regions, and continents existing between the travel time significantly shortened, and the tourism sector also contributed to the rapid development. On the other hand, World-wide increase in per capita income, trade between regions for the development of tourism and the airline industry demand growth rate has accelerated. As a result, in 2012, the tourist movement, participating has in the 1 half billion people to reach destinations for the airline transportation. Developments in the world make air transport in Turkey important and especially in the tourism sector since 2001 and a growth trend has been continued. Tourism revenues have in 2003 of approximately \$ 14 billion, while in 2013 this figure has exceeded \$ 32 billion.

In 2003, Airlines in Turkey transported 34 million passengers, at the end of 2011, these number reached to 118 million passengers. Civil aviation system is a part of a whole system and if there is a error in the subsystem ,it will affect the civil aviation sector, tourism and the economy of the country negatively. However, in Turkey, the airline transport-related research is very limited, we lack of a healthy of statistical data in the country, air transport on the current status of the detailed information it is quite difficult to achieve. Therefore, Turkey in this study, about the current status of air transport, the problems faced and their impact on tourism to identify is a first.

Number of establishments in the country despite the increase in the competitive environment still is not satisfying. Therefore, Turkish AIRLINES, especially on domestic flights there is a high price policy. In this situation, the development of domestic tourism is negatively. Vice versa, Turkish AIRLINES international flights of foreign airlines within a competitive environment. This is why national airlines have to discounts on sales. As a result, the price difference on tickets will be very lower. The airlines which are not included to this research are small or moderate airports that not equivalent for international flights. Their properties are not inadequate and they are absolute.

In addition, on new airports, adequate feasibility study is meaningless without a way to different lands have been placed on top. This is just a political investments and investment in the future of many of them will remain dysfunctional. Airports operated by the government situations are worse than others. However, passenger and freight transport quality and quick service are the still unresolved issues. On the other hand, Main problem for tourist marketing is insufficiency of domestic airlines companies. They are inadequate. From the above descriptions of the Turkish air transport activities for the development of the following recommendations can be offered;

- Domestic airline companies to compete with foreigners in the organizational structure, management,

marketing, finance and human resource policies of the business in a more effective and efficient management to ensure new strategies by identifying them and putting it into practice advantage

- Monopolistic competitive environment, the market introduction: with THY competition in the domestic market can be encouraged to grow businesses
- The quality of education and the number of trained personnel without compromising development
- Creating the image of the country's tourism
- New airport rather than doing "the current airport infrastructure renewal
- Required by the tourism comfort and equipment is provided
- Domestic tourist areas, with new flight connection opening
- Turkey in the tariff policy of optimizing you need to price and quality to ensure equivalence

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

As a result, the Turkish airline industry is faced with many problems. These problems of the tourism sector, causes negative affect to tourism sector. The many of the problems of Air Transportation covered up by government officials and are being solved very slowly. Problems in Air Transportation get solved more quickly; other sectors related to economy can obtain healthy and steady growth.

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IMPACT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ON MARKETING PERFORMANCE FOR TOURIST COMPANIES IN SAUDI ARABIA (Applied Study on Tourist companies in Riyadh District)

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ABSTRACT

This research study entitled: 'Impact of Information Technology on Marketing Performance for Tourist companies in Saudi Arabia is aimed at the impact of information technology. In addition to examining any statistical relationships between variables such as, using computers and programmers in the Tourist companies, qualifications, years of experiences, and the date of Tourist companies established as the impact on marketing performance for private Tourist companies in Saudi Arabia A random sample of (29) Tourist companies have selected from tourism sector in Riyadh district. The study concluded the following parts.

Keywords: Information Technology, Marketing Performance, Tourist companies.

INTRODUCTION

At the end of the twentieth century produced a comprehensive variables from which many of the challenges faced by various humanitarian organizations, especially in the areas of globalization, competitiveness and the communications revolution and information technology and the Internet ... etc. and the accompanying significant effects in the context of the relentless pursuit of these developments towards investment in improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the performance of many humanitarian organizations in the public sphere and private alike. This has contributed to the development and implementation to the emergence of the great importance of information technology and the emergence of clear impact on the effectiveness of decision-making and the need to proceed by adopting a meaningful way to achieve and improve performance efficiency and effectiveness in particular. Information technology plays an important and vital role in supporting the activities of organizations, whether these organizations aim to make a profit or not-the term information technology both hardware and software, as well as information management systems and processes, as well as human resources, for the use of equipment and human skills operations and programs and processes in order to produce the information and information systems development, management and control

The importance of this study focused on the following points:

1. This study highlights the significant role played by information technology in influencing the marketing performance in Saudi Arabia Tourist companies
2. Covering a vital and very important sector in the national economy, namely the Tourism sector
3. This study will contribute to the development of Saudi Arabia Tourist companies ability to use information technology to improve marketing performance in marketing performance and enhance their competitive advantage in the face of competition Tourist companies

study problem

We have grown and spread the use of information technology in different organizations and departments, where it became one of the essentials for success in any organization, and tourism companies in their need for information technology is no different from any other organization need Private and that there is great competition witnessed by the tourism sector in recent years in light of the proliferation of tourism companies and other tourism organization centers were local or international in all the Riyadh district, which necessitated the need for the Tourist companies using different means in which they can improve their performance compared to competitors catalog

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify the role of information technology in influencing the marketing performance in the Tourist companies, and that by answering the following question as:

1. What is the role of information technology in influencing the performance catalog of Tourist companies in Riyadh
2. Are there differences in the role of information technology in the Tourist companies due to the size of the organization?
3. Are there differences in the role of information technology in the Tourist companies due to the date of the founding of the organization?

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis:

There were no statistically significant differences between the use of information technology and improve marketing performance in the Tourist companies relationship.

The second hypothesis:

There were no statistically significant differences between the use of computers and software and improve marketing performance in Tourist companies relationship

The third hypothesis:

There is no statistically significant relationship between communication systems and improve marketing performance in the Tourist companies

Fourth hypothesis:

There were no statistically significant differences between information technology and improve marketing performance in the Tourist companies users of relationship skills.

The limits of the study

1. This study will cover the Tourist companies in Riyadh.
2. Identification of the study will be distributed to the marketing managers or their representatives in Tourist companies

The study methodology:

The researchers relied on descriptive analytical approach in this study and the subsequent in-depth field study.

A study population

The study population of marketing managers or their representatives in Tourist companies in the Riyadh, and 29 Tourist companies edition consists of, has been a comprehensive survey of the community to study the distribution of a questionnaire study

Statistical processing methods:

Was used statistical package "SPSS" the aim of the data that has been collected through a questionnaire survey analysis, including:

1. Descriptive statistics
- 2- ANOVA

Recommendations

In light of the results reached by the researchers recommend the following:

1. Training of marketing managers or their representatives in Tourist companies the latest developments in the field of information technology in order to help them improve marketing performance of these Tourist companies.
2. To address any negative points that may arise from the use of information technology to improve marketing performance of these Tourist companies.
3. The application of the study on other sectors of the economy is the aim of universal access to Tourist companies from the object of study in its application to improve marketing performance.
4. The need to establish a scientific and technological centers and the distinct advantage of the Arab competencies in order to adapt the information technology in the tourism sector to contribute to improving your performance catalog.

NURSE PRECEPTOR AND NEW NURSE PERCEPTIONS OF PRECEPTOR CLINICAL TEACHING BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

Background: The clinical teaching behaviors (CTB) of nurse preceptors (preceptors) affects how well newly graduated nurses learn when they become new nurses, along with their retention rate, job satisfaction, and successful adjustment to the clinical work environment.

Purposes: This study (1) investigates and compares the CTB of preceptor as perceived by preceptors and new nurses; (2) examines the differences in CTB by preceptors' individual characteristics; and (3) examines the differences in CTB by new nurses' background.

Methods: This descriptive and correlational study used a cross sectional survey of a convenience sample of 290 preceptors and 270 new nurses from five teaching hospitals across Taiwan. Of these, 521 completed questionnaires for an effective response rate of 93.0%. Participants were surveyed using the Clinical Teaching Behaviors Inventory (CTBI) developed by the researchers for data collection. The content validity, construct validity, and reliability of CTBI achieved satisfactory standards. The CTBI consists of 44 clinical teaching behaviors that are ranked on a five point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Results: (1) In general, preceptors and new nurses averaged 4.03 and 4.28 in CTBI, and new nurses perceived scored the preceptors higher than the preceptors scored themselves ($t = 5.529, p < .001$). (2) A higher CTB score as perceived by preceptors was associated with the nursing clinical ladder, total working experience in years as a nurse, total years as a preceptor, and willingness to be a nurse preceptor. (3) A higher CTB score as perceived by new nurses was associated with willingness to recommend their preceptor.

Conclusions / Implications for Practice: New nurses tended to rate preceptor' performance of CTB higher than the preceptors themselves. Clinical educators should recognize the preceptor characteristics that influence CTB to help achieve optimal learning outcomes for new nurses.

Keywords: clinical teaching behaviors (CTB), nurse preceptors, new nurses

I. INTRODUCTION

Clinical education has a major goal to produce competent, motivated, caring professional nurses. Nurse preceptors are the key facilitators in the transformation of new nurses into competent staff nurses [33]. Clinical education is a dynamic process that occurs in a variety of socio-cultural contexts. One critical aspect of clinical education is clinical teaching behaviors (CTB). Clinical teaching behaviors encompass those actions, activities, and verbalizations of the nurse preceptors which facilitate new nurse learning in the clinical setting [30]. The quality of the preceptor-new nurse interaction in the clinical field can either facilitate or hinder the new nurses' integration of theory to practice [28]. It has been postulated that preceptors must possess effective clinical teacher characteristics if they want to facilitate students' learning in a complex and dynamic work environment [9].

According to the studies, nurse preceptors can help new nurses increase their professional competence, job satisfaction, and successful adjustment to the clinical work environment [23, 26, 41]. New nurses hope that preceptors

could teach them as well as provide support and guidance to help them adjust to the new socialization and role transition period [34, 41].

Beginning in 2007, the Taiwan Ministry of Health and Welfare gave grants to teaching hospitals for the development of training programs for new nurses (preceptees). Hence, designated preceptors are available to facilitate almost all new nurses in their orientation to their new responsibilities. In 2012, qualifications for nurse preceptors were established by the Taiwan Joint Commission on Hospital Accreditation (TJCHA). The new qualifications stated that nurse preceptors must have at least 3 years clinical experience in a teaching hospital and at least 10 hours of preceptor training courses [40]. Consequently, preceptors have to update their clinical teaching competence yearly. Despite the new guidelines, turnover rates among new nurses in the first three months remained as high as 20-29% [35].

In the majority of reviewed literature, most studies focus on both the faculty and/or student perceptions of effective and ineffective CTB [1-5, 10, 16, 32, 37, 39]. Though the preceptor/new nurse relationship is analogous to the faculty/student, some aspects of the instructional focus are different [38]. Few studies have examined the perceptions of CTB among nurse preceptors and new nurses. Therefore, to address the learning outcomes of new nurse preceptoring programs, this study describes and compares the clinical teaching behaviors (CTB) of preceptors as perceived by preceptors themselves and by their preceptees in five hospitals in Taiwan. The results of this study show the CTB of preceptors which new nurses and the preceptors themselves felt were fairly good. Study results may help improve clinical nursing teaching quality and may be used as a reference for redesign of preceptor training programs in Taiwan.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Clinical teaching behaviors

As reference [33] observes, the purpose of nursing education is to prepare nurses to become nursing professionals and to help them learn the actual practice of nursing. Effective clinical teaching behaviors (CTB) are “those actions and activities transmitted through verbal and non-verbal interactions of the preceptor and facilitate new nurse learning in the clinical setting” [28]. Reference [29] contend that caring preceptor-preceptee relationships can turn new nurses into caring practitioners and competent preceptor positively affect learning in the clinical environment.

The literature affirms the key role of preceptors in facilitating new nurse orientation to the new environment [29]. Though preceptor expertise is necessary, other clinical teaching behaviors, such as concern, evaluation and feedback skills, and emotional support for the preceptee, are considered important [25, 27]. Effective clinical teaching behaviors identified by researchers include nursing competence [1, 13], creating a positive learning environment [41], interpersonal relationship [1, 36, 41], teaching ability [1, 22, 41], personal characteristics [15], communication skills [41], feedback and evaluation [22, 41] and enthusiasm for teaching [31, 41].

2.2. Factors associated with clinical teaching behaviors

The teaching context in clinical settings for new nurses is varied and complex. Factors which may influence preceptor effectiveness include age, personal characteristics, willingness to teach, level of education, years of service, patient workload ratios, and level of position [8, 21, 24]. For example, reference [6] found that personal characteristics influence preceptor teaching skills in nursing administration practice. Reference [7] found that voluntary nursing preceptors have a higher sense of achievement than nonvolunteers. Reference [12] found that age, years of teaching experience, years of clinical nursing experience, and advanced education affect the teaching effectiveness of clinical nursing instructors. Reference [17] and [19] show that when precepting new nurses, the preceptor experiences increased stress and workload, a reduction in the time spent with patients, and little reward. Reference [41] conducted focus group interviews in five hospitals in Taiwan and explored the teaching experiences of 63 nurse preceptors who had instructed new nurses in the previous 12 months, finding that preceptors experienced difficulty in balancing patient care with the preceptoring of new nurses.

New nurse perceptions of their preceptors' behaviors impacts the learning process of new nurses. “Usually students are in the best position to judge the effectiveness of their clinical instructors” [4:327]. However, while

numerous studies explore the preceptor-student interaction, few studies have investigated the preceptor-new nurse interaction from both the preceptor and new nurse point of view. Thus, this study examines the CTB of preceptors using both preceptor self-evaluations and preceptee (new nurses) evaluations of preceptors.

The purposes of this study were to (1) investigate and compare the CTB of preceptors as perceived by preceptors and new nurses and (2) examine the differences in preceptor CTB by preceptor' individual characteristics; and (3) examine the differences in perceptions of preceptor CTB by new nurse background variables.

III. METHODS

3.1. Participants

This was a descriptive and correlational study using a cross-sectional survey. A convenience sample was used to recruit participants from five teaching hospitals across Taiwan, consisting of one regional hospital (south), one medical center (central), and two medical centers and one regional hospital (north).

Preceptors who had instructed new nurses in the previous 12 months and new nurses who were still in their first six months of work were considered eligible and recruited as participants.

3.2. Data Collection

Surveys were conducted between March of 2013 and March of 2014. A total of 290 preceptors and 270 new nurses voluntarily participated in this study. The Clinical Teaching Behaviors Inventory (CTBI) questionnaires were distributed, with results and signed consent forms collected by research assistants during the nurses' break time on working days. Of the 560 questionnaires distributed, 521 were completed and returned (valid response rate = 93.0%).

3.3. Survey Instrument: the Clinical Teaching Behaviors Inventory (CTBI)

The 44-item Clinical Teaching Behaviors Inventory (CTBI) questionnaire was developed, constructed and validated by this research team. Based on a review of the literature, focus group interviews with 63 preceptors and 24 new nurses with clinical preceptor experience in five hospitals across Taiwan, two rounds (15 experts) of the Delphi study, and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were conducted. The content validity index for the CTBI questionnaire was calculated as .97 and .99, respectively. The construct validity of this 44-item instrument was examined by EFA using principal components with Oblimin rotation. A 4-factor explaining 66.277% of the total variance. Factor 1 included 15 items measuring passion for teaching and interpersonal interaction; factor 2, 10 items measuring teaching skills; factor 3, 11 items measuring communication, collaboration and feedback; Factor 4, 8 items measuring guidance and support. The internal consistency of Cronbach's α for each factor and the CTBI was .95, .95, .95, .91, and .98 respectively.

The CTBI uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with a range of total scores from 44 to 220. Higher scores reflect more effective clinical teaching behaviors.

3.4. Ethical Considerations

The human research ethics committee of the participating five hospitals approved this study. Participation was voluntary, and each participant signed a consent form before completing the questionnaire.

3.5. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 20.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA)

IV. RESULTS

4.1. Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 shows participants' demographic characteristics. Most preceptors were female (97.9%), averaged age was 33.97 years ($SD = 5.43$), 78.6% had a BSN degree, 48.3% were N3 on the clinical nursing rank, 56.6% had total

working experience more than 10 years as a nurse, and total years as a preceptor, < 2 years, 2-5 years, and > 5 years, was 30.7%, 32.1%, 33.1 %, respectively, and most (90.7%) had willingness to be a nurse preceptor; Most new nurses were also female (94.8 %), averaged age was 23.05 years (SD = 1.80), 65.8% had a BSN degree, most (60.2%) had interacted with 1 responsible preceptor and most (95.7%) had willingness to recommend their preceptor.

Table 1
Participants' demographic characteristic (N=521)

Variables	Preceptors (n = 290) n (%)	New nurses (n = 231) n (%)
Age		
Range	22 — 52	20 — 32
Mean (SD)	33.97 (5.43)	23.05 (1.80)
Median	34	23
Gender		
Female	284 (97.9)	219 (94.8)
Male	5 (1.7)	10 (4.3)
Educational level		
AND	47 (16.2)	75 (32.5)
BSN	228 (78.6)	152 (65.8)
MS	14 (4.8)	1 (0.4)
Primary specialty		
Medical	120 (41.4)	73 (31.6)
Surgical	43 (14.8)	45 (19.5)
OB-GYN	14 (4.8)	22 (9.5)
Pediatric	28 (9.7)	16 (6.9)
Psychiatric	6 (2.1)	4 (1.7)
ICU	42 (14.5)	32 (13.9)
Emergency	18 (6.2)	20 (8.7)
Operating room	9 (3.1)	4 (1.7)
Others	7 (2.4)	12 (5.2)
Nursing clinical rank		
N1 & N2	99 (34.1)	
N3	140 (48.3)	
≥N4	47 (16.2)	
Total working experience in years		
< 5 years	29 (10.0)	
5-10 years	97 (33.4)	
> 10 years	164 (56.6)	
Total years as a preceptor		
< 2 years	89 (30.7)	
2-5 years	93 (32.1)	
> 5 years	96 (33.1)	
Willingness to be a preceptor		
Yes	263 (90.7)	
No	24 (8.3)	
Precepting by number of preceptor		
1		139 (60.2)
2		47 (20.3)

Variables	Preceptors (n = 290) n (%)	New nurses (n = 231) n (%)
≥3		42 (18.2)
Willingness to recommend your preceptor		
Yes		221 (95.7)
No		8 (3.5)

Note. Percentages for some demographics do not sum to 100% due to a small amount of missing data.

4.2. CTB of preceptors as perceived by preceptors and new nurses

4.2.1. Preceptor's perception

Overall, preceptors had a mean of 4.03 (SD = 0.44) in self-evaluated clinical teaching behaviors, reflecting a medium level of agreement or better that preceptors exhibited these behaviors (Table 2). Ranked by mean score, the factors were teaching skills (4.13±0.47), communication, collaboration & feedback (4.02±0.50), teaching passion & interpersonal interaction (4.01±0.47), and guidance & support (3.97±0.54). The three items of the CTBI with the highest mean scores were “I provide timely support during the new nurses’ learning process to ensure the safe care of the patients” (4.26±0.57), “I provide timely encouragement to the new nurses” (4.24±0.59), and “I guide new nurses in differentiating the seriousness of the patient conditions” (4.23±0.53). The three items with the lowest mean scores were “When not working, I actively contact the new nurses to show concern about their work” (3.63±0.86), “I do not bring my personal emotions into the instruction” (3.76±0.79), and “I let the new nurses speak openly to me about the stress and frustration of their work” (3.80±0.75).

4.2.2. New nurses' perceptions

In general, new nurses scored an average of 4.28 (SD = 0.53) in evaluated preceptors’ clinical teaching behaviors, reflecting medium level of agreement or better (Table 2). Ranked by mean score, the factors were teaching skills (4.34±0.55), communication (4.33±0.56) teaching passion & interpersonal interaction (4.22±0.58) collaboration & feedback, and guidance & support (4.17±0.63). The three items of CTBI with the highest average scores were “I exhibit professional behavior so I can be a good role model for the new nurses” (4.51±0.62), “The new nurses benefit from my teaching” (4.44±0.61), and “I guide new nurses in differentiating the seriousness of the patient conditions” (4.43±0.61). The three items of CTBI with the lowest scores were “I let the new nurses speak openly to me about the stress and frustration of their work” (3.90±0.90), “I do not correct the new nurses’ mistakes in front of others” (3.97±0.90), “When not working, I actively contact the new nurses to show concern about their work” (3.99±0.94).

4.2.3. Comparison of preceptor and new nurse's perceptions

While both preceptors and new nurses perceived that preceptors’ performed clinical teaching behaviors at an acceptable level, new nurses scored the preceptors significantly higher (4.28±0.53) than the preceptors scored themselves (4.03±0.44) ($t = 5.529, p < .001$). This difference appears to reflect the preceptors’ own view that were sometimes unable to perform clinical teaching behaviors.

Table 2
Comparison of nurse and preceptor perceptions of preceptor CTB (N=521)

Items	Preceptor (N = 290)		New nurse (N = 231)		t test
	Mean (SD)	rank	Mean (SD)	rank	
Factor 1 Teaching passion & interpersonal interaction	4.01 (.47)	3	4.33 (.56)	2	-7.079***
1. The new nurses benefit from my teaching.	4.06 (.62)	(19)	4.44 (.61)	(2)	-7.020***
2. No matter how the new nurse behaves, I am always willing to provide instruction.	3.94 (.70)	(35)	4.37 (.67)	(13)	-7.192***
3. I am able to tolerate poor performance by the new nurses, and offer them the opportunity to let them learn it again.	4.04 (.59)	(23)	4.42 (.67)	(4)	-6.638***

4. No matter what questions the new nurse asks, I am always willing to respond.	4.11 (.63)	(13)	4.42 (.69)	(4)	-5.349***
5. I am willing to offer extra time to teach the new nurses.	3.98 (.70)	(33)	4.35 (.71)	(14)	-6.069***
6. I exhibit professional behavior so I can be a good role model for the new nurses.	4.06 (.66)	(19)	4.51 (.62)	(1)	-8.031***
7. I make the new nurses like approaching me.	3.87 (.72)	(38)	4.28 (.75)	(24)	-6.317***
8. If new nurses have a problem they cannot solve, they always ask me.	4.02 (.65)	(24)	4.40 (.67)	(6)	-6.594***
9. I do not bring my personal emotions into the instruction.	3.76 (.79)	(43)	4.13 (.84)	(39)	-5.148***
10. I plan learning objectives together with the new nurses.	3.99 (.61)	(30)	4.25 (.66)	(28)	-4.621***
11. I provide timely encouragement to the new nurses.	4.24 (.59)	(2)	4.38 (.64)	(12)	-2.487*
12. I praise the new nurses when it is appropriate.	4.18 (.65)	(5)	4.27 (.70)	(25)	-1.498
13. I guide the new nurses in learning on their own.	4.06 (.63)	(19)	4.35 (.67)	(14)	-5.001***
14. I inspire the nurses to be willing to perform their clinical nursing work.	3.87 (.69)	(38)	4.16 (.72)	(38)	-4.697***
15. I use appropriate teaching methods with the new nurses.	3.91 (.61)	(36)	4.26 (.68)	(26)	-6.209***
Factor 2 Teaching skills	4.13 (.47)	1	4.34 (.55)	1	-4.618***
16. Through asking questions, I guide the new nurses' analysis of clinical problems.	4.08 (.59)	(17)	4.29 (.65)	(23)	-3.917***
17. I guide the new nurses in vocalizing their thinking processes in making decisions.	3.99 (.61)	(30)	4.21 (.68)	(31)	-3.950***
18. I guide the new nurses in finding problem-solving methods.	4.10 (.55)	(14)	4.31 (.65)	(20)	-3.901***
19. I guide the new nurses in judging clinical work priorities.	4.20 (.57)	(4)	4.39 (.62)	(9)	-3.598***
20. I guide new nurses in differentiating the seriousness of the patient conditions.	4.23 (.53)	(3)	4.43 (.61)	(3)	-3.955***
21. I assist new nurses in implementing the concept of time management.	4.10 (.62)	(14)	4.26 (.69)	(26)	-2.813**
22. I guide new nurses in gradually becoming able to independently hand over to incoming shift nurses.	4.16 (.58)	(7)	4.39 (.71)	(9)	-4.061***
23. I guide new nurses in gradually being able to independently perform clinical practice requirements.	4.13 (.60)	(11)	4.40 (.68)	(6)	-4.761***
24. Based on the new nurses' learning response and clinical performance, I adjust the new nurses' learning schedule.	4.16 (.55)	(7)	4.39 (.68)	(9)	-4.184***
36. I use concrete facts to let the new nurses understand the strengths, weaknesses, and improvements of their work performance.	4.16 (.59)	(7)	4.32 (.66)	(19)	-2.851**
Factor 3 Communication, collaboration & feedback	4.02 (.50)	2	4.22 (.58)	3	-4.160***
25. I guide the new nurses in combining the most recent literature and consideration of the patients' condition in order to provide the most effective nursing care.	3.81 (.71)	(41)	4.01 (.83)	(41)	-2.887**
26. I guide new nurses in improving patient communication with the new nurses.	4.08 (.60)	(17)	4.23 (.71)	(29)	-2.626**
27. I guide new nurses in improving family member communication with the new nurses.	4.10 (.60)	(14)	4.21 (.73)	(31)	-1.872
28. I guide the new nurses in understanding the professional functions of inter-professional team members.	4.00 (.66)	(28)	4.21 (.72)	(31)	-3.402**
29. I guide new nurses in performing inter- and intra-professional team member communication and coordination.	4.02 (.64)	(24)	4.21 (.73)	(31)	-3.023**
30. I guide new nurses in respecting the professional point	4.00 (.61)	(28)	4.20 (.68)	(35)	-3.337**

of view of inter-professional team members.					
31. I guide new nurses in expressing the nurse's point of view about patient care to the inter- and intra-professional team members.	4.02 (.60)	(24)	4.23 (.67)	(29)	-3.761***
32. I bring the new nurses to participate in the inter-professional team consensus meeting for patient care planning.	3.95 (.67)	(34)	4.13 (.69)	(39)	-2.986**
33. I give timely feedback to the new nurses about their learning performance.	4.12 (.59)	(12)	4.31 (.64)	(20)	-3.447**
34. Based on the learning objectives, I regularly perform learning evaluation together with the new nurses.	4.01 (.60)	(27)	4.30 (.65)	(22)	-5.363***
35. I use the evaluation form to objectively evaluate the performance of new nurses.	4.06 (.58)	(19)	4.35 (.65)	(14)	-5.284***
Factor 4 Guidance & support	3.97 (.54)	4	4.17 (.63)	4	-3.725***
37. I do not correct the new nurses' mistakes in front of others.	3.84 (.82)	(40)	3.97 (.90)	(43)	-1.790
38. I let the new nurses speak openly to me about the stress and frustration of their work.	3.80 (.75)	(42)	3.90 (.90)	(44)	-1.254
39. When the new nurses need assistance, they can always approach me.	3.99 (.67)	(30)	4.20 (.73)	(35)	-3.347**
40. When new nurses encounter problems, I always actively provide a helping hand.	4.15 (.61)	(10)	4.34 (.70)	(17)	-3.197**
41. I am actively concerned with the work performance of the new nurses.	4.18 (.61)	(5)	4.34 (.70)	(17)	-2.755**
42. I actively express concern about the new nurses' lives outside work.	3.91 (.73)	(36)	4.18 (.77)	(37)	-3.975***
43. I provide timely support during the new nurses' learning process to ensure the safe care of the patients.	4.26 (.57)	(1)	4.40 (.68)	(6)	-2.512*
44. When not working, I actively contact the new nurses to show concern about their work.	3.63 (.86)	(44)	3.99(.94)	(42)	-4.565***
Total	4.03 (.44)		4.28 (.53)		-5.618***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $P < .001$

4.3. Differences in CTB by preceptor's individual characteristics

Four statistically significant differences were found between preceptor nursing clinical rank, total working experience in years as a nurse, total years as a preceptor, and willingness to be a nurse preceptor. There were no significant differences between preceptor educational level and primary specialty (Table 3).

For "nursing clinical rank", N4 nurses scored highest among all the nurse preceptors, significantly higher than N1 and N2 in "total clinical teaching behavior" and in the factors of "teaching skills", "communication, collaboration & feedback" and "guidance & support". For "total working experience in years as a nurse", preceptors with more than 10 years working experience scored highest among all the preceptors and were significantly higher than those with working experience between 5-10 years in "total clinical teaching behavior" and in the factors of "teaching passion & interpersonal interaction", "teaching skills", and "communication, collaboration & feedback". For "total years as a preceptor", preceptors with more than 5 years or 2-5 years as a preceptor scored significantly higher than those with less than 2 years as a preceptor in "total clinical teaching behavior" and in the factors of "teaching passion & interpersonal interaction", "teaching skills", and "communication, collaboration & feedback". For "willingness to be a nurse preceptor", preceptors indicating willingness to be a nurse preceptor had significantly higher overall scores on the CTBI.

Table 3
Self-Evaluated CTB of preceptors by background (N=290)

Variable	n	Mean (SD)
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		Total	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Educational level						
1 ADN	47	4.00 (.39)	4.00 (.43)	4.07 (.44)	3.92 (.42)	4.03 (.50)
2 BSN	228	4.03 (.45)	4.01 (.48)	4.14 (.47)	4.03 (.41)	3.95 (.54)
3 MS	14	4.07 (.53)	4.05 (.50)	4.16 (.53)	4.03 (.64)	4.06 (.57)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		0.167	0.066	0.492	1.001	0.572
Primary specialty						
1 Medical	120	4.09 (.42)	4.07 (.44)	4.18 (.43)	4.07 (.50)	4.04 (.52)
2 Surgical	43	4.01 (.48)	3.96 (.59)	4.12 (.47)	4.03 (.45)	3.93 (.61)
3 OB-GYN	14	4.12 (.49)	4.08 (.54)	4.26 (.54)	3.99 (.52)	4.19 (.60)
4 Pediatric	28	3.86 (.51)	3.81 (.46)	4.02 (.62)	3.80 (.58)	3.82 (.56)
5 Psychiatric	6	4.04 (.37)	3.99 (.34)	4.22 (.47)	4.12 (.45)	3.83 (.31)
6 ICU	42	4.00 (.38)	3.95 (.40)	4.08 (.39)	4.04 (.50)	3.92 (.48)
7 Emergency	18	3.97 (.41)	3.97 (.43)	3.99 (.39)	3.96 (.48)	3.93 (.46)
8 Operating room	9	3.91 (.56)	4.01 (.57)	4.01 (.66)	3.66 (.53)	3.93 (.65)
9 Others	7	4.09 (.49)	4.10 (.52)	4.20 (.43)	4.09 (.48)	3.93 (.57)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		1.068	1.079	0.882	1.548	0.971
Nursing clinical rank						
1 N1 & N2	99	3.96 (.40)	3.97 (.45)	4.04 (.41)	3.93 (.46)	3.92 (.50)
2 N3	140	4.03 (.43)	4.00 (.48)	4.16 (.46)	4.04 (.46)	3.93 (.54)
3 ≥N4	47	4.19 (.52)	4.12 (.51)	4.29 (.55)	4.19 (.63)	4.22 (.58)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		4.294*	1.742	4.956**	4.342*	6.059**
		3 > 1		3 > 1	3 > 1	3 > 1, 2
Total working experience in years						
1 < 5 years	29	3.91 (.34)	3.90 (.40)	3.98 (.30)	3.87 (.38)	3.89 (.46)
2 5-10 years	97	3.92 (.43)	3.91 (.45)	3.98 (.42)	3.90 (.50)	3.87 (.53)
3 > 10 years	164	4.12 (.45)	4.08 (.49)	4.25 (.48)	4.11 (.51)	4.04 (.54)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		7.736**	4.618*	12.858***	6.653**	3.485*
		3 > 2	3 > 2	3 > 1, 2	3 > 2	3 > 2
Total years as a preceptor						
1 < 2 years	89	3.89 (.41)	3.88 (.45)	4.00 (.42)	3.85 (.48)	3.84 (.53)
2 2-5 years	93	4.08 (.37)	4.06 (.40)	4.17 (.42)	4.07 (.43)	4.01 (.46)
3 > 5 years	96	4.14 (.51)	4.12 (.53)	4.24 (.53)	4.13 (.56)	4.08 (.60)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		8.093***	6.617**	6.526**	8.004***	4.870**
		2, 3 > 1	2, 3 > 1	2, 3 > 1	2, 3 > 1	3 > 1
Willingness to be a preceptor						
1 yes	263	4.07 (.43)	4.05 (.45)	4.16 (.46)	4.04 (.49)	4.01 (.52)
2 no	24	3.67 (.42)	3.58 (.52)	3.81 (.43)	3.76 (.53)	3.56 (.59)
<i>t</i>		4.286***	4.800***	3.664***	2.689**	4.043***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $P < .001$; Factor 1= teaching passion & interpersonal interaction. Factor 2 = teaching skills. Factor 3 = communication, collaboration & feedback. Factor 4 = guidance & support.

4.4. Differences in CTB by new nurses' background

Only one significant difference was found between new nurses' willingness to recommend their preceptors: their scores were higher on all the items of the CTBI. There were no significant differences between new nurses educational level, primary specialty, working experience and precepting by number of preceptors (Table 4).

Table 4
CTB for new nurse evaluations of preceptors, by new nurse background (N=231)

Variable	n	Mean (SD)				
		Total	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4

Educational level						
1 ADN	75	4.19 (.59)	4.24 (.64)	4.24 (.62)	4.16 (.60)	4.10 (.68)
2 BSN	152	4.32 (.50)	4.39 (.52)	4.40 (.51)	4.25 (.57)	4.21 (.59)
<i>t</i>		-1.754	-1.832	-2.045*	-1.085	-1.235
Primary specialty						
1 Medical	73	4.29 (.49)	4.34 (.54)	4.35 (.50)	4.19 (.52)	4.24 (.59)
2 Surgical	45	4.41 (.54)	4.48 (.51)	4.45 (.59)	4.39 (.60)	4.26 (.66)
3 OB-GYN	22	4.07 (.51)	4.14 (.51)	4.16 (.52)	4.02 (.57)	3.91 (.63)
4 Pediatric	16	4.44 (.48)	4.57 (.47)	4.45 (.52)	4.29 (.64)	4.38 (.48)
5 Psychiatric	4	4.49 (.39)	4.53 (.40)	4.57 (.40)	4.39 (.48)	4.44 (.44)
6 ICU	32	4.12 (.51)	4.17 (.57)	4.20 (.56)	4.09 (.58)	3.99 (.59)
7 Emergency	20	4.10 (.66)	4.12 (.74)	4.23 (.68)	4.04 (.67)	3.96 (.79)
8 Operating room	4	4.38 (.34)	4.50 (.21)	4.28 (.62)	4.41 (.34)	4.22 (.68)
9 Others	10	4.60 (.52)	4.62 (.71)	4.74 (.51)	4.62 (.42)	4.35 (.65)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		1.982*	2.094*	1.563	1.927*	1.599
Precepting by number of preceptor						
1 1	139	4.30 (.54)	4.36 (.57)	4.35 (.57)	4.23 (.59)	4.20 (.64)
2 2	47	4.14 (.52)	4.17 (.56)	4.22 (.53)	4.09 (.61)	4.07 (.61)
3 ≥3	42	4.38 (.49)	4.45 (.53)	4.48 (.51)	4.32 (.51)	4.20 (.62)
<i>F</i> / Scheffe		2.317	3.008	2.426	1.775	0.737
Willingness to recommend your preceptor						
1 yes	221	4.32 (.49)	4.38 (.52)	4.38 (.51)	4.26 (.54)	4.22 (.58)
2 no	8	3.15 (.52)	3.19 (.55)	3.25 (.66)	3.23 (.62)	2.86 (.67)
<i>t</i>		6.646***	6.341***	6.138***	5.227***	6.488***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $P < .001$; Factor 1= teaching passion & interpersonal interaction. Factor 2 = teaching skills. Factor 3 = communication, collaboration & feedback. Factor 4 = guidance & support.

V. DISCUSSION

5.1. Preceptor and new nurse evaluation of preceptor CTB

The findings of this study indicate that overall the new nurses were more satisfied with the precepting and the CTB of the preceptor than the preceptors themselves during their transition to the ward. The new nurses gave a higher score (4.28 ± 0.42) for preceptor CTB than the preceptors give themselves (4.03 ± 0.43). This is a rather striking finding, at odds with previous studies of preceptor-student interactions [1, 3, 5]. There are three possible explanations for this outcome. First, this survey was conducted between March of 2013 and March of 2014, meaning that the new nurses had already worked in the hospital around 3-6 months. Nurses who had worked 3 months and failed to pass their trial period had already left the hospital. Hence, the sample consists of nurses who may have come to view their preceptors as colleagues and thus gave them higher scores, while those who might have given lower scores had left the work unit. Second, the TJCHA mandated that Taiwan teaching hospitals should offer preceptor training courses covering six required topics: curriculum design, teaching skills, assessment skills, feedback skills, production of teaching materials, and inter-professional practice education yearly [40]. These nurse preceptor training courses focus on teaching skills. Thus, preceptors may not have been confident with “giving guidance and support” [30] and gave themselves lower scores on this factor. Three, this scale evaluates on a strongly agree-strongly disagree axis, not frequency of performance. Hence, it is possible that new nurses checked “strongly agree” for actions that had happened only once but left a deep impression. Overall, preceptors scored an average of 4.03 in self-evaluated CTB, reflecting results similar to those of reference [32] who studied clinical preceptors in Taiwan. The preceptors in reference [32] gave themselves an average self-evaluation for teaching competence of 4.06 points on a similar “strongly agree/disagree”, 5 point Likert scale instrument. The similarity in outcomes suggests our study results are not unreasonable.

Among the four factors of CTBI, both preceptor rated themselves and new nurses rated their preceptors' "teaching skills" highest and "guidance & support" the lowest. There are two likely reasons for this. First, in the preceptor training courses, guidance and support are not formally taught. Second, preceptors may choose to reduce their expressions of guidance and support in order to maintain the distance necessary for criticism and instruction, as well as reduce their own emotional investment in someone who might leave them in a month or two.

On the results of the preceptor self-evaluation, preceptors gave themselves the highest scores for "I provide timely support during the new nurses' learning process to ensure the safe care of the patients" (4.26 ± 0.57), "I provide timely encouragement to the new nurses" (4.24 ± 0.59), and "I guide new nurses in differentiating the seriousness of the patient conditions" (4.23 ± 0.53). This indicates that even when preceptors are instructing the new nurses, patient care remains the most important responsibility for the preceptors. For the new nurses, the highest scores were given for "I exhibit professional behavior so I can be a good role model for the new nurses" (4.51 ± 0.62), "The new nurses benefit from my teaching" (4.44 ± 0.61), and "I guide new nurses in differentiating the seriousness of the patient conditions" (4.43 ± 0.61). The new nurse evaluation most likely reflects the emphasis in the preceptor curriculum on teaching skills and transmitting competence in nursing tasks.

The lowest scores were given by both preceptors and new nurses for "When not working, I actively contact the new nurses to show concern about their work" (3.63 ± 0.86 / 3.99 ± 0.94) and "I let the new nurses speak openly to me about the stress and frustration of their work" (3.80 ± 0.75 / 3.90 ± 0.90). These two items reflect the preference of the preceptors for distance identified in the discussion above. The preceptor self-evaluation for "I do not bring my personal emotions into the instruction" (3.76 ± 0.79) and the new nurse evaluation of preceptors "I do not correct the new nurses' mistakes in front of others" (3.97 ± 0.90), were also low. This may have affected new nurse evaluations of the item "I let the new nurses speak openly to me about the stress and frustration of their work" because new nurses may not have been able to speak about the stress of being publicly corrected to the very preceptors who had corrected them. However, virtually all new nurses said they would recommend their preceptors.

5.2. Background Factors Affecting Preceptor Self-Evaluations

Background factors affecting preceptor self-evaluations include nursing clinical rank, total working experience in years as a nurse, total years as a preceptor, and willingness to be a nurse preceptor. However, educational level has no significant effect on clinical teaching behavior. For nursing clinical rank, our results are similar to those of reference [18] and [30], who also found that rank is a significant factor in Taiwan preceptor performance. This is because to rise to N3 rank as a nurse, a nurse must have teaching competency and accumulate teaching hours, while N4 requires even greater competence and experience. For total working experience in years as a nurse, reference [12] and [20] also found that nurses with more working experience performed better as preceptors. For total years as a preceptor, reference [14] found that nurses with more than two years of experience as a preceptor performed significantly better as preceptors. For willingness to be a nurse preceptor, our results are similar to those of reference [7] and [11], who found that willingness and voluntary decision to be a nurse preceptor is a factor in nurse preceptor performance. For educational level, reference [12] and [30], in studies of Taiwan preceptors, also found that educational level had no significant on preceptor performance. In our study, none of the four factors, "teaching passion & interpersonal interaction", "teaching skills", "communication, collaboration & feedback", and "guidance & support", were significantly affected by educational level. This is because irrespective of educational background, few nurses enter the hospital with any teaching experience, and all rise through the same N1-4 ranking system, taking the same courses in education in order to reach N3, the level at which a nurse may legally be considered for precepting in Taiwan. Further, to be a preceptor, a nurse must have worked in a teaching hospital for at least three years. Thus, all potential preceptors pass through the same system, which shapes them all similarly.

5.3. Background Factors Affecting New Nurse Evaluations of Preceptors

No background factors were found to affect new nurse evaluations of preceptors. However, willingness to recommend the preceptor has a significant effect on the evaluation. The majority of studies have explored only preceptor background, limiting our ability to draw comparisons with the literature.

VI. LIMITATIONS

This study has several limitations. First, it uses a convenience sample from five medical centers in Taiwan, which may limit the generalizability of results. Second, the use of a convenience sample also limited our sample to nurses who had remained at the hospital. We did not survey nurses who had failed to complete their three month trial period.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The 44 item CTBI constructed in this study usefully depicts clinical teaching behavior of nurse preceptors in Taiwan. Future scholars may use it to further explore this field. Our findings show that new nurses are generally satisfied with their preceptors, would recommend them, and score them highly on items related to teaching skill for patient care. However, on items related to guidance and support, the new nurses rated their preceptors lower. This suggests that the preceptor training program should add curriculum related to guidance and support. Clinical educators should recognize the preceptor characteristics that influence CTB to help achieve optimal learning outcomes for new nurses. Hospital supervisors should also pay attention to this issue in their effort to train and retain nurses, and overcome the nursing shortage problem in Taiwan. Head nurses typically assign nurses to precepting, meaning that some will be unwilling. Further, only minimal incentives are given to preceptors in Taiwan. Hospital administrators may also consider expanding the incentive framework for preceptors in order to increase new nurse retention rates.

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CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND OPERATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG CASUAL FINE DINING RESTAURANTS IN SELECTED SOUTHEAST ASIAN COUNTRIES: BASIS FOR A PROPOSED QUALITY FUNCTION DEPLOYMENT MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Southeast Asian is composed of eleven (11) countries and they have a lot of differences. Because of its diversity, operations and services differ from one country to another. The predominant purpose of this study was to determine the customer satisfaction and operational effectiveness of selected casual fine dining restaurants in selected Southeast Asia countries. This study was conducted in the casual fine dining theme sector of the restaurant industry and has been chosen by the researcher as an arena of study due in large part to the dynamic change of the segment as a whole. The outcomes of this research will help the managers and restaurant owners to achieve customer satisfaction and loyalty as well as healthy working environment for the employees and achieved profit maximization. Likewise for restaurateurs this study will serve them as a basis on what to develop and enhance in a fine dining experience. The researcher delimited his study to six (6) selected fine dining restaurants in each country namely: Singapore (Singapore City), Malaysia (Kuala Lumpur), Thailand (Bangkok), and Philippines (Manila). The researcher used descriptive research method and the respondent of this study includes the managers, staffs and customers of selected casual fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asia. After gathering the data, tabulating and summarizing the results, the researcher proposed a model on how to translate the voice of the customer into reality which is also known to be the Quality Function Deployment to improve the performance and efficiency of casual fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asian Countries.

Keywords: Casual Fine Dining Operations, Customer Satisfaction, Quality Function Deployment

INTRODUCTION

In today's competitive environment, casual fine dining operations are more focused than ever on quality. Customers are the reason for business growth and customer satisfaction is what keeps them coming back. It takes a tremendous effort to gain a new customer and only seconds to lose one. Service must be exemplary to sustain and grow customer base and ultimately the business. Customer service in a casual fine dining restaurant is much more attentive than in any food establishments. Casual fine dining service goes far beyond taking an order and delivering food and it should takes continuous effort to maintain high customer satisfaction levels.

1.1 Setting of the Study

Southeast Asia is a contemporary convergence of environments and peoples, the influence of empire and economic globalization, and the delicate balance of completion and cooperation. Proximity to water and coastal access dominate the region's physical situation. Many regional countries consist of numerous to even thousands of islands. Particularly, this research focuses on the operations of selected casual fine dining restaurants in Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand and Philippines.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The predominant purpose of this study was to determine the customer satisfaction and operational effectiveness of selected casual fine dining restaurants in selected Southeast Asia countries. Specifically, this study attempted to answer the following: (1.) Profile of selected casual fine dining restaurants in terms of its location, type of casual fine dining restaurant, type of business ownership, size of the restaurant, number of managers and staff, years of operation (2.) Managers and staff perception on the operations of the restaurant in terms of: organizational set-up, goals and objectives, policies, rules, and regulations, personnel benefits and incentives, services offered to the customers, projects and programs being implemented (3.) Perceptions of the managers

compare when grouped according to its type of casual fine dining restaurant, type of business ownership, size of the restaurant, number of managers and staff, years of operation (4.) Perceptions of the managers and staff compare across four countries (5.) The operations of the casual fine dining restaurants as perceived by managers and staffs compare in terms of its organizational set-up, goals and objectives, policies, rules, and regulations, personnel benefits and incentives, services offered to the customers, projects and programs being implemented. (6.) Customers perception the quality of operation of the selected casual fine dining restaurants in terms of its ambiance, menu items, menu prices, food quality, service. (7.) What quality function deployment model maybe proposed.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Despite double-digit growth in the number of fine dining units being developed over the past ten years, the industry, in large part, still has not achieved the same growing pains prevalent within the quick-service dining market. The outcomes of this research will help the managers and restaurant owners to achieve customer satisfaction and loyalty as well as healthy working environment for the employees and achieved profit maximization. For restaurateurs this study will serve them as a basis on what to develop and enhance in a fine dining experience. For casual fine dining managers this study will help them exceed the customers' expectations that could lead to loyalty and retention. For future restaurateurs this study will guide them to become more competent in this field, value service and treat customers beyond quality. And lastly, to all service practitioners this study will help them realize on how to make their service close to customers, employees and providers.

1.4 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the operations management of selected fine dining restaurants in selected Southeast Asian country in the year 2013-2014. At the same time, it included the possible impact of these selected fine dining restaurants on the food and hospitality industry. The researcher delimited his study to six (6) selected fine dining restaurants in each country namely: Singapore (Singapore City), Malaysia (Kuala Lumpur), Thailand (Bangkok), and Philippines (Manila).

LITERATURE

To well-managed hospitality organizations (Ford, 2012), guests are not statistical entities, vague concepts, or abstractions. They understand that within the heterogeneous mass of people they serve or want to serve, each is an individual, each is unique and some companies use the term VIP to remind their employees that they are serving "very individual people". The hospitality organization must not only strive to satisfy each of the guests it seeks to serve in its target market but also adapt want it does to account for the changes in expectations, wants, needs, and capabilities that those guests may have from visit to visit.

Along with lodging, food services (Mancini, 2012) represent a vital part of the hospitality sector. Dining is a significant aspect of anyone's journey and often shapes one's satisfaction with a trip and in some cases, it's the reason some people travel. Moreover, the food service industry provides a growing wealth of career opportunities and it's estimated that it provides 8 percent of all jobs and lastly many of the well-known brands in travel and tourism began in food services.

Managers working in operations typically have four related overall objectives. First, they are concerned about and manage activities designed to ensure that the services and products produced for customers have the appropriately quality. Second, operations managers have to also use tools and techniques to ensure the right quantities of the products and services are produced. Third operations managers must use a number of techniques to ensure that the products and services get to the customer at the right time. Finally, operations managers must also focus on delivering the three previous objectives at the best possible cost implications (Hitt, Black and Porter, 2012).

In the dissertation of Seyanont (2007) it was stated that as the service sector continues to expand, the issue of service quality has received increasingly more attention. The casual dining customer has many choices when dining out in restaurants. The customer is impatient and sophisticated. If the restaurant is not providing satisfaction, service quality, and value, he/she will leave to another restaurant.

Asperin's (2007) dissertation "Exploring Brand Personality Congruence: Measurement and Application in the Casual Dining Restaurant Industry suggested that having a well-established brand personality could be a competitive advantage, particularly in sustaining brand loyalty. However, focusing on merely establishing the

personality is not enough, it must be able to give consumers something they can relate to. The researcher also revealed that the casual dining foodservice operations information on personality attributes as they relate to the brand personality that they would like to project.

According to Ginger Arboleda, attracting a huge crowd to restaurants or fast foods require more than just good food. Though important, good food is only a part of the total dining experience. Equally important is believed to be the way people feel while in the restaurant. This physical and emotional response is a result of the atmosphere, the total environment to which customers are exposed. The proper atmosphere can make the food, service and whole dining experience seem better. For that reason a restaurant or a fast food must take care of the following to please its customers. This includes checking the cleanliness of the place and freshness of the food, guarded premises, parking area where people can park, ambiance and landscaping, building design, lighting, and even music (Manila Reviews, 2010).

Customer satisfaction (Kuzob, 2008) must remain a central tenet of all relationship management efforts in the hospitality sector. Hospitality organizations typically strive to make customer satisfaction a focal point of their core values, visions and mission. However, in consideration of steady growth and expansion, global competition, and the influx of seasoned travelers, organizations face cumbersome obstacles in delivering quality service. It appears that quality service is the cornerstone to industry success; thus, those organizations that focus on quality become the flagship for on-going customer satisfaction, engendering loyalty and influencing future behavioural intentions, loyalty through quality service and on-going customer satisfaction that in which all service organizations should strive to achieve.

METHODOLOGY

The main purpose of the study was to assess the level of customer satisfaction of operation effectiveness of selected casual fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asia. In order to gather the data, the researcher used descriptive research method. Descriptive involves methods of organizing, picturing and summarizing information from samples or population (Brase and Pellilo, 2009). The study made use of descriptive type of research because the researcher can productively yield the resources and information needed to learn the ropes of the operations management of selected fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asia. The researcher examined and determined all the information gathered and presented them in a simple way to make a layman reader understand the operations management of a fine dining.

3.1 Respondents of the Study

The respondents of this study are the managers, staffs and customers of selected casual fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asia. The respondents were from Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand and Philippines will be the main respondents of this research. Casual fine dining restaurants have different variations, these are: brasserie and bistro, buffet and smorgasbord, cafe, cafeteria, destination restaurant, tabletop cooking, mongolian barbecue, plub, and teppanyaki style.

3.2 Sampling Technique

The researcher of this study employed the purposive technique for the guests and employees while convenience sampling was used for the managers since the study was concerned on improving customer's satisfaction and the operations management of casual fine dining restaurants in Southeast Asia. The researcher believes that the respondents chosen could possibly give the desired information regarding the present study. They were selected on the basis of the criteria set.

3.3 Data Gathering Techniques

The researcher used the questionnaire and interview guide to gather data and information to find out the operational effectiveness of selected casual fine dining establishments. Documentary analysis was used as an additional technique to gather information. Published and unpublished dissertations, circulars, books, handbooks, periodicals and research journals were perused to gain intensive background of casual fine dining operations.

3.4 Instruments Used

In order for the researcher to obtain necessary information and to justify the scope of the present study, certain research instruments were used.

Questionnaire. The survey questionnaire basically serves as the main tool in gathering the

data. It is a list of planned and written questions related to a particular topic, with space provided to indicate the response to each questions intended for submission to a number of persons for reply, so that the answers could be used as answer to the problem or solution to the study. Two sets of questionnaire were prepared by the researcher and utilized for 384 respondents across four countries. One set for seventy two (72) for managers or from the management level but only seventy (70) managers responded and one hundred twenty (120) for employees or staff. The other set was for customers, one hundred ninety two (192) in all, and covered both domestic and foreign customers of each country.

To make the responses easily understood by the respondents and to ensure simplicity, the Five-point Likert scale was used. The interpretations of the data gathered from the respondents were made with the aid of scales and descriptions.

Interview. It is the process of obtaining information through conversation and discussion. An interview is considered as an expert or knowledgeable source of the subject matter in consideration.

3.5 Validation of the Instrument

The draft of the questionnaire was presented to the adviser and 3 Hotel and Restaurant instructors for comments to improve the contents and presentation of the study. After getting the feedbacks, the researcher incorporated the suggestions and recommendations to improve the instrument. The approved questionnaire was pretested to 45 managers, staffs and customers of local casual fine dining restaurants. The people who validated the questionnaire were not included in the final group of respondents. The dry run was done to fine out if there were items in the questionnaire which were not understood.

To obtain relevant information necessary for the study, the researcher went to Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, and Manila for Philippines to gather information about the customer satisfaction operational effectiveness of selected casual fine dining restaurants.

To avoid confusion, the researcher also gave instructions to the respondents regarding the study and on filling up of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were immediately retrieved from the respondents. The data were tabulated and analyzed to come up with a reliable interpretation.

3.6 Statistical Treatment of Data

In order to determine the validity and reliability of the researcher's instruments and to give meaning and interpretation to the data that had been gathered, tallied, and tabulated, the researchers made use again of certain statistical formulas appropriate to the research problem such as frequency and percentage, weighted arithmetic mean, standard deviation, T-test and ANOVA or analysis of variance.

All data were submitted at Centro Escolar University Center for Data Analysis (CEUDA) for processing.

FINDINGS

Based on the results of findings, the following are enumerated:

4.1. Profile of the Casual Fine Dining Restaurants

1.1 Location. Thailand, Singapore and Philippines have an equal distribution of 25.7 percent while Malaysia has the least distribution of respondent of 22.9 percent

1.2 Type of casual fine dining restaurant. Cafe got highest frequency of 18 or 25.7 percent. Cafeteria is in the second spot with a frequency of 17 or 24.3 percent.

1.3 Type of business ownership. Most of the casual fine dining restaurants across four countries are corporation with a frequency of 43 or 68.6 percent.

1.4 Size of the restaurant. Most of the casual fine dining restaurants were large in size with a frequency of 38 or 54.28 percent

1.5 Number of Managers and Staffs. Most of the casual fine dining restaurants have 11-15 staffs including managers or from the administrative positions with a frequency of 23 or 32.9 percent.

1.6 Years of operation. Majority of the casual fine dining restaurants operated 11-15 years with a frequency of 24 or 34.3 percent.

4.2. Managers and Staff Perception on the Operation Management of the Restaurant

2.1 Organizational Set-Up. Managers and staffs have an overall interpretation of great extent in the organizational set up of a casual fine dining

2.2 Goals and Objectives. Casual fine dining restaurants' goals and objectives are achievable and realistic. Its computed mean perception from managers of 4.25 while the mean perception of staffs with 4.17 and has an interpretation of great extent.

2.3 Policies, Rules and Regulations. Employees are treated equally and given penalty or sanctions if liable got a mean perception of 4.43 and standard deviation of 0.55 with a verbal interpretation of great extent.

2.4 Personnel Benefits. Managers and staffs perceived that every employee is paid according to the nature of work or service with an overall verbal interpretation of great extent.

2.5 Services Offered to the Customers. Most of the casual fine dining restaurants considers service as their main product with great extent as its verbal interpretation.

2.6 Projects and Programs Being Implemented. Managers and staffs perceived that casual fine dining restaurants implement projects and programs and has an interpretation of great extent.

4.3. Comparison between the Perceptions of the Managers with regards to the Profile Casual Fine Dining Restaurants

3.1 Type of casual fine dining restaurant. It was revealed that there was a very significant difference in the perception of managers in the organizational set up and significant difference in the projects and programs being implemented.

3.2 Type of business ownership. Managers perceived that there was a very significant difference in the organizational set up and goals and objectives when grouped according to type of business ownership.

3.3 Size of the restaurant. Managers perceived that there was a significant difference in the organizational set up and very significant difference in the goals and objectives of the casual fine dining when grouped according to size of the restaurant.

3.4 Number of managers and staffs. There was a significant difference in manager's perception in the organizational set up and very significant difference in the goals and objectives of the casual fine dining restaurant.

3.5 Years of operation. It was revealed that there is a significant difference in the perception of managers in the goals and objectives when grouped according to years of operation of casual fine dining restaurant.

4.4. Perceptions of the Respondents Compare Across Four Countries in the Operations Management of the Casual Fine Dining Restaurant

4.1 Perceptions of managers compare across four countries.

There is a very significant difference in the organizational set up and goals and objectives of the restaurant across four countries.

4.2 Perceptions of staffs compare across four countries.

There is a significant difference in the services offered by the casual fine dining to the customers in terms of projects and programs being implemented.

4.5. Comparison between the Perceptions of the Manager and Staff with regards to the Operation Management of the Restaurant

5.1 Perceptions of Managers compare across four countries in the operations management of the restaurant. It was revealed that there was a very significant difference in the perception of managers in the organizational set up and goals and objectives of the restaurant in terms of its operations.

5.2 Perceptions of Staff compare across four countries in the operations management of the restaurant. Staffs perception has a very significant difference in the services offered and projects and programs being implemented of the casual fine dining restaurants in terms of its operations.

4.6. Customers Perception on the Quality of Operations of the Restaurants

There was a very significant difference in the perception of managers and staffs when compare particularly in personnel benefits and projects and programs being implemented by the restaurants.

4.7. Proposed Quality Function Deployment Model for Casual Fine Dining Restaurant

The researcher's proposed quality function deployment model based on the findings of the study.

1. Develop new products to tap new markets.
2. Enhancement of designed products and services.
3. Reengineering of products and services.
4. Introduction of new products.
5. Improvement on the delivery of products and services.

5. Conclusions

Based on the foregoing, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Service, price and ambiance are the important factors of every casual fine dining restaurant.
2. Casual fine dining restaurant helps promote the area or destination.
3. There is no significant difference in the operations of casual fine dining restaurants in the four countries, however, the Philippines ranks higher in terms of services offered to the customers as well as projects and programs being implemented compare to other respondents.
4. Implementation of projects and programs lead to better services to customers.
5. The selected casual fine dining restaurants are properly managed.

6. Recommendations

Based on the conclusions, the following are recommended:

1. To management level and owners of the casual fine dining
 - 1.1 Continue improving the services as the main product of the restaurant.
 - 1.2 Conduct regular trainings or seminars for staff development.
 - 1.3 Treat staff with respect and provide them a right and just compensation package.
 - 1.4 Upgrade facilities regularly based on the accreditation laws mandated by the government.
(Department of Tourism for Philippines)
 - 1.5 Continue maintaining the high level of management operation and service to provide job opportunities for hospitality graduates so as to decrease the employment problems of the country.
2. To the Government
 - 2.1 Set more specific guidelines for restaurant in order to comply with international standard.
 - 2.2 Coordinate with local organizations of restaurant for the upgrade of information about the service and operation management of a casual fine dining.
 - 2.3 Increase the promotional activities and campaigns in order to tap tourist market that will benefit the hospitality and tourism industry.
3. To the future researchers
 - 3.1 Similar studies should also be undertaken regarding the competency level of effectiveness of operation management in food sector
 - 3.2 Conduct studies on food culture and culinary science to increase the marketability of the local casual fine dining restaurants.
 - 3.3 To further study on indicators of customer satisfaction and operational effectiveness in casual fine dining restaurants in Asia.
 - 3.4 Implement Quality Function Deployment as a tool for continuous improvement.

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HR: A NECESSARY PARTNER FOR IMPROVED ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

Currently, researchers in the field of business have engaged in the deliberation on the importance of the human resource (HR) department, pondering on whether it should be scrapped or retained. The deliberation is initiated as a result of thoughtful and pervasive misgivings about the contribution of HR in organizational performance. In spite of HR's acknowledged relevance, it is essential to understand the motivation for HR's fraught reputation, as HR is consistently perceived to be unproductive, inept, as well as expensive, as most top management believe; echoing that, HR is value draining. Nevertheless, the veracity of the debate is that HR is a necessity if organizations must gain competitive advantage.

Keywords: HR, Organizational Performance, Competencies, HR roles, competitive advantage.

INTRODUCTION

The psychology of organization postulates that the effectiveness of an organization is not determined exclusively by the realities of the market and the viable competitive advantage (Ployhart, 2012). In reality, other factors abound. Organizations become effective when they begin to view their human capital to be their most vital resources (Ulrich et al. 2009). The quantitative components of an effective management is determined by its facts and figures, whereas, the qualitative element which is the cerebral aspects are the components that essentially enhances or mars the organization (Alexei, 2002).

Othman (2009) in his study, viewed human resource management (HRM) as the strategic management of an organizations workforce, who independently and co-operatively contribute to the realization of an organization's strategic goals. In a situation where an organization's employees are entities with mental maps and perceptions, goals and personalities of their own, it is impossible to view them in totality. In the views of HRM, the utilization of individual and group psychology is the responsibility of the organization to ensure that organizational goals are realized by employees (Othman, 2009).

Boxall & Purcell (2008) in their study enunciated the following as HR's critical responsibilities:

- Low retention rate of employee turnover through the motivation of employees.
- Attraction of new employees
- Contribution to human capital development

In order to realize these goals, human resource management educates and inspires the workers to imbibe generally responsible behaviours through the communication of ethical guidelines. As a result, HR plays a substantial role in the clarification of the organization's glitches as well as offering solutions that support employees in the efficient discharge of their responsibilities (Wright & Nishii, 2006).

Ulrich et al., (2009) proposes that HR could support the provision of organizational superiority in the ways stated below:

- Partnering with high-ranking and line managers in the execution of strategies.
- Being knowledgeable in the organization and execution of work, as well as providing administrative competence without compromising quality.
- Becoming employees champion, advocating their cause before top management as well as ensuring an

- improvement in the contribution of employees.
- Being an agent of change; influencing procedures and an ethos that enhances organization's capability for transformation.

Ulrich et al., (2009) further stresses the influential role of HR managers being vital in the total efficiency of an organization, emphasizing the necessity of HR. Consequently, Ulrich et al., (2012) in their human resource competencies survey (HRCs) identified six explicit competencies required of HR professionals, if they must add value to their organizations, which consists of the following, emphasizing they must become:

- Strategic positioners or thinkers who comprehends the developing business perspectives, executive anticipations and business necessities, as well as being capable of translating these knowledge into ability, values and management actions.
- Credible activists that build and sustain relationships that ensure trust, as well as possessing a detailed perception of the process of fostering business growth.
- Capability builders who describe and build the organizational abilities necessary for viable organizational accomplishment.
- Change champions who ensures the process of initiating and sustaining change at the personal and organizational levels.
- HR innovators and integrators who are interested in searching for innovative techniques of executing HR practices as well as integrating other distinct practices in the delivery of business results.
- Technology proponents who employ technology for achieving efficiency that helps link employees as well as leveraging modern communication networks, like the social media.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Human Resource, a Profession

The review in this study begins with a very bold statement from researchers (Freidson, 2001; Claus and Collison, 2005) that argues that human resource management is a profession. Freidson (2001); Claus and Collison (2005) validates this argument by affirming the establishment of a body of knowledge with the capacity to be taught, to learn and to be tested, as well as devising an ethical code of conduct. Consequently, Meyer (2012) asserts that the need for HR to play more professional roles was imperative, arguing that the expectation on HR as a profession is high, yet HR haven't attained that position. Meyer (2012) however emphasize the importance of developing a body of knowledge that is generally acceptable, with related standards for admittance and performance evaluation, mutual standards of conduct, defined set of best practices, as well as groups with resilient personalities and uniqueness. For this expectation to be realized, the need to further carry out investigation on the body of knowledge that describes the area of study was necessary, as it will ensure the need for further training, testing and certification of HR professionals. Ulrich & Eichinger (1998) also assert that the route towards proficiency is through the description and acquisition of competencies. They posit that the United States had already attained this fit considerably in the 1990s, however, they argue the need for it to be expanded in order for it to develop a collective professional knowledge.

Fanning (2011) however, contends the issue of professionalism from a different standpoint, arguing that the responsibility of HR is that of providing leadership to organizations on matters regarding HR, rather than the continuous conceptualization of their function on the basis of their individual professional contributions. Consequently, Dhillon (2013) posits that the concept of HR's position as a profession commenced from the 1960s. He argues that such a process is damaging, claiming that the profession of HR culminates with existing ethically prevalent definitions of excellence extenuating its reality, and by description is producing a component of segregation of whatever is capable of deviating from what the professional body of knowledge accepts.

The deliberation appears to be fragmented amongst diverse views on the issue of professionalism. Taking a critical look at the various definitions of HR professionalism, the issue is concerned with:

- a society that possess a sense of identity;
- a moral conduct code;
- minimum criterions for entrance and performance;
- a body of knowledge that is unique;
- a condition for training and certification.

2.2 The Impact of HR on Organizational Performance

According to Lee et al., (2010), every organizations team of professionals responsible for its success is a function of the organization's human resources, as the strategic tasks of the human resources department is the recruitment of talents, training, appraising employee performance, employee motivation, safety in the workplace, effective communication, payroll, employee compensation and much more.

Owing to swift transformations in the business milieu, such as globalization and advances in technology, the conventional sources of competitive advantage has become inadequate for achievement in today's scenario (Simón & Allard, 2008). However, as competition increases, the need to create an inner potential is crucial (Kazlauskaite & Buciuniene, 2008). Consequently the exceptional interest is rewarded to organizational techniques highlighting the fact that people facilitate the effective functioning of the techniques. Hence, HR and its operation, lately have been considered important in the achievement of maintainable competitive advantage (Kazlauskaite & Buciuniene, 2008). Principally, the value of HR is highlighted in the face of globalization when the conventional career methods are being modified (Simón & Allard, 2008).

The examination of the imputed value of HR to efficiency has become prevalent from the mid -1990s (Stavrou et al., 2007). According to Savaneviciene and Stankeviciute (2012), the scientific analysis from studies show two primary approaches: the first strategy depends on a caveat that argues that there is no nexus between HR and performance, stressing that peradventure there is, that it is uncertain, while the second strategy is extremely passionate, assuming optimistic and important HR and efficiency connection. Acknowledging both techniques, the review of literature reveals that a significant amount of progress have been achieved in analyzing HR and organizational performance (Paauwe, 2009; Guest, 2011).

Furthermore, Guest (2011) argues that while recognizing that HR functions to create value, there are some problems that are uncertain as well as some queries unanswered. He argues that these problems could be summarised under the aegis of the imploration of Guest (1997), where he argued the need for the postulation of theories on HRM, performance as well as theories that explains the nexus between both. Paauwe (2009) and Guest (2011) however posits that despite the hypothetical and empirical efforts to analyze what is meant by HRM, performance outcomes and the characteristics of their connection, their improvement is still uncertain.

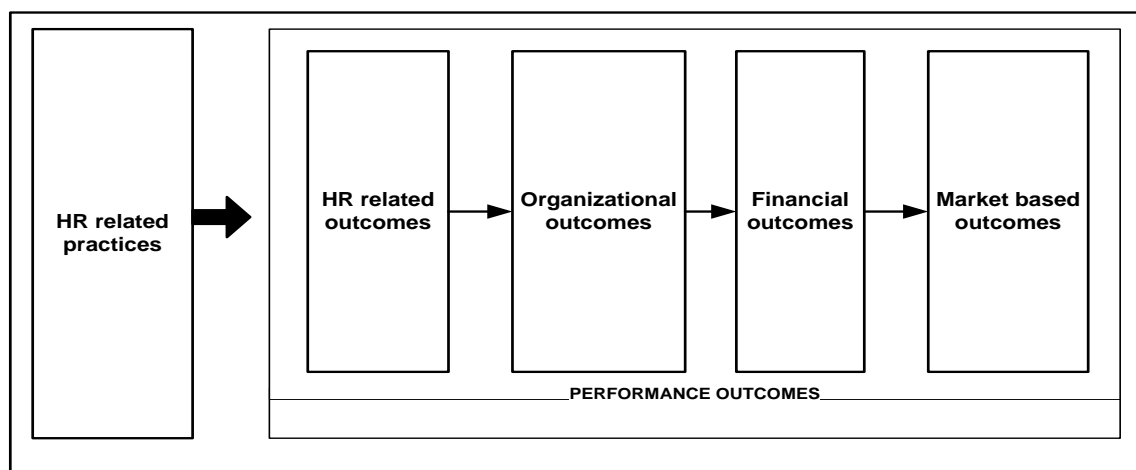


Figure 1. HRM impact on Performance logic. *Source:* Savaneviciene and Stankeviciute (2012)

Therefore, while we believe the fact that it is crucial to analyze HR and performance nexus, it should be recognized that some uncertainty subsist while trying to elucidate and determine the performance processes. Colakoglu et al. (2006) argues that performance outcomes differ in two perspectives; firstly, their closeness to employee efforts or the period of amassing whereby they are calculated, and secondly, the appropriate investors group of emphasis. This paper however concentrates on the first part, which is the aspect of proximity relating to performance outcomes, such as individual stage, division stage, place stage, business unit stage, and firm or corporate stage (Moideenkutty et al., 2011; Boselie, 2010; Paauwe, 2009)

Researchers (Boselie & Van der Wiele, 2002 and Wright & Haggerty, 2005) also postulates four stages of performance outcomes, regarding the prospective processes of HR efficiency, that includes:

- Outcomes involving HR; Boselie and van der Wiele (2002) recognize views and purposeful HR outcomes. Wright and Haggerty (2005) offering alternative arrangement: effective, intellectual and behavioral responses;
- Business outcomes such as output, excellence, adeptness;
- Economical outcomes such as return on investment (ROI), benefit, revenue;
- Market related outcomes, such as inventory prices.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of HR is to empower organizations to realize their planned objectives by getting, keeping and improving employees, that will guarantee HR departments role as a nexus between companies and the workforce. It is predicted of organizations, first to be conscious of the requirements of employees and subsequently make effort to comprehend in order to assess these requirements which will help to create in employees an understanding that will enable them to view their job as a facet of their individual lifestyle, and not just as a scheduled responsibility. In that regard, HR departments are very essential for the entire operation of a company because it helps the company to build a dedicated workforce, that are prepared to give their best with the right competencies, that will ensure improved efficiency.

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OVERVIEW OF POTENTIAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN AUSTRALIA TO ENHANCE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN PACIFIC ISLAND COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

This paper serves to contribute to informing the World Bank's promotion of circular migration policies in the Asia-Pacific region. It therefore responds to the economic development case for expanding labour mobility in the Pacific Region outlined by the World Bank in its 'At Home and Away' Report by highlighting some specific industry sectors within Australia where there appeared to be opportunities to employ Pacific Island migrant workers. The rationale being that the use of Pacific Island labour to fill vacancies has the potential to effectively alleviate domestic labour shortages within specified job roles in selected Australian industries, whilst at the same time also presents an avenue through which the earned remittances sent back by the Pacific Island workers to their home countries could provide an invaluable capital source to further support and promote economic development in these countries. The paper consequently concentrates on identifying and providing an overview of employment opportunities within specific Australian industry sectors through which such objectives could be achieved.

Keywords: Development Economics, Labour Economics

INTRODUCTION

In its 'At Home and Away' Report, the World Bank set out an economic development case for expanding labour mobility in the Pacific Region. The labour markets in some developed countries are now partially open to Pacific Islanders. However, as noted in the report, a circular migration scheme in the horticulture scheme can at best have limited impact. There may be other and greater opportunities for integration of regional labour markets in other sectors. 'At Home and Away' took the view that it should be left to private and public sector employers to identify where these opportunities are while Governments should play a facilitating role. Nevertheless, to promote a constructive dialogue it would be helpful to have some indications of the prospects for this integration for a small number of countries and selected sectors.

This paper fulfils this indicative role. It contributes to informing the World Bank's promotion of the circular migration of labour within the Asian-Pacific region. It seeks to identify sectors in the Australian economy that might have employment opportunities for temporary migrants from the Pacific Islands, it describes the context and nature of these employment opportunities and discusses the prospects of Pacific Islanders accessing these opportunities.

1.1 Temporary Foreign Workers in Australia

Presently there are three main categories of temporary workers in Australia: Persons entering under the Temporary Resident Program (TRP), Working Holiday Makers and Overseas Students. In recent times there have been large increases in the numbers in all three categories. This development represents a significant departure from Australia's historical preference for permanent migration. The Temporary Business (long stay) 457 visa is the most commonly used visa category for the employment of temporary foreign workers. It allows employers to bring in workers from abroad a period of up to four years. The precise conditions governing the program have varied over time. When introduced it relaxed the requirement to show that in mid-2010 there were about 70,000 457 primary visa holders of which the vast majority worked in skilled occupations.

1.2 Overseas Students

The number of overseas students has increased dramatically in recent years to about 500,000. Much of this dramatic increase is driven by the private VET sector (vocational education and training). Overseas students are allowed to work for up to 20 hours per week during term time and unlimited hours during official semester breaks. About one-third of the students work an average of 10-15 hours per week and a significant proportion are dependent on their income from work for their subsistence. By and large, the working pattern of overseas students mirrors that of local students. The vast majority work in unskilled jobs at or below the minimum rates of pay in the service industry. The payment of wages as cash-in-hand is not uncommon. They fare somewhat worse than their local counterparts in the type of jobs they obtain but overt discrimination is not common.

1.3 Working Holiday Makers

The Working Holiday Makers (WHM) are allowed to remain in Australia for a period up to 12 months and work for up to six months with one employer. The total yearly flow has now reached 200,000. Although the official rationale for the Working Holiday Program (WHP) is to 'enhance the cultural and social development of young people, their role as temporary workers, and as seasonal agricultural workers in particular, has become increasingly evident.

The role of WHMs as seasonal workers in agriculture was highlighted in Home and Away. The proportion of the seasonal work force made up of WHMs was put at 85 per cent (Fruit grower on Murray River), 50 per cent (harvest work in the Murray River region) and 70 per cent (Goulburn Valley orchard). At that time, in 2005, the number of WHM visas was running at about 100,000 per year. Since then the number of WHM visas have doubled and their role as seasonal workers been strengthened. A recent survey indicates that about 70 per cent work while in Australia for a period of about six months. Of these, no less than 27 per cent classify their occupation as farmhand. In 2002 when the scheme was extended to allow for a second 12 month WHM visa for those who had done 'specified work in an eligible regional area for a minimum of three months'. This qualifying condition was specifically designed to encourage WHMs to do seasonal work in horticulture. By 2009 the number of persons who satisfied this condition had grown to 20,000.

These figures imply that that holiday makers contribute 35,000 workers to the agriculture industry of which 20,000 have a one season experience. The figures also imply that some of the reservations about WHM as seasonal workers mentioned in Home and Away - drifting in and out of jobs and each season bringing a crop of novice pickers - may not be as relevant as they used to be. WHM are not just a significant source, but the major source, of seasonal workers to the Australian agriculture industry.

Outside of agricultural work WHM are employed in low skilled work in the service industries; as waiters, cleaners, kitchen hands, bar attendant, sales assistant. These are the same type of jobs as overseas students. Also, the employers' obligations in hiring foreign workers are not very different from that of local worker. The hour's restriction for overseas students, and the six months' time limit for WHMs, is not significant impediment in the type of jobs that they do. The search and recruitment takes place largely within informal networks. Specific to WHM are their greater reliance on recruitment agencies and backpacker hostels as the hub for the recruitment.

Notwithstanding that overseas students and working holiday makers work in mainly low paid low-skilled jobs they are generally seen as making a valuable contribution. WHMs, it is claimed have 'a positive effect on the Australian economy and creates jobs in Australia' and overseas students are the customers of what has become one of Australia's largest export industries. Concerns about their vulnerability or exploitation, or adverse effect on the pay and conditions of resident low skilled workers, are generally mute. It is commonly held that their primary reason for their presence is not as workers, they have financial resources to maintain themselves even if they do not work and their visa status is not tied to their employment.

Combined, the two groups constitute a pool of some 300,000 workers available for part-time and casual work in the service sector. This is about three times larger than the mainly highly skilled temporary resident workforce

even if including the dependants of the primary visa holders. Thus use of temporary foreign labour for low-skilled work is a *fait accompli* in the Australian labour market

THE SEASONAL WORKERS SCHEMES IN AUSTRALIA

Notwithstanding many requests from political leader of Pacific region countries, Australia has for a long time declined to open its door to even temporary migrants from the Pacific Islands. But the pressure from the international community has become more intense. At the Pacific Islands Forum at Port Moresby in October 2005 member countries, including Australia, committed themselves to further examination of opening up labour mobility in the region. However, the Government at the time did not believe that a 'guest-worker' program for Pacific Islanders was the best way to assist them. Instead, the issue was transferred to a Senate Committee that recommended that the matter should be considered. When the change of Government in 2007, the political climate made it possible to at least initiate a pilot scheme along the lines envisaged in the Labor Party's 'Pacific Policy Discussion Paper'

Australia's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme was announced on the 17 August 2008. Under the pilot, up to 2,500 visas would be made available over three years for workers from Kiribati, Tonga, Vanuatu and Papua New Guinea to work in Australia for up to seven months in any 12-month period. Limited to three pilot areas of Griffith (New South Wales), Swan Hill and Robinvale (Victoria) and growers must demonstrate that they have tested the local labour market.

The first phase of the scheme had a slow start. By early 2009, two approved employers had been selected and four growers had submitted applications. The first workers, 50 Tongans, arrived on the 19 February 2009. A similar number from Vanuatu arrived in April 2009. During the 2010 harvest season only 31 workers from the Pacific arrived. In total it was reported that a total of 137 workers had come by mid-2010. By the time phase 2 started in mid-2010 another five approved employers had been selected and the pilot scheme had now been extended to run until June 2012.

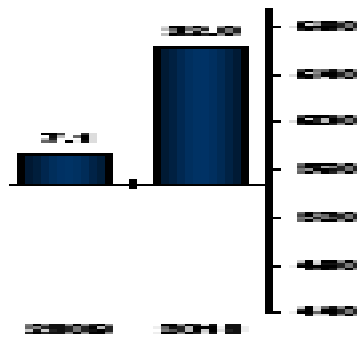
There are several reasons for the slow up-take of the Australian scheme. One reason is the delays in finalising the arrangements with the countries concerned. A second reason is the restrictive arrangements for hiring Pacific workers; in particular the need for growers to operate through approved labour hire firms. Thirdly, Australia's scheme is overseen by no less than four Government departments and one agency, an arrangement that means that the industry voice is lost among competing agendas. Finally, the demand from growers for Pacific workers has been much less than expected. Notwithstanding the many claims of difficulties in finding seasonal labour, working holiday makers and undocumented foreign workers have met most of the need.

ACCOMMODATION & FOOD SERVICES INDUSTRY IN AUSTRALIA

The Accommodation and Food Services industry in Australia comprises of four sectors which includes Restaurants, Cafes and Takeaway Food Services, Clubs (Hospitality), Bars, Pubs and Taverns and Accommodation. Employment within the industry can be volatile due to its sensitivity to the discretionary income and spending levels of Australians as well as the impact that international economic and geopolitical factors can have.

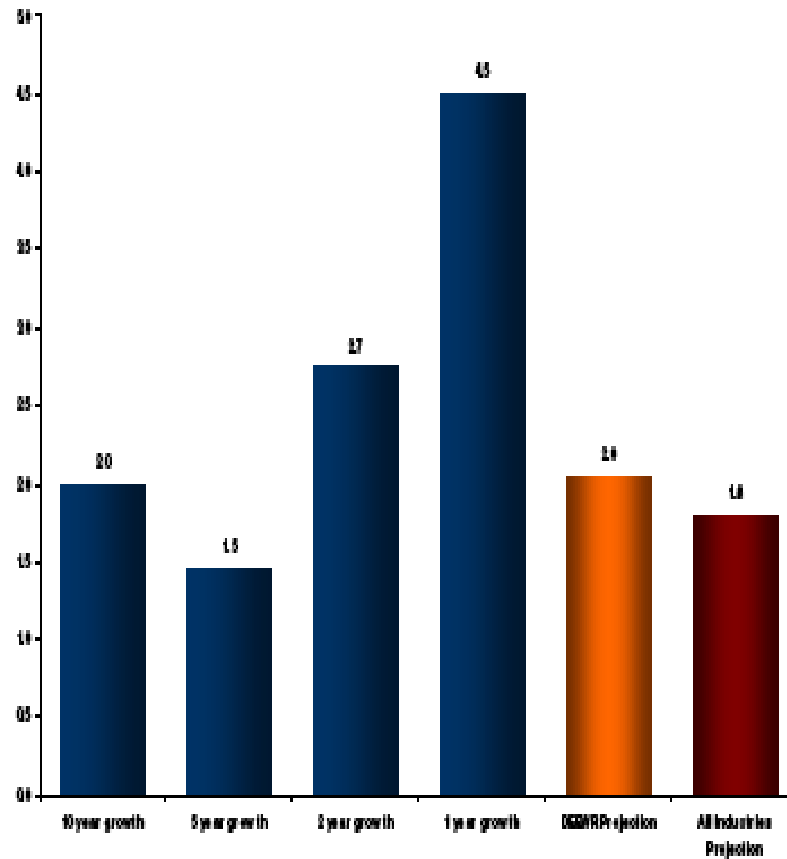
In Australia, the Accommodation and Food Services industry has experienced strong growth over the long term with annual average growth rate of 2%. In the past decade up till February 2010, there has been employment growth of 21.9% within the industry which represents an increase of 133 100 jobs over the period. More recently in the 12 month period until February 2010, the industry has recorded significant increases in employment with an additional 32 000 jobs becoming available.

Figure 1: Employment Level (RHS Axis- '000s) & Annual Change ('000s)- year to February 2010



Based on DEEWR's employment projections, the Australian Accommodation and Food Services industry is forecast to experience annual aggregate employment growth of 2% year over the five years to 2014-2015, which translates into approximately 79 000 new jobs.

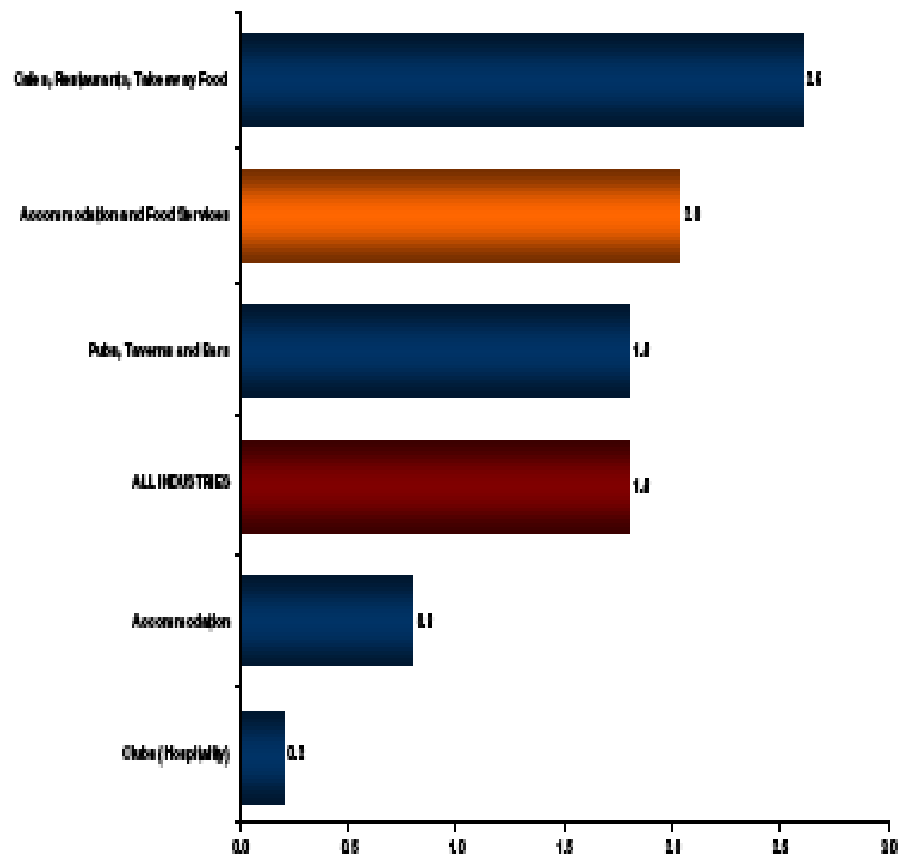
Figure 2: Recent and Projected Employment Growth (% pa) - to February 2010 (past) and 5 years to 2014-15 (projected)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey cat. no. 6291.0.65.003 (DEWPR trend data); DEWPR projections to 2014-15

Specifically the Restaurants, Cafes and Takeaway Food Services sector is expected to have a higher job growth with projected employment increases for the sector to 2014-2015 being 2% per annum, which equates to 36 200 new jobs. The other sectors are also forecast to experience employment growth in the period to 2014-2015, although the respective rates of job growth are slightly lower. Bars, Pubs and Taverns are expected to have annual employment growth of 1.8% (9,600 additional jobs) until 2014-2015 while the Accommodation sector is projected to have annual job growth of 0.8% (4 600 new jobs) over the same period. It is also anticipated that the Clubs (Hospitality) sector will experience employment growth of 0.2% per year or 600 new jobs in the five years to 2014-2015.

Figure 3: Accommodation and Food Services Sectors - Projected Employment Growth (% pa) to 2014-15

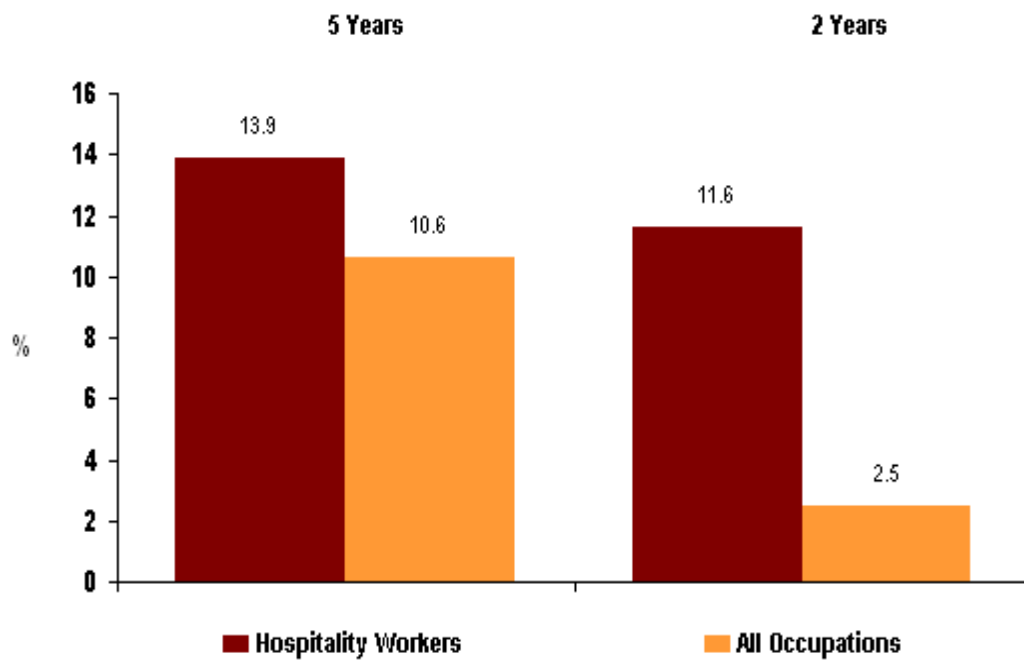


Source: ABS Labour Force Survey cat. no. 6291.0.55.003 (DEEWR trend data); DEEWR projections to 2014-15

In the August 2010 edition of DEEWR's Vacancy Report, over 4 400 (4405) job vacancies were reported for Hospitality Workers. This figure had increased to 5073 by the time DEEWR's September 2010 Vacancy Report was released. Continued employment growth for this occupational group was also evidence by the fact that DEEWR's November 2010 Vacancy Report indicated that there over 6000 (6010) vacancies for Hospitality Workers.

According to ABS Labour Force Survey Data (released by DEEWR) as indicated in the bar chart below, there was almost 14% (13.9%) employment growth for Hospitality Workers in the last five year period and 11.6% job growth recorded for the past two years.

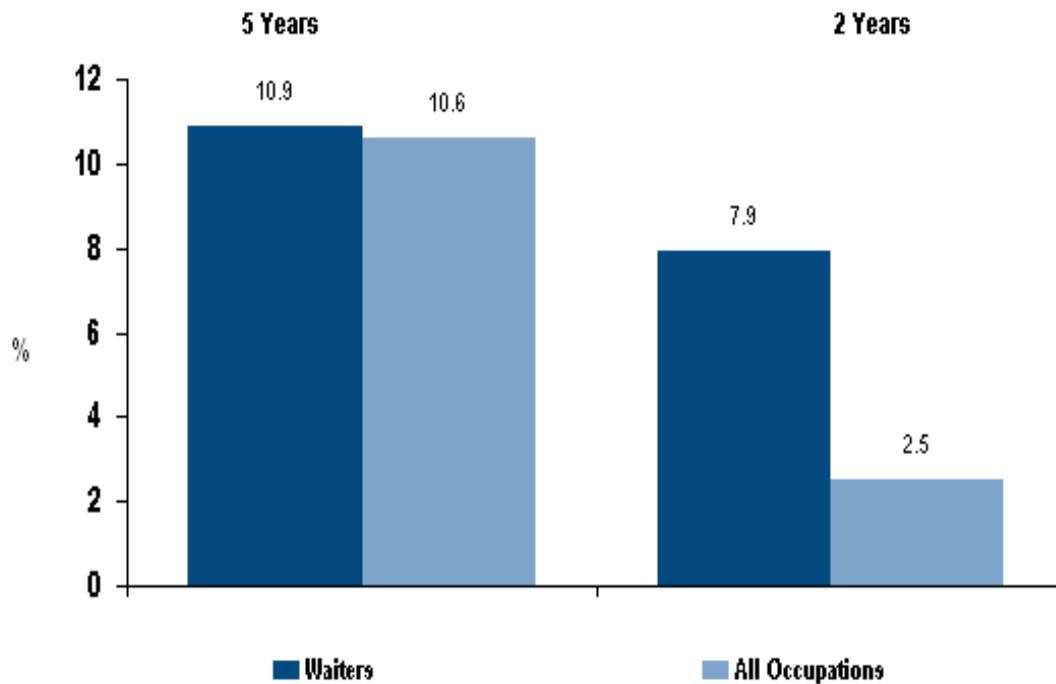
Figure 4: Recent Job Growth (%)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

In the past 5 years, there has been employment growth of nearly 11% (10.9%) for Waiters in Australia, with almost 8% (7.9%) job growth being reported over the last two year period alone. Both these facts are illustrated in the figures below.

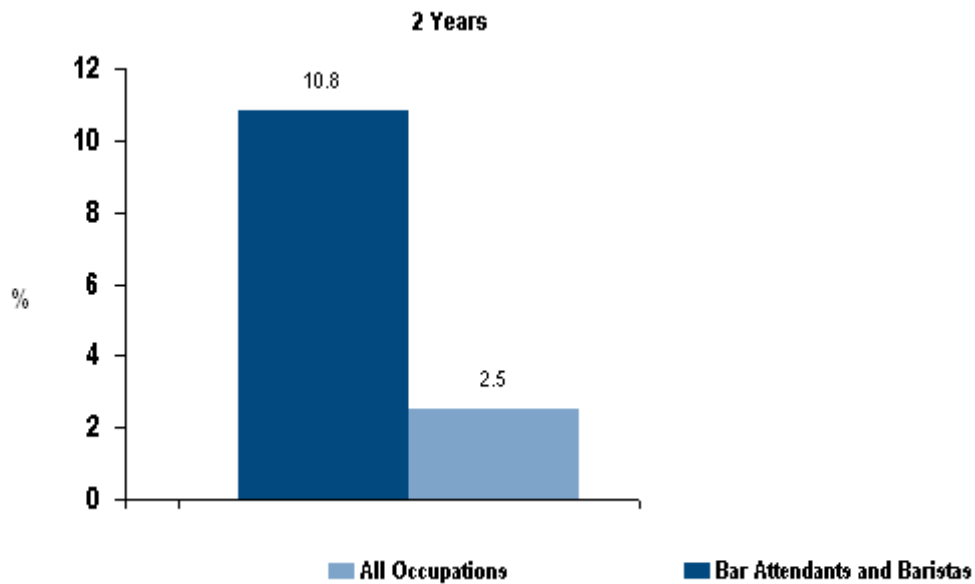
Figure 5: Recent Job Growth (%)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

Baristas and Bar Attendants in Australia as an occupational group have experienced moderate job growth in recent times with employment increasing by almost 11% (10.8%) over the last two years.

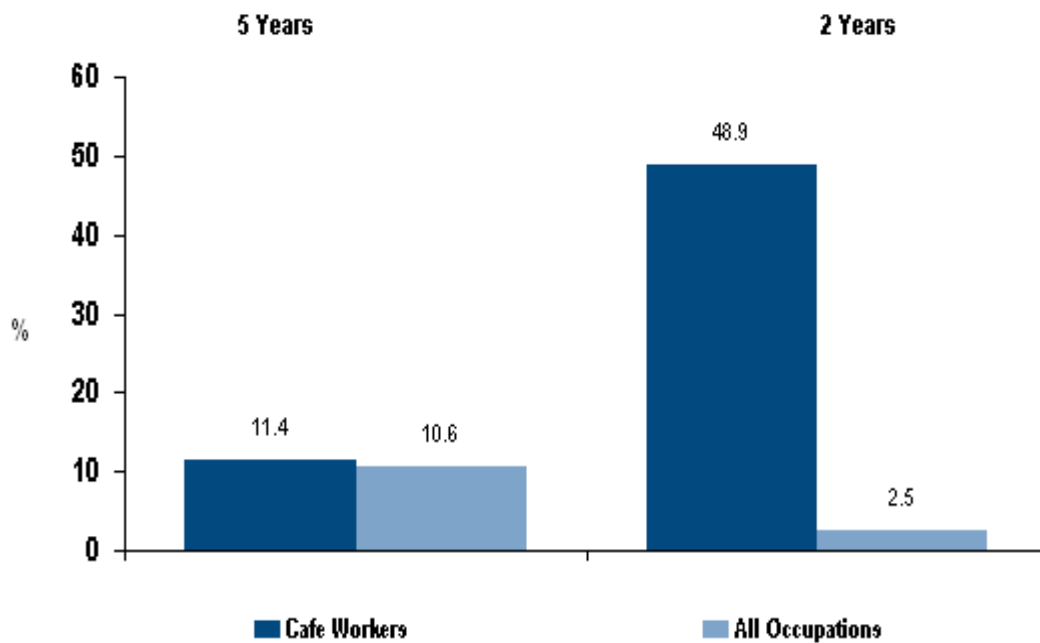
Figure 6: Recent Job Growth (%)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

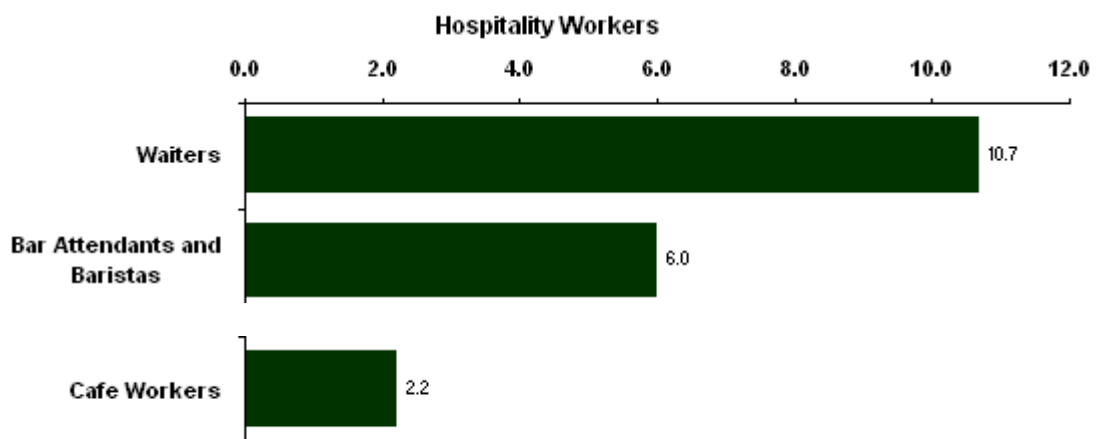
As an occupational group, Café Workers have experienced 11.4% increase in employment over the last five years. This has included particularly strong job growth of nearly 49% (48.9%) in the past two years.

Figure 7: Recent Job Growth (%)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

Figure 8: Recent Job Growth (thousands)



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

The bar graph above shows employment growth ('000s) over the past five years for the occupations in the cluster and indicates that the greatest job growth has been amongst Waiters with 10,700 additional jobs being created within the occupational group.

Figure 9: Projected Job Growth (% pa) to 2014-15



Source: DEEWR 2009-10 projections to 2014-15.

The figure above shows projected employment growth (per cent per annum) over the next five years for the occupations within the cluster with each forecast to experience job growth at a rate of 3% or just above in the next five year period. The projected increase in the number of jobs for each of the occupational groups induced by this anticipated employment growth is depicted the Table below. As indicated by the figures, the most substantial increase in employment is forecast to occur for Waiters with more than 20,000 (20,400) jobs expected to be created over the next five year period.

Figure 10: Projected Job Growth (thousands) to 2014-15



Source: DEEWR 2009-10 projections to 2014-15.

THE MEAT PROCESSING INDUSTRY IN AUSTRALIA

The Australian meat industry is an important industry as the fourth highest commodity export earner. The value of the production of the Australian red meat industry was about \$8.1 billion in 2007. In addition, the Australian red meat industry provides employment for more than 50,000 employees (Commonwealth of Australia, 2006).

The meat processing industry, which comprises abattoirs/boning rooms, smallgoods operations (including wholesalers), food services operations and meat retailers (Agri-Food Industry Skills Council 2009), includes about 300 abattoirs including boning rooms with about 25,000 workers.

The shortage of skilled labour is considered by many Australian industry organisations to be the greatest immediate challenge (Australian Meat Industry Council, 2006). The shortage of mainly skilled labour is a constant theme of industry organisations and employers in Australia at national, state and regional level.¹ While many factors are at work, the nature of the work is an important reason. The working environment is physically demanding and the workplace can be unpleasant. Meat workers have high injury and work-related illness rates, and the sector ranks high in the on lists of hazardous workplaces. The industry also has a history of poor workplace relations. Mistrust of motive and the unilateral exercise of power are recurrent problems in the industry. The seasonality of the business, the industry traditions, such as regular daily hire, are other factors that make meat processing a less attractive job. Labour turnover is high; about 20 per cent in Australia

Much of the turnover is due to recent recruits leaving their jobs. Many initiatives are being undertaken to improve the working conditions and the image of the industry. The increased focus on training to address the work force issues is one of these.² However, even if the industry has been successful in raising the training rate, almost two-thirds of trainees (5,000 per year) leave before completing their traineeship.

The conditions of work in this industry have made the meat industry a migrant industry in many developed countries. The US meat processing industry relies on migrant labour for a significant share of the work force and from time to time guest worker programs have been proposed. The dependence has increased in recent times as plants have been relocated from metropolitan to rural areas. But as the work is unattractive to local workers, this relocation has resulted in an accompanying relocation of Hispanics. In the year 2000 Hispanics accounted for no less than 35 per cent of the industry workforce.

The Australian and New Zealand industry is also becoming increasingly dependent on migrant workers. In Australia, the meat industry has become a large sponsor of temporary 457 migrants. In 2004-05 a few hundred slaughterers were brought in. By 2005-06, the number was approaching 2000 (this figure includes some butchers). This was a result of relaxing the skill requirements so that companies could bring in any worker who has a basic meat industry trade qualification. Many of the new recruits have come from new source countries; notably Vietnam, China and Brazil.

In 2008 it was estimated that about 2,000 persons on 457 visas were working in the meat industry. Recently, however, it has become more difficult for the meat industry to recruit temporary migrants. Changes introduced in September 2007 made the meat industry labour agreement the only avenue available to access skilled meat workers through the subclass 457 program. A Labour Agreement impose more stringent conditions on employers as regards pay rates, commitment to training Australian workers, arrangements for settling foreign workers in local communities, and English skills, including training where these are inadequate. It might also

¹ Dolan, K. 2005, "ABC Rural: Farm worker s Dakis, S. 2006, "Tas farmers face ongoing skills shortage", ABC National Rural News.", A Davison, S. 2005, "National Farmers Federation addresses skills shortage", ABC National Rural News.; Australian Meat Industry Council 2006, "National news: imported labour to meet the skills shortage-update", Australian Meat Industry Council. Retrieved 24 April,2009; Ferry Jie and Kevin A. Parton. The Need For Improved Skills In The Australian Meat Industry International Review of Business Research Papers Vol. 5, No. 4 June 2009 Pp.257-269

² Ferry Jie* and Kevin A. Parton**. The Need For Improved Skills In The Australian Meat Industry International Review of Business Research Papers Vol. 5 No. 4 June 2009 Pp.257-269; How to become an employer of choice in an industry of choice A practical guide to workforce development for the Australian Meat Industry Food, Tourism and Hospitality Skills Advisory Council SA Inc.

include a cap on percentages of foreign workers allowed. The industry's need for recruiting meat workers from overseas has not abated. At 30 June 2009, 19 companies had signed a meat industry labour agreement and a further 12 agreements were under negotiation.³ However, the new arrangements have meant that the inflow of migrant workers has been reduced significantly.

The conditions for entry of migrant workers in the meat processing industry have been a contentious issue. The problem has its roots in the changing organisation of meat processing. The traditional boundary between skilled and semi-skilled work has broken down. The mechanised chain system of slaughtering has reduced the individual meatworker's skill from processing a whole carcass to processing only one section of it. Following from this, the pace of the work in the meat industry is set by the mechanised chain system of dis-assembly and revolves around groups or gangs of workers, with each group member having responsibility for a part of the disassembly of the carcass as it moves, suspended, down the conveyor belt chain. But some tasks will always require highly skilled people. However, there is a risk already observed in plants that, while removing some work to machines, it will leave often boring and repetitive tasks for workers to carry out.

The industry argues that Australia needs to recognise a broader labour shortage of workers at most of the capacity levels required in integrated manufacturing operations (not just traditional 'skilled' classifications).⁴ But Governments have been reluctant to accept this view; particularly as a large number of media reports have highlighted how skilled workers have been used for unskilled labouring, and that people are being exploited with low wages and below-standard conditions. In particular, slaughterers, having a skilled occupation, have been given other jobs, such as boning and slicing, prompting union complaints that employers are going beyond the law.

At the same time the industry is fully aware that migrant workers is not the solution to the workforce issues they face. Industry plans and strategies propose numerous initiatives to secure a skilled and capable workforce. In these plans, migrant workers are mentioned, but often with reservations attached. An Australian industry report states that International migrants are just an option but certain criteria have to be met. Furthermore, migrants from overseas will require significant assistance with settlement – employers need to engage the rest of your workforce and the community – if the strategy is to prove successful.

In reality, however, the Australian meat processing industry has become dependent on temporary migrant workers. In Rockhampton, the meat capital of Australia, the largest employer with a workforce of 900 persons employs no less than 400 primary 457 visa holders from Vietnam and Brazil. In addition, many of their spouses are employed in the packaging area. While on temporary visas, being the only route for bringing in overseas workers in the meat industry, these workers, as a group, are to all intents and purposes a permanent workforce; those who leave are replaced by newcomers through the operation of informal recruiting networks. This high degree of dependence on migrant workers can be traced to the labour intensive nature of the industry and the competitive environment in which it operates. Local workers cannot meet the needs of such an industry when better jobs are available. In Rockhampton it is the high paying mining industry that is the main alternative.⁵

This migrant employment strategy is driven by the large operators in the industry. The industry is dominated by four multinational companies that account for 50 per cent of the market. The largest, Swift Australia, part of the JSB Swift group, operates ten plants in Australia employing over 6,000 workers. These companies have simply transferred their international employment practices to Australia. In most developed countries there is an insufficient number or quality of local workers who can face the rigours of repetitive, physically demanding work in an unpleasant environment. Hence, the operation of an internationally competitive meat processing

³ Department of Immigration and Citizenship, Annual Report 2008-09.

⁴ Red Meat Industry – Submission to PC Review of Regulatory Burdens. March 2008.

⁵ Winning, J (2009), The forgotten seconds: examining primary and secondary 457 visa holders in the Australian beef industry, Honours Thesis, University of Sydney.

industry in developed countries has become dependent on migrant workers. In Australia this development has taken place during the past decade.

MINING INDUSTRY IN AUSTRALIA

In recent years there has been considerable job growth within the Australian mining sector, which has been largely underpinned by the increased demand for some of Australia's mineral commodities induced by the continued industrialisation of China and other rapidly growing Asian economies. In the five years to February 2010, the mining industry in Australia experienced employment growth of over 60% with more than 64 000 additional jobs being created over the period at an annual growth rate of 9.9% per annum. Over the shorter term, two year time span to February 2010, job growth within the Australian mining sector was reported to be slightly above 18% with annual employment growth rate of almost 9% per annum and over 26 000 jobs becoming available. In the one year between February 2009 and February 2010, there was 4% growth in employment which translated into there being more than 6 500 additional jobs within the industry.

As indicated in the bar chart depicted below, job growth of 6.7% was recorded for workers employed as 'Construction and Mining Labourers' over the last five year period.

Figure 11: Recent Job Growth (%)



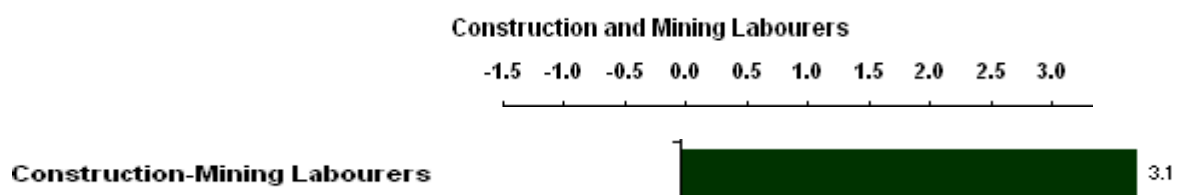
Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, DEEWR trend data to May 2010.

According to the November 2010 results of the *Vacancy Report* (released by DEEWR), there were 2134 reported vacancies for 'Construction and Mining Labourers'. This represents a significant increase from 1528 vacancies reported for the occupational group in DEEWR's May 2010 *Vacancy Report*. The vacancy figures released for 'Construction and Mining Labourers' in November 2010 also reflected an annual increase of more than 27% and a monthly increase of 8.2% for the occupational group. DEEWR's *Skilled Vacancy Index (SVI)* also indicated that there was more than a 30 per cent (30.1%) increase in internet vacancies for 'Construction and Mining Labourers' in the 12 month period to February 2010.

The projected future employment growth in the Australian mining industry is forecast to be 3.3%. Therefore more than 28 000 jobs are anticipated to be created within the mining sector over the next five year time span. Another report released by the National Institute of Labour Studies (based at Flinders University) projected that the Australian Minerals Sector would require about another 6,400 ‘Labourer & related workers’ for the period between 2005-2015. This was believed to represent over an 80% increase in demand for this group of workers, with the supply of these workers forecast to decline by nearly 2% across the same decade. The results of a 2008 study conducted by the National Institute of Labour Studies indicated that over the next ten year period the mining industry would require approximately 8,000 labourers and 30,000 semi skilled workers.

As is evident from the following figure, there is anticipated employment growth of more than 3% for ‘Construction and Mining Labourers’ forecast for the next five year period.

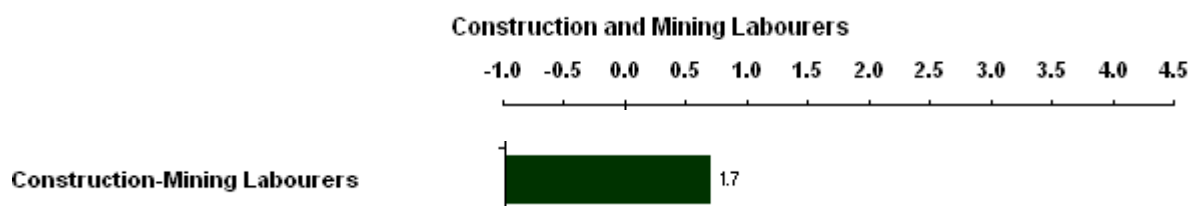
Figure 12: Projected Job Growth (% pa) to 2014-15



Source: DEEWR 2009-10 projections to 2014-15.

The graph below based on DEEWR data reveals how the number of jobs for ‘Construction and Mining Labourers’ across Australia is projected to increase by 1,700 in the time span to 2014-1015.

Figure 13: Projected Job Growth (thousands) to 2014-15



Source: DEEWR 2009-10 projections to 2014-15.

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IDENTIFICATION OF THE ANTECEDENTS OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPOWERMENT AND PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to identify in a First step, the Individual, Organizational, and contextual antecedents, of employee and organizational empowerment; and then in a Second step, investigate the relationship between employee empowerment and individual and organizational performance. A series of hypotheses about the relationships between empowerment and its antecedents on one hand, and between empowerment and individual and organizational performance on a second hand will be tested. The study is based on data collected through a sample of 100 employees and managers drawn from 25 multinational and local companies in Qatar. A system approach combined with correlation analysis and regression using the software SPSS version 21, are being used. Finally a conceptual model for empowerment and performance, as well as a predictive model for empowerment will be presented.

Keywords: Empowerment; psychological empowerment; structural empowerment; organizational, individual, and contextual antecedents, organizational and individual performance

INTRODUCTION

The Oxford Dictionary defines empowerment as “to give somebody the power or authority to act” (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 1995). Burke (1986, p.5) defines empowerment as: “To empower, implies the granting of power-delegation of authority.” Cornwall, J.: and Perlman, B. (1990, p.87) define empowerment as “...the process of having power given from the traditionally powerful managers in an organization and instilled in everyone.” Taking a different perspective, Randolph (1995, p.20) defines empowerment as “...recognizing and releasing into the organization the power that people already have in their wealth and useful knowledge and internal motivation.”

Employee empowerment has been reported as well, as a management technique used by companies to increase organizational effectiveness (Conger and Kananga, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996). Companies are showing a great interest in the concept of empowerment, because of its positive impact, on a firm’s financial performance. Lawler, E. E. III; Mohrman, S. A.; and Benson, G. (2001) show, that companies involving their workforce in the decision making process, are able to achieve greater returns on, sales, assets, investment, and equity, than firms which do not involve their staff in organizational decision-making. Another study conducted by Appelbaum, E.; Baily, T.; Berg, P.; and Kalleberg, A. (2000) in the steel, apparel, and medical device industries, showed that high-involvement systems were associated with higher engagement (higher job satisfaction, higher organizational commitment, higher trust, and less stress) and higher organizational performance (higher efficiency, quality, and productivity) on a set of measures specific to each industry.

b) Literature and Theory

2.1. A Historical Perspective on Empowerment

The idea of introducing aspects of democracy to the workplace is far from new. The early Belgian syndicalist César De Paepe (Bertrand, L., 1909) pointed out in the late 19th Century that workers had far more knowledge of the workplace, where they were denied influence, than of political affairs, where they were at

least entitled to vote. In the eyes of such early thinkers, workplace democracy was not only desirable, as a natural extension of democratic principles; it was also inevitable.

The question of when the term “empowerment” was used for the first time remains open. But according to Potterfield (1999), the roots of empowerment go back to the past centuries and was first applied to political and social activities. It’s not quite clear however, when it started being used in management and organizational studies. For Honold (1999), the concept was first used in the socio-technical approach of Levin(1951), and later in the idea of job enrichment of Herzberg (1968).

Studying the relationship between negative work behaviors (like turnover) and the structures of the work environment, Kanter(1977) found that behaviors and attitudes of employees are directly correlated with the perception of access to power and opportunity structures within an organization. The conclusions of this study, gave birth to the first model of empowerment: “Structural Empowerment”, which constitutes the first perspective on empowerment: “The Relational Perspective”.

For Conger and Kanungo (1988), the diffusion of the decision making power down the hierarchy, alone, will not necessarily results in outcome improvement, since it’s “the employee’s perception of empowerment and the employee’s inner nature” which matter. For Conger and Kanungo (1988, p.474), empowerment is the “process of enhancing feelings of self- efficacy among organizational members”, through the identification of the work conditions and barriers, which make the employees feel powerless, and removing these obstacles using formal and informal management techniques by providing efficacy information. By opposition to structural empowerment, which is a kind of top down approach, this approach is more a bottom approach, and corresponds to the second perspective on empowerment, which is known as “Psychological Empowerment”

2.2. Structural empowerment

Broadly speaking, literature on empowerment has highlighted two main conceptualizations of empowerment, namely the two perspectives on empowerment defined in the previous section: structural and psychological perspectives.

In structural empowerment, the focus is on assigning power of decision making process down an organizational hierarchy, as well as providing information and resources to employees at the lower levels. Thus, structural empowerment embeds decisions with the individuals appointed and capable of acting on their own (Mills and Ungson, 2003).

Structural Empowerment is stated as access to any company structures in the work environment through lines of communication, support, information, and resources, which offer workers get the opportunity to share their idea in decision making, assist in control of resources, and grow in their jobs(Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1993; Mechanic, 1962; Mills & Ungson, 2003; Salanick & Pfeffer, 1974).

Structural empowerment is essentially a macro perspective, focusing on organizational structures and policies. Kanter’s theory (Kanter,1993) asserts that in order to empower employees, organizations must have empowerment structures that are delineated as the structure of opportunity and the structure of power. Kanter defines the structure of opportunity as organizational attributes that enable the workers’ ability to grow and develop in the job. According to Kanter, the organizational provision of opportunity significantly influences workers’ motivation, productivity, commitment and degree of engagement in work. Kanter defines the structure of power as organizational attributes that enable workers to mobilize resources. Specifically, she asserts that structural power comes from Four organizational sources:

- Information,
- Support and
- Resources.
- Opportunity

According to Kanter(1993), the information understood as data, the necessary technical knowledge, and expertise, is essential to carry out the duties and responsibilities associated with any job position in an organization. Resources are the necessary people, money, equipment and supplies that enable the worker to perform his/her work effectively. Support is feedback, coaching and assistance that one receives from

management, peers and others. Subsequently these organizational empowerment structures contribute to the workers' success in accomplishing organizational goals. To understand the concept of opportunity, it is needed to view the organization in terms of constraints and opportunities it presents for individual cognitions and behavior. A bureaucracy is full of constraints, while an empowering design provides opportunities for, rather than constraints on, individual mind-set and behavior.

Beside these four organizational sources of structural power, Kanter (1977,1993) believes that access to the organizational empowerment structures depends on the formal and informal power an employee has in an organization. Formal power is related to jobs which allow for flexibility, and creativity and considered important for the accomplishment of the organizational goals. While informal power is the result of the relationships an employee may develop with peers, superiors, and subordinates, inside and outside the organization.

Kanter further, proposes that together these two structures of opportunity and power positively influence employees' sense of empowerment. She asserts that, as a result, workers will be loyal to their work and the organization, feel a sense of control and autonomy and experience less stress and burnout. Conversely, workers who feel powerless may experience a sense of failure in their work which in turn leads to negative attitudes and behaviors (absenteeism, turnover, and disengagement) that results in an increase of the worker's stress and burnout.

In summary, structural empowerment is defined as organizational attributes, i.e. the structure of opportunity and the structure of power that enables worker empowerment and leads to positive worker attitudes and outcomes, and is defined as consisting of six elements: the four sources of structural empowerment (Opportunity, Information, Support, Resources) plus the Two additional dimensions (formal power, informal power).

These six dimensions of structural empowerment has been used frequently in research and many other business areas as a construct for structural empowerment, and has shown consistent reliability and validity.

According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), the empowerment process consists of Five stages: The first stage consists into identifying the conditions making employees feel powerless. Stage two consists into developing strategies and tactics to remove those obstacles to employee empowerment. Stage Three consists into using strategies and tactics to provide personal efficacy information directly to employees. In Stage Four, employees experience the feeling of empowerment, thanks to the access to the information provided in Stage Three. In Stage Five the feeling of empowerment experienced by the employee results in an initiation/persistence of behavior to accomplish the task objectives.

2.3. Psychological empowerment

Adopting the psychological perspective, Scott E. Seibert, Gang Wang, and Stephen H. Courting (2011), Conger and Kanungo (1988, p.474) defined empowerment as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information". As a result of receiving such information, subordinates feel empowered in stage four of the empowerment process, as described in section 2.2 above. The behavioral effects of empowerment on employees will be noticed in stage five.

Psychological empowerment, known as well as organic empowerment (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997), is a bottom-up approach (Conger and Kanungo, 1988), focusing on the perception of empowerment by the employee and his inner values. That is delegating the sole authority to the employee to take decisions, will not necessarily results in an outcome improvement for the organization, unless we enhance in him the belief, that he has the capability to take the right decision.

Subsequently, Thomas and Penthouse (1990), Spreitzer (1995,1996), Gkorezis, Panagiotis Petridou, Eugenia (2008), Kevin E. Dickson (2009), defined psychological empowerment as a combination of the following four psychological elements:

- Meaning

ETHICS FOR A SUSTAINABLE SOCIETY TOPIC- WHY ACCOUNTANTS FAIL ETHICS APPLICATION TEST IN ACCOUNTING PROFESSION

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ABSTRACT

The quest for a just and equitable society has been the desire of many people, societies and groups for centuries. The appreciation of this fact resulted in coming together of diverse and similar interest groups and individuals which develop what were regarded as acceptable behaviour, code of conduct, general and specific attitude expected of a member of a society that govern the general conduct of affairs amongst the various members of that group-ethics. With the high-profile corporate scandals that have taken place in recent years, corporate ethics are more important to a business than ever before. The failure of ethical leadership in an organization is very destructive-it demoralizes the workforce, breeds public distrust, and ultimately results in organizational decay. There are times when the right and wrong decisions are obvious. Likewise, there are times when the outcome of taking decision is less clear. In some situations where, if nobody knows one makes the wrong decision, one would benefit financially, emotionally, or otherwise. Ethics help us navigate the gray area between absolute right and morally wrong that we experience in our daily activities. They provide the structure that helps us make a decision we can be proud of. So, ethics are the rules that society must adhere to ensure orderliness and equity. As we have ethics that governs a particular society, so do professional bodies have their own professional codes of ethics which serve as guiding principles in discharge of their duties. But what raises concern for this study is the fact that despite various professional bodies' ethics in place, there is still preponderance of unethical conducts levelled against corporate bodies managed by members of those professional bodies. In fact, most of the professional members of various organizations have been accused of dubious dealings and ethical misconducts in discharge of their duties which make the public to be losing confidence in the products and or members of these professional bodies. Bearing this in mind, one discovers that the tide has affected the noble accounting profession which calls for appraising the situation and identify the lapses. This is due to the fact that many international and local businesses have gone bankrupt due to professional negligence of many accountants who are in the administration, examination, supervision and reporting of events in these organizations. Therefore, this study is aimed at identifying the causes, the consequences and the way forward to achieving a vibrant and ethical accounting profession for professional members and the public.

Keywords: Ethics, professional bodies, corporate scandal, unethical conduct

This research question

WHY ACCOUNTANTS FAIL ETHICS APPLICATION TEST IN ACCOUNTING PROFESSION?

INTRODUCTION

In all professions whether medical, media, logistics, accounting, business, trading, teaching, security or otherwise, ethics remains a critical reference point for legality, truthfulness, uprightness and sincerity of purpose. Ethics is as intrinsic to professional decision-making as are the technical aspects of audiology and speech-language pathology (Jason, 2010). What distinguishes a profession from a trade, or craft, is the profession's mandate that its practitioners adhere to a set of ethical principles and rules of professional conduct (Denton,2013).

In the meantime, it is arguably said that accountants' ethical compliance level attracts more public attention than other professions. As a result, the rate of outcry on unethical attitude of accountants speaks volume of the significance of accounting profession. However, it is common to hear of accountants engaging in unethical conducts which threaten the continuity of organizations where such ethical misconduct occurs. Perhaps that was why former Fijian Prime Minister Commodore Voreqe Bainimarama said in 2010 "The adherence to form over substance and neglect of the moral and the ethical has led to the ENRONs (Fijisun,2010).He said this at the Fiji Institute of Accountants congress meeting of June 11,2010.

Lister (2013) is of opinion that an accountant working in the public or private sector must remain impartial and loyal to ethical guidelines when reviewing a company or individual's financial records for reporting purposes. This is because an accountant frequently encounters ethical issues regardless of the industry and must remain continually vigilant to reduce the chances of outside forces manipulating financial records, which could lead to both ethical and criminal violations. Despite hundreds of pages of policies, codes of ethics, codes of conduct, organizational values, and carefully defined work environments, company cultures, lapses in workplace ethics occur every day (Heathfield, 2013).

It is as a result of realization of the grave consequence of the accountants' failure to comply with ethics and the failure of various accountancy bodies to strictly ensure the compliance with existing codes of conduct that this paper seeks to examine why accountants fail to comply with the ethics of the profession, highlight the consequences of their unethical behaviour and recommend approaches to ameliorate the situation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ETHICS

Business organizations often develop several policies, rules and guidelines for governing their operations. While home-based or sole proprietorship businesses usually require fewer policies, larger organizations use these guidelines to manage employee behaviour. A code of ethics is a common organizational policy used in business organizations. The code of ethics policy usually sets the minimum standards for business owners, managers and employees to follow when completing various business functions (Vitez, 2013). Luca Pacioli, the "Father of Accounting", wrote on accounting ethics in his first book *Summa de arithmetica, geometria, proportioni, et proportionalita*, published in 1494 (Smith, 2008). Ethical standards have since then been developed through government groups, professional organizations, and independent companies. These various groups have led accountants to follow several codes of ethics to perform their duties in a professional work environment. Accountants must follow the code of ethics set out by the professional body of which they belong (Stuart, 2005).

The risks of an ethical misconduct disaster have never been greater due to the complexity of the global business environment than we have now. The scandals and unethical conduct that have occurred globally have taught us that some people deliberately break the law or engage in inappropriate behaviour. Many others never see ethical issues when devising what they think as an innovative scheme for success (Ferrell & Ferrell, 2008). Meanwhile, it is observed that with the high-profile corporate scandals that have taken place in recent years, corporate ethics are more important to a business than ever before (Collins, 2013).

Like most leaders, association executives would likely agree that high ethical standards are important in their organizations (Joseph, 2000). As Adelabu (2011) opines, the world economy in recent times has witnessed series of financial crisis. Similarly, organizations, both locally and globally have also experienced cases of corporate collapse. This can be partly attributed to fraudulent financial reporting and misrepresentation of financial information using various creative accounting techniques. A Code of Ethics is important on many levels. It sets the "tone from the top" of the company's culture. An effective Code of Ethics establishes the ethical expectations for employees and management alike, and sets forth the mechanisms for enforcement and consequences of noncompliance. When the Code is perceived as an integral component of the organization's culture, is understood, followed and enforced, it can provide protection for the organization from the actions of a "rogue employee(s)" (Stuart, 2005).

In general, at a minimum, the Code should contain policies on: conflicts of interest, insider trading, gifts and hospitality, information security and privacy, recordkeeping, cooperation with investigations and audits, and, of course, a "whistleblower" provision. The whistleblower provision establishes procedures whereby employees can report, without fear of reprisal, suspected illegal or unethical activities by others within the organization (Halbert and Ingulli, 2006).

Accounting ethics is primarily a field of applied ethics, the study of moral values and judgments as they apply to accountancy. It is an example of professional ethics. Accounting ethics were first introduced by Luca Pacioli, and later expanded by government groups, professional organizations, and independent companies (Dellaportas, 2006). Similarly, **Professional ethics** encompass the personal, organizational and corporate standards of behaviour expected of professionals. Professionals and those working in acknowledged professions, exercise specialist knowledge and skill (Chardwick, 1998). Professionals are capable of making judgements, applying

their skills and reaching informed decisions in situations that the general public cannot, because they have not received the relevant training (Jackling, et al (2007).

2.4 SOME OF THE ETHICAL CHALLENGES MAKING ACCOUNTANT TO FAIL ETHICAL TEST

In practice, Lister (2013) observes that most of the ethical misconducts of which accountants are accused of are not the direct acts of accountants but as a result of some under-hand influences which may be due to any of the following:

2.4.1 Pressure from Management

The burden for public companies to succeed at high levels may place undue stress and pressure on accountants creating balance sheets and financial statements. The ethical issue for these accountants becomes maintaining true reporting of company assets, liabilities and profits without giving in to the pressure placed on them by management or corporate officers. Unethical accountants could easily alter company financial records and manoeuvre numbers to paint false pictures of company successes. This may lead to short-term prosperity, but altered financial records will ultimately spell the downfall of companies when the fraud is discovered.

2.4.2 Accountant as Whistleblower

An accountant may face the ethical dilemma of reporting discovered accounting violations to the Financial Accounting Standards Board. While it is an ethical accountant's duty to report such violations, the dilemma arises in the ramifications of the reporting.

2.4.3 The Effects of Greed

Greed in the business and finance world leads to shaving ethical boundaries and stepping around safeguards in the name of making more money. An accountant who keeps her eyes on her own bank account more than on her company's balance sheet becomes a liability to the company and may cause real accounting violations, resulting in sanctions from the regulators.

2.4.4 Omission of Financial Records

A corporate officer or other executive may ask an accountant to omit or leave out certain financial figures from a balance sheet that may paint the business in a bad light to the public and investors. Omission may not seem like a significant breach of accounting ethics to an accountant because it does not involve direct manipulation of numbers or records. This is precisely why an accountant must remain ethically vigilant to avoid falling into such a trap.

2.5 THREATS TO THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF ETHICS IN ACCOUNTING

According to ACCA (2013), the fundamental principles of ethics could be threatened in one way or the other.

Threats to ethical standards fall into one or more of the following categories:

- Self-interest- the interests of a family member or relations or friend to influence judgement.
- Self-review- knows that no one else (who would challenge one objectively) would be reviewing the book entries before the manipulation is perfected.
- Advocacy- promoting oneself /situation beyond its merit
- Familiarity- ethical misconduct may be either due to complacency or familiarity that has developed over a period of time between two or more people.
- Intimidation- influences in relation to one's job security and career progression.

Threats may be created by a range of circumstances. These circumstances can include relationships between various people such as the following:

- Colleagues
- Friends
- Managers
- Clients
- Former clients or colleagues
- Regulatory or legal agencies

Threats can serve to compromise, or be perceived to compromise, a professional accountant's compliance with the fundamental principles of ethics. Fundamental principles of ethics can be threatened in a number of ways depending on the circumstances. Majorly, the accountants' worldwide failure of the ethics test in their various organizations could be linked to self-interests, self-review, intimidation, advocacy and familiarity.

2.7 THE WAYS OUT OF ACCOUNTING ETHICAL MISCONDUCTS AND CORPORATE SCANDALS

Having a good knowledge of the law and applying fundamental principles of professional ethics may not in every instance provide sufficient guidance on what exactly to do. Personal values and personal integrity play a part in the process. ACCA (2013) suggests that to mitigate the effect of ethical failures in accounting, the following should be employed:

2.7.1 Safeguards in the work place

These might include:

- Strong ethical leadership;
- Strong internal controls, such as review procedures and internal audit;
- Timely communication of policies and procedures relating to ethical behaviour (and any changes to them);
- Policies and procedures to deal with illegal or unethical behaviour, and threats to the fundamental principles;
- Appropriate and rigorous recruitment procedures;
- Well-established and understood consultation procedures within the organisation;
- Effective and well-publicised complaints system; and
- Engagement of specific safeguards, including quality control procedures and the selection of the assignment team.

2.7.2 Safeguards created by the individual

These might include:

- Complying with one's own training and development requirements;
- Maintaining a record of ethical dilemmas encountered and steps taken to resolve them; and
- Consulting with colleagues, legal advisers or one's professional body as appropriate (always being mindful of the fundamental principle of confidentiality).

2.8 DETERMINANTS OF WHY ACCOUNTANTS FAIL ETHICAL TEST

2.8.1 Rules vs. Principles

According to ACCA (2013), individual conduct and behaviour should be guided either by rules or principles. This is an important debate in accounting regulation and in financial reporting. For clarity, we need to define what is meant by these terms:

- **A rule** externally compels someone, through force, threat or punishment, to do the things someone else has deemed good or right. People obey or break rules.

- *A **principle** internally motivates people to do the things that seem good and right. People develop principles by working and living with people with similar principles and seeing the positive consequences and real benefits of appropriate conduct.*

Failures in accounting and financial reporting in the cases of Enron, WorldCom, Parmalat and the global banking crisis were not necessarily due to accountants breaking rules and regulations, but to a lack of consideration of the broader consequences of the effect of rule and principle breaking by these accountants. Practices such as ‘creative accounting’ are based on a belief that as long as the ‘letter’ of the law and accounting regulations are complied with, then all is well. This demonstrates a fundamentally immature attitude to ethics and business. This attitude perceives rules as barriers or obstacles to be overcome and fails to recognise that wider principles are usually involved. This is not a view which is morally or ethically acceptable.

2.8.2 Personal Values

Personal values relate to standards of behaviour that human beings should uphold in the many situations in which they find themselves, as friends, parents, children, citizens, teachers, professionals, etc. Many philosophers and ethicists have tried to answer these critical questions. They have suggested different sources of ethical standards as follows:

2.8.3 Consequentialism

A popular way of viewing personal ethics is to consider the consequences of decisions or your actions for other people and yourself. Using this theory, it is necessary to consider the effect decisions will have and attempt to evaluate these effects. Generally, this way of thinking determines that an action is right if it leads to the most benefit or ‘pleasure’ and the least ‘pain’ for the greatest number of people. This is sometimes known as ‘utilitarianism’ (ACCA, 2013).

2.8.4 Duty to others

Another view of personal ethics is based on duty to others. It determines what is right by examining the behaviour or the act itself, rather than the consequences of the behaviour as in consequentialism above. In this approach to ethics, people are expected to behave out of a duty to act according to the rules and obligations as generally expected by society or by the profession to which someone may belong. A simple way to understand the difference between these two ethical perspectives is to think of lying as an act. Consequentialists might consider a lie to be ethical in certain situations, but only if by doing so more benefits than harm would come to all those involved. Under the duty to others perspective, lying would always be thought of as being wrong within most societies.

2.8.5 Mirror test

Once you have ensured that your behaviour complies with legal requirements and professional standards, you can use a reflective approach or a ‘mirror test’ to apply these ethical perspectives in quite a practical way. The mirror test reinforces the idea that you are responsible for your own behaviour and you must therefore consider both the consequences of your actions and their moral acceptability before you act (ACCA, 2013).

CONCLUSION

Despite hundreds of pages of policies, codes of ethics, codes of conduct, organizational values, and carefully defined work environments, company cultures, lapses in workplace ethics occur every day. Lapses in workplace ethics result from inappropriate officer behaviour such as insider stock trading, expense account fraud, sexual harassment, and involvement in conflicts of interest. Lapses in workplace ethics do not need to rise to that level to impact the workplace environment organizations provide for employees though. Lapses in workplace ethics can occur because of simple issues such as toilet paper, unauthorized surfing, copy machines, and lunch signup lists.

Some failures to practice every day workplace ethics are invisible. Even the smallest lapse in workplace ethics diminishes the quality of the workplace for all employees. The immutable fact is that everybody has the tendency to behave unethically. However, the decision of when, whether, the extent and how to behave ethically or otherwise is a function of the internal control system an organization puts in place to forestall dubious practice as well as the organization culture, ethical codes, leadership qualities and the employees' welfare scheme the organization puts in place for its workforce to promote organizational values and the interests of stakeholders. So, based on the foregoing facts, some accountants play safe and smart by engaging in unethical ways which tarnish the image of accounting profession if made public, lead to loss of corporate reputation if financial loss results, job loss if there is unsustainable loss from the consequence of the unethical act and bad records for the culprits. Therefore, the accountants' failure in ethical test is a catastrophic end for the accounting profession resulting from inability of all stakeholders to enforce the ethics without fear or favour.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Whether it is a team, small group, or a large international entity, the ability for any organization to reason, act rationally, and respond ethically is paramount. The implementation should be done accordingly to the entire areas of operations within the organization. If it is not implemented pragmatically and with empathic caution for the needs, desires, and personalities (consider the Big Five personality traits-openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.) of the stakeholders, or the culture, then unethical views may be taken by the stakeholders, or even unethical behaviour throughout the organization. Further, it is leadership that has to be able to influence the **stakeholders** by presenting the strong minority voice in order to move the organization's members towards ethical behaviour. Therefore, stakeholder management, as well as, any other leadership of organizations have to take upon themselves the arduous task of ensuring an "ethics system" for their own management styles, personalities, systems, performances, plans, policies, strategies, productivity, openness, and even risk(s) within their cultures or industries.

As suggested by Bankersonline (2002), the following are right steps to ensure employees follow ethical standards;

- Review your Code of Ethics. If you don't have one, take steps immediately to develop a Code of Ethics.
- Work from the top down and the bottom up. Find out what the Board of Directors and Senior Management expect from staff. Also find out what staff thinks the prevailing ethics standards are in your institution. If there is a gap, you need to take steps to close it.
- There is more to ethics than ethics. Consumer protection laws set a standard for customer treatment. Look at your most recent compliance audits and examination reports for issues relating to ethics.
- Review and revise your Code of Ethics. Use a team whenever possible. Make sure that the management of the Code is ongoing and active.
- Ask the ultimate question: if all the facts and circumstances regarding the matter were made public, would the employee involved and the organization be proud to be associated with the activity? If the answer is yes, you've done a good job.

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EVALUATION ON THE LINUS PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

LINUS is a program implemented by the Malaysia Ministry of Education in primary (elementary) schools nationwide to increase literacy skills of students in Year 1 to 3. This study aimed at assessing the LINUS program implemented since 2010. Model of Critical Literacy by Freebody and Luke (1990) was applied in this study. Reading and writing tests were developed from the Module of LINUS program and conducted on 120 students from three different types of schools, namely National Schools, National-type Chinese Schools and National-type Tamil Schools. The results showed that the level of reading and writing of students was average. One-way ANOVA tests showed significant differences between ethnic and type of schools with the reading and writing proficiency of the students; students of National Schools scored the highest in reading test whereas the students of National-type Chinese School performed the best in writing test. In contrast, family SES of the students did not influence their reading and writing proficiency. Therefore, teachers should take into account ethnic and type of schools in implementing the LINUS program as the main factors determining the level of literacy, achievement and success of the LINUS program.

Keywords: LINUS, Model of Critical Literacy, national schools, national-type schools

INTRODUCTION

The education system in Malaysia strides rapidly over the development of the country in the present millennium. The Government, through the Ministry of Education has designed and implemented various sustainable changes towards realizing the aspirations of being a developed country by year 2020. Changes in the educational arena in the country are beginning to show the results in policies, acts, or reports such as the National Education Policy, Razak Report 1956, Rahman Talib Report 1960, the National Language Act 1967, the Cabinet Committee Report 1979, and the New Education Act 1996.

Statement of the Problem

The existing system of education in Malaysia such as primary education system, secondary education system, and the higher education system has expanded rapidly in line with the National Education Philosophy, namely to produce balanced students physically, emotionally, spiritually and intellectually. Nowadays, the national education expanded through system of pre-school education or system of early childhood education. Through this system, children will be introduced to the school system since the age of 4 years old with an emphasis on literacy proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Rationalization of teaching early literacy is to ensure that children have mastered the basic skills before the start of schooling in Year 1. This is to ensure the continuity of the learning session as weakness in mastering the basic literacy skills of the students will have an impact on their learning process (Master Plan of Development Education 2006-2010, 2006).

According to the *Master Plan of Development Education 2006-2010* (2006), lower primary students who suffer from academic deficit decreased from 9.1% in 2003 to 7.7% in 2004; while in 2005 it was found that 4.4% of the students in primary schools still have not mastered reading skills. This report has shown the improvement in the literacy rate causing the Ministry of Education take appropriate action to eliminate the problem of mastering reading skills in order to be reduced to zero.

On the other hand, according to the *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025* (2013), the numbers of students who performed below minimum score of TIMSS assessment in the skill of reading was more than double that of the OECD countries. Literacy laid the foundation for learning in primary education and beyond. Reading and writing are implicit in the basic right to education. Without these abilities, it is nearly impossible for students to attain higher education and survive in modern society. Literacy skills are crucial to a person's ability to develop fully as an individual, to live a satisfying and rewarding life and to participate fully in our society.

In response to this demand, the transition class was conducted by remedial teachers in schools. This remedial education is a special program in the form of teaching and learning activities to help students with learning problems such as lack of basic literacy skills in the classroom.

After realizing the problems that occur cannot be resolved through remedial classes alone, the Ministry of Education has introduced the program of KIA2M or Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing. The program is designed to help the low performing students, especially the students in Year One to master the basic skills of reading and writing. The program was implemented full-time based by the Malay language teachers at Year One nationwide in both National Primary Schools and National-type Primary Schools (Concept Paper on Implementation of Intervention Class on Early Reading and Writing, 2005). In Malaysia the National schools have Malay language as the medium of instruction while National-type schools use an ethnic group mother tongue (Chinese or Tamil) as the medium of instruction.

Data of the remedial students in the school who 'recovered' after the intervention program of KIA2M indicated that this program had not managed to put all the students who followed the class into the right track. Out of 53,544 primary school children who followed the intervention program, only 28,801 students or 53.8% had been restored and can master the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic (Planning and Researching on Education Policy Division (BPPDP), MOE, 2001). The latest data show that 105,255 (23%) of the total 463,990 students have not mastered reading skills in July, 2008 (BPPDP, MOE, 2008).

After that, since 2010, this program was replaced by the LINUS program. LINUS is an acronym of the Literacy and Numeracy Screening Program and useful to help the students in primary schools, in Phase One starting from Year One to Year Three who drop off in the mastery of basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. All Year One teachers who teach Malay language are required to attend the courses of instruction and learning of the module of LINUS beginning in 2010 conducted by the Teacher Education Division, Ministry of Education. This program was implemented in all National Primary Schools, National-type Chinese Schools and National-type Tamil Schools. There are three stages of the filter, namely filters 1 (in Year One), Filter 2 (in Year Two), and Filter 3 (in Year Three).

The entire first-year students at the beginning of the school session are required to sit for the first filter test. Based on the results of the diagnostic test, students will be classified as candidates for the intervention LINUS program or not. Usage of this screening test is to identify the students who need to attend intervention class to learn the reading and writing skills by mastering the 12 reading skills constructs. The LINUS program is run entirely by the Malay language teacher in Year 1. Teachers who run the program will isolate the year 1 students who fail in the screening test to follow this intervention program (Module of LINUS, 2010).

Thus, the literacy education in Malaysia, especially in Malay Language is becoming an important subject in school because the literacy program has been programmed formally under the LINUS program and also became the government's strategy in the National Key Result Area (NKRA). Its mission is to develop high literacy skills among the students, namely the literate youths with competitive and dedicate as the frontier of year 2020 (Khairuddin, 2011).

To avoid wastage in education, early exploration of the LINUS program is needed to determine the reading and writing level of the students. It helps the poor students to improve their potential so that they can become useful citizens in the future.

Ethnic is a main factor that affects the language learning of the students. Studies conducted by Dixon et al. (2012), Marielle et al. (2013), Hopewell and Escamilla (2014), and Lopez et.al (2015) found that ethnic factor affects literacy skills and language development of preschool students. Research on reading intervention class done by the Education Planning Division, Ministry of Education (2002) found that the difficulty faced by the intervention students, especially students in Years 1 to master the skills of reading and understanding is due to lack of exposure to the usage of Malay language, influence of the native languages and dialects of the students. All of these variables also influence the language proficiency which involves reading and understanding the reading text.

Mahzan et al. (2009) demonstrated the importance of ethnic diversity and languages in Malaysia in improving reading ability and reading comprehension of written materials; interest of the students is different and they are

more likely to read the literature consisting of native language and their own ethnic background than reading the literature of other ethnic since childhood. These problems persist until adulthood. Accordingly, the study done by Marielle et al. (2013) also revealed that maternal language use was related to ethnic language vocabulary.

Growing concern has been expressed regarding achievement gaps in language that appear to be correlated to learners' socio-economic status (SES). Findings by Wilson et al. (2013), Marielle et al. (2013), and Solari et al. (2014) showed the significant impact of SES on academic outcomes for the kindergarten students. Their results showed that the children from low SES had very low levels of language and literacy skills scores. Hasnalee and Zulkifley (2011) found that parents from low-income households will focus more on finding income for basic needs than paying particular attention to their children's academic development. According to Marielle et al (2013), during the transition to formal reading education, one should be aware that children from low-SES families receive less host language reading input; furthermore, the research done by Kuhl (2011) found that SES should be considered a proxy for the opportunity to learn and that the complexity of language input is a significant factor in developing brain areas related to language.

Therefore, this study aims at finding out whether the factors of ethnicity, type of school and SES contribute to literacy rate differentials among the students in three different types of primary schools in Malaysia.

Objective of the Study

The study objectives are as in the following:

- i Find out the reading and writing level of students who have completed the LINUS program.
- ii. Investigate the significant differences between the ethnic, the type of schools and family income on the reading and writing proficiency of the students in the LINUS program.

Research Questions

Based on the given objectives, the study is designed to answer the following research questions:

- i. What is the level of reading and writing of students in the LINUS program?
- ii. Are there significant differences between the ethnics, type of schools, and family income on reading and writing proficiency in the LINUS program?

Theoretical Framework

In literacy research, the Model of Critical Literacy (Freebody & Luke, 1990; Luke & Freebody, 1997) make the point that 'literate' people adopt four 'resource roles'. These four roles are resource: code breaker, meaning maker, user text, and text analysis.

The 'code breaker' role includes basic skills associated with knowing the technology of the written symbols of the language, and understanding the relationship between spoken and written symbols. With respect to the nature of sound-symbol relationships in English Language (Bahasa Inggeris), the degree of consonant clustering and the diversity of Bahasa Inggeris vocabulary together are associated with the necessity for an alphabetic or at least semi-alphabetic script.

The "meaning maker" role involves learners bringing their technology of code-breaking to the different structure of the various types of text they encounter and the experiences portrayed in those texts. The learners participate in meaningful understanding and composing written, visual, and spoken texts, taking into account each text's interior meaning systems in relation to their available knowledge and their experiences of other cultural discourses, texts, and meaning systems (Luke & Freebody, 1999).

The "user text" role means that in addition to participating in text, learners must also assume the role of using text of variety of situations, each with a different socio-cultural purpose. A successful reader is able to participate in social activities in which those written texts play a central part. Not only do people learn about the technology of the script and about how to work out the meaning or possible meanings of written texts, but they also learn through social experiences what our culture counts to be adequate reading for school, work, leisure, or civil

purposes. Being a successful text-user, then, entails developing and maintaining resources for participating in “what this text is for, here and now” (Freebody, 1992).

Finally, the “text analyst” role involves learning how to critically examine the text in order to gain understandings about sub-surface influences and themes and to find out why texts are written in particular ways to achieve particular effects. All discourse entails a particular construction or version of its readership with respect not only to the degree of assumed knowledge topic, but also to more dispositional resources such as the ideological position of the reader (Freebody et al., 1991).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework developed in this study is related to literacy skills in reading and writing in Malay Language in terms of aspects of children's level of mastery such as the tested knowledge, reading and writing competencies in three primary schools according to the variables of ethnics, school types and SES as shown in figure 1 and 2. Related skills are taught through the LINUS program that was implemented in all national primary schools in Malaysia nowadays. Based on this phonetic system, the Ministry of Education developed a module LINUS according the Model of Critical Literacy skills so that the students will master the reading and writing skills at the satisfactory level.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework on Reading Skills in Malay Language

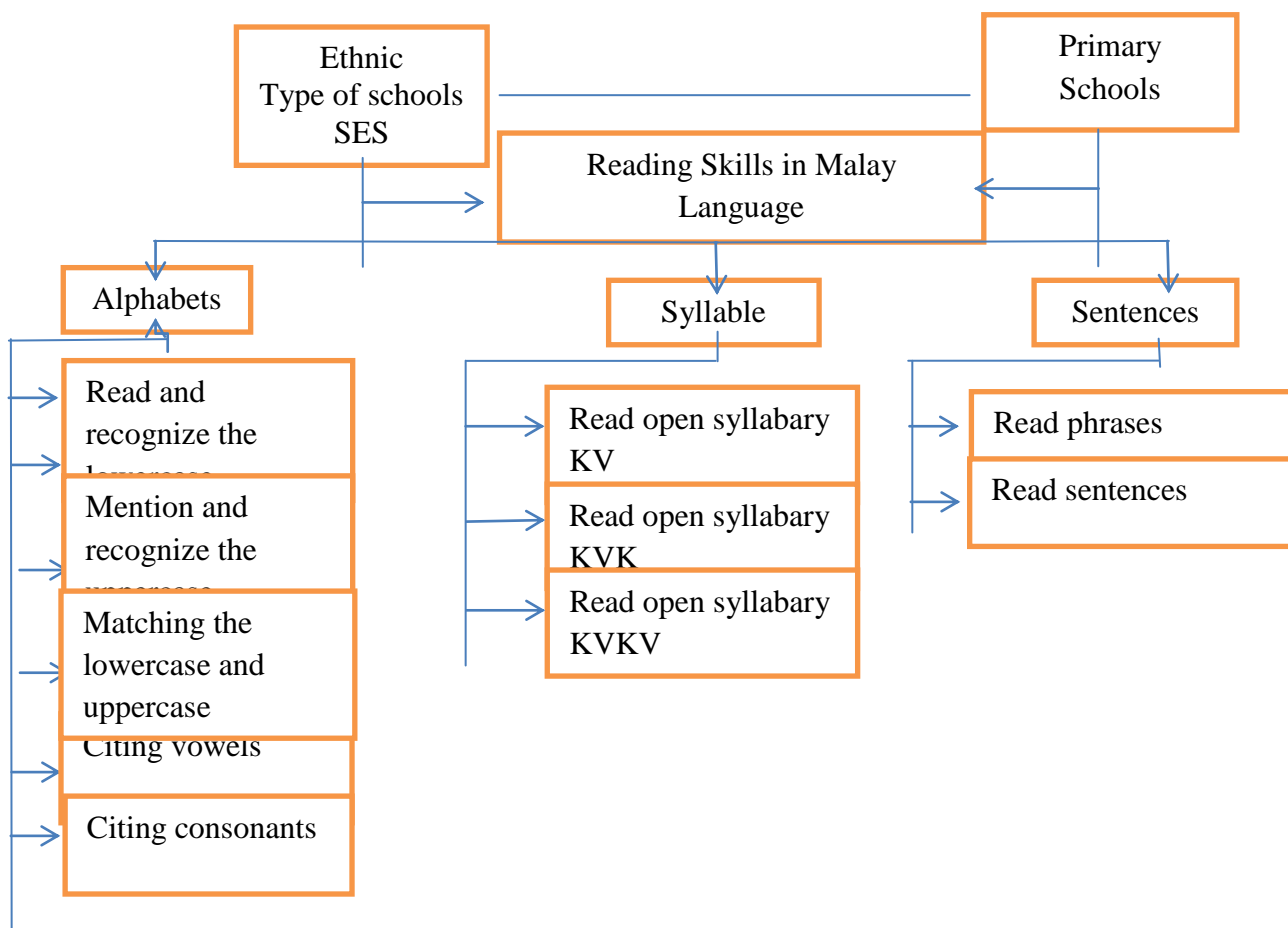
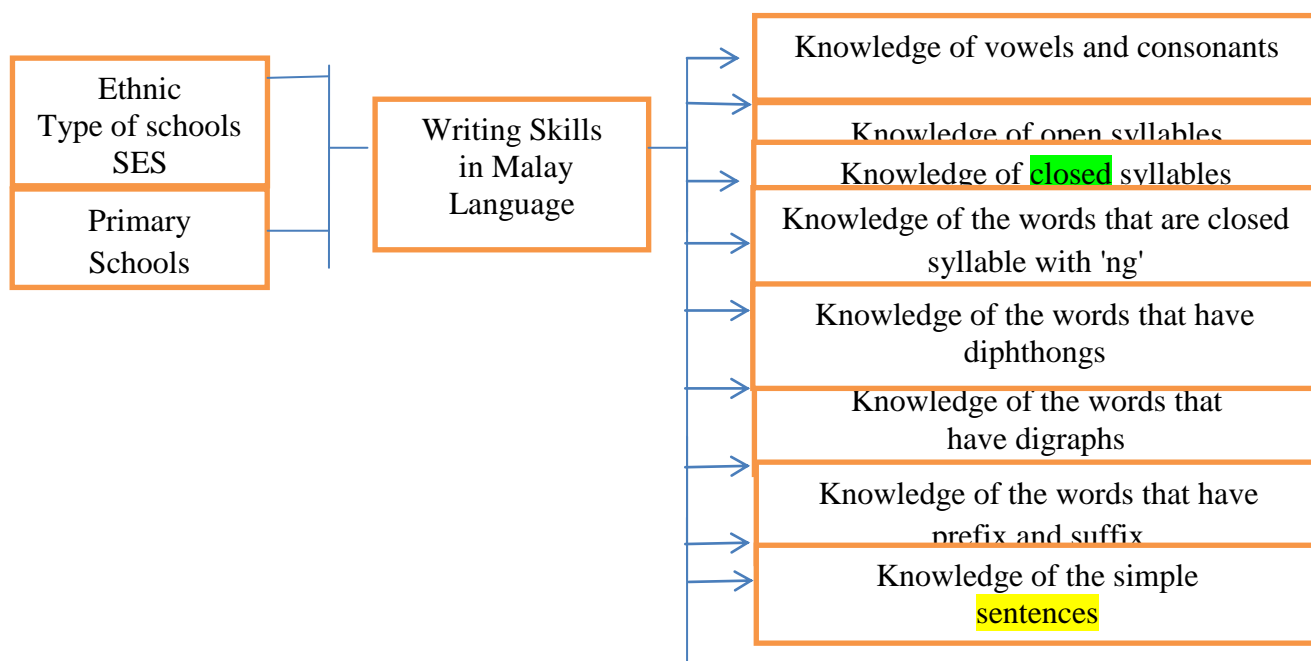


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework on Writing Skills in Malay Language



METHODOLOGY

This study applied the evaluation methods to study the Malay language literacy among the students in stage two at national primary schools and national-type primary schools. Evaluation study is one of the most popular research methods of measurement and assessment in various fields, especially in the social sciences.

Location, Population and Sample

Petaling District is one of the nine districts in the state of Selangor Darul Ehsan. Petaling District is divided into four main sub districts, namely Bukit Raja, Damansara, Petaling, and Sungai Buloh. Petaling District is also divided into two, namely Petaling Jaya and Petaling Utama. A total of 105 National Primary Schools, 20 National-type Primary Schools (Chinese), and 16 National-type Primary Schools (Tamil) are found in Petaling district. This study was conducted in only three schools, namely National School of Puchong Perdana, National-type School (Tamil) of Vivekananda and National-type School (Chinese) Yoke Nam. One LINUS class was randomly selected from each school for the purpose of evaluation in this study. Therefore, the researcher has 120 students in total from these three schools which consisted of various ethnic, religious, and both genders in this study.

Research Instruments

Reading and writing test was modified based on the Model of Critical Literacy (Freebody & Luke, 1990; Luke & Freebody, 1997) and the screening test of LINUS program made by the Ministry of Education to suit this study.

In the reading test, there are 12 divisions consisting 66 items as below:

Division 1: Ability to name a vowel (5 items) and consonants (10 items)

Division 2: Ability to read the open syllables (5 items)

Division 3: Ability to read the words that contain open syllables (5 items)

Division 4: Ability to read the closed syllables (5 items)

Division 5: Ability to read the words containing closed syllables (4 items)
 Division 6: Ability to read the words containing the closed syllable of 'ng' (5 items)
 Division 7: Ability to read the words containing diphthongs (5 items)
 Division 8: Ability to read the words containing vowels (5 items)
 Division 9: Ability to read the words containing digraph and combined consonant (5 items)
 Division 10: Ability to read the words containing prefix and suffix (5 items)
 Division 11: Ability to read the simple sentences (4 items)
 Division 12 constructs: Ability to read and understand the stimuli material (3 questions)

Writing test consists of 12 divisions containing 65 items as below:

- Division 1a. Write the vowel given by teacher (5 items).
 1b. Write consonants called by the teacher. (10 items)
 2. Complete the word by drawing (5 items).
 3. Write the word on the picture (5 items).
 4. Complete the word by drawing (5 items)
 5. Write the word on the picture (5 items)
 6. Write the word on the picture (5 items)
 7. Write the word on the picture (5 items)
 8. Arrange the letters to form words by drawing (5 items)
 9. Write the word on the picture (5 items)
 10. Write the word on the picture (5 items)
 11. Arrange words to be correct sentence (3 items)
 12. Write a paragraph on the image (2 items)

The reading and writing tests were then checked for content validity by two LINUS teachers and a LINUS main coach at school. A pilot study was carried out to obtain the reliability of the items in the LINUS instrument. This pilot study was conducted among the 30 Year 4 students in a National-type Schools (Tamil) in Negeri Sembilan. Results of the study found that a Cronbach alpha value was at .70 level. Some items in the questionnaire were not understood and difficult to be answered by the respondents. Thus, the researcher has restructured them with some improvement in the questionnaire.

Demographics of Respondents

Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 1. Demographic background of respondents

Descriptions (<i>n</i> =120)	<i>f</i>	%
Gender		
Male	56	46.7
Female	64	53.3
Ethnic		
Malays	20	16.7
Chinese	51	42.5
Indians	46	38.3
Others	3	2.5
Types of Schools		
National Primary Schools	40	33.3
National-type Chinese Primary Schools	40	33.3
National-type Tamil Primary Schools	40	33.3
Family's monthly income		
RM 1 000 – RM 2 500	34	28.3
RM 2 501 – RM 5 000	56	46.7
> RM 5 000	30	25.0

Table 1 shows that the number of male was 56 (46.7%) compared to 64 (53.3%) female students. This showed the number of female respondents exceed by 8 the number of male respondents.

The distribution according to ethnic showed that most respondents were Chinese with 51 students (42.5%); followed by Indian with a total of 46 students (38.3%); Malay only consisted of 20 students (16.7%), only 3 students (2.5%) were from other ethnic groups. The distribution of the various ethnics was due to the involvement of three different schools by ethnic. Even so, the number of Malay students was fewer than the Chinese and Indian students because of the Chinese and Indians who studied at the National School was more than the number of Malays in National-type schools.

There were three schools involved in the study, namely National Schools, National-Type Chinese School and National-Type Tamil Schools. Each school involved 40 respondents (33.33%) respectively. Amount is assigned the same from each school to facilitate the analysis process in order to avoid bias.

In terms of family income, it was found that the parents of 34 students (28.3%) had a total monthly income of between RM1,000-RM2,500. Parents who receive a monthly income of RM2501-RM5000 were represented by 56 students (46.7%), while parents who achieved a total of income exceeding RM5001 were represented by 30 students (25.0%). The findings showed that overall, respondents in this study came from low-income and intermediate-income families.

FINDINGS

Research Question 1: What is the level of reading and writing of students in the LINUS program?

Reading and writing level of the students in the LINUS program based on the Ministry of Education standard was as follows: A (80-100%), B (60-79%), C (50-59%), D (40-49%) , E (0-39%).

Table 2: Reading Score in LINUS Program among the Students

Score (n=120)	<i>f</i>	%
38	1	.8
48	1	.8
50	2	1.7
53	2	1.7
55	2	1.7
56	1	.8
58	4	3.3
59	4	3.3
60	3	2.5
61	4	3.3
62	7	5.8
63	8	6.7
64	5	4.2
65	76	63.3
Total	120	100

Based on Table 2, the reading levels of the surveyed students was at a moderate level. There was one (0.08%) student who failed under grade E with a score of 38%, a student received a grade of D (48%), 15 (12.5%) students obtained a grade C with scores ranging from 50% to 59%, whereas 103 (85.8%) students gained grade B with scores ranging from 60 to 65%, in which score 65% is the highest mode and score obtained.

Table 3: Writing Score in LINUS Program among the Students

Score (n=120)	<i>f</i>	%
37	1	.8
42	1	.8
47	2	1.7
49	1	.8
50	2	1.7
52	1	.8
54	3	2.5
55	2	1.7
56	1	.8
58	3	2.5
59	3	2.5
60	2	1.7
61	5	4.2
62	8	6.7
63	16	13.3
64	19	15.8
65	15	41.7
Total	120	100

The writing level of the researched students was at a moderate level also. One student (0.08%) failed with a score of 37%, four (3.33%) students were under grade D with scores ranging from 42% to 49%, 15 (12.5%) students obtained Grade C with scores range from 50% to 59% , whereas 100 (83.33%) students obtained grade B with scores ranging from 60 to 65%, of which 65% was the mode score and the highest score obtained.

Research questions 2: Are there significant differences between ethnic, type of school, and family income with the level of reading and writing in the LINUS program?

Table 4 displays the results of ANOVA for reading skills according to socioeconomic background.

Table 4: Analysis of One Way ANOVA Comparing the Reading Skills of Students According to Social Background

Variables		Mean	SD		Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Ethnics	Malays	64.70	.80	Between groups	341.13	3	113.71	7.56	.00*
	Chinese	64.02	2.30	Among groups	1745.67	116	15.05		
	Indians	60.78	5.70	Total	2086.80	119			
	Others	64.33	1.15						
Types of schools	NS	64.30	2.03	Between groups	328.85	2	164.42	10.94	.00*
	NCS	63.82	2.36	Among groups	1757.95	117	14.01		
	NTS	60.57	5.95	Total	2086.80	119			
SES	Low	62.41	5.43	Between groups	43.31	2	20.66	1.18	.31
	Intermediate	62.66	4.07	Among groups	2045.49	117	17.48		
	High	63.90	2.35	Total	2086.80	119			

Note. NS: National Schools/ NCS: National-type Chinese Schools/ NTS: National-type Tamil Schools

One-way ANOVA test in Table 4 show there were significant differences ($F(3, 116) = 7.56, p < .05$) between and within the ethnics of the students. This indicates that there was significant difference in mean reading proficiency score among students according to ethnicity. This also means that the mean score of reading among the students in primary schools was influenced by their ethnic group, with Malays who score the best ($M 64.70, SD .80$), followed by the others ($M 64.33, SD 1.15$), and the Chinese ($M 64.02, SD 2.30$), whereas the Indians ($M 60.78, SD 5.70$) scored the least.

One-way ANOVA test also showed that there were significant differences between school types $F(2, 117) = 10.94, p < .05$ with reading levels in LINUS program students. This shows that there were significant differences between the reading tests in LINUS program according to type of schools. It also proved that the different types of schools gave effect to the reading proficiency of students in LINUS. Reading levels for students of national schools was found the highest ($M 64.30, SD 2.03$), followed by national-type Chinese students ($M 63.82, SD 2.36$), and finally national-type Tamil school students ($M 62.90, SD 4.19$).

Besides that, one-way ANOVA tests showed there were no significant differences between and within groups of students' reading level and family income with $F(2, 117) = 1.18, p > .05$. This indicates that there were no significant differences in reading proficiency among the students in all primary schools with their family income. In other words, the reading score of students in the primary schools in the LINUS program was not influenced by their family income. The highest reading level obtained by the students from families high income families ($M 63.90, SD 2.35$), followed by intermediate-income ($M 62.66, SD 4.07$), and low-income family ($M 62.41, SD 5.43$). This means that the students who have high SES background family tend to get a higher reading score and vice versa.

Table 5: Analysis of One Way Anova Comparing Writing Skills of Students According to their Socioeconomic Background

Variables		Mean	SD		Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnics	Malays	62.90	3.63	Between groups	411.65	3	137.22	6.18	.00*
	Chinese	63.65	2.49	Among groups	2575.81	116	22.20		
	Indians	59.76	6.69	Total	2987.47	119			
	Others	65.00	.00						
Types of schools	NS	62.78	3.59	Between groups	421.72	2	210.86	9.62	.00*
	NCS	63.95	1.90	Among groups	2565.75	117	21.93		
	NTS	59.50	7.02	Total	2987.47	119			
SES	Low	61.21	5.91	Between groups	97.11	2	48.56	1.97	1.45
	Intermediate	61.79	5.23	Among groups	2890.35	117	24.70		
	High	63.57	2.82	Total	2987.47	119			

Note. NS National Schools

NCS National-type Chinese Schools

NTS National-type Tamil Schools

ANOVA test in Table 5 shows there were significant differences ($F(3, 116) = 6.18, p < .05$) between and within the ethnics of the students. This indicates that there were significant differences in mean score of writing proficiency among students according to ethnicity. This also means that the mean score of reading among the students in primary schools was influenced by their ethnic origin; the other ethnics gained the highest score ($M 65.00, SD .00$), followed by the Chinese ($M 63.65, SD 2.49$), and the Malays ($M 62.90, SD 3.63$), whereas the Indians ($M 59.76, SD 6.69$) scored the least.

ANOVA also showed that there were significant differences between school types ($F(2, 1) = 9.62, p < .05$) and the students' writing level in the LINUS program. This showed that there were significant differences between the writing tests in LINUS according to the type of schools. It also proved that the different types of schools influenced the writing proficiency among the students in LINUS program. The highest level of writing test scores was attained by the National-type Chinese Schools ($M 63.95, SD 1.90$), followed by students of the National schools ($M 62.78, SD 3.59$), and finally students of the National-type Tamil School ($M 59.50, SD 7.02$).

Besides that, one-way ANOVA tests showed there were no significant differences between and within the students' writing level and family income with $F(2, 117) = 1.97, p > .05$. This indicates that there was no significant difference in writing proficiency among the students in all primary schools with their family income. In other words, the writing mean score in LINUS program of the students in primary schools was not influenced by their family income. The highest mean score of writing, however, was obtained by students from high SES family ($M 63.57, SD 2.82$), followed by intermediate SES ($M 61.79, SD 5.23$), and the lowest by low SES family

(M 61.21, SD 5.91). This meant that students who came from rich families tend to get a higher score in writing tests and vice versa, although the difference was not significant.

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

The findings showed that the level of reading and writing of the students was satisfactory. Only one (0.08%) student in this study failed in reading and writing tests; more than 80% of the students gained grade B in the tests, but the highest score was only 65% for both reading and writing tests. Thus it meant that student achievement in these tests was average.

The findings indicate that the students have mastered reading and writing skills averagely through the LINUS program implemented in the schools. Based on the Model of Critical Literacy by Freebody and Luke (1990), students learn the skills of reading and writing through four stages, namely the code breaker, meaning maker, user text, and text analysis. The findings of this study showed that after following the LINUS program for three years, the majority of students have mastered the basic literacy skills through the four stages. This was because the instrument was designed to assess and LINUS program was implemented according to the syllabus based on the Model of Critical Literacy. Students could not answer the test questions if they failed to break the code of the words, made the meanings from the picture provided to make words and phrases, made use of the text to read and analyze writing to achieve the objectives.

According to Hasnalee (2012), LINUS teachers must possess the expertise to determine student readiness, besides being clear about the level of guidance needed to be delivered to the LINUS students. Additionally, it will be valuable for the LINUS teachers to acquire the psycholinguistics method of teaching which emphasizes mental ability and mastery of language. This teaching method can have a deep impact on the LINUS students' reading and comprehension skills. Studies conducted by Abdul Jalil et al. (2011) stated that teachers should use effective teaching strategies and plans to attract the students. This condition also made students willing to follow the LINUS class that helped them increase their potential and gain knowledge from the LINUS teachers.

On the other hand, LINUS modules based on the phonetic system emphasize repeating closed and open phonemes every day to help the students master the skills of reading and understanding the words, phrases, and sentences, then build up the writing skills, especially among the poor students. The results of this study showed that the module was effective in achieving its goals. The results support those from the study done by Liu and Todd (2014) that the repeated reading practice should be best implemented vis-à-vis the purposes of L2 reading and vocabulary learning. Pillinger and Wood (2014) revealed repeated reading will increase the improvements of the kindergarten children in writing vocabulary and word reading scores.

Through the LINUS program, the writing proficiency of the students especially the students of National-Type Chinese School improved. According to Juriah Long (2012), the diversity approach has assisted students in writing and one of the effective approaches was the process approach which emphasized the writing process, namely prewriting, writing and revising drafts. Through this approach, the students will engage actively in small groups in order to realize the writing process and it resulted in improved writing proficiency especially for the students who attend the LINUS class.

One-way ANOVA analysis found significant differences between the ethnic and type of schools with the reading and writing level of the students under the LINUS program, except for the SES factor. This suggested that the differences of ethnic and type of schools influenced the proficiency of reading and writing among the LINUS program students.

In terms of ethnic, Malay students gained the highest mean score in the reading tests whereas the Chinese students scored the highest in the writing tests; the Indian students have the lowest mean score in both tests. For Malay students, Malay language is their native language, thus the reading did not become a major problem; so they got the best results in reading with correct pronunciation.

The results of this study were found similar to the findings by Lopez et al. (2015) who found that reading achievement for students in monolingual of English classroom and developmental bilingual classrooms was stronger than that for students in dual language classrooms. This meant that the students who studied in monolingual environment such as National Schools that the Malay language become the medium of instruction,

will capture the language more effectively than the students who learn trilingual in National-Type Chinese Schools (Chinese, Malay and English) and National-Type Tamil Schools (Tamil, Malay and English); this is because the National Schools engage in a wide variety of oral language and literacy activities. This study also showed significant differences between reading achievement of students in schools with monolingual and multilingual schools. This is different from the finding by Lopez et al. (2014) that reading achievement for the English learners was not significantly different than that for native English-speaking students.

The irony was that writing skills mastered by the Chinese students was found to be more successful; this situation is closely related to the attitude of the Chinese students who are learning Malay language in earnest in order to obtain excellent results in the UPSR (public examination in Year 6) later. Malay language as the national language is a compulsory pass subject for all the students for boarding secondary schools and institutions of higher education. Therefore, usually the Chinese students will concentrate on mastering the basic writing skills in Malay language that is the major assessment component of the subject. Good academic results among the Chinese students were closely related to their attitude of diligence, hard work and dedication due to the intense competition in the examination. This finding supported that of Lan et al. (2011) and Lindholm-Leary (2011) in the US. Lan et al. revealed that Chinese children outperformed American children on inhibition and attentional control tasks; Lindholm-Leary's (2011) study showed that the Chinese students achieve above grade-level norms and higher than their same school and state peers in English while continuing to develop proficiency skills in Chinese.

In terms of school type, different schools affect the students' score in the reading and writing tests; students in National Schools showed the best performance in the reading tests, whereas the National-Type Chinese School students showed the highest achievement in the writing tests. This situation showed that the teachers in national schools emphasized more on reading skills and their approaches were more effective than teachers in other schools, whereas the teachers in National-type Chinese Schools constantly give drills and train writing skills so that the students score excellently in the Malay Language subject that is not their native language (Tan, 2007).

In contrast, family income did not have much effect on the reading and writing level of students in LINUS program although students from wealthier families tend to master the skills of reading and writing better. Therefore, high family SES was not necessarily going to produce the students who can master the reading and writing skills. This finding was found similar as the research conducted by Hugo (2014) who found that parental SES did not show much effect on children's listening and reading/writing performance during their elementary school years.

However, this result was totally different from the findings of Solari et al. (2014) who used a large data set (N = 1,011,549) to examine literacy growth over a single school year comparing general education (GenEd) students to three high-risk subgroups: English language learners (ELL), those with a specific learning disability (LD), and those identified as both LD and ELL (LD-ELL) students in Grades 3-10. Results indicated that all high-risk groups began the year at substantially lower levels than their peers, with the largest differences seen between the LD-ELL students and the other subgroups. Further results suggested that students who were in the high-risk subgroups and also qualified for FRL perform significantly worse than their peers in similar risk status groups who did not qualify for FRL, demonstrating the significant impact of SES on academic outcomes for all groups.

Differences in the social background of students in terms of ethnic and different type of schools contributed to the differences in reading proficiency. Therefore, teachers need to be proactive and recognize the students in terms of their background in order to formulate the appropriate teaching methods that suit the cultural, social situation and other background of the students, then determine the appropriate teaching methods and teaching aids and help the students to improve their reading and writing proficiency.

What is more important is the positive attitude of the students to learn the language themselves without any coercion from other parties. The students' interest to learn and to read had been planted in the minds of the students to enable them to move to the higher level of reading and writing skills. Lindholm-Leary (2011) examined the language proficiency, literacy development and attitude of Chinese students in TWI programs at late elementary and middle school levels to determine the progress and attitudes of students in these programs. The finding demonstrated that overall the native Chinese speaking, native English speaking and Chinese-speaking students make remarkable progress in languages; score at or above the grade level of English; perform at superior levels compared to non-TWI peers and report an interest and knowledge about Chinese culture. The

mindset, motivation and enthusiasm for learning will encourage the mastery of language literacy. Thus, the percentage of student literacy can be improved.

CONCLUSION

To achieve the targets set in the NKRA, education is largely dependent on the cooperation between government, school administrators, teachers and parents. Parents and community play an important role in early childhood education. Early childhood education is a fundamental pillar for the children to acquire knowledge and skills in reading and writing literacy. Emerging literacy among children will achieve success in the future that transform the educational system to ensure the quality of national education improve constantly in order to produce knowledgeable and skilled human capital. Implementation of the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) will make Malaysia achieve international education standards besides turning the students of Malaysia into global players.

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MANAGING SUCCESSFUL MEETINGS IN ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Meetings are considered an important in the management of work in any organization, enterprise or administration where the exchange of ideas and coordinating between them, benefiting from the experience of others and the transfer of experiences between the participants takes place.

Likewise, meetings are an acceptable means for the academic study of topics of discussions if based upon accurate information and scientific methodology is followed to solve problems, make decisions, define the problem, identify its causes, find appropriate alternatives and in choosing the best solution.

Meetings are increasingly important in the light of recent findings from some studies that managers spend between 50% to 70% of their time in meetings (Muneef, 2004).

If the management of meetings in general holds this much importance, then the need in academic institutions, departments and administrations is much greater, its importance increases because most academic work is completed through meetings with committees, departments, colleges and deanships.

According to some researchers, such as Cabriel (2000), state that meetings are "weak and useless", while other researchers have come to other conclusions, for example, two researchers, Norton and Lester (1998), found that meetings are classified into useful and useless depending on the way it was managed, preparation involved and topics discussed.

Mesmer (2002) is of the opinion that the lack of effectiveness of meetings costs organizations a lot of time and money, and in his study of one of the organizations found that managers spend about 8 hours per week in unnecessary meetings.

1. Steps in preparing for the meeting (before the meeting):

Some state, including Keenan (1996), that 80% of the success of a meeting is determined before they are held or even take place. Perhaps what can help this, and is in accordance with what a number of researchers have found, the likes of Abu Shaikha (1991, p.198), Al Faqih (2005, p.58) and Abu Nasr (2009, p.113), are the following:

- Clearly defining the objectives of the meeting.
- Selecting the participants for the meeting.
- Specifying the date, time and duration of the meeting (when it will start and finish).
- Setting and preparing the venue for the meeting along with all the necessary supplies and equipment.

- Preparing the agenda of the meeting and arranging the topics according to importance.
- Preparing the invitation to the meeting and sending it to members in advance.

2. Chairing the Meeting (during the meeting):

In order to achieve meeting objectives, it needs to be managed well. It is not limited to the preparation phase (before the meeting), but continues to during the meeting and after its completion. Abu Shaikha (1991, p.199), Al Faqih (2005, p.63) and Abu Nasr (2009, p.138) all pointed out that chairing a meeting (during the meeting) includes the following:

2.1. Chairing the Discussion During the Meeting:

2.1.1. The Role of the Chairperson in the Meeting:

The Chairperson of the meeting has multiple roles during the meeting, these roles include:

- To encourage.
- To supervise.
- To support.
- To observe.

The main responsibilities of the chairperson in the meeting and of his assistants (rapporteur or secretary) are as follows:

- Preparing and writing the agenda.
- Setting the venue.
- Preparing all required materials.
- Starting the meeting punctually.
- Reviewing the agenda with the other members of the meeting.
- Moving from one agenda item to the next in sequence. The agenda should be arranged according to the importance of each item.
- Balancing between firmness and softness, in addition to refocusing discussion that has wandered off topic (in a suitable manner).
- Not allowing anyone to dominate the conversation.
- Listening with interest and focus to everything that is said during the meeting.
- Monitoring non-verbal messages from members and amongst themselves.
- Summarizing the main points of discussion at every stage of the meeting to keep the members focused.
- Creating an atmosphere where everyone feels they can speak their mind frankly and honestly during the meeting.
- Revising the minutes of the meeting recorded by the rapporteur or secretary.
- Recording the minutes of the meeting (it is the responsibility of the rapporteur or secretary of the meeting).

2.1.2. Role of the Member in the Meeting:

Joe Taman (2008, p.23) mentions that members participating in a meeting have the following roles:

- To strive to obtain all necessary information regarding the meeting.
- To arrive at the venue punctually.

- To abide by the topic of the meeting.
- Not to raise any problem to the Chairperson, instead to assist him in obtaining the required efficiency.
- To be open and accepting of others.
- To assist the Chairperson in his oversight of the meeting.
- To listen and pay attention.
- To speak clearly such that everyone can understand.
- To build upon the thoughts and ideas of others.
- To critique the ideas and not the person who mentioned it.
- Not to use the meeting as a means to undertake individual discussions with group members.
- To complete any tasks assigned to him.

2.2. Rules Pertaining to Chairing the Meeting:

Abu Shaikha (1991, p.195) states a number of rules pertaining to chairing a meeting, these include:

- Starting the meeting punctually.
- Upholding the rules of the meeting under all circumstances.
- To avoid preaching, teaching or disciplining by the Chairperson and not to dominate the discussion. The role of an effective Chairperson is to trust every group member and assist them to release their potential.
- To listen to every comment mentioned during the discussion.

The following can help to develop listening skills:

- To make eye-contact with the speaker whenever possible.
- To use non-verbal cues, to emphasis one's point through head gestures and eye expressions, or to ask questions that show one's deep understanding of what he is talking about.
- To give special attention to the speaker and his expressions, tone of voice, sitting posture, and body language.
- Not to interrupt or be distracted by side conversations or trying to stop the speaker before he is finished.
- Not looking at the clock or door, or starting to stand up and so on.
- To take advantage of listening to the information collected, speakers organization of ideas or preparing to speak.
- To show sympathy with the speaker by putting himself in his shoes.

2.3. Supervision During the Meeting:

Supervision ensures that the meeting is going ahead according to plan, and that it is achieving its objectives in the shortest time possible without compromising the satisfaction of the participants.

Good supervision requires a number of elements, including:

- Clear objectives for the meeting.
- Providing an opportunity for participants to exchange information and experiences and to get acquainted with one another.
- Maintaining a high degree of enthusiasm for the participants in the meeting.

2.4. Closing the Discussion and Meeting:

2.4.1. The discussion is usually concluded for one of two reasons:

2.4.1.1. Not reaching a decision, this can be for a number of reasons:

- The need for more information.
- The need for input from members who are absent.
- The need for more time to read some of the reports and studies.
- The prediction of certain events that may affect the options available.
- The objectives of the discussion can be achieved without the participants actually discussing them.

2.4.1.2. The participants are able to make a decision or take action without the need for further discussions, for one of the following reasons:

- A lack of need for basic information.
- The alternatives were discussed and their advantages and disadvantages have become apparent.
- Questions concerning the alternatives have been answered.

There are basic issues to be considered when closing, the most important of them include:

- Re-stating the objectives of the meeting.
- Summarizing what has been achieved and accomplished.
- Thanking the members for their participation and attention, if appropriate.
- Specifying the time, place and purpose of the next meeting.
- Specifying a time to send the report of the meeting to the members (if any).

3. After the Meeting:

Main tasks are summarized at this stage, as explained by the following:

- 1- Distributing the responsibility amongst the participants to follow up the implementation of the decisions made.
- 2- Determining a completion deadline for each task or decision is required to be implemented and not to exceed that date, whatever it takes (as much as possible).
- 3- Making sure everyone has understood and grasped the tasks assigned to them after the meeting.
- 4- Documenting the meeting (minutes of the meeting), which is the responsibility of the rapporteur or the secretary of the meeting under the supervision of the Chairperson.
- 5- Sending a written note to participants to remind them of the tasks expected and required of them along with the expected deadline for completion.
- 6- Preparing a dedicated register to record and save the results and decisions reached and the member who is responsible to follow-up each item (Al Faqih 2005, p.66 and Abu Nasr 2009, p.151).

Based on the above, the researcher believes that the “after the meeting” stage is critical, and one should not be content with the two preceding stages (before and during) only. This is due to its importance and role in achieving the objectives of the meeting.

4. Evaluating the Meeting:

Meetings can be evaluated for their effectiveness, as indicated by Abu Shaikha (1991, p.199) and Abdel Jawad (2008, p.67 and 2011, p. 15), through the following:

4.1. To Evaluate the Chairperson's Ability to Chair the Meeting:

Evaluation of the Chairperson's ability to chair the meeting is fulfilled by answering the following questions:

- Was the meeting punctual and on schedule both for its commencement and completion?
- Do members know the objectives of the meeting and strongly believe in them?
- Does the Chairperson address members without hesitation just as the members address each other?
- Do members express their true feelings in the meeting?
- Do members sometimes differ with the Chairperson in opinion and express it freely and openly?
- Do members listen to each other with interest and not cut one another off?
- Do members differ in opinion, but are able to understand the different viewpoints and work to address them and put them in proper context?
- Do the members receive information and directions from their colleagues without finding offence?
- Is there a feeling of hostility towards the Chairperson?

Table 1 Table of Evaluation for the Chairperson's Ability to Manage the Meeting

No	Item	Yes	Sometimes	No
1	The meeting was punctual and on schedule both for its commencement and completion.			
2	Members know the objectives of the meeting well and strongly believe in them.			
3	The Chairperson address members without hesitation just as the members address one other.			
4	Members express their true feelings in the meeting.			
5	Members sometimes differ with the Chairperson in opinion and express it freely and openly.			
6	Members listen to each other with interest and do not cut one another off.			
7	Members may differ in opinion, but are able to understand these differences.			
8	Rational opposition (based on principles rather than personal interests) is very useful for the meeting.			
9	Members receive information and directions from their colleagues without finding offence.			
10	There is no feeling of hostility towards the Chairperson.			

4.2. Evaluating the Effectiveness of the Meeting in General:

An effective meeting means the objectives of the meeting are met in the shortest possible time with the satisfaction of all participants. This can be shown by the following indicators:

- Mutual respect amongst members of the meeting.
- Members commit to the objectives of the meeting and show desire to achieve them.
- The prevalence of the spirit of cooperation between members of the meeting.
- Each member listens to the ideas and observations of the others, and focus is placed on the constructive discussions involving all or most of the members.
- Destructive criticism and conflict is avoided.
- Decision-making in the meeting is collective.

Also, the following questions can be raised and answered:

- Are the objectives of the meeting worthwhile from the viewpoint of the members, Chairperson and organization?
- Have the objectives of the meeting been achieved?
- Was the time of the members used in a beneficial way?
- Did the results of the meeting and its decisions justify the resources spent on it?

The researcher believes that the evaluation of the meeting is an important and critical stage that must be done, because -God willing-, it will help to improve the meetings and increase its effectiveness.

Table2 Evaluating the Effectiveness of the Meeting

No	Item	Yes	Sometimes	No
1	There is mutual respect amongst participants.			
2	Participants commit themselves to the objectives of the meeting and want to achieve them.			
3	A spirit of cooperation is prevalent between the participants.			
4	Each participant listened to the ideas and comments of the others.			
5	Participants avoided destructive criticism and conflict.			
6	Decisions are made collectively.			
7	The objectives of the meeting are worthwhile from the viewpoint of the members.			
8	The objectives of the meeting are worthwhile from the viewpoint of the Chairperson.			
9	The objectives of the meeting are worthwhile from the viewpoint of the organization.			
10	The objectives of the meeting are met.			
11	The time of the participants is used for a meaningful cause.			

12	The results of the meeting and its decisions justify the resources spent on it.			
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5. Problems of Meetings.

There are many problems in meetings, as mentioned by a number of researchers, including Keenan (1996, p.12), Al-'uthaymeen (1997, p.14), John and Shirley Payne (1998, p.11), Al Faqih (2005, p.87), Abu Nasr (2009, p.26), and Abdel Jawad (2008, p.78), these include the following:

- The subject of the meeting and its objective are not specified, nor its importance explained.
- The time of the meeting was not appropriate for some or most of the participants.
- Lack of appropriate facilities and surrounding conditions for the meeting.
- Failure to provide participants with the resources required for the meeting.
- Failure to abide by the time set for the meeting, both the commencement and completion.
- Bad selection of participants.
- The domination of one (or some) members over the meeting.
- Conflict and argument amongst the members, or between the members and the Chairperson.
- The opportunity for participants to express their views and feelings is restricted.
- Frequent interruptions and side discussions between members.
- Closure of the meeting without the participants' knowledge of the meetings achievements.
- Poor satisfaction of participants from the meeting.

The researcher believes that these problems and others can be overcome by abiding by the principles and rules of managing meetings effectively, both prior to the meeting, during or after it ends. In addition, taking into account the role of Chairperson and that of its members, abiding by the rules for chairing the individual sessions of the meeting, supervising the progress of the meeting, concluding both the discussion and meeting in an appropriate way, as well as evaluating the meeting both in terms of the Chairperson's ability to manage the meeting and the effectiveness of the meeting in general.

6. Recommendations:

- 1- The need to hold specialized training courses for heads of academic departments in universities in the field of meeting management. This includes the planning, preparation, management of discussions, decision-making, recommendations from the meeting and to follow up their implementation.
- 2- The involvement of rapporteur of the academic sections of the universities in specialized training courses in preparing the minutes, organizing them. For participating members courses on the subject of meeting management and actively participating in them.
- 3- Organizing training courses for the secretaries of meetings of the academic sections of the universities and other supporting individuals on how to prepare for meetings, organize and facilitate them in order to achieve effectiveness and achieve their goals and objectives, God willing.
- 4- To urge heads of departments in universities on the importance of being punctual with the commencement and completion of all meetings, specifying a set time for each agenda item and adhering to this strictly to prevent faculty members from complaining of the length of meetings and

wasting their time with little benefit. This naturally will encourage faculty members to attend meetings and not skip them.

- 5- Universities should show an increased interest in providing meeting rooms for all the academic departments and equip them with all the necessary modern office equipment. Many departments lack suitable meeting rooms equipped for this purpose, which negatively affects the process of holding meetings.
- 6- A mechanism needs to be put in place to evaluate the meetings to find places of fault and correct problems. In addition, the active participation of members in the meeting needs to be encouraged; for those who only attend in form but do not participate in discussions negatively affects the effectiveness of the meeting.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF CRITICAL AND CREATIVE THINKING SKILLS IN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF LITERATURE COMPONENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT

Abstract-The study aims to observe the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills (CCTS) in the teaching and learning of the literature component in Malay language at secondary schools in the Petaling District. The respondents involved in this survey were 40 teachers and 120 students from three secondary schools, one being a girl's school, a boy's school and a co-ed school. The survey forms were distributed to the respondents. The findings of the research revealed that the application of creative and critical thinking skills was implemented at the satisfactory level. Nevertheless, the implementation was also not very successful because the respondent teachers were unable to evaluate the effectiveness of critical and creative thinking in the teaching and learning process (mean 3.44, SD3.34). In terms of the implementation of CCTS, respondent teachers expressed their agreement (mean 3.95, SD .74) that the students are taking too long time to apply the thinking skills in the learning process of the literature component. The t-test was carried out to identify the relationship between the implementation of CCTS in the learning of literature component in schools according to gender, stream and interest in the literature component. The result of the analysis indicates that there is a significant differences between the implementation of CCTS according to gender $t(120)=.91$; $p=.05$) and streams $t(120)=3.41$; $p=.03$). The One Way Anova test was carried out and it indicates that there is significant difference $F(3,116)=2.60$; $p=.05$ in the implementation of CCTS according to ethnic. This indicates that the gender, stream and ethnic factors influence the implementation of CCTS in the learning of the literature component. Therefore, the executor should consider these three aspects in the implementation of CCTS teaching and learning of literature component to achieve optimal learning outcomes.

Keywords: CCTS, literature component, Malay language, secondary schools

I. INTRODUCTION

Our country is in the midst of a information and technology advancements. In other words, we are in and age of industrial economic competition and therefore it requires individuals to have thinking skills that are critical, inovative, imaginative and creative. *The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2006-2010* (Ministry of Education, 2006) states that the primary in producing first class human capital is to produce students who are capable of critical and creative thinking. As quoted in *The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025*:

“ every child will learn how to gain life long education that will weave different types of knowledge to create something new. Every child is able to master many cognitive skills that are vital in education” (Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, 2013, pg E9)

This part is a weakness in the history of our education system because students are incapable of using knowledge and critical thinking skills outside of their academic pursuit. Due to this, the education transformation was started with the implementation of the Primary School Standard Curriculum in 2011 and the teaching of critical and creative thinking skills and strategic learning. In addition to this, Higher Thinking Skills are emphasis in schools. Therefore, it is predicted that students under the new school system will exhibit higher order thinking skills encompassing critical and creative thinking skills.

1.1 Research Problem

Thinking skills are the very foundation of educational development among students. The emphasis on thinking skills in all subjects allows students to make rational and more objective decisions (Abdul Rahim, 1999; Maimunah, 2004). Hence, the rational of teaching thinking skills not only fullfills the objectives of the

National Education Philosophy to produce students who are balance in all aspects such as intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically but it is also a humanitarian obligation.

Critical and creative thinking skills are integrated in teaching to provide students with the skills to garner new ideas. Students are exposed to higher order questions and activities that require problem solving to improve their thinking skills. Teachers are required to use their expertise to decide on the best learning and teaching strategies when facing students with mixed abilities. The strategies and technics chosen must be compatible with the students' abilities. It must also help students to analyse concepts or ideas and stimulate productive learning. (Curriculum Development Division, 2012). Positive developments in the education system is a achieved when thinking skills become the most emphasized element in the smart school curriculam.

The learning of the Malay Language in secondary schools aims to give students a platform to express their ideas and arguments critically and analytically in various situations. Students are able to evaluate and make rational conclusions on a variety of reading materials. Critical, analytical, and creative thinking skills should be inculcated among students through a structured learning programme by the Malay language teachers in schools.

The revised addition of the Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran of the Malay Language in 2013 explains that:

“Thinking skills must be applied along with listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.” (Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran BM, 2013, pg 8)

The learning of the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools aims to give students a platform to express their ideas and arguments critically and analytically in various situations. Students are able to evaluate and make rational conclusions on a variety of literary materials. Critical, analytical, and creative thinking skills should be taught through a structured learning programme by the Malay language teachers in schools while teaching the the literature component in Malay language.

In addition, the students should be motivated to source for better reading materials that can generate positive, creative and critical thinking skills in the process of seeking life-long learning. This situation will enhance the students' imagination and produce more creative students. When students read novels, short stories, drama and classical prose, they try to interpret the message that lies within and this indirectly promotes the thinking skills.

The revamping of the Malay Language curriculam is a move to achieve the objectives of the educational phylosophy of the subject. The changes were made in the content, approach and method of teaching the Malay Language. Unfortunately, most teachers of the Malay Language only emphasized on the changes in the content but chose to continue with the old approaches and methods.

Based on the observation and report of the status of the Malay Language by the Inspectorate of Schools, Ministry of Education Malaysia (Rafiei, 1998), teachers of the Malay Language have yet to incorporate the CCTS elements in the teaching and learning process of the Malay Language in the classrooms. In that report, the former Director General of Education Malaysia, Tan Sri Wan Mohd. Zahid Mohd. Nordin has advocated that the teaching methods give emphasis to the growth and development of the mind. This is to produce a society that is not only knowledgeable but able to think and contribute ideas that are both creative and innovative. According to Tan Sri Wan Mohd. Zahid Mohd. Nordin, teachers were merely transferring information from sources to the students without focusing on thinking skills.

Apart from that, according to Anisah (2009) students were displaying a lack of thinking skills in the learning of the literature component in Malay language due to internal and external factors. The internal factors are the passive attitude during the teaching and learning of the literature component, lack of interest in reading literary books and peer influence.

According to Chew (2006), the external factors are identifying certain problems faced by teachers such as a lack of knowledge in the delivery process of teaching and learning of the literature component in Malay

language. This is due to the fact that many did not specialize in that field. Therefore, this impedes the flow of the teaching and learning process. Teachers are confused between the different methods used in teaching learning of the literature component in Malay language and the Malay Literature as an elective subject.

Furthermore, according to Anisah (2009), the resource materials used to teach literature component in Malay language are the textbooks, revision books and workbooks that merely focus on the lower order thinking skills and neglect the higher order thinking skills.

The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) conducted in 2010 clearly reveal that Malaysian students are trailing behind countries such as Thailand, Chile and Armenia in terms of literacy and critical thinking skills. This has revealed certain loopholes in the allocation of funds towards developing skills among teachers that affect students' achievements.

The root of the problem is the school system that gives too much emphasis on examinations and finishing the syllabus. Little emphasis is given on enhancing thinking skills among students. According to Philips (1997), there are many reasons why thinking skills are not emphasized. Firstly, some teachers feel that students should first master all the facts and concepts of a subject before they can be encouraged to think independently. Secondly, emphasis on examinations merely focus on testing the students' ability to memorize facts. Thirdly, some teachers feel that teaching thinking skills would be a burden as it is very time consuming. Therefore, they only encourage thinking skills when teaching the intelligent students. Lastly, some teachers admit that they lack the knowledge on how to promote thinking skills.

According to Chew (2006), the students study only to achieve excellent results. Therefore, they fail to think critically and creatively. The problem arises from the school system that does not focus on developing thinking skills among students but is instead too exam orientated. In the teacher centered teaching process, the peoples become passive. Due to this, many students face problems in their careers.

According to Dolores (2002), she uses critical race theory (CRT) and Latina/Latino Critical Theory (LatCrit) to demonstrate how critical raced-gendered epistemologies recognize students of color as holders and creators of knowledge. In doing so, she discusses how CRT and LatCrit provide an appropriate lens for qualitative research in the field of education. She then compares and contrasts the experiences of Chicana/Chicano students through a Eurocentric and a critical raced-gendered epistemological perspective and demonstrates that each perspective holds vastly different views of what counts as knowledge, specifically regarding language, culture, and commitment to communities. She then offers implications of critical raced-gendered epistemologies for both research and practice and concludes by discussing some of the critiques of the use of these epistemologies in educational research.

Therefore, this research must be carried out to evaluate the effectiveness of critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning process of the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools in the Petaling District. The researcher also intends to identify if there is a link in the differences of the social background of the students and the effectiveness of the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in secondary schools.

1.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of the research are :

1. Evaluate the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.
2. Identify the effectiveness of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay in secondary schools.
3. Identify problems faced by teachers and students during the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.

4. Identify the link between the different social backgrounds and the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.

1.3 Research Questions

1. Evaluate the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.
2. Identify the effectiveness of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.
3. Identify problems faced by teachers and students during the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.
4. Identify the link between the different social backgrounds and the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the literature component in Malay language in secondary schools.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

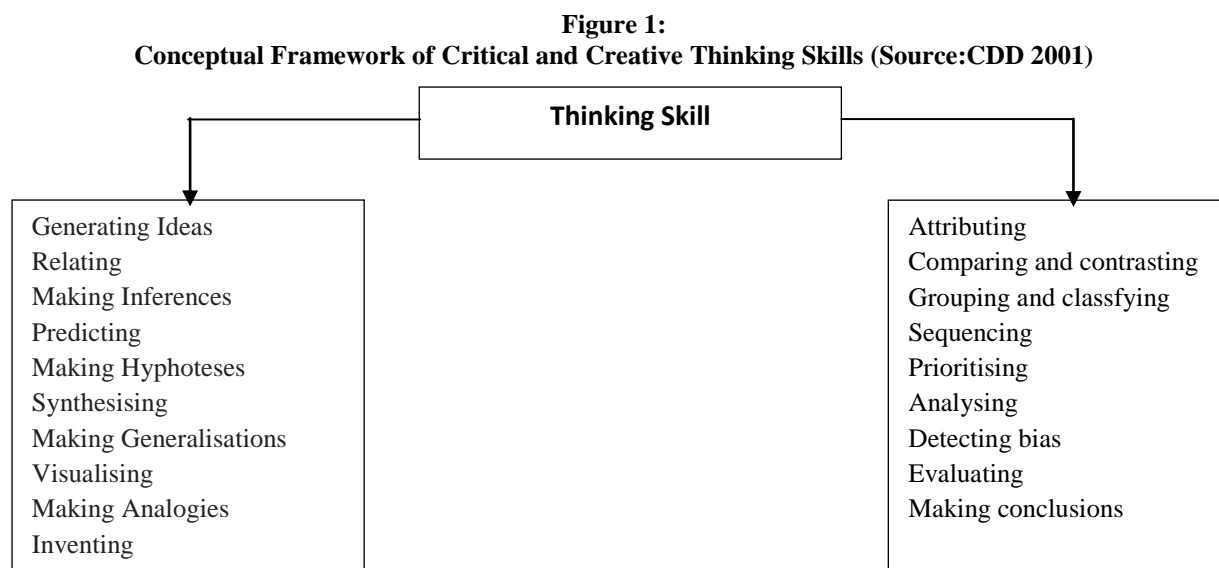
This hypotheses is to answer question number 4.

- Ho1: There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language according to the gender.
- Ho2: There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in literature component in Malay Language according to the stream.
- Ho3: There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in literature component in Malay Language according to the interest.
- Ho4: There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in literature component in Malay Language according to the race.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 Conceptual Framework

In this research, the researcher has used the framework theory by the Curriculum Development Division (2001) (CDD). The researcher feels that this framework theory is suitable to be used in schools because this research is also conducted in schools. This framework theory would be able to identify the success level of the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the Literature Component in Malay Language at secondary schools. The model of thinking skills is evident in figure1 below.



This research uses the method of observation by distributing two sets of questionnaires, one for the Malay Language teachers and the other set for the students of the Malay Language. Each set of questionnaires are divided into two sections, that is: Section A that contains background of the respondents; Section B about the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the Malay Literature Component. Section B is further divided into three sub-sections. Section 1 is the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the Malay Literature Component. Section 2 is the effectiveness of the implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the Literature Component in Malay Language among students. Section 3 is about the problems faced by teachers and students in implementing the critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning process of the Literature Component in Malay Language.

2.2 Pilot Studies

Pilot studies was carried out to measure the credibility of the questionnaires for teachers and students. The data analysis shows that a value of .92 and .994 Cronbach Alpha for both the questionnaires. This proves that the questionnaires are credible. The actual research will be manage by the respondents.

2.3 Method of Data Analysis

The data collected will be analysed using “Statistical Package for Social Science 18.0 (SPSS 18.0)”. The results of the research will be presented in the form of tables and statistical inferences. The descriptive statistical used is the mean and standard deviation. The statistical inferences used is the t-test and One-way Anova.

2.4 Samples of Research

The target of the research are students in form four and teachers teaching the Malay Language in three schools in the Petaling District in the state of Selangor. The teachers and students selected as samples of the research are required to answer the questionnaires provided. This research will be carried out using all the teachers teaching the Malay Language in the respective schools. The list of schools and the population is given in Table 1.

Table 1 :
Distribution of Respondent Teachers According to the Type of School

Type of Schools	Number of Malay Language Teachers
Boys school A	13
Girls school B	15
Co-educational school C	12

The students selected are among the population in the best classes from all the three schools in the Petaling District which are schools located in towns. The sampling techniques will be done at random. The number of samples are approximately 120 students. Table 2 below is the distribution of schools and the number of respondents.

Table 2 :
Distribution of Student Respondents According to the Type of School

Type of Schools	Number of Students
Boys school A	40
Girls school B	40
Co-educational school C	40

III FINDINGS

3.1 Distributions of Teacher Respondents

Female teacher respondents are 62.5% which is more than male teacher respondents which are only 37.5%. This is due to the phenomena that there are more women teachers compared to men in the teaching profession. In terms of race, the teacher respondents were 77% Malays, and the least were Chinese which were only 2%. This is due to the fact that teachers teaching the Malay Language are mostly Malays as this is their mother tongue.

In terms of age, the majority of the teachers were in the 30-35 age group which made up 37.5%. Whereas only 12.5% were in the 20-30 age group. This means that majority of the teachers had at least 10 years of teaching experience. In terms of academic qualifications, the majority of the teachers which is 77.5% have a degree and 22.5% of the respondents have a masters degree. This shows that the teachers in the secondary schools at least have a degree.

Nevertheless, almost 72.5% of the teacher respondents have never attended any course on teaching the literature component in the Malay Language. This is due to the fact that the teaching of the Malay Language gives more focus on language than the literature component. Apart from that, the number of places in the course is limited. Furthermore, limited funding for such courses also is a factor.

Table 3 :

Distribution of Teacher Respondents According to the Social Background

Demography (N-40)	Descriptive	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	15	37.5
	Female	25	62.5
Race	Malay	31	77.0
	Chinese	1	2.0
	Indian	5	13.0
	Others	3	8.0
Age	20-29 years	5	12.5
	30-35 years	15	37.5
	36-40 years	4	35.0
	40 years and above	6	15.0
Academic	Degree	31	77.5
	Masters Degree	9	22.5
Teaching Experience	Less than 5 years	11	27.5
	6-10 years	7	17.5
	11-15 years	7	17.5
	16-20 years	4	10.0
	21-25 years	6	15.0
	26 years and above	5	12.5
Teaching Level	Lower Form	16	40.0
	Upper Form	24	60.0
Field	Malay Language only	19	47.5
	Literature only	14	35.0
	Malay Language& Literature	6	15.0
	Not Malay Language	1	2.5
Literature Component Courses	Yes	11	27.5
	No	29	72.5

CCTS Courses	Yes	9	22.5
	No	31	77.5

3.2 Distributions of Student Respondents

Table 4 shows that the distribution of male and female respondents are equal. In terms of race the number of respondents are mainly Malays (40%), followed by Chinese (31.71%), Indians (21.7%) and others (6.7%).

Table 4 :
Distribution of Student Respondents According to the Social Background

Demography (N-120)	Descriptive	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	60	50.0
	Female	60	50.0
Race	Malay	48	40.0
	Chinese	38	31.7
	Indian	26	21.7
	Others	8	6.7
Interest in Malay Language	Yes	57	47.5
	No	63	52.5
Interest in Literature Component in Malay Language	Yes	60	50.0
	No	60	50.0
Meaning of CCTS	Yes	87	72.5
	No	33	27.5
Stream	Arts	60	50.0
	Science	60	50.0

Approximately, 47.5% of the respondents are interested in learning the Malay Language. Whereas 52.5% are not interested to learn the Malay Language. The analysis of the data also show that the respondents who are interested in the Literature Component in Malay Language are balanced which means many are not interested to learn the literature component.

Approximately, 72.5% of the respondents understand the meaning of critical and creative thinking skills. In conclusion the respondents are also balance in terms of social background.

3.3 The Implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language

The Interpretation of the descriptive statistics in Table 5.

Table 5:
Interpretation of Mean Scale

Mean	Interpretation
1 – 1.4	Completely disagree
1.5 – 2.4	Disagree
2.5 – 3.4	Do not totally agree
3.6 – 4.4	Agree
4.5 – 5.0	Completely agree

Question 1: Has critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning of the Literature component in Malay Language been effective?

Table 6 shows that the overall mean value is high, 3.80 for teachers and 3.35 for students. Most items were agreeable to both teacher and student respondents. Teachers totally with items no. 10 (mean 4.50,SD .50) whereby teachers agree that they have achieved active participation from students during implementation of critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language. Teacher respondents agreed with 8 items which are 5,6,7,8,9,11,12 and 13 whereas student respondents agreed with 9 items which were 2,3,4,5,6,7,10,11 and 13. Therefore, both teacher and student respondents agreed on items 5,6,7 and 11.

Teacher respondents selected unsure for the item getting students to identify the characteristics of a particular concept (mean 3.00,SP 1.08). This was similar to the mean by student respondents which is mean 3.14,SP 1.39). For items no. 3 and 4, teachers agree that they have carried out activities on problem solving, characterization and categorization. Student respondents agree with item no 3(mean 4.06,SP .575) and item no.4(mean 3.81,SP .840). Nevertheless, student respondents disagree with item no. 4(mean 2.36,SP 1.01) that they are given opportunity in class to share their opinions and views during the teaching and learning process in the classroom. In contrast, teacher respondents agree(mean 4.12,SP .336) with this item. This means there is a difference in opinion between teachers and students. It can be concluded that teachers may have given students opportunity to answer but students were unwilling to participate actively for fear of being wrong. There is also a possibility that the teacher centered learning inhibits active participation by students

Table 6 :
Implementation of Critical and Creative Thinking Skills in the Teaching and Learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language

Num	Item	Teacher (N – 40)		Student (N -120)	
		Mean	Sp	Mean	Sp
1	The teacher asks the students to characterize some of the things or concepts	3.00	1.08	3.14	1.39
2	Teacher asks students to compare the difference of some items or concepts	2.67	1.07	3.87	.79
3	Teacher asks students to think of as many solutions to a question	2.92	1.11	4.06	.57
4	The teacher asks the students to characterize/categorizing something as appropriate	2.90	1.08	3.81	.84
5	The teacher asks the students to organize ideas in chronological order information effectively .	4.10	.54	3.87	.79
6	Teachers encourage students to analyze the reasons given	4.00	.50	3.52	1.01
7	Teachers encourage students to use the analogy / comparison in describing a thing or concept	4.30	.47	3.55	.98
8	Teachers encourage students to relate between small parts and the whole passage .	4.22	.42	3.43	1.24
9	Teachers encourage students to make appropriate inferences before interpret	4.20	.57	3.44	1.09

10	Teachers always encourage students to actively take part in the classroom.	4.50	.50	4.04	.72
11	Teachers always encourage students to take part in activities during teaching and learning process of CCTS	4.10	.87	3.90	.89
12	Teachers always encourage students to ask questions when in doubt	4.42	.50	4.09	.58
13	Teachers always give students the opportunity to express opinions / ideas during the teaching and learning process in the classroom	4.12	.34	2.36	1.01
Overall		3.80	.90	3.35	.92

Question 2: Is the teaching of critical and creative thinking skills effective in the learning of the Literature component in Malay Language in secondary schools?

Table 7 shows that the overall mean value is only average(mean 3.48) for teachers and students(mean 2.58). Teacher respondents agreed with items 3,4,8,9 and 10. Teacher respondents (mean 4.45,SD.503) and students(mean 3.55,SD .808) agree that thinking skills help students solve problems quickly.(item 3). Teacher respondents agree(mean 3.50,SD 1.08) for item 4 that students are able to understand analogies and comparisons used during the teaching process but student respondents are unsure(mean 2.99,SD 1.26).

Teacher respondents agree with item number 8 (mean 4.05,SD .59) that the Malay literature Component can enhance thinking skills but students respondents are unsure (mean 3.28,SD 1.11). This is the same with item no. 10.

Table 7:
The Effectiveness of CCTS in the Teaching and Learning Process of the Literature Component in Malay Language

Num	Item	Teacher (N – 40)		Student (N -120)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Students can actively participate in CCTS based activities	3.35	1.18	3.29	1.11
2	Students concentrate on CCTS activities carried out by the teacher	2.95	1.19	3.55	.78
3	Thinking skills help students solve problem quickly	4.45	.50	3.55	.80
4	Students understand the analogy / comparison used by teachers when teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language	3.50	1.08	2.99	1.26
5	Students love to give their own opinions in class	2.75	1.37	3.16	1.27
6	Students can spontaneously give an opinion on the issues discussed by the teachers	2.72	1.33	2.95	1.32
7	Students can relate the knowledge learned	2.82	1.00	2.35	1.08

	in Literature Component in Malay Language with everyday life				
8	Literature Component in Malay Language can enhance students' thinking skills	4.05	.59	2.95	1.16
9	KOMSAS hone students' thinking.	4.02	.53	3.28	1.11
10	Students were given more guidance and counseling in solving problems than answers	4.15	.42	3.06	1.15
Overall		3.48	.92	2.58	1.10

Research shows that 5 items were selected as unsure by respondent teachers. For item number 1, teacher respondents (mean 3.35, SD 3.29) and student respondents (mean 3.29, SD 1.11) state they are unsure if students have actively participated in CCTS based activities. For item number 5, teacher respondents (mean 2.75, SD 3.16) and student respondents unsure if students like to give their own ideas in the class.

Question 3: What are the problems faced while implementing CCTS in the teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language in schools.

Table 8 shows the overall mean value is high for teachers (mean 3.63) and average for students (mean 2.96). The data analysis shows teacher respondents agree with items number 1,4 and 7 but unsure of items number 2 and 3. In contrast, student respondents agree only with item number 8. They were unsure of items number 1 to 7.

Table 8:
Problems in Implementation of CCTS in the Teaching and Learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language

Num	Item	Teacher (N – 40)		Student (N -120)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Students take a long time to implement critical thinking in the process of learning Literature Component in Malay Language	3.95	.74	3.20	1.18
2	Allocation of time to teaching Literature Component in Malay Language inadequate	2.92	1.36	3.27	1.08
3	Students do not use reading materials brought by the teacher	2.70	1.26	1.74	.73
4	Students cannot think well although teachers are providing interesting activities	4.12	.64	2.77	1.31
5	Students are not interested in the teaching and learning process of the Literature Component in Malay Language based on CCTS .	3.55	1.21	2.78	1.39
6	Students are not capable to participate in CCTS	4.22	.47	3.11	1.27
7	Teachers do not get exposure on teaching methods of CCTS	3.80	1.08	3.17	1.26
8	Students are not capable to answer CCTS questions	3.80	1.08	3.62	1.07

For item number 1, teacher respondents agree (mean 3.95, SD .740) that students take a long time to think and answer even though teachers had prepared an interesting lesson plan but students responded unsure (mean 3.20, SD 1.18) to this item. For item number 4, teacher respondents agree (mean 4.12, SD .647) that students having problem to think wisely even though teachers had prepared an interesting lesson plan but student respondents unsure (mean 2.77, SD 1.31) to this item.

For student respondents, they agree (mean 3.62, SD 1.07) with item number 8 that they are not capable to answer CCTS questions. Teacher respondents also agree (mean 3.8, SD 1.08) that students are not able to follow CCTS activities. For item number 6, teacher respondents agree (mean 4.22, SD .479) that students not capable to follow CCTS activities but student respondents are unsure (mean 3.11, SD 1.27) with this item.

Question 4: Does the differences in the social backgrounds of the student respondents have an effect on the implementation of CCTS in the teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language?

The aspects of social background taken into consideration in this research encompasses gender, interest and race. To test the research questions, four null hypothesis was used.

Hypotheses null 1 : There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in literature component in Malay Language according to the gender.

Table 9 :
T-test for the Implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language According to the Gender

Gender	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
Male	3.85	1.00	.91	.18	.05*
Female	4.00	.78			

*p≤.05

The analysis of the data reveals a significant $t(120)=.91$; $p=.05$ difference in the relationship between the genders in the implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language. There was a significant difference between male and female participation in the lessons involving CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language. Male students have a lower mean (3.85) as compared to female students who scored a higher mean (4.00). This result shows that most male students fail to apply the relevant thinking skills compared to the female students. In conclusion, the value of probability is the same with the alpha value which is .05p. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypotheses null 2 : There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language according to the stream.

Table 10 :
T-test for the Implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language According to the Stream

Stream	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
Arts	3.83	0.30	-3.41	118	.03*
Science	3.02	1.01			

*p≤.05

Table 10 shows a significant difference $t(120)=-3.41$; $p=.03$) between the science and arts stream students in the success of the implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language. The science stream students (mean 3.83) and arts streams students (mean 3.02) have responded differently. The science students successfully absorbed the relevant thinking skills compared to the arts stream students. In conclusion, the probability is less than the alpha value. Therefore, the null hypotheses is rejected.

Hypotheses null 3 : There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language according to the interest.

Table 11:
T-test for the Implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language According to the Interest

Interest	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
Yes	47.6	3.33	1.4	118	.26
No	46.6				

* $p \leq .05$

Table 11 shows that there is no significant difference $t(120)=1.4$; $p=.26$) between the prior interest in Literature Component in Malay Language with the success of the implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language. This simply means that the students' interest in Literature Component in Malay Language does not affect the implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language. The mean for students interested in Literature Component in Malay Language is 47.6 as compared to those not interested with a mean of 46.6. In conclusion, the probability value is more than the alpha value. Thus, the null hypotheses is accepted.

Hypotheses nol 4 : There is no significant difference between implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language according to the race.

Table 12
One way Anova Test for the Implementation of CCTS in the Teaching and Learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language

Race	Mean	SD	Sum of Square	df	Mean	F	Sig.
Malay	48.2	3.35	Between groups	35.28	32.4	2.60	.05*
Chinese	47.6	3.83					
Indians	46.3	3.48	Among groups	23.86	116	12.4	
Others	45.8	3.79					

* $p \leq .05$

Table 12 shows that there is a significant difference of $F(3,116)=2.60$; $p=.05$) in the implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language according to the race. according to race. Data analysis clearly shows that the mean is highest for Malay students (48.2) with the Standard Deviation 3.35. The lowest mean is for other races with 48.2 with the sistem piawai 3.79. In conclusion, the probability value is the same with the alpha value. Thus, the null hypotheses is once again rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION

4.1 The Implementation of CCTS

The majority of teacher and student respondents agree with the implementation of the CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language.. Teachers agree (mean 4.42) that they have always encouraged students to ask questions should they have any doubts. This is in line with the objectives outlined of KBSM that focusses on the the development of the intellect as well as rasional,critical and creative thinking skills. Teachers must give ample opportunities for students to develop their thinkig skills independently.

Moreover, teachers who encourage students to make the correct inferences before making conclusions and predictions help to promote thinking skills(mean 4.20, SD.57).This is in line with the research by Abdul Rahim(1999) that students equipped with critical and creative thinking skills are able to make reflections

The implementation of CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language is successful when reseach shows teachers always encourage students to participate actively in CCTS in Literature Component in Malay Language (mean 4.10,SD .87).

4.2 Effectiveness of The Implementation of CCTS

Teachers agree (mean 34.4, SP 3.34) that the CCTS is indeed an effective tool in schools. This finding differs with the research findings by Balakrishnan (2002) that show form 4 history teachers were not implementing CCTS neither in the planning their lesson nor in the actual lesson plan. Similarly, research done by Rajendran Nagappan (2002) on teachers of the Malay Language were unclear on how to incorporate the CCTS element into the teaching and learning process.

Students were also unsure (mean 3.29, SP 1.11) on their participation in the teaching and learning of the CCTS element. This confusion is due to the fact that the teachers themselves were not fully aware of the CCTS concept and how to incorporate this skill into the teaching and learning of the Malay Literature Component. This can be due to the small number of teachers that had been the correct exposure through courses.

4.3 Problems In The Implementation of the CCTS

From this aspect of the problems faced by teachers in the implementation of the CCTS elements in the teaching and learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language, teachers agree (mean 3.95, SD .74) that students took a long time to apply the correct thinking skills in the learning of the Literature Component in Malay Language. This is due to the fact that many teachers do not use the correct questioning techniques. This is proven as De Bono (1993), Zamri and Nor Razah (2011) have concluded that the correct questioning technique which is well planned is the very foundation of stimulating students to think. Therefore, students are unable to answer questions promptly if the questioning techniques are unsuitable.

The teacher and student respondents are unsure if the time allocated for the teaching of the Malay Literature Component is sufficient. According to Phillips (1997), there is a correlation between the failure to implement thinking skills due to the constraints of time.

According to Mohd Mohsin and Nasrudin (2008) there are three major obstacles in the implementation of KBKK in the teaching and learning in school which are the education system, the behavioural aspects of the teacher and peer influence. The examination orientated education system is the root cause why teachers prefer the teacher centred learning process. Teacher also tend not to encourage critical thinking and creativity as it is harder to maintain good class control.

Must clearly define the aims, objectives and teaching strategies that will be carried out in class (Muhammad Kamarul, 2011). Armed with the knowledge of the critical and creative thinking skills, teachers will be

able to produce students who are able to think independently. The university teaching courses must incorporate the teaching of critical and creative thinking skills among future students.

The Education Ministry must monitor the application of the critical and creative thinking skills in schools to ensure that all teachers implement these skills in their lessons. Teachers must then decide on the most suitable techniques. This will bring out about awareness among teachers on the latest teaching methods.

Besides that, the Education Ministry should also publish modules to guide teachers of the Malay Language on how to carry out the implementation of the critical and creative thinking skills especially for new teachers. These modules will generate new ideas on how new teaching techniques can be used by the teachers to teach the Malay Literature Component.

The Ministry should also conduct more courses on critical and creative thinking skills for the Malay Literature Component to expose teachers to the new methods of teaching this component. Peer influence also is a factor as many students fear rejection and therefore do not express creative ideas.

4.4 Demographic Difference among Respondents

The different backgrounds among students respondents clearly influence the implementation of the critical and creative thinking skills in secondary schools. Research has shown that there is a significant difference between gender, stream and race in the success of the implementation of the critical and creative thinking skills in the teaching and learning process of the Malay Literature Component. In contrast, the t-Test shows that there is no correlation between interest and the implementation of the critical and creative thinking skills in the Literature Component in Malay Language. These findings are similar to the research done by Siti Zabidah (2006) who identifies the effects of the new teaching approaches versus the traditional approaches when teaching students how to writing descriptive and imaginative essays in the Malay Languages among form 4 students.

Many steps can be taken to address the problems faced in the teaching of the Literature Component in Malay Language. Among the suggested steps are, teachers of the Malay Language themselves must actively apply the critical and creative thinking skills in their lesson. The role of the teachers are very important. The head of Malay Language Panel should conduct in-house trainings to ensure that the teachers get the right exposure from time to time. Teachers should also be encouraged to create their own modules to fulfil the needs of the students.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the implementation of the critical and creative thinking skills has been carried out smoothly but has yet to achieve its full objectives. This is mainly due to the fact that the teachers themselves did not get enough exposure on how to implement this skill in the teaching and learning process for the Literature Component in Malay Language. To ensure that the teaching of the Malay Literature Component achieve its objectives, all parties concerned must cooperate to ensure that both teachers and students are exposed to the correct techniques of teaching and learning critical and creative thinking skills in the Literature Component in Malay Language. In short, the objectives of the National Education Blueprint can actually encourage the young generation to think critically and creatively to help our country achieve the status of a developed nation.

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Currently, she has taken a 2 year study leave in order to obtain her Doctorate in Philosophy from University of Malaya. Throughout her service as a teacher, she has taught the Malay Language in both the upper and lower secondary levels. Furthermore, she has attended many courses and is fully aware of the challenges in the field of education. Thus, this awareness has fuelled her quest to conduct more studies that would benefit students of the Malay Language in her native country.

THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK OF ADMINISTRATORS AMONG PRIVATE COLLEGES IN THE NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to identify the competing values framework, differences on organizational culture, management practices, and skills of administrators utilizing the descriptive-evaluative method to 150 randomly selected respondents from private colleges in the Philippines. Data gathered were then computed for interpretation using percentage, weighted mean, t-test, and ANOVA. Results showed that the present and preferred organizational culture, management practices, and skills were that of clan culture based on Cameron and Quinn's (2006, 2011) competing values framework. Significant differences were found on the key dimensions of organizational culture while no significant differences were found with respect to the management practices and management skills of the respondent administrators when grouped according to their profiles. An Executive Training Program for Administrators was designed to improve administrators' weaknesses as reflected on the Competing Values Management Practices Survey and Management Skills Assessment Instrument.

Keywords: administrators, organizational culture, management practices, management skills

1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of culture is one of the essential factors affecting the performance of any organization including educational institutions. Gonzalez (2009) emphasized that organizational culture has significant influence to people's organizational behavior. Knowledge in the different aspects of organizational culture results to understanding people's perceptions and expectations that can help or hinder the needed change in organizations. It also provides a common frame of reference to base decisions, create directional focus, and manage coordination.

Cameron and Quinn (2006, 2011) stated that most organizational scholars and observers have recognized the powerful effect of organizational culture on the performance and long-term effectiveness of organizations. Likewise, there were empirical researches that had produced an impressive array of results demonstrating the importance of culture in enhancing organizational performance. In addition, Robbins (2005) believed that the stable characteristic of an organization's culture, which was developed over many years, was rooted in deeply held values. As a result, the employees were strongly committed and there were number of forces continually operating to maintain the given culture. These would include written statements about the organization's mission and philosophy, the design of physical spaces and buildings, the dominant leadership style, hiring criteria, past promotion practices, entrenched rituals, popular stories about key people and events, the organization's historic performance evaluation criteria, and the organization's formal structure. Be that as it may, Matteson, Zwell, & Michael (as cited in Gonzalez, 2009) indicated that researchers who have suggested and studied the impact of culture of employees provides and encourages a form of stability as well as a sense of organizational identity. There were limited studies done, however, on cultural change and the difficulty in creating a culture was made even more complex when attempting to bring about significant cultural change. The emerging themes in discussing change were that (1) cultures are so elusive and hidden that they cannot be adequately diagnosed, managed, or changed as it takes difficult techniques, rare skills, and (2) considerable time to understand a culture and then another additional time to change it, wherein deliberate attempts at culture change are not really practical since cultures sustain people throughout periods of difficulty and serve to deflect anxiety. According to Katzenbach (as cited in Gonzalez, 2009) one of the ways they do change was by providing continuity and stability. Thus, people will naturally resist change to a new culture.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

By and large, there were numerous studies conducted on organizational culture (Schein, 2010; Fey & Denison, 2003; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Sørensen, 2002) and climate wherein the respondents were from business organizations (Racelis, 2009, Hechanova, 2012) as well as some private and state education institutions. These studies revealed that there was no single type of organizational culture and that organizational

cultures widely vary from one organization to the next (Desson & Clouthier, 2010, Salvador & Geronimo, 2011), commonalities do exist and some researchers have developed models to describe different indicators of organizational cultures.

2.1 Organizational Culture

Ravasi and Schultz (2006) defined organizational culture as a set of shared mental assumptions that guide interpretation and action in organizations by defining appropriate behavior for various situations. At the same time, although a company may have its "own unique culture", in larger organizations, there are a diverse and sometimes conflicting cultures that co-exist due to different characteristics of its management team. The organizational culture may also have negative and positive aspects. Schein (2010), however, specified that organizations often have very differing cultures as well as subcultures. Schein (2010) defined culture as the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders and leadership and all other physical attributes of the organization. The organizational model he had conceptualized illumines culture from the standpoint of the observer described by three cognitive levels of organizational culture. On the other hand, Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) mentioned that cultural differences exist in regions and nations, and is important for international awareness and multiculturalism for the own cultural introspection. The cultural differences reflect differences in thinking, social action, and even in mental programs (Harris, 2002). They do not only associate culture to ethnic and regional groups, but also to organizations, professions, families, societies, sub-cultural groups (Brudett, 2007), national political systems (Shaw, 2012), and legislations, etc (Kotter & Heskett as cited in Harrower, 2011).

2.2 Competing Values Framework

Cameron and Quinn's (2006, 2011) study on organizational effectiveness and success was based on Competing Values Framework (see Fig. 1). They had developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument that distinguishes four culture types together with the Management Skills Assessment Instrument. It has been found to be an extremely useful model for organizing and understanding a wide variety of organizational and individual phenomena, including theories of organizational effectiveness, leadership competencies, organizational culture, organizational design, stages of life cycle development, organizational quality, leadership roles, financial strategy, information processing, and brain functioning. Likewise, Witziers, Bosker and Krüger (as cited in Cameron & Quinn, 2006, 2011) suggest that the Competing Values Framework is an appropriate instrument to get more insight in the role of school leaders meeting the present administrative demands very well. The competing values framework for organizational culture, management practices, and skills developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006, 2011), which is robust in nature, is comprised of the competing or opposite values giving rise to the classification of organizational culture into four types. Each culture has been given a distinguished name noting its characteristics.

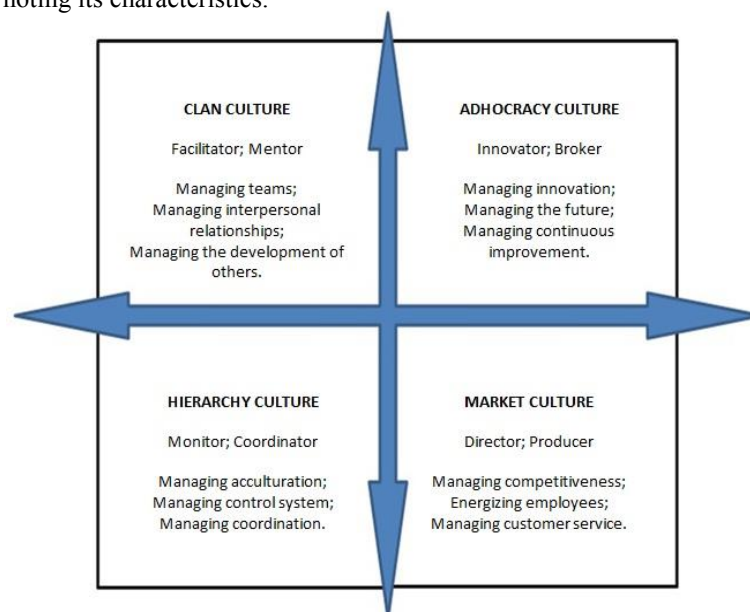


Fig. 1. Competing Values Framework

Cameron and Quinn (2006, 2011) developed the Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) and Competing Values Management Practices Survey (CVMPS) to identify the eight management practices and their respective management skills within the four organizational cultures which private colleges in the Philippines

could possibly possess. In the *clan* culture, the management practices of an administrator are *facilitator* and *mentor* for they are expected to have the skills of managing teams, interpersonal relationships, and the development of others in the organization. Then, in the *hierarchy* culture, the management practices are *coordinator* and *monitor* with the management skills of managing acculturation, control system, and coordination within the organization. In the *market* culture, the management practices are that of *producer* and *director* with the skills of managing competitiveness, customer service, and energizing employees of the organization. Lastly, in the *adhocracy* culture, the management practices are *broker* and *innovator* with the management skills of managing innovation, future, and the continuous improvement of the organization.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Private Colleges are unique in the competing values framework of their administrators in terms of organizational culture, management practices, and skills. These institutions are expected to possess their respective culture, management practices, and skills even if these colleges were private sectarian and non-sectarian. The levels of organizational culture among these colleges may vary from one another, which are presumed have an impact on their management practices and skills, motivating the researcher verifying that organizational culture has been an essential element in their management practices and skills. This study adopted the conceptual paradigm of systems approach. The Inputs include the demographic profile of the respondents, their organizational culture and management practices and skills based on the Competing Values Framework. The Process was composed of three survey instruments namely: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI), and Competing Values Management Practices Survey (CVMPs) developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006, 2011). The input variables were statistically analyzed using frequency, percentage, weighted means, t-test, and ANOVA. In the light of contributing to the field of educational management, an executive training program for administrators was developed to promote desirable and highly improved organizational culture, management practices, and skills. This contribution, mainly in research, is the primary output of this paper.

2.4 The Present Study

Apparently, in the Philippines, studies concentrating on the competing values framework of administrators among private colleges were not widely addressed in the education literature. Given the context of tertiary education in the Philippines, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) had issued a memorandum (Memorandum Order No. 46, series of 2012) providing standards to enhance quality education through an outcomes-based and typology-based quality assurance. With this mandate, educators are required to embody personal and professional values relevant to the college's mission, degrees offered, and social & developmental linkages. With these standards, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) authorized the Federation of Accrediting Agencies of the Philippines (FAAP), of which the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges, and Universities (PAASCU) and Philippine Association of Colleges and Universities Commission on Accreditation (PACUCOA) are anchored to, in certifying the quality levels of accredited programs at the tertiary level for the purpose of granting progressive deregulation and other benefits. In addition, accrediting agencies such as the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges, and Universities (PAASCU) and Philippine Association of Colleges and Universities Commission on Accreditation (PACUCOA) were formed to promote excellence in education through voluntary accreditation and to give formal recognition to an educational institution by attesting that its academic programs maintain excellent standards in its educational operations in the context of its aims and objectives. Not all private colleges, however, were fortunate to have their program accredited by the FAAP agencies, thus, the competing values framework of administrators among private colleges is a note-worthy issue needed to be addressed as most of the successful Filipinos had received their education and training from the said colleges. This study aims to aid other colleges as it identifies the present and preferred competing values framework of administrators in terms of organizational culture, management practices, and skills.

3. METHOD

3.1 Sample

This study attempted to test the difference of administrators in private colleges in the Philippines' demographic profile variables to their organizational culture, management practices, and skills based on the competing values framework developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006, 2011). This study employed the descriptive-evaluative method using survey technique with questionnaire as a tool for gathering data. It was conducted to 14 colleges who favorably responded to the researcher's request for survey administration. The samples were randomly selected administrators such as deans, assistant deans, college chairpersons or heads, and college secretaries from Private Colleges with at least level II college program accreditation from PAASCU and PACUCOA in the Philippines from January to March 2013.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Table 1: Demographic Profile of the Respondents (N = 150)

Profile		f	%	Profile		f	%
Type of Institution	Sectarian	76	50.7	Religion	Roman Catholic	137	91.3
	Non-sectarian	74	49.3		Christian	8	5.3
Admin. Position	Dean	46	30.7		Iglesia ni Cristo	4	2.7
	Asst. Dean	4	2.7		Adventist	1	0.7
	College Dept. Chair/Head	93	62.0	Highest Educational Attainment	Bachelor	8	5.3
	College Secretary	7	4.7		Master	81	54.0
Gender	Male	58	38.7		Doctorate	60	40.0
	Female	92	61.3		No response	1	0.7
Age	21-30	14	9.3	Years of Service as Administrators	1-5 years	53	35.3
	31-40	28	18.7		6-10 years	57	38.0
	41-50	71	47.3		11-15 years	16	10.7
	51-60	28	18.7		16-20 years	13	8.7
	61-70	9	6.0		21-25 years	4	2.7
	Single	42	28.0		26-30 years	6	4.0
	Married	100	66.7		No response	1	0.7
Civil Status	Separated	4	2.7				
	Widow/er	4	2.7				

Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the respondents. Saliently, the administrators' ages were from 41-50 (47.3%) who are female (61.3%) and are married (66.7%) Roman Catholics (91.3%). Their highest educational attainment was that of master's degree (54%). They have at least served for about 6-10 years (38%) as administrators particularly as college department chairs/heads (62%) at sectarian colleges (50.7%).

4.2 Means on Organizational Culture

Table 2. Means on Organizational Culture of Selected Colleges

Key Dimensions	Organizational Culture							
	Clan		Adhocracy		Hierarchy		Market	
	Now	Preferred	Now	Preferred	Now	Preferred	Now	Preferred
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Dominant Characteristics	31.85	32.61	21.44	21.53	24.42	26.97	24.42	19.27
Organizational Leadership	29.11	29.93	23.10	23.44	21.49	21.82	26.29	25.66
Management of Employees	30.45	32.32	23.29	24.56	24.44	21.42	21.38	22.40
Organization Glue	30.33	30.64	24.34	24.18	23.32	23.23	22.27	21.81
Strategic emphasis	27.54	29.85	24.61	25.85	23.57	22.90	25.65	21.90
Criteria of Success	28.22	30.59	28.11	25.07	20.97	22.38	21.75	21.26

Table 2 shows the means on organizational culture of the colleges. The dominant organizational culture is *clan* as its dominant characteristics (mean = 31.85), organizational leadership (mean = 29.11), management of employees (mean = 30.45), organization glue (mean = 30.33), strategic emphasis (mean = 27.54), criteria of success (mean = 28.22) obtained the highest means across all the organizational cultures. Interestingly, the colleges' preferred organizational culture is *clan* as it obtained a mean of 32.61 for dominant characteristics, organizational leadership (mean = 29.93) management of employees (mean = 32.32), organization glue (mean = 30.64), strategic emphasis (mean = 29.85), criteria of success (mean = 30.59). Consistency is, hence, shown in the administrators' preference of organizational culture.

4.3. Weighted Means and Verbal Interpretations on Management Practice of Administrators

Table 3. Weighted Means and Verbal Interpretations on Management Practices

Management Practices		Weighted Mean	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
Hierarchy	Monitor	4.258	Very Often (VO)
	Coordinator	4.206	Very Often (VO)
Market	Director	4.278	Very Often (VO)
	Producer	4.218	Very Often (VO)
Clan	Facilitator	4.222	Very Often (VO)
	Mentor	4.283	Very Often (VO)
Adhocracy	Innovator	4.188	Very Often (VO)
	Broker	4.080	Very Often (VO)

Table 3 depicts the weighted means and verbal interpretations on the management practice of administrators. Results show that the respondent administrators are *mentors* in their management practice (mean = 4.283; VI = VO). On the one hand, being a *director* ranked second (mean = 4.278, VI = VO). On the other hand, being monitors (mean = 4.258), facilitators (mean = 4.222), coordinators (mean = 4.206), producers (mean = 4.218), innovators (mean = 4.188), and brokers (X = 4.080) are all verbally interpreted as *very often (VO)* indicating homogeneity of responses from the selected administrators.

4.4 Weighted Means and Verbal Interpretations on Management Skill of Administrators in Selected Colleges

Table 4. Weighted Means and Verbal Interpretations on Management Skills

Management Skills		Weighted Mean	Verbal Interpretation (VI)
Hierarchy	Managing Acculturation	4.334	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing the Control System	4.316	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing Coordination	4.324	Moderately Agree (MA)
Market	Managing Competitiveness	4.326	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Energizing Employees	4.342	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing Customer Service	4.392	Moderately Agree (MA)
Clan	Managing Teams	4.398	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing Interpersonal Relationships	4.438	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing the Development of Others	4.400	Moderately Agree (MA)
Adhocracy	Managing Innovation	4.378	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing the Future	4.376	Moderately Agree (MA)
	Managing Continuous Improvement	4.430	Moderately Agree (MA)

The management skill of selected colleges is *managing interpersonal relationships* anchored to the *clan* organizational culture (mean = 4.438, VI = MA) as shown in Table 4. The management skill of *managing continuous improvement* in the organizational culture of *adhocracy* ranked second (mean = 4.430, VI = MA). As much as homogeneity in responses exist, *managing the control system* from the *hierarchy* organizational culture (VI = MA) obtained the lowest weighted mean of 4.316.

4.5 Significant Difference of Organizational Culture, Management Practices and Skills when grouped according to the Profiles of the Administrators

There were more significant differences on the key dimensions of organizational culture in terms of the present organization glue, and preferred management of employees, and organization glue when grouped according to religion as well as the key dimensions of organizational culture in terms of the present dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, and management of employees when grouped according to years of service as administrator.

On the other hand, there were no significant differences on the management practices and skills when grouped according to the profiles of the administrators.

5. DISCUSSION

The focus of this article is to discover the competing values framework, management practices, and skills of

administrators in the Philippines. It can be highlighted that older people make more use of higher-order reasoning schemes that emphasize the need for multiple perspectives, allow for compromise, and recognize the limits of knowledge (Nisbett and Grossmann as cited in Cohen, 2012). Despite a decline in fluid intelligence, complicated reasoning that relates to people, moral issues or political institutions become improved with age coinciding with the study's results on age, administrative position, and years of service. It also implies that the respondent colleges were following the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) Memorandum that all faculty members, especially deans and chairpersons, should be at least master's degree holders. On the other hand, since the study included the college secretary as respondents, all of them are bachelor's degree holders for it is the least qualification set for their position. It is interesting to note that the respondent administrators do not hold onto their administrative position for a long period of time, preceding the opportunity of being trained for top level administration official of any institution.

It can also be implied that the prevailing organizational culture in these colleges can be described as a friendly workplace where leaders act like father figures, mentors, and/or like in an extended family. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition, commitment is high, emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resource development, and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.

Results run parallel with the study of Moynes (2012) having *clan* as the organizational culture both now and preferred by the respondents. This, however, was contrary with Aquino's (2008) study where *adhocracy* was the dominant organizational culture and Mozaffari's (2008) that *hierarchy* was the present culture in nine big universities in Iran and had perceived the *adhocracy* culture as the most effective culture type for colleges and universities (desired culture type). It implies that organizational culture varies from the perspectives of the respondents based from the studies cited as well as the present study.

It means that the result is consistent to the organizational culture of the respondent colleges since the prevailing culture is *clan* and *mentor* as a management practice which are both within the said culture. It showed that the administrators are all associated with activities such as listening to subordinates personal problems, showing empathy and concern when dealing with subordinates, treating each individual member of a sub-unit in a sensitive, caring way, and showing concern for the needs of subordinates. Improvements on being a *facilitator* as a management practiced should be developed since the respondent administrators perceive and prefer to have *clan* as their organizational culture.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

On the whole, this study found that the prevailing management practice of these selected colleges is described within the context of clan culture wherein the administrators work in a friendly environment where they act like father figures and like in an extended family they are considered to be mentors which is one of the mark of good management of interpersonal relationships because they give importance on teamwork, participation, and consensus.

Results of this study provide valuable information that can be used in optimizing the organizational performance of administrators by aligning their organizational culture with their management practices and skills. This paper hopes to maximize performance and enhance their overall institutional effectiveness as they should be conscious and responsive to the variety of cultures existing in their colleges and the counterpart management practices and skills of a particular culture resulting to unity and harmony in their respective institutions. This study also recommends that measures should be undertaken to enhance organizational culture, management practices and skills of administrators so that their institutional goals will be achieved successfully and their level of college program accreditation be improved. Then, an executive training program must be developed since the results have shown that there were some administrators who scored low in some of the items in the Competing Values Management Practices Survey and Management Skills Assessment Instrument.

On the one hand, the colleges in the country should conduct their own organizational culture assessment and include leadership competency analysis, based on the management practices and skills, and provide training for administrators to strengthen and improve appropriate management practices and skills associated with the type of culture the college has deemed suitable and the kinds of change emanating from comparisons between the present and preferred cultures. This includes an analysis by type of institution, position, age, gender, religion, highest educational attainment, and years of service.

On the other hand, another study should be conducted to understand the organizational cultures associated with the high performance of some higher education institutions and determine its influence in terms of their licensure performance examination results, expansions, level of accreditation, and enrolment. Furthermore, the researcher highly recommends that similar studies be conducted to other respondents such as the administrators from state colleges and universities, local government colleges and universities, and CHED deregulated and autonomous higher education institutions.



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STRUCTURAL TRANSFORMATIONS IN THE TURKISH MEDIA DURING THE RECENT ERA

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ABSTRACT

As an important factor in social interaction, media content is determined by the production modalities of mass communication industry. The manufacturers of this industry are bound by the conditions of their political economy environment. Let alone acting independent from the political economy environment, the media is known for continuously reproducing and enforcing the system by its activity. The recent era of the Turkish media, in particular the two terms of the Ak Party administration witnessed significant structural transformations in ownership, ideological stance, number of working journalists, changed governance structures etc. This study is focused to structural transformations in the Turkish media that is going on in the whole Turkish political system. These transformations are to be explored by media content, ownership changes, ideological stance changes, workforce changes, news factors and other statistics.

Keywords: Turkish media, Ak Party, Media ownership, media freedom.

INTRODUCTION

Although the need for capital in the Turkish press began by the introduction of the off-set printing technology in the 1970'ies, the real change in ownership patterns began with the economical transformation in Turkey after the *24 January 1980 resolutions*. Until this, the national press was dependent on regular fees of the official announcements of the *Press Bulletin Agency* and an 80 % allowance in the costs of the imported printing paper. Technological developments, costs of news gathering and the cost increases of paper and other sectors etc. put the Turkish press in a continuous financial struggle that made the establishment of traditional newspaper ownership patterns very difficult in Turkey.

With the economical growth of the 1980'ies, more businesspeople found an engagement in the business sector desirable for aiding their purposes and new national newspapers began to compete for the readership. The daily *Güneş* of the businessman Mehmet Ali Yılmaz aided also his aspirations for becoming a government minister and another businessman Aydın Doğan bought the *Milliyet* that would develop rapidly into a giant media group. Dinç Bilgin carried the success of his regional daily *Yeni Asır* of İzmir to İstanbul as the successful model paper *Sabah*. Competition for advertising revenues also increased commercialization that saw an era of lotteries, promotional coupons for items ranging from encyclopedias to cardboard toys and to various household items. *Milliyet*, *Sabah*, *Hürriyet* and *Türkiye* were the newspapers that broke the one million circulation barrier with the help of these and other promotional strategies that had also their effects on the journalism of these dailies. Other papers that drove the tabloidization harder like *Tan*, *Bulvar*, *Bugün*, *Gazete* and *Meydan* achieved also high numbers of circulation with decreased news gathering costs and at the beginning of the 1990'ies the total circulation of the Turkish press reached 5 million (Toruk, 2007:75-83).

In 1990, the *Hürriyet* group owned by Erol Simavi was the biggest newspaper in financial means, followed by the group of Dinç Bilgin that included *Yeni Asır*, *Bugün*, *Fotomaç*, *Sabah* and others. The *İhlas* group had founded the paper *Türkiye*, Aydın Doğan's group, the owner of the *Milliyet*, and also the businessman Asil Nadir who gave cause to complaints of media monopolization with buying the newspapers *Günaydın*, *Güneş*, *Tan*, *Fotospor* and also magazines as *Nokta* and the *Gelişim Publications*. Ilıcak, the owner of the political daily *Tercüman* followed by adding the tabloid *Bulvar*, and not at last, the new emerging *Zaman* group (Koloğlu, 2006:142-157).

Hürriyet, as the biggest media group of the 1990'ies enforced its leadership by entering into contracts with international media groups that enabled it to print periodicals in economics, magazine, women etc, followed by the *Sabah* group that presented the Turkish language versions of foreign periodicals (Toruk, 2005: 276-280).

1.Important Groups in the Turkish Media

1.1.The Doğan Group

The businessman Aydın Doğan emerged with growth from the 1994 economical crisis and bought the veteran *Hürriyet* from the traditional newspaper owner Erol Simavi and developed into the most important actor of the Turkish press. The ownership crowd at the beginning of the 1990'ies gave way to concentration during the second half of the decade, resulting in the emergence of the two bigger groups of Aydın Doğan and its main rival the Sabah group who both developed into fully organized media systems by founding and buying distribution networks, advertising agencies, TV channels, radio stations, web publishing etc. In addition to the *Kanal D*, The Doğan group also entered into partnership with the Time Warner Group to found the *CNN Türk* in 1999 (Toruk, 2005:300-307). Included in the group are seven daily newspapers as *Hürriyet*, *Milliyet*, *Radikal*, *Posta*, *Fanatik*, *Referans* and *Turkish Daily News* that are supported by the news agency DHA Doğan Haber Ajansı, and also 24 periodicals under the Doğan-Burda group. Doğan group carried its TV channels onto a paid broadcasting platform named *D Smart* in February 2007 (Toruk, 2007: 77-79).

As by 2008, Turkish newspaper press totaled a daily circulation of 2.1 millions making an attractive advertising medium from which the seven dailies of the Doğan group had a share of 35 %. The TV ratings agency AGB measured during August 2006 the viewer ratings of the television channels of the Doğan group as such: Kanal D 12.5 %, Star 9.3 %, CNN Türk 1.3 totaling to 22.9 %. The TV channels of the Ciner group were measured as, ATV 9.8 %, Kanal 1 4.1 totaling 13.9 %. The Çukurova group's Show Tv featuring 13.4 %, approaching 20 % with the group's other television channels Show Türk, Show Max, Sky Türk together (www.superpoligon.com). The first three media groups of Çukurova, Doğan and Ciner have dominance in television broadcasting with 56.3 % together.

The 1994 financial crisis was beneficial to the Doğan group, it bought the *Hürriyet* and also the credit institution Dışbank (Toruk, 2005: 234). After 11 years in 2005, Dışbank was sold to Holland-Belgian finance institution Fortis with great profit (Milliyet, 05.07.2005). The income was used for the acquisition of İstanbul Hilton for 255.5 million US dollars followed by the acquisition of Star TV by auction of the TMSF agency fund for 306.5 US dollars. Establishing vast economical and media interests, the Doğan group became an important political power in Turkey.

However, after the second term election victory of the AKP administration in 2007, new regulations began affecting the Doğan media group. In 2009, the group was condemned to a very heavy tax evasion fine of 2.5 millions US dollars from the 2006 sale of The Doğan TV Holding to the Axel Springer group. This process prompted Doğan group to express the decision to decrease its ventures in the media sector. The law 6112 that was passed in 2011 had important effects on the broadcasting media ownership in Turkey. The group transferred in April 2011 the daily *Milliyet* for 47.98 US dollars and the *Vatan* for 26 millions US dollars to the Demirören & Karacan group (<http://ekonomi.milliyet.com>). The group's media presence continued to contract with the sale of Star TV to Doğuş group in 2011.

1.2 The Uzan Group

The Uzan group is an interesting example for the intertwined interests of big business-politics-media in Turkey.

Perhaps the most important development in Turkish media history was the deregulation of the broadcasting media in the 1990'ies that enabled big business to establish big media groups as powerhouses that aimed aggregation of financial, political and media power for pursuing their interests. A relatively short time span of two decades witnessed the rise and fall of some group and it can be said that the process of big transformation is yet to come to balance and peace.

Although the media past of the Uzan family dates back to the small Yeni İstanbul newspaper that they had acquired in 1964, their prominence begins with their venture with Ahmet Özal the son of the President of The Republic in the late 1980'ies. Their Magic Box broadcasting venture aimed in 1989 at the de facto subversion of the public broadcasting regulation with the first private television channel in Turkey the Star 1 (Toruk, 2005: 294). Much later, in 1998, they printed the daily *Star* and established their own distribution organization.

The Uzan group is an interesting example for the intertwined interests of big business-politics-media in Turkey. In order to be able to contend in the 2002 general elections, they used the legal infrastructure of the Yeniden Doğuş party and founded the Genç-(Young) Party that achieved a significant vote of 7 % with its anti-IMF discourse. *The Economist* labeled in the March 6, 2003 issue Cem Uzan as "The Berlusconi of Turkey". In 2003, government inquiries put an end to the aspirations and in 2004, the government agency of The Insurance Fund for Banking- TMSF seized control of 219 entities of the Uzan group according to the new law (<http://dosya.hurriyetim.com.tr>). The media outlet of the group Star TV was among the seized entities and was auctioned in 2006 to the Doğan Media Group and the newspaper *Star Gazetesi* was auctioned to the businessman Ali Özmen Safa from Northern Cyprus for 8 million US dollars. Both media outlets were used

heavily by Cem Uzan in his political engagement as rival to the Premier Recep Tayyip Erdoğan and needless to say, the takeover affected a profound change in the newsroom politics of both media organizations.

This beginning era of the Turkish media enterprises saw the rise of some newcomers like the Doğan group and Bilgin group, followed by İhlas, Zaman, Aksoy, Ciner and Çukurova groups and also witnessed the falling of the much selling dailies of the 1980'ies like *Güneş*, *Günaydın* and *Tan* and the exit of the businessman Korkmaz Yiğit who had bought Kanal 6 and Genç TV.

1.3 The Bilgin Group

The then biggest rival of the Doğan group, the Bilgin group achieved success in the 1980'ies with the daily Sabah and established ATV in 1993 that one year later achieved the highest viewer ratings (Toruk, 2005:299).

The year 2000 proved a disastrous season for the owner Dinç Bilgin since his credit difficulties caused the TMSF banking fund to seize control of his bank Etibank that he had acquired jointly with Çağlar from the same fund in 1997. His credit operations brought Bilgin even into prison (Toruk, 2005:236).

The daily Sabah and ATV channel were given in 2002 a bid of 500 million US dollars by Aydın Doğan but the Banking Control Council rejected the bid in grounds of monopolization and rented them to Turgay Ciner for 200 thousand US dollars a month. As Dinç Bilgin was released, he made an agreement with Karamehmet and Ciner and transferred his rights on the newspaper and TV channel to them. This agreement caused mutual allegations between Doğan and Ciner groups (Topuz, 2003:324).

1.4. The Ciner Group

Known more for it's investments in the mining and energy sectors, Turgay Ciner's group rose to prominence by it's acquisition of the newspapers of the Sabah group in 2002. Although he later had to cede them, he continued to invest in media organizations and growing by acquiring the Habertürk Television channel and the important news portal haberturk.com in 2007 (<http://www.parkgrup.com.tr/companies.php?CID=26>). He continued by printing a newspaper of the same news group in 2009 and added Bloomberg TV in 2010.

1.5 The Çalık Group

As a fraudulent agreement between Bilgin and Ciner in relation to the transfer of Sabah and ATV media groups surfaced, the TMSF government fund take over again these media organizations from Ciner and auctioned them to the sole bidder Çalık who was known as having ties to the Premier Erdoğan in 2007 for 1.25 billion US dollars. The business entity of ATV-Sabah group includes these publishing and broadcasting organizations that were transferred to Turkuvaz Inc.: the ATV television channel, Radio City, Sabah, Takvim, Günaydın, Yeni Asır, Pas, Fotomaç, Bebeğim ve Biz, Sinema, Sofra, Home Art, ŞamdanPlus, Yeni Aktüel, Para, Global Enerji, Transport, Hukuki Perspektifler and Turkuvaz Distribution (Yeni Şafak, 23.04.2008). Çalık group entered into negotiations with domestic and foreign investors to get rid of it's Turkuvaz media and ultimately sold it to Zirve Holdings in 2014 (<http://www.hurriyet.com.tr/ekonomi/25407253.asp>). After one year now, the paper does not yet feature the name of owner.

1.6.The Çukurova Group

Although no newcomer to media investments, the group had acquired the daily Akşam in 1977, the group is best known with the foundation of the communication company Turkcell in 1994. After the acquisition of Show Tv from Erol Aksoy in the 1990'ies, it also had the rights to the veteran newspaper Tercüman among other numerous television channels and other advertising and marketing firms in the media sector. A crisis at the beginning of the millennium forced the group to abandon it's banking and media ventures to the TMSF banking fund.

1.7. The Doğuş Group

Another remarkable media investor in Turkey towards the new millennium is the Doğuş group of the Şahenk family that was known by it's investments in the banking and automotive sectors. The group entered the media sector jointly with the Doğan group for the Kanal D in 1993 but resigned two years later. Later in 1999, the group acquired the NTV from Cavit Çağlar. In 2011, the group acquired Star Tv from Doğan group and added it to it's supply of printed and broadcast media consisting of NTV, Star TV, NTV Spor, NTV Spor Smart HD, Kral TV, Kral POP TV, E2, CNBC-e, NTV Radyo, Capital Radio Türkiye, Kral FM, Kral POP Radyo, NTV.com.tr, NTVspor.net, tvyo.com, cnbce.com, VOGUE, GQ, National Geographic, NG Kids, Robb Report.

1.8. The İhlas Group

The İhlas group was known for its ventures in construction, media, real estate development, marketing and household appliances. The group entered the media sector early in the 1970's with the daily *Hakikat* and two years later with *Türkiye*. The group founded in 1993 the TGRT television, the İhlas News Agency İHA, TGRT Haber, TGRT EU, TGRT Pazarlama (marketing) and numerous journals. The 2001 financial crisis deprived the group from its finance institution and after long negotiations it had to sold the TV channel TGRT to Ahmet Ertegun and his partner Rupert Murdoch in 2006 (<http://www.haber7.com>).

1.9. Other Important Groups

In recent years, the Zaman media group achieved a remarkable growth in printed and broadcast media that included Samanyolu TV, Mehtap TV, Samanyoluhaber TV, Yumurcak TV, MC TV, Dünya TV, Tuna TV, Irmak TV, Xazar TV, Kanal 35, Burç FM, Radyo Mehtap, Dünya Radyo, Radyo Berfin, Radyo Cihan, Akra FM, Moral FM, Radyo 2000, Radyo 34, Xazar FM, Burç FM, (Bakü). Ayrıca Feza Gazetecilik A.Ş bünyesinde ise şu organlar bulunmaktadır: Zaman Gazetesi, Meydan Gazetesi (from 6 April 2015), Today's Zaman, Cihan Haber Ajansı, Aksiyon Dergisi, Zaman Kitap, Cihan Medya Dağıtım, Zaman Amerika, Zaman Azerbaycan, Zaman Avusturya, Zaman Avrupa, Zaman Bulgaristan, Zaman Kazakistan, Zaman Romanya, Zaman Türkmenistan.

Another long lasting media group are included in the Kanal 7 group. Koza-İpek group acquired the daily *Bugün* (former *Tercüman*) in 2005 and added in 2008 Kanaltürk TV, Kanaltürk Radyo and www.kanalturk.com from Tuncay Özkan for 40 million US dollars.

The Albayrak group entered into the broadcast sector by acquiring TVNet in 2007 in addition to its daily *Yeni Şafak*.

The Sancak group of the businessman Ethem Sancak known as close to the administration, in addition to the daily *Star* and the 24 TV, acquired the media assets of the Çukurova group namely the dailies *Akşam* and *Güneş*, and in 2013 the Türkmedya group owning the magazines *Alem* and *Platin*, the radio channels *Alem FM* and *Lig Radio*, and also the television channel 360 TV for 62 million US dollars (<http://www.turkmedya.com.tr>). These acquisitions made the Sancak group an important supporter of the administration.

Other media outlets openly supporting the administration are the TGRT news channel, the daily *Türkiye*, the print and broadcast media of the Çalık (now *Turkuvaz/Kalyon*), the Albayrak group, the Sancak group, Kanal 7 group and also independent channels Kanal A, Beyaz TV, Show TV, TRT in addition to the independent newspapers *Akit*, *Milat*, *Diriliş* among others.

The Koza-İpek group is owned by Akın İpek who is known as close to Fethullah Gülen. The group includes the TV channels Kanaltürk and *Bugün* TV in addition to the daily *Bugün* and had supported the administration alongside the media of the Zaman group that is also affiliated to the Gülen movement but went into opposition after the end of 2013 like the Zaman group.

Rupert Murdoch's News Corp. owns the media assets of TGRT TV (from on 2006), FOX TV Türkiye, Fox Life Türkiye, Fox Spor Türkiye, Baby TV Türkiye, National Geographic Türkiye.

The public broadcaster Turkish Radio and Television Corporation operates today 15 television channels, 16 radio channels, trt.net.tr and trt.world.com in 35 languages.

2.The Situations of Turkish Media Groups in Press and Broadcast

The shares of the five media groups that constituted 88 % of Television broadcasting in 2010 were listed as Doğan with 39 %, *Turkuvaz* 19 %, Çukurova 14 %, Doğuş 9 %, Fox 8 % (Source: Mindshare: 2010;Sözeri, &Güney: 2011). Table 1 shows that the Doğan group prevailed clearly as leader up to 2010.

According to the measurements of the media rating agency, the viewing ratings of media outlets close to the administration -all channels of the public Turkish Radio and Television Corporation, ATV, TGRT, A haber, Kanal A, Beyaz TV, Kanal 7, Ülke TV, TV 24, Show, Habertürk, TVNet, NTV etc- were given in total as 44.17 by April 2015 % while the Television channels with marked oppositional stance -STV, CNN Türk, Kanal D, *Bugün*, S Haber, Halk etc,- totaled to 44.17 %, leaving a 31.33 % for those channels that showed no marked political stance including no-news channels like children, sports, etc (www.tiak.com.tr).

The total circulation numbers of newspapers in the week of 11-17 May averaged as 4.562.334 a day. The newspapers of the Doğan media group, *Hürriyet*, *Daily Hürriyet*, *Posta* and *Fanatik*, totaled to 861,320; the *Zaman* and *Today's Zaman* 880,477; *Sözcü* 349,767; *Bugün* 124,602. The remaining oppositional newspapers including *Taraf*, *Yurt*, *Birgün*, *Korkusuz*, *Y. Asya*, *Yeni Çağ*, *Cumhuriyet*, *Millet*, *Meydan*, *Ortadoğu* achieved a total circulation of 2,640,300. On the other hand, newspapers close to the government party including *Star*, *Akşam*, *Y. Şafak*, *Türkiye*, *Habertürk*, *Takvim*, *Güneş*, *Milat*, *Diriliş*, *Daily Sabah*, *Sabah*, *Vahdet* yielded a total circulation of 1,279,524. A more opponent stance is clearly prevalent in the printed media (www.medyatava.com).

Table 1 Advertising Revenue Shares of Cross-owned Media Outlets (2010) (Source: Mindshare)

MEDIA GROUP	Television %	Newspaper %	Magazine or Journal %	Radio %	Internet %
Doğan Group	36	58	30	8	20
Çukurova Group	12	3	6	6	1
Turkuvaz	19	24	18	2	4
Doğuş Group	8		4	9	7
Ciner Group	2	1	3	-	2
Other Media	23	14	39	75	66

Business and political interests have ever been represented in the media in general and in particular in the Turkish media, but it was from 1980 onwards during the 1990's that business interests were able to form strong media groups with the aim of exerting crude political power. The investment requirements of the broadcast technologies resulted in the resignation of traditional newspaper owner families and the taking over of big business that did not hesitate to build up and use media power according their designs. A single decade saw the introduction of liberalism and also that of neo-liberalism. These rapid economical and technological changes were accompanied by changes in political structures.

With the new millennium, the rapid construction of the big media groups was reversed and ownership changed again hands. As the 1999 economical crisis in Turkey resulted in instability amongst the banking ventures of big business, the government agency TMSF had to overtake their financial burdens which resulted in the taking over of the related other firms -media groups included. The government took control of various enterprises, newspapers, TV and radio channels etc. in relation with Etibank of the Bilgin group, İhlas Finans, Adabank, İmar Bankası of the Uzan group, Pamukbank and Yapı Kredi of the Çukurova grup (Adaklı, 2006, Toruk, 2007:75-83). As the AKP came to power in 2002, the conditions for a reorganization of the Turkish media system was ready. The 2007 elections reassured the political power and the various media organizations at the hands of the government could be conveniently acquired by businessmen close to the government party in addition to newly started media ventures. The traditional media of the party like *Yeni Şafak* and *Kanal 7* were enforced by more mainstream media outlets like *Sabah*, *ATV*, *Star*, *Akşam*. In addition, the public broadcasting corporation TRT with it's various channels is broadcasting supportive to government politics.

Although the past eras gave media groups the chance to assert media pressure on unstable coalition governments that enabled them to acquire banks and other assets, this resulted ultimately in adverse conditions as the rise and fall of Bilgin, Uzan, Aksoy documents. Yet, it can be said that the following era of the new media ownership organization by businesses close to the AKP bears similarities. Opposition sources frequently assert that public tenders are given to business circles close to the governing party.

President Erdogan's speech (Bus owner/driver Federation general assembly, 28 May, 2015, 11.45 am) was broadcast live (simultaneously) by 12 TV (Ahaber, TRT haber, Kanal A, NTV, 24 TV, CNN Turk, TGRT haber, Haberturk, Ülke, TVNet, Ahaber HD, TRT haber HD) channels.

The administration is criticized among others with not issuing advertising to opponent newspapers and television channels by government controlled firms, strict financial and tax control of opposition related firms for levying penalties against them, pressuring advertising givers, choosing affiliated newspapers like *Yeni Şafak*, *Star*, *Akşam*, *Sabah*, etc. for granting public advertising beyond their circulation numbers.

The Association of Modern Journalists (Çağdaş Gazeteciler Derneği) issued a media report for the first quarter of 2015 that stated "The administration used virtually all powers at his disposal to coerce the press into his control by first trying to change the ownership structure, those he couldn't were silenced by particularly financial threat messages, and those who could not be silenced were confronted with lawsuits and unemployment"(<http://www.cgdankara.org>).

Turkey has been confronted by heavy international criticism with publication bans of web portals like Facebook, Twitter and Youtube in particular in the context of the Gezi event and the December 17 process. Portals like Youtube were banned in relation to video and audios featuring secret phone recordings that were implicating government officials in addition to 80280 links that consisted mostly of porno links (<http://engelliweb.com/kategoriler/> Harris, S. K., 2014). The number of imprisoned journalist in Turkey is also frequently compared to countries like Iran and China (Ohml, B., 2015: 374). Turkey is ranked 149th out of 180 countries in the 2015 Reporters Without Borders press freedom index with a score of 44.16 (<http://index.rs.org>). "Reporters Without Borders is also disturbed by the way the state-owned national TV broadcaster TRT is giving an unfair amount of air-time to the ruling party's candidates for the 7 June (2015)

parliamentary elections. On Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu's orders, many outspoken media were prevented from attending a funeral on 1 April in Istanbul's Eyüp Sultan Mosque for Mehmet Selim Kiraz, the prosecutor who had been killed the previous day after being taken hostage. Reporters from two news agencies (Cihan and Doğan), ten newspapers (Zaman, Hürriyet, Posta, Sözcü, Taraf, Millet, Cumhuriyet, Ortadoğu, Yeniçağ and Birgün) and five TV stations (Samanyolu TV, IMC TV, Kanaltürk, CNN Türk and Bugün) were turned away". (<https://en.rsfo.org>). There has been a controversy between President Erdogan and the New York Times (<http://www.nytimes.com/2015/05/23/25/28>).

Judicial pressure on oppositional papers is also frequently debated in the public agenda. As an example for the troubling development for press freedom was the President of the Republic's critic of the Doğan Media group who felt compelled to defend itself by an editorial letter.

CONCLUSION

This study tries to summarize the rapid and continuous media ownership changes in the Turkish media that began after 1980 and gained momentum in particular after the 1990's with the onslaught of big business that was focused on using the media as a power tool for pursuing business interests. Changes in economical and political conditions facilitated continuous handovers of financial ventures and media outlets as well. After 2007, also businessmen known as affiliated to the governing party continued the trend that enforced a polarized media landscape. The government does not shy away of putting pressure on media and journalists by unemployment, interventions to news content, intolerance to criticism, increasing numbers of imprisoned journalists, interventions to the internet and the social networks etc. and that builds up serious international criticism.

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EXPLORATION OF RIGHT DURATION AND TIME OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING COMPONENT IN THE COURSE CURRICULUM OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT COURSE AS PER DIFFERENT STAKEHOLDERS

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ABSTRACT

Hotel management education in India, at the undergraduate level, has mainly emerged due to the market forces. Hotel management graduates need to acquire competencies that enable them to cope with the changing circumstances of the hotel business world. One endeavour in point of fact to build an interface between what is taught in hotel management education and what is essentially required by the industry, through industrial training. **Students of different institutions of varied industrial training duration and time approaches 3 or above 3 star hotels to undergo industrial training.** So students generally complain about the quality of the industrial training which could results in increasingly **high fallout rates of graduates from the hotel industry**. At present there are differences in the industrial training practices from academic program to academic program. This paper is an attempt to find when it is the right time and duration of industrial training in the course curriculum of hotel management of three year degree program as per stakeholders. The research instrument used in the study was questionnaire .The sample population of the study includes four groups' .First and second one are hotel management students enrolled in three years degree courses of Hotel Management institutions in the region of Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh. Students were further divided into Pre training students and Post training students .The pre training students are those who have not undergone industrial training and are in the initial phase of their course (I year students) where as Post training students are those who have completed their industrial training and are in the final phase of their course (III year). Both students groups were selected from various academic institutions such as 1) State University 2) Deemed University 3) Private Universities 4) National council of hotel management institutions .Third are the hotel industry professionals working in 3 or above three star approved Hotel (3, 4, and 5 star). Based on data analysis it is concluded that **right duration** in terms of weeks for industrial training as per hotel industry professional is 24 weeks, where as faculty members opinions regarding right duration is of 20 weeks .In the opinions of pre to industrial training students, it is of 12 weeks and by post to industrial training students it is of 16 weeks (10 weeks preferred by students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotel ,where as 16 weeks each preferred by both 4 and 5 star hotel students).For second time there is similarity exist in the opinions of pre ,post industrial training students and hotel industry professional that is it should be of 4 weeks ,where as faculty members median value is 12 weeks. **Right time** for industrial training is 4 semesters for the first time and 6 semesters for the second time as per hotel industry professionals and faculty members .Whereas pre-to industrial training students median value is 3 semester for first time and 6 semester for the second time and in case of post to industrial training students median value is 4 semester(3 semester preferred by those students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotels ,4 semester by 4 star and 5 semester by 5 star hotel students respectively) and 6 semester for second time.As per different Universities, Deemed, Private and National Council mean score is 4 semester for the first Right Time and second Right Time mean score is 6 semester whereas in case of State Universities mean score for the first Right time is 3 semester and 6 semester for the second Right Time .For Industrial training to be successful, each stakeholder has a particular role

to play to make it a win –win situation for all concerned with it. Findings coincides with **Moody (1997)** that the best type of industrial training program is the one which involves the hosting hotel business from the outset and where it demonstrates a genuine commitment to student learning. Students should not be regarded as “low-cost sources of labour” by their industrial training hotels. Similarly **Nicolaides (2006)**, highlighted that hotel industry needs to play a better role in encouraging industrial training experiences of the students so that it should be a perfect occasion for hotel management institutions and hotel industry professionals to build extended relationships and a better prospective for working together to meet the hotel industry needs and wants, as in Hotel sector.

INTRODUCTION

Hotel management education in India, at the undergraduate level, has mainly emerged due to the market forces. Many Central as well State Universities with the funding of Ministry of Tourism Grant started on campus Hotel management and Tourism related courses. In fact, many of these schools now offer catering and service management courses to prepare high school students for an earlier career in the hotel industry. In the face of such expansion, questions have often been raised about the level, scope and quality of hotel management training and education in the country. Thus there is a need to come up with a uniform curriculum that is not only acceptable to all the hotel industry participants, but which is also competitive both locally and internationally. At present hotel management course curriculum covers major areas of the hotel operations such as **Front office operations, Food and Beverage Service, Food and Beverage Production and Housekeeping Operation** and includes other management related subjects. Each semester curriculum comprises of four major subjects based on the hotel core areas and other management subjects.

Due to growing worldwide competition, technological advances and changing demand patterns of multi- optional consumers sets new level of challenges not only to hotel industry but also to the hotel education system. In order to meet up the demands of the hotel industry both on a personal and job career level, Hotel management graduates need to acquire competencies that enable them to cope with the changing circumstances of the hotel business world. One endeavour in point of fact to build an interface between what is taught in hotel management education and what is essentially required by the industry, through industrial training.

Research Problem

Majority of the properties do not have an organised, monitored and measured industrial training program rolled out. **Students of different institutions of varied industrial training duration and time approaches 3 or above 3 star hotels to undergo industrial training.** So students generally complain about the quality of the industrial training which could results in increasingly **high fallout rates of graduates from the hotel industry**. The hotel industry has to anticipate the learning needs of students during their industrial training time. There is a lot of room for improvement and need for introspection”.

Purpose

Purposely to find when it is the right time and duration of industrial training in the course curriculum of hotel management of three year degree program as per stakeholders. So that it would give beneficial experience to the students and positively associated with career commitment. At present there are differences in the industrial training practices from academic program to academic program.

Research Objective

1. To explore right time and duration of industrial training component in the course curriculum of Hotel management course as per different stakeholders (Faculty members, Industry professionals, Pre industrial training students and Post industrial training students).
2. To measure any significant differences exist in terms of right time and duration of industrial training among stakeholders.
3. To examine reasons marked by stakeholders for the right time and duration of industrial training.

Hypothesis

Ho: There is no significant difference in the opinions of all stakeholders regarding right time and duration of training.

Ho: There is no significant differences exist among Universities in the duration of Industrial training preferences for both time

Ho: There is no statistical significant differences exist among stakeholders in terms of right time for industrial training for first and second time

Ho: There are no significant differences between Universities opinions in terms of Right time for industrial training for first and second time.

Ho: There is no significant difference between stakeholder's opinions in terms of reason marked by stakeholders for Right Time and Duration of Industrial training

Limitations of the study

1. Responses for each survey were gathered under the assumptions that the individuals were honestly reporting true information and opinions. However bias if any cannot be ruled out.
2. The post industrial training student group surveyed consisted of a different group of students than the pre industrial training sample. Therefore, results for these two groups are relative, and the post training survey was not a follow up to the pre training survey.
3. The study was further limited to the data collected through the utilization of the quantitative survey questionnaire.

Review of Literature

Barrows & Bosselman (1999) stated that the major principle of keeping hospitality internship in the curriculum is to assist students to gain valuable work experience within the hospitality industry and highlights the exercise of students taking an active responsibility in their learning process opposed to simply receiving information from their instructors. It is designed to provide an opportunity for the practical application of skills and concepts learned in the classroom. **Coco (2000)** highlighted that internship is a valuable component of higher education program, Internship is supposed to build win-win situation for the students, organization as well as the university.

Mateo (1991) argued that need of the hour is for similarity of efforts of education and industry to assure that programs are effectively preparing the potential workforce of the hospitality industry. **Tobias (1996)** pointed that well-developed internships play a vital role to assist the student, educators and industry representatives in discovering answers to needs that cannot be served through the framework of the academic curriculum. **Krasilovsky and Lendt (1996)** claimed that Industrial training also help schools resolve the high expenses involved in providing needed

facilities and equipment .The students also get the chance to meet their future bosses, and have a higher chance of finding a job through the industrial training component.

Tackett et al., (2001) and Maskooki et al., (1998) in their study asked who should be responsible for arranging their internship placement; the majority of interns feel faculty should work for their placement. Similarly Gault *et al.* (2000) in their study found most students in previous studies felt confused on who should arrange the internships.

Lent et al. (2002) in their study claimed that “the relative support of these experiential factors supports the exercise of exposing students to career examination activities (e.g., job shadowing, internships, realistic job previews) that enable them to make clear their interests, values, and skills in relation to particular occupational fields and work tasks”.

Mishra, Lavkush., Rana, Vinay. (2012) in their research explored the views of academicians on status, gaps and remedies for undergraduate hospitality education in Uttarakhand. Findings revealed numerous issues that plague Uttarakhand undergraduate hospitality programmes such as curriculum designs remains stagnant making it not worthy enough for industry to look for qualified people on paper. The period of industrial exposure differs in each university syllabi. Social stigma attached to Hospitality Education Historically, work in hotels was perceived by Indians as opportunities for occupations as cooks, servers (waiters or bearers) in restaurants and as receptionists.

METHODOLOGY

Research Methodology

Instrument

The research instrument used in the study was questionnaire .The sample population of the study includes four groups’ .First and second one are hotel management students enrolled in three years degree courses of Hotel Management institutions in the region of Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh. Students were further divided into Pre training students and Post training students .The pre training students are those who have not undergone industrial training and are in the initial phase of their course (I year students) where as Post training students are those who have completed their industrial training and are in the final phase of their course (III year). Both students groups were selected from various academic institutions such as 1) State University 2) Deemed University 3) Private Universities 4) National council of hotel management institutions .Third are the hotel industry professionals working in 3 or above three star approved Hotel (3, 4, and 5 star). Hotels employee working at Managerial, assistant managerial and supervisory level. Fourth were the hotel management faculty members working in various academic institutions in the region of Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh.

Table 1 shows Demographic Profile of Respondents

Variables		Frequency	Percentage
Stakeholders	<i>Industry Professionals</i>	100	12
	<i>Faculty</i>	150	18
	<i>Students –Pre Industrial Training</i>	276	34
	<i>Students –Post</i>	285	35
Total		811	100
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	11	4
	<i>HOD</i>	17	7
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	29	12
	<i>Lecturer</i>	54	22
	<i>Instructor</i>	39	16
	<i>Manager</i>	20	8
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	30	12
Total		250	100
Sex	<i>Male</i>	561	69
	<i>Female</i>	250	31
Total		811	100
Experience	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	86	34
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	93	37
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	48	19
	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	23	9
Total		250	100
Star	<i>3 Star</i>	76	20
	<i>4 Star</i>	212	55
	<i>5 Star</i>	97	25
Total		385	100
Region	<i>Punjab</i>	300	37
	<i>Haryana</i>	248	31
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	263	32
Total		811	100
Institution type	<i>State</i>	318	45
	<i>Deemed</i>	39	5
	<i>Private</i>	198	28
	<i>National Cou.</i>	156	22
	Total	711	100

Response Rate

A total of 150 surveys were mailed to industry professionals working within the lodging industry. Of these mailed surveys, 100 were returned, with a response rate of 66.6%. A total of 300 surveys were distributed to post training students out of which 285 were found complete and useable for data tabulation, with a response rate of 95%. Similarly a total of 300 surveys were distributed to pre training students and there were 276 pre-training student respondents observed, with a response rate of 92 %. Surveys were distributed by faculty members to students enrolled in their hotel management courses. A total of 200 faculty members surveyed for this study using a mailed and personal

approach method, out of which 150 questionnaire were found usable, with a response rate of 75 %.Table summarises the response rate of all focus group of respondents

Table 2 shows Response Rate			
Respondent	Survey distributed	Survey returned	Response Rate %
Industry professionals	140	100	71.4
Faculty members	200	150	75
Post training students	300	285	95
Pre training students	300	276	92

Results & Discussions

All four survey focus groups were asked about their opinion on the existing course curriculum of Hotel Management course require any changes for Industrial Training component, in terms of right time (in which semester students should go for training) and duration (for how many no. of weeks).

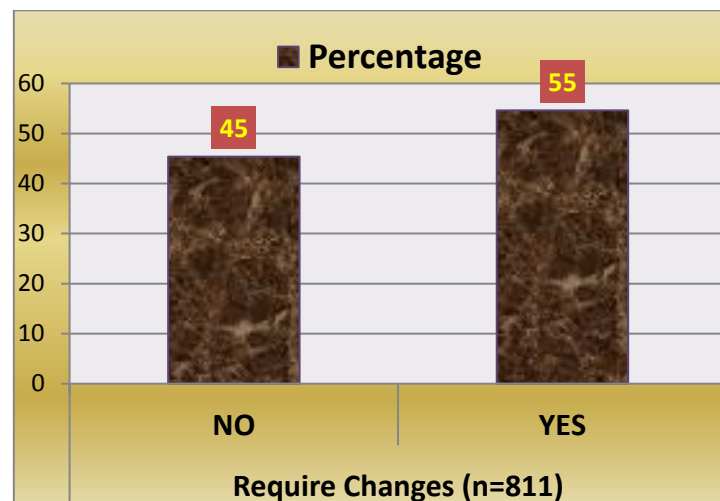


Chart 1 show responses of stakeholders on current practices of industrial training require changes in terms of duration & time.

Table 2 summarises the opinions of all four groups on current practice of industrial training require changes

In your opinion, existing course curriculum of Hotel Management course require any changes for Industrial Training component, in terms of right time (in which semester students should go for training) and duration (for how many no. of weeks) ?		Require Changes		
		NO%	YES%	Total
Stakeholders	<i>Industry Professionals</i>	29	71	100
	<i>Faculty</i>	38	62	100
	<i>Students –Pre Industrial Training</i>	55	45	100
	<i>Students –Post</i>	46	54	100
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	45	55	100
	<i>HOD</i>	18	82	100
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	41	59	100
	<i>Lecturer</i>	35	65	100
	<i>Instructor</i>	46	54	100
	<i>Manager</i>	40	60	100
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	20	80	100
	<i>supervisory</i>	30	70	100
Sex	<i>Male</i>	47	53	100
	<i>Female</i>	42	58	100
Experience	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	37	63	100
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	31	69	100
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	29	71	100
	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	48	52	100
STAR	<i>3 Star</i>	38	62	100
	<i>4 Star</i>	43	57	100
	<i>5 Star</i>	40	60	100
Region	<i>Punjab</i>	44	56	100
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	40	60	100
	<i>Haryana</i>	52	48	100
Type of institution	<i>State University</i>	51	49	100
	<i>Deemed University</i>	62	38	100
	<i>Private University</i>	44	56	100
	<i>National Council</i>	42	58	100

Out of total responses, 71%(n=71) hotel industry professional, 62 %(n=93) hotel management faculty members, 45 % (n=125) pre -industrial training students and 54%(n=154) post industrial training students were agreed **yes**, hotel management course curriculum requires changes in terms of industrial training structure. It was found that majority of all focus groups except pre industrial training students heavily admit that existing hotel management course curriculum pattern require changes in terms of industrial training structure. Low percentage of agreement was observed in case of pre to industrial training students for changes required in the course curriculum for industrial training component. This might be due to reason that they are in first year of their course structure and not in a position to evaluate the effectiveness of the industrial training by changing its current practice in terms of duration and time.

Designation Wise: Further break up of responses on designation basis, out of total response of hotel management faculty members, 55%(n=6) Principal, 82%(n=14) H.OD, 59%(n=17) Sr.Lecturer and 65% (n=35) Lecturer and 54%(n=21) Instructor agreed yes course structure requires changes in terms of duration and time of industrial training component in the course curriculum. Similarly hotel industry professionals in terms of their designation, 60 %(n=12) Manager ,80%(n=24) Assistant Manager and 70 % (n=35)Supervisors agreed that course curriculum require changes in the training component.

Region: Out of the total responses, 56 % respondent (n=168) in Punjab, 60 %(n=149) in Chandigarh and 48 % respondent (n=126) in Haryana region agreed that course structure requires changes in terms of time and duration of industrial training. It was found that 52%(n=137) respondent of all focus group from Haryana region disagree that course structure does not requires changes in the its current practice of industrial training component in the course curriculum .

Type of Academic Institution:In terms of different types of Universities ,only Private56% (n=111)and National council 58% (n=91) agrees to changes required in its current practice of industrial training however State51%(n=152) ,Deemed 62%(n=24) does not agreed to changes require in the current practice of industrial training component in the course curriculum in terms of time and duration . It was found that most of Universities under survey have a way of reviewing the industrial training component as per the observed results.

Table 3 Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
Require Changes		
Stakeholders	Chi-square	23.854
	df	3
	Sig.	.000*
Designation	Chi-square	9.202
	df	7
	Sig.	0.238
Sex	Chi-square	1.291
	df	1
	Sig.	0.256
Experience	Chi-square	3.147
	df	3
	Sig.	0.369
Star Wise	Chi-square	0.73
	df	2
	Sig.	0.694
Region	Chi-square	7.993
	df	2
	Sig.	.018*
Type of Institution	Chi-square	8.0062
	df	3
	Sig.	.00459*

*Significance level $p < .05$

Chi square test applied and it was found that there is significant differences exist among stakeholders, region and Type of institution in terms of opinions regarding changes required in hotel management course curriculum for industrial training component. The significance level $p < .05$ is for stakeholders, .000, for region .018 and for institution .0045.

Right Duration of Industrial Training-as per Stakeholders

Those respondents marked yes, course structure of hotel management require changes in its current practice of industrial training were further asked to provide information on right duration and time of industrial training in terms of weeks that best represent the right duration of the industrial training and right time that is in which semester of the hotel management course students should go for industrial training.

Responses are in %		Table 4 First time Right Duration								
		4	8	12	16	20	24	28	48	Total
Stakeholders	<i>Industry Professionals</i>	3	6	7	4	20	48	7	6	100
	<i>Faculty</i>	0	2	11	8	76	3	0	0	100
	<i>Students –Pre</i>	10	18	24	18	19	10	0	0	100
	<i>Students –Post</i>	14	12	21	25	22	7	0	0	100
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	0	17	0	0	83	0	0	0	100
	<i>HOD</i>	0	0	7	7	86	0	0	0	100
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	0	6	12	6	71	6	0	0	100
	<i>Lecturer</i>	0	0	17	9	71	3	0	0	100
	<i>Instructor</i>	0	0	5	10	81	5	0	0	100
	<i>Manager</i>	0	17	8	0	8	42	17	8	100
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	0	0	4	4	33	46	4	8	100
	<i>Supervisory</i>	6	6	9	6	14	51	6	3	100
SEX(1M,2F)	<i>Male</i>	8	10	17	15	34	14	1	1	100
	<i>Female</i>	8	12	19	18	28	13	1	0	100
Experience	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	2	0	7	6	52	28	4	2	100
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	2	5	11	8	47	25	0	3	100
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	0	3	9	6	65	15	3	0	100
	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	0	17	8	0	42	8	17	8	100
STAR	<i>3 Star</i>	9	15	9	7	13	33	9	7	100
	<i>4 Star</i>	15	8	15	20	24	17	0	1	100
	<i>5 Star</i>	2	9	26	25	21	16	2	0	100
Region	<i>Punjab</i>	8	10	16	18	31	14	1	2	100
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	11	14	19	13	30	12	1	1	100
	<i>Haryana</i>	5	7	17	17	38	14	2	0	100
Institute Type	<i>State Universities</i>	10	14	22	15	30	8	0	0	100
	<i>Deemed University</i>	0	13	27	13	47	0	0	0	100
	<i>Private Universities</i>	5	11	23	22	32	8	0	0	100
	<i>National Council</i>	13	8	10	20	44	5	0	0	100
Responses are in %		Table 5 Second Time Industrial Training Duration								

		(weeks)						
		4	8	12	16	20	24	Total
Stakeholders	<i>Industry Professionals</i>	100	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>Faculty</i>	26	6	29	3	26	10	100
	<i>Students –Pre Industrial Training</i>	90	10	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>Students –Post</i>	77	0	14	0	9	0	100
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	0	0	0	0	100	0	100
	<i>HOD</i>	50	0	20	0	10	20	100
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	25	0	25	0	50	0	100
	<i>Lecturer</i>	11	0	67	0	11	11	100
	<i>Instructor</i>	14	29	0	14	43	0	100
	<i>Manager</i>	100	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	100	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>Supervisors</i>	100	0	0	0	0	0	100
Sex	<i>Male</i>	68	4	15	0	9	4	100
	<i>Female</i>	65	4	12	4	15	0	100
Experience	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	43	14	7	7	21	7	100
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	44	0	38	0	19	0	100
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	64	0	14	0	7	14	100
	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	0	0	0	0	100	0	100
Hotel Star wise	<i>3 Star</i>	60	0	20	0	20	0	100
	<i>4 Star</i>	82	0	14	0	4	0	100
	<i>5 Star</i>	94	0	0	0	6	0	100
Region	<i>Punjab</i>	66	2	12	2	15	2	100
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	71	6	10	0	10	3	100
	<i>Haryana</i>	64	4	21	0	7	4	100
Type of institutions	<i>State Universities</i>	55	7	17	3	17	0	100
	<i>Deemed University</i>	0	0	50	0	50	0	100
	<i>Private Universities</i>	61	5	16	0	13	5	100
	<i>National Council</i>	82	0	12	0	0	6	100

Stakeholders wise

Hotel Industry Professionals:

- **First time duration:** Among hotel industry professionals, out of total responses, 48% of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 24 weeks, 20% of the sample preferred industrial training should be of 20 weeks, 7% preferred industrial training to be of 12 and 28 weeks, 6% of sample preferred industrial training to be of 8 and 48 weeks, remaining 3 % of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 4 weeks. Hence *majority of the sample preferred training duration should be of 24 weeks.*
- **For second time:** 100% of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 4 weeks.

Faculty members

- **First time duration:** Among faculty members *majority (76%) of respondents preferred industrial training to be of 20 weeks* followed by 11% preferred 12 weeks
- **Second time:** Out of total responses 29% of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 12 weeks, followed by 26 % of sample preferred 4 weeks and 20 weeks duration.

Pre Students-Industrial Training

- **First time duration:** In case of Pre to industrial training students, 24 % of the sample preferred 12 weeks of industrial training and 19% of the sample preferred it should be of 20 weeks
- **Second Time:** Majority of the sample 75% preferred industrial training to be of 4 weeks duration

Post students-Industrial training

- **First time duration:** Among Post to industrial training students, 25 % of the sample preferred industrial training duration of 16 weeks, 22% preferred it should be of 20 weeks
- **Second time:** Majority of respondents (74%) preferred 4 weeks duration for second time.

Designation wise:

In terms of designation wise, Principal preferred industrial training to be of 20 weeks duration for the first time and 100% response was for 20 weeks duration for second time. Similarly in case of H.O.D, majority (86%) of the sample preferred industrial training duration of 20 weeks for first time and 50 % of the sample preferred 4 weeks duration for second time. Sr.Lecturer (71%) also preferred 20 weeks duration for first time and preferred same duration of 20 weeks in the second time and Out of total responses 71 % Lecturer preferred 20 weeks duration in industrial training for first time and 67% preferred 16 weeks duration in the second time and 81 % of Instructors preferred 20 weeks duration of industrial training and 43% of the sample of instructors preferred training should be of 20 weeks for the second time. Among Managers of Hotel operation, 42% of the sample, preferred 24 weeks for first time and 100% of the sample, preferred 4 weeks duration for second time, similar preference was marked by Assistant Managers and Supervisory level employees.

In terms of star category of hotels, 33% of the 3 star hotel sample, preferred to be of 24 weeks duration in first time industrial training and 60% of the sample, preferred 4 weeks duration in second time. Among 4 star hotels, 24% of the sample, preferred 20 weeks duration in first time and 82% preferred 4 weeks duration in the second time, whereas among 5 star hotels preferred 12 weeks duration in the first time and 63 % of the sample preferred 4 weeks duration in second time.

Among Universities

All preferred 20 weeks duration in the first time of industrial training (30% (n=46) State, 47% (n=7) Deemed, 32% (n=35) Private, 44% (n=40) National council and for the second time, 56 % of the sample in case of State Universities preferred 4 weeks duration in second time, 50 % each of sample in case of Deemed University preferred 12 weeks and 20 and 53% of the sample in case of Private Universities preferred 4 weeks for second time, similarly 82% of the sample in case National Council also preferred 4 weeks .

Based on tabulated data, it was observed that right duration of industrial training for first time in the course curriculum as per hotel industry professionals is of 24 weeks, whereas faculty members preferred, that it should be of 20 weeks, post to industrial training students preferred it should be of 16 weeks and pre to industrial training students preferred 16 weeks. The duration of training was found in decreasing order starting from 24 weeks to 16 weeks. Consensus among stakeholders were found for second time duration that is of 4 weeks.

Table 6 summarises the mean, median and mode of stakeholder's opinions on Right Duration of Industrial Training.

		Stakeholders			
		Industry Professionals	Faculty	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Students – Post
1st Time Duration	Mean	22.20	18.71	13.92	13.95
	Median	24.00	20.00	12.00	16.00
	Mode	24.00	20.00	12.00	16.00
	Maximum	48.00	24.00	24.00	24.00
	Minimum	4.00	8.00	4.00	4.00
	Standard Deviation	8.55	3.18	6.02	5.88
	Total N	100	150	276	285
2nd Time Duration	Mean	4.00	12.97	4.05	6.46
	Median	4.00	12.00	4.00	4.00
	Mode	4.00	12.00	4.00	4.00
	Maximum	4.00	24.00	6.00	20.00
	Minimum	4.00	4.00	3.00	2.00
	Standard Deviation	.00	7.06	.76	5.09
	Total N	100	150	276	285

Among stakeholders ,different opinions were expressed in terms of right duration of the industrial training .By comparing the median value of all stakeholders opinions ,it was found that hotel industry professionals preferred 24 weeks duration ,faculty members preferred 20 weeks duration, where as pre to industrial training students median value is of 12 weeks and 16 weeks preferred by the post to industrial training students. For the second time duration similarities exist between median values of hotel industry professionals, pre and post industrial training students that is 4 weeks however the median value of faculty members is 12 weeks.

Statistical significant differences exist among stakeholder's opinions in terms of duration of industrial training preferred by stakeholders for both the times. ($p=.000$, $p=.000$) revealed by chi square test .In terms of designation of faculty members and hotel industry professional significant differences exist in terms of industrial training duration ($p=.000$, $p=.038$).

In terms of experience wise there is no statistical difference among respondents for the first time duration ($p=0.186$), however there is differences exist for the second time duration ($p=0.02$) .In terms of star hotel wise there is significant differences exist for the first time duration ($p=.000$), however there is no differences exist for the second time duration ($p=0.2906$).

In terms of regions wise there is no differences were observed for both the duration of the industrial training(0.367 , $p=0.898$)and similarly there is no significant differences exist among Universities in the duration of Industrial training preferences for both time ($p=.143$ and $p=0.529$).

Stakeholders: First time $\chi^2(21, N=433) = 254.9$, $p=.000$. Second Time $\chi^2(15, N=433) = 45.244$, $p=.00001$.Type of Institution First Time $\chi^2(15, N=372) = 20.805$, $p=0.143$. Second time $\chi^2(15, N=372) = 13.94$, $p=0.529$.

Table 7 summarises the results of Chi –square test.

Pearson Chi-Square Tests-Right Duration			
		First Time Duration	Second Time Duration
Stakeholders	Chi-square	254.906	45.244
	df	21	15
	Sig.	.000*,	0.0001
Designation	Chi-square	107.702	59.653
	df	49	35
	Sig.	.000*,	0.0058
Sex	Chi-square	4.739	4.6821
	df	7	5
	Sig.	0.692	0.4559
Experience	Chi-square	26.566	19.201
	df	21	15
	Sig.	0.186	0.02048
Hotel Star Wise	Chi-square	43.951	4.9677
	df	14	4
	Sig.	.000*,	0.2906
Region	Chi-square	15.158	0.8983
	df	14	10
	Sig.	0.367	0.8983
Type of Institution	Chi-square	20.805	13.943
	df	15	15
	Sig.	0.1432	0.5298

Table 8 summarises the results of ANNOVA on right duration of training

								ANOVA	
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum	F	Sig.
1st Time Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	71	22.20	8.547	1.014	4	48	42.127	.000
	Faculty members	93	18.71	3.185	.330	8	24		
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	125	13.92	6.024	.539	4	24		
	Students –Post	152	13.95	5.877	.477	4	24		
	Total	441	16.27	6.796	.324	4	48		
2nd Time Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	14	4.00	.000	.000	4	4	18.398	.000
	Faculty members	31	12.97	7.059	1.268	4	24		
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	20	4.05	.759	.170	3	6		
	Students –Post	35	6.46	5.089	.860	2	20		
	Total	100	7.65	6.162	.616	2	24		

Table 9 shows pair wise comparisons results of duration of training among stakeholders.

Tukey HSD					
Dependent Variable	(I) Stakeholders	(J) Stakeholders	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1st Time Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	Faculty members	3.488	.946	.001
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	8.277	.892	.000
		Students –Post	8.250	.863	.000
	Faculty members	Hotel Industry Professionals	-3.488	.946	.001
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	4.790	.822	.000
		Students –Post	4.762	.791	.000
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Hotel Industry Professionals	-8.277	.892	.000
		Faculty members	-4.790	.822	.000
		Students –Post	-.027	.725	1.000
	Students –Post	Hotel Industry Professionals	-8.250	.863	.000
		Faculty members	-4.762	.791	.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.027	.725	1.000
2nd Time Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	Faculty members	-8.968	1.606	.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	-.050	1.737	1.000
		Students –Post	-2.457	1.577	.407
	Faculty members	Hotel Industry Professionals	8.968	1.606	.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	8.918	1.430	.000
		Students –Post	6.511	1.230	.000
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Hotel Industry Professionals	.050	1.737	1.000
		Faculty members	-8.918	1.430	.000
		Students –Post	-2.407	1.398	.318
	Students –Post	Industry Professionals	2.457	1.577	.407
		Faculty members	-6.511	1.230	.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	2.407	1.398	.318

In order to find the median values from the opinions of stakeholders on the right duration of industrial training ANOVA test was performed on all stakeholder opinions regarding right duration of industrial training in terms of weeks. Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were found between stakeholders opinions in terms of right duration of industrial training for both the times. For first time $F(3,437) = 42.127, p = .000$ and for second time $F(3, 96) = 18.398, p = .000$.

Pair wise comparisons were made between stakeholders. Table shows these pair wise comparison results. Table shows that there is a significance differences exist in the opinion of hotel industry professionals in comparison to pre , post industrial training students and faculty members for the first time duration ,However there is no significant differences exist between the opinions of pre and post industrial training students ($p = 1.000$)

For the second time duration of the industrial training, there is a significant differences exist between faculty members and post students ($p=.000$) in comparison to hotel industry professionals. There is no significant differences exist between pre to industrial training students and hotel industry professional .There is significant difference in the opinion among industry professionals, pre and post students in comparison to faculty members. There is no significant difference exist between pre and post students opinion in comparison to industry professionals .Similarly there is no significant difference between industry professionals and pre students in comparison to post students.

Similarly to find the mean values from the opinions of different Universities on the right duration of industrial training ANOVA test was performed on all on all Universities opinions regarding right duration of industrial training in terms of weeks

Table 10 Shows results of ANNOVA on Universities –Right Duration of I.T								ANOVA			
Type of Institutions		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1st Time Duration	State	153	14.5359	5.97806	0.4833	4	24	3	31.584	0.952	0.415
	Deemed	15	15.7333	4.65168	1.20106	8	20	366	33.171		
	Private	111	15.4955	5.34258	0.5071	4	24	369			
	National Council	91	15.6044	6.0238	0.63147	4	24				
	Total	370	15.1351	5.75828	0.29936	4	24				
2nd Time Duration	State	29	8.8276	6.26822	1.16398	4	20	3	70.449	1.769	0.159
	Deemed	2	16	5.65685	4	12	20	82	39.814		
	Private	38	8.6316	6.74004	1.09338	4	24	85			
	National Council	17	6.1176	5.31369	1.28876	4	24				
	Total	86	8.3721	6.39494	0.68958	4	24				

Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were not found between all universities opinions in terms of right duration of training for both the times. For first time $F(3,366) = 0.952$, $p=.415$) and for second time $F(3, 82) = 1.769$, $p=.159$).

Pair wise comparisons were made between Universities opinions. Table 11 shows these pair wise comparison results. Table shows that there is no significance difference exists in the opinion of all Universities regarding right time of training duration.

Dependent Variable	(I) inst type	(J) inst type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
1st Time Duration	State	Deemed	-1.19739	1.55826	0.869
		Private	-0.95955	0.71808	0.54
		National Council	-1.06845	0.76244	0.499
	Deemed	State	1.19739	1.55826	0.869
		Private	0.23784	1.58437	0.999
		National Council	0.12894	1.60496	1
	Private	State	0.95955	0.71808	0.54
		Deemed	-0.23784	1.58437	0.999
		National Council	-0.1089	0.81446	0.999
	National Council	State	1.06845	0.76244	0.499
		Deemed	-0.12894	1.60496	1
		Private	0.1089	0.81446	0.999
2nd Time Duration	State	Deemed	-7.17241	4.61301	0.41
		Private	0.19601	1.55584	0.999
		National Council	2.70994	1.92741	0.499
	Deemed	State	7.17241	4.61301	0.41
		Private	7.36842	4.57763	0.379
		National Council	9.88235	4.71688	0.163
	Private	State	-0.19601	1.55584	0.999
		Deemed	-7.36842	4.57763	0.379
		National Council	2.51393	1.84112	0.524
	National Council	State	-2.70994	1.92741	0.499
		Deemed	-9.88235	4.71688	0.163
		Private	-2.51393	1.84112	0.524

Based on data analysis it is concluded that right duration in terms of weeks for industrial training as per hotel industry professional is 24 weeks, where as faculty members opinions regarding right duration is of 20 weeks .In the opinions of pre to industrial training students, it is of 12 weeks and by post to industrial training students it is of 16 weeks (10 weeks preferred by students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotel ,where as 16 weeks each preferred by both 4 and 5 star hotel students).

For second time there is similarity exist in the opinions of pre ,post industrial training students and hotel industry professional that is it should be of 4 weeks ,where as faculty members median value is 12 weeks.

Right Duration	Table 12 Median Value of 1st Time Duration					
Stakeholders	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum
Hotel Industry Professionals	22.2	8.55	24	24	48	4
Faculty members	18.71	3.18	20	20	24	8
Students –Pre Industrial Training	13.92	6.02	12	12	24	4
Students –Post Industrial Training	13.95	5.88	16	16	24	4

Right Duration	Table 13 Median Value of 2nd Time Duration					
Stakeholders	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum
Hotel Industry Professionals	4	0	4	4	4	4
Faculty members	13.03	7	12	12	24	4
Students –Pre Industrial Training	4.4	1.23	4	4	8	4
Students –Post Industrial Training	6.51	5.05	4	4	20	4

Right Time (Semester) of Industrial Training: As per Stakeholders
(When students should go for industrial training in the course curriculum)

Those respondents marked yes, hotel management course structure require changes were further asked to select right time of industrial training that means which semesters should be considered as the right time for students to go for industrial training. Results in percentage are shown in Table 14.

Respondents Which semester should be considered as the Right Time for Industrial training –First Time		Responses are in %					
		1st Sem	2nd Sem	3rd Sem	4th Sem	5th Sem	6th Sem
Stakeholders	<i>Industry Professionals</i>	0	10	8	21	20	41
	<i>Faculty</i>	2	5	17	16	13	46
	<i>Students –Pre Industrial Training</i>	10	22	22	14	20	13
	<i>Students –Post</i>	5	24	11	18	8	35
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	17	0	0	17	50	17
	<i>HOD</i>	0	0	50	21	7	21
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	0	6	18	6	35	35
	<i>Lecturer</i>	3	11	14	11	6	54
	<i>Instructor</i>	0	0	5	29	0	67
	<i>Manager</i>	0	8	8	25	25	33
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	0	4	4	21	13	58
	<i>Supervisory</i>	0	14	11	20	23	31
Experience	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	0	6	7	24	17	46
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	2	11	11	11	11	55
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	0	3	32	21	18	26
	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	8	8	0	25	33	25
STAR	<i>3 Star</i>	2	22	9	13	22	33
	<i>4 Star</i>	4	22	12	21	9	33
	<i>5 Star</i>	2	12	7	21	9	49
Region	<i>Punjab</i>	4	18	17	14	15	32
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	7	17	14	18	15	28
	<i>Haryana</i>	3	15	13	20	13	36
Type of Institution							
	<i>State Universities</i>	7	20	15	19	10	29
	<i>Deemed University</i>	7	27	13	0	13	40
	<i>Private Universities</i>	1	21	20	16	15	27
	<i>National Council</i>	9	11	14	14	16	35

% Respondents Which semester should be considered as the Right Time		Second Right Time (in Semester)					
		1st Sem	2nd Sem	3rd Sem	4th Sem	5th Sem	6th Sem
Stakeholders	<i>Hotel Industry Professionals</i>	0	0	0	0	7	93
	<i>Faculty members</i>	0	0	0	0	19	81
	<i>Students –Pre Industrial Training</i>	0	0	0	5	30	65
	<i>Students –Post Industrial Training</i>	0	0	0	0	23	77
Designation	<i>Principal</i>	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>HOD</i>	0	0	0	0	30	70
	<i>Sr. Lecturer</i>	0	0	0	0	25	75
	<i>Lecturer</i>	0	0	0	0	11	89
	<i>Instructor</i>	0	0	0	0	14	86
	<i>Manager</i>	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>Assistant Manager</i>	0	0	0	0	0	100
Sex	<i>Supervisors</i>	0	0	0	0	11	89
	<i>Male</i>	0	0	0	0	19	81
Experience	<i>Female</i>	0	0	0	4	27	69
	<i>0-5 yrs</i>	0	0	0	0	14	86
	<i>6-10 yrs</i>	0	0	0	0	6	94
	<i>11-15 yrs</i>	0	0	0	0	29	71
Hotel Star Wise	<i>Above 15 yrs</i>	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>3 Star</i>	0	0	0	0	0	100
	<i>4 Star</i>	0	0	0	0	18	82
Region	<i>5 Star</i>	0	0	0	0	25	75
	<i>Punjab</i>	0	0	0	2	27	71
	<i>Chandigarh</i>	0	0	0	0	26	74
Type of institutions	<i>Haryana</i>	0	0	0	0	7	93
	<i>State Universities</i>	0	0	0	3	28	69
	<i>Deemed University</i>	0	0	0	0	50	50
	<i>Private Universities</i>	0	0	0	0	18	82
	<i>National Council</i>	0	0	0	0	24	76

Stakeholders Opinion regarding Right time

- **Hotel Industry Professionals:** For the **First time** among hotel industry professionals, 41 % of the sample marked 6 semester, followed by 21% for 4 semester, 20 % preferred in 5 semester for the first time. **Second Time:** 18% of the sample, preferred in 6 semesters for the second time.
- **Faculty members:** Among hotel management faculty members, 46% of the sample, preferred in 6 semester, followed by 17% in 3 semester for the first time. **Second time**, out of total, 27% of the sample preferred in 6 semester.

- **Pre students** :Among Pre students 22% each of the sample, preferred in 2 and 3 semester, followed by 20 % for 5 semester for first time . **Second Time**, out of total 10 % of the sample, preferred in the 6 semester.
- **Post Students**: Among post students 35% of the sample preferred in 6 semester, followed by 24 % in 2 semester for the first time and 18 % of the sample preferred in the 6 semester for the second time.
- **Type of Institutions**: Among State Universities, 20% of the sample, preferred in 2 semester for the first time and 29% for the 6 semester for second time. Among Deemed University, 27 % of the sample, preferred in the 2 semester for first time and 50% each preferred in the 5& 6 semester for second time. Among Private Universities 21 % of the sample preferred in the 2 semester for first time and 82 % preferred in 6 semester for second time. Among National Council ,16% of the sample preferred in 5 semester for first time and 76 % of the sample in 6 semester for second time.

Table 15 Pearson Chi-Square Tests-Right Time			
Respondents		First Right Time (Semester)	Second Right Time (Semester)
Stakeholders	Chi-square	67.886	7.01
	df	15	6
	Sig.	.000*	0.32
Designation	Chi-square	68.208	3.244
	df	35	7
	Sig.	.001*,	0.862
Experience	Chi-square	32.591	3.062
	df	15	3
	Sig.	.005*,	0.382
Hotel Star Wise	Chi-square	13.166	1.599
	df	10	2
	Sig.	0.215	0.449
Region	Chi-square	8.1	6.131
	df	10	4
	Sig.	0.619	0.19
Type of institutions	Chi-square	19.344	3.7207
	df	15	6
	Sig.	0.1986	0.7144

Statistical significant differences exist among stakeholders ($p=.000$) revealed by chi square test in terms of right time for industrial training preferred by stakeholders for first time however there is no statistical differences exist among stakeholders regarding right time for industrial training for second time($p=.032$) .In terms of designation of faculty members and industry professional significant differences exist in terms of right time for the first time($p=.001$),but there is no significant differences exist among designation for right time of industrial training for second time($p=.862$).Among universities ,statistical significant differences were not found in terms of right time for industrial training preference for the first time ($p=.1986$) and second time ($p=.714$)

An ANOVA was performed on all stakeholder opinions regarding right time for industrial training. Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were found between stakeholder's opinions in terms of right time for industrial

training for first time however there is no statistical difference in right time for training for the second time. For first time ($F=14.385$, $p=.000$) and for second time ($F=1.659$, $p=.181$). Pair wise comparisons were made between stakeholder's opinions. Table 10 shows these pair wise comparison results. Table shows that there is no significance differences exist between hotel industry professional and faculty members ($p=1.000$) and there is significant difference exist between pre and post to industrial training students in terms of Right time.

Table 16 shows summarises the result of ANNOVA of right time of training.								ANOVA	
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum	F	Sig.
First Right Time (Semester)	Hotel Industry Professionals	71	4.73	1.341	.159	2	6	14.385	.000
	Faculty members	93	4.71	1.441	.149	1	6		
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	125	3.51	1.564	.140	1	6		
	Students –Post Industrial Training	152	4.06	1.720	.139	1	6		
	Total	441	4.15	1.632	.078	1	6		
Second Right Time (Semester)	Hotel Industry Professionals	14	5.93	.267	.071	5	6	1.659	.181
	Faculty members	31	5.81	.402	.072	5	6		
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	20	5.60	.598	.134	4	6		
	Students –Post Industrial Training	35	5.77	.426	.072	5	6		
	Total	100	5.77	.446	.045	4	6		

Table17 summarises results of Tukey HSD Test of Right time of training.

Tukey HSD					
Dependent Variable	(I) Stakeholders	(J) Stakeholders	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
First Right Time (Semester)	Hotel Professionals Industry	Faculty members	.023	.246	1.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	1.220	.232	.000
		Students –Post Industrial Training	.673	.225	.015
	Faculty members	Hotel Professionals Industry	-.023	.246	1.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	1.198	.214	.000
		Students –Post Industrial Training	.650	.206	.009
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Industry Professionals	-1.220	.232	.000
		Faculty members	-1.198	.214	.000
		Students –Post Industrial Training	-.547	.189	.020
	Students –Post	Industry Professionals	-.673	.225	.015
		Faculty members	-.650	.206	.009
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.547	.189	.020
Second Right Time (Semester)	Hotel Professionals Industry	Faculty members	.122	.142	.826
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.329	.154	.150
		Students –Post Industrial Training	.157	.140	.675
	Faculty members	Industry Professionals	-.122	.142	.826
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.206	.127	.367
		Students –Post Industrial Training	.035	.109	.988
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Industry Professionals	-.329	.154	.150
		Faculty members	-.206	.127	.367
		Students –Post Industrial Training	-.171	.124	.512
	Students –Post Industrial Training	Industry Professionals	-.157	.140	.675
		Faculty members	-.035	.109	.988
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.171	.124	.512

Table 18 shows results of Annova on Universities responses of Right Time								ANOVA			
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
First Right Time (Semester)	State Universities	153	3.902	1.69273	0.13685	1	6	3	2.217	0.803	0.493
	Deemed University	15	4.0667	1.94447	0.50206	1	6	366	2.762		
	Private Universities	111	4.0541	1.53645	0.14583	1	6	369			
	National Council	91	4.2418	1.70841	0.17909	1	6				
	Total	370	4.0378	1.66053	0.08633	1	6				
Second Right Time (Semester)	State Universities	29	5.6552	0.55265	0.10262	4	6	3	0.184	0.845	0.473
	Deemed University	2	5.5	0.70711	0.5	5	6	82	0.217		
	Private Universities	38	5.8158	0.39286	0.06373	5	6	85			
	National Council	17	5.7647	0.43724	0.10605	5	6				
	Total	86	5.7442	0.46491	0.05013	4	6				

An ANOVA was performed on all types of Universities opinions regarding Right time for industrial training. Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were not found between Universities opinions in terms of Right time for industrial training for first and second time. For first time $F(3,366)=0.803, P=.493$ and for the second time $F(3,82)=0.845, P=0.473$. Table 19 summarises the median values of right time of training as per different type of institutions

Respondents	First Right Time (Semester)					
Stakeholders	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum
Industry Professionals	4.73	1.34	4	6	6	2
Faculty	4.71	1.44	4	6	6	1
Students –Pre Industrial Training	3.51	1.56	3	3	6	1
Students –Post	4.06	1.72	4	6	6	1

Respondents	Second Right Time (Semester)					
Stakeholders	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum
Industry Professionals	5.93	0.27	6	6	6	5
Faculty	5.81	0.4	6	6	6	5
Students –Pre Industrial Training	5.6	0.6	6	6	6	4
Students –Post	5.77	0.43	6	6	6	5

.Hotel Star Wise	First Right Time (Semester)						
STAR	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum	N
3 Star	3.41	1.74	3	2	6	1	44
4 Star	3.89	1.73	4	6	6	1	165
5 Star	4.74	1.48	5	6	6	1	76

.Hotel Star Wise	Second Right Time (Semester)						
STAR	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Maximum	Minimum	N
3 Star	6	0	6	6	6	6	44
4 Star	5.75	0.44	6	6	6	5	165
5 Star	5.75	0.45	6	6	6	5	76

Based on the data analysis, it is concluded that the right time for industrial training is 4 semesters for the first time and 6 semesters for the second time as per hotel industry professionals and faculty members .Whereas pre-to industrial training students median value is 3 semester for first time and 6 semester for the second time and in case of post to industrial training students median value is 4 semester(3 semester preferred by those students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotels ,4 semester by 4 star and 5 semester by 5 star hotel students respectively) and 6 semester for second time.

As per different Universities, Deemed, Private and National Council mean score is 4 semester for the first Right Time and second Right Time mean score is 6 semester whereas in case of State Universities mean score for the first Right time is 3 semester and 6 semester for the second Right Time .

Reasons for Right Duration & Right Time for Industrial Training Component

All stakeholders were asked to select the reasons for both duration and time for industrial training in order to justify the changes in terms of duration (weeks) and time (semester) from the given options in the questionnaire.

Code	Reasons Duration (weeks)
1	Students feel home sickness and get bored, so it should be of very short duration
2	Mostly irrelevant task given to trainees, so it should be of short duration.
3	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, students can go for later specialised training, so it should be of medium duration.
4	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation, so it should of longer duration.
5	Students should undergo one complete semester for industrial training in the course curriculum.
Code	Reasons Time (Semester)
1	Easily one can learn things of further semesters.
2	To see that chosen course matches with aspirations and better to change the career choice in the initial phase.
3	To foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in Solving confusion about career choices.
4	Students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters. Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between University and the workplace.

5	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs.
6	Adequate understanding of the professional field and key concepts and Would be absorbed in the same hotel after the industrial training.

Table20 summarises the frequency distribution of all stakeholders' reasons for the required changes in the industrial training component in terms of Duration and Time.

Frequency	Stakeholders																							
	Hotel Industry Professionals						Faculty members						Students –Pre to industrial training						Students –Post to industrial training					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
Code(1-5) Reason Duration	8	2	8	32	21	0	2	3	15	22	51	0	37	17	15	20	36	0	15	63	38	33	1	0
Code(1-6) Reason Time	6	10	8	3	11	33	3	5	13	41	31	0	36	14	10	22	41	2	2	52	61	18	17	0

Justifications for Right Duration

Stakeholder: The mean of hotel industry professional is 4.26, that the hotel industry professionals suggests reason for industrial training duration should be longer period that is of 24 weeks due to high task clarity reason and better job rotation of the trainee within the hotel operation, for overall success of the training. The mean of hotel management faculty members is 3.9 that is faculty members preferred 20 weeks training due to reason that students get to know the operations of hotel and later they can go for specialised training in their area of interest in the higher semesters. The mean of pre to industrial students is 3.02, where the reason is similar to faculty members however the mean of post to industrial training students is 2.61 that are mostly irrelevant tasks were provided to the trainees and it should be of shorter duration (16 weeks).

Type of Institution wise: All Universities of the sample given the similar reason of the industrial training duration that is students get to know the operations of hotel and later they can go for specialised training in their area of interest in the higher semesters.

Designation wise: Whereas reason marked by Principal, Sr. Lecturer, Lecturer and Instructor is that high task clarity and better job rotation of the trainee within the hotel operation that must be consider in the right duration of the industrial training for overall success of the industrial training, where as H.O.D, Mangers and Supervisory level employees recommends that students get to know the operations of hotel and later they can go for specialised training in their area of interest in the higher semesters.

Respondents		Table 21 Code(1-5) Reason Duration			Reason
		Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	
Stakeholders	Hotel Industry Professionals	3.9	4	1.37	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	Faculty members	4.26	5	0.99	Students should undergo complete one semester for training.
	Students –Pre to Industrial Training	3.02	3	1.64	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
	Students –Post to industrial training	2.61	2	0.96	Mostly irrelevant task given to trainees, so it should be of shorter duration
Designation	Principal	4.17	5	1.6	Students should undergo complete one semester for training
	HOD	3.79	3.	0.89	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
	Sr. Lecturer	4.47	5	0.94	Students should undergo complete one semester for training.
	Lecturer	4	4	1.03	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	Instructor	4.86	5	0.36	Students should undergo complete one semester for training.
	Manager	3.5	4	1.88	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	Assistant Manager	4.42	4	0.78	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	Supervisors	3.69	4	1.43	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
Hotel Star Wise	3 Star	3.54	4	1.36	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	4 Star	2.89	3	1.23	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
	5 Star	2.89	3	1.14	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
Type of Institutions	State	3.1	3	1.44	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
	Deemed	3.67	4	1.29	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation.
	Private	3.28	3	1.31	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training
	National Council	3.05	3	1.45	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, can go for later specialised training

Justification for Right time

Frequency and mean of the selected reason for Right time are given in table in number.

Stakeholders Wise: The mean of hotel industry professional is 4.44 that mean, the hotel industry professionals suggest training time should be in fourth semester as it would be a beneficial experience which bridges the gap between University and the workplace where trainees would be fully academically prepared to face real work encounters. The mean of faculty members is 3.99 that, to foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in solving confusion about career choices. The mean of pre to industrial training students is 3.19, where the reason is similar to

faculty members however the mean of post to industrial training students is 2.97 that are to see that chosen course matches with aspirations and better to change the career choice in the initial phase.

Type of institution wise: All Universities of the sample given the similar reason of the Right industrial training time that to foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in solving confusion about career choices.

Designation wise :Whereas designation wise reason marked by Principal, , Sr. Lecturer , Instructor ,Manager ,Assistant Manager and Supervisor is that Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace where trainees would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters factor must be consider in the right time of the industrial training for overall success of the training.

Code	Reasons Time
1	Easily one can learn things of further semesters
2	To see that chosen course matches with aspirations and better to change the career choice in the initial phase.
3	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
4	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
5	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs.
6	Adequate understanding of the professional field and key concepts and Would be absorbed in the same hotel after the training.

Table 22 summarises the Mean scores of all stakeholders' reason selected for right duration

Respondents		Code(1-6) Reason Time			Reason
		Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	
Stakeholders	Hotel Industry Professionals	4.44	5	1.82	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs
	Faculty members	3.99	4	0.99	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	3.19	4	1.7	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Students –Post Industrial Training	2.97	3	0.99	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
Designation	Principal	4.17	5	1.6	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs
	HOD	3.79	4	0.97	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Sr. Lecturer	4.06	4	0.97	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and

					students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Lecturer	3.74	4	1.07	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Instructor	4.43	4	0.51	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Manager	4.42	5.	1.93	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs
	Assistant Manager	4.67	5.	1.6	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs
	Supervisors	4.29	5	1.87	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs
Hotel Star Wise	3 Star	4.15	4	1.58	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	4 Star	3.24	3	1.35	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
	5 Star	3.3	3	1.5	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
Type of Institutions	State Universities	3.16	3	1.38	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
	Deemed University	3.8	4	1.42	Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between university and the workplace and students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters.
	Private Universities	3.39	3	1.28	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices
	National Council	3.36	3	1.3	To foresee area of interest ,by this time ,it will help in Solving confusion about career choices

By applying correlation matrix, it was found that reasons for Right Duration and Right Time were strongly correlated, $r(439) = .678, p < .0001$.

Correlation			Reason Duration
Reason Time		Correlation Coefficient	0.678
		Significance Level P	<0.0001
		n	439
Correlation			Rate Training Experience
Reason Duration		Correlation Coefficient	-0.308
		Significance Level P	<0.0001
		n	243

An ANOVA was performed on all stakeholders' reason marked with reference to Right Time and Duration of industrial training. Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were found between stakeholder's opinions in terms of reason marked by stakeholders for Right Time and Duration of Industrial training ($F=40.083, p=.000$ and $F=24.223, p=.000$).

Pair wise comparisons were made between stakeholder's reasons. Table 10 shows these pair wise comparison results. Table shows that there is no significance difference between reason marked by hotel industry professional and faculty members ($p=.278$) and there is significant difference between pre and post to industrial training students. Table 23 summarises results of ANNOVA on stakeholder's reasons for right time and duration

						ANOVA	
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Reason Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	71	3.901	1.375	0.163	40.083	0.000
	Faculty members	93	4.258	0.988	0.102		
	Students –Pre to industrial training	125	3.016	1.641	0.147		
	Students –Post to industrial	150	2.613	0.961	0.078		
Reason Time	Hotel Industry Professionals	71	4.437	1.818	0.216	24.223	0.000
	Faculty members	93	3.989	0.994	0.103		
	Students –Pre to industrial training	125	3.192	1.698	0.152		
	Students –Post to industrial training	150	2.973	0.990	0.081		

An ANOVA was performed on all stakeholder reason for right time and duration. Results are shown in Table. Significant differences were found between stakeholders reasons for time and duration $F (40.08, p=.000)$ and $F (24.22, p=.000)$.

Table 24 Multiple Comparisons- stakeholder's reasons for right time and duration

Tukey					
Dependent Variable	(I) Stakeholders	(J) Stakeholders	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P Value
Reason Duration	Hotel Industry Professionals	Faculty members	-0.357	0.199	0.278
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.88541*	0.188	0.000
		Students –Post	1.28808*	0.182	0.000
	Faculty members	Hotel Industry Professionals	0.357	0.199	0.278
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	1.24206*	0.173	0.000
		Students –Post industrial students	1.64473*	0.167	0.000
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Hotel Industry Professionals	-.88541*	0.188	0.000
		Faculty members	-1.24206*	0.173	0.000
		Students –Post industrial training	.40267*	0.153	0.043
	Students –Post	Hotel Industry Professionals	-1.28808*	0.182	0.000
		Faculty members	-1.64473*	0.167	0.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	-.40267*	0.153	0.043
Reason Time	Hotel Industry Professionals	Faculty members	0.447	0.217	0.168
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	1.24462*	0.205	0.000
		Students –Post industrial students	1.46329*	0.198	0.000
	Faculty members	Hotel Industry Professionals	-0.447	0.217	0.168
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	.79725*	0.189	0.000
		Students –Post industrial training	1.01591*	0.182	0.000
	Students –Pre Industrial Training	Hotel Industry Professionals	-1.24462*	0.205	0.000
		Faculty members	-.79725*	0.189	0.000
		Students –Post industrial training	0.219	0.167	0.557
	Students –Post	Hotel Industry Professionals	-1.46329*	0.198	0.000
		Faculty members	-1.01591*	0.182	0.000
		Students –Pre Industrial Training	-0.219	0.167	0.557

Major Findings

1. **Course Curriculum require changes in its current practice of industrial training structure:** It was found that most of Universities under study have a way of reviewing the industrial training component as per the observed results. It was found that majority of all focus groups that is hotel industry professional ,

faculty members, post industrial training students, heavily admit that existing hotel management course curriculum pattern require changes in terms of industrial training structure that is Duration and Time, except pre- industrial training students. Out of total response of hotel management faculty members, 55%(n=6) Principal, 82%(n=14) H.OD, 59%(n=17) Sr.Lecturer and 65% (n=35) Lecturer and 54%(n=21) Instructor agreed “yes” course structure requires changes in terms of duration and time of industrial training component in the course curriculum. Similarly hotel industry professionals in terms of their designation, 60%(n=12) Manager, 80%(n=24) Assistant Manager and 70% (n=35) Supervisors agreed that course curriculum require changes in the industrial training component in terms of duration and time.

- **Region wise:** It was found that 52 %(n=137) respondent of all focus group from Haryana region disagree that course structure does not requires changes in the its current practice of industrial training component in the course curriculum in terms of duration and time.
- **Type of Academic Institution** :In terms of different types of Universities, only Private 56% (n=111) and National council 58% (n=91) agrees to changes required in its current practice of industrial training however State 51%(n=152), Deemed 62%(n=24) does not agreed to changes require in the current practice of industrial training component in the course curriculum in terms of time and duration
- 2. **Right Duration of Industrial Training as per stakeholders (First & Second time):** Statistical significant differences exist among stakeholder’s opinions in terms of right duration of industrial training preferred by stakeholders for both the times.
 - a) **First Time Industrial Training Duration**
Among Stakeholders- hotel industry professionals, majority of the sample preferred industrial training duration should be of 24 weeks. Among faculty members majority (76%) of respondents preferred industrial training to be of 20 weeks. In case of Pre to industrial training students, 24 % of the sample preferred 12 weeks of industrial training and 19% of the sample preferred it should be of 20 weeks. Among Post to industrial training students, majority of the sample preferred industrial training duration of 16 weeks.
 - b) **In terms of Designation wise:** Principal, H.OD, Sr.Lecturer, Lecturer and Instructors preferred industrial training to be of 20 weeks duration for the first time where as Managers, Assistant Managers and Supervisory level employees of hotel industry preferred training duration of 24 weeks. In terms of designation wise significant differences exist in terms of industrial training right duration.
 - c) **Hotel Star Wise:** It was found that majority of 3 star hotels preferred industrial training of 24 weeks, followed by 20 weeks by 4 star hotel and 12 weeks preferred by 5 star hotels. There is significant differences exist for the first time duration.
 - d) **Among Universities:** All preferred 20 weeks duration in the first time of industrial training. There is no significant differences exist among Universities in the duration of Industrial training preferences. **Reason-** All Universities of the sample given the similar reason of the industrial training duration that is students get to know the operations of hotel and later they can go for specialised training in their area of interest in the higher semesters.

3. **Second Time Industrial Training Duration:**

- a) **Among Stakeholders-** hotel industry professionals, majority of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 4 weeks. In case of faculty members, out of total responses 29% of the sample preferred industrial training to be of 12 weeks, followed by 26 % of sample preferred 4 weeks and 20 weeks duration. Among pre – to industrial training students, majority of the sample 75% preferred industrial training to be of 4 weeks duration .Similarly post to industrial training students, majority of respondents (74%) preferred 4 weeks duration for second time. For the second time duration of the industrial training, there is a **significant difference** exists between faculty members and post students in comparison to hotel industry professionals. There is no significant differences exist between pre industrial training students and hotel industry professional.
 - b) **In terms of Designation wise:** Principal , Sr.Lecturer, and Instructors preferred industrial training to be of 20 weeks duration for the second time where as Managers ,Assistant Managers and Supervisory level employees preferred training duration of 4 weeks only.
 - a) **Hotel Star wise:** Majority of all hotel groups preferred 4 weeks duration of industrial training in the second time. There is no differences exist for the second time duration.
 - b) **Among Universities:** All preferred 4 weeks duration in the second time of industrial training except **Deemed University**, where in majority of the sample preferred 12 & 20 weeks Duration.
4. It is observed that right duration in terms of weeks for industrial training as per hotel industry professional is 24 weeks. **Reason-** The mean of hotel industry professional is 4.26, that the hotel industry professionals suggests reason for industrial training duration should be longer period that is of 24 weeks due to high task clarity reason and better job rotation of the trainee within the hotel operation, for overall success of the training where as faculty members opinions regarding right duration is of 20 weeks .**Reason -**The mean of hotel management faculty members is 3.9 that is faculty members preferred 20 weeks training due to reason that students get to know the operations of hotel and later they can go for specialised training in their area of interest in the higher semesters. In the opinions of pre to industrial training students, it is of 12 weeks **Reason-** The mean of pre to industrial students is 3.02, where the reason is similar to faculty members and by post to industrial training students it is of 16 weeks. **Reason-** the mean of post to industrial training students is 2.61 that are mostly irrelevant tasks were provided to the trainees and it should be of shorter duration (16 weeks). For second time there is similarity exist in the opinions of pre ,post industrial training students and hotel industry professional that is it should be of 4 weeks ,where as faculty members median value is 12 weeks.
5. Current finding coincide with previous research studies of **Oliver (2010)** that the short amount of time an industrial training lasts really never lets the student become a fully functional employee because there is not so much to take in for them. Similarly **Downey & DeVeau (1988)** also expound views of the industry professionals that more internship hours, better coordination, and more documentation in terms of both written and oral reporting were needed. In the present study results post training students preferred that the right duration of training should be of 16 weeks is almost sufficient to cover four core areas of the industry that is Front office, Food and Beverage Service, Food and Beverage Production and House Keeping operation, by working 4 weeks per area and later on they could go for specialised training of 4 weeks in the

area of interest. The other core areas such as Accounts, Sales & Marketing etc. do not allow students to fully access the different components. Students found this unfair though managers argued that allowing students full access can be quite risky when it comes to strategic areas.

6. **Right Time of Industrial Training as per stakeholders:** Statistical significant differences exist among stakeholders in terms of Right Time for industrial training preferred by stakeholders for **first time** however there is **no statistical difference** exists among stakeholders regarding Right Time for industrial training for **second time**. Pair wise comparisons were made between stakeholder's opinions. It was observed that there is no significance differences exist between hotel industry professional and faculty members ($p=1.000$) and there is significant difference exist between pre and post to industrial training students in terms of Right time.

- a) It was observed through analysis that the right time for industrial training is 4 semesters for the first time and 6 semesters for the second time as per hotel industry professionals and faculty members. **Reason-** The mean of hotel industry professional is 4.44 that mean, the hotel industry professionals suggest training time should be in fourth semester as it would be a beneficial experience which bridges the gap between University and the workplace where trainees would be fully academically prepared to face real work encounters. **Faculty Members Reason-** The mean of faculty members is 3.99 that, to foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in solving confusion about career choices. Whereas pre-to industrial training students median value is 3 semesters for first time and 6 semesters for the second time. **Reason-** The mean of pre to industrial training students is 3.19, where the reason is similar to faculty members and in case of post to industrial training students median value is 4 semester and 6 semester for second time. **Reason-** the mean of post to industrial training students is 2.97 that are to see that chosen course matches with aspirations and better to change the career choice in the initial phase
- b) **Designation Wise:** In terms of designation of hotel management faculty members and hotel industry professional significant differences exist in terms of Right Time for the first time although there is no significant differences exist among respondents designation for Right Time of industrial training for the second time.
- c) **Among Universities:** Statistical significant differences were not found in terms of Right Time for industrial training preference for the first time and second time. As per different Universities, Deemed, Private and National Council mean score is 4 semester for the first Right Time and second Right Time mean score is 6 semester whereas in case of State Universities mean score for the first Right time is 3 semester and 6 semester for the second Right Time. All Universities of the sample given the similar reason of the Right industrial training time that to foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in solving confusion about career choices.

7. **Reasons for Right Time for Industrial Training Component**

It was found that reasons for Right Duration and Right Time were strongly correlated, Significant differences were found between stakeholder's opinions in terms of reason marked by stakeholders for Right Time and Duration of Industrial training. Pair wise comparisons were made between stakeholder's reasons. There is no significance difference between reason marked by hotel industry

professional and faculty members and there is significant difference between pre and post to industrial training students.

8. Findings of the study was supported by the previous study of Richard Teare et al (1993) that sending students at early stage of their curriculum could cause many challenges and problems to hotels, because in some cases, students would have had little or no experience handling machinery, posing considerable risk to company property and at the same time many students are not academically prepared /equipped with basic skills needed in industry to carry out assigned task during their training duration. The rationale behind is that students must complete required course modules before taking the industrial training. In the present study majority of stakeholders preferred that industrial training should be in fourth semester. The rationale behind is that students must complete required course modules before taking the industrial training. Industrial training also help hotel management institutions resolve the high expenses involved in providing needed facilities and equipment (Krasilovsky and Lendt, 1996; Hodgson, 1999). The rationale behind sending second time for industrial training in the sixth semester is supported by the findings of Krasilovsky and Lendt (1996), the students also get the chance to meet their future bosses, and have a higher chance of finding a job through the industrial training component.

S.No	Hypothesis	Remarks
1.	<i>There is no statistical significant differences exist among stakeholder's opinions in terms of duration of industrial training preferred by stakeholders for both the times.</i>	Rejected (p=.000, p=.000) revealed by chi square test
2.	<i>There is no significant differences exist among Universities in the duration of Industrial training preferences for both time</i>	Accepted –First time F(3,366)=0.952, p=.415) Rejected -Second time F(3,82)=1.769, p=.159).
3.	<i>There is no statistical significant differences exist among stakeholders in terms of right time for industrial training for first and second time</i>	Rejected for first time (p=.000) revealed by chi square test Accepted for second time (p=.032)
4.	<i>There are no significant differences between Universities opinions in terms of Right time for industrial training for first and second time.</i>	Accepted –First time F(3,366)=0.803,P=.493 Rejected -second time F(3,82)=0.845,P=0.473.
5.	<i>There is no significant differences between stakeholder's opinions in terms of reason marked by stakeholders for Right Time and Duration of Industrial training</i>	Rejected (F=40.083,p=.000 and F=24.223 ,p=.000).

CONCLUSION

Based on data analysis it is concluded that **right duration** in terms of weeks for industrial training as per hotel industry professional is 24 weeks, where as faculty members opinions regarding right duration is of 20 weeks .In the opinions of pre to industrial training students, it is of 12 weeks and by post to industrial training students it is of 16 weeks (10 weeks preferred by students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotel ,where as 16

weeks each preferred by both 4 and 5 star hotel students).For second time there is similarity exist in the opinions of pre ,post industrial training students and hotel industry professional that is it should be of 4 weeks ,where as faculty members median value is 12 weeks.

Based on the data analysis, it is concluded that the **right time** for industrial training is 4 semesters for the first time and 6 semesters for the second time as per hotel industry professionals and faculty members .Whereas pre-to industrial training students median value is 3 semester for first time and 6 semester for the second time and in case of post to industrial training students median value is 4 semester(3 semester preferred by those students who had completed their industrial training from 3 star hotels ,4 semester by 4 star and 5 semester by 5 star hotel students respectively) and 6 semester for second time.

As per different Universities, Deemed, Private and National Council mean score is 4 semester for the first Right Time and second Right Time mean score is 6 semester whereas in case of State Universities mean score for the first Right time is 3 semester and 6 semester for the second Right Time .For Industrial training to be successful, each stakeholder has a particular role to play to make it a win –win situation for all concerned with it. Findings coincides with **Moody (1997)** that the best type of industrial training program is the one which involves the hosting hotel business from the outset and where it demonstrates a genuine commitment to student learning. Students should not be regarded as “low-cost sources of labour” by their industrial training hotels .Similarly **Nicolaidis (2006)**, highlighted that hotel industry needs to play a better role in encouraging industrial training experiences of the students so that it should be a perfect occasion for hotel management institutions and hotel industry professionals to build extended relationships and a better prospective for working together to meet the hotel industry needs and wants, as in Hotel sector.

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Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by either writing in your answer or checking your selection(s) from the options provided.

1. In your opinion, existing course curriculum of Hotel Management course require any changes for Industrial Training component, in terms of right time (in which semester students should go for training) and duration (for how many no. of weeks) ?
 _____ Yes _____ No
2. If yes, select the option.

Right duration (no .of weeks)

4 weeks _____	8 weeks _____	12week _____	16 weeks _____	20weeks _____	24 weeks _____	Others _____
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Right Time (in which semester students should go for Industrial training)

I Semester _____	II Semester _____	III Semester _____	IV Semester _____	V Semester _____	VI Semester _____
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(Tick the relevant box)

Code	Reasons for preferred Duration (weeks)
1	Students feel home sickness and get bored, so it should be of very short duration
2	Mostly irrelevant task given to trainees, so it should be of short duration.
3	Get to know the workplace operation and later on, students can go for later specialised training, so it should be of medium duration.
4	For higher Task Clarity & Job rotation, so it should of longer duration.
5	Students should undergo one complete semester for industrial training in the course curriculum.
Code	Reasons for preferred Time (semester)
1	Easily one can learn things of further semesters.
2	To see that chosen course matches with aspirations and better to change the career choice in the initial phase.
3	To foresee area of interest, by this time, it will help in Solving confusion about career choices.
4	Students would be Fully academically prepared to face real work encounters. Beneficial experience which bridges the gap between University and the workplace.

5	Better way to learn supervisory skills than learning in the simulation method in the practical labs.
6	Adequate understanding of the professional field and key concepts and Would be absorbed in the same hotel after the industrial training.

Demographic Data

Designation	
Experience in the Hotel industry	
Gender	
Name of the Hotel /star classification	
Region	