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Contemporary Quests and Struggles of Small-Scale Family Farms toward Sustainable Agriculture in Thailand

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Abstract

One of the pillars of Thai Studies is to examine Thai rural society and culture, especially that of small-scale farmers who comprise the majority of rural agriculturalists in Thailand. The purpose of this paper is to highlight the characteristics and challenges of contemporary Thai rural society through elucidating the pursuit and struggles of small-scale family farms toward 'sustainable agriculture' in the context of deepening social and environmental challenges associated with modern industrial agriculture. For this objective, an overview is presented with regard to the characteristics of small-scale family agriculture in Thailand, followed by accounts of the contemporary circumstances of integrated farming, organic farming, and public good agricultural practices in which small-scale family farms have been involved.

Keywords: sustainable agriculture, small-scale family farms, integrated farming, organic farming, good agricultural practices, Thailand

1. Introduction

Maruyama (1996) argued that the substratum of Thai culture in the rapidly transforming Thai society lies in rural culture. Likewise, one of the pillars of Thai studies is to study Thai rural society and culture, especially that of small-scale family farms. In Thailand, modernization has been accelerated since the first National Economic Development Plan (1961-1966) was launched under the then prime minister Sarit Thanarat in 1961. From the mid-1980s in particular, industrialization was promoted via the boom of foreign investment, and the country is now regarded as a middle-income country where a mass consumption society has emerged.

Nonetheless, even at present much of the national land of the country is of rural nature. According to the labor survey of 2012, farming population in Thailand is 1,635 million, accounting for 41 percent of the total working population. The number of farms across the country in 2009 is 5.78 million, of which 2.69 million lives in the Northeast, accounting for 46.5 percent nationwide. Actual cultivation area per farm household in Thailand is 3.6 ha (Inoue, 2012), and the majority of farmers are family-based, small-scale self-managed farms (Jitsanguan, 2001).

In rural Thailand, Green Revolution technologies were introduced in the 1970s and widely disseminated in the 1980s. The Green Revolution refers to innovations in multiple layers of agricultural production: 1. the improvement and dissemination of new high-yielding varieties (HYVs) (plant genetic innovation); 2. the establishment of irrigation and drainage facilities, and field infrastructure (engineering innovation); 3. the introduction of intensive farming techniques (management innovation); and 4. institutional enhancement such as the diffusion of new cultivars, the distribution of inputs, and the collection of produce (administrative innovation). The Green Revolution has given rise to a productivity revolution which transcends the ability of traditional rice farm management systems in many countries of East and South Asia. In Thailand too, rice production has increased in a relatively short period from 2.8 tons per ha (rice hull in 1965) to 3.8 tons per ha (yet only during the dry season in 1980) through the Green Revolution (Kitahara, 1985).

A series of social problems has followed the introduction of Green Revolution technologies in Thailand, however, including a decrease in prices of agricultural produce due to supply surplus, an increase in farm production costs and associated debts of farm households, pest resistance against synthetic pesticides, health problems due to exposure to pesticides (Note 1), environmental pollution due to the use of various agrochemicals, among others

(Kan'no, 2008; Suksuri et al., 2008). Owners of a large farmland were capable of utilizing the new capital investments comprehensively and efficiently, with the sales from the harvest greatly exceeding the costs incurred. Among those who could not make such investments were small-scale farmers whose profitability went downhill despite their increased production (Kitahara, 1990).

In the context of deepening social and environmental problems associated with modern industrial agriculture, small-scale farmers began to adopt alternative agriculture from the early 1980s, supported by non-governmental organizations (NGOs), consumers, and environmentalists for its diffusion in rural areas and the establishment of specialty markets in urban areas (Kan'no, 2008). With this development of agroecological movement and the rise of a notion of agriculture called "New Theory" proposed by the highly respected King of Thailand Bhumibol Adulyadej (Rama IX) in 1993 (Suksuri et al., 2008), the government began to actively promote policies for 'sustainable agriculture' from the late 1990s (Amekawa, 2010). Albeit with the conceptual vagueness, sustainable agriculture was defined in the official development plan as relevant to four types of agricultural practices in Thailand including natural farming, organic farming, integrated farming (of which New Theory Farming is part) and agro-forestry (National Economic and Social Development Board, 1997).

A growing body of academic studies has examined sustainable agriculture in Thailand. Jitsanguan (2001) contends that sustainable agriculture is viable both economically and ecologically for small-scale farmers in Thailand, which justifies the need for carrying out supportive policies for sustainable agriculture in the nation. Buch-Hansen (2001) presented a feasibility analysis of the political and institutional development of sustainable agriculture in Thailand. He argued that the lack of the financial capability of Thai government would make it difficult to provide support for both commercial and less competitive farmers in converting to sustainable agriculture either through trade or non-trade related measures. It is worth noting that these analyses were conducted at the time when the official sustainable agricultural programs were not instituted very much yet. Nearly a decade later, Amekawa (2010) examined the feasibility of official institutional programs for sustainable agriculture in Thailand. By empirically analyzing the cases of three official programs promoting organic agriculture and the reduced use of agrochemicals, he concluded that the achievements in the past decade were still limited for the estimated 5 million small-scale farms in Thailand. Reviewing a series of policy portfolios and outcomes for promoting conventional and sustainable agriculture in Thailand, Kasem and Thapa (2012) shared the similar conclusions with Amekawa, arguing that the lingering structure of the conventional agricultural regime is inhibiting the growth of the sustainable agriculture sector in Thailand. In a wider historical and regional spectrum, official efforts for sustainable agriculture in Thailand have not been instituted more systematically than the case of Indonesia for example, where by 1994 300,000 rice farmers had been successfully trained by the government and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) to practice integrated pest management (IPM) through farmer field schools (FFS) and other measures (Röling and van de Fliert, 1994). Nonetheless, Thailand has public standards for organic agriculture, enforces pesticide regulation relatively well, while monitoring conditions on pesticide imports (Schreinemachers et al., 2015). The overall social and institutional conditions appear to be more positive in Thailand than several lower income countries in Southeast Asia currently in a transition to the modern agricultural development regime. In Cambodia and Laos for instance, pesticide labels are often written in foreign languages such as Thai and Vietnamese, and farmers' high illiteracy rates and low educational levels result in the misuse of pesticides (Gallagher et al., 2005).

This paper aims to highlight the characteristics and challenges of contemporary Thai rural society through elucidating quests and struggles of small-scale family farms who intend to find a way out to sustainable agriculture. As shown above, overall, the existing studies are not very positive of the extent to which official promotion for sustainable agriculture has been realized in Thailand. Yet they lack a specific, subsector-based explication such as integrated farming, New Theory Farming, and social movement components of organic farming. An overall evaluation of the public policy of good agricultural practices in Thailand has been outmoded as well, with the absence of international comparative perspectives. Further, small-scale family farming in Thailand has not been well defined in contextual terms when it is held relevant to sustainable agriculture. The present paper intends to fill these gaps.

The rest of the paper is devoted to an overview of small-scale family agriculture in Thailand, quests and struggles of small-scale family farms toward sustainable agriculture as it relates to integrated farming, organic farming and good agricultural practices, closed with conclusions.

2. Small-Scale Family Agriculture in Thailand

In examining small-scale family farm issues, a question arises as to how much scale of farm management is considered 'small-scale.' The Land Reform Office of Thailand (ALRO) defines a small-scale farm as managing

the land of 10-20 rai (1.6-3.2 ha) (Hirokawa, 2010). Thai Development Research Institute defines it as managing 15 rai (2.4 ha) or less (Watanabe, 2008). In some areas, it may be regarded as appropriate to define a small-scale farm as managing 10 rai (1.6 ha) or less (Kitahara, 2005). There are no established international criteria to define a small-scale farm but international organizations such as the World Bank, the Africa Development Bank, and the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGPA), generally define a small-scale farm in developing countries as 2 ha or less (Calcaterra, 2013). Given that the average land management size in Thailand is 3.2 ha (Inoue, 2012), here we partially adopt the ALRO's official definition of a small-scale farm in Thailand and assume it as the management scale of 20 rai (3.2 ha) or less.

Next, what are the characteristics of small-scale family farming in Thailand? To consider this question, it is necessary to consider the traditional structure of family and its changes in contemporary Thailand, as well as their relationships with agriculture, in particular rice farming.

Table 1. Changes in the Family Structure in Thailand

Year	1980	1990	2000
Nuclear family (%)	73.7	72.0	67.0
Stem family	24.9	26.2	26.6
Other family	1.4	1.8	6.4

Source: English translation of Takeuchi (2015)

Note. No data after 2000 are available due to the lack of data collection from that year on family structure in Thailand.

As Table 1 shows, nuclear family was on decline in the two decades from 1980 to 2000. This trend suggests a contrast to the case of developed countries where the proportion of nuclear family has been on the rise. In addition, stem family remained at approximately the same level while 'other family' has rapidly increased from 1990 to 2000. Other family here refers to the integrated family that exhibits the most complicated family structure. In concrete terms, it refers to nuclear family of siblings (joint family) or family of parents and siblings (stem family or joint family) where the members share a residence. According to Takao Takeuchi, a leading Japanese researcher on Thai family, integrated family comprises the basic layer of Thai family structure. It is deep-rooted in the local community as a meta-family that reproduces forms of family being classified on statistics as nuclear family or stem family (Takeuchi, 2010). As a special overarching form of family peculiar to Thai family, Koichi Mizuno (1981) once called it "multihousehold compound."

This concept refers to the attachment of parent and child within a household family, as shown below. First, marriage of a child is matrilocal. If there is more than one daughter, after marriage each of them lives with parents for a while in the order of marriage. The case where a daughter's household lives with her parents is designated as stem family while the case where two or more daughters' households live with their parents is termed as joint family. As time goes by, daughters' households leave parents' home in the order that they had entered it. Finally, the youngest daughter (or the youngest son where there is no daughter) continues to live with parents after marriage and takes care of them. After finishing the period of living together with their parents, children who have separated households continue to maintain cooperation with their parents and sisters in agricultural production and consumption activities, given that the parents control their farmland (especially rice paddies) until they pass away. Therefore, the household of a daughter's couple is not a completely independent unit even after they stopped living together with her parents (Takeuchi, 2009).

The basic structure of a multihousehold compound has been shared nationally even though there are regional and local differences in the extent of daughters living together with their parents (Takeuchi, 2010). The farm household economy in Thailand has rapidly been dependent on off-farm incomes along with accelerated industrialization since the mid-1980s, however. Accordingly, forms of farm household and management within the multihousehold compound have altered to a significant degree. Such changes are characterized as individualization and a decline of cooperation in agricultural production and household consumption. For instance, exchange in agricultural labor has disappeared following the development of the mechanization and commercialization of agriculture. As wage laborization in rice cultivation has progressed, cooperation between parent and child in rice planting and harvest has dissipated. It has become more common instead that parent and child employ wage labor respectively and manage the paddy individually while adding family workforce

adjunctively (Takeuchi, 2012). In addition, the sense of cooperation in the family has altered due to the progress of part-time farming and de-agriculturalization associated with the increase in off-farm labor.

In rural Thailand, industrialization has not progressed nor has its labor market been developed very much. Nonetheless, farmers living in such areas have had to be more dependent on off-farm work. This is related to the need for covering the mounting cost in agricultural production such as the purchase of chemical fertilizer and pesticides. A daughter and her husband, who are living with her parents, has been increasingly involved in migrant labor to distant places such as Bangkok or provincial cities in search of better off-farm income opportunities. Accordingly, it has become common that parents work on the farm full-time while children engage in part-time farming (Takeuchi, 2009). In case a daughter is a married woman with a child or more, she may have some of her family members (especially mother) take care of her children remaining in the village during her leave for migrant work. As long as her parents still stay healthy, her remittance to her home in the village tends to be devoted mainly to supporting her children. This situation seems to be a world away from what it once was when daughters' migration was limited to the period before marriage and its purpose focused on remittance for filial piety (Takeuchi, 2015). Further, even where a daughter lives with her parents, the individualization of household consumption has been in progress due to the development of individual ownership and the use of electrical appliances within a household (Takeuchi, 2009). Moreover, as the decline of birth rate and the engagement in higher education have proceeded and as the child generation has come to engage in off-farm labor, it has been increasingly seen that the children (especially adult men) living together with their parents are weary of doing agricultural work. They do not work on the farm even if parents tell them to do so. More parents have also become less willing for their children to work on the farm too. Therefore, many children at the age when they can do farming no longer give a help to parents for rice farming (Takeuchi, 2012).

At the root where parents and children have maintained cooperation to each other in multihousehold compound is a sense of reciprocity with which parents maintain their farmland and lend part of it to their children until they die while their children in return take care of them. The recent progress of part-time farming and de-agriculturalization, coupled with the progress of the declining birthrate and aging, act in the direction to weaken this reciprocal relationship. Hence, small-scale family farming in Thailand seems to enhance the tendency that as a livelihood strategy in the mass consumption society children depend selectively and supplementarily on their parents and agriculture as needed while their parents are obliged to respond to it.

3. Quests and Struggles of Small-Scale Family Farms toward Sustainable Agriculture

The origin of the sustainable agriculture movement in Thailand dates back to the 1980s. To deal with the problems arising from the modernization of agriculture, farmers, NGOs, consumers, and environmentalists established the 'Alternative Agriculture Network' in 1989 as a coalition for bundling multiple NGOs to promote sustainable agriculture. Derived from the Network, the Green Net began its business in 1993 as the first retail group in Thailand who deals with organic agricultural produce (Ōuchi, 2004, Kan'no, 2008). In the field of economic policy, on the other hand, policy interests in sustainable agriculture were expressed in the 7th National Social and Economic Development Plan (1992-96) for the first time. In the subsequent 8th Plan (1997-2001), sustainable agriculture was raised as a policy issue for the first time with the goal of converting 20% of farms to sustainable agricultural practices related to natural farming, organic farming, integrated farming, and agroforestry (Panyakul, 2001). Subsequently under the Thaksin administration, which upheld a strong export promotion policy, a public policy framework of good agricultural practices (GAP) for ensuring food safety in export markets was introduced in 2004. This introduction meant an extension of the meaning of sustainable agriculture such as agricultural practices that lead to a reduction in or an optimization of the use of pesticides and chemical fertilizer through IPM and crop diversification (Amekawa, 2010).

In the following, an overview is presented with regard to the contemporary circumstances of integrated farming, organic farming, and GAP in which small-scale family farms in Thailand are engaged.

3.1 Integrated Farming

After experiencing the unprecedented economic boom which was accelerated from 1988, Thailand became the epicenter of the Asian Financial Crisis in 1997. This crisis gave a serious blow to the national economy of each Asian country with the exception of Hong Kong. Thailand has received rescue loans from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and the Japanese government, with the total amount of US\$ 17.2 billion (Suehiro, 2009). To Thai people who are struck by the negative outcomes brought about through globalization, the King of Thailand Bhumibol Adulyadej, popularly called the 'King of Development,' presented the ideal future path of the Thai economy as 'Sufficiency Economy.' (Note 2)

This Buddhist-based economic thought embraces a critical view of adhesion to the pursuit of wealth based on the

externally dependent economic growth and instead emphasizes the importance of 'middle path.' The philosophy was upheld in the 9th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2002-2006) as the central notion of sustainable social development along with 'human-centered development.' It was taken over in the 10th Plan that was formulated after the coup of 2006. The King has also advocated the 'New Theory Farming,' a notion of agriculture emanated from the philosophy of Sufficiency Economy. His promulgation of the notion predates the Asian Economic Crisis, and based on it the Royal Development Projects Board has promoted the dissemination of small-scale integrated farming systems as a stepwise development strategy since 1995 (Note 3).

The New Theory Farming assumes three stages of development. The first stage refers to the self-reliance of the family level through the adoption of integrated farming. With the assumption of a typical smallholder household owning the land of 15 rai (2.4 ha) with 4-5 family members, the farmland is divided with the ratio of 3: 3: 3: 1 for rice farming for subsistence, the cultivation of vegetables and fruits, a pond with the depth of 4 meters for aquaculture and irrigation, and housing and livestock, respectively. This stage assumes that through practicing integrated farming, many farmers become able to supply many necessities on the self-sufficient basis. The second stage refers to the self-reliance at the community level through the establishment of farmers' groups and cooperatives. The third and final stage involves a collaboration with agencies outside the community through the development of a network with banks, private companies, retailers, and stores. It is held that by proceeding with such a stepwise self-reliance, farmers can develop their own capabilities and enhance their immunity against external shocks, hence sustainable agriculture being realized (Inoue, 2010; Mori'izumi et al., 2008; Tsumura, 2014).

In rural Thailand, there would be few farmers who have not heard of the New Theory Farming advocated by the King. It is not clear, however, how many farms throughout the country actually practice integrated farming based on the theory. Further, there are quite a few villages in Northeast Thailand where local practical farmers, NGOs, and development monks voluntarily engage in the dissemination of integrated farming through trials and errors (Tsumura, 2014). Renowned cases include the Buddhist development by the abbot Naan in Surin Province (Wongkul, 1993), the case of the village head Mr. Paay in Buri Ram Province (Phongphit, 2009), and the case of the farming group called Inpeng in Sakon Nakhon Province (Satomi, 2009). Such information is fragmental at best, however, and the purview of the movement has not been grasped yet.

In the following, an integrated farming project is highlighted. The project is part of Japan's Overseas Development Aid in Thailand and it has been promoted on a relatively large scale. In 1998, the Thai government requested the Japanese government to develop a program of the vitalization of rural areas after the Economic Crisis. With the conditions of the loaning of Japanese yen, the 'Comprehensive Agricultural Development Program in Land Reform Zones' has been implemented. In this program, integrated farming has been promoted to about 4,000 farm households living in the four provinces of Northeast Thailand including Khon Kaen, Mahasarakam, Sakon Nakhon, and Mukdahan. They have received financial and technical support for the construction of a pond for fish aquaculture and irrigation systems for the cultivation of vegetables, fruits, and rice, as well as for the breeding of livestock and the on-farm recycling of nutrients. A notable feature of this project is related to the organizing of integrated farming groups. When a farmer has a willingness to assist other farmers and his/her farm is rated as well-managed, the farm is designated as a 'study center.' Then the farmer provides a training of integrated farming for farms who have just gained the first pond in their farm, hence a farmer-to-farmer extension. The biggest merit of this method is that farmers under training can see and hear things directly from the instructor farmers who had suffered from the similar situation of indebtedness resulting from monocultural cash cropping. The learners can study how the instructors have converted to integrated farming and improved their life – a merit that cannot be enjoyed from the training offered by government extension officers. The project involves activities of community market (village market for direct sale) which began in 2003. Although self-sufficiency is the highest priority, abundant vegetables and fruits have been harvested through integrated farming using a pond. The villages used to depend heavily on food purchased from external merchants but until now farmers selling their farm products have received more cash income from the community market newly established and carried out once a week by women in the community. Local consumers have also enjoyed buying fresh local organic food at the community market (Oda, 2009).

In this way, this project resulted in multi-functional benefits of integrated farming for many small-scale family farms. It was based on the development aid of Japanese government for the total amount of 4.8 billion yen, however. In order for small-scale family farms to develop integrated farming on a self-reliant basis and without massive external financial support, they must rely on their own labor and organizing ingenuity in the village. Relying only on those internal inputs would make it difficult for them to cover the costs necessary for the management (especially initial costs for reservoir and irrigation). This constraint seems to be the main limiting

factor for the spread of integrated farming in rural Thailand.

3.2 Organic Farming

According to the Green Net’s homepage (2015), the cultivation area of organic agricultural crops in Thailand expanded rapidly from 2001 (Figure 1). During the period from 2006 to 2008, it decreased most likely due to the domestic political turmoil and worsening economic conditions. However, it increased again in 2009, amounting to 34,079 ha in 2010. A similar trend is also seen in production and sale (Figure 2). However, they show a slight increase in 2007 even though organic cultivation area decreased in that year. This situation is probably related to the rise in agricultural prices which were related to the soaring crude oil prices around that time. In 2010 organic production amounted to 47,547 tons and the sale to 1.75 billion Baht. Further, according to Vitoon Panyakul (year unknown) who takes a leading position in the Green Net, the cultivation area for organic farming in 2011 amounted to 35,824 ha, accounting for 0.17 % of the total national cultivated area. In that year, the total number of organic farms was 7,499, accounting for 0.15 % of all the farms existing in the nation. These figures are related to the farms and farmlands that have received organic certification which meets international standards. Excluded are those farms who have not received such a certification but have allegedly engaged in organic farming based on their own standard or criteria. Kan’no (2008) calls this type of cultivation ‘B-grade organics.’ If this type of farming is accepted as organic farming, there would be significantly more organic farms than the figures shown above.

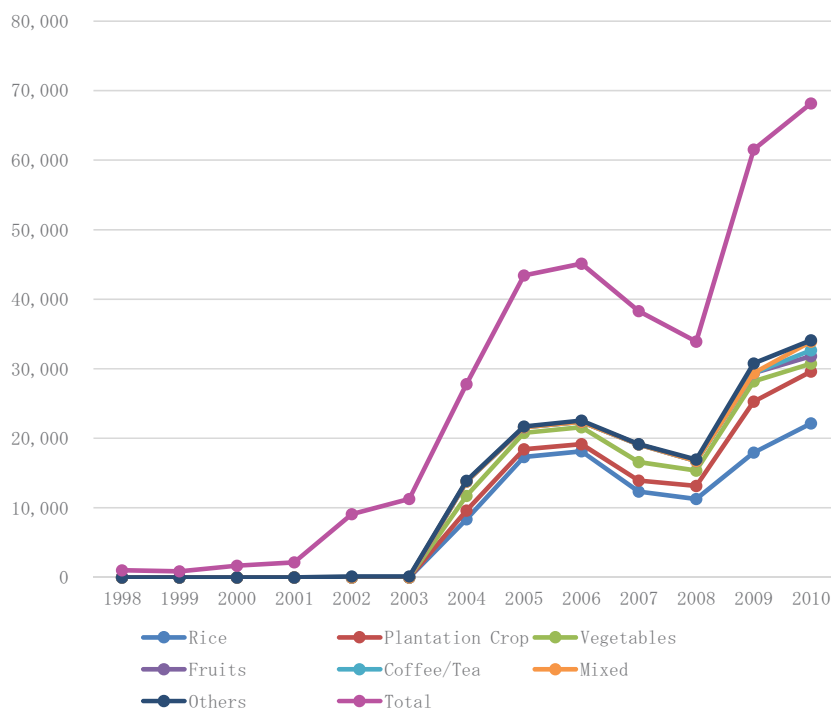


Figure 1. Trends of Organic Cultivation Area in Thailand (ha), 1998 ~ 2010

Source: created by author based on the table data (rai) in the Green Net homepage (2015)

Note. The data of rice and plantation crops for 1998-2003 are removed from this figure as the data are the sum of those crops rather than for each. For the same reason, the data of vegetables and fruits for 1998-2003 are excluded.

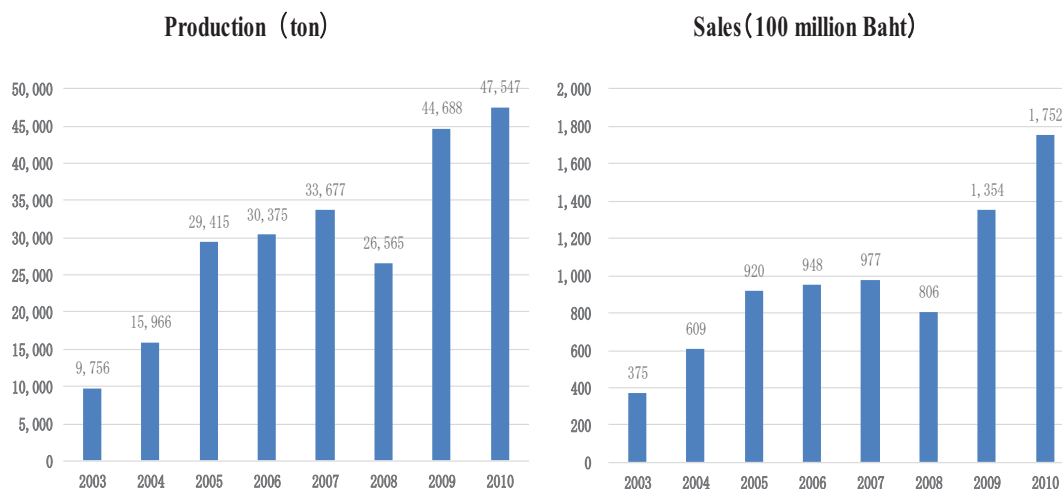


Figure 2. Trends in organic agricultural production and sale in Thailand (2003-2010)

Source: created by author based on the table data in the Green Net homepage (2015).

In the following, an overview of the current situations of organic certification and B-grade organics is presented, followed by the case study of a local organic farming project in Northeast Thailand that exhibits critical relevance to social change in the nation.

The Green Net has played key pioneering roles for the establishment and dissemination of organic certification in Thailand. It established the Alternative Agriculture Certification Thailand (ACT, later renamed the Organic Agriculture Certification Thailand in 1998) as the first domestic private certification agency in 1998. Thanks to this move, a certification system for organic agricultural production, processing, and management operations, commenced in 1995. The ACT became the first organization in Asia that was accredited by the International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements (IFOAM) in 2002. This made the agency capable of extending their export to the EU markets (Ōuchi, 2004; Kan'no, 2008). With respect to organic certification provided by government agencies, on the other hand, the National Bureau of Agriculture and Food Commodity Standards (ACFS) were established by the Ministry of Agriculture and Agricultural Cooperatives in 2002. The ACFS has been promoting accreditation within the nation since 2004. The ACFS has overseen the regulations of organic farming in Thailand, and the ACT was accredited by the ACFS in 2005. In addition, before the ACT and the government began organic certification, overseas certification authorities began to give certification from the early 1990s to famous organic products such as jasmine rice in Northeast. The example of such authorities are Bioagricert (Italy), Soil Association (United Kingdom), IMO (Switzerland and Germany), OMIC (Japan), Skal (Netherlands), and KRAV (Sweden). The organic produce in Thailand which these certification bodies have certified is exported to EU, primarily the United Kingdom, France and Germany. As regards the farmland of 13,900 ha which received organic certification in 2004, the ACT and the government accounted for 37% and 13%, respectively, whereas overseas certification bodies accounted for as much as 50% (Kan'no, 2008).

B-grade organics can be roughly divided into the following two categories. First is the type of organics which farmers have striven to let meet an organic certification standard of international levels but not fulfilled it yet. This type of B-grade organics cannot be distributed in the international market but it may be sold as 'organic agricultural products' at major supermarkets or at fresh food corners of department stores. It is therefore important to provide farmers support for this type of organics in their marketing at domestic markets so that they would not give up organic farming in facing various setbacks. The second type of B-grade organics refers to a generic category that ranges from 'self-styled' organics where farmers bill themselves as doing organic farming to the type of organics promoted by NGOs and producer associations in light of their own criteria and independently of international certification standards (Kan'no, 2008). Farms who engage in this kind of B-grade organics, including those who incorporate it into integrated farming systems, may account for a few percent of the existing farms in Thailand. Many of them have suffered from a large sum of debt and health problems resulting from practicing conventional agriculture over years, thus compelled to aspire conversion to organic

farming. Many such attempts of conversion have sooner or later ended in vein due to a lack of sufficient financial and policy support. Especially in the first few years of their switch from conventional to organic farming, a volume of production and associated incomes decline drastically due to a reduction in the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides. Frustrated by the mounting hardship of life, therefore, cases of farms remain rife who give up the conversion before they cultivate the fruits from improvements in the farm environment brought through farming organically. Further, there are cases of the financial breakdown of organic farming projects. In such cases, producer groups tend to have no channels in selling organic produce at major domestic market or overseas markets. They thus attempt to sell organic produce at local markets yet with a lack of any clear differentiation from conventionally grown produce. Accordingly, the prices for organically grown produce are set at the same prices with conventionally grown produce, hence resulting in a deficit and eventually a breakdown of the project. Many of the B-grade organic producers who have been capable of sustainably selling organic sustainably in the local area seem to be those who are in personal contract with schools, clinics, hospitals, or restaurants based on personal reputation or credentials.

Discussed last is an organic farming project that the author observed through intermittent visits from 1998 to 2007 in Chaiyaphum Province, Northeast Thailand. In the late 1980s, some villagers in WY Village of Tambon WT ('tambon' is a subdistrict unit of administration situated between village and district levels), who were interested in ecologically-based local development, contacted a Japanese NGO called the JVC (Japan International Volunteer Center) for collaboration for a community development project. After three years of preparation, they started a small-scale organic vegetable project in 1992. The face-to-face relationship of producers and consumers engaged in direct deals of organic business, often with the consumers playing supportive roles for producers, is called 'sanshō-teikei' in Japan or 'community-supported agriculture' (CSA) in the western world. Participating consumers were of Japanese households living in the condominiums in the Sukhumvit area of Bangkok. Organic produce was given prices fixed throughout the year for each crop in order to complement the average yields that are lower than those obtained through conventional agriculture. The prices, according to the author's survey in 1998, accounted for 2.5 times higher than the regular local market prices for the 23 varieties of vegetable crops grown. In addition, the consumers visit the area of the producers once or twice a year to increase their knowledge and understanding of local issues of organic production as well as develop a solidarity with the producers (Amekawa, 2010).

This project faced the first turning point in early 1996. By that time, the number of growers under contract had increased up to approximately 50 growers selling to more or less 100 consumer households in Bangkok. Since no special regulations over growers' entry had been made by that time, oversupply occurred against the demand. Accordingly, the share of each producer was diminished and so a number of participant farmers were faced with a lack of incomes, resulting in the business breakdown and the withdrawal of the JVC. Following the crisis, farmer representatives made request to the government for financial support for the resumption of the organic project, which was approved subsequently. The project resumed as of state agricultural cooperative in April 1996. In this new system, a new policy to balance supply and demand was hammered out by means of regulating the entry of new grower members in January and February when production is at its annual peak (Note 4) (Amekawa, 2010).

After the enactment of the 1997 Constitution, a national policy to promote rural development was laid as part of the democratization of the government and the decentralization of administration. In the policy, the village council at tambon plays a leading role to develop rural villages. In 1999 the chairman of the organic vegetable project, himself an organic farmer, was selected through election as the first chairman of Tambon WT. With the objectives to spread organic farming within the tambon, as well as to realize the increase of tax revenues in the tambon through activating the local economy, he designed a new development project where fruits are grown organically in the intra-tambon villages and processed into fruit chips. In 2001 this business plan was submitted to the government as the plan for the *One Tambon One Product* (OTOP) that the Thaksin administration was promoting (Note 5). The plan was then approved by the government and 1 million Baht (approximately US\$ 25,000 as of 2001) was provided for the project. With that subsidy, the building of a factory to process organically grown fruits into chips was completed in 2003. The project commenced in early 2004. Sixty-nine farm households out of the participating 10 villages engaged in the production of 6 fruit crops including banana, mango, orange, longan, pomelo, and tamarind on the total land of approximately 160 ha within the tambon, using bio-natural pesticides and organic fertilizer called Bokashi (Note 6). As the board of the project, the tambon committee made up of the chairman of the tambon and its staffs, as well as two representatives from each village, established the rules and guidelines related to the production, processing, and sale of organic produce. In addition, the committee gave guidance and supervision to the growers so that they would comply

with the rules and guidelines and that they would use neither synthetic pesticides nor chemical fertilizer (Amekawa, 2010).

The business got derailed shortly after the project began in 2005, however. Aiming at the third term of chairmanship in the tambon election, the chairman was defeated by a businessman who is from another tambon and has engaged in the oil trading industry (Note 7). The new chairman and his new staffs abolished the organic farming project. Instead, they began to promote policies with a focus on developing public infrastructure within the tambon as he had pledged during the election period. A background of their decision to cancel the organic farming project was that even before the new tambon committee was in place, the factory machine to process fruits into chips did not have enough production efficiency to convert the balance of payments from deficit to surplus (Amekawa, 2010).

As seen, the organic farming project that was established as a small civic sector initiative was terminated by way of an interlinked transition amidst the raging waves of urbanization and democratization. It is ironic that the decentralization to empower the local area ended up responding to the public opinion in favor of creating tangible economic vibrancy rather than developing conservation initiatives for long-term sustainability merits.

3.3 Good Agricultural Practices

The public GAP scheme promoted by Thai government was launched in 2004 as the second public GAP program after Malaysia's GAP program that was commenced in 2002. It is called Q-GAP (Q refers to 'quality'), and it has been the largest public GAP program in the world in terms of the amount of certification, with as many as about 120,000 farms, mostly small-scale, who maintained a Q-GAP certified status in 2015 (Table 2). The crude scale of certification is comparable with GlobalGAP which has wielded a strong influence over global food safety standardization. Compared with the number of certifications (220,000) held in 2012, however, it rapidly decreased in the following three years as the country introduced a more stringent new code of practice (the version TAS 9001-2013), which has made it more difficult for applicant farms to get a Q-GAP certification (Note 8). The amount of farms in certified status in the other listed ASEAN countries is much lesser, respectively, which is in part due to the different levels of stringency in compliance for certification. By way of illustrating the gap in the level of stringency in compliance, Malaysian MyGAP requires 100% of compliance for 29 control points and 90% of compliance for 77 control points out of the total of 163 control points (the rest being 'encouraged points') (Department of Agriculture, Malaysia, 2005). Meanwhile, the most updated code of conduct of Q-GAP (TAS 9001-2013) requires 100% of compliance for 23 control points and 60% of compliance for 41 control points (the rest being 'recommended points') out the total of 116 control points (ACFS, Thailand, 2013). The significantly large amount of farms maintaining a Q-GAP certification in a single country like Thailand would be assisted by its conditions for certification where the required level of compliance in production management for a total of 128 types of target crops is much lower than GlobalGAP and other GAP schemes following it.

Table 2. Public GAP standards in Southeast Asia and Global GAP for crop certification

Country/region	Program	Year of Inception	Number of Farms Who Maintain Certified Status (Year)	Responsible Agency
Europe	GlobalGAP	1999	112,576 (2011)	EurepEuro-Retailers Produce Working Group
Malaysia	MyGAP	2002	903 (2015)	Department of Agriculture
Thailand	Q-GAP	2004	>120,000 (2015)	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperative
Singapore	SingaporeGAP-VF	2004	7 (2013)	Agri-Food & Veterinary Authority
The Philippines	PhilGAP	2005	15 (2013)	Department of Agriculture
Viet Nam	VietGAP	2008	575 (2013)	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
Brunei	BruneiGAP	2013	1 (2014)	Ministry of Industry and Primary Resources
ASEAN region	AseanGAP	2015	0	Asean Secretariat

Source: author's tabulation through reference to GAP protocols and queries to the implementing agency

In view of the social participation of small-scale family farms, Q-GAP can be said to maintain a high degree of fairness. Viewed from the perspective of the original role of food safety and quality assurance, however, Q-GAP has the following two problems. First, safety risks persist because the level of monitoring remains low with regard to production management, product quality, and certification process. In this regard, Schreinemachers et al. (2012), in comparing 45 Q-GAP certified and 245 uncertified farms for 9 fruit and vegetable crops in Chiang

Mai City, showed no significant differences in pesticide use and handling ($p > 0.1$). The study also pointed to a lack of thoroughness in auditing whose time was spent as short as 5 minutes. In examining 64 Q-GAP certified pomelo producers in Chaiyaphum Province, Amekawa (2013) found that approximately half of them did not understand the basic concept of Q-GAP. In addition, most of the reduction of pesticide use around the time of obtaining the first certification was, according to the certified farmers, related to the growth stage of pomelo trees rather than improved practices through Q-GAP training.

The second problem is that a Q-GAP certification is either unacknowledged or unneeded in the market due to a lack of trust in the market on the level of its quality assurance. This problem broadly comprises the following two patterns. The first is the case that buyers do not have interests in the certified product because the existing level of certification is too low to meet the high the expectations of overseas buyers who have a high consumer consciousness of food quality. In this case, consumers and distributors at the overseas market with a high consumer awareness of food quality are skeptical of the level of Q-GAP-based production management for imported products. The second pattern relates to the domestic market where the awareness of safety and expectations for quality assurance tends to be low, so that the presence or absence of certification may not become a problem. In such cases, the product quality sought by consumers is restricted to product appearance and taste. Accordingly, products are bought with no clear recognition nor understanding of a certification given to them at the upstream stage of distribution and sold downstream without a certification label on the product. Even though producers and products receive a certification, traceability and market signals hardly function. Hence, Q-GAP standard has challenges associated with the effectiveness of its certification in production and distribution due to the comparatively low level of the set standard, calling for a fundamental reform on the compliance level.

4. Conclusion

In Thailand, it has been long since the crisis of small-scale family farms began to be expressed on the course where urbanization and industrialization have proceeded along with the commercialization of the economy. Slumping agricultural prices and the transforming rural economy accelerated the abandonment of farming, hence the rapid de-agriculturalization of society occurring during the 20 years from 1980 to 2000. Now the majority of farms are run part-time and the majority of household incomes are derived from off-farm employment. Further, the rural development policies that were promoted after the inauguration of Thaksin administration for the purpose of stimulating the domestic demand have been taken over by the succeeding administrations after Thaksin's downfall. Yet unseen are signs of economic disparities shrinking between the capital and provinces as well as between cities and the rural countryside.

With a consideration of the characteristics of small-scale family agriculture in Thailand, this paper has shed light on the cohort of Thai society that seeks to pin hopes on sustainable agriculture for the improvements of small-scale farmer livelihoods and environmental conservation. Many attempts aimed at promoting organic farming in Thailand have ended up as failure, however, and therefore the current situation cannot be seen optimistically given the general background of Thai agricultural development involving ecosystem degradation, flagging agricultural prices, insufficient external support, chronic labor shortage, among others. As seen in the case study, democratization may work against the attempt of sustainable agriculture in the existing structure of the rural economy. Further, Q-GAP standard as a public food safety assurance system has exhibited contradictions between the goal of supporting the bulk of small-scale family farms in rural Thailand and the objective of ensuring the level of compliance being commensurate with the demand in the export market.

Late Atsushi Kitahara, who was a leading authority of studies on Thai rural society, stated bluntly that alternative agriculture such as natural farming, organic farming, and integrated farming, "is not ably performed by poor farmers but only by middle- and upper-class farmers who have sufficient farmland and with good off-farm incomes" (Kitahara, 2002, p. 118). He also argued that farmers engaging in the development of the market for such types of agriculture and related negotiations "are neither average farmers nor from average village communities but a select few farmers and their associations who have excellent skills and a strong faith" (ibid.). While the reality may not be as simple as Kitahara argued, it cannot be denied that there is some truth in the remarks. In the meantime, a close look at farming practices in rural Northeast Thailand informs that many farmers are trying to sustainably secure yields by combining various alternative farming practices while controlling the cost of agrochemicals. The perseverance and wisdom of the farmers and the trainers from the extension office are of impressive quality. While seemingly not very spectacular, such attempts realistically support the basis of small-scale family farming, thus garnering more attention to efforts to consider the future sustainability of agriculture and livelihoods associated with small-scale family farms in rural Thailand.

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Notes

Note 1. The number of pesticide poisoning incidents was 74 in 1971. In ten years, it soared rapidly to 2,170 in 1981 (Kan'no, 2008).

Note 2. Sufficiency Economy is called 'Setakit Po Pian' in Thai. The King spoke of the concept in his birthday speech in 1997, which drew a great deal of attention. In fact, the King had advocated this philosophy since 1969 (Inoue, 2012).

Note 3. In this project, the Royal Development Study Center stationed in every region works in concert with local agricultural extension stations of the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. They promote the dissemination of knowledge and technical training that are deemed necessary for farming practices, as well as the distribution of seedlings of fruit trees, perennial woods, and cultured fish for aquaculture. According to a survey conducted in 2004 of 100 households participating in the project, 76 percent responded that they could work on the farm using the water exclusively from the pond, and that 98 percent gained over 10 times more income than when they had no ponds yet (Mori'izumi et al., 2008).

Note 4. This organic vegetable project ended in 2004, replaced by a new project to directly send to and sell organically grown bananas at the markets in the provincial capital of Chaiyaphum. The reasons for this transition were: (1) consumers in Bangkok were dissatisfied with the amount of production in the dry season, in particular March and April; (2) supermarkets in Bangkok began to sell organic vegetables to which consumers in Bangkok shifted their patterns of purchase and consumption; (3) there was a prospect that with only little care to be taken, selling organic bananas locally would result in more profits than selling organic vegetables to expatriates in Bangkok.

Note 5. This policy was designed and implemented in Thaksin administration by modeling after the One Village One Product program in Ōita prefecture, Japan. It was introduced to promote local entrepreneurship in rural communities so that quality local products can be produced, branded, and sold at local, national, and international levels. After the military coup d'état ousted Thaksin and overthrew his administration in 2006, the OTOP was revoked once yet revived with minor changes as Local and Community Products.

Note 6. Bokashi is the name of traditional compost in Japan. Here it refers to the mixture of the faces of livestock such as cattle, hogs, and fowls, the chaff of rice and wheat, liquefied sugarcane, water, and EM ('effective microorganism' disseminated by the Japanese religious group called "Japan Kyūsei-kyō," made up of fruits and vegetables fermented with water, alcohol, and sugar, etc.).

Note 7. The chairman lost the election to the rival candidate with the voting result of 2,002 versus 1,874.

Note 8. The version TAS 9001-2013 has made it more difficult for applicants to get a Q-GAP certification than the initial version introduced in 2004 mainly in the following three ways: (1) the level of compliance became higher than the previous requirements of 51% compliance in each of the 8 categories of the 81 total control points for the 2004 version and the 69 total control points for the 2009 version (TAS 9001-2009) of the code of practice; (2) holding a land title for the land on which the cultivation of a particular crop is related to the application for Q-GAP became mandatory; and (3) compliance with record keeping became mandatory.

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Perceptions and Preferences of Digital and Printed Text and Their Role in Predicting Digital Literacy

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Abstract

This study explored the relationships between the reading of digital versus printed text among 1,206 South Korean high school students in grades 9 through 12. The *Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency* (2nd ed.), the *Digital Propensity Index*, and the *Reading Observation Scale* were among the instruments used to measure reading proficiency and digital propensity. Statistical analysis was comprised of a paired sample *t* test to compare students' reading perceptions of digital and printed text; independent sample *t* tests were used to explore reading preferences and the relationships between digital and printed text; and a multiple linear regression was used to explore digital propensity based on reading behaviors. Among the results, students were found to have higher positive perceptions of the reading of printed text; reading preference depended on the purpose for reading (e.g., learning versus entertainment); and significant mean differences were found among students' reading scores and digital propensity regarding preferences between the reading of digital and printed text. Although much more research is needed before any definitive conclusions can be drawn, the findings suggest several ways to achieve student literacy competency in the use of digital and printed text, while also pointing to additional factors that influence perceptions and behaviors among these two formats.

Keywords: digital literacy, digital propensity, digital text, perceptions, preferences, predictors, printed text, reading behaviors, reading observation

1. Introduction

Generally and historically, literacy has been viewed, to varying degrees, as: the prerequisite for meaningful inclusion in the advancement of society; a tool in the acquisition of knowledge; the manner in which things are expressed; and a means of public association, civil engagement, and critical decision making (Hilton, 2013; Ntiri, 2009). In recent years, technology has had a significant impact on literacy and the dissemination of information, with ongoing advancements concomitantly altering the field of literacy (Chen, Hwang, & Tsai, 2014; Chu, 2014). In essence, these advancements have changed the way we read, write, attain, act on, use, evaluate, and produce information, not to mention the manner in which we engage in society and socially interact and communicate (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008; Harnad, 1991; Warschauer & Matuchniak, 2010).

It should not come as a surprise, therefore, that research focused on digital literacy has been steadily increasing in recent years (Goldstein, 2007; Harper & Dunkerly, 2009; Harper, Bean, & Dunkerly, 2010). For example, research on digital literacy implementation in the classroom setting has revealed possible benefits for both students with and without disabilities (Carretti, Caldarola, Tencati, & Cornoldi, 2013; Seok, DaCosta, & Yu, 2015), to include students with English language deficiencies (Hsu, 2013; Hwang & Chen, 2013).

Although this increased interest is promising, several areas of digital literacy are in need of study, such as literacy implementation practices in traditional literacy instruction, that can be leveraged to help guide educators, practitioners, researchers, and policymakers (Burnett, 2014; Collier, Foley, Moguel, & Barnard, 2013; Goodfellow, 2011), in particular, those involved at the secondary level, in applying digital practices in the classroom (Avila & Pandya, 2013; Hilton & Canciello, 2015). For example, there is a lack of research comparing preferences between digital and printed text in the context of youths' propensity towards digital literacy along with their conventional reading levels (Clark, 2012).

This void in the literature is unfortunate, because research focused on the relationship between digital and traditional literacy is extremely important at this point in time, particularly given that 21st-century skills represent a turning point from those of traditional literacy (Mihailidis & Thevenin, 2013). This line of research is also important because it has been proposed that new classroom practices are needed to support today's learners, who are said to demonstrate different learning characteristics as a result of exposure to and experience with technology (Nasah, DaCosta, Kinsell, & Seok, 2010; Thinyane, 2010).

1.1 Purpose of the Research

Given the importance of research focused on the relationship between digital and traditional literacy, the purpose of the current research was to (a) explore youths' reading perceptions of digital and printed text, (b) examine their preferences between the reading of digital and printed text, (c) investigate relationships between the reading of digital and printed text, and (d) identify predictors of digital propensity based on reading behaviors. It is anticipated that the results of this study will help guide educators, practitioners, researchers, and policymakers in applying digital practices in the classroom.

2. Literature Review

Researchers have defined digital literacy based on their academic stance (e.g., Martin, 2008; McKenna, Conradi, Lawrence, Jang, & Meyer, 2012). Although definitions have varied, they share a focus on competence in building knowledge and communication with others using digital technologies. Along with these definitions, the Common Core State Standards Initiative (2010) also emphasizes the importance of meaningful classroom experiences to enhance students' ability to integrate and evaluate information as well as their efficacy of communicating using technology in the curriculum. Combined, current definitions of digital literacy and the Common Core State Standards stress the importance of being able to research, evaluate, and synthesize information from digital resources (Coiro & Putman, 2014; Miller, 2014).

2.1 Studies on Perception toward Digital and Traditional Literacies

However, digital literacy goes beyond student competence and classroom integration. How students perceive their own competence is believed to have an effect on their behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs toward associated work (e.g., Henk & Melnick, 1995; Valentine, DuBois, & Cooper, 2004; Wigfield & Karpathian, 1991). Further, the construction of self-perception of competence involves the collective experiences of prior achievement (e.g., Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). This is important because positive self-perception enhances confidence in one's performance level and fosters motivation to participate in related tasks. This is in contrast to negative self-perception, which tends to undermine opportunities to maximize one's individual growth and, worse yet, acts as a deterrent in motivation to perform a given task successfully (e.g., Chen & Hoshower, 2003; Kim, 2013).

An increasing number of studies have compared perceptions toward digital and traditional literacies, in particular, relationships between reading habits of digital and printed text. Findings to date have identified both differences and similarities between the two formats. For example, Eden and Eshet-Alkalai (2013) examined the reading ability of 93 students in postsecondary education, comparing students' active reading abilities between digital and printed formats. No significant differences were found in readers' average scores on the two formats. However, participants who read the digital format finished their assignments faster and with performance levels that were no worse than those who read the printed format. Stonier (2012) conducted a mixed-methods study in which 100 preservice teachers received a semester of training in digital literacy implementation in K-12 classes. The results indicated that teachers' perceptions increased and were positive toward digital literacy, integrative texts, and the use of tools. More important, these perceptions were retained. That is, the teachers continued to strongly believe that digital text increased reading comprehension.

In another study, Schmidt (2010) surveyed faculty perceptions of students' digital literacy using 56 items. The faculty responded that their students reached a level of proficiency regarding literacy of digital media, perceiving that their students were competent in the use of media access, followed by aptitude in mediated message communication and media analysis. Finally, based on semi-structured interviews with 74 secondary-level students, Kolikant (2010) found that 76% of their sample were in favor of Internet use for reading, describing it as "easy," "interesting," and "fun," whereas they perceived traditional books as "irksome," "unpleasant," and "more work." Additionally, 84% of the interviewees reported that they used the Internet to find materials and initial ideas and to brainstorm respective topics when completing their assignments, and before reverting to traditional books as resources.

2.2 Studies on Reading Comprehension Comparing Digital and Printed Text

In another line of research, studies have compared the results of reading comprehension tests between digital and

printed text, but with mixed results. For example, Sheehy (2007) investigated the outcome of a media literacy implementation plan for the *Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test* (FCAT) at an urban high school in Central Florida. Results indicated that the digital curriculum had a significant, positive impact on students' learning outcomes. Specifically, students who received the digital literacy intervention had higher means on their reading test scores. In contrast, Durwin and Sherman (2008) argued that there was no statistically significant difference in reading comprehension between digital and printed text on the same subject matter at the postsecondary level. Similarly, Beach (2009) found no significant statistical differences in reading comprehension of digital and printed text regardless of sentence length and medium of text. Taylor (2011), on the other hand, showed that digital and printed text were equally effective for students' learning outcomes, arguing that the complexity of the material, interaction with the different formats, and extended memory retention did not make a difference on reading comprehension scores. Finally, Johnson (2013) also reported no statistically significant differences between and within groups, including gender, using digital and printed text.

3. Method

3.1 Setting

The study was conducted in 2014 at seven public high schools in the area surrounding Seoul, South Korea. The schools were chosen because they focused on college entrance examination, placed a strong emphasis on the use of English in their curricula, and have graduated a large percentage of students accepted to prestigious universities.

3.2 Participants

A total of 1,206 students in grades 9 through 12 participated in the study. As shown in Table 1, the majority of students had a reading grade point of 70 and higher (based on a 100-point scale).

Table 1. Student demographics

Items	Freq. (%)	
Age	18 and older	807 (66.9%)
	17	374 (31.0%)
	16 and younger	25 (2.1%)
Gender	Male	821 (68.1%)
	Female	385 (31.9%)
Family's Annual Gross Income (in USD):	Under \$20,000	75 (6.2%)
	\$20,000-\$39,000	351 (29.1%)
	\$40,000-\$59,000	406 (33.7%)
	\$60,000-\$99,000	247 (20.5%)
	More than \$100,000	127 (10.5%)
Grade Level	9th	6 (0.5%)
	10th	172 (14.3%)
	11th	899 (74.5%)
	12th	129 (10.7%)
Reading Grade Point	90-100	256 (21.2%)
	80-89	300 (24.9%)
	70-79	254 (21.1%)
	60-69	193 (16.0%)
	50-59	119 (9.9%)
	49 and under	84 (7.0%)

3.3 Materials

Instruments comprised the *Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency* (2nd ed.) (TOSCRF; Hammill, Wiederholt, & Allen, 2006), the *Digital Propensity Index* (DPI; Nasah et al., 2010), the *Reading Observation Scale* (ROS;

Wiederholt, Hammill, & Brown, 2009), and a survey consisting of items designed to compare and analyze students' preferences for digital or printed text. Demographic information was also collected. These instruments were chosen based on their validity and reliability in measuring reading proficiency, digital propensity, and preferences toward the reading of digital and printed text.

3.3.1 Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency

The TOSCRF assesses the silent general reading ability of students. Specifically, it measures the rate with which readers can identify distinct words found within a set of texts that increase in difficulty with regard to meaning and syntax (e.g., AYELLOWANDBLUEBIRDSATONMOTHERSPRETTYHAT). Readers are given approximately 10 minutes to draw lines between as many words as they can (e.g., A|YELLOW|AND|BLUE|BIRD|SAT|ON|MOTHERS|PRETTY|HAT). Scoring is based on word count in lines as well as summing all the words.

3.3.2 Digital Propensity Index

The DPI measures how often people use information and communication technology in their everyday lives. Nasah et al. (2010) reported that the DPI was found to be reliable during two pilot studies, with a Cronbach's alpha of .858 and .885. The DPI used in the current study was updated to reflect technology not available at the time the index was conceived, to include the use of blogs; downloading, sharing, and streaming of media; email; instant messaging; online shopping; smartphones and texting; gaming; and social media. This updated version of the DPI was found to be trustworthy with a Cronbach's alpha of .853.

Not all the items in the index were used in this study. Instead 13 items were selected that examined technologies believed most applicable in the context of reading and digital activities for the secondary students. Items were depicted in Likert scale, where 1 indicated the least use and 5, the most.

3.3.3 Reading Observation Scale

The ROS is a teacher rating scale that examines reading behaviors, originally designed for teachers to rate their perceptions of their students' reading of printed text. In the context of the present study, the ROS was adapted for students to rate their own perceptions toward the reading of digital and printed text. Items were depicted in Likert scale, where 1 indicated strongly disagree and 5, strongly agree.

3.3.4 Survey

A survey was also used, designed specifically to compare and analyze students' preferences for digital or printed text. Items were derived from a comprehensive research synthesis concentrating on the measure of digital and printed material. Demographic information was also collected, to include age, gender, family income, and academics.

3.4 Procedure

The principal investigator (PI) met with the principals, vice principals, and a research teacher at each of the participating schools to discuss the research, establish protocols, and obtain necessary permissions. The PI, a homeroom teacher, and an English teacher from each of the schools administered the paper-and-pencil instruments to students in their respective classrooms.

While the TOSCRF was comprised of and administered as its own instrument, the DPI, ROS, and survey (with demographic items) were administered as a single questionnaire represented as four respective parts.

3.5 Ethical Clearance and Informed Consent

Letters of ethical clearance and informed consent were sent to the schools. Each school willingly agreed to participate in the research. Furthermore, informed letters of consent were sent to parents and students, and consent was obtained before students could participate.

4. Results

The findings are reported in the order of the aims of the current research.

4.1 Youths' Reading Perceptions of Digital and Printed Text

Table 2 shows the results of the comparison of each paired item between digital and printed text using the ROS. As illustrated, students held higher positive perceptions toward the printed format, except for the following six items: "I can understand charts and graphs" (printed text, $M = 3.78$, $SD = .84$; digital text, $M = 3.83$, $SD = .85$); "I can read assignments in a timely fashion" (printed text, $M = 3.69$, $SD = .84$; digital text, $M = 3.69$, $SD = .83$); "I can proofread and edit my own writing" (printed text, $M = 3.66$, $SD = .87$; digital text, $M = 3.70$, $SD = .87$); "I

can demonstrate a rich word reading vocabulary” (printed and digital text, $M = 3.37$, $SD = .91$); “I can understand the vocabulary of age-appropriate passages” (printed text, $M = 3.94$, $SD = .85$; digital text, $M = 3.94$, $SD = .86$); and “I can read novels, short stories, magazine articles, and computer-generated material” (printed text, $M = 3.92$, $SD = .81$; digital text, $M = 3.92$, $SD = .82$).

Table 2. Students’ perceptions toward the reading of digital and printed text as measured by ROS

Items	Paired Samples Statistics				
	Mean		SD		
	Print	Digital	Print	Digital	
Pair 1	I can retell read materials correctly	3.68	3.60	.83883	.86256
Pair 2	I can easily discuss what has been read	3.63	3.56	.81629	.81312
Pair 3	I can ask appropriate questions about what is read	3.70	3.63	.80853	.80897
Pair 4	I can relate what is read to other events	3.60	3.55	.82901	.82130
Pair 5	I can summarize what the author has written	3.60	3.52	.84069	.82947
Pair 6	I can read at an appropriate rate for comprehension	3.61	3.60	.83687	.82603
Pair 7	I can understand charts and graphs	3.78	3.83	.83815	.85011
Pair 8	I can read orally with appropriate intonation and affect	3.81	3.70	.92038	.91775
Pair 9	I can understand the written directions of reading assignments	3.74	3.71	.82255	.81076
Pair 10	I can read assignments in a timely fashion	3.69	3.69	.84485	.83275
Pair 11	I can read and understand questions on exams	3.83	3.63	.84488	.85668
Pair 12	I can proofread and edit my own writing	3.66	3.70	.87186	.86506
Pair 13	I can associate prior knowledge to text	3.79	3.76	.78945	.80464
Pair 14	I can get the main ideas in reading	3.72	3.62	.81216	.82560
Pair 15	I can draw inferences from context	3.66	3.57	.83669	.80458
Pair 16	I can demonstrate a rich word reading vocabulary	3.37	3.37	.91488	.90919
Pair 17	I can understand the vocabulary of age-appropriate passages	3.94	3.94	.85227	.85849
Pair 18	I can skim assigned materials quickly	3.55	3.49	.83403	.81246
Pair 19	I can read silently with minimal breaks in attention	3.81	3.72	.90096	.92140
Pair 20	I can read text-based school subject matter	3.79	3.71	.81244	.80969
Pair 21	I can read orally in a smooth and error-free manner	3.55	3.49	.92310	.90613
Pair 22	I can understand age/grade-appropriate subject matter and content	3.79	3.78	.80541	.82575
Pair 23	I can answer questions about material read	3.72	3.67	.78785	.77334
Pair 24	I can read novels, short stories, magazine articles, and computer-generated material	3.92	3.92	.81396	.81573
Pair 25	I can reread to clarify meaning	3.91	3.82	.89474	.93905

4.2 Youths’ Preferences between the Reading of Digital and Printed Text

A total of 46% ($n = 555$) of the students reported that they enjoyed reading digital text compared to 54% ($n = 651$) who enjoyed print. Table 3 shows the preferences between digital and printed text in the context of reading. As illustrated, students preferred digital text when reading for entertainment, reading selectively with certain content, and skimming for information. Conversely, they preferred reading printed text for learning, comprehension of information, and long periods requiring focus.

Only the students who responded “yes” to the item “I enjoy reading digital text more than printed text” also responded to the item “What elements of the Internet- or computer-based learning activities make reading more enjoyable?” These findings revealed that the following elements – pictures (46.5%, $n = 258$), interacting with others (16.2%, $n = 90$), hyperlinking to other/additional content (15.5%, $n = 86$), nonlinear reading (14.6%, $n = 81$), and content presented in an auditory format (7.2%, $n = 40$) – were viewed as enjoyable.

Moreover, the students surfed the Internet for fun (26.8%, $n = 323$), citing video game play (24.5%, $n = 295$); watching videos, movies, and/or television (14.8%, $n = 179$); reading (11.9%, $n = 143$); listening to music (4.6%,

$n = 55$); social media (3.1%, $n = 37$); writing (e.g., blogging; 2.4%, $n = 29$); speaking on a mobile phone (1.7%, $n = 21$); and posting videos and/or movies, and email ($< 1\%$, $n = 3$) as the most common types of entertainment. Students also reported using the Internet to complete school assignments (5.8%, $n = 70$) as well as engage in other (unspecified) activities (4%, $n = 48$).

Table 3. Students' preferences between digital and printed text

Items	Freq. (%)	
	Print	Digital
When reading for entertainment purposes, I mostly read	282 (23.4%)	924 (76.6%)
When reading for learning purposes, I mostly read	923 (76.5%)	283 (23.5%)
I better comprehend information, when reading	803 (66.6%)	403 (33.4%)
I am more selective with certain content, when reading	497 (41.2%)	709 (58.8%)
I skim for information (non-linear), when reading	395 (32.8%)	811 (67.2%)
I am able to keep focus and read for longer periods of time, when reading	778 (64.5%)	428 (35.5%)

4.3 Relationships between the Reading of Digital and Printed Text

To examine the relationships between digital and printed reading, the sample was divided into two groups – students who preferred reading digital text and students who preferred reading print. This distinction was derived from the item “I enjoy reading digital text more than printed text.” An independent-samples t test comparing the DPI mean scores between the groups revealed a significant difference, $t(697) = 3.860$, $p < .01$. The mean of the digital text group was significantly higher ($M = 40.71$, $SD = 7.74$; $n = 253$) than that of the printed text group ($M = 38.41$, $SD = 7.44$; $n = 446$). An independent-samples t test comparing the mean TOSCRF scores of the groups also showed a significant difference, $t(697) = 4.14$, $p < .01$. The mean TOSCRF scores of the students who preferred printed text ($M = 96.83$, $SD = 85.82$; $n = 446$) were higher than those who preferred digital ($M = 71.26$, $SD = 63.38$; $n = 253$).

4.4 Predictors of Digital Propensity Based on Reading Behaviors

A multiple linear regression was calculated to determine the predictors of digital propensity based on reading behavior, which were measured by the ROS and the DPI. A significant regression equation was found, $F(58,1147) = 2.629$, $p < .001$, with an R^2 of .117 and a confidence interval of 99.9%.

Among the independent variables, the following items were significant positive predictors of digital propensity, with a confidence interval of 95%: “I can understand charts and graphs” (digital text, $\beta = .181$, $p < .01$); “I can draw inferences from context” (printed text, $\beta = .195$, $p < .01$); and “I am able to keep focus and read for longer periods of time when reading” (printed text, $\beta = .077$, $p < .05$).

The items that were significant negative predictors of digital propensity, with a confidence interval of 95%, included “I can understand charts and graphs” (printed text, $\beta = -.120$, $p < .05$); “I can proofread and edit my own writing” (printed text, $\beta = -.101$, $p < .05$); and “I can get the main ideas in reading” (printed text, $\beta = -.141$, $p < .05$).

5. Discussion

In this investigation of the perceptions, preferences, and relationships between the reading of digital and printed text, results from a paired-sample t test of youths' perceptions toward these two formats showed that the mean of the printed text was statistically higher than that of its digital counterpart. This finding is not aligned with existing research, such as that of Kolikant (2010), who reported the students in the sample favored reading digital text. This difference might be explained by McKenna et al. (2012), who contended that perceptions of recreational versus academic reading of digital text may differ based on reading purposes and formats. If this is the case, educators, practitioners, and researchers may wish to take this into consideration when leveraging reading techniques presented in digital and printed form, as some formats may be perceived more academic than others. In the current study, for example, students preferred digital text when reading for entertainment, selectively reading certain content, and skimming for information; conversely, they favored reading printed text for learning, comprehension of information, and when long periods of time were required for focus.

Based on these findings, we are not suggesting that teachers refrain from implementing technology into their

instruction to enhance learning outcomes (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006), especially in social, cognitive, and technical dimensions, to the extent that students feel motivated in both digital and printed text formats. Rather, we are cautioning that teachers may face challenges. That is, printed text may not be viewed as an effective pedagogy for promoting digital literacy because this format hardly catches the non-purported cognitive, social, and technical dimensions of digital literacy practices (Mills, 2010) in classrooms. Consequently, it has been proposed that future investigations focus on how teachers practice and integrate digital technologies (Hutchison & Reinking, 2011).

In addition, in the current study, students had higher positive perceptions toward digital text regarding their understanding of charts and graphs and when proofreading and editing their writing. In addition, the mean of the students' perceptions of digital and printed text was the same on the item "I can read assignments in a timely fashion." This finding adds support to the results reported by Eden and Eshet-Alkalai (2013), that digital readers complete their assignments faster. Given this, we recommend that when students are involved in editing and proofreading, teachers implement digital technology in their instruction, which could include, for example, the track changes feature found in Microsoft Word, and the use of similar tools and features.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test comparing the DPI mean scores of the digital and printed text groups were statistically significant and, thus, consistent with studies examining perception. Students who preferred and held higher positive perceptions toward the reading of digital text demonstrated greater digital propensity, reinforcing the findings of Burgess, Price, and Caverly (2012), that frequent access to digital technology leads to knowledge and skill of digital literacy and that such literacy may be enhanced through education and training.

The independent-samples *t* test, comparing the mean scores on the TOSCRF of the digital and printed text groups, also showed significant differences. Thus, the mean TOSCRF of students who preferred printed text was significantly higher than those who preferred the digital format. These findings are a departure from the literature, to include Durwin and Sherman (2008) and Beach (2009), who reported no such statistical differences. This difference may be explained by the fact that these researchers used samples with similar propensity between the groups, whereas in the present study, the groups were distributed based on reading preference for either digital or printed text, thus underscoring that perception or propensity may be a strong element of learning (e.g., Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Henk & Melnick, 1995; Valentine et al., 2004; Wigfield & Karpathian, 1991). Finally, the findings presented here are in line with those of Johnson (2013), who concluded that experience is a crucial factor in learning, specifically with regard to digital literacy. In other words, students' skills, knowledge, and use of digitally based technology can be viewed as a matter of digital literacy or access, which can be improved through education and training.

To explore the predictors of digital propensity, a multiple linear regression was conducted. The results were statistically significant. The strongest positive predictors were as follows: "I can understand charts and graphs" (digital text), "I can draw inferences from context" (printed text), and "I am able to keep focus and read for longer periods of time when reading" (printed text). The items "I can draw inferences from context" and "I am able to keep focus and read for longer periods of time when reading" can be said to be related to the cognitive dimension of digital and traditional literacy. The item "I can draw inferences from context" is an interesting predictor, in that it was taken from the observation scale, which is more related to printed text. Yet, it is a strong predictor of digital literacy because drawing inferences involves the ability to search, evaluate, and synthesize information. Both items echo the idea that the attention shift from linear to nonlinear reading might impose an intense cognitive load – a finding that is aligned with existing studies (e.g., Ackerman & Goldsmith, 2011; Bigot & Rouet, 2007). Although more research is needed, we put forth that cognition is a significant factor in reading, regardless of format.

All in all, while these findings are promising, caution should be exercised when generalizing the results, given the sample. Namely, although English was the students' second language, the TOSCRF was used, which is in English. Hence the decision to sample from schools that stressed the use of English in their curricula, and whose students had higher grade points in English than other schools in the area. As a consequence, future study warrants the use of other student populations, to include those attending vocational institutions.

6. Conclusion

Attempts to define literacy have proven difficult because literacy is in a continuous state of transformation. This is especially the case when viewed from sociocultural contexts. This has, in part, led to redefining adolescents' learning characteristics in the digital information age and investigations into identifying pedagogical changes in instruction. To arrive at possible instructional solutions, some researchers have advocated for studies comparing

adolescents' behaviors and perceptions of digital and printed text along with their current performance level in digital literacy and predictors.

The present study attempted to answer this call. Although much more research is needed, the findings suggest several ways to achieve student literacy competency in digital and print text, while pointing to additional factors that influence perceptions and behaviors between these two formats.

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Common Sports Injuries among Physical Activities Practitioners at the Physical Fitness Centers in Jordan (Comparative Study)

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate the common sports injuries among physical activities practitioners at the physical fitness centers in Jordan. Study sample consisted of (272) volunteered male (n=221) and female (n=51) (age 30±3). Researchers used a special form used to evaluate athletic injuries. After collecting and analyzing the data. Results showed that the most common sports injuries among sample of the study was muscular tears 27.7%, muscle spasm 20.7%, and tears ligament 20.2%. And the most exposed parts of the body to injury is the lumbar area 26.8%, elbows 16.9%, followed by shoulders 8.9%. Also the study results revealed that the most causes of injuries was over training 24.14%. Poor warm-up 22.1% and bad technic 11.3%. Bodies-building was the most type of activities subjects to injury with 18.8%. Physical Fitness 6.6% and weight loss 27.7. Results also showed that physical therapy was the most means of treating injuries 54.14%, drugs therapy 33.3% and surgical intervention 4.2%. Also the study shows that males are more exposed to injuries than females.

Conclusions: These finding indicate that sports injures is part of physical

Activities participations, preventive measures should be taken by participant's the researchers recommended the need for physical and medical checkup before participation in physical activity at the physical fitness centers.

Keywords: athletic injuries, sport injuries, physical activities

1. Introduction

Physical activity has multiple health benefits, The health benefit of regular physical activity across a variety of chronic disease area, including cardiovascular disease, diabetes, hypertension, osteoporosis, cancer, obesity, and stroke, are now well established (Mujallie et al., 2010; Makarove, 2004; Wong, 2005). A drawback of participation in activity and sports is the increased risk of sport-related injuries, this is well documented in all age categories, among both genders, in a wide variety of activities, and as well at the professional as at the recreational level (Frisch, 2009; Hergenroder, 2001). Sports related injuries are detrimental to an injured athlete's health, may cause permanent disability, or even terminate the athlete's sport career. Injuries also burden the health care system as the treatment of sports injuries is often demanding and expensive (Twomey, 2014; Jordan, 2014; Less, 2006; Meliokova, 2003).

The patterns of injury in the physically active population and the factors that influence these patterns, and how these events related to gender, place of injury, and time, was the main interest of the research, and to provide a basis for developing and evaluating programs to prevent injuries and in the treatment and rehabilitation of injuries (Jordan, 2014; DeHaven, 1986). Although the overall injury patterns in many activities have been established, many aspects of the injury process, mechanisms of injury, location, time, the nature of the activity, and the environment in which they occur still have not been studied systematically and remain largely unexplored (Jordan, 2014; Weisenthal, 2014; Nikolas, 2007). The aims of the study were to provide reliable estimate of sport injuries at physical fitness centers in Jordan and to compare sports injuries between various physical activities for both male and female.

2. Methods

272 male (n=221) and female (n=51) subject's (30±5) years of age Table (1) were participate in the study.

Individuals who participated in this study were volunteers and were not given any kind of remuneration. The subjects were informed about study procedures. Written informed consents were obtained.

Table 1. Physical characteristics' of study subjects

	Mean	S D
Age / year	30.79	7.91
Height/ m	1.77.62	7.72
Weight/ Kg	78.92	14.88
Training units/ unit	6.0	2.21
Training days/day	4.30	1.06
Training Age/ year	2.93	3.40
Sex	Males	221
	Females	51
	Total	272
Mode of Activity	Body-building	151
	Physical Fitness	73
	Weight-lost	48
	Total	272

2.1 Study Procedures

The researchers used surveying descriptive method. A valid and reliably form with coefficient of (95%) was used in this study to process and analyze data.

2.2 Statistical Analysis

All data were analyzed using SPSS statistical package (copy 10), with level of significant set at $P \leq 0.05$. Numerical values are expressed as means and standard deviations, Kei-square, and percentages were used.

3. Results

All subjects, 262 male and female completed the form. Data are expressed as means \pm SD. Table 2 presented values of sports injuries and other selected variables.

Table 2. Most common types of injuries related to gender

Types of Injuries	Males (N=221)		Females (N=51)		Total (N=272)		Kei Square	Indicat. Level
	Repet.	%	Rept.	%	Rept.	%		
Fractures	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
Tear ligament	19	8.9	3	1.4	22	10.3	0.27	0.607
Tear muscles	46	21.6	13	6.1	59	27.7	0.71	0.400
Tear tendons	35	16.4	8	3.8	43	20.2	0.02	0.896
Dislocation	4	1.9	0	0.0	4	1.9	0.87	0.351
Bones bruises	4	1.9	0	0.0	4	1.9	0.87	0.351
Muscles bruises	6	2.8	0	0.00	6	2.8	1.30	0.254
Nerves bruises	6	2.8	0	0.00	6	2.8	1.30	0.254
Wounds laceration	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.5	4.61	0.031
Strain Muscles	37	17.4	7	3.3	44	20.7	0.11	0.738
sprain	10	4.7	4	1.9	14	6.6	1.10	0.294
Other Injuries	7	3.3	2	0.9	9	4.2	0.12	0.731
Total	175	82.2	38	17.8	213	100.0		

Table 2 shows that tear muscles was the most common type of injuries 27.7% followed by strain muscle 20.7% and tear ligaments 20.2%. The study also shows that the fewest common injuries were fractures and wounds 0.50%.

The study results also show that the most common types of injuries related to gender was muscles tears 21.6% for male and 6.1% for female, followed by strain muscle 17.4% for male and 3.3% for female, and teared ligament 16.4% for male, but for females it was 3.8%.

Meanwhile the fewest of female's injuries were wounds and laceration 0.50%.

There was no statistical significant difference ($P \geq 0.05$) between male and female injurie's related to type of injurie's.

Table 3 shows the most common Locations of injuries, according to gender. The rustles of the study show that lumbar area were the most common places of injury 26.8% (20.2% for male and 6.6% for females) elbow 16.9% (15.5% male but neck injury was second for female 1.9%) then the shoulder 8.9% (8.5% male and 1.4% female) meanwhile the least injuries were head, hummers, ribs, pelvis, ACL and PCL. There was no statistical significant deference's $p \geq (0.05)$ between male and female according to place of injurie's, except for the head and PCL.

Table 3. The most common locations of injuries, according to gender

Places of injuries	Males (N=221)		Females (N=51)		Total (N=272)		Ker square	Level indicated
	T.	%	T.	%	T.	%		
Head	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.5	4.61	0.032
Neck	10	4.7	4	1.9	14	6.6	1.10	0.294
Shoulder Joint	18	8.5	1	0.5	19	8.9	2.05	0.152
Collarbone	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Humerus	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
Elbow Joint	33	15.5	3	1.4	36	16.9	2.22	0.136
Forearm	5	2.3	0	0.0	5	2.3	1.09	0.297
Wrist Joint	10	4.7	2	0.9	12	5.6	0.01	0.915
Metacarpuses	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Phalanges	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Breastbone	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Ribs	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
Belly	9	4.2	1	0.5	10	4.7	0.42	0.517
Thoracic Vertebras	8	3.8	0	0.0	8	3.8	1.74	0.188
Lumbar area	43	20.2	14	6.6	57	26.8	1.76	0.185
sacrum	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
Pelvis	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
Hip Joint	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Thigh	11	5.2	2	0.9	13	6.1	0.05	0.817
Knee Joint	3	1.4	0	0.0	3	1.4	0.65	0.420
ACL	4	1.9	1	0.5	5	2.3	0.02	0.900
PCL	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.5	4.61	0.032
M CL	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.641
LCL	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.9	1.41	0.235
Meniscus.	2	0.9	1	0.5	3	1.4	0.49	0.483
leg	3	1.4	2	0.9	5	2.3	1.68	0.196
ankle	5	2.3	3	1.4	8	3.8	2.11	0.146
Ankle ACL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Ankle BCL	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.22	0.541
Foot phalanges	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.000
Total	175	82.2	83	17.8	213	100.0	27.30	0.000

ACL, anterior cruciate ligament PCL, posterior cruciate ligament, MCL medial collateral ligament, LCL lateral collateral ligament.

Table 4 shows the most common type of treatment of sport injuries at physical fitness centers. The study results show that physical therapy was the most used form of treatment 54.14% followed by drugs therapy 33.3% and surgical intervention 4.2%

There was a statistical significant deference's between the physical therapy treatment and the surgical intervention (0.000) in favor of physical therapy.

Table 4. The most common methods of treatments

Type of therapy	T.	%	Kei-square	Level of Indication
PT	133	52.4	54.14	0.000
Drugs therapy	71	33.3	-	-
Surgical intervention.	9	4.2	54.14	0.000
Total	213	100.0	108.28	0.000

PT: physical therapy.

The results of the study also revealed that the most leading causes of injuries Table (5) is over-training 24.4% followed bad warm-up 22.1% and bad technic 11.3%

Table 5. The most common causes of injuries

No.	Reason	Rept.	%
1.	Bad warm-up	47	22.1
2.	Over- training	52	24.4
3.	Bad behavior	20	9.4
4.	Bad filed	4	1.9
5.	Bad technic	24	11.3
6.	Training with injury	16	7.5
7.	Unfit clothes	2	0.9
8.	Random training	5	2.3
9.	bad equipment's	0	0.0
10.	Absence of trainer's	5	2.3
11.	Breach of safety and security rules	7	3.3
12.	Bad weather	0	0.0
13.	Bad choice of training methods	1	0.5
14.	No supervision	1	0.5
15.	Not enough rest	9	4.2
16.	Player return to training before complete recovery	3	1.4
17.	Non-relaxation after the exercise	1	0.5
18.	Lack of protective equipment's	2	0.9
19.	Lack of using sport rehabilitation technic.	1	0.5
20.	Time of training	0	0.0
21.	Medical examination	2	0.9
22.	Bad diet	0	0.0

23.	Individual differences (individuality)	0	0.0
24.	Bad psychological condition	0	0.0
25.	Unawareness of science of sport injuries and causes of their occurrence and methods of prevention	0	0.0
26.	Bad activity choices.	1	0.5
27.	Dis- applying Principles of training	9	4.2
28.	Other causes	1	0.5
	Total	213	100.0

Table 6 shows the most common types of injuries according to mode of activates. Body building was the most common type of activity with the highest rate of injuries, tear muscles with the highest type of injury 18.8% nerve bruises 11.7% and tear ligament 8.0% and the least common types of injuries was dislocation 0.9%. The second type of activities was physical fitness, and the most type of injuries in this department was muscles strain 6.6%, followed by tear ligament 5.2% and tear muscles 4.7%.

Meanwhile the least injuries of this group were fractures, bone-bruises, and muscles bruises 0.50%. The third type of activities was weight loss and the most common injuries among them was tear muscles 27.7%, followed by muscle strain 20.7%, and tear ligament 20.2%. The least occurring injuries were tear tendon and nerve bruises .50%. There was no statistical significant differences $P>0.05$ in all type of injuries'. Except for the bone and muscles bourses.

Table 6. The most common types of injuries according to mode of training

Types of Injuries	Body Build N=(151)		Fitness Impr N=73		Weight Loss. N=48		Total N=272		Kei-sq	indic level
	Rept.	%	Rept.	%	Rept.	%	Rept.	%		
Fracture	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	73.41	0.000
Tear ligament	17	8.0	4	1.9	1	0.50.5	22	10.3	20.19	0.000
Tear Muscles	40	18.8	10	4.7	9	4.2	59	27.7	24.10	0.000
Tear Tendons	25	11.7	11	5.2	7	3.3	43	20.2	8.14	0.017
Dislocation	2	0.9	2	0.9	0	0.0	4	1.9	384.55	0.000
Bone bruises	3	1.4	1	0.5	0	0.0	4	1.9	1.78	0.411
Muscles bruises	2	0.9	1	0.5	3	1.4	6	2.8	1.10	0.511
Nerves bruises	5	2.3	0	0.0	1	0.5	6	2.8	6.78	0.034
Wounds & Laceration	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	36.38	0.000
Strain muscles	24	11.3	14	6.6	6	2.8	44	20.7	44.00	0.000
Sprain	10	4.7	4	1.9	0	0.0	14	6.6	69.25	0.000
Other Injuries	4	1.9	2	0.9	2	0.9	9	4.2	6.22	0.045
Total	10	62.4	51	23.9	29	13.6	213	100.0		

Table 7 Shows of the most common places of injuries related to Mode of training. Individuals who trained body-building, we find lumbar area were the most common injuries 14.6%, followed by the elbow joint 12.7%, and shoulder joint of 5.6%. The least common injuries among them were the hummers, the scrum, and the knee ligament (except the PCL 0.5%).

The most comment injury among physical fitness activist was the lumbar area 6.6%, followed by the neck 4.2%, and shoulder joint 2.3%. Meanwhile the least common injuries were, head, forearm, chest vertebrae, pelvis, thigh and both enterer and posturer ligament 0.5%.

For the Losing weight group lumber area was the most common injuries 5.6%, followed by elbow joint 2.3%,

and then shoulder and the wrist joint 0.9%, the fewest injuries were the forearm, ribs, belly, PCL, cartilage, leg, and the ankle Pesterer ligament 0.5%.

Overall the study show that Body-buildings is the most exposed activity to injuries and lumbar area is the most exposed area to injury. The increased injuries maybe related to high burden on this area at carrying heavy weights Mjullie (2007). Also over training and bad technic play a role in increasing the chances of injuries to the lumbar area.

Table 7. The most common place of injury according to mode of training

Places of injuries	bodybuilding (N=151)		Fitn.Impr. (N=73)		Weight decr (N=48)		Total (N=272)		Kei square	Level indicated
	Repet.	%	Repet	%	Repet	%	Repet	%		
Head	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	44944.00	0.000
Neck	5	2.3	9	4.2	0	0.0	14	5.6	12.30	0.002
Shoulder Joint	12	5.6	5	2.3	2	0.9	19	8.9	10.91	0.004
Collarbone	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Humerus	1	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	1.00	0.607
Elbow Joint	27	12.7	4	1.9	5	2.3	36	16.9	34.04	0.000
Forearm	3	1.4	1	0.5	1	0.5	5	2.3	216.59	0.000
Wrist Joint	8	3.8	2	0.9	2	0.9	12	5.6	4.16	0.125
Metacarpuses	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Phalanges	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Breastbone	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Ribs	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.5	1.00	0.607
Belly	6	2.8	3	1.4	1	0.5	10	4.7	8.73	0.013
Thoracic area	7	3.3	1	0.5	0	0.0	8	3.8	0.82	0.663
Lumbar area	31	14.6	14	6.6	12	5.6	57	26.8	42.45	0.000
Sacrum	1	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	3302.29	0.000
Hip	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	0.60	0.740
Hip Joint	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Thigh	12	5.6	1	0.5	0	0.0	13	6.1	13.00	0.002
Knee Joint	3	1.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.4	55.26	0.000
ACL	1	0.5	3	1.4	1	0.5	5	2.3	1.88	0.390
PCL	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.5	37.53	0.000
MCL	1	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	3.18	0.204
LCL	1	0.5	1	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.9	0.80	0.670
Meniscuse	2	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.5	3	1.4	0.93	0.629
leg	2	0.9	2	0.9	1	0.5	5	2.3	1.75	0.417
ankle	6	2.8	2	0.9	0	0.0	8	3.8	1.81	0.405
Enterer ligament	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
Posters ligament	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.5	1.00	0.607
phalangette	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-	-
	4	1.9	0	0.0	1	0.5	5	2.3	5.00	0.082
Total	133	62.4	51	23.9	29	13.6	213	100.0		

4. Discussion

The aim of the study was to investigate the common sports injuries among physical activities practitioners at the physical fitness centers in Jordan.

The results of this study show that the most common sports injuries among sample of the study was muscular tears, muscle strain and tears ligament. Previous studies reported similar results (Doral, 2015; Khleif, 2007; Lari & Aleson, 1997).

The finding of this study indicate that the most exposed parts of the body to injury are the lumbar area, elbows, followed by shoulders. Our finding consistent with those reported by Carolyn (2005). A recent review by Lauersen (2014) found that strain muscle, sprain and contusion was the most comment type of injuries. Our finding suggested that the lumber area is most injured body part. Sudden movements, weight lifting, and bad technic placed a heavy burden and a high effort on those areas. All may contribute to increased incidence of injuries to those area (Finch, 2012; Mujalli, 2006). It has been shown in our research that the most cusses of injuries were over training, poor warm-up and bad technic. Which consistent with the finding of Weisenthal (2014) and Meliokova (2003). A recent review by Breuner (2015) found that overtraining was consistently associated with 55% increase of sport related injurie's. In our study overtraining and bad technic was the most common cusses of injuries. The risk for overtraining injuries are multifactorial. Coaches, trainers, and physicians encounter a dilemma in developing a training program that enables performance yet avoids burn-out or overtraining. Physical activates should concentrate on overloading the musculoskeletal system, allowing gradual adaptation. However, all types of activates are accompanied by both mental and physical fatigue (Khreibet, 2008). Injury may occur if an imbalance exists between training and recovery. Considerable empiric evidence suggests that overtraining may be reduced in both number and severity by enhanced flexibility, conditioning and muscles strength. Muscles that are weak, inflexible, or both are more susceptible to injury (Rosa, 2014; Walker, 2013).

Our finding suggested that Body-building was the most type of activities subjects to injury followed by Fitness, and weight loss. Factors such as too much training and lack of commitment to training principles, training errors, poor performance, and poor techniques may contributed to increase incidence of injuries within bodybuilding participant (Jayauthia, 2015; Mujalli, 2010; Khlef, 2007; Mujalli, 2007; Carolyn, 2005). Muscle that are capable of producing a greater force, a faster contraction speed and subjected to greater stretch are more likely to become injured (Brenner, 2015; Pescatello, 2014; Erric, 2001). Many factors have been associated with muscular injury. From current research, some conclusions and recommendations for muscle injury prevention can be made. Overall, muscular conditioning and nutrition are important. Proper training and balance strengthening are key factors in prevention of musculotendinous injuries (Lauersen, 2014; Renstrom, 2002; Hergenroder, 2001).

Also our study shows that there were gender differences on sport injuries. Our investigation used a self-report of injury from a baseline questionnaire for an investigation for lower and upper extremity injuries. Our findings agree with the previous investigations reporting gender difference in sport injuries. Harmon (2000) especially for the general population at the recreational level. In our study male workout harder with higher intensity, and that maybe the cause of higher rate of sport injuries within male subjects compare to female's who work out with less stress and lower intensity. In a study by (Mujalli et al., 2006) they reported that female subjects have more sport injuries than male, the gender difference found in this study may be influenced by the increased reporting of injuries in female compared with males. Furthermore, gender socialization is another factor that may play into the increased reporting of musculo-skeletal injuries by female. Previous research has reported that males are discouraged from reporting injuries and illnesses at an early age, but girls are taught that reporting injuries and illnesses is acceptable and should be done to take care of one's body (Almeida, 1999). Previous investigations have reported that with respect to male military recruits, female military recruits are significantly more likely to have a reported musculo-skeletal injury than an unreported musculo-skeletal injury (Almeida et al., 1999). However, since women began competing in organized sports in large numbers. There was concern that women would have significantly higher injury rates than men. For the most part, these fears were unfounded. Sport injury rates between men and women are similar and, in general, seem to be sport-specific rather than gender specific (Harmon, 2009; Prodromos, 2007; Decker, 2003; Sallias, 2001). National Collegiate Athletic Association Injury Surveillance System data from 1989-1993, 1989-1997, 1989-2002, and 1989-2004, respectively show that sport injury rates between men and women are similar and, in general, its sport-specific rather than gender-specific. (Decker, 2003) suggested that at the competitive organized sports there was also no gender disparity. The risk of injury is one of the few adverse effects of a physical active lifestyle (Brenner, 2015). These injuries apparently may be avoided or lessened in severity by a combination of several methods. Good conditioning and technic, efficient warm-up, enough rest between workouts, and physical and medical checkup

before participation in physical activity all my contributed to decrease incident of sport injuries (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2015; Doral, 2015; Hergenroder, 2001).

5. Conclusions

In the present study, we investigated the common sports injuries among physical activities practitioners at the physical fitness centers in Jordan. The most common sports injuries was muscular tears, muscle strain and tears ligament.

Participant should pay more attention to conditioning and technic during physical activity. Our finding supports the recommendation that the need for physical and medical checkup before participation in physical activity at the physical fitness centers. Future research should focus on prevention strategies in sports with high participation and injury rates to maximize population health impact.

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Daily Deference Rituals and Social Hierarchy in Vietnam

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Abstract

Since *Doi Moi* (i.e. *the Renovation*) in 1986, Vietnam has substantially transformed its society from one of the poorest countries into a middle-income country. The socio-economic reforms have led academics to the focus on studying macro problems such as economic reform, weak government, civil society or social inequality. In the mean time, the investigation of micro aspects presented in everyday life has been often neglected. The presentation of everyday life, however, is essential to understand social structure in general. This paper employs the concept of “deference rituals” developed by Erving Goffman to investigate the ways Vietnamese people address others, give them exclamations, and perform salutation rituals in their day-to-day life. By doing so, the paper aims to answer the question that why it is functional for society that those deference rituals are carried out; and what their performance does accomplish for maintenance of social interaction order. The paper finds out that although these small rituals are usually considered as mundane forms, their displays serve to help Vietnamese participants show their respect to and readiness to comply with the wishes of the seniors, ensuring the stability of a hierarchical order.

Keywords: daily interaction, deference rituals, social hierarchy, Vietnam, address, polite exclamation, salutation, age

1. Introduction

A Vietnamese elderly woman encounters a boy who is at her granddaughter’s age. She feels strongly that the child should greet her immediately when seeing her. His greeting must be in a very formal form of language like “Cháu chào bà ạ!” in which “cháu” is a personal pronoun that indicates the status of a grandchild, and “bà” refers to a title of person who is at the position of a grandmother. Responding to this greeting, the woman solely nods her head and asks the child like “Cháu đi đâu đây? (Where are you going?) (excerpt from Interview number 6).

What does that example tell us about Vietnamese social structure? The exchange of the two suggests that they are on different social statuses which give them dissimilar powers to enact their social relationship. While the woman, appearing to be a person of high rank, behaves in a patronizing manner, the child must pay a high regard to his elder. The exchange seems to imply the principles lying behind the surface of daily greetings and addresses. Therefore, investigating day-to-day routines would provide a base for understanding society at macro level.

However, it seems that the micro life has not been paid a due attention in Vietnamese scholarship. This situation can be explained by big socio-economic problems that Vietnam has experienced since the country’s reunification in 1975. After 11 years of crisis (1975-1986) stemming from the failure of its centrally planned economy, Vietnam started to adopt *Doi Moi* (i.e. *the Renovation*) in 1986. Since then, the country has witnessed rapid growth and impressive achievements in virtually every socio-economic area. By 2011, from one of the poorest countries in the world, Vietnam reached the status of a lower-middle income country. Despite of these successes, social problems such as corruption, weak governance, rising territorial disputes with China, and social inequality and disorder remain big challenges. The context of Doi Moi era has motivated most academics and policy researchers to put more emphasis on macro topics, among which are economic reforms and poverty reduction (Anh, 1994; Đặng & Beresford, 1998; Fforde & De Vylder, 1996; Fritzen, 2002; Kerkvliet & Porter, 1995; Ohno, 2009; Scott, 1977; Witter, 1996); politics and policy transformation (Abuza, 2001; Beresford, 1988; Kerkvliet, 2005); and politics and civil society (Abuza, 2001; Dalton & Ong, 2005; Gray, 1999; Thayer, 1992, 2009), to

name a few. This mainstreaming tendency explains why little examination of micro aspect of Vietnamese society has been carried out. In this neglect of academics, the efforts of anthropologists and sociolinguistics in exploring Vietnamese daily practices should be appreciated. Luong's discourse analysis, for example, provides many insights into the relation of linguistic practices (e.g. the use of person-referring forms such as personal pronouns and "status" terms) to ideology and power structure (1981, 1984, 1988, 1990). From sociolinguistic perspective, other studies reveal rules and patterns of Vietnamese politeness in the practices of linguistic forms including addressing others, making a request and the likes (Chew, 2011; Nguyen & Ho, 2014; Nguyen & Le Ho, 2013; 1997). Besides those studies on linguistic practices, other daily interaction patterns explored in recent years such as food-buying habits and exchanges (Jensen & Peppard, 2007; Thi Hong Nguyen, Wood, & Wrigley, 2013; Wertheim Heck, Vellema, & Spaargaren, 2014), the use of social capital in interpersonal transactions for example, gift-giving (Luong, 2007) also help to draw academic attentions to "everyday life" as a significant area of knowledge in its own right. In this line, the current paper, deriving from the sociological perspective, aims to clarify the connection between Vietnamese micro life and macro structure. To do so, it utilizes Erving Goffman's theory of social interaction, especially the concept of "deference ritual" established in 1950s.

This theory, developed in different works throughout his academic life (Goffman, 1955, 1956a, 1956b, 1957, 1959, 1963, 1967, 1969, 1974, 1975, 1981, 1983), has provided numerous theoretical models for analyzing social interaction such as the dramaturgy analysis (Goffman, 1959), the "frame analysis" (1974), and the "ritual" perspective (1955, 1956b, 1967). The last model offers us an approach to see how a social interaction, on the one hand, depicts the rules of macro structures, on the other, contributes to the maintenance of those structures. This theoretical approach is based upon an assumption that society in general needs powerful mechanisms to be united as a whole. One of the mechanisms Goffman proposes is the practice of giving deference among interactional participants. To be precise, it can be understood that every individual comes into a social encounter with an expectation and a responsibility associated with such social deference. First of all, the individual hopes to be the sort of person who is desirable and respected in observers' eyes. However, this social respect cannot be gained by the individual her/himself, as Goffman expressed this brilliantly: "The individual may desire, earn, and deserve deference, but by and large, he [sic] is not allowed to give it to himself [sic], being forced to seek it from others" (Goffman, 1956b, p. 478). But how does the individual obtain such a respect from others? One of essential ways is to oblige to pay her/his respects to others through her/his behaviors towards them. In doing so, the individual designs her/his action into "deference rituals" to which Goffman defines as a component of ceremonial activity "which functions as a symbolic means by which appreciation is regularly conveyed to a recipient" (Goffman, 1956b, p. 477). So to speak, the deference one gives to others is coded into ritualized behaviors and decoded by the recipients based on the shared meanings of those behaviors constructed by different groups in society. These exchanges of deference are significant because they not merely satisfy every social actor's expectation of being respected but also require them to connect closely with others, and therefore, this mechanism leads to social solidarity and cohesion. Otherwise, society could suffer from the disintegration and social disorder.

To better describe social structure, Goffman (1956b, p. 476) also develops two rules controlling deference rituals: 'symmetrical' and 'asymmetrical' rules. The first rule expects an equivalent exchange of respect rituals between two parties in their social encounter. For example, A greets B and also expects B to greet A back. In this rule, both A and B share the same social expectation for a person's behaviors in a certain social interaction. In other words, society expects A and B to pay their respect to the other. This shared expectation is the key making A greet B with the belief that B will do the same to her/him. Based on such expectation, every individual is equal in their exchanges of rituals. The asymmetrical rule, on the contrary, presumes no reciprocity in the exchange of respect rituals between those two parties. For instance, A says thank you to B when B does A a favor but B will not do so in the same circumstance. This reveals the inequality of the social structure in which B holds a higher position than A does.

Goffman's the theory of social interaction addresses the significance of performing deference rituals in everyday life for the maintenance of society as a whole. Based on this approach, this paper will attempt to demonstrate how deference rituals present in Vietnamese urban context. It will answer these questions: why it is functional for society that deference rituals are carried out; and what their performance does accomplish for maintenance of social interaction order. Although deference rituals are expressed in numerous interactional forms, in the limited space of this paper, I select and examine solely its three social patterns: address, polite language and salutation. I start analyzing the way Vietnamese participants address other people with a variety of honorific titles; then move to discuss the role of polite language in the maintenance of interactional order in social interaction; and finally, analyze how age distinction, polite exclamation and address are employed in salutation. Due to the limitation of

the dataset, the paper will focus more on verbal rituals rather than non-verbal ones.

2. Method

This qualitative study draws on data of 20 in-depth interviews and 65 observational notes conducted in Hanoi city by Nguyen (2014) and the findings discussed in Nguyen (2015). Hanoi, the second most populous city in Vietnam with around 6.844 million people in 2012 (Vietnam General Statistics Office, 2012, p. 61), was chosen to conduct this research. At the same time, urban population of Hanoi city was around 2,931 thousand people, accounting for 42.8% of its total population. Hanoi has 12 urban districts, 1 town and 16 rural districts (Hanoi's People Committee, 2012); of which, the former type of districts were the sole field of data collection. This part of the city is metropolitan as it attracts annual flows of immigrants looking for jobs or study opportunities. The immigrants come from various regions of the country, in particular Midland, Northern Mountains, Red River Delta, and Northern Coastal Central regions, making the city culturally mixed and diverse. The interplay between the natives who have been living in the place for a long time (more than three generations living in the capital, usually referred to as *Hanoian*) and immigrants, most of them from rural areas, who have moved in for a shorter period of time (from less than three generations to short-term visiting, travelling, studying or business) has been recognized as one of this city's traits. This background differences between these city-dwellers gives rise to the complicated interaction rituals, promoting various nuances of deference rites.

The research participants include nine females and eleven males; seventeen Vietnamese participants and three non-Vietnamese; eight interviewees aged from 19 to 35, six aged from 37 to 50, and six persons aged from 60 to 92. At the time of interview, most of Vietnamese participants are doing manual or low-paid jobs such as taxi motorbike driver, used-materials seller, street barber, street restaurant seller, market seller, waiter, student, or retiree. In other words, this sample focused more upon deference rituals of the lower class living or working in Hanoi. The selection of this sample leads the findings of this paper to the informal side of Vietnamese urban life where the working class enacts their interactional rituals, instead of the more formal side held by the middle class who have been more affected by Western cultural trends.

Three non-Vietnamese people including two male Australians and one male Chinese-American who have experience in interacting with Vietnamese daily life were included into the data. These participants have Vietnamese wife or usually interact with Vietnamese people in their day-to-day situations. Their experience especially with greeting, addressing and age rituals serves to provide objective insights on Vietnamese deference rituals from outsiders' perspective.

The small sample is the limitation of this paper. Therefore, the author aims just to provide some initial insights into Vietnamese micro life, of which more thorough future investigations are needed.

3. Address

In almost all societies, address is the way an individual gives an interlocutor an appropriate "title". However, the title's appropriateness is subjective to personal choices which, in turn, are ruled by each society's principles. In other words, each certain society creates a set of principles that make sense of each personal choice with regard to addressing others. In other words, this is what Thomas calls "definition of the situation" (1972), enabling both individuals to gain the same understanding of their statuses and how they should behave towards each other.

In this section, I will present how Vietnamese people structure and ritualize address terms to enact their structural relationships.

3.1 Hierarchical Address

It is a good way to start viewing Vietnamese society from outside perspectives. Here I examine experience by three non-Vietnamese participants who have deeply involved in Vietnamese communication through their job, personal life and travelling. The first impression seems that Vietnamese society is enacting on a highly structured order. This is captured by Dan, 37, a program manager, an Australian who has been in contact with Hanoi's culture since 2003. His daily experience makes him quickly realize that Vietnamese people often judge their interlocutors on social structure's signal. Dan expresses this in the following lines:

Like I have said, Vietnam has been one of a *few structured societies*... So there is a very *complicated* social structure of Vietnamese. They *very quickly find out where you are* in the structure depending on where are you from, your family, your job, where you studied. These things are the utmost importance when you start to deal with someone, to know *how I should talk to you*. (Interview number 18, italics added by the author)

As Dan points out, Vietnamese strategies to approach a social encounter is based on social structure or status distinction. They place present persons into a system of statuses deriving from their hometown, job, family, or

education achievement. These statuses serve to create an imagination of structured society in which the speaker and the interlocutor are tied to two distinctive positions and they are somewhat connected through a structural relationship. The identification of the interlocutor's status in comparison to the speaker's own status turns out to be a communicative device, helping shape the speaker's way of showing deference to the person to whom s/he is paid attention. In this start of the conversation, address terms will be used to show the speaker's sense of aforementioned structural relationship and deference rituals applied to that relationship.

It seems that obtaining the imagination of structured society is substantially more significant than linguistic competence in participating well into Vietnamese social encounter. This viewpoint is discovered in the story of Bill, an Australian, who has been in contact with Vietnamese culture since 2001 which resulted in his marriage with a Vietnamese woman at the end of 2008. This participant considers himself a good Vietnamese speaker because he could communicate fluently with Vietnamese people in general and his wife in particular. Despite of this confidence, Bill expresses that he used to get trapped when joining a group of local people. He recalls this experience:

Cultural difference [between] Vietnam [and Australia] reflects in their languages. In English, you [just] have 'you and me', in Vietnamese, you have 'anh, chị, bà ngoại, bà nội, ông, chú [brother, sister, maternal grandmother, paternal grandmother, grandfather, uncle] etc. So respect for the elders is so important, so the language has the vows to support that. I find it difficult in a situation where I am in the group of people, elder and elder, younger and younger. So I am in place that I would be referred myself to 'anh, cháu, bác, con' [brother, grandchildren, uncle, son] [in conversation with different people]. (Interview number 17)

The problem Bill faced is that rather than using just "You" and "I" in conversation, Vietnamese people use many address terms for different types of relationship. The situation will get worse for a Vietnamese non-native speaker like Bill when joining none one-on-one conversation but a group of three or more participants. In this case, address terms used are varied. These address terms do not solely function linguistically, but also socially in the sense that they carry the structural meaning ascribed to the speaker's and the interlocutor's statuses. Therefore, I regard them as "social titles" that help facilitate social interaction. They reveal that the engagement in Vietnamese communication requires not solely language competence but also in-depth cross-cultural understanding. Nonetheless, knowing those terms does not ensure one to appropriately address others in a Vietnamese interaction. Let us analyze the situation where Bill joins a group of people at his wife's home, featuring many people at different levels of hierarchy.

Table 1. Illustration of various terms addressed in Bill's case

Relationship with Bill	Bill addresses this person as...	Bill addresses himself as...
Wife	"Em" (Wife on the level of younger sister)	"Anh" (Husband on the level of elder brother)
Wife's male friend at Bill's age	"Anh" (Mr.)	"Tôi" (I)
Younger uncle-in-law	"Chú" (younger uncle)	"Cháu" (Grandson-in-law)
Younger aunt-in-law	"Di/cô" (younger aunt)	"Cháu" (Grandson-in-law)
Father-in-law	"Cha/bố" (Father-in-law)	"Con" (Son in-law)
Father-in-law's friend	"Chú" (younger uncle, who is younger than Bill's father) or "Bác (elder uncle, who is older than Bill's father)	"Cháu" (Grandchild)
Elder sister-in-law	"Chị" (Elder sister-in-law)	"Em" (Younger brother-in-law)
Sister-in-law's friend	"Em" (Younger sister, who is younger than Bill)	"Anh" (Elder brother)
Grandfather-in-law's male friend	"Ông" (Grandfather or Mister)	"Cháu" (Grandson)

Source: Interview number 17

In the situation above, Bill, instead of using just two terms "You" and "I" to address himself and every person he meets, must employ a specific pair of titles for each certain relationship. Table 1 shows that, except the pair of titles "Anh" and "Tôi" (which are equivalent to the pair "You" and "I" in terms of equality between two parties' statuses), other pairs refer to a hierarchical order. For example, the pairs "Con-Bố" (son-grandfather), "Cháu-Chú" (grandchild-uncle), "Anh-Em" (older brother-younger sister) all carry the sense of status distinction

between the two parties, in which “bó”, “chú”, and “anh” are the higher rank. One conclusion can be drawn from this situation is that, Vietnamese people utilize many kinship terms in addressing others in everyday life encounters. The use of kinship terms to form hierarchical social titles will not matter if the higher rank does not hold their advantage in performing the address rituals. Indeed, transferring kinship titles to social titles appears to have considerable impact on the way people address each other. Let us analyze this in details.

3.2 From Kinship Terms to Social Titles

A detailed examination by Luong (1990, p. 58) shows that the dimension of equality/inequality is a clear distinction between hierarchical intra-family relations and *họ* (relative) and egalitarian friendship relations. The system of kinship terms [such as *anh* (elder brother), *chị* (elder sister)] help create ‘hierarchical relations within the *họ* [relative]’, as Luong argues. In our research, we take this point further to say that the kinship terms with not solely their forms and sounds, but their hierarchical dimensions and powers, are transferred into social relationships.

In family context, to identify whose status is higher, one must base on family hierarchy. This structure embeds the power in certain family positions, so that family titles tied to each specific position are not equal. The inequality of those titles results in the distinction between the superior and the inferior, in which the lower rank has to give more regard to the higher rank but not vice versa. It is interesting to notice that in the domestic context, personal pronouns reflecting equal statuses are rarely used. Even between siblings, it seems that the elder brother (called ‘anh’) or the elder sister (called ‘chị’) has more power than the younger sibling (called ‘em’). The power is represented in the way that the person of higher position could address the junior by less polite title. This is the case in An’s family:

...in family, I am able to rely on my higher position [compared to my younger brother’s in my family] so that I can call [my younger brother] ‘thằng’ [as a lad] you mustn’t do this or do that. (Interview number 1)

An’s story shows that the higher position in family hierarchy a person holds, the more power in addressing s/he can gain. In the example, she can address her younger brother as ‘lad’ – an informal personal pronoun that is often considered as rude when speaking with the other. This, however is accepted by the brother so that An even can command her brother to do her favor.

The transition of the personal pronouns based on family hierarchy into social interaction is not just the use of personal pronouns. It also carries the structural power each couple of personal pronouns contain. The story of Phuong, 24, a female nurse (Interview number 11) will help illustrate how family titles are used in a working environment. At the clinic she is working, Phuong addresses herself as ‘con’ (means child/daughter) and calls seniors who are as old as her father “cha” (means my father/dad). In response, those elder persons would address her as ‘con’ (means my child/daughter) and call themselves “bó/cha” (means your father/dad). In fact, the personal pronouns ‘con’ and ‘bó’ (child and dad) in social contexts are similar to those in family context in terms of word forms and sounds but their meanings are a little bit different. The difference is that calling oneself ‘con’ (child) and addressing the other as ‘bó’ (dad) in a social interaction do not mean the real child–father relationship, but rather they help shape the social relationship in a family hierarchy. Hence, from the relationship between two social individuals, the female participant in this case transforms her relationship into a “quasi-family relationship” with her being a “social” child, whilst the elder ones jump to be a ‘social’ father. In this case, it is common to expect the ‘social’ child to pay respect to the ‘social’ father in the way s/he does to her/his biological father. Put it another way, by addressing the other in the same way as addressing family members, one creates an image of society as an “extended family” where the social higher rank is rewarded somewhat the same power as the family senior. In addition, as Phuong reports, that way of address serves to facilitate her relationships with people at work, assisting deeper understanding and sympathy between colleagues.

Not just the child-parent relationship being employed, other family status connections are effectively used in social address. For instance, Giang, 45, a shop keeper, has this experience of transferring her respect for her parents to that for the elderly people coming to her shop. Her dialogue is shown below:

Question: How do you address a person?

Answer: For example, if he is very young, I call him as *my grandchild* (cháu), or *my elder brother* (anh) or *my younger uncle* (chú) [if he is elder].

...

Question: To you, how different is it between giving respect to people of different ages?

Answer: Usually with the elder I exchange goods with them, I must respect them. They are old so that I

have to respect them... Because the elder is *just like our father and our mother* at home. (Interview number 12, italics added by the author)

In her case, the address manner she practices with the elder persons is to borrow not just the verbal or linguistic forms from family context, but also the respect she usually gives to her parents. This interviewee's perception gives us another evidence to remark that the image of society as an 'extended' family, at least in terms of communication, is quite common among research participants.

3.3 Age-based Address

In addition to the impact of kinship structure in social address, it can be also recognized that age distinction is essential to the address ritual. The age-based rule dictates the respect rituals in not only family context, but also social one. In social context, age ritual is one of the first ones to be performed at the beginning of a social encounter. One participant assures that "[r]espect... at first... must be... age distinction, or to *identify age's difference* [between two speakers]... It means you have to..., for example, [to the elder] call them by 'uncle', 'grandfather' or 'father' or so on.' (Male, 67 years old, Interview number 14). To find out the other's age is fundamentally important because it sets the schema for both parties' ways of addressing each other. We will grasp this sense when consulting the experience of initiating an encounter with a stranger of Anh, 45, a male hairdresser living in Dong Da district of Hanoi city:

Generally, if we haven't met each other before, I would *ask that person's [his/her] age* so I could easily address [him/her] during conversation, *to know whether I am younger or elder*, as a common means of Vietnamese communication, so we *can easily address each other*. If they are elder than me, so I would call them my elder brother (anh) or my elder sister (chị). If they are younger than me, so they must accept being my younger sibling (em). (Interview number 3, italics added by the author).

'[T]o know whether I am younger or elder' is the rule of thumb for instigating any social interaction. This rule helps not solely know age's difference but also to situate the conversation within Vietnamese social structure. In other words, it assures that interactional participants are able to automatically associate herself or himself to a specific status relationship on the hierarchical ladder. Furthermore, the information on age distinction is one of the most important sources that enable one to perform successfully the ritual of addressing the other.

4. Polite Languages and Discussion

In addition to the use of personal pronouns in address, Vietnamese people also use a wide range of exclamations and particles in their conversation, which I shall regard them as 'polite languages' (kính ngữ). Those polite languages, however, are used differently by the inferiors and the superiors. This typical distinction is often referred by my research participants to two common proverbs. The first is 'Gọi dạ, bảo vâng' that means the inferiors must say "dạ" (yes) when being called or summoned and must say "vâng" (yes) when being told something (Hoa & Van Giuong, 2006, p. 63). Another instance is 'Một dạ, hai vâng' which means no matter how many times superiors tells or asks you to do something, you have to say affirmatively 'yes'. Both proverbs confirm that one must show one's elders respect and ready to comply with the wishes of one's elders. In other words, disagreement is not often morally acceptable when one inferior converses with superiors.

It seems that my research participants have still followed the rules based on those proverbs. Let us have a look at the following example told by An, a female interviewee at her middle age, who was a restaurant owner by the time of interview.

To the elder, of course, our words with them must contain the words like 'Yes' (Vâng) or 'Yes ah' (Vâng ạ) but not 'Uhm' (ừ). When young people like those children here call me I am able to reply with 'Uhm' (ừ). Whenever they say anything to me I can respond with just 'Uhm' (ừ). But when the elderly persons ask me to do them a favor, I must say '*Yes, please wait me for a while*', for example... Whenever talking with elder people we must say 'Yes' (Vâng/dạ) and being courteous (lễ phép), but when talking with younger people we can say 'Uhm' (ừ), and speak impolitely (không lịch sự) such as [addressing] 'mày (means 'You' but contains impolite meanings) have to do this, 'mày' have to do that'. (Interview number 1, italics added by the author).

An's story differentiates two ways of enacting polite languages between the superiors and the inferiors. While the inferiors must pay more respect to the superiors by saying "Vâng", "Dạ" in a courteous voice and manner, the seniors can just use "Uh" or "Uhm" to response. Table 2 summarizes their opinions on the differences between the low-rank's and the high-rank's use of exclamations.

Table 2. Comparison of the use of polite languages between seniors and juniors

Grammatical functions	Inferiors' usage	Superiors' usage
Affirmative exclamation	'Vâng' 'Dạ', 'Vâng ạ' or 'Có ạ': means 'yes'	'Ừ' (Uh), 'ừm' (Uhm), or 'Được' (OK): means 'yes'
Negative exclamation	'Dạ, không', or 'Không ạ': means 'no', used to show disagreement in response to superiors	'Không': means 'no', used to show disagreement in response to inferiors

As seen in Table 2, the higher rank and the lower rank have different ways of using polite languages. The first employs "Ừ" (Uh), "ừm" (Uhm), or "Được" (OK) to express their affirmative response, while using "Không" (No) in negative ones. These exclamations, rather aiming to show the respect to the inferiors, demonstrate the power of higher statuses. This makes the way of communication that the superiors conduct seem more patronizing, often leading to "negative" responses, instead of "affirmative" ones. On the contrary, the lower rank must say 'vâng' and 'dạ' (yes) when they want to reply affirmatively to the higher rank in a conversation. These words make the way of responses seem to be more dependent and powerless in front of the higher rank's opinion. Noticeably, 'ạ' is an additional exclamation that often comes after either affirmative or negative interjections when inferiors answer to superiors. It is worth noting that 'ạ' is pronounced like 'r' in English plus the drop tone, making the accent of the sounds go downward. This conveys a sign of dependence that inferiors have when dealing with superiors. Along with "ạ", "dạ" (yes) is also used even when the inferiors want to express their disagreement. This of course limits the extent of disagreement that the inferiors have when conversing with the superiors. In sum, two manners of utilizing polite languages to facilitate the opinion distinguish the position and power of the seniors from the inferiors. It, on the one hand, serves to build the advantage of maintaining the seniors' own viewpoints, and, on the other hand, decreases the chances of the juniors to protect their own.

5. Salutation Rituals

From the use of personal pronouns as honorific titles to the use of polite languages, Vietnamese people frames the etiquette into a hierarchical order. This order will be more clarified by examining greeting rituals - a type of rituals that is essential to Vietnamese everyday life.

A Vietnamese interaction often instigates by making salutation. This interactional ritual serves to convey the individual's acknowledgement of and appreciation to others present in certain day-to-day encounters. Therefore, Vietnamese people always put their emphasis on salutation. One proverb mentioned by my Vietnamese participants in order to stress the role of salutation is: '*Lời chào cao hơn mâm cỗ*' (greetings are considerably more important than meals'. To understand this expression, we must put meals into perspective of Vietnamese traditional life where poverty and starvation virtually happened to Vietnamese people, most of them are poor farmers who lived at or close to the bottom of social hierarchy. Meals hence are strongly associated with the chance of survival. Thus, putting greetings – a kind of social ritual, over foods reveals Vietnamese people's high regard of rituals (lễ nghi).

The significance of salutation appears to keep remained in contemporary Vietnam, at least it is supported by research participants in my data. For example, Phong, 31, explains plainly that each greeting is not just the words, but contains the 'respect of Vietnamese people [given to other people], i.e., their affection and consideration [that] are more valuable than foods and materials [money]' in daily life (Interview number 13). Another elderly participant also asserts this point: '...when people meet each other, they respect each other, so that greeting is not only a social communication, but shows affection [for each other]' (Ech, 92 years old, Interview number 10). In other words, a greeting is more than just a social action. It is constituted by social values of regarding and appreciating other members of groups or society. The respect, affection, love, and consideration contained in greeting exchanges provide Vietnamese individuals with an irreplaceable element to start an everyday encounter. Without this starting ritual pattern, every social encounter would fail from the beginning. Practicing greetings in Vietnamese context ensure that the speaker and the interlocutor enter their social conversation with the acknowledgement of the other's presence and face. In other words, to greet someone is to give them a respectful 'gift' – to borrow a term by Manning (1989, p. 376), that can help to facilitate social interaction.

5.1 Greeting First That Matters

Despite being common among everyday social encounters, greeting is hierarchically constructed. The practice of greeting is not the same between two persons who hold different statuses on the hierarchical scale of social

structure. These two persons' greetings are being attached to distinctive rules and hence, patterns. While making salutation is viewed as the compulsory responsibility of juniors, it is solely an optional task for seniors. Hoa (Interview number 15), a person who has experience of contacting Western culture in her studying and working environments, recognizes the inequality between seniors and juniors in the exchange of greetings. While salutation should be an equal practice among people joining a certain interaction in Western societies, she quickly learns that this knowledge cannot be straightforwardly applied to Vietnamese context. Re-contacting Vietnamese after studying in Europe, she acknowledges that Vietnamese manner of making salutation should stick to the status comparison between the speaker and the recipient. This female interviewee expresses her point of view as below:

Yeah, I must [greet the elder] because I'm living within Vietnamese culture so we have to behave following the rules of ritual [cái phép]... [And] because I know that I am younger than them so I have to greet them *first*. (Interview number 15)

Hoa's expression discloses an insight of salutation's rule, that is, who does the greeting first matters. Greeting first or second between the two, the superior rank and the inferior rank, becomes vital because it signifies the statuses the two persons involved in the conversation are holding. Who salutes first should be the one staying at a lower status. For instance, Bich, 35, a female bank accountant, considers that this pattern of active greeting must be the younger's responsibility. For the elder people's part, they respond to their younger fellows solely if the younger already did salute him or her: 'a master [or teacher] greets back when a student already greeted him[/her]' (Interview number 2). This viewpoint is also confirmed by the elderly participants, for instance, Manh, 70, a retired Vietnamese soldier who was working as a three-wheel motorbike transporter when being interviewed:

For example, for Vietnamese people the younger *must* greet the elder [first]... Well, if the younger lets the elder say hi [before s/he does], s/he *will be* judged as discourteous/impolite (vô lễ). Courtesy is, for example, if I'm on the same rank as someone's uncle or parents (bác cha chú), so I *should never* greet that person first, I *must* let that person say hello to me first (Interview number 20).

Let us consider Manh's usage of words in the dialogue above. While he uses "must" and "should" suggests that both the younger and the elder must compulsorily follow the rule of salutation because of not merely a communicative function, but moral one. Furthermore, his words such as "will be", "never" also indicate the extent of certainty on what he thinks should be done in greeting exchanges between two different statuses. For one thing, young persons could be criticized as "discourteous" (vô lễ) for not making initial greeting to their elderly fellows. For another thing, elder people must also understand this unwritten rule of etiquette in order to give her/his younger fellows the opportunity to be courteous by actively saying hello to her/him at the beginning of the meeting. This evidence underlines the hierarchical aspect of Vietnamese greeting. A greeting involves a social value of highly regarding the elderly people who are placed as seniors in the ladder of Vietnamese social structure.

5.2 Formal Greeting Is the Subordinate's Responsibility

Not solely the order of who does the greeting, but also the manners of greeting are of highly significant. When a junior greets a senior one, his/her greeting must contain both verbal and non-verbal acts. The frequency of using non-verbal salutation, however, is different between urban dwellers and rural ones. For instance, Ech, a former government official who used to travel between urban and rural areas says that rural inhabitants do not acquaint themselves with the urban manner of shaking hands. "As manner of politeness, they [rural people]", Ech addresses, "could shake back when you give them a hand-shake, but they are not used to this gesture. They would feel embarrassed when shaking hands with a stranger" (Interview number 10). Regarding urban context, common non-verbal greeting gestures are shaking hands (e.g. Interview number 4, 10), giving a smile (Interview number 4, 5), making eye contact (Interview number 5, 8), nodding head, or weaving hands (Interview number 2, 5, 6). For example, Em, 19, a student (Interview number 8) emphasizes that in salutation, she often uses eye contact to signal elderly persons that she is interested in and ready to join them in a new conversation, and which shows her respect to them. The extent (tight or loose) to which one holds the other's hand in hand-shake also implies the respect Vietnamese people put into this greeting gesture.

Despite their importance in greeting, non-verbal gestures often are not mainly responsible for clarifying status differences. Verbal greeting gestures do. This form suggests that the juniors must do salutation in somewhat "formal" (trịnh trọng), while the superiors in "informal" (bình dân). For example, a fully formal formula of a greeting a junior practices before a senior must contain the following parts:

Table 3. Formal formula of verbal greeting by juniors

In Vietnamese	Cháu	Chào	Ông	ạ!
In English	I (your grandchild)	Hi/hello	Grandfather	Ah with downward accent
Grammatical formula	The subject	Verb	The object	Polite exclamation

The aforementioned formula denotes that a complete sentence of Vietnamese speaking usually consists of a subject of the sentence (referring to the speaker who is actively doing the greeting and represented by the first-person personal pronoun), the verb of greetings (referring to the greeting that subject is performing), the object (referring to the interlocutor being greeted, represented by the second-person personal pronoun), and lastly the polite exclamation. Notice that the first-person personal pronoun indicates inferiors' position while the second-person personal pronoun represents superiors' position. In the example above, the unequal relation is depicted by the position of 'cháu' (means grandchild) and that of 'ông' (means grandfather). Failing to address these personal pronouns, a greeting of inferiors can be regarded as impolite.

For the part of elders or superiors, greeting in a full or formal sentence to a younger person is considered as a ritual failure. Gioi (Interview number 14) affirms this point strongly:

...if I come in another's house and see a kid, I don't have to say the words like 'I hello you my grandchild ah' (Bác chào cháu ạ)... Greeting like that...is just *ridiculous*. I'm older than that him (nó), why do I have to say hi like that?

The sense of being absurd that Gioi experiences tell us how greeting is hierarchically constructed. For Vietnamese elder people like Gioi, being too formal when greeting a child is to disobey social etiquette. The failure of obeying this social rule would lead the elderly people to a great embarrassment and the younger people to impoliteness.

Instead of greeting in that complete form, the elder persons tend to greet by other means. For instance, Chung, 60, a female used-material collector and seller (Interview number 6), asks the younger questions rather than greeting them: 'To the younger, no one [the elder] greets. For instance, I may be asking like, 'Are you selling anything today?'. That's it.' Asking that question helps put the elder in command instead of a passive position when doing the formal greeting. Chung even differentiates the 'courteous greeting' from the 'encouraging greeting', in which the former is used by the juniors to deal with the elder while the latter is used typically by the seniors to deal with the younger: '*Encouraging greeting* is [used by us] for the younger. Greeting the younger is [just] to encourage them, while *courteous greeting* is [by the younger to show respect] to the elder... [Encouraging greeting is] to greet the child and to make him [her] happy.' It is noteworthy that showing respect is not the primary purpose of encouraging greeting. Rather, this type of greeting enables the elders to reduce the formality and the absurdness while still ensuring the smooth flow of the conversation. The type of encouraging greeting that Chung practices is shared by other elderly participants such as Binh (Interview number 4) and Gioi (Interview number 14). Gioi, for instance, expresses this type of greeting in some models of questions like: 'Have you had your meal?' or 'Haven't you gone to school?' (Interview number 14).

6. Discussion

Let us refer back to the two rules Erving Goffman proposes when building theoretical framework for analyzing deference rituals: the symmetrical rule and asymmetrical one. While the first serves to bring equality to social encounters, the latter aims to classify interactional parties into a hierarchical ladder. Based on my data, it is apparent that the practices of respect rituals in Vietnamese context is more biased in favor of asymmetrical rules. The presentation of address, exclamation and salutation rituals shows the dominance of respect for the person of high rank and the dependence of the person of low position. The high rank possibly gains more respect and gives less to the junior. The asymmetrical aspect of social interaction in everyday life is confirmed by a few studies such as Luong (1981, 1988, 1990), Vu (1997), McCann and colleagues (2004), Chew (2011). In his thorough examination of Vietnamese system of person reference in family and *họ* (relative), for instance, Luong states that "the junior's behavior", are "highly ritualized" (Hy Van Luong, 1990, p. 59). This intensive ritualization of the junior's social action is to stress the obligations of the juniors towards the senior, and therefore, maintain the hierarchical order between the two. The conclusions on the hierarchical relations are also found in Luong's sociolinguistic analysis of the use of address terms, honorifics (e.g. *vâng, dạ, thưa*, what we regard as polite languages in this paper), *mời ăn* (respectfully offer food at the beginning of a meal) (Hy Van Luong, 1990, pp. 57-60). In another sociolinguistic study of politeness of Hanoian people, Vu provides other evidences of

hierarchical dimension in everyday life that the status difference between speaker and hearer results in “speaker-hearer power differences” in the practice of politeness such as doing *lễ phép* (courteous rituals) (see for example, Vu, 1997, pp. 233-234).

In Vietnamese society, the rewards of being elder are to be given more respect, and more power to dominate the exchange of respect rituals during conversation. The elder a Vietnamese person becomes, the more respect he/she would receive from other people, especially from younger persons. On the one hand, age-based rules lead to inequality in the exchanges of respect rituals between the elder person and the younger one; on the other hand, age-based rules are the fair treatment to everyone because everyone has a chance to getting old, therefore, getting more respect. Research findings on the respect towards elder people in social interaction are confirmed by other studies. For example, McCann and colleagues in a study of young adults’ communications with elder adults in northern Vietnam and southern Vietnam (McCann et al., 2004). This research shows that age is “a powerful intergroup marker” (p. 286). At the same time, the low-rank often feels his/her obligation to pay respect or even looking up to the high-rank. This research’s findings also affirm that elder adults tend to be more patronizing when interacting with younger adults. Elder adults are perceived by young adults as “more non-accommodative (e.g., more negative, more self-centered, less positive in their manner of communication)” (McCann et al., 2004, p. 286). It can be agreed that this tradition is related to the norm of filial piety that McCann and colleagues address in their work (McCann et al., 2004).

In Asian context, there have been a number of studies agreeing that the respect for the elder is heavily influenced by ideology of Confucian which supports filial piety (Chow, 2009; Hwang, 1999; Ikels, 2004; Sung, 1995, 2001, 2004). The hierarchical aspect of respect rituals has been found in other Asian societies. Remarkably, as many scholars pointed out, Chinese and Japanese politeness has been affected by the same Confucius traditions (Erbaugh, 2008; Leech, 2007; Mao, 1994). So has Vietnamese politeness been. In Vietnam, the terms ‘*lễ*’ (rites) and ‘*lễ phép*’ (courteous/courtesy rituals) both refer to the respect inferiors must give to superiors. These two terms represent what we shall call ‘social responsibility’ any inferior must hold when engaging in a social encounter with a superior. Indeed, ‘*lễ*’ in Vietnamese language is a Chinese-Vietnamese word, being borrowed from Chinese language through the long history of interaction between two countries (for the influence of Confucian ideology in family education, see Huou, 1991; for a review of the Confucian incursion in Vietnam, see Huy, 1998). The properties and functions of ‘*lễ*’ (*rite* in English) are similar to those of *li* in Chinese. They both come from Confucian’s philosophy (see Creel, 1949; Creel, 1954; Dao, 2010; Vu, 1997). In Confucius ideology, these terms would be regarded as ‘ceremonial’ and ‘the rules of propriety’ (see more about Confucius’s philosophy in Creel 1949, for example, pp. 82-83, 1954, pp. 43-46). It can be said that Confucius’s ideology was based on the classification of social classes in Chinese society (see Creel, 1949; Creel, 1954; Gu, 1990, pp. 238-239), leading to the apparent distinction between the superior and the subordinate. Additionally, being different from Europeans and Americans, courtesy and rites in Chinese do not only include politeness but also moral obligations (Creel, 1954, p. 32). In other words, the practice of showing respect towards other people, especially the higher rank, is both to follow social etiquette and to fulfill the duties of morality. This is not different from Vietnamese practice of respect rituals.

It seems that Chinese society, Japanese society and Vietnamese society share many similarities with regard to the relation between everyday rituals and social hierarchy. In a study of Chinese courtesy, for instance, Erbaugh addresses the asymmetrical status during conversation in Chinese society (2008, p. 621). Her study reports that traditional Chinese courtesy also possesses the ‘hierarchical and non-reciprocal’ qualities because it depends on various status indicators such as gender, age, marital status, children, income, and so on. These status indicators classify Chinese people into two categories: the superior and the subordinate. This fact leads to inequivalent interchanges of rituals between those two groups. For example, Chinese people would see ‘saying “thank you” to a daughter or an employee’ could mean ‘insulting’ (Erbaugh, 2008, p. 622), rather than purely expressing gratitude and paying respect. This finding is similar to the sense of being ridiculous when a female Vietnamese participant greets her younger friend in full sentences or a male participant greets a child first.

Evidences from Erbaugh’s study show another similarity between Chinese address and Vietnamese address in using title: ‘Chinese prefer to address people by title than by name or by a pronoun’ (2008, p.626). Compared to Vietnamese address, Chinese people often use occupational title to address others, for instance, ‘teacher’ (*laoshi*), use kinship titles, for instance, “elder brother” to address non-family member, or combine occupational title and kinship title, for example, “Auntie Nurse”, “Uncle Bus Driver” to address people in social situations (Erbaugh, 2008, p.626). My study indicates that along with title, ‘polite exclamation’ functions as a crucial means of expressing respect to the high-rank. In greeting, if Vietnamese people usually greet other persons by asking questions related to current context, Chinese people also greet a person by title and make ‘context-sensitive

comments' which focus on context in which the speaker and the addressees engaging in (Erbaugh, 2008, p. 627). Other researches on Japanese courtesy also confirm the likeness between this society and Chinese and Vietnamese societies. For instance, Japanese society is also structured on hierarchical statuses (Erbaugh, 2008; Fukada & Asato, 2004) which result from the influence of Confucius ideology. Many scholars have confirmed the hierarchical features of Japanese society, among which are Reischauer and Jansen, who considers this society as a 'vertical society' (Reischauer & Jansen, 1977). Other scholars readdress this point by underlining how significantly 'status difference' is present in Japanese society (Fukada & Asato, 2004). *Keigo* in Japanese, for example, means 'honorifics' or 'honorific language', reflecting the hierarchical qualities of the superior-subordinate relationships (Wetzel, 2004). Wetzel shows that social statuses such as age, gender, area of geographic origin, socioeconomic class and profession are utilized in expressing *keigo* (Wetzel, 2004, p. 6). Another study of Japanese honorifics by Ide (Ide, 1989, p. 227) also confirms that Japanese people are required to practice honorific form when referring to the higher rank, even when the higher-rank are not present in the current situation. This finding is not different from Vietnamese everyday interaction found in my data.

7. Conclusion

The findings of this paper show that mundane rituals in everyday social encounters explain the bigger picture of Vietnamese social structure. When two individuals encounter, they bring in their social interaction their statuses and social values attached. A social interaction is a social game in which individual try to match her/his status with her/his interlocutor's status by looking at status' signals. That is to say, an individual must identify herself/himself to be on a higher or lower position compared to that of the interlocutor. Staying at lower position means s/he must show veneration and at the same time, her/his willing to oblige the wishes of the seniors. Staying at higher position indicates that s/he has the power of receiving more veneration from the subordinate while being able to behave in a patronizing way. This rule helps control Vietnamese people in conversation with others in everyday life; which, in turn, serves to maintain the social hierarchy at macro level. Put it another way, if individuals dare to violate the rule, it would put them into a danger of not solely breaking their social relationship, but also damaging the hierarchical order, leading to social chaos or disorder. In sum, everyday life rituals seem to be insignificant, trivial, or small, but they indeed are performing the functions of demonstrating the power of the macro principles, as well as preserving the order created by those principles.

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A Cross-sectional Study of the Impact of Transformational Leadership on Integrative Conflict Management

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Abstract

This research is designed to study the impact of the components of transformational leadership style (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence) on a particular style of conflict management, i.e. integrative. Jordanian public ministries comprised the population of the research. A random sample consisting of 75 frontline managers from 15 ministries was used to collect research data via a valid and reliable questionnaire. The research leads to acceptance of the hypothesis that individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence are positively associated with the integrative style of conflict management. Intellectual stimulation is the dimension that has the greatest influence on the integrative style of conflict management, followed by idealized influence. Individualized consideration has the lowest influence on the integrative conflict management style. Thus, frontline managers should be informed about, trained and encouraged to adopt transformational leadership practices and to use their integrative qualities to enhance the management of organizational conflicts.

Keywords: leadership styles, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, conflict management styles, integrative conflict style

1. Introduction

Just as there are many types of leader, so there are many types of leadership style. Leadership has been identified with the capability to exploit seven variables: strategy, structure, system, style, staff, skills and shared goals (Taylor et al., 2006). The study of leadership has progressed from trait theory, through behavioural theory and several contingency theories, finally arriving at transactional and transformational theories. Kirkbride (2006) identified this path as a shift from non-leadership (laissez-faire leadership) to transformational styles. A non-leader is a manager who washes his or her hands of decisions, responsibilities, concern and leadership stance. In the absence of leadership, conflict is dominant.

One can derive from the literature many causes of conflict. Darling and Walker (2001) identified unsympathetic and inharmonious goals, opinions and actions as determinant motives of conflict. Schraub et al. (2014) further noted that conflict can be traced back to disagreements among individuals. They subdivided these disagreements into two types: disagreements about tasks (task conflict) and disagreements concerning relationships. Similarly, Fu et al. (2008) grouped conflicts into two classes: interpersonal conflicts and task conflicts. Although conflict can be attributed to both external and internal causes, it is phenogentic, i.e. it has a known or visible cause. In the presence of conflict, it is necessary to employ an effective method to identify such conflict simultaneously with an efficient means of resolution. Saeed et al. (2014) regarded these two conditions as pillars of conflict management. Rahim (2000) adopted a two-sided conflict perspective: on the one hand, conflict can be portrayed as a dysfunction, which must be minimized or terminated; on the other hand, conflict may be a healthy condition with various constructive consequences. According to Rahim (2000), conflict management takes the form of effective strategies dedicated to lessening dysfunction and enhancing positive processes and outcomes. Swierczek and Onishi (2003) considered management style to be one of the sources of conflict, particularly in diversified workplaces.

There are five styles of conflict management; accommodation, compromise, competition, collaboration and avoidance (Barker et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2007). According to Rahim (2002), compromise holds the intermediate position between the other conflict styles, depending on a mutual exchange of interests. This style

can be used when other styles, such as dominance and integration, cannot be used. Competition is related to the use of authority to force decisions, while collaboration or integration is concerned with information exchange, seeking alternatives and problem-solving behaviours. Avoidance refers to withdrawal or suppression behaviours. To accommodate a conflict is to sacrifice one's own interests for the sake of others.

Antonioni (1998) argued that conflict management styles can be classified in relation to two factors: cooperation (concern for others) and assertiveness (concern for self). In accommodation (obliging), concern for others (cooperation) is the dominant dimension as one renounces concern for oneself in favour of concern for others (lose-win relationship). The opposite of accommodation is competition, a style in which one pays more attention to one's own concerns (assertiveness) at the expense of concern for others (win-lose relationship). Avoidance is a style in which the concerns of neither side are addressed (lose-lose relationship). In contrast, in integration (a collaborative style) both sides' concerns are addressed concurrently (win-win relationship), resulting in a solution that is agreeable to both parties. Gross and Guerrero (2000) highlighted that of these styles, the most effective is integration. In the case of compromise, which holds the middle ground between the other styles, both sides accommodate each other's concerns, both parties ceding some of their needs to find an acceptable solution to the conflict (no-win-no-lose relationship).

As a leader is a person who influences others' behaviours, the relationship between leadership style and conflict has been examined by numerous prior works. The effect of leadership style is well-documented in the literature (Chapman et al., 2014). Hendel et al. (2005) indicated that the conflict management style selected is affected by the transformational leadership style. Alzawahreh and Khasawneh (2011) studied the conflict management strategies adopted by Jordanian managers and found that the conflict management style most likely to be used by managers is integrative. Nevertheless, few studies have been conducted to investigate the impact of transformational leadership on the integrative style of conflict management in Jordan. For this reason, the aim of this research is to explore the relationship between these two constructs from the managers' perspective.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: the next section presents the literature review and hypothesis development. Section three demonstrates the methodology of the research. Section four presents the results and section five discusses these results. Conclusions are presented prior to the final section, which addresses the limitations of the study and future research directions.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

The universality of the transformational leadership style (Avolio & Bass, 2004) is the main reason for studying this style. Transformational leadership is defined as a process by which leaders and subordinates elevate each other's morale and motivation levels (Rao, 2014). It comprises four dimensions; individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence (Kirkbride, 2006). Individualized consideration refers to listening to and supporting followers. Intellectual stimulation is a process by which followers can solve problems in novel ways. Inspirational motivation is the ability to increase followers' motivation levels. Idealized influence is the power that the leader has in being accepted as a role model (Mittal & Dhar, 2015).

On the relationship between leadership styles and conflict management styles, Fu et al. (2008) interviewed 52 individuals working for 16 high-tech firms in China to explore the predominant types of conflict that top managers dealt with in those firms and to identify the conflict management approaches used by managers to handle these types of issue. Their results pointed to task conflict as the most common type of problem found and collaboration as the strategy most commonly used by managers to handle organizational conflicts. Examining the leadership styles adopted by managers in different banks to address organizational conflicts, Khan et al. (2015) found a positive association between leadership style and conflict management strategies. Their results also indicated that the styles most used by managers were accommodation and collaboration. Yao et al. (2014) explored the relationship between leadership, work stress and employee behaviours. A secondary aim of their research was to investigate the moderating effects of transformational leadership in the relationship between work stress and employees' negative behaviour. The findings supported the hypothesis that transformational leadership has a significant diminishing effect on both work stress and employees' negative behaviour.

Saeed et al. (2014) examined the relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and conflict management styles. Using a sample of 150 middle managers from private industrial organizations, their results confirmed the hypothesis that the transformational leadership style is positively related to two styles of conflict management: integration and obligation. In contrast, the transactional leadership style is related to compromise. Finally, managers who adopt a laissez-faire leadership style use the avoidance style of conflict management.

Ayoko and Konrad (2012) studied the relationships between transformational leadership, conflict and emotion management in public service organizations in Australia. Their results showed the importance of the transformational leadership style in lessening the adverse influence of conflict on performance. Doucet et al. (2009) evaluated the impacts of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership on two types of workplace conflict, cognitive and relational, in Canada. Concerning the elements of transformational leadership, the results showed a positive impact of intellectual stimulation on cognitive conflicts and a negative impact of inspirational motivation on both cognitive and relational conflicts. Individualized consideration was found to have a negative impact on relational conflicts. In their survey of nurses working in public, private and teaching hospitals in Jordan, Al-Hamdan et al. (2014) found that the integrative style of conflict management was the most preferred style. The results also revealed that nurses working in public hospitals were less likely to adopt this style compared to nurses working for private and teaching hospitals. More recently, Turan et al. (2015) studied the relationship between conflict management strategies and leadership styles and found that managers who adopt a transformational leadership style are more likely to use the integrative strategy of conflict management. Based on prior studies, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H1. Idealized influence is related to the integrative style of conflict management.
- H2. Inspirational motivation is related to the integrative style of conflict management.
- H3. Intellectual stimulation is related to the integrative style of conflict management.
- H4. Individualized consideration is related to the integrative style of conflict management.

3. Methodology

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The sample for this study comprised frontline managers working in public ministries in Jordan. A total of 15 ministries were chosen based on time, effort and cost limitations. In all, 75 individuals were randomly selected for participation in data collection. The sample size was determined based on Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), who stated that the minimum number of subjects in research employing a regression analysis should be calculated on the basis of the following equation: $N=50+8(k)$, where k is the number of independent variables. Accordingly, $N=50+8(4)=75$. Questionnaires were administered to respondents by hand to ensure a high response rate. Of the questionnaires distributed, 73 were returned, all of which were valid for statistical analysis.

3.2 Measures

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, 5X-Short) developed by Avolio et al. (1999) was used to measure transformational leadership. The MLQ contains 16 items equally distributed across the dimensions of transformational leadership (IC, IS, IM and II). Responses are given on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The integrative conflict management style was measured using 12 items from the Organizational Conflict Management Scale developed by Anis-ul-Haque (2004). The scale consists of 37 items covering 5 dimensions of conflict management styles, i.e. avoidance (7 items), compromise (4 items), dominance (7 items), integration (12 items) and obligation (7 items). According to Chaudhry et al. (2008), the alpha value denoting the overall reliability of the scale is 0.90 and for the integrative style is 0.91.

3.3 Research Model

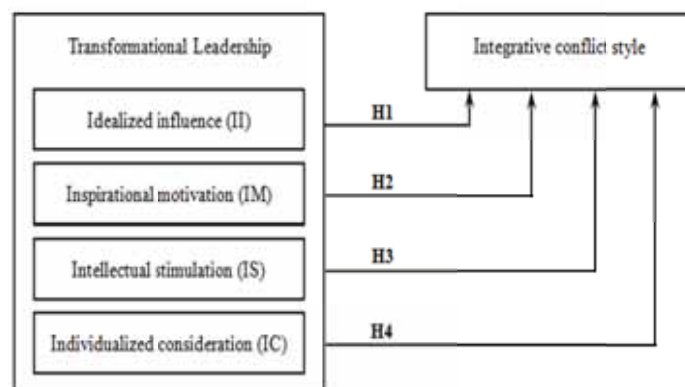


Figure 1. Research model

Figure 1 depicts the four hypothesized relationships between the transformational leadership style and the integrative style of conflict management. Hypotheses 1–4 assume the existence of positive relationships between idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS) and individualized consideration (IC) and the integrative style of conflict management (INTG).

4. Data Analysis and Results

Tests of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity were conducted prior to regression analysis and hypothesis testing. The purpose of these tests was to ensure a linear relationship between research variables, a normal distribution of epsilons and a model free from dependence between the independent variables and to investigate whether the error variance of the model is a function of more than one variable. The evaluation of relationships was assured using the Pearson product-moment correlation. Finally, regression analysis was undertaken to test the hypotheses. The following sections present the results of the data analysis.

4.1 Normality Testing

Using Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests for normality, as shown in Table I, all research constructs (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and the integrative style of conflict management) are normally distributed.

Table 1. Results of normality testing

	Kolmogorov–Smirnov test		Shapiro–Wilk test	
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
II	0.164	0.251	0.924	0.620
IM	0.132	0.274	0.816	0.758
IS	0.117	0.118	0.971	0.077
IC	0.146	0.137	0.990	0.213
INTG	0.142	0.097	0.921	0.121

4.2 Linearity Testing

Table II indicates that there are linear relationships between the research variables as shown by the F-values and p-values (significance is greater than 0.05).

Table 2. Results of linearity testing

Variable	F-value	Sig.
II * INTG	0.896	0.421
IM * INTG	0.771	0.661
IS * INTG	0.854	0.557
IC * INTG	0.799	0.801

4.3 Multicollinearity Testing

The variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerance values shown in Table III indicate that none of the independent variables constitute a function of other independent variables.

Table 3. Results of multicollinearity testing

Model		VIF	Tolerance
1	II	1.333	0.974
	IM	1.515	0.911
	IS	1.097	0.941
	IC	1.741	0.927

4.4 Homoscedasticity Testing

The results of the homoscedasticity tests displayed in Table IV indicate that the error variance encountered in the

integrative style of conflict management is constant despite increases or decreases in the values of transformational leadership dimensions. The values for Levene's test and significance indicate the presence of homoscedasticity in the integrative style of conflict management.

Table 4. Results of homoscedasticity testing

	Levene's test	Sig.
II	1.399	0.358
IM	1.412	0.511
IS	1.348	0.289
IC	1.557	0.471

4.5 Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

The results of the correlation analysis, shown in Table V, for the four dimensions of transformational leadership indicate a significant association between each dimension of transformational style and the integrative style of conflict management: II ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.05$), IM ($r = 0.58$, $p < 0.05$), IS ($r = 0.74$, $p < 0.05$) and IC ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5. Correlation matrix for transformational leadership dimensions and the integrative style of conflict management

	II	IM	IS	IC
II	-			
IM	0.41	-		
IS	0.53	0.48	-	
IC	0.61	0.33	0.51	-
INTG	0.66	0.58	0.74	0.47

4.6 Regression Analysis

The research hypotheses presumed that idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual capital and individualized consideration are positively correlated with the integrative style of conflict management. A regression analysis was performed to test the hypotheses. Table VI indicates that intellectual stimulation has the highest influence on the integrative style of conflict management ($\beta = 0.437$, $t = 9.320$, $p < 0.05$), followed by idealized influence ($\beta = 0.398$, $t = 7.177$, $p < 0.05$), then inspirational motivation ($\beta = 0.374$, $t = 6.011$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, individualized consideration is the variable with the lowest influence on the integrative management variable ($\beta = 0.367$, $t = 5.451$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 6. Regression analysis results

Model summary		ANOVA	
r	R ²	F	P
0.779	0.606	23.61	0.000
Coefficients			
	B	t	P
constant	-	-	-
II	0.398	7.177	0.000
IM	0.374	6.011	0.000
IS	0.437	9.320	0.000
IC	0.367	5.451	0.000

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aims to investigate the impact of the transformational leadership style on one conflict management strategy, namely integrative. The independent variables examined in this study were idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. The integrative style of conflict management was the dependent variable. The hypothesized relationships between individualized consideration (IC), intellectual stimulation (IS), inspirational motivation (IM), idealized influence (II) and the integrative style of conflict management (INTG) are supported in this research. That is, all the dimensions of transformational leadership style have a significant influence on the integrative style of conflict management. Some prior studies have examined the same variables as included in this research. However, this research intended to identify the impact of each dimension of transformational leadership on a single style of conflict management. Turan et al. (2015) found that the first choice of conflict style used by managers who adopt a transformational leadership style is integration. Saeed et al. (2014) revealed a positive correlation between transformational leaders and the selection of integration as a conflict management style, along with obligation. Furthermore, Fu et al. (2008) concluded that the integrative (collaborative) style of conflict management is the dominant style among transformational leaders. Organizations could benefit from these results by informing and training managers in implementing a transformational leadership style to put intellectual stimulation at top of their priorities due to the role that this factor plays in enhancing individuals' abilities to solve problems.

6. Limitations and Future Research

There were few constraints in this study, except that the data collection process was intensive in terms of consuming researcher time and effort. Future research might add new leadership variables in addition to those considered here in order to identify the contribution of each style to conflict management. Also, using a mix of quantitative and qualitative data might provide greater understanding of the influence of leadership styles on selected conflict management styles. Moreover, future research is required to explore the same predictors with more than one conflict management style.

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Identifying and Ranking Health Tourism Development Barriers in Iran Using Fuzzy VIKOR Method

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Abstract

The present research is an applied study which employed a descriptive-correlation method. After a review of the related literature and survey of opinions of health tourism industry experts, the considered criteria in evaluation and ranking health tourism barriers were determined. Subsequently, 4 criteria (price, quality, accessibility, and proper time) were selected as the most important criteria. Using purposeful sampling method, out of cities and regions with health tourism attraction, four cities were selected as the most important cities with health tourism attraction. Using Fuzzy VIKOR method, quality was found to be the highest importance and proper time was determined as the lowest important criterion. Among sub-indices, improper medical quality was found to have the highest importance (weight). Among the selected cities, Mazandaran was found to have the highest priority. Shiraz, Tabriz and Mashhad, then, had the highest importance, respectively, in terms of health tourism development barriers.

Keywords: tourism, health tourism, Fuzzy VIKOR

1. Introduction

Generally, a travel with at least one night residence in destination is called a tourism travel. This definition is an arbitrary definition and several matches have been performed to present a comprehensive definition for tourism, but all have failed (Rahnama, 2002).

1.1 Health Tourism

There are various definitions for health tourism:

1. Trips which people take in order to benefit from climatic change (with a medical purpose), use mineral waters, convalesce from an illness, receive therapy, and so forth (Rezvani, 2000). Most patients also refer to important medical centers in developed countries with high healthcare facilities. This kind of tourism is highly common and frequent (Mahalati, 2001).
2. According to World Tourism Organization (WTO), health tourism is using services which improve or increase health and spirit of people (through mineral waters, climate or medical interventions) and is performed out of the residential place for more than 24 hours.
3. Travelling from one country to another country to receive medical services in hospitalization unit or outpatient department including:
 - a. Outpatient services, such as checkup, disease diagnosis, etc., which can be provided for less than 24 hours.
 - b. Hospitalization services which take a time longer than 24 hours (legal office of health ministry, health tourism law)

One of the most important goals of health tourism is to travel to retrieve power (Heraheshe, 2000). WTO particularly defined health tourism as the use of health tourism in using services which improve or increase health and spirit of people (through mineral waters, climate or medical interventions) and is performed out of the patient's residential place for more than 24 hours.

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) defines those patients who travel to seek medical services in foreign countries as follows:

Individuals who seek certain specialist surgeries and remedies due to the lack of advanced technology in their own countries; individuals who travel to seek medical services in well-known medical institutions; individuals who travel to pass their convalescence; people who travel to use natural facilities such as warm waters; people who travel to receive medical treatments; people who travel to receive light remedies or dentistry remedies due to lack of access or lower price. All these patients are considered tourists (Bookman & Bookman, 2007).

1.2 Various Types of Health Tourism

Health tourism includes medical tourism, curative tourism and preventive tourism.

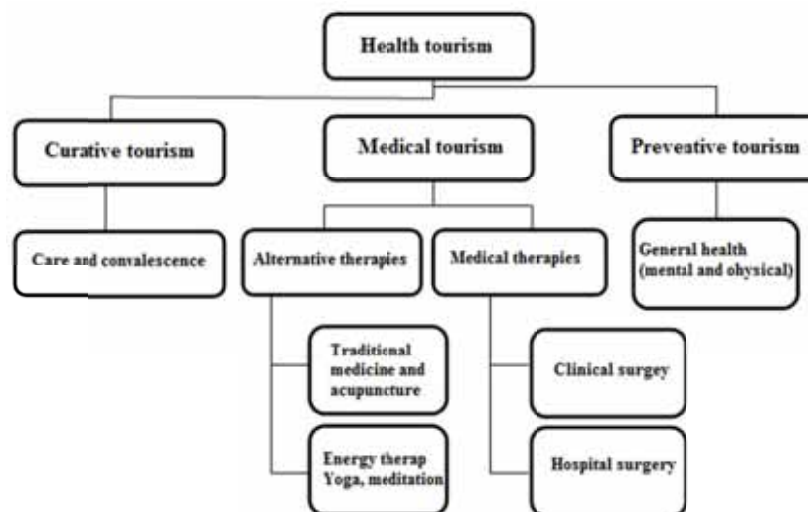


Figure 1. Health tourism classification (TRAM, 2006, p. 30)

Medical tourism: refers to travel for a certain therapy or operation in hospitals or medical centers outside a country (for an average time of 2 weeks) (Heraheshe, 2002).

There are medical interventions in medical tourism. To solve their medical problems, patients (with chronic or acute diseases) either use conventional medical methods or methods which are called non-scientific methods by empirical scholars (TRAM, 2006).

Curative tourism: this kind of tourism is also called therapeutic tourism. In this type of tourism, patients use natural facilities such as warm and mineral waters, salt lakes, medical sludge, radioactive sands, herbal baths, sun, climate, etc. patients (tourists) travel with the aim of receiving therapy or removing physical failure (during a 2-4 weeks interval) and may stay for months.

Additionally, patients who are passing their convalescence can also accelerate their improvement through care program considered by doctors and use natural facilities (Heraheshe, 2002).

Preventive tourism: this type of tourism is highly similar to curative tourism. The only difference between the two tourisms is that in preventive tourism, tourists have no certain disease but they want to prevent the incidence of mental and physical problems (Heraheshe, 2002).

1.3 Health Tourism in Iran

According to World Bank classification, Islamic Republic of Iran is a higher-income developing country, the 4th biggest country in the Asia, the 17th biggest country in the world, with an area of 1.648195 km². Iran is located in the Middle East and is considered to be in the East Mediterranean region of the Middle East in WHO classification. Health tourism is not considered as a new phenomenon in Iran. In the past, residents of neighboring countries, especially Arabic countries around the Persian Gulf, traveled to Iran to receive healthcare services (Tourani et al., 2010). At the present, the main cause of patients' travel to Iran is the quality of health services, low costs of medicines and therapy compared to other countries of the region, access to new and advanced health services and equipment, skillful health specialists, similar culture and language, or lack of specialist workforce and equipment in most of the source countries (Jabbari, 2009). According to physical and historical documents and visitors opinions, Iran is a country whose tourism attractions are undeniable and

wonderful. The presence of some natural endowments as rich and natural heritages and unique manifestations of ecotourism can greatly completely transform Iranian tourism (Eftekhari, 2010). Given the cultural, historical and natural attractions, Iran is placed in top 10th countries of the world (Beygi Firouzi, 2011). Based on 20-year perspective evidence at the end of the fourth plan, tourist attraction should have reached 2.6 million people and its income should have reached to 3.2 milliard dollars. However, with respect to the existing statistics, this part of the fourth plan not only was not actualized, but it seems that the considered objectives are very ambitious in 20-year perspective of Iran with respect to tourism conditions of the country (Qolizade, 2010). Today, many countries have focused on various orientations of tourism such as medical tourism. Asian countries such as India, Singapore, Southern Korea, and Malaysia absorb 1.3 million medical tourists all together and this number is increased every year. Among Islamic countries, Dubai, Jordan, Bahrain, and Lebanon are the main medical tourism centers. United Arabic Emirates also seeks to establish medical tourism industry in the region. Employing German physicians and following standard medical skills, Dubai has been able to achieve a good brand. Although among Islamic countries, Iran has the highest capacities and capabilities in health tourism in the area after Jordan, Iran has not been able to make perfect use of its skillful physicians in different specializations (Rokni et al., 2010).

1.3.1 The Effects and Functions of Health Tourism Development in Iran

Regarding medical tourism, either natural or medical, one can observe direct effects at high economic, social and cultural levels in the country which cause a promotion in various levels in various scopes. Economically, medical tourism causes absorption of foreign currency, an increase in life level, an augmentation of national per capita, an increased simulation in production, and a direct and indirect distribution and creation of jobs and various services in the country, such that, for each tourist, 8 jobs including 3 direct and 5 indirect jobs will be created (Kargar, 2007). Culturally and socially, it causes exchanges, motivation, demands and needs derived from the culture of the community. Prosperous medical tourism in Iran will give rise to cultural exchanges between foreign countries and Iran.

1.3.2 Factors Influencing Health Tourism Development

The following model has been confirmed by governmental and private sectors actively working in the medical tourism business scope. In this model, three providers of health and care services, tourism services and health tourism services at micro level; inter-sectoral entity related to all the three health tourism scopes at micro level, and inter-sectoral entity related to all the three scopes at macro level have been propounded (Jabbari, 2008).

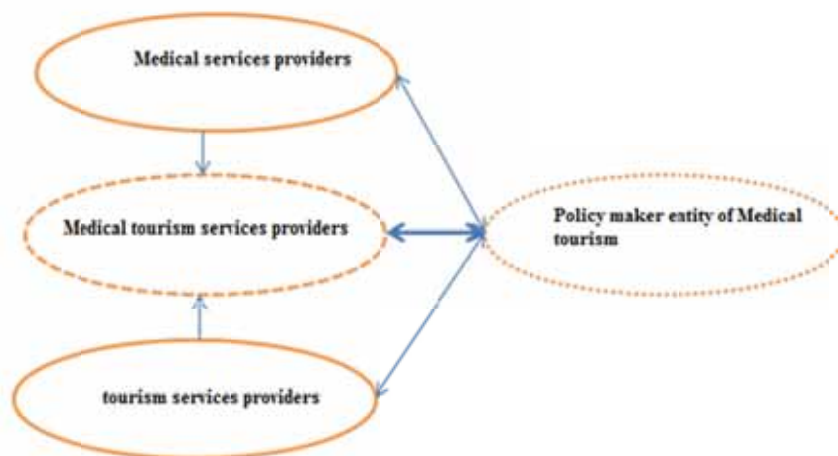


Figure 2. The model showing the relation between effective factors of medical tourism (Jabbari, 2008)

Given the model above, four types of indices with various natures are involved in medical tourism development (Bayati et al., 2011):

1. Cross-sectoral indices related to the policy maker entity
2. Indices related to medical service providers
3. Indices related to medical tourism service providers
4. Indices related to tourism service providers

Accordingly, with respect to the related literature and the opinions of the experts, the factors contributing to measurement of each of these indices in medical tourism development are as follows:

- Cross-sectoral indices related to the policy maker entity:
 1. The presence of rich, policy maker, organizer, and supervisor cross-sectoral entity
 2. Infrastructures of providing after-therapy improvement services
 3. Proper selection of medical tourism's target market
 4. Complete coordination of entities associated with medical tourism
 5. Providing the Atlas of existing medical tourism
 6. Making a brand for Iran in the area of therapy
 7. Formulating medical tourism marketing strategies at micro and macro levels
 8. Designing an internal information system to control social sensitivities
 9. Creating and supporting non-governmental entities such as associations to supervise the performance of operators, active interference in policy making process, etc.
 10. Creating facilities for active sets in medical tourism industry
 11. Identifying relative advantages of medical poles of the country
- Indices related to medical service providers
 1. Appropriate access of foreign patient to required medical services (hospitals, equipped centers, etc.)
 2. Obtaining international quality accreditation (JCI) by hospitals and medical centers
 3. Education and reference system of professional medical personnel
 4. Recoding, controlling and survey system for cured foreign patients
- Indices related to medical tourism services providers
 1. A specialist system of referring foreign patients
 2. The presence of various service packages (supplementary goods basket) for foreign patients
 3. the process of receiving service and the possibility of detecting therapeutic stages of foreign patients
 4. developing human force (trained medical personnel, having good knowledge of patients' language, skillful in social relations)
 5. The presence of service quality standards (medical and tourism)
 6. Designing an optimal balance system of beneficiaries of medical tourism scope of the country (Beygi Firouzi, 2011)
- Indices related to tourism service providers
 1. The information about medical centers, surgeons, etc.
 2. The access and possibility of using distribution channels and international sales
 3. The presence of infrastructures of accepting foreign passenger
 4. The process of receiving Visa (for medical purposes)

In the following discussion, there are some instances of previously conducted studies in this regard.

Izadi (2012) investigated health tourism status and determined special advantages for Iran. As he reported, Iran has numerous advantages such as experienced and skillful physicians, modern technology and natural medical regions to attract health tourists. It has, however, some weaknesses such as inappropriate coordination between organizations in charge of medical tourism and inappropriate planning. Houshmandi (2012) investigated the potentials of medical tourism in dry and semi-dry regions of Iran. He concluded that some factors such as sun radiation more than 300 days in a year, warm and mineral water springs, hot sand hills, therapeutic mineral soils, evaporative salts and sediments, salt caves and sludge with healing property can lead to the attraction of tourists, increase entrepreneurship and remove poverty in these regions. Viladrich (2014) explored the role of e-marketing in health tourism development in Argentina for reconstructive surgeries. In his study, he observed that in

Argentina, besides health tourism services, tango dance is one of the factors attracting tourists to this country. Given the importance of the issue, the research questions addressed in the present study can be stated as follows:

The main research question:

What are health tourism barriers in Iran?

Secondary research questions:

1. To some extent health tourism development barriers in Iran are important?
2. To what extent sub-indices of each health tourism development barrier in Iran are important?
3. What are the most important cities of Iran in terms of health tourism development barriers?

2. Methodology

The present research was an applied study which used the descriptive-correlation method. First, the related literature was reviewed and the opinions of 12 health tourism industry experts were surveyed, and then the considered criteria in evaluation and ranking health tourism barriers were determined. Finally, 4 criteria were selected as the most important criteria. Using purposeful sampling method, out of cities and regions with health tourism attraction, four cities were selected as the most important cities with health tourism attraction. The most important criteria considered in this study are as follows:

Price:

- Unreasonable cost of therapy
- Not providing drug in accordance with universal prices
- Arbitrary determination of medical tariffs by doctors
- Not offering insurance to health tourists

Quality:

- Low-quality therapy
- Personnel's lack of sufficient knowledge
- Lack of friendly and polite behavior with patient by hospital personnel
- Lack of welfare facilities such as residential complexes for patient companions

Accessibility:

- Lack of easy access to medical centers
- Lack of kitchens equipped with menu
- Lack of interpreters with good command of English or target language
- Lack of desirable and broad air travel
- Lack of possibility of international communications for patients (telephone and internet)

Proper time:

- Not investigating hospitalization affairs in the shortest time possible
- Not responding to electronic demands in the shortest time possible
- Not prioritizing patient admission based on acuteness of disease
- Not performing therapeutic stages in proper time

To rank the health tourism development barriers as well as rank the four selected cities, we employed Fuzzy VIKOR method.

2.1 Fuzzy VIKOR Method

Fuzzy VIKOR method is an adaptive MADM method developed by Opricovic and Tzeng (2002). They developed this method based on LP-metric method.

$$L_{Pi} = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n [w_j (\mathcal{F}_j^* - \mathcal{F}_{ij}) / (\mathcal{F}^* - \mathcal{F}_j^-)]^p \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$1 \leq p \leq +\infty; i = 1, 2, \dots, l.$$

This method can provide a collective desirable maximum value for majority and a minimum individual effect for opposites. The stages of this method are as follows:

Computing normalized values: suppose that there are m alternatives and n criteria. Various alternatives have been determined as x_i . For the alternative x_j , the rank j^{th} has been determined as x_{ij} and for other alternatives, x_{ij} is the value and j^{th} the criterion.

In the so-called method, linear normalization is used to make decision matrix dimensionless. This will be done in computational formula of the studied method.

Determining the best and the worst value: the best and the worst of each value in each criterion are identified and called f_j^* and f_j^- , respectively.

$$F_j^* = \text{Max} F_{ij}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$F_j^- = \text{Min} F_{ij}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Where f_j^* is the best positive ideal solution for the j^{th} criterion and f_j^- is the worst negative ideal solution for the j^{th} criterion. If all f_j^* are lined together, we will have an optimal combination with the highest score. It is also true about f_j^- .

Determining weight of criteria: criteria' weight should be computed to determine the importance of their relations. In this regard, the present study will use FAHP method.

Computing the distance between alternatives and ideal solution: this stage of computing the distance of each alternative from ideal solution and then their sum for the final value is performed based on the following relations:

Where S_i indicates the ratio of the distance of the i^{th} alternative from the positive ideal solution (the best combination) and R_i indicates the ratio of the distance of i^{th} alternative from the negative ideal solution (the worst combination). The best rank is obtained based on S_i value and the worst rank is obtained based on R_i value. In other words, R_i and S_i are the same L_i and L_i , respectively, in LP-metric method.

Computing Q_i value: for each of i s, this value is defined as follow:

$$Q_i = v \left[\frac{S_i - S^*}{S^- - S^*} \right] + (1 - v) \left[\frac{R_i - R^*}{R^- - R^*} \right]$$

$$R^* = \text{Min}_i R_i, \quad R^- = \text{Max}_i R_i, \quad S^* = \text{Min}_i S_i, \quad S^- = \text{Max}_i S_i$$

Where, v is strategy weight of the maximum agreed with the criterion or the minimum collective desirability.

Ranking alternatives based on Q_i values: in this stage, we rank alternative and make decision based on Q_i values computed in the previous step.

3. Findings

3.1 Descriptive Statistics

According to demographic information, 83.4% of the sample composed of males and 16.6% of females. Further, 4.4% of the sample were 20-30 year-olds; 30.6% were 30-40 year-olds; 30% accounted for 40-50 year-olds, and 35% represented above 50 year-olds. Finally, 28.1% of the sample held a bachelor's degree; 46.3% held a master's degree and 25.6% had a PhD or above.

3.2 Inferential Statistics

Table 1 shows verbal statements of the sample as colloquial scales to determine the weight of criteria and sub-criteria.

Table 1. Colloquial scales to determine the weight of criteria and sub-criteria

Extremely more important	Much more important	More important	Less important	Equally important	Linguistic scale
(7,9,11)	(5,7,9)	(3,5,7)	(1,3,5)	(1,1,1)	Triangular fuzzy number

Table 2 shows colloquial scales to prioritize health tourism cities in terms of the presence of health tourism development barriers.

Table 2. Fuzzy number spectrum and linguistic scale to prioritize health tourism cities in terms of the presence of health tourism development barriers

The best	Good	Average	Weak	The worst	Linguistic scale
(7.5,10,10)	(5,7.5,10)	(2,5,5,7)	(0,2.5,5)	(0,0,2.5)	Triangular fuzzy number

To weigh the criteria, the geometrical mean of the questionnaires obtained from the triangular fuzzy matrix of paired comparisons and the aggregation matrix of the experts' opinion were obtained (Table 3).

Table 3. Aggregation matrix of the experts' opinion

Proper time	Accessibility	Quality	Price	Health tourism development barriers
(0.87,1.183,1.527)	(0.812,1.106,1.456)	(0.74,0.965,1.265)	(1,1,1)	Price
(0.841,1.224, 1.67)	(0.615,0.901,1.353)	(1,1,1)	(0.79, 1.03,1.35)	Quality
(0.784,1.034,1.342)	(1,1,1)	(0.738,1.109,1.623)	(0.68,0.9, 1.23)	Accessibility
(1,1,1)	(0.745,0.966,1.274)	(0.597, 0.816,1.18)	(0.65,0.84,1.14)	Proper time

In the following paragraphs, the value of fuzzy compound expansion of each of the criteria is computed, and then fuzzy feasibility degree for each possible paired state is computed (Table 4). Also, minimum feasibility degree of each of the criteria relative to other criteria is obtained to compute the weight vector of the four criteria (Table 5).

Table 4. Weight vector of the four criteria

Proper time	Accessibility	Quality	Price	The four criteria
0.829	0.947	0.976	1	The minimum feasibility degree
0.221	0.252	0.26	0.266	The final weight of the criteria

To prioritize the sub-criteria of each of the four criteria, the above stages are performed; therefore, due to great size of computations, each of the sub-criteria is presented as shown in the following table:

Table 5. The final weights of each of the indices

Weight	Indices of each criterion	The final weight of each of indices
Criterion	Sub-criteria	Weights
Price	Unreasonable cost of therapy	0.197
	Not providing drug in accordance with universal prices	0.185
	Arbitrary determination of medical tariffs by doctors	0.205
	Not offering insurance to health tourists	0.211
	Not providing drug in accordance with universal prices	0.199
	Low-quality therapy	0.284
Quality	Personnel's lack of sufficient knowledge	0.234
	Lack of friendly and polite behavior with patient by hospital personnel	0.223
	Lack of welfare facilities such as residential complexes for patient companions	0.257

Accessibility	0.252	Lack of easy access to medical centers	0.237	0.059
		Lack of kitchens equipped with menu	0.255	0.064
		Lack of interpreters with good command of English or target language	0.249	0.062
		Lack of desirable and broad air travel	0.258	0.065
		Lack of possibility of international communications for patients (telephone and internet)	0.250	0.060
Proper time	0.221	Not investigating hospitalization affairs in the shortest time possible	0.277	0.061
		Not responding to electronic demands in the shortest time possible	0.230	0.021
		Not prioritizing patient admission based on acuteness of disease	0.263	0.058
		Not performing therapeutic stages in proper time	0.227	0.05

Among the barriers, quality has the highest importance and proper time has the lowest importance, and among the sub-criteria, low-quality therapy demonstrates the highest importance (weight). Table 6 shows normalized aggregation matrix of the experts' opinions which has been used to prioritize the cities in terms of health tourism barriers.

Table 6. Normalized fuzzy aggregation matrix of the experts' opinions

Lack of performing therapeutic stages in proper time	Not providing drug in accordance with universal prices	Unreasonable cost of therapy	City
(0.39,0.66,0.90)	(0.42,0.69,0.93)	(0.34,0.59,0.80)	Shiraz
(0.57,0.83,1)	(0,0,0.535)	(0.36,0.1,0.622)	Mazandaran
(0,0,0.558)	(0.53,0.80,1)	(0.36,0.615,0.83)	Tabriz
(0,0.55,0.51)	(0,0,0.493)	(0.30,0.34,0.79)	Mashhad

The values of Ri and Si are as follows:

Table 7. The values of Ri and Si

Ri	Si	
(0.295,0.324,407)	(0.06,0.064,0.064)	Shiraz
(0.255,0.31,0.365)	(0.048,0.054,0.054)	Mazandaran
(0.64,0.647,0.736)	(0.065,0.065,0.065)	Tabriz
(0.579,0.654,0.832)	(0.073,0.073,0.073)	Mashhad

The best and the worst values of Ri and Si are as follows:

Table 8. The best and the worst values of Ri and Si

\tilde{S}^+	(0.255,0.31,0.365)
\tilde{S}^-	(0.579,0.654,0.832)
\tilde{R}^+	(0.048,0.054,0.054)
\tilde{R}^-	(0.073,0.073,0.073)

Table 9 shows the prioritization of cities with health tourism in terms of tourism development barriers.

Table 9. The prioritization of the cities

Prioritization	\tilde{Q}_i	
2	(0.271,0.295,0.299)	Shiraz
1	(0,0,0)	Mazandaran
3	(0.67,0.763,0.925)	Tabriz
4	(1,1,1)	Mashhad

According to Table 9, Mazandaran has obtained the highest priority in terms of tourism development barriers in this city.

4. Discussion

The quality of medical services highly influences the patients' decision to select their therapeutic destination. Appropriate medical services and facilities and provincial hospitals also can be introduced as one tourism targets for various patients around the world.

After 1995 and after the development of health and care units and the increase in people's access to services, the quality of services in certain dimensions has been considered as one of the important priorities and placed in the agenda of provinces. Executing various designs and pilots in the country, the basic healthcare facilities have been strengthened. However, there are still many deficits in facilities and equipment appropriate with modern technologies and global standards. Modifying these items is necessary to attract health tourists to Iran from various points of the world. The reputation of successful Iranian physicians in various points of the world and, especially in Arabic countries has made patients hospitalizing in these countries highly need Iranian doctors. Frequent travels to Shiraz for such surgeries confirms this claim. The need for nurses with good knowledge of Arabic languages is obvious since most of patients come from Arab countries. However, given the official statistics and due to the fact that English language is their second language, it will not cause any serious problem due to use of nurses with good knowledge of English. Hospital managers of provinces can increase patients' satisfaction level through training hospital personnel about how to behave with patients as well as through considering welfare facilities for companions of non-native patients such as discounting, shortening residence time, providing services of coordination, travel, residence, transfer, and visit for patients and their companions. It is also suggested to perform some activities regarding establishing marketing offices in target markets, organizing informative travels for journalists in the province, supplying the insurance of medical tourism events and making a brand for a province in the area of therapy. Previously conducted studies have revealed that the presence of welfare and tourism facilities for patients' companions, in addition to medical facilities, is highly important. It is so important that in the article *Tourism management* health tourism attractions have been mentioned in some places under the name of hotel and shelter. This confirms the attraction of medical-tourism phenomenon, which indicates that a calm environment and tourism-recreational facilities are two necessary and adequate conditions to attract medical tourists to hospitals. Accordingly, recreational facilities for passing the recovery period are one of the most important factors for attracting tourist. In the present study, it was observed that welcoming patients and their companions from the arrival time and during the travel was a an important issue for such tourists.

Some recommendations are presented for further studies:

1. Existing health tourism capacities and potentials in Iran
2. Economy and trade from the perspective of health tourism
3. The barrier and strategies for the development and optimization of health tourism
4. The status of health tourism in Iran in comparison to international standards

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Unleashing the Power of Emotional Competency Development Program on Leaders' Self-Motivation

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Abstract

This study attempts to investigate the effects of the emotional competency development program on leaders' self-motivation. Eighty leaders at a non-profit agency in Malaysia were involved in an experimental/control group research design where the experimental group was given a nine-week emotional competency development program. Pre- and post-test were conducted to assess participants' self-motivation using the Motivation Sources Inventory. The findings indicate that the emotional competency development program does have an effect on increasing leaders' self-motivation. However, positive effects were only seen on *intrinsic process*, *self-concept internal* and *goal internalization*. Whereas, the *instrumental* and *self-concept external* does not produce any significant changes after the training. As a conclusion, this study has provided some empirical proof on the effectiveness of the EI training program on developing leaders' emotional intelligence and intrinsic motivation, which might contribute to the theoretical and methodological aspect of leadership development.

Keywords: motivation, leaders, emotional competency, leadership development

1. Introduction

Self-motivation (SM) is an important trait in leaders. Evidences from previous researches suggest that leader would benefit from having high self-motivational drives (Barbuto Jr., Fritz, & Marx, 2002; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2010). Motivation is known as an aspiration that produces certain behaviour. It is defined as an inner state that gives direction by encouraging appropriate behavioural reactions (McClelland, 1998). Motivation is a power from the inside that stimulates an act and controls the course of an act (Russell, 1971). Motivation is related to interest, relevance, expectancies and believes on the outcomes, decision to be involved, and persistence (Baker, 2011). Human motive often originated from the emotional sides of human. In which, the emotional competencies (EC) of an individual may direct their motives. This can be seen from the definition of the emotional competencies itself, which is "achieving one's goals through the ability to manage one's own feelings and emotions, to be sensitive to, and influence other key people, and to balance one's motives and drives with conscientious and ethical behaviour" (Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999, p. 20). Hence, the possibility of developing leaders' self-motivation using an emotional competency development program should be explored. Emotional competency development program has often been seen as a great tool to increase leaders' EC (Cherniss, Grimm, & Liautaud, 2010). Therefore, it is expected that the EC training may enhance leaders' self-motivation. Hence, the researcher believed that it is important to conduct a study to evaluate the effect of the emotional competency development program on leaders' self-motivation.

Another issue that intrigues the researcher to pursue this study is to investigate the links between emotion and motivation. Emotion is often associated with motivation, in fact, some links has been found between these two. For instance, Goleman (1995) theory of EI includes motivation as part of EC, while Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) believe motivation is somehow linked to EC, although rejecting the claims that it is a subset of EC. Thus, this study will use the possible links between EC and SM to investigate the possibility of using one training program to develop both EC and SM in leaders.

1.1 Emotional Competency Development Program

Emotional competency is "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (Goleman, 1998, p. 317).

Emotional competency is very important in individual as it helps individual to manage their emotions throughout their life (Yusof, Kadir, & Mahfar, 2014). Since the emergence of the emotional intelligence (EI) theories, researchers have put on more focus on the efforts to develop individual's EI. Many researchers found that EI could be developed through appropriate development program and would be very beneficial to leaders (Badea & Pană, 2010; Cherniss, 2010; McEnrue, Groves, & Shen, 2010). These claims have created a wide interest on EI related training programs. Previous studies have shown positive outcome from EI training. For instance, a quasi-experimental study that has been done by Jonker (2009) showed positive results on the participants' EI from the four-day EI training. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was used to measure the participants' EI before and after the training, in which, the post-test mean scores showed significant improvement in their EI. Another study that has been done by Dadehbeigi and Shirmohammadi (2010) to evaluate the effect of EI training program on participants' EI. In this study, 68 employees from an Iranian bank were given 16 hours of EI training and the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI-2) was used to measure the participants' EI during the pre- and post-test. Their findings showed significant improvement only on the *relationship management* ($t = 2.89, p < .05$), while the other EI sub-factors showed no changes. However, there are yet studies done to evaluate the effects of emotional-related trainings on other human characteristics such as motivational attributes. Conducting a study to evaluate the effect of emotional related training programs on human motivation may open up new possibilities in human psychological development.

1.2 Theories on Motivation

There are many theories on motivation. Among the very first theory on motivation is the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1954) suggested a pyramid system known as needs hierarchy that consist five division of motives starting from the bottom-level needs that is a prerequisite to be fulfilled before moving on to the higher-level needs. Through this pyramid, it is believed that human should first fulfil their physiological needs such as food, water, and shelter. These needs are essential to keep us living. When these physiological needs are met, human will make the appropriate action to fulfil the next need, which is the safety needs. The safety needs includes financial and life security, which can be obtained through work, living in a safe environment and financial planning. Once the safety needs are met, human moves to the third stage in the pyramid, that is social needs. Social needs refer to love, acceptance and the sense of belonging. These needs could be fulfilled through bonding with family members, friends, and colleagues. The next stage is the esteem needs, in which, individual cultivate the own self-conception and worthiness. There are six principal of esteem needs, which are; the practice of living consciously, self-acceptance, self-responsibility, self-assertiveness, living purposefully and personal integrity (Branden, 1995). The social and esteem needs are essential for our psychological well-being. When the esteem needs is met, an individual will pursue the highest stage in the Maslow's pyramid, which is the self-actualization. In this stage, an individual will pursue their desire to become anything he or she aims to be, based on their ability, potential, capacities and talents. However, Maslow believed that this highest level of needs could only be achieved when all the previous needs have been fulfilled. However, Alderfer (1972) suggested that these needs can be classified into three categories, in which, he suggested that the physiological needs and the safety needs could be categorized as the existence needs. While the social needs and external esteem could be classified into the relatedness needs. Whereas, the internal esteem and self-actualization could be categorized as the growth needs. Contrary to the Maslow's theory, in his ERG theory, Alderfer believes that all these needs can be satisfied simultaneously, without the necessity to satisfy the lower-order needs first, before moving on the next needs.

The next influential theory on motivation is the McClelland's Needs theory. David C. McClelland (1961) suggested that human desires were influenced by the society their living in and from their own experience, particularly earlier in life. Through his theory, he proposed three categories of motivational needs, which are the Needs for Achievement (nAch), Needs for Power (nPow), and Needs for Affiliation (nAff). Individual with high nAch tends to work harder and focus more on achieving goal that they have set for themselves. They believed on setting high personal responsibility on their course of action. Meanwhile, those with high nPow yearn to be in the higher and influential position, in which, they could have control over others. They have high desire to influence others and lead a prestigious life. Whereas, those with high nAff, prefer to have a good relationship with those around them, and yearn to get others' approval. nAff individuals prefer to have a strong sense of belonging in their team or group and avoid conflicts. It is believed that all individuals have a combination of all these three motivators. However, each of us will have a higher tendency on either one of these motivators. This tendency will affect individual's choices in work and life. It will also have strong influence on individual's motivational attributes (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004).

Aside from the theories discussed above, Herzberg's (1966) hygiene theory is among the influential theories in

motivation too. Herzberg's theory is also known as the two-factor theory. In this theory, the focus is more on the practical approach towards motivating employees. Herzberg believes that job satisfaction depends on two different factors, that is motivators (satisfiers) and hygiene factor (dissatisfiers). Motivator is the factors that could satisfy individuals in their working environment. Factors that act as the motivators are accomplishment, recognition, job security and career advancement. These factors, when met, will results in higher satisfaction and strong commitment in employees at the workplace. Whereas, hygiene factor, when unmet, would cause dissatisfaction in the workplace. Among the dissatisfiers are the salary, company policy, working environment, the quality of supervision and interpersonal relationships. The hygiene and motivators are distinct factors between each other. Therefore, to build a conducive working environment, special attention should be given to both factors. This is to ensure job satisfaction is kept to the highest among the workers.

All the above theories have contributed to the recent development in motivational studies. The recent findings are discussed below.

1.2.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Over the years, researchers realized that motivation could be classified into two types, which are the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivational behaviour is considered as a motivation to do certain tasks for the joy of doing the task itself. Intrinsically motivated individual do certain activity with no obligation or any apparent reward except for the feeling of accomplishment in doing the activity itself. Individuals with intrinsic motivation will challenge themselves by developing skills and capacities to fulfil their own sense of achievement. Therefore, when they do any activity, the motivation will come from their own self-determination, which is achieved by stimulating and persuading themselves by saying, "That's interesting, "I like to do" or "I enjoy doing that" (Reeve, 2014). Meanwhile, extrinsic motivation refers to doing a task due to the outside effect and environmental incentives such as food, money and recognition from others, or for fears of punishment if the task is not done. Individuals with high extrinsic motivation tend to do an activity in order to achieve the reward. Therefore, they will only be motivated if the task is followed by a reward or incentives, be it in the material, or in verbal form. Although, intrinsic motivation seems to be more important to human, and indeed it is, the extrinsic motivation is important too. While, the intrinsically motivated individuals tend to be more successful in life as they are more determined in doing tasks and in achieving their goals; the extrinsically motivated individuals can be persuaded to do tasks in which they have no interest at. Individuals will be obligated to go to work every day in order to earn money to buy food and meet their psychological needs. Extrinsic motivation could also lead to personal well-being. For example, the desire to lose weight and maintain a healthy body might increase individual's motivation to do exercises. Therefore, both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important to individuals.

1.3 Self-Motivation

A strong motivational drive is required in a leader to achieve success (Howells, 2007). Hence, it is suggested that motivation is an important factor to be a successful leader (J. E. Barbuto, 2005). Furthermore, Goleman (2001) believes that lack of motivation in leaders may retard an organization's growth and success. Hong, Catano, and Liao (2011) added that those with motivation to lead (MTL) will be the most qualified person to hold the leadership position. His study showed that individual with high MTL were more charismatic as a leader compared to those with low MTL. He found that the intrinsically motivated individuals were more responsible in performing their duty as leaders.

In addition to that, leaders will face problems in motivating their employees if they themselves did not have adequate SM. Therefore, a self-motivated leader can assist in increasing the organization performances (Lord & Brown, 2001). In fact, study shows that leaders' motivational attributes not only have an influence on their leadership style, but also have an effect on their followers' performances (Park & Word, 2012). Thus, aside from EC, SM is important for leaders too.

Through the literature, it has been seen that both motivation and emotion are equally important on leaders and these two was often links together (Christie, Jordan, Troth, & Lawrence, 2007; Sloman, 1987; Zurbriggen & Sturman, 2013). Emotion and motivation were seen to be interrelated due to the cause and effect relationship. For instance, individuals with SM possessed control of their own emotions while allowing that control to motivate themselves internally (McMullen, 2003). Additionally, Harmon (2000) claims that good use of EI in communication can increase motivation in the workplace. Supporting this, Elfenbein and Ambady (2002) found that effective use of the nonverbal communication through emotional understanding increased the motivational performance in the workplace. Furthermore, the relationship between EI and motivation has been found by Novarina and Unaradjan (2006) through their study that showed positive relationship between EI and work

motivation ($r = .953, p < .01$) of the employees at a company in Jakarta. Another study by Saad (2011) on 512 participants showed strong association between the EI and self-determined motivation ($r = .84, p < .05$). Aside from that, Bissessar (2008) found high correlation between the EI and extrinsic motivation from the study on 145 college students.

Based on the relationship found between the emotion and motivation, it is believed that by increasing a person's EI, it may have the potential to improve leaders' motivation as well (Henry, 2011). However, although many studies have been done in the field of leadership and EI, there are yet studies been done to examine the effect of EI training on leaders SM level. Thus, this study is expected to provide some empirical data on the effects of the emotional competency development program on leaders' SM. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H₀: There are no positive changes in the leaders' self-motivation: (1) *intrinsic process*, (2) *instrumental*, (3) *self-concept external*, (4) *self-concept internal*, and (5) *goal internalization* after the leaders have attended the training.

2. Methods

The research design used for this study is the pre- and post-test with experimental and control group design. The participants' EC and SM were measured prior and after the intervention program. The age, gender, educational level and years of experience were used as control variables.

2.1 Participants

In the beginning, 97 leaders with at least two years of experience and supervised a minimum of two individuals from a non-profit agency in Malaysia were selected for this study through the non-probability convenience sampling methods. To reduce the sampling bias, the researchers chose a broad cross-section of individuals consisting males and females, with different age groups and education level. Therefore, the sample from this organization could be as representative as samples from other organization.

Participants were informed of the procedures and they are free to withdraw at any time. All participants gave their consent to participate in this study and their anonymity was protected. The participants received certificates of attendance for their participation in the study.

2.2 Pre-test and Group Distribution

All participants completed the pre-test to measure their EC and SM prior the intervention. The results of the pre-test are ranked and then divided into extremely high results, moderate results and extremely low results. Those with the results of extremely high scores and extremely low scores were exempted for further selection as these outliers would affect the outcome of this study (Kay, 2005). Therefore, eight respondents with extreme results were removed. After removing the outliers, only 89 leaders with medium scores were selected for further sampling and were divided homogenously into Experimental Group (EG) and Control Group (CG). In dividing the samples into two groups, all the participants with medium scores were numbered. Next, the researcher placed all the numbers in a bowl and selected 40 numbers randomly. Only these 40 numbers were incorporated into the EG. Then, with the remaining balance of participants, a random matching sampling were used to create a CG that has almost the similar demographic characteristics with the EG. The CG consisted of equal number of participants as CG, which is 40 participants. The remaining balances of participants were removed from the study as the number of participants required has been met. The use of this random matching sampling is to ensure the homogeneity of demographic characteristics for both groups. The experimental group had 14.90 (SD=11.52) mean years of work experience and 67% possessed at least a diploma. The mean age was 39.12 (SD=12.21) with 63% were female and 37% were male. The control group had 15.58 (SD=11.85) mean years of work experience and 79% possessed at least a diploma. The mean age was 40.92 (SD=12.35) with 58% were female and 42% were male. Levene's test for equality showed that both groups have comparable EC and SM scores.

2.3 Self-Motivation Measures

For the purpose of this study, SM refers to possessing control of one's emotions while allowing that control to motivate internally (McClelland, 1987; Reimers & Barbuto, 2002). The Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI) was used to measure the self-motivation of the leader. J. E. Barbuto and Scholl (1998) developed the MSI based on the Leonard, Beauvais and Scholl's (1999) integrative typology. The MSI contains 30 items with five subscales and each subscale contains six items. MSI is a self-assessment measured using a six point Likert-type scale (0 = *entirely disagree*; 6 = *entirely agree*). The MSI measures five sources of motivation: (1) *intrinsic process*, (2) *instrumental*, (3) *self-concept external*, (4) *self-concept internal*, and (5) *goal internalization*. *Intrinsic process* (IP) refers to the motivation of doing tasks for the pleasure of it, instead for reward or external

controls. It is equivalent with the Maslow's (1954) *physiological needs* theories. *Instrumental* (INS) refers to individuals that are motivated by certain tangible outcomes such as promotion and award. It is similar to the *need for safety* (Maslow, 1954) and *need for power* (David C. McClelland, 1987). *Self-concept external* (SCE) refers to individuals that are motivated by positive feedbacks and approval from others. They acted in a way to first, gain acceptance and then to gain status by trying to satisfy people around them. This source is similar to the *need for love, affection and belonging* (Maslow, 1954), and *needs for affiliation* (David C. McClelland, 1961). Whereas *Self-concept internal* (SCI) is a motivation sources produced internally by the individuals themselves based on their own value system (J. E. Barbuto, Jr., 2002). This source is similar to the *need for esteem* (Maslow, 1954) and *need for achievement* (David C. McClelland, 1961). *Goal internalization* (GI) refers to individual who are motivated by believing in the cause of a goal and will work hard towards the goal. It is similar to the Maslow's (1954) *self-actualization*. Sample items across the five scales include "I prefer to do things that are fun" (IP), "I like to be rewarded for extra responsibilities" (INS), "I am motivated when people make me feel appreciated" (SCE), "I prefer to do things that give me a sense of achievement" (SCI), "My motivation will be high when I believe in what I'm doing" (GI).

2.4 Intervention

The intervention used for this study is the emotional competency development program. Only the experimental group ($n = 40$) was given the training program. The program was started by providing some briefing on the procedure and schedule of the training program. During this session, participants were reminded not share or discuss any material or knowledge gained from the training with the control group to avoid threat to internal validity from the diffusion of the treatment and to maintain the experimental condition (Creswell, 2009).

A total of eighteen-hour session of emotional competency development training was given. This training was conducted in the form of workshops and divided into two-hour session each, for nine consecutive weeks with 7 days apart between each session. To ensure there is no experimenter bias during conducting the program, two independent observers attended the training sessions to evaluate the training process. The observers were colleges' professors whom had extensive experiences in conducting trainings. They filled in a training evaluation form with 10-points Likert scales to determine if the training was conducted in neutral manners, complied with the steps set out in the module content and the instructor was in no way tried to force positive results on the participants during each sessions.

The training module has been developed based on the current emotional-related training literatures. It focused on the development of the *perception of emotion, managing own emotion, managing others emotion, utilization of emotion, self-regulation* and *internal motivation*. Most of the targeted dimensions were based on the Goleman's model of EI.

2.5 Post-test

After the training has completed, the participants were retested for their SM using the MSI to measure the differences between the pre-test and post-test results.

3. Analysis and Results

The independent and paired sample t-test was used to determine the tested variables' mean scores difference between the pre- and post-test of the experimental group and control group. The data were analysed in SPSS v. 19 (Window 7). The effect size was compute using the Cohen's (1988) d-value to determine the significance of the result. The Cohen's d greater than .2 is small, 0.5 is medium, and 0.8 is a large effect size.

The results of the paired sample t-test on the experimental group and control group with regard to the MSI presented in Table 1 showed mixed results.

The mean score for the total SM scores in experimental group showed significant differences with mean score increased by 0.21 ($t = -2.051, p < 0.05$), IP mean score increased by 0.34 ($t = -2.21, p < 0.05$), SCI mean score increased by 0.34 ($t = -2.87, p < 0.05$), and GI mean score increased by 0.22 ($t = -2.65, p < 0.05$). Medium effect size were found for all these three scores; IP ($d = 0.64$), SCI ($d = 0.71$) and GI ($d = 0.71$). However, the INS and SCE mean score did not show any significant differences. These results suggest that the H₂ could only be partially supported as significant increase was seen only on IP, SCI and GI mean scores in the experimental group after the training.

Table 1. Paired sample t-test for the pre-test and post-test scores of self-motivation in the experimental group and control group

	Experimental Group (n = 40)				Control Group (n = 40)			
	Pre-test Mean (SD)	Post-test Mean (SD)	t (df = 29)	Sig. (2-tailed)	Pre-test Mean (SD)	Post-test Mean (SD)	t (df = 29)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total SM	3.62 (.36)	3.83 (.36)	-2.051	.049**	3.60 (.36)	3.60 (.33)	-.01	.990**
IP	3.42 (.69)	3.76 (.48)	-2.21	.035**	3.39 (.68)	3.39 (.67)	.00	1.000**
INS	3.68 (.65)	3.73 (.69)	-.29	.777**	3.68 (.60)	3.64 (.62)	.29	.775**
SCE	3.26 (.65)	3.34 (.60)	-.45	.659**	3.26 (.61)	3.22 (.66)	.29	.774**
SCI	3.88 (.48)	4.22 (.44)	-2.87	.008**	3.83 (.50)	3.90 (.46)	-.61	.544**
GI	3.84 (.39)	4.06 (.25)	-2.65	.013**	3.82 (.40)	3.84 (.36)	-.20	.843**

Note: ** Significant level $p < 0.05$

4. Discussion

Through this study, the effect of 18-hour emotional competency development program conducted on leaders' SM showed mixed results. Researchers have found links between the emotional aspects of human being and their motivation (Christie et al., 2007; McClelland, 1987; Zurbriggen & Sturman, 2013). This discovery might open the possibility that emotional related training could have an effect on individual's SM. Thus, H₂ was tested to evaluate the effect of the emotional competency development program on leaders' SM. Findings showed mixed results for the effectiveness of the emotional competency development program in increasing the leaders' SM scores for the studied dimension. The findings seem to indicate that there were some positive effect from the training to the leaders' SM for the subscales of *intrinsic process*, *self-concept internal* and *goal internalization*. These three sources are categorized as the intrinsic motivation as it depends on internal sources of motivation. However, the findings fail to show significant improvement on leaders' external motivational sources of *instrumental* and *self-concept external* from the emotional competency development program.

The reason for the increased in the participants' intrinsic motivation might due to the increase in the participants' EC that in a way might has manage to tapped into the participants intrinsic motivational aspects. An explanation of this relationship could be linked to the Goleman's and Dulewiz and Higgs's model of EC that includes motivation as part of EC. Goleman (1995) subsumed motivation in the self-management clusters, while, Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) labelled motivation as drives in their EI model. Hence, it is not surprising when many other links were found between the EI component and motivation by other researchers. For instance, Goleman (1998) suggests that individual will find it easier to develop motivational competencies such as initiative and drives if they are capable of regulating their own emotion. Additionally, studies found that the achievement of needs (*self-concept internal*) is related to the regulation of emotion, while, the affiliation needs (*self-concept external*) is related to appraisal of emotion (Christie et al., 2007). Also, worth noting is that, individual intrinsic motivation were found to be affected by their self-worth and affective disposition (Ohtani & Nakaya, 2011; Sutin & Robins, 2005). This suggests that there is some linkage between emotion and motivation.

Looking at McClelland's (1987) work, he believed the linkage between motivation and emotion derives from certain incentive and affective reactions that we have been exposed to since infancy. For instance, when a child does good things or achieve something remarkable, their parents will hug them. This feeling of loving and affections somehow created a motivation for this kid to keep on performing better. In contrast, the fear of being rejected, or fear of failure will cause them to stay away from negative things. For instance, a child who has been scolded by the parents for doing something wrong would tend to avoid doing the things that will cause the same reaction. Indeed, positive affect were found to foster intrinsic motivation (Isen & Reeve, 2005). Additionally, the links between emotions and motives has also seen in leaders, where EC competencies were found to be facilitating the inspirational motivation (Leban & Zulauf, 2004). For instance, individuals with high intrinsic motivational attributes may not be motivated to do their tasks if they are feeling emotionally down. Positive emotion, on the other hand does foster the motivation to do tasks efficiently and increase the sense of responsibility in individuals (Isen & Reeve, 2005). This cause and effect reaction between emotion and motivation might have explained the increase in part of participants' SM in this study.

Additionally, the training modules that were focused on participant's own strength, abilities and guides given on increasing own optimism and self-worth (*managing own emotion* and *utilization of emotion*) during the training might have caused an increase in the participants self-esteem and positive affect, and thus increased their intrinsic motivation. Supporting this, it was found that SM could be developed by teaching individual to direct their behaviour towards their desired goals by using behavioural techniques such as self-monitoring, goal setting and self-reinforcement that is used during the training session in this study (Frayne & Geringer, 2000).

The findings also highlight the difference of effect from the emotional competency development program on the two types of motivation, which is the extrinsic and the intrinsic motivation. Only the internal sources of motivation yielded significant results, while both of the external motivation sources failed to show any significant effect from the training. The possible explanation for the differences is that the increase in intrinsic motivation might have outgrown the extrinsic motivation in leaders. External motivation is the type of motivation that depends on outward or material stimuli to be motivated. Studies showed that the extrinsic motivation, which is the use of external stimuli may erode the intrinsic motivation in individuals (Christ, Emett, Summers, & Wood, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2000). When intrinsic motivation is developed, the extrinsic motivation will be no longer be overcrowding the individuals' motivation. Thus, this might explains the increase in intrinsic motivation but not in the extrinsic motivation.

In summary, the findings from this study shows that the emotional competency development program has managed to develop the participants' SM. The increase in intrinsic motivation has masked down the extrinsic motivation, causing no significant changes in the extrinsic motivation.

4.1 Implication

There are few implications from this study; first, the used of pre-test and post-test experimental research with experimental and control group, and the use of real leaders in the workplace, instead of using students sample may provide a more valid empirical findings as compared to studies conducted to university's students.

Second, it is important to note that based on the researcher investigation, no other research has been found to examine the effect of emotional-related training on SM. Thus, this study might be the first to explore the possibility of developing leaders' SM using the emotional training. Although further research is needed, the emotional competency development program may have the possibility to develop leaders' intrinsic motivation. This promising finding might saves organizational training cost by providing only one comprehensive emotional competency development program instead of using two separate EI and motivation training to develop leaders' EC and SM.

In conclusion, this study might contribute new data and empirical proofs to respond to the lack of research and information in motivational development in leaders. The significance of this study is in the researcher's attempt to produce useful knowledge regarding the emotional competency development program on leaders and on how it will affect their motivational behaviour. It may have proved that emotional competency development program could be useful to yield favourable results such as developing leaders' SM.

4.2 Limitation

Although careful measures have been taken to ensure a strong study, there were still some limitations to this study. First, this experimental research is conducted in the real organization, using real leaders. Thus, the sample size used for this study is limited as only the minimum number of participants was allowed to be used by the organization. Using larger number of participants might have increased the statistical power of this study. Second, the use of the self-report measures might have affected the results of this study. These self-report measures are generally more lenient than the observers' measures. Using other type of measures such as the observer's measure might have yielded different results.

4.3 Recommendation

Although this study has been able to reach some conclusion about the effectiveness of the emotional competency development program in increasing leaders' intrinsic motivation, it also raises some concerns that could be further explored in future research. First, more information on the links between EC and SM should be gathered. Studies that are more comprehensive should be conducted to investigate which EC dimension affects which SM dimension and how each of these dimensions affects the others. Secondly, the future research could replicate this study by using different measurement instruments such as the observer's measures to see if the results would be the same as in this study.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study suggests that emotional competency development program does produce significant improvement to the leaders' interestingly, only intrinsic motivation showed significant improvement, while the extrinsic motivation did not show any significant changes. This may have provided some insight on the relationship of the emotional and motivational aspects of human being. Furthermore, this study is the first study that simultaneously evaluates the effect of emotional competency development program on leaders' SM. Thus, it may provide not only the understanding on the effectiveness of the emotional competency development program on leaders' SM. This might provide some theoretical and practical benefits to the field of leadership development, human resources management and organizational psychology as a whole. Although further research is needed to gather more information on these areas, the researcher believed that this study has provided some contribution with valid empirical findings for the use of future studies.

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Relation between Conditional and Unconditional Conservatism with Investment Opportunities

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Abstract

One of the effective factors on economical growth and development is efficient investment and one of the effective factors on efficient investment is conservatism; therefore, the target for this study is to investigate the relation between conditional and unconditional conservatism & investment opportunities which is surveyed by screening 122 samples between 2009-2013 in accepted companies by stock exchange in Tehran.

This study is a practical research which is based on inductive-apriority reasoning. The nature and content of research method is related to correlation and for finding this correlation between variables, we shall use ego-event style. with refer to the analyze done on results, this study shows that there is a direct and significant relation between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities, but no significant relation can be found between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

Keywords: conservatism, conditional conservatism, unconditional conservatism, investment opportunities

1. Introduction

This study is about conservatism policies and investment opportunities in future. Based on Basu's hypotheses (1997) accounting conservatism is used as an identification factor of profit and loss with one asymmetric degree which shows that loss (bad news) was more than profit (good news) during the time of investigation.

Different studies in the past defined that accounting conservatism in the market with high debts as a factor which shows the amount of loss during the time, can be an important mechanism for protecting lender's benefits, while the profit of conservatism policy in the market with fair rules have been less investigated.

Management greed which, in spite of company's income, leads to a growth in agency costs and a reduction in investment opportunities can be decreased by accounting conservatism policy since this policy encourages managers to report all the loss their companies are facing immediately. These findings may cause another uncertainty. It is possible that accounting conservatism increases investment opportunities (or the opportunities for its growth) which includes a vast area of each company's value and?. The value of each company includes the value of its properties and its investment opportunities (Mayers, 1997).

One of the effective factors on optimum investment is conservatism. With respect to the informative role of conservatism, it seems that this factor leads to a better supervision on management investment decisions by decreasing investments where managers intend to invest more than enough and this leads to easy access to cheap external financial security through increasing investment where managers intend for less investment (Garcia Lara & coworkers, 2010).

This study is based on the fact that whenever asymmetry between partners in a company and its manager, which is titled as loss "bad news" decreases, this fact will be quickly recognized in accounting reports which causes more investment opportunities for that company.

Basu's regression flow (1997) has an 8 year old reverse window and variable representatives for showing investment opportunities (from market to stocks, from incomes to prices, geometric growth of the average value of assets, variance on the value of assets in the market and total measurements) have been used consequently to measure conservatism levels and the value of investment opportunities in the future.

The fact which values this study is having the first ranking level for proving the effect of accounting

conservatism on investment opportunities of the company. Its result for showing the role of investment policy information in decreasing agency's costs in balanced market, its coordination with Laford & Watts works (2008) and using evidence which approves changes in Backblaze, Watts, Hussain, Ahmed & Godfrees' discoveries about the facts which lead to investment opportunities in each company.

Eventually, the main question in this study is whether there is a relation between conservatism (conditional & unconditional) and investment opportunities in companies which are accepted by stock exchange in Tehran.

Since the relation between conditional and unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities in Iran among approved companies by stock exchange has not been studied till now and due to the investigations and limitations related to this study, it is among those which completes previous investigations in Iran and the necessity of this study in related field is realized; therefore, in this research, we shall investigate the relation between conditional and unconditional conservatism & investment opportunities in accepted companies by stock exchange in Tehran.

Considering the literature review of this subject, till now, direct relation between conditional and unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities in accepted companies by stock exchange has not been investigated in our country. due to studies done and existing limitations about this case, such research would be a complement for previous researches which have been done in Iran and the necessity of doing this study is strongly recognizes; therefore, the main target for this study would be investigating the relation between conditional and unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities in accepted companies by stock exchange in Tehran.

Generally, this study can be used in practical sections of stock exchange in Tehran and accepted companies in this section. Also, company managers, investors, researchers and students can utilize it.

2. Theoretical Background and Literature Review

Based on agency hypotheses, when the managers have useful information about beneficial investment opportunities, they might stop following these opportunities because of moral hazards which are caused due to ownership of cash money by the managers of the company, short sight and choosing inappropriate plans and also shortage of the availability of cash money due to costly external financial support (Garcia Lara & Coworkers).

It seems that conservatism will decrease the problems caused by inappropriate selection and improvement of investment policies in the company by developing easy access to foreign funds and decreasing the cost of these funds. Controlling role of conservatism will help board of managers and other governmental departments to prevent destroying strategies such as manager's imperial acts. Conservatism limits the manipulation of accounting by management through showing other information and developing on time messages in company's ruling system so this item will help the managers make easier investment decisions after events happened in this regard.

As per Bal and Shiva Kumar (2005) managers are concerned about the earning effects of their investment decisions during their term time which they are unable to transfer to next managers. This issue will limit investments on valuable plans with negative value at the time being and leads to early decision making according to weak plans and deterrent strategies for investing on on-the -run plans. In addition, it seems that conservatism will lead to easier attraction of foreign payments with lower price and decrease investment problems. Accounting conservatism will lead to easier access to debts with low risk and therefore, decreases the negative effects caused by a huge volume of debts through efficient investment. Conservatism mostly decreases investment costs. Seems that this decrease in investment and debt costs will cause easier investment process (Garcia Lara & Coworkers).

Accounting Standards Board (ASB) has added conservatism to hierarchy of quality characteristics of information. In 2006, international ASB and American ASB published their joint article about theoretical framework of financial reporting. The target of this article was to bring theoretical framework of FASB & IASB together. Neutrality is one of the fair characteristics of financial information from this committee's point of view which consists of unwillingness to recognize the result of happenings before they even happen or obtaining specific behaviors regarding these happenings.

Joint committee has brought out accounting conservatism from her qualitative characteristics of her financial report which might be because of the conflict between accounting conservatism and neutrality.

Watts and Zimmerman (1986) defined conservatism as follows: "Conservatism means that the accountant must report the least value in between properties and the most value in between debts. Income must be recognized the latter and cost the sooner".

Conditional conservatism has been brought up as an important aspect of conservatism for the first time by Basu

(1997). Main motivation for unconditional conservatism was the difficulty of estimating properties and debts and main motivation of conditional conservatism is to neutralize managers' motivations to report the accounting information with upward bias while inappropriate events happen.

There are mutual motivations also between these two types of conservatism. For example, investors' asymmetric loss function will lead to less interests from profits and more damages from loss with similar importance. These two have similar meaning and the most important of those would be excess net market value than their book value.

Beaver and Ryan indicated that pre-event conservatism in earlier periods would be the pre-performance of post-event conservatism. This means that if a company has pre-event situation in spending money in a conservatism period, nothing in its balance sheet will be reported for development in future in order to be decreased in response to bad news in future. In easier words, if pre-event conservatism was lead to non-recognition of a property in previous periods, its sequent bad news cannot be recognized in the profit of current period. In return, assume that a company does not have any pre-event conservatism and records some expenses as properties in a period of time. So increase in one of future periods, bad news happen for this property, it is expected that due to accounting depreciation of properties, post-event conservatism shall be observed (Pae & Jinhan).

Bigley and coworkers (2014) have investigated accounting conservatism in private companies in their study. They were trying to find accounting conservatism in companies by choosing a sample consists of 21459 Italian companies related to sealed ones in years 1998-2006 which were matched with main theories of properties instruction and financial supports. The results of this study show that conservative private companies have more intangible properties and less tangible ones. They have less effective tax rate and they follow the financial hypotheses of "Pecking Order". Also, the results show that conservative companies proceed to increase their cash money and financial leverage before investigating.

Naveenpridit and coworkers (2013) have investigated accounting conservatism policy and investment opportunities in future among Thai companies between 2005 to 2011. Since asymmetry between shareholders out of a company and its managers might damage company's values and its investment opportunities, accounting conservatism policy has been negotiated to decrease this asymmetry. The results indicate that accounting conservatism policy depends on the stability of investment opportunities in future in a positive way and this is because of its informative role in decreasing agency's costs.

Ruch and Taylor (2011) have investigated conservative accounting and its effects on the quality of accounting reports in their study. They have studied many researches about accounting conservatism and faced different results about its usefulness in promoting the quality of financial statements. One of these results is that accounting conservatism by creating accounting supplements, like doubtful receivable demands, causes profit for management, but on the other hand they realized that conservatism will lead to a decrease in information asymmetry and improvement in accounting information disclosure. The results of their study show that accounting conservatism can be used as a conventional mechanism to prevent conflict creation in interests between managers and shareholders and also, shareholders and creditors.

Garcia Lara and coworkers (2010) have investigated conditional conservatism and the efficiency of investment in companies and they found a negative relation between conditional conservatism and exorbitance and non-exorbitance investment and also, they found a positive relation between conservatism and future profit of company. Hence, the more a company is conservative, the more effective will be its investment and the more profitable will be its plans. The results of this study will be joined to a series of studies which believe to the fact that the elimination of conservatism from accounting adjustment framework might lead to undesirable economical consequences.

MaTao (2011) has studied the effects of accounting conservatism on investment motivations by managers. The result showed a negative relation between conservatism and company's investment and future operational performance for companied with financial limits. This negative correlation between investment and conservatism can be justified literary.

Conservatism can lead to inappropriate motivation related to management investment and they might withdraw accepting projects with positive net present value. Also, empirical evidence shows that this negative output fluctuation and short duty period of executive managers (CFO) is more evident.

3. Research Hypotheses

The research theories based on theatrical literature and their purpose described as below:

First hypotheses: there is a meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

Second hypotheses: there is a meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

4. Research Methodology

The method in this research is correlated. This research is applicative by aiming and its performance is in framework of inductive-deductive reasoning. It means theoretical foundations and research literature review codified in the framework of deductive reasoning, and through studies in library, articles and using sites. Gathering information in order to accept or reject of theories is codified by inductive reasoning.

Research method with both nature and content of a research is a kind of solidarity which operates for discovery of the solidarity between variables as subsequent method.

This current research is a kind of researching and it is applicative research by aiming view which use from real information and statistics different methods in order to reject or accept for theories and is classified in demonstrability hypotheses row.

Needed real data will gathered by real data of companies in Tehran stock exchange in this research. Screening (omissive) model will be used in this research for a sample. And, companies will be selected as a statistical sample, if they have the below conditions:

1. End of fiscal year should be eventuated on 19th march.
2. During the overviewed (checking) period will not have fiscal year changes. (2009-2013)
3. Financial information should be available.
4. It should not be the component of broking, finance, investing, monetary institution, banking and holding companies.
5. Needed information should be available in definition of variables.

Considering above conditions and limitations, totally 122 companies has been selected as a research statistic sample among accepted companies in Tehran Stock Exchange.

4.1 Model and Research Variables

Investment means sacrificing any values at a moment (which is usually clear) in order to acquire any values in future hopefully. An investment opportunity is doing any kinds of expenses which help to achieve progress and development according to company discretion.

Investment opportunity is obtained as below:

$$\text{Investment opportunity} = \frac{\text{Total stock owners law market value} + \text{long term debts book value}}{\text{Total company opportunity}}$$

Conditional conservatism is depending on news or time asymmetry in profits identification. It means identifying the losses in time whenever there are bad and inappropriate news, and also, lack of profit recognition when there is good and appropriate news. This kind of conservatism is named profit and loss conservatism because, it effects on profit and loss (Basu, 1997).

Unconditional conservatism is the same before arrival conservatism or independent of news. With using this kind of accounting standards reduce benefit like independent of current economic news since this conservatism is more affected on balance sheet conservatism (Basu, 1997).

Payable dividend yield is obtained as below:

$$\text{Payable dividend yield is obtained as below} = \frac{\text{divisional profit}}{\text{Number of normal stock}}$$

Cash stock represents the ability of rapid exchange and top volume of stock with low expense and without significant effectively (Liu, 2006).

Profitability ratio is profit ratio before deduction of interest, tax and depreciation into book value of total property.

Firm size is tantamount with book value of natural logarithm of total property.

Advertising and selling expenses of a company (i) in fiscal year (t)

Model (1): There is a meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ISO}_{i,t} = & \alpha_{i,t} + \alpha \text{CONC}_{i,t} + \alpha_2 \text{DIVPAY}_{i,t} + \alpha_3 \text{STKLIQ}_{i,t} \\ & + \alpha_4 \text{PROFIT}_{i,t} + \alpha_5 \text{SIZE}_{i,t} + \alpha_6 \text{ADVER}_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Therefore, the model components are as below:

- 1- ISO investment opportunities
- 2- CONC conditional conservatism
- 3- DIVPAY Payable dividend yield
- 4- STKLIQ cash stock
- 5- PROFIT Profitability ratio
- 6- SIZE firm size
- 7- ADVER Advertising and selling expenses

Conditional conservatism is used as criterion of Khan and Watts conditional conservatism (2009) expletive of the Basu model (1997) in order to measuring the conditional conservatism level in any of company year. C-SCORE Criterion is calculated as below:

$$X_{j,t} : \beta_1 + \beta_2 D_{j,t} + \beta_3 R_{j,t} + \beta_4 D_{j,t} + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

$X_{j,t}$ is operating profit after deduction of financial expenses fall to capital market value.

R is company stock yield at the end of fiscal year

D is virtual variable if it is $R_{j,t} < 0$ so it is equal to 1, otherwise; it would be equal to zero.

β_3 criterion when it carries good news.

β_4 criterion when bad news have priority rather than good (conservatism).

$$G - SCOR : \beta_3_{j,t} = U_1 + U_2 MKV_{j,t} + U_3 MB_{j,t} + U_4 LEV_{j,t} \quad (3)$$

$$C - SCORE : \beta_4_{j,t} = a_1 + a_2 MKV_{j,t} + a_3 MB_{j,t} + a_4 LEV_{j,t} \quad (4)$$

In the mentioned relationships:

G- SCOR criterion when it carries good news.

C- SCORE criterion when bad news have priority rather than good (conservatism).

MB progress opportunity

LEV financial lever

MKV company stock owners law market value (J) during fiscal year (t)

Relationship (5) is obtained with inserting relationship (2) and (3) in relationship (1)

$$\begin{aligned} X_{j,t} : & b_1 + b_2 D_{j,t} + \left(\frac{U_1 + U_2 MKV_{j,t}}{+ U_3 MB_{j,t} + U_4 LEV_{j,t}} \right) R_{j,t} + \left(\frac{a_1 + a_2 MKV_{j,t}}{+ a_3 MB_{j,t} + a_4 LEV_{j,t}} \right) * D_{j,t} * R_{j,t} \\ & + \left(\frac{b_1 MKV_{j,t} + a_2 MB_{j,t} + a_3 LEV_{j,t}}{+ b_4 D_{j,t} MKV_{j,t} + a_5 MB_{j,t} + a_6 LEV_{j,t}} \right) + e \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Model (2): This model is the same as the model one that name is Khan & Watts. There is a meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ISO}_{i,t} = & \alpha_{i,t} + \alpha \text{UNCONC}_{i,t} + \alpha_2 \text{DIVPAY}_{i,t} + \alpha_3 \text{STKLIQ}_{i,t} \\ & + \alpha_4 \text{PROFIT}_{i,t} + \alpha_5 \text{SIZE}_{i,t} + \alpha_6 \text{ADVER}_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

F limer & hausman test

This search according mentioned reason in 3 rd. season is mix search kind, but estimate way (combine, board) should be defined before models estimation. So, it is used with F limer test. For those observation that their probability of test is more than 5%, on the other hands, their statistic of test is less than schedule statistic, is use mix way and for those observations that their probability of test is less than 5%, it is used board model. This board way has two models: one is accident work and stable work, and with using Housman test, you can determine which way should be used. Those observations that their probability of test is less than 5%, used stable work and for those observation that their probability of test is more than 5%, used accident work in estimate.

As below table, the possibility of F Limer in two models is less than 5%, so for estimating of two models use board way and considering Hausman test probability of each models is less than 5%, has used stable way for their estimation.

Flimer and Hausman test results

Result	Probability	Statistic	Test	Model
Board way	0.0000	6.0639	F limer	first
Stable way	0.0000	147.2864	Hausman	
Board way	0.0000	5.9049	F limer	second
Stable way	0.0000	100.3739	Hausman	

4.2 Test Result of Research Theories

First hypotheses: there is meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities. This hypothesis is enlisted by offered results in table number (1) in order to a test. Odds amount (or meaningful level) F is equal to zero. Since the level is less than 0.05, zero assumption will be rejected in assurance level of %95, it means meaningful model. Method amount of Watson's camera is 1.91. So, this amount indicates the absence of correlation because the number is in interval of 1.5 up to 2.5 so in this case we can use regression. Factor of damping determination is equal to 0.869 in this hypotheses which is described around %87 of variable changes depend on via independent variables and model control.

Since there is possibility that method (t) would be less than 0.05 for factor of conditional conservatism variable (0.0001), as a result, it will confirm existence of meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities in assurance level 95%. Being positive for the ratio of this variable (0.000680) represents the existence of a straight relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities. According to above cases, we can call the first hypotheses of research as confirmed one. It means that there is meaningful and positive relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities, in other words, if conditional conservatism will be increased, investment opportunities will be increased, too and on the contrary.

Table 1. First model estimation results

Variables	Estimate Factor	Standard Error	Method (t)	Supposition
	2.682129	0.180168	14.88678	0.0000
conditional conservatism	0.000680	0.000175	3.892401	0.0001
payable dividend yield	1.93E-05	2.06E-05	0.936679	0.3493
cash stock	0.448903	0.045866	9.787265	0.0000
profitability ratio	0.002500	0.003736	0.669088	0.5037
Firm size	-0.146869	0.014389	-10.20729	0.0000
advertising and selling expenses	0.091842	0.067379	1.363052	0.1734
factor of determination		0.892		
factor of damping determination		0.869		
camera- Watson		1.91		
method F		39.1802		
odds (method F)		0.0000		

Second hypotheses: there is a meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities.

In order to a test, this hypothesis will be availed by the estimated result of second hypotheses. Odds amount (or meaningful level) F is equal to zero. Since the level is less than 0.05, zero assumption will be rejected in assurance level of 95% that it means meaningful model. Method amount of Watson's camera is 1.89. So, this amount indicates the absence of correlation because the number is in interval of 1.5 up to 2.5 so in this case we can use regression. Factor of damping determination is equal to 0.854 in this hypotheses which is described around 85% of variable changes depend on via independent variables and model control.

Since there is possibility that method (t) would be more than 0.05 for factor of unconditional conservatism variable (0.5209), as a result, it will not confirm existence of meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities in assurance level 95%. According to above cases, we cannot call the second hypotheses of research as confirmed one. It means that there is meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities in this sample.

Table 2. Second model estimation results

Variables	Estimate Factor	Standard Error	Method t	Supposition
	2.555933	0.227889	11.21569	0.0000
unconditional conservatism	0.022618	0.035216	0.642270	0.5209
payable dividend yield	2.97E-05	1.57E-05	1.894689	0.0586
cash stock	0.430188	0.037368	11.51207	0.0000
profitability ratio	0.022688	0.038770	0.585196	0.5586
Firm size	-0.137609	0.016696	-8.241796	0.0000
advertising and selling expenses	0.061269	0.061059	1.003439	0.3161
factor of determination		0.879		
factor of damping determination		0.854		
camera- Watson		1.89		
method F		34.7737		
odds (method F)		0.0000		

5. Discussion and Conclusion

One of the effective factors on optimized investment is conservatism. According to role of information conservatism, it seems that conservatism cause to improvement in supervision on management investment decisions by reducing investment when managers desire to invest overly. Also, it causes to simple accessibility of cheap and foreign financial security by increasing investment when managers desire to invest lower than usual. (Garcia Lara and colleagues, 2010)

This research is brought the relation of conservatism politics and investment opportunities in research future. Based on Basu's hypotheses (1997), accounting conservatism is as an identification factor of profit and loss with a asymmetrical degree and it is recognized that loss (bad news) is more than profit (good news) in selected companies reports after a long time. Different studies in the past confirm that accounting conservatism in markets with a high debt as a level index of loss in a long time can be a significant mechanism in order to protecting lenders interests (profits), while, the advantages of conservatism politic in markets with fair rules is checking lower. Extra-wanting in management which is in return of any company income causes increasing agencies expense and reducing any company investment opportunity, can be reduced by politics of accounting conservatism. Because this politics encourages managers to give fast report about their companies losses. This discoveries cause to create doubt in other whether accounting conservatism will increase future investment opportunities of a company (or growth opportunities of a company) which is as a great part of any company value? Any company value is including both properties value and investment opportunities of that company (Myers, 1977).

The method in this research is correlated. This research is applicative by aiming and its performance is in

framework of inductive-deductive reasoning.

Therefore, the main target in the research is study between conditional and unconditional conservatism with investment opportunities in accepted companies in Tehran stock exchange.

5.1 Test Result of Research First Hypotheses

As observe in the table, possibility value (P-Value) of any variables is lower than 0.05. So, research variables are in assurance level of 95% from stability. Moreover, according to the table, possibility of F Limer is lower than 5% for the first research model. So, it will be used by panel method for estimating model. If the possibility would be lower than 5% according to Hasman test, it will be used by random effects for estimating model. According to the table, the results about the factor of determination indicate that almost 87% of dependent variable changes are described by independent variables and model control. In the meaningful study about factors and according to the offered results in table, since method possibility (t) is lower than 0.05 for conditional conservatism variable factor, as a result, it will be confirmed the meaning relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunity in assurance level of 95%, so, the first hypotheses of research is accepted. Also, we can say there is a meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunity surely about 95%. Since the factor of variable is positive (0.000680), it indicates a straight relationship between conditional conservatism and companies investment opportunity. The resulting about the first hypotheses is corresponded with the result of Garsialla and colleague's research (2010) and Matao (2011).

5.2 Test Result of Research Second Hypotheses

As observe in the table, possibility value (P-Value) of any variables is lower than 0.05. So, research variables are in assurance level of 95% from stability. Moreover, according to the table, possibility of F Limer is lower than 5% for the second research model. So, it will be used by panel method for estimating model. If the possibility would be lower than 5% according to Hasman test, it will be used by random effects for estimating the second model. According to the table, the results about the factor of determination indicate that almost 85% of dependent variable changes are described by independent variables and model control. In the meaningful study about factors and according to the offered results in table, since method possibility (t) is more than 0.05 for unconditional conservatism variable factor, as a result, it will not be confirmed the meaning relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunity in assurance level of 95%. The resulting about the second hypotheses is not corresponded with the result of Matao research (2011).

5.3 Suggestions Based on Research Theories

Based on final result of the first hypotheses in this research (there is a meaningful relationship between conditional conservatism and investment opportunities). Standards drafters can employ investment opportunities, deciding about standards codification in details, investors in their investment decisions by effecting of conditional conservatism. Also, company managers and Exchange Organization can have a profound perception by considering companies situation and the effects of conditional conservatism on investment.

Based on final result of the second hypotheses in this research (there is a meaningful relationship between unconditional conservatism and investment opportunities). Standards drafters cannot employ investment opportunities, deciding about standards codification in details, investors in their investment decisions by effecting of unconditional conservatism.

5.4 Suggestion for Future Researches

Studding information asymmetry affection on investing opportunities.

Affection of conditional conservatism and unconditional conservatism on extra investing.

Since the limited period information is 2009-2013, it is possible that if time period increase, research result will be changed. So we suggest to do the research in future time period and compare with this results.

Since financial broking firms do not considered in this research, it would be better to do the research on financial broking and compare with this result

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Refrens of data companies

COMPANY	Number	COMPANY	Number	COMPANY	Number
Roz daro	51	Pashme shishe Iran	26	Iran argham	1
Rekhete gari teraktor	52	Pegah khorasan	27	Iran teransfo	2
Reing sazi mashhad	53	Tamin mase	28	Iran khodro	3
Zamiad	54	Taed vater khavar miyane	29	Iran khodro dezal	4
Saze poyesh	55	Tajhizate sadid	30	Iran daro	5
Salmin	56	Tekartor sazi	31	Iran merinosh	6
Saipa	57	Tekno tar	32	Airkab	7
Saipa azin	58	Jam daro	33	Absal	8
Saipa dezal	59	Chini iran	34	Abgine	9
Saipa shishe	60	Hamlo naghle toka	35	Azarab	10
Seramik ardakan	61	Khako chini iran	36	Artavil taer	11
Sarma afarin	62	Khadamate anformatik	37	Alo matag	12
Somome alaf kosh	63	Khadamate keshavarzi	38	Alo morad	13
Simane esfahan	64	Dade pardazi iran	39	Ahangari teraktor	14
Simane arta Ardebil	65	Daro aborihan	40	Bama	15
Simane Tehran	66	Daro osve	41	Behnosh	16
Simane darab	67	Daro amin	42	Gorgi	17
Simane sepahan	68	Daro damlarane razak	43	Pars pamchal	18
Simane shahrod	69	Daro razak	44	Pars khazar	19

Simane shomal	70	Daro zahravi	45	Pars khodro	20
Simane mazandaran	71	Daro abidi	46	Pars soeich	21
Sina daro	72	Dari farabi	47	Petro shimi abadan	22
Shahd daro	73	Daro loghman	48	Petro shimi shiraz	23
Shahid ghandi	74	Daro sazi kosar	49	Petro shimi farabi	24
Shishe daroe razi	75	Dashte morghab	50	Pash bafi tos	25

COMPANY	Number	COMPANY	Number
Lente tormoz	101	Shishe ghazvin	76
Lole mashin sazi	102	Shishe gaz	77
Mehvar khodro	103	Shimi daro	78
Mehvar sazan	104	Saneye rikhte gari iran	79
Mes bahonar	105	Saneati barez	80
maeaden mangaze iran	106	Saneati botan	81
maedani amlahe iran	107	Saneati daryaei	82
Meli sorb va roy	108	Saneti sepahan	83
Mohandesi hamlo naghle pertoshimi	109	Faravarde tazrighi	84
Mohandesi firoza	110	Faravarde nasoz azar	85
Mavad daro pakhsh	111	Faravari mavade madani	86
Nasaji borojerd	112	Foreselise iran	87
Nasir mashin	113	Fanar sazi khavar	88
Nafte behran	114	Fanar sazi zar	89
Nefte pars	115	Folad amir kabir kashan	90
Navard alminium	116	Folad kavayan	91
Navar ghataeate foladi	117	Fiber iran	92
Noshe mazandaran	118	Ghand naghshhe jahan	93
Niro mohareke	119	Gaz lole	94
Niro teras	120	Gorohe bahma	95
Niro kolor	121	Gol gohar	96
Hepko	122	Lamp pars shahab	97
		Labaniate pak	98
		Labaniate kalber	99
		Laeabe iran	100

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Flood and Land Property Values

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Abstract

Flood disaster has become a natural concern to the land owners where it raised a critical issue in term of land value depreciation. Previous studies have discussed the issue of potential decline in the value of land which are located on the flood-liable area. However, in Malaysia, current studies on flood impact are considered limited and do not focus on the effects of flood on land property. With the Hedonic Pricing Model (HPM) approach, we investigate the effect of flood on agricultural and industrial land property values in the urban and rural areas in Malaysia. The analysis indicates that the agricultural and industrial land values in the urban and rural areas have significantly decreased due to flood events. This study will benefit the land owners to understand the flood impact on land value and also the factors that contribute to the loss in the land value. It becomes the responsibility of the land owner to put the asset and property to its best use, given the presence of the flood. In addition, this study will help the policy maker to design and allocate land development efficiently in the urban or rural areas for agricultural and industrial project to ensure depreciation value of the land is minimized in the case of flood.

Keywords: flood, hedonic price model, land property, valuation

1. Introduction

Flood is one of the natural disasters that have devastating effect on the economic loss and property damaged. Flood that comes to a piece of land property at random interval will destroy the capital and economic activity on the property will be interrupted. For example, the destruction of property and asset in a country that experienced major flooding takes a long time to recover and resulting in high repair cost. This may result in depreciation in property values. Therefore, the main responsibility of the landowner is to put the property and asset to its best use, given the occurrences of this flood. The consequences of flood on both society and properties differ depending on its attributes such as velocity, depth, frequency and duration (Queensland Floods Science, Engineering and Technology Panel, 2012). According to Bin and Polasky (2004) and Saptutyingsih and Suryanto (2010), the impacts of flood on property have been analysed from various aspects such as residential property value and land property value.

Past studies show that topic on flood disaster and residential property values have been explored by many researchers in the past studies. However, only a few studies have addressed on the effects of flood disaster on land property values. Part of the reason why this topic is less explored by researcher is because not easy to measure the value of land itself. According to Case (1994), most land is sold in combination with capital which makes the task of separating the land from the capital value is difficult. For example in the United States; all property taxes in the United States are levied on the combined value of land and capital. So there is no compelling reason for tax administrators to undertake to separate the two. Greenberg et al. (1974) and Damianos and Shabman (1976) are among the earliest researchers who study the impact of floods on the land price. Other researchers such as Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) and Saptutyingsih and Suryanto (2010) have analysed the relationship between flood event and land value in Asia such as Tokai in Japan and Yogyakarta in Indonesia. All these studies attempted to focus on the indirect impact of flood disaster based on single occurred event. For example Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) analyse the effect of flood on land prices based on case study of Tokai flood had happened in September 2000. They found that flood has effect on the land prices.

Malaysia faces frequent flood event every year where most of the peninsular states experienced flood occurrence

during the periodic monsoon seasons. Even though flood events in Malaysia are not being classified as extreme flood disaster, but the yearly flood occurrence have affected the population and caused damage to the properties. Many studies have been done on flood in Malaysia such as Chan (1996 and 1997). However these studies do not focus on the effect of flood on land property values. In Malaysia, existing studies have focused on the disaster management aspect involving flood risk and flood hazard management including level of understanding and policy regulation practiced (Chan, 1996), causes and solution (Chan, 1997), and health preparedness (Singh & Subramaniam, 2009),

Besides that, literature related to Hedonic Pricing Model and its application to the property research in Malaysia is considered limited and does not incorporate flood. To date, studies on flood and land property in Malaysia using Hedonic Pricing Model remain unexplored. Hence, it becomes an interesting issue to see whether there are differences in the effects of flood on the value of land property in the rural and urban areas in Malaysia. This study contributes on predicting the value of agricultural and industrial land property in the urban and rural areas which influenced the land owner to ensure the good use of land even though it is in the flood prone area or flood free area. Besides that, it also contributes towards new perspective on the property literature regarding the impact of flood in Malaysia whereby the application of Hedonic Pricing Model is integrated into the effect of flood on land value.

Hence, the main objective of this paper is to determine the effect of flood, measured by flood duration, on the land property values in the urban and rural areas. By using Hedonic Pricing Model (HPM) in estimating the flood impact on land value, this study could inform policy makers in efficiently designing and allocating property development for agricultural and industrial project to ensure that property loss is minimize in the case of flood.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section is the reviews of related literature on the effect of flood on land property values. Follow up with the section that explained the methodology applied in the study and the empirical results and discussion. Final section concludes and provides some recommendations.

2. Reviews of Relevant Literatures

The impact of flood on property values can be measured by flood depth, flood duration and flood frequency. Minnery and Smith (1996) suggested that flood depth significantly impact property damage. Therefore, it might also affect the property values as well; for example, minor flooding causes little damage on property. However if the water rises above the floor level, it might cause much damage and effect the property price sold in the flooded area. Similarly, Montz (1992a, 1992b) found that properties that were frequently hit by flood have its value reduced and experience a slow recovery in its sold price. Generally, properties which frequently experienced flooding tend to increase the perceived risk associated with the flooding. As a result, the property values significantly decline in value due to flood occurrence.

According to Eves (2004) and Saptutyningsih and Suryanto (2011), the existing literature shows that duration of flood is an important variable in studying the impact of flood on residential and land properties value. In the analysis of flood impact on residential property values, Eves (2004) and Soentato and Proverbs (2004) demonstrated that there is a negative relationship between duration of flood and house value. Usually, the longer the duration of flood, resulting in more decreased in property values. This is because, a greater amount of cost are needed for repairing works on the damage property in every time the flood hits. Similarly, studies regarding effect of flood on land price also used the flood duration characteristic. Saptutyningsih and Suryanto (2011) study the effect of flood on agricultural land property values in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. They found a negative relationship between flood duration and land price. The results show that the increase of time length of flood inundation by eight days will affect the price loses approximately at USD46.43.

Hedonic Pricing Model (HPM) and the repeat-sales method are the two approaches that have been used frequently to measure the value of property. They have been applied extensively in the Australia, Europe and the United States. For example, Palmquist and Danielson (1989) applied the HPM in their agricultural land studies in the United States, meanwhile Lamond, Proverbs and Antwi (2007) applied the repeat-sales method in their property studies in the United Kingdom. Even though both the HPM and repeat-sales method used to estimates property price to measure the value of property on particular attributes but the application of both methods differs.

Bailey, Muth and Nourse (1963) suggested that the repeat sales method is based on the price changes of property that have been sold more than once. The main advantage of the repeat-sales method is that the method requires less information and less costly (Shimizu, Takatsuji, & Nishimura, 2010). Besides that, the method can be used to control the property attributes that accurate measurement of property price could be measured. However,

according to Hensen (2006), it has been argued that the repeat-sales method tends to have a sampling bias issue. The difference in the property price movements between low cost and high cost properties will provide sample biased of overall property price changes. In addition, the different in characteristics between properties that were traded several times compared to a typical one can also contribute to the sample bias (Shimizu, Takatsuji and Nishimura, 2010). According to Dorsey et al. (2010) and Palmquist (1982), another weakness of the repeat-sales method is that the method can only measure a constant quality of property and cannot measure the price changes over different time period. Due to these limitations, researchers such as Harrison, Smersh and Schwartz (2001) prefer to apply HPM to estimate the property values.

According to Triplett (2004), HPM is more comprehensive and practical approach. The method can overcome the limitations in the repeat-sales methods. The primary advantage of the HPM is that all the available sales data can be used. Basically, HPM investigates the relationship between sale prices and property characteristics. Ridker and Henning (1967) were among the earliest researchers applying HPM in determining residential property price by investigating the relationship between environment attributes and property values. Later, Rosen (1974) and Freeman (1979) established the approach by estimating people's values for their conveniences on goods such as location and structural attributes.

Even though a few studies have addressed the flood impact on land property values, there are some of researcher who attempt to focus on applying HPM in analysing the connection between flood and land price. To date, studies have been applied HPM in agricultural land are such Miranowski and Hammes (1984) and Palmquist and Danielson (1989). They found that there will be declining in land price resulted from flood event. Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) and Saptutyingsih and Suryanto (2010) proposed HPM to measure the flood impact on land prices. Land prices are closely related to the infrastructure development, road width, distance to the nearest subway station, and the building-area and floor-area. Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) found that the land price in the flooded areas are lower and have less variance than the flood free area. Similar to this, Saptutyingsih and Suryanto (2010) studied the influence of flood disaster on land price changes in Yogyakarta, using the HPM. They found that the flood significantly reduces the land price.

3. Methodology

As discussed in the previous section, many researchers successfully implemented the HPM to investigate the effect of flood on land price changes. Based on the previous arguments, the HPM can be used to measure the effect of flood on land properties value. Therefore, this study's methodology builds on the existing literature dealing with the flood attributes by including a flood variable into the HPM. The HPM enables the possible influence of each attributes on the property price to be tested and analysed. There are many factors and attributes that influence the land property price. In this study, these factors and attributes are classified into flood (FLOOD), location (LOC), structural (STR) and neighbourhood (NGH) as shown in the Table 1. The functional form of the model explaining property price (P) using HPM is shown in Equation (1);

$$P = f (FLOOD, LOC, STR, NGH) \quad (1)$$

Selection of elements to be the factor for flood variable, location attributes, structural attributes and neighbourhood attributes are based on the review on the past relevant literature. It is important to look into the appropriateness of these elements to be applied and tested in Malaysia. This study proposed the semi-log functional form which is log-linear functional form because according to Basu and Thibodeau (1998), the semi-log functional form can be used to correct the heteroscedasticity problem between land price and the residuals. Hence, the final log-linear equation for this study is as in Equation (2);

$$\ln P_i = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_j DUR_{ij} + \sum \beta_u LOC_{iu} + \sum \beta_l STR_{il} + \beta_k NGH_{ik} + \mu_i \quad (2)$$

where P is a vector price for land property. The parameters to be estimated are $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ and ε is the random error term. For the log-transformed explanatory variables, the estimated coefficients measure the price elasticities with respect to a given variable.

DUR is the matrice of flood duration. As discussed in the previous section, the measurement unit used for DUR is hours. Meanwhile, LOC is the matrice of location attributes. For the location attributes, elements of distance to bus station and distance to city centre are used. The measurement unit for both elements is kilometers (km). This study examines whether the distance between agricultural and industrial land to the LOC attributes does affect the value of land. Based on Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) and Saptutyingsih and Suryanto (2011), the distance to the public transport such as subway station and bus station can be used as the factor elements for location attributes. This study used distance to the nearest bus station instead of subway station because in Malaysia, rapid mass transit facilities such as subway station are not available; meanwhile public transportation

such as bus is widely available throughout the country. The result can be either in positive or negative, for example Baldwin (2001) found that real estate which is situated near the transportation access lead to the higher value. Property price decreases with increasing distance from a bus station. Previous studies such as McCann (2001) and Fujita and Thisse (2002) found that distance to city centre has negative relationship with the property market values. The price of land is highest in the area city centre and decrease with every unit of distance from city.

STR is the matrice of structural attributes. Previous studies such as Maddison (2000) and Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) have shown that structural attributes are important determinants of the size of land and presence of infrastructure facilities. This study apply elements including size of land, presence of infrastructure facilities and telecommunication area as the elements in the structural attributes in determining the land property values in Malaysia. The measurement units for size of land is hactare. Meanwhile, the dummy variables for the presence of infrastructure facilities and telecommunication area, dummy equals one if the attributes presence and otherwise zero. Based on the review on previous literature, there is no study that examines the relationship between telecommunication area and land value. Thus, this study helps to fill this gap in the literature and contributes to the new knowledge on land property values. Maddison (2000) found a positive and significant relationship between property values and the land size. Increased in the size of land tends to have higher value. Meanwhile, the existing study on impact of infrastructure facilities and land value are scarce. In general, infrastructure is a basic facility that can be describes as road system or electricity that helps to run the development in the land area. Infrastructure is important for the economic development in any land such as residential, industrial and agricultural land. A study by Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003) found that infrastructure development and road system had positive relationship with the land value.

NGH is the matrice of neighbourhood attributes. Neighbourhood attributes represent the neighbourhood characteristic such as airports, hospitals, schools, recreational parks and rivers. This study used the distance of property area to the nearest airport and river as the factor elements and the measurement units are kilometers (km). This study evaluates whether the presence of airport and river near to the agricultural and industrial land areas might affect the land property values. Gautrin (1975) found that the land property values located near to the airport area tends to increase more rapidly compare to other area. Espey and Lopez (2000), however, found otherwise. The researchers reported that the land property closer to the airport have lower value than those farther away from it. However, there has been limited research on the impact of distance to the nearest river on agricultural land value. To date, there is lack of studies regarding the effect of distance to the nearest river or drainage on the land value. However, Saptutyningsih and Suryanto (2010) used the distance to river and drainage as important elements to include in the neighbourhood characteristic. Generally, the presence of river or drainage near the agricultural land becomes a major concern to the land owner. This is because, river and drainage play very important part in water cycle especially for farming and crops grown in agricultural land and orchid.

Based on the discussion, the suggested hypotheses and expected signs of the flood duration, location, structural and neighbourhood variables are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Expected sign of the coefficients

Variables	Element	Description	Expected Sign
Flood	DUR	Duration of flood (hours)	Negative
Location	BUS	Distance to the nearest bus station (km)	Positive/Negative
	CITY	Distance to the nearest city centre (km)	Positive/Negative
Structure	LAND	Size of land (hectare)	Positive
	DINFRA	Presence of infrastructure facilities (Dummy – 1: Yes, 0: otherwise)	Positive
	DTELE	Presence of telecommunication area (Dummy – 1: Yes, 0: otherwise)	Positive
Neighbourhood	AIRPORT	Distance to nearest airport (km)	Positive/Negative
	RIVER	Distance to nearest river (km)	Positive/Negative

3.1 Data and Sources

The target population in this study were agricultural and industrial land in rural and urban areas that affected by flood from 2008 to 2013. This study used stratified sampling method to highlight a specific sub group in the population, where the entire target population was divided into different subpopulation. In order to obtain a stratified sample of flood victims, this study would first organize the population by states and districts. The area of study covered the whole area of Peninsular Malaysia. The scope area was narrowed down to the certain districts that were hit by floods. The sample frame employs in this study were two districts in each state that were hit by flood. The information and data on land property will be acquired from secondary sources; where list of information regarding land can be directly taken from the government and private agencies such as National Property Information Centre, Valuation and Property Services Department, Municipal Council, Malaysian Department of Social Welfare, Malaysian Department of Statistics and Malaysian Department of Irrigation and Drainage's Annual Flood Report from 2008 until 2013.

4. Results and Discussions

A total of 410 observation land price including agriculture and industrial land which experienced flood events were obtained from Land and District Office and National Property Information Centre. The proposed model was used to evaluate the flood effect on land price. The descriptive statistics of the quantitative variables are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistic on land property values

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	St. Deviation
<i>Flood;</i>				
- DUR	0.00	72.00	15.0439	20.27664
<i>Location;</i>				
- BUS	0.20	23.80	10.7722	11.41702
- CITY	0.23	16.60	10.5786	9.39878
<i>Structural;</i>				
- LAND	0.0152	11.00	1.303761	1.3817055
<i>Neighbourhood;</i>				
- AIRPORT	1.90	203.00	50.1827	37.94915
- RIVER	0.80	17.20	2.9482	4.44464

Table 2 shows that the flood duration (DUR) that hit the study areas from 2008 to 2013 range between 0 to the highest 72 days. The mean and standard deviation of the flood duration are 15.04 and 20.27 days respectively. For the location attributes, the distance to the nearest bus station (BUS) stated in this study range from the minimum 0.20 to the highest 23.80 kilometers. Besides that, the distance to the nearest city centre (CITY) surveyed in this study range from the minimum 0.23 to the maximum 16.60 kilometers.

The structural attributes which are selected for this study consist of size of agricultural and industrial land, infrastructure facilities and telecommunication area. Based on the result above, the size of agricultural and industrial land (LAND) surveyed in this study range from the minimum 0.0152 to the maximum 11.0 hectare. The mean and standard deviation for the size of land are 1.30 and 1.38 hectares respectively. The results of neighbourhood attributes show that the distance to the nearest airport (AIRPORT) recorded in this study range from the minimum 1.90 to the highest 203 kilometers. Meanwhile, the minimum distance to the nearest river (RIVER) reported in this study is 0.80 and the maximum distance is 17.20 kilometers.

The main objectives in this study is to investigate the effect of flood on land property values in Malaysia. Therefore, this study examine whether there are any difference in the flood event occurred in resulting between urban and rural areas. In order to minimize the problem of multicollinearity and heteroskedasticity, the choice of variables to include in the equation must be carefully selected. Besides that, semi-log functional form (dependent) was used in this model which can correct for heteroscedasticity and multicollinearity problems (Basu and Thibodeau, 1998). The result of the hedonic regression on land property values is presented in Table 3;

Table 3. Estimates of hedonic regression on land property values

Variables	Urban Area		Rural Area	
	Coefficient	St. Error	Coefficient	St. Error
(Constant)	13.425***	0.470	13.642***	0.493
<i>Flood;</i>				
- DUR	-0.042***	0.006	-0.047***	0.007
<i>Location;</i>				
- BUS	0.070	0.044	0.051	0.055
- Bus ²	-0.002*	0.001	-0.002	0.001
- CITY	-0.204***	0.064	0.044	0.061
- City ²	0.007***	0.002	-0.002	0.02
<i>Structural;</i>				
- LAND	0.417***	0.113	0.162***	0.061
- DINFRA	0.384*	0.212	0.044	0.265
(have infrastructure facilities = 1)				
- DTELE	-0.333	0.404	0.159	0.266
(have telecommunication area = 1)				
<i>Neighbourhood;</i>				
- AIRPORT	-0.020**	0.009	-0.046***	0.008
- Airport ²	0.0001**	0.001	0.0002***	0.000
- RIVER	0.357***	0.136	0.278**	0.118
- River ²	-0.025**	0.012	-0.020***	0.007
R-Squared	0.451		0.599	
Adjusted R-Squared	0.408		0.567	
F-Value	10.354		18.830	
p-value	(0.000)		(0.000)	

Note. *, **, *** denote the significant at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively

We apply flood duration as the indicator of flood variable in measuring the effect of flood on land property values in the urban and rural areas. Table 3 shows that the R-Squared in both urban and rural areas are 0.451 and 0.599 respectively of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained and accounted for by the independent variables in this regression analysis. However, the adjusted R-Squared results indicate that only 0.408 and 0.567 respectively of the variation in the dependent variables can be explained by the regressors in influencing the independent variable. The p-value for the F-statistic in all models is less than 0.05 indicate that the independent variable as a whole is statistically significant. Therefore, the overall models of specification is said to be statistically significant and the equation can be accepted for forecasting the value of land property.

Table 3 shows there is no multicollinearity issues as the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) of all coefficients are below 10, the rule of thumb as suggested by Field (2013). The results show that the variable of flood duration (DUR) in urban and rural areas are negative and statistically significant. It explains that if the flood duration is increased by an hour, the land value in urban and rural areas decreased by 0.042 and 0.047 per cent. It shows that the land property in the urban and rural areas which face a high risk of prolonged periods of flooding tend to have a lower price in the market. This is because the prolonged periods of flooding continuously caused damage and destruction to the crops in the agricultural land or factory building in the industrial land. For example, the massive floods in rural area in Segamat and Tanah Merah has caused a serious destruction on agricultural sector especially to the vegetable crops, fruits and trees (Department of Irrigation and Drainage Malaysia, 2007 and 2014). The prolonged period of flood duration resulted decreased in crops productivity in the rural area.

Therefore, landowners and farmers who are involved with the cultivation of crops will lost the revenue in the long term period between six months to a year. Consequently, the loss and damages of crops and farming resulting a low demand for this land and affect the value of agricultural land. This result is consistent with the findings by Saptutyningasih and Suryanto (2010).

Besides that, the prolonged period of flooding also affected the premises and factories that operate in the industrial land in the urban or rural area. The long term flood did paralyzed the industrial activities involved and caused a serious damage to the assets which is located in the industrial land such as factory building and premises. For example, major floods in urban area, Dungun in 2014 resulted the destruction of the business premises, industrial plants and equipments which resulting high repair cost (Majlis Keselamatan Negara, 2015). Therefore, this situation will affect the buyer's decision to buy an industrial land in the flood prone area since the conditions of prolonged flooding will involved huge reconstructing cost as well as reducing the property market price.

A negative and statistically significant sign of coefficient CITY in urban area indicates that a kilometer increase in the distance to the nearest city centre will reduce the land value by 0.204 per cent. The land value will fall until the distance to the nearest city reaches a certain level of limit, then the value will increase at 0.007 per cent. It means that a land located near to city in the urban area tend to have significant higher market value. This is because, according to Woham et. al (2010), the pace of development in the city centre especially in the urban area has a positive impact on the land activities in the surrounding area. For example, in urban area Kuantan, the agricultural and industrial sectors are carried nearby city and the result of production activities will be exported directly to the city. This is because, city plays an important access as a center for the collection of finished products (Rostam, 2000). Therefore, the location of city centre in the urban area is significantly affecting the value of agricultural and industrial land. This result is consistent with the finding by Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003).

Coefficients of LAND in the urban and rural area show a positive and statistically significant, indicate that a hectare increases in size of land will increase the land value by 0.417 and 0.162 per cent respectively. This positive relationship shows that an increase in the land size makes the land area become extra-large and spacious. For example, we looked at the industrial sector in both urban and rural areas; where an increase in the industrial site land provides an opportunity to the industry company to plan the construction of new factory, and upgrading of infrastructure and facilities in the new land for better development of industry. In addition, an increase in the land size that is appropriate for industry growth, contributes the development for the investment projects. As a result, the demand for the increase land size creates more value to the land. Thus, it makes the increasing size of industrial land produced a high market value of property either in the urban or rural area. This finding lends support to the ones reported by Maddison (2000).

Meanwhile, a positive and statistically significant coefficient of DINFRA indicates that the value of land with presence of infrastructure facilities such as road and electricity in the urban area increased by 0.384 per cent more than a land without any infrastructure facilities. It shows that the land with a presence of road and electricity has high market value in the urban area. This is because, the infrastructure facilities such as road system in the urban area is crucial to increase the capacity and to provide access to an area. According to Han et. al (2011), good infrastructures such as road system has a positive relationship where increases in the road network will flourished the economic growth in surrounding urban area. Besides that, Woham et. al (2010) also agreed that a land with complete infrastructure facilities such as located near the highways play an important role in attracting investors to invest in the particular land nearby. This would increase the market value of the land. For example, the North-South Expressway located near the urban area Nilai Industrial Area helps the transportation aspects such as exporting the finished goods and importing the raw materials or components for the industrial activities. Thus, it shows that the infrastructure facilities not only has a positive impact to the land but also to its value as well. These results are consistent with the findings by Maddison (2000) and Zhai, Fukuzono and Ikeda (2003).

The negative and statistically significant result for the coefficient of AIRPORT in urban and rural areas show that if the distance to the nearest airport increased by a kilometer, the land value decreased by 0.020 and 0.046 per cent respectively. However, the land value will significantly increase by 0.0001 and 0.0002 per cent respectively in the urban dan rural areas when distance to the nearest airport reaches a certain level of limit. It means that the land which is located near the airport area has a high value. This is because, the perspective of the strategic location of industrial and agricultural land in both urban and rural area located near the airport gives a positive impact on industrial management and production. Apart from the rapid economic development in the surrounding urban and rural areas, the location of the industrial land nearby airport helped to facilitate the

industrial exports products directly using air transportation. This makes the industrial and agricultural land in the urban and rural areas near to the airport has affect the value of property.

The coefficients of distance to the nearest RIVER in the urban and rural area are positive and statistically significant. That means if the distance to the nearest river increases by a kilometer, the land value also increased by 0.357 and 0.278 per cent respectively in the urban dan rural areas. In spite of that, the value of land will significantly decreased by 0.025 and 0.020 per cent respectively if the distance to the nearest river is reaches a certain level of limit. It shows that the land properties located near the river has a lower market value in the urban or rural areas. This is because river is also said to be one of the causes of flooding. According to Department of Irrigation and Drainage Malaysia, disposal of solid wastes into rivers is one of the causes of human induce flood. Besides that, most of the river erosion will cause the collapse of the banks such as Sungai Kelantan (Wee and Ariffin, 2011). As a result, any agricultural or industrial land located near the river is at great risk for flooding. Mar Iman and Hamidi (2005) found that the value of land located within a distance of less than 200 meters from the river bank is RM305 per square meter smaller than a land in the 500 meters further away from the river bank. This indicates that a land situated nearby the river will affect the property values as well. Therefore, the distance to the nearest river does affect the land property values in both urban and rural areas.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study is examining the relationship between flood and land value in urban and rural areas. The results in the study are consistent with the previous ones where the flood duration had adversely affected the value of land. The result suggests that agricultural and industrial land prices in the urban dan rural flood prone areas suffered reduction in property market values as well as it causes serious property damage to the asset such as crops and factory building on the land. It indicates the responsibility of the agricultural and insdustrial land owners to put the asset and property to its best use, given the presence of the flood. Thus, the solutions on structural and non-structural such as flood mitigation project and measure provide an immediate action to avoid the flood problems. Consequently, this project would also help the policy maker to efficiently design and allocate the land development for agricultural and industrial sectors in urban dan rural areas to ensure depreciation value of the land is minimized in the case of flood.

Previous literatures have demonstrated that the Hedonic Pricing Model (HPM) is very useful method studying the relationship between property attributes and its prices. The HPM tends to indicate that land property values is correlated with the location, structural, and neighborhood attributes. The results show that most of the coefficients in the locational, structural and neighbourhod attributes are significant and have a priori sign. Therefore, these attributes could be priced in a similar way in Malaysia, as with other countries. HPM demonstarate an accurate portrayal and information on attributes of land property which might affecting the land value. Finally, the analysis indicates the negative relationship between flood and the value of land in the urban and rural areas.

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Factors of Successful Women Leadership in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Saudi woman encounters many shapes of sexual segregation that stand as an obstacle against her option to occupy a frontline leadership position. There are misconceptions in our society that women are not even suitable for leadership. This paper aims to highlight the factors promoting success in leading organizations in general and the success of women in particular with highlighting the status of Saudi women in these factors. The main hypothesis is “the more the woman has factors of leadership, the more success she may achieve in leading organizations”. A model including the factors promoting successful Saudi Women Leaders is proposed and discussed to ensure accuracy of the above mentioned hypothesis. The findings expect bright future for Saudi women in light of keenness of King Abdullah to support woman to play her role in the society and preserve the rights to demonstrate her success in leadership.

Keywords: Saudi, women, leadership, success, factors

1. Introduction

Due to various cultural and structural characteristics of Saudi society, women in leadership positions in many Saudi organizations encounter different reality when compared with their male counterparts. The traditions and Islamic instructions prevailed in Saudi Arabia restricted the social role of women in this country and similar preserving societies. Women are not welcomed in public places and have to be at home most of the time. Despite the progress and opportunities offered to Saudi women in term of health protection and education, still limited opportunities are available for female entrepreneurs to break in especially in political and economic aspects due to unique social norms (Ahmad, 2011). In Saudi society; Saudi women suffer from multiple forms of discrimination due to factors which rooted in traditional Saudi culture and social structure.

In the light of the contemporary developments that play an essential and vital role in any successful organization, availability of several factors, capabilities and behaviors are required in the leader to enhance and magnify his chances of success in a leading position. In this study, these factors have been identified and its effects upon women leadership success have been analyzed in the Saudi society.

2. Factors Affecting Women Leadership

2.1 Culture

Any organization is influenced by two types of culture, the internal culture that spreads among its employees which covers the psychology, attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values, and the external culture which represents forces coming from outside the organization, although out of its control, it may nonetheless affect organizational performance. Organizational and social culture are thus the two main forms of culture which have been identified as factors that determine the success rate of leadership in an organization.

2.1.1 Organizational Culture

Webster (1989) describes organizational culture as the fundamental shared set of beliefs and values that put customer in the center of the firm's thinking on strategy and operations. Ravasi and Schultz (2006) affirms that organizational culture is a set of shared mental assumptions that guide interpretation and action in organizations by defining appropriate behavior for various situations. Despite our agreement with the above mentioned definitions, culture takes long time to shape, and learning processes may affect the culture but they may not have any contribution in its shape. Therefore, the perspective of organizational culture will be considered as “the values, attitudes, experiences, beliefs shared by staff in the organization, most of them influenced by the society”

(Webster, 1989).

2.1.2 Social Culture

In general the region of the Arab peninsula is characterized by gender inequality (Moghadam, 2003). This main obstacle creates difficulties in respect of women's rights and liberties as reflected in some laws. In Saudi Arabia women however still fight for their rights. The country is characterized by gender inequality, and the clearest reflection of this is the fact that all women, regardless of age, are required to have a male guardian (Asmaa, 2010). In 2009, the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report ranked Saudi Arabia 130 out of 134 countries for gender parity (Gender Gap Report, 2009).

There are a number of reasons that explain the gender inequality and lack of leadership roles for women in Saudi society. First, women could not reach leadership positions if the culture did not allow that, or they face many obstacles that have negative impacts on women reaching leadership positions. Second, women leaders face many difficulties to lead employees especially men successfully if they show negative values against women, who do not fully co-operate with her in achieving the organization's goals, and may in contrast seek to make the woman fail to take decisions in order to prove that man is better than woman in leading the organization.

Despite the above observations, many changes have been witnessed in Saudi society and culture in respect of woman, especially as now it is acceptable to see women working as a tellers, lawyers, waitresses, saleswomen, and holding other jobs, more than before. Also female athletes competed in the Olympics in 2012 in London, England for the first time. According to Idris (2007), societal changes that accompanied modernization also brought change to traditional and religious institutions (Ecklund, 2006), whereas the Kingdom witnesses in the era of the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques; King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud great renaissance for women as he facilitates taking charge of high positions to them such as Minister of Education, and many other high positions. He allows women to participate in Saudi parliament (Majlis Al Showra) and to elect municipal councils (Okaz, 2011).

Despite the above advances, the empowerment of women in Saudi Arabia still has a long way to go. Progressive women who advocate modernity are still a minority. The conservatives still support gender segregation policies (Fatany, 2013), and still religion and society combine to foster significant social control, and there is still strict gender segregation sanctioned by the state and society but in lesser degree than before.

2.2 Education

Education in the general sense is any act or experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character, or physical ability of an individual. It can be defined as the act or process of acquiring knowledge during childhood and adolescence (Heritage® Dictionary, 2000). An educated person that has access to optimal states of mind makes him/her able to perceive accurately, think clearly and act effectively to achieve self-selected goals and aspirations (Berg et al., 2011). No doubt that education contributes to personal and economic well-being, and creates knowledge base which leads to qualifications that may benefit in developing works (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2006).

According to the OECD (2014) Women in Business Report in the Middle East and North Africa Region (Mena), literacy rate reaches 100% among women of 15-24 years old in the Gulf countries, Jordan, Syria and Tunisia, while this rate decreases up to 70-75% in Egypt, Morocco and Yemen. The rate of tertiary –level education is uneven in some MENA countries. While it represents more than 50% of women between the age of 15-24 years in Lebanon and Libya, it is only 10% in the rest of MENA countries (OECD, 2014, p. 60).

Education is at the forefront of the Saudi Government's priorities along times. As government considers it the bedrock for the progress of nations, the education sector has witnessed important developments since the founding of the first Ministry of Education. Thousands of elementary, intermediate and secondary schools have been established, in addition to colleges, higher institutes and several universities.

The government provides free general and higher education (post-secondary), and financial help for male and female students in some areas of general education. University students receive financial help and free housing. In addition, meals, books, and transportation are offered at subsidized prices especially for female students who are provided with free transportation (Souad & Al-Omari, 2007).

According to the last statistics of the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (he.moe.gov.sa 2015), a progress in student numbers in different phases of education has been produced. Statistics also show that there is remarkable increase of the number of females in all Saudi Universities as estimated in March 2015 compared to previous years. Meanwhile female in the recent years (2006-2007-2008-2009) ranged from 49-50% of students, the last statistics conducted in 2015 indicated that the number of females is 42.0928 out of 66.9271

which represents about 63% of the total regular or external students studying in the Saudi Universities.

In the past few decades, the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) admits that women have made enormous strides in their access to education especially in UAE and Saudi Arabia, as 60 percent and 70 percent, respectively, of university students are women, and GCC governments regularly sponsor women who want to study abroad and bring new talents and skills back to their burgeoning economies (Eagly, 2007).

Despite the improvement in the gender gap in education, this is not reflected in women's employment and entrepreneurship rates. Compared to men who represent 48% of employment rate, women represent only 17% and remain the lowest employment rate in the world. Concerning entrepreneurial activities the gap is also high. Only 12% of women are entrepreneurs compared to 31% of men in MENA region (OECD, 2014, p. 60).

No doubt that there is a strong link between getting higher education certificates and becoming a more effective leader. Westbrook (2009) proves that there is a relationship between educational qualifications of chief financial officers and effectiveness of local district financial leadership in Alabama Public Schools.

It is true that the more a person gets higher educational certificates, the more opportunity he gets to take leadership positions, and the more success he can achieve. Hence, academic degrees are important in order to gain high leadership occupations and to be more effective in those positions; this is why employers and policy makers value academic qualifications (Nissar, 2010).

It is recently noted that women have enrolled more than men in educational institutions whether preliminary, secondary or even high universities and they get better marks and achieve more percentage in average results than men in general. Women success in leadership is about making the most of their talents and abilities, and that requires dedication and study in academic institutions that will stretch their intellectually.

As mentioned above, women in Saudi Arabia achieve highest levels of enrollment in different educational levels than men. Girls represent now about 60% of students in educational institutions as a result of the government's effort to promote women's education, although they still represent only 14% of its labor force. Most of them work in education, 6% in public health, and 95% in the public sector (Miller, 2011). Women still face several obstacles to get leadership positions that match with their educational qualification (DeAnne et al., 2011), yet these qualifications they get, as female leaders are still less favorable than that of male ones in Saudi Arabia, even if they get higher educational qualifications more than men, as Cheung (2010) mentioned that the context of a culture affects gender expectations for women and men as men are still preferred.

2.3 Society

Anthropologists tend to classify different societies according to the degree to which different groups within a society have unequal access resources, prestige, or power. Societies over times developed cultures that support masculinity against feminism with help of economic factors rather than social factors that help to maintain this stereotype (Hofstede, 2001). Till now the perception of women as "outsiders" in work because of their physical differences still spreads especially in most of developing countries. The types of society shaped different views for women, and this has been reflected upon their participation in workforce, hence taking charge of leadership positions.

Thus, a woman who aspires to leadership positions must overcome both her childhood socialization, which discouraged development of some essential qualities, and a popular perception of the maleness of leadership both of which tangibly reduce the chance she will be judged qualified. In addition to socialization and stereotyping, other barriers to females' upward mobility into leadership positions include (Acker, 1992): (a) discrimination against them in personnel decisions involving promotion, selection, and supervision; (b) a dearth of women and men willing to mentor women; (c) management development opportunities that are based on job rotation.

The modernization, economic factors, technology factors and liberalization tendency help women to call for their rights, and establish many feminism movements that support women rights (Altintas, 2008). Globalization, information and communication revolution help those thoughts spread over the world, and have some influences, although women still not have the same leadership positions equal to their percentage in society, even in the United States and Western Countries (Calas, 1993).

After five decades of intense modernization, the Saudi Arabia's urban infrastructure was highly developed and technologically sophisticated. Now, globalization, modernization, revolution of information technology, satellites, internet, liberalization, feminism movements, world organization, outside pressure, with other internal factors such as women education, immigration to towns, society urbanization, foreign workers, Saudi development has effects of generation and help women placed in areas of public space.

As Saudi women take jobs that were previously not open to them, they're creating a new workplace dynamic in the country. More Saudis now accept the idea of women working in jobs such as law or real estate (Abu-Nasr, 2013).

The *World Economic Forum 2009 Global Gender Gap Report* ranked Saudi Arabia as the only country to score a zero in the category of political empowerment. The report also noted that Saudi Arabia is one of the few Middle Eastern countries to improve from 2008, with small gains in economic opportunity (World Economic Forum Report, 2009). New York-based Human Rights Watch said in a December report that Saudi women are still treated as "legal minors, no matter how old they are" (Report, 2013). Saudi leader and officials acknowledge that change is coming but slowly especially in such a conservative society in order to avoid bad effects on the stability of the society.

Of course, women leadership in industrial societies will be lesser than in post-industrial societies, which provides equal opportunities of treatment to both women and men. Information societies which developed into knowledge societies provide women with important tools to lead organization effectively such as easy getting information and knowledge, and easy communications that facilitate work (Hughes, 2001). Evidence shows that school, society and media interventions can promote gender equality. Community interventions can address gender norms and attitudes through different communication means (Mario Peter, 2009). Media interventions can also contribute to alter gender norms and promote women's rights; Public awareness campaign and other interventions delivered by television, radio, newspapers and other media can be effective for altering attitudes towards gender equality norms (Mario Peter, 2009).

Furthermore, the national and international frameworks that promote gender equality are needed to be developed by laws or international conventions especially in societies with rigid gender roles (Koenig, 2003). So any country makes law framework and joint the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women, the most comprehensive treaty on women's human rights, which came into force in 1981, has been ratified or acceded to by 165 states worldwide. That calls for equality between women and men in respect to civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights, emphasize the importance of equal participation of women with men in public life (Norris & Inglehart, 2000), and the leadership of women is a sort of this equality.

2.4 Skills

Skill is an ability and capacity acquired through deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to smoothly and adaptively carryout complex activities or job functions involving ideas (cognitive skills), things (technical skills), and/or people (interpersonal skills) (Dilts, 1996).

Good leadership requires attitudes and behaviors which characterize and relate with skills that people develop (Greenleaf, 1970), as many capabilities in life are a matter of acquiring skills and knowledge and then applying them in a reliable way. Good leaders are followed chiefly because people trust and respect them, rather than the skills they possess (Martín García & de Pablos Heredero, 2014). To be an effective leader, one needs an exclusive set of human relations and interpersonal skills. Leadership essence is being able to influence. To influence one needs a number of component skills. Some are fairly easy to develop; others take a long time to be acquired.

There is a direct correlation between the implementation of shared leadership practice and product improvement, higher morale, and innovative problem solving, which leads to a more hospitable environment for instituting change to be better (Garcia Martínez & De Pablos Heredero, 2014).

As good leadership depends on attitudinal qualities, not only management processes, some authors show us examples of highly significant leadership qualities and skills such as: integrity, honesty, humility, courage, commitment, sincerity, passion, confidence, positivity, wisdom, determination, compassion, sensitivity, intelligence, adjustment, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and general self-efficacy (Vader & Alliger, 1986; Kickul, 2000; Judge, 2002; Rotundo & McGue, 2006). Rather than many qualities of effective leadership, like confidence and charisma, continue to grow from experience in the leadership role and be skilled by training such as cognitive abilities, motives, values, social skills, expertise, and problem-solving skills. Integrations of multiple attributes distinguish between those leader attributes that are generally not malleable over time and those that are shaped by, and bound to, situational influences how stable leader attributes account for the behavioral diversity (Zaccaro, 2007).

In a study conducted by Berdahl & Anderson (2005), it is found that men's preferences are more likely to be adopted by women because of their ability and motivation to perform such doing compared by men. Women are likely to be more motivated than men to learn and engage in other-sex norms because of sex differences in power

(Berdahl & Anderson, 2005).

When compared to men, women as general have a great fear from carrying out a business by themselves because of failure that prevent them to take the risk. Such behavior lowers the chance of motivation and rate of actual entrepreneurial activity among women and widens the gap with men as the gender gap in this respect in the MENA region is greater than any other region in the world (OECD, 2014).

Gender stereotyping can have consequences for women trying to climb the ladder in the working world, although men are still seen as typical leaders, leaving women with a hard road to the leadership positions. Sabattini (1999) said that women have to prove themselves to be qualified more frequently than men, so they must have skills more than men, as women face higher standards. Sabattini describes the three dilemmas facing women leaders:

- Extreme perceptions: if women leaders go against gender stereotypes, they are seen as too tough; however, if they go along with the stereotypes, they are depicted as too soft.
- High competence/lower rewards: women usually have to work harder than men for the same position in order to prove their abilities. Women tend to receive fewer rewards.
- Competent but disliked: women who act with assertiveness are seen as not personable, but those who are likable are depicted as lacking leadership skills. No matter how women behave, they are perceived in a certain way.

So, stereotyping issue is an organizational problem, not just an individual woman problem. Organizations are missing out on a great source of talent: women leaders, so that it has to give women leaders and other co-workers resources to spread the word about women leadership skills as well as the effects of gender stereotyping (Sabattini, 1999).

In 2005, a yearlong study conducted by Caliper (2005), identified a number of characteristics that distinguish women leaders from men. The Caliper study findings are summarized into four specific statements about women's leadership qualities:

- Women leaders are more persuasive than their male counterparts.
- When feeling the sting of rejection, women leaders learn from adversity and carry on with an "I'll show you" attitude.
- Women leaders demonstrate an inclusive, team building leadership style of problem solving and decision making.
- Women leaders are more likely to ignore rules and take risks than men (Lowen, 2011).

The government of Saudi Arabia seeks to support women leadership skills, so formal universities held many training programs and workshops to support their personal and leadership development. The programs aimed to provide a supportive group learning experience leaving participants with insight into their individual personality type and personal leadership style and understanding of high-performing teams, how organizations work, leadership principles, skills and influencing, networking and organizational change. The programs were part of the Universities contribution to the current government's efforts on improving women's leadership skills (Nestor, 2013).

A recent survey held by Leadership Foundation associate Glyn Jones in 2013, discovers that the Saudi women (according to the employers) are well-informed, tend to be more punctual and have better performance, dedicated to a high level work effort, very appreciative and determined to use their advanced degrees to develop themselves in the world of work and their lives outside the work. Saudi women are increasingly braving opprobrium to seek meaningful work, which is destined to challenge and perhaps ultimately undermine Saudi Arabia's "different, but equal" façade.

2.5 Experience and Knowledge

Experience and knowledge play an important role in women leadership success (Similes Dictionary, 1998). Hence, as more experiences women leaders have had at work, the more ability they have to accelerate their leadership skills and grant their success. The deepest knowledge women have, the highest ability to achieve the organizational goals effectively, a thing that will help them clearly think about their role and function in the organization and will support them in their success (Laddin, 2007).

By contrast, organizations that see the learning potential in experience strive to equip aspiring leaders to mine their experiences – continuously and intensively – for insight into what it takes to lead, what it takes to grow as a leader and what it takes to cultivate leadership in others (peers and superiors, as well as subordinates).

As a developing country, women face obstacles and confront many shapes of sex-segregation in Saudi society and all that affect their efforts to get experience or knowledge as they have a limited number of opportunities to have work rather than a little chance to get leadership position. Consequently it is very hard to have long experience or big knowledge, especially if we know that Saudi women accounted for less than 1% of the private sector workforce in 2009. They were better represented within the government, where they made up 30% of employees in 2008 (DeAnne, 2011). And this was reflected on a 2010 World Economic Forum index of gender equality in 134 countries, whereas the six countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) were all ranked below 100, ranging from 103 (UAE) to 129 (Saudi Arabia).

As a result of increasing enrolment of Saudi women in all levels of education and various fields of employment and aspects of public life in Saudi Arabia, the last 10 years witnessed a growing participation of women in senior management positions and in the decision-making process in public and private sectors. Recent developments indicate a clear strategic direction of policy makers and development plans in Saudi Arabia towards an even greater role for women in public life and into top leadership positions in public domains (Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

Of course, their opportunities to get experiences and knowledge in different fields of management are increasing along time especially nowadays with the increase trend towards encouragement of women to penetrate entrepreneurship world and the further involvement of them in workforce in order to increase their share in the Saudi economy, although there was no platform supporting young women in Saudi Arabia (Fatany, 2007).

Saudi women need to work in an environment that does not burden them with legal, social, and cultural constraints. Some women ask for flexible work policies which they consider critical in this regard, others ask for regulations that allow for part-time work, some women expressed their need to a quota for hiring females, similar to the Saudization quota (Note 1), others suggest that government have to create an institutional environment in which women can reach their full potential, as well as find the right combination of incentives and policies to keep individual women engaged, although most women agreed without exception that certain improvements in the work and social environment would be critical to fostering women's leadership in the region. Help them acquiring the experience and knowledge required for leadership positions will encourage women and ensure the possibility of female leadership, although it is clear that there is an institutional shift under way in women's economic participation (DeAnne et al., 2011).

According to OECD (2014), women lack the skills and knowledge necessary for them to have successful approach to banks for funding. This low level of financial literacy in women together with the perceptions on the complex process of application to get the loan from the bank represent barriers encountering women to succeed in obtaining the financial support they need to commence their business. Supporting women with the required training and information to facilitate their access to financial entities is essential to improve women entrepreneurship in MENA region.

Saudi Government exerts best endeavors to increase women employment in its seeking to help them to gain experiences. So in the year 2013, the Saudi Ministry of Labor issued a series of new directives such as: women no longer need their husband or custodian's permission to work, shops that cater exclusively to women, (i.e., lingerie, cosmetic and perfume shops) must only hire women, factories and supermarkets have been ordered to employ more women, and private and public businesses shall now create new jobs, separate spaces and facilities for women workers.

According to the literature review, Figure 1 provides a graphical view of the proposed women's leadership model.

The above suggested model shows the most important factors associated with a successful women leadership. In general education and continuous knowledge are essential factors that help any leader to succeed in his/her leading (AlShehabi, 1997). Experience which is combined by the leadership skills whether natural or acquired is found to be one of the very important elements in achieving the success of leadership. It is also found that the society's support, encouragement and level of social culture are the main and basic components that achieve the success of the Saudi Women leaders and sustain this kind of leadership as well (Badawi, 1997).

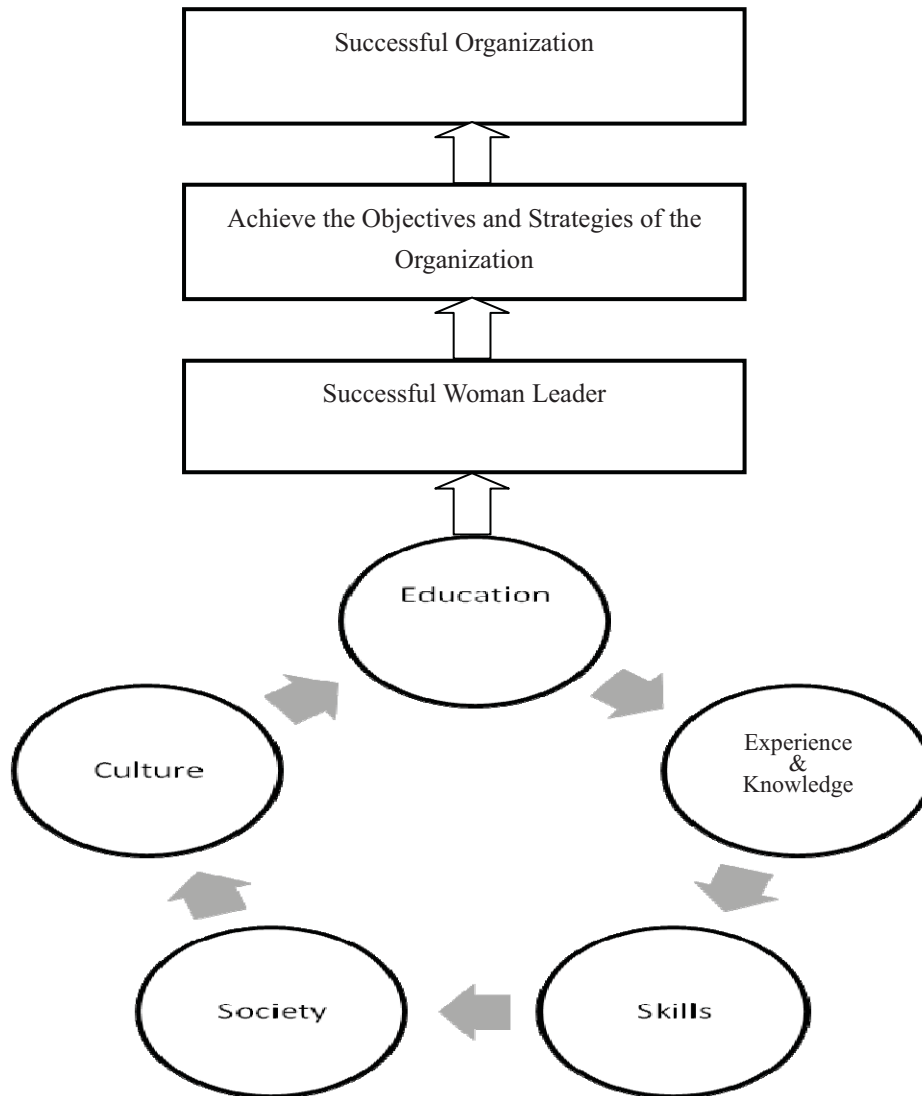


Figure 1. Women's leadership model

3. Research Methodology and Hypotheses

To test the validity of the postulated hypotheses (H_i) against the sample information, the researchers specified (Figure 2) a Structural Equation Model (SEM). The model was estimated via Partial Least Squares (PLS) by using Smart PLS 3 Software (Ringle et al., 2015). A random sample of 37 Saudi women was used. Although sample size is relatively small, the researchers carried on with the investigation based on the following considerations: a) the number of Saudi women in top managing positions, although steadily increasing, is still limited, b) the, in the model estimated latent variables, follow a normal distribution, the same postulated for the population, therefore the sample is considered to be representative. The bootstrapping technique with 500 samples was used to estimate the significance of the weights (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). Smart PLS was chosen to estimate the model according to the following criteria: its algorithm converges in most cases achieving high statistical power even with reduced sample sizes, it is robust against missing data and it also presents prediction accuracy and non-data multi normality requirements (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

The main purpose of our research is to determine whether the factors proposed in women's leadership model (See Figure 1), including Culture, Society, Skills, Experience and Knowledge and Education, explain the success of women leadership in Saudi Arabia.

Figure 2 shows the hypothesized model for measuring the impact of the five factors mentioned above on Saudi women leadership success. Below and on subsequent pages each hypothesis is described.



Figure 2. The proposed model and hypotheses

H1. The more culture encourages women to assume leading positions, the more success women can achieve.

Socio-cultural conditions and expectations, like values, customs and tastes have the major influence on organizations (Pearson, 2003). Globalization has brought a deep change in the economic and political environment and the necessity to manage diversity, offer a great change for women to occupy leadership positions despite perceptions of not being yet suitable for such positions (Evans, 2005). In many Muslim societies, women leadership role is very confined, whereas religion is interpreted differently within different societies, leading to gendered conceptualizations (Shah, 2010). Asmaa (2010) affirmed that Islamic Instructions (Sharia Laws) do not prohibit women leadership but people' culture in some developing countries has a negative impression about leader females despite the presence of many highly respected sample of women leaders in Islamic history. Therefore, the purpose of this hypothesis is to test if Saudi culture has an impact on women success as leaders. The success was measured as the position of women in organisations. We consider that the higher is the position of woman in an organization, the more successful she is as a leader. We also analysed if there are differences between generations regarding culture and if knowledge can explain less cultural barriers for women in leadership positions.

H2. The more education qualification women leaders have, the more success they may achieve

Saudi Arabia is considered as one of the Arab countries that encourage female education to compete the global market place especially in science and technology (Morgan, 2008). The majority of managers who are carrying different university certificates succeeded in their positions after obtaining some form of qualifications (Anderson & Berdahl, 2005). Haymon et al., (1992) and Balcony (2006) have shown that there is a relationship between leadership style and educational achievement.

Leadership capabilities can also be obtained by training and acquiring of leadership skills. DeKlein (1997) supported that such skills can be acquired by excessive training and practice, which is measured as the starting point of building leadership personality. Hence in this hypothesis we have tested if higher education can play a role in the success of women leadership. Also, we have tested the relationship between training and success in leadership positions.

H3. Knowledge and experience have a positive impact on the success of women in leadership

Women can become more capable in achieving the organizational goals if they acquire deep knowledge (Laddin, 2007). According to Laddin (2007), such type of knowledge is critical in helping the leader women to think in a clear way about her role and function in the organization in order to support her success.

Keeny (2010) confirms that the great ability the Saudi women has in dealing with the internet and computer in the domain of knowledge production, has helped her in a significant way to overcome the obstacles stand against obtaining of the knowledge and experience required for leadership positions. So, in this hypothesis whether knowledge and experience have a positive impact on the success of Saudi women in leadership has been tested.

H4. The more skills the woman leader has, the most success she may achieve

A study conducted by Whetten and Cameron (2010) has shown the link between skills and success. Caliper (2005) highlighted the distinguishing characteristics carried by women in terms of qualities of leadership when compared with men. His study indicates that women leaders are more assertive and persuasive, more empathetic and flexible, always acquire strong interpersonal skills, have a stronger need to getting the things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders.

In the fourth hypothesis, the number of skills acquired by Saudi woman that can help her to achieve success in leadership positions have been analysed.

H5. The more society encourages women to assume leading positions, the more success women can achieve in their leadership

Hennig (2003) suggested that, despite the fact that the differences between women's and men's ability to carry out job responsibility are negligible whenever they carry the same job qualifications, the society is completely responsible of gender segregation. The many factors, including technology, liberalization tendency, information, communication revolution and modernization serve women and help them to call for their rights everywhere (Altintas & Murat, 2008), but they do not have leadership positions as equal as man around the world yet (Calas & Smircich, 1993).

The objective of the fifth hypothesis is to determine whether women that achieve success in their leadership positions are supported by the Saudi society.

4. Results and Discussion

Discriminant validity was evaluated according to the Fornell and Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker 1981). Correlations between latent variables should be lower than the square root of the corresponding AVE. As it can be observed in the main diagonal of table 1, this is the case for the majority of the variables analyzed in the model, with the exception of the correlation between Society and Culture (-0,87), which is higher than the square root of the corresponding AVE (0,73), and Training and Skills (0,66 vs. 0,63).

Table 1. Latent variable correlations

	Culture	Education	Experience	Knowledge	Skills	Society	Success	Training	Age
Culture	0,73								
Education	-0,41	0,64							
Experience	-0,56	0,59	0,67						
Knowledge	-0,49	0,24	0,49	0,81					
Skills	-0,28	0,44	0,46	0,35	0,63				
Society	-0,87	0,50	0,58	0,47	0,16	0,66			
Success	0,42	-0,45	-0,65	-0,46	-0,37	-0,52	1,00		
Training	-0,49	0,57	0,68	0,66	0,66	0,51	-0,48	0,72	
Age	-0,30	0,13	0,58	0,18	0,26	0,16	-0,40	0,24	1,00

Internal consistency was measured by Composite Reliability and AVE (Table 2). Overall, the Composite Reliability takes values higher than the commonly admitted 0.5 threshold, with the exception of two variables, Skills (0,46) and Society (0,02). AVE values for Culture, Knowledge, Success, Training and Age exceed the 0.5 value, as recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Table 2. Quality criteria overview

	AVE	Composite Reliability	R Square	Communality	Redundancy
Culture	0,54	0,60	0,29	0,54	0,11
Education	0,41	0,74		0,41	
Experience	0,45	0,79	0,65	0,45	0,10
Knowledge	0,66	0,80	0,44	0,66	0,08
Skills	0,40	0,46		0,40	
Society	0,46	0,02		0,46	
Success	1,00	1,00	0,52	1,00	-0,41
Training	0,52	0,86	0,32	0,52	0,13
Age	1,00	1,00		1,00	0,20

The significance of the path coefficients was determined by the pseudo t-statistics. Path coefficients are significant if t-values exceed the 1.96 limit value (95% two tailed confidence interval). Overall, the relationship tested in the hypotheses did not have as result t-values higher than 1.96 limit value. Only the relationship between Experience and Success ($t=2.37$; $p<0.05$) met this condition, therefore H3 is partially validated. Statistically, the variables Culture, Education, Knowledge, Skills, Society and Training did not have a significant impact on the final variable measured, Success (t values <1.96 ; $p>0.05$). But, the results show significant relations between some central variables such as: Education and Training ($t=3.42$; $p<0.05$); Knowledge and Culture (3.00 ; $p<0.05$); Training and Experience ($t=4.77$; $p<0.05$); Training and Knowledge ($t=6.76$; $p<0.05$); Age and Experience $t=3.68$; $p<0.05$). Numerical values (decimal separator) should have a point. Not a comma, revise it.

Table 3. Total effects (Mean, STDEV, T-values, P-values)

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	p-values (two-tailed)
Culture->Success	-0,40	-0,35	0,33	0,33	1,21	0,234
Education->Success	-0,07	-0,12	0,22	0,22	0,33	0,743
Education->Training	0,57	0,61	0,17	0,17	3,42	0,001*
Experience->Success	-0,48	-0,46	0,20	0,20	2,37	0,023*
Knowledge->Culture	-0,46	-0,46	0,15	0,15	3,00	0,005*
Knowledge->Success	-0,09	-0,05	0,26	0,26	0,33	0,743
Skills->Success	-0,26	-0,12	0,31	0,31	0,82	0,417
Society->Success	-0,56	-0,03	0,62	0,62	0,90	0,374
Training->Experience	0,57	0,59	0,12	0,12	4,77	0.000*
Training->Knowledge	0,66	0,66	0,10	0,10	6,76	0.000*
Training->Success	-0,01	-0,03	0,29	0,29	0,04	0.968
Age->Culture	-0,21	-0,25	0,16	0,16	1,38	0,176
Age->Experience	0,44	0,43	0,12	0,12	3,68	0,001*

* $p < 0,05$

Experience has a negative impact on success, with a path value of -0.48. Although this result could be surprising, this could mean a shorter access time for the new woman generations to leadership. Results show that women, with high qualification, have received more training (H2) and have higher knowledge and experience (H3). The results also highlight the lack of experience of Saudi women in leading organizations.

A relationship between Knowledge and Culture (H1) and between Age and Experience (H3) has been identified. Knowledge has a negative impact on Culture (path value=-0.46). This means that knowledge can reduce access barriers for women in higher positions. The relationship between age and experience is positive (path value=0.44). This means that the knowledge that Saudi women leaders possess increases with the age.

5. Conclusion

Leadership success is found to have a positive impact on the success of organizations, where successful leaders can achieve organizational goals more efficiently and effectively. The presented model points out factors that promote the success of the leader, including education, skills, experience, society, culture and knowledge. Culture and society may represent an obstacle to the success of women in leadership like what happens in K.S.A., where Saudi women suffer from many forms of discrimination, that hamper their opportunity to get leadership positions, especially the traditional culture of Saudi society, which mixed with some Islamic practices embodied obstacles to women in Saudi Arabia to assume leadership positions. Furthermore, Saudi society with its special composition represents an obstacle to the success of women's leadership, while social mobility and Saudi culture currently on their way to modernity have seen many forms of change in favor of women's work and acceptance of her leadership.

Empirical results show that the leadership model does not explain the women leadership success in Saudi Arabia at this moment. Overall, the factors analyzed in the five hypotheses have not shown a significant impact on the final variable measured, leadership success of Saudi women. There is only one exception in the case of the

variable Knowledge (H3), but even in this case the impact is negative. These results can be explained by the short access time of Saudi women in leadership positions. Also, our empirical study has shown that Saudi women with high studies also receive more training and present higher levels of knowledge and experience. Saudi Arabia has made important investments in the education of women in the last years and there is an important number of women who have the education and training for reaching leadership positions. The rate of Saudi women literacy has increased as it reaches 60% of students in higher education, and a very large number of them earned master and PhD degrees. But, as our study reveals, the country still does not fully exploits this potential.

We have also identified that knowledge has a negative effect on culture (H1). As the literature review revealed that in K.S.A, the culture represents an obstacle for women to get leadership positions, this could mean that cultural barriers could be greatly reduced through knowledge attainment.

Although the results of our research are important, the study has encountered several limitations. The major limitation of the study is the lack of literature conducted in the topic of women leadership as general and Saudi Arabia in particular. The uniqueness of the Saudi Society and culture in terms of adherence with legend traditions and customs complicated the positive findings which can be yielded in concern of culture and society. Western measures for culture and society have been considered. This may have affected our results. In further investigations other measures more oriented to K.S.A culture and society should be identified. Another limitation is that most of the participants of the interview are working on the educational field, a thing that reflected the lack of various opinions from other fields of leadership.

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Note

Note 1. Saudization quota: which requires that a certain percentage of employees in any company operating in Saudi Arabia be Saudi nationals

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The Effect of Good Governance Mixture in Governmental Organizations on Promotion of Employees' Job Satisfaction (Case Study: Employees and Faculty Members of Lorestan University)

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of indicators of good governance in public organizations to improve the level of employees' job satisfaction. The methods were confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling using LISREL software and SPSS18 packages. The population consisted of all faculty members and staff of Lorestan University (N=500), which 217 of them were selected systematically using Kerjisi Morgan table. To collect the data 2 standardized questionnaires consisted of good governance and job satisfaction (residents and Ramadan, 2011) were used and the reliability of the questionnaire was (0.73) by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The results of the study showed that the implementation of the indicators of good governance in the organization will lead to an increase in employees' job satisfaction.

Keywords: good governance, job satisfaction

1. Introduction

One of the most important and new issues of the 1980s which is proposed in the literature, is good governance. The problem is granted the special place, particularly in developing countries, and it is in line with the establishment and institutionalization of civil society in related policies (Finley et al., 2008; Raj Kumar et al, 2008; Seksina, 2005). The concept of good governance is a model that seeks to inefficient mechanisms of early development provided by the developed countries and the international community (Ray, 2008). Good governance is indicator of human development-driven. The World Bank report in 1989 raised the issue of good governance as a "public service efficient, reliable judicial system and accountable administrative system" (Stowe, 1992, p. 392). Indeed, good governance is a broad concept that encompasses the participation of three government institutions, civil society and the private sector. All three are essential for sustainable human development (Stowe, 1992). In this regard, several studies have been conducted within and outside the country, indicating the importance of this subject. The concept of governance can be examined in four levels but this study investigates this concept at the level of organization. The job satisfaction as a factor that has an impact on career success and increase efficiency and personal satisfaction should be considered wholly, and the lack of job dissatisfaction leads to absenteeism and negligence, and even in higher levels can have adverse effects on planning and results in failure. Employee's job satisfaction is very important and sensitive. Because if an organization, the organizational satisfaction and employee satisfaction, do not have priority over other objectives of the organization doomed to failure and collapse. Job satisfaction has mutual effect on the individual and the organization. People join to the organization with their goals and dreams and coordination and alignment of the organization with the goals of individual sin spire job satisfaction in them and at last leads to innovation, creativity in work, increase in production or service and finally, guarantee the health and the dynamics of organization (Mir Shahidi, 2006). In this regard, Nasym et al. (2011) also stated that employee satisfaction plays an important role in determining organizational success and it needs to upgrade the level of employee satisfaction because it is vital factor in the success of any business organization. Mohammad Zadeh and Mehrvuzhan (1996) also stated that if an organization's employees are satisfied with their work; their organization will also have a positive impact and will be more effective and useful. Therefore, we should follow the factors which could increase the satisfaction level of employees in the organization. Mohammad Zadeh and Mehrvuzhan (1996) in their study showed that 4 factors influence job satisfaction: the overall factor of

organization, the immediate factors of work environment, the contextual factors of work and personal factors. Except personal factors, the other factors are related to the style of governance in organization that is in the field of great organization management, and with applying good governance indicators; we can promote the employees' job satisfaction. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the effect of indicators of good governance in government organizations on promotion of employees and faculty members of Lorestan University's job satisfaction.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 The Concept of Good Governance

One of the most important and new issues of the 1980s which is proposed in the literature, is good governance. The problem is granted the special place, particularly in developing countries, and it is in line with the establishment and institutionalization of civil society in related policies (Finley et al., 2008; Raj Kumar et al, 2008; Seksina, 2005). The concept of good governance is a model that seeks to inefficient mechanisms of early development provided by the developed countries and the international community (Ray, 2008). Good governance is indicator of human development-driven. The World Bank report in 1989 raised the issue of good governance as a "public service efficient, reliable judicial system and accountable administrative system" (Stowe, 1992, p. 392). Indeed, good governance is a broad concept that encompasses the participation of three government institutions, civil society and the private sector. All three are essential for sustainable human development. The government creates a political and lawful environment. The private sector creates employment and income, and the civil society facilitates the engagement of political and social activist groups to participate in economic activities. Good governance is not only a new version of concepts such as democracy, human rights, accountability, participation and the rule of law, but it shapes a framework by which all of these goals and values gathered and human development goals such as economic development, political, social and cultural rights with a focus on people be followed (Stowe, 1992). United Nations Development Programme on Human Rights resolution knows the good governance in relation to the environment that follows the enjoyment of human rights and the growth and sustainable human development. To secure the good governance of countries, participation in the development recognized formally as gains and prescriptive achievements have been deemed inappropriate. By linking good governance and sustainable human development, based on the principles of cooperation, accountability and promotion of human rights and prescriptive and mandatory guidelines will not be considered for development (UNDP, 2000).

2.2 Good Governance Indicators (UN-HABITAT, 2006)

Good governance has 8 major components. These components are participatory, result oriented, accountability, clarification, responsiveness, efficiency and effectiveness, inclusiveness and non-discrimination between citizens and ultimately the rule of law. Good governance ensures the reduction of corruption, respects to minorities and vulnerable groups in decision making. As well, the good governance for the current and future needs of society is responsible. All the reviews of individual components will be discussed.

1) Participation

The participation of both women and men is a cornerstone of good governance. Participation can contribute directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions or representatives. It is important to note: representative democracy does not mean that the majority of the populations in decision-making are taken into account. Participation needs to be informed and organized, that is, on the one hand the freedom of association and expression should be considered and on the other hand, the expression of organized civil society should be taken account.

2) Rule of Law

Good governance requires fair legal frameworks that run non-biased. Especially human rights, especially the rights of minorities must be maintained. Impartial law enforcement can be applied by independent judicial system and healthy police.

3) Clarification

Clarification means the decision making and implementation of them in accordance with laws and regulations. It also means free access to information that can affect the people lives. In this regard, sufficient information should be made understandable and placed to the public.

4) Responsiveness

In the good governance, organizations should serve their stakeholders and be responsible for the assigned duties.

Any problem or crisis in the society should be managed by the organization and the relevant departments and there is no problem that no one is responsible for it. Projections and conspiracy, including those that have been used to evade responsiveness.

5) Consensus oriented

There are many actors in society with different views. Good governance must provide access to a broad consensus for different interests of different groups. Consensus-based decision-making is a process in which personal power and information control is open to honest debates about the issues. Consensus oriented requires an understanding of the long-term prospects for sustainable human development and how to achieve the objectives of this type of development.

6) Equity and inclusiveness

Health and welfare in a society are created in the society when all members feel they are in the process of its development and consider their own kind of influence. This issue can be solved only by creating opportunities for vulnerable populations to improve their welfare.

7) Accountability

Accountability is a key requirement for good governance. Not only governmental institutions but also the private sector and non-profit and non-governmental organizations should also be accountable to the public, especially its stakeholders. Who and how you meet the person in decisions and activities of organizations and individuals is variable. In general, any organization for those affected by the work done by the organization, are accountable. The important thing is that accountability can be implemented only through clarification and governance of law.

8) Efficacy and Effectiveness

Good governance means that processes and institutions are in line with the needs of society and use the resources well. The concept of efficiency in the areas of good governance includes the proper use of natural resources for sustainable development and environmental protection as well and only being technical does not mean the efficiency is assured.

2.3 The Results of Good Governance

Good governance and the results are as follows:

- Organized and disciplined use of the superior aspect of politics, performance and appearance.
- Realistic view at current affairs, maintaining morality and justice in the distribution of benefits to keep every one's satisfaction.

Beyond this, the United Nations has added the following results to good governance

- Giving priority to the problems of poverty
- Raising awareness for the rights of women
- Environmental Protection
- Create opportunities for employment and other environmental issues and welfare (UNDP, 2000).

2.4 Levels of Governance

The concept of governance is on the following four levels:

- 1) Governance at the global environment, which deals with issues beyond the scope of national governments.
- 2) Governance at the national atmosphere, i.e., within a country. This level has the following levels: national, provincial, municipal and local.
- 3) Governance at the organization atmosphere or organizational governance. This level includes the activities of organizations that are usually "must be accountable to the board. Some of them are private organizations (such as private commercial companies) and others, such as public (hospitals, schools, government organizations, etc.).
- 4) Governance in the local communities, which includes activities at the local level (Sanei, 2006)

2.5 Good Governance Indicators in Public Organizations

According to the above discussion, these dimensions have considered the concept of governance at national and international level. Therefore, in line with the theme of the study we should look at the indicators and aspects of good governance more carefully, and investigate and evaluate these indicators i.e. organizational level at the smaller level.

1. Result-oriented: having a clear organizational goal is a sign of good governance. If the aim is effective development, we can manage and guide the activities and decisions of individuals at all levels in an organization (OPM, CIPFA, 2004).

2. Effectiveness of roles and responsibilities: Good governance requires that all duties, roles and responsibilities related to it be clear, and people behave in such a way that is consistent with their roles.

3. The promotion of roles: A sign of good governance in the development of shared values is to transfer part of the organizational culture, policies and infrastructure behavior of agents to all employees and members of the organization.

4. Clarification: The clarification refers to decision making and implementation in accordance with agreed procedures (OPM, CIPFA, 2004). Information should be freely and directly available to clients, service users and the public as well. The responsibility is undeniable not only at the central government and local governments, but also it should be run on any other independent organization.

5. Capacity building: Organizations need people with high skills to guide and control them effectively. For finding the right and qualified people, organizations should hire people from different kinds and levels. So, it causes a synergy of skills and assists organizations in reaching individual goals (OPM, CIPFA, 2004).

6. Accountability: Accountability, the process of agreement on the activities carried out by you to the other side. A systematic approach is needed to perform this process. The real answer is not only to report or explain previous activities, but also to attract stakeholders to understand and respond to their comments, under the name of the organizational programme and implementation of the comments (NCA, 2005 & OPM, CIPFA, 2004).

2.6 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a set of emotions and beliefs that people have about their current jobs. Job satisfaction is an important factor in career success and it increases the efficiency and the personal satisfaction (Shafiabadi, 1997). Job satisfaction is to like the requirements for a job, the circumstances in which work is done and the reward for which is received (Sherterzer, 1990). Given the above, we can say, "Job Satisfaction" is to be happy and pleased with own works and the enjoyment of it and then, heart-warming and dependence on job creates. A concept that has dimensions, aspects and various factors and the sets of it should be considered. Among these factors are characteristics of employees, type of work, working environment and human relations at work (Helrygel, 1996). Fischer and Hannah consider job satisfaction as internal factors and a kind of emotional compatibility with jobs and employment conditions. It means if a job provides optimum pleasure; he is satisfied with his job. In contrast, if the job does not give a good pleasure to someone, in this case, he criticizes his work and is going to change it (Shafiabadi, 1998).

According to Hapak, job satisfaction is a complex and multidimensional concept and has to do with the psychological, physical and social factors. One factor does not lead to job satisfaction, it requires a set of different factors cause that employee satisfy with his job in a certain time and enjoy it (Safiri, 1998).

From the definitions of job satisfaction also we found that this concept is indicator of positive feelings and attitudes that person has about the job. When it is said that someone has high levels of job satisfaction, in general it means he loves his job, gives value to it and looks it in a positive way, and in a word he has good feeling toward it (Shafiabadi, 1991).

2.7 The Effects of Job Satisfaction

Aware of the important results of job satisfaction is crucial as knowing the factors that lead to job satisfaction. The results are as follows:

A) Satisfaction and leaving the service

Job satisfaction and leaving the service are related. Vroom realized that the correlation between these two variables in the different studies is from 25% to 42%. Then Porter and Steers in fifteen reviews found that the correlation between satisfaction and leaving the service is 25% (Mohammad Zadeh & Mehrvuzhan, 1996).

Reviewers of the last century, which examines the relationship between job satisfaction and job- release, report that a negative relationship exists between these two. It means if the employees are satisfied with their job, they will not abandon their work and if they are not satisfied with their job, they give them up. Lock in 1976, also gave a report about the same issue (Steers & Porter, 1991).

B) Job satisfaction and absenteeism from work

Evidence shows that there is a moderate and inverse correlation between job satisfaction and employee

absenteeism from their work place. Vroom showed in several studies that its correlation ranges from 14% to 38%. The study was approved by Porter and Steers and others (Mohammad Zadeh & Mehrvuzhan, 1996).

C) The satisfaction and performance

One of the most controversial topics in the field of job satisfaction is its relationship with performance. In this regard, three theories have been proposed:

1. Satisfaction leads to performance.
2. Performance leads to satisfaction.
3. Reward serves as an intermediary between performance and satisfaction.

Vroom acquired in their research, there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and performance (Shafiabadi, 1997).

Steers & Portersay in their book: the more motivation of employees and labors toward their jobs, and the much more positive attitude to the job (more job satisfaction), the higher his performance level will be. On the contrary, the lower motivation and positive attitude towards the job (less job satisfaction), the lower the performance will be (Mohammad Zadeh & Mehrvuzhan, 1996).

D) The effect of job satisfaction on organization

The evaluation shows that when employees of an organization are satisfied with their work, their organization have a positive impact and act as an effective and useful organization. Furthermore, job satisfaction has other results: satisfied employees complain less than others, they have more physical and mental health, their life span is longer, they learn new tasks associated with the job faster and encounter with occupational injuries fewer (Mohammad Zadeh & Mehrvuzhan, 1996).

Experts believe that job satisfaction is an attitude and they define as: job satisfaction is the attitude of the person toward the job and in plain language how one feels about the job and its various aspects. Research shows that the reason of negative and positive attitudes toward the job and work are as follows:

- 1) Factors related to the procedures and policies of the organization.
- 2) Factors related to the working conditions or how to get people in place to do so.
- 3) Factors related to the employee's individual character.

2.8 Job Satisfaction Factors

Researchers have long been searching for the determination of the fundamental reasons of job satisfaction in the organization and so far they have been able to achieve a series of factors related to job satisfaction. But achieving a comprehensive empirical model has not been realized yet. Several factors can be briefly noted in this field. Porter and Steers have the following four factors:

- 1) The overall factors of the organization: the variables that broadly applies to most of the employees as wages and promotion opportunities.
- 2) The immediate factors of work environment: variables that make up the occupational groups, including ways of supervision and the quality of relationships with colleagues, working conditions and workplace.
- 3) The contextual factors of work: such as field work (the diversity, autonomy and responsibility) and role clarity.
- 4) Individual factors: characteristics that distinguish one person from another, such as age, years of service and personality (self-confidence, determination and maturity).

The contextual factors of work	The immediate factors of work environment	The overall factors of organization
Work territory	Supervision pattern	Benefits of system
Clarity of role and confliction	Participation in decision making	Promotion opportunities
	The size of work group	Organization policies
	Colleagues relationship	Organizational structures
	Work condition	

Figure 1. The effective factors on job satisfaction

2.9 Background of the Research

Several studies have been done in this regard, referring to some of them. Mubarak and Azarpeivand (2010) in a study entitled “A Look at the Indicators of Good Governance from the Perspective of Islam and its Impact on Economic Growth,” investigated the effect of institutional factor, along with other economic factors on economic growth and also they examined the significant and positive correlation between institutional environment and economic growth. Institutional factors include governmental institutions (voice and accountability of political stability, control of corruption, rule of law, bureaucratic quality and effectiveness of government), which separately and generally investigated the Islamic countries with different levels of development among countries in the period 1980- 2005 using mixed data. The results showed that the impact of institutional and governance factors for Iran, Egypt, Turkey and other countries was less than other countries.

Moghimi and Ardakani (2011) in a study entitled “Measurement of Good Governance Indicators and the Role of E-government in Promotion” examined the good governance indicators and the impact of e-government on the review of the governance criteria in their public sectors. The results showed that the establishment of e-government leads to improve responsibility, roles effectiveness, capacity building, clarification, result-oriented and promotion of roles as good governance indicators. Bashir and Shaghghi Shahri (2011) in a study entitled “Good Governance, Pressure and Economic Growth (economic approach to the issue of good governance)” explained the mechanism of good governance relation by reducing corruption and improving economic growth in the form of econometric model panel, for example, southwest of Asian countries studied the question of the “implementation of good governance policy package would lead to economic growth,”. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between different components of good governance indicators and economic growth in the region. Samet, Ranjbar, and Mohseni (2011) in a study entitled “Analysis of the Impact of Good Governance Indicators on the Human Development index: A Case Study of Southeast of Asian Countries” investigated the effect of these indicators on the human development index as a benchmark economic development in Southeast Asian countries during 2000-2009 using panel data. In this study due to the high correlation between good governance indicators as explanatory variables, factor analysis has been used to investigate the possibility of eliminating some indicators due to co-linearity and validity of the model related to the governance. Also by calculating average of good governance indicators, the quality of governance introduced, and its impact on the human development index is studied. The results of the models estimation indicate that the quality of good governance through harmonic average of governance indices was calculated, and there is a positive and statistically significant effect on the HDI. As well, among the six indicators of good governance, political stability, government effectiveness, quality of regulation and the rule of law have a positive and statistically significant effect on the human development index.

Beiginia and et al. (2012) in a study entitled “Identification and Prioritization of Indicators of Good Governance” discussed the technique by using hierarchical analysis to identify and prioritize good governance indicators. The results showed that among the 24 indicators, the judicial independence is the most important factor in achieving good governance. The public participation indices in decision-making, strengthening political parties, decentralization, development of non-governmental organizations and other indicators of research were identified as the most important factors in achieving good governance priorities. Although many research has been done in this regard, but none of them have examined and determined the relationship between indicators of good governance in the public and job satisfaction.

2.10 Assumption and Conceptual Model of the Study

The main hypothesis: good governance has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1: result-oriented has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Effectiveness of roles has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Promotion of roles has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: clarification has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Capacity building has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: Accountability has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

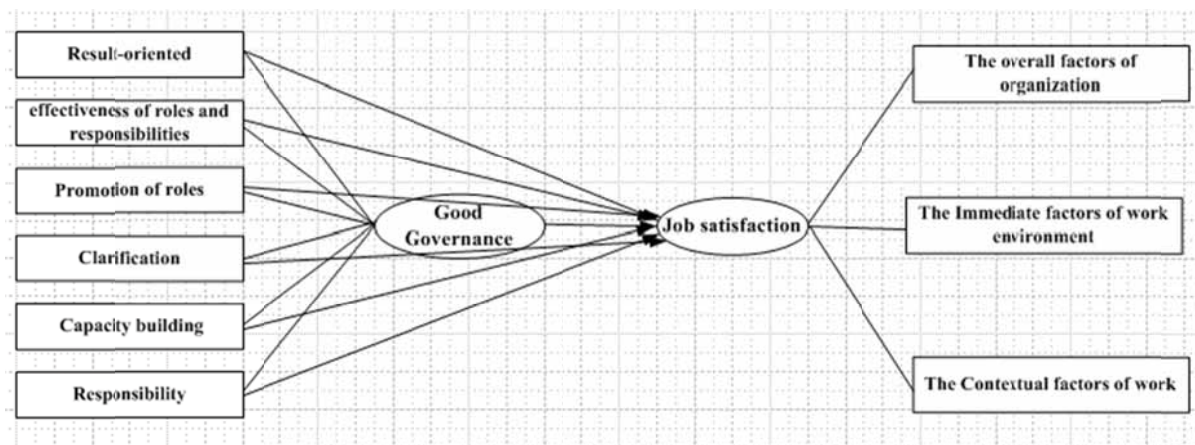


Figure 2. Conceptual model

3. Methods

The methods were confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. The population consisted of all faculty members and staff of Lorestan University whom worked in winter 2013 (N=500), which 217 of them were selected systematically using Kerjisi Morgan table. To collect the data 2 standardized questionnaires consisted of good governance and job satisfaction (residents and Ramadan, 2011) were used. To assess the reliability of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. The results are showed in the following table. As is clear from the above table the Cronbach's alpha coefficients in all cases are greater than 0.7 which imply the validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire also was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. For analyzing the confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling, the standard operating load and t is calculated. If the factorial load is between 0.3 to 0.6 is acceptable and if it is greater than 0.6 is very desirable. When the correlation between variables was identified, a significant test shall be performed. In order to assess the significance of the relations, the t -statistic is used. If the 5% level of it is more than 1.96 indicates a significant correlation. In this study, all the factors are above 0.6, and all of the t -statistic is 1.96, indicating the significant correlation.

Table 1. Cronbach's alpha values for the study indices

Cronbach's alpha	Number of questions	Index
0/708	35	Good governance
0/712	16	Job satisfaction
0/739	51	The whole questionnaire

4. The Analysis

In this study to assess the relationship between the variables, the confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling were used. To do this, the standard operating loads and t -statistics were calculated. If loadings are less than 0.3 a poor relation is considered and it is ignored. Loads between 0.3 to 0.6 are acceptable and if it is greater than 0.6 is very desirable. When the correlation between variables were identified, the test was significant. To evaluate the statistical significance of the relationship between variables t -test and the t -value was used. If the factorial load is greater than 1.96 at the level of 5% a significant relationship is observed.

As it can be seen the standard operating loads of the relationship between good governance and job satisfaction is 0.4, indicating that the relationship is acceptable because the t -statistic of 1.96, i.e. a significant relationship was observed, so the main hypothesis is confirmed. Furthermore, the results of the confirmed sub hypothesis are summarized in Table 2 briefly. However, in some cases, the factorial load is less than 0.3 indicates a weak relationship between variables, but because of all the values of t is greater than 1.96. So, all the relationships are significant.

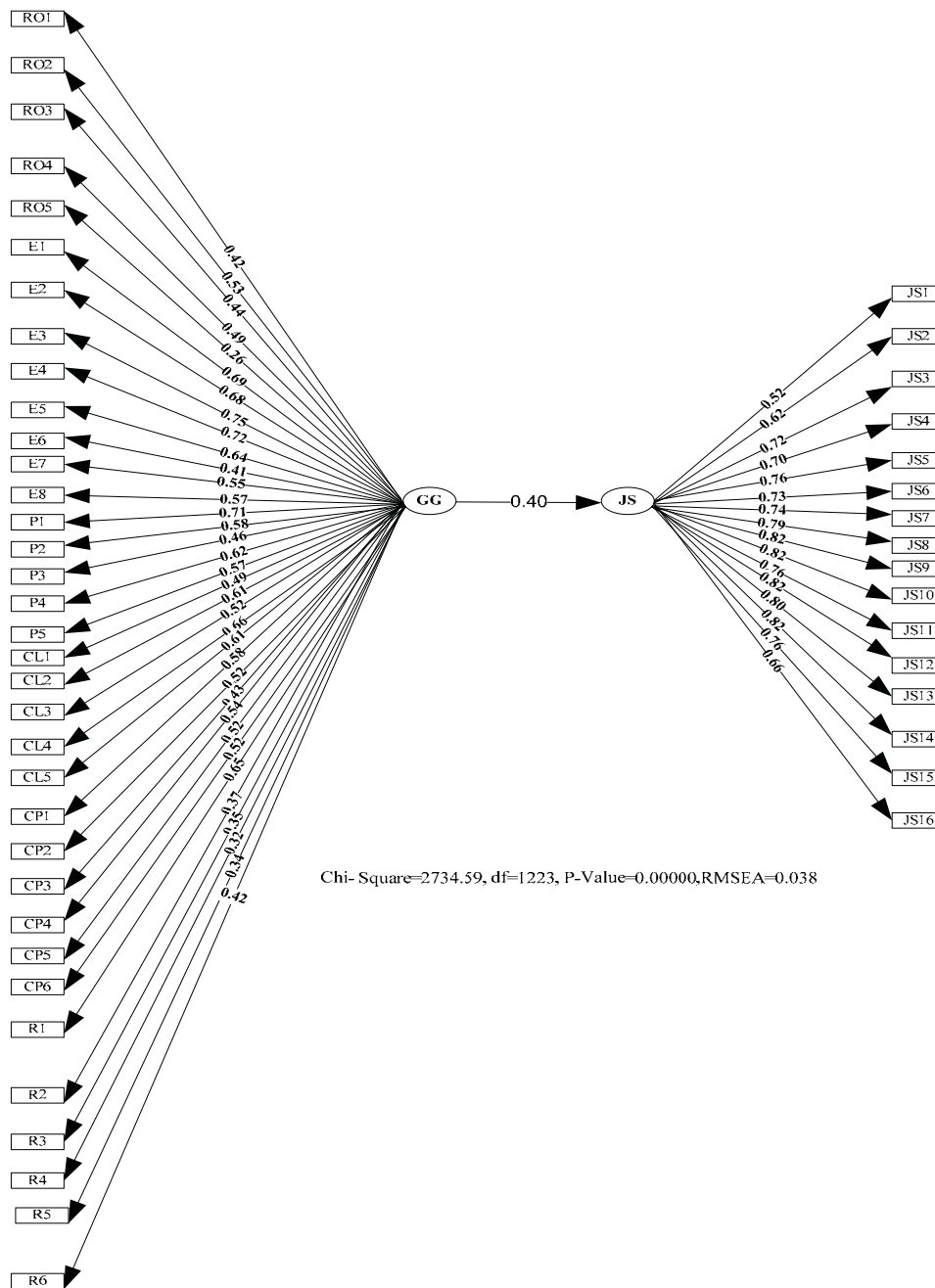


Figure 3. Guidance for abbreviation chart

Table 2. The result of hypothesis proving

Result	Statistics t	Factorial load	Hypothesis
Good governance has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	3.79	0.4	main
Result-oriented has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	2.06	0.21	Sub1
Effectiveness of roles has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	3.25	0.34	Sub2
Promotion of the role has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	2.23	0.23	Sub3
Clarification has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	3.12	0.33	Sub4
Capacity building has a positive effect on job satisfaction.	3.37	0.37	Sub5
Responsibility has a positive effect on job satisfaction	4.06	0.47	Sub6

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study examines the impact of good governance indicators on promotion of job satisfaction of Lorestan University employees and faculty members. In this study, a confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling was used to assess the relation between variables. The results have shown that there is a significant positive relationship between good governance and job satisfaction. The results indicate that by implementation of good governance in the organization, job satisfaction can be provided. In other words, organization management can implement the following measures to reach this goal: having a clear organizational goal that can guide and manage the decisions and actions of individuals at all levels of the organization, having obvious and clear duties and responsibilities of jobs so that people behave in accordance with their roles, trying to promote organizational roles and transferring them to employees, adopting and implementing decisions on the basis of an agreement with its staff, hiring people from different styles of life for synergy of skills and organization to help the organization in achieving its objectives, and at the end, having two-way interaction between the staff and management for the conducted activities. This process is not only to report or explain previous activities but also to attract stakeholders to understand and respond to their views under the name of organizational programme and implementation of those comments as well. Same studies have been conducted in this area and most of them examined good governance variable at the large levels and less at the small levels. Thus, the result of this study cannot support the results of other studies firmly. At the end, it is worthy of note that few research has been done on the concept of good governance in the organizational environment, and the researchers are suggested to investigate the other variables affecting the relationship between organizational culture and organizational policies in this field, including their good governance indicators.

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The Practice of Hiring, Training and Promoting Less-Educated Workers in Malaysian-Based Manufacturing Companies

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Abstract

This paper reports a qualitative study on the experience of Malaysian employers in hiring, training, and promoting workers with low levels of formal education. Data for this study were obtained from interviews with six individuals who have experience in hiring and supervising less-educated workers. They are managers and executives from three different manufacturing companies: a fabric company, a steel company, and an automotive company. The findings show that less-educated workers are hired for entry-level jobs because they are less demanding and are more likely to stay at the same company for a longer period of time. To compensate for the workers' lack of education, the employers provide learning opportunities, mostly through on-the-job training. Lack of education is not a barrier to career progression at these companies, because workers are promoted based on performance rather than qualifications.

Keywords: less-educated workers, hiring, training, promoting, manufacturing, Malaysia

1. Introduction

1.1 The Problem and Its Context

The manufacturing sector is an important contributor to growth and employment creation in Malaysia (Ali, 2009). The sector employs about 28% of the 12.7 million people in the country's labor force, making it the second largest employment sector after the service sector (Economic Planning Unit, 2012). In terms of wages, the Malaysian manufacturing sector pays lower than the petroleum, mining, and utilities sectors, but higher than the construction and agriculture sectors (World Bank, 2012).

Although the manufacturing sector is valued for its contribution to economic growth and job creation, many of the jobs available do not seem to require a high level of education. This is apparent from the composition of labor in the manufacturing sector, which is dominated by workers who are relatively less educated. According to the Department of Statistics (2012), 80.8% of the workers in manufacturing industry have secondary-school qualifications or lower. This is higher than the overall percentage of less-educated workers in Malaysia, which is 75.5% broken down as follows: 56% with secondary-level education, 16.6% with primary education, and 2.9% with no formal education at all (Department of Statistics, 2013).

This paper raises three pertinent issues on the employment of less-educated workers in the manufacturing industry. The first issue relates to employers' motivation for hiring less-educated workers. Why do employers hire them, instead of hiring better-qualified individuals such as those with post-secondary academic or vocational qualifications? Some possible reasons for hiring less-educated workers are the shortage of qualified workers and the need to reduce labor cost. But we are interested in finding out whether there are other reasons. For example, in the case of foreign workers, one of the reasons for hiring is that they are perceived to be more obedient and easier to manage (North, 2013). In the case of part-time workers, companies prefer them not so much because of the cost but because of scheduling flexibility (Zeytinoglu, 1992).

The second issue is training opportunities. Since less-educated workers have had no formal training prior to employment, much of the training has to be provided by employers. How do employers train these workers up to a satisfactory level? The third issue is job advancement prospects. How do employers provide opportunities for less-educated workers to progress in their jobs? It is very likely that less-educated workers start with low pay. Low-wage jobs are acceptable as long as they serve as a platform to move to better jobs; they should be

“stepping stones” and not “dead ends” (Campbell, 2012). But without opportunities for career progress, there is a risk that these workers may be trapped in low-wage employment.

Concentrating on these issues, we studied the experience of manufacturing industry managers and executives in hiring, training, and promoting less-educated workers. This paper contributes to an improvement in the understanding of the employment situation of people with low levels of education in Malaysia. Currently, there is little research on this topic, which is alarming considering the large percentage of less-educated workers especially in the manufacturing industry.

1.2 Defining Less-Educated Workers

There are other terms besides “less-educated workers” that are used in the literature for example “low-educated workers” and “low-skilled workers”. The terms normally refer to the same group of people. Studies in the literature have conceptualized this group from either the perspective of education by using the term “low-educated”, or the perspective of the labor market by using the term “low-skilled” (Kyndt, Govaerts, Dochy, & Baert, 2011). Currently, there is no consensus on who should be considered low-educated or low-skilled. Using the UNESCO (1997) classification, the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), most studies in the literature use either ISCED level 2 (lower-secondary education) or ISCED level 3 (upper-secondary education) as the benchmark for what is considered a low education level.

Some authors have used the term “low-educated” to refer to individuals whose highest education is at ISCED level 2 (Atkinson, Marlier, & Nolan, 2004; Addabbo & Favaro, 2011; Gesthuizen, Solga, & Künster, 2011). Others have used the term to mean those whose highest level of education is a high school diploma (Presser & Cox, 1997), or who have no qualifications from higher education (Kyndt et al., 2011). Steedman & McIntosh (2001) suggested that the term “low-skilled” is appropriate for individuals with ISCED level 3 and below. However, others have defined “low-skilled” as someone with ISCED level 2 and below (Illeris, 2006; Huber, Landesmann, Robinson, & Stehrer, 2010). Although the terms “low-skilled” and “low-educated” frequently share similar meanings, Illeris stressed that the low-skilled group actually consists of broader categories of adult individuals, such as early school leavers with no formal education and training, adults whose skills are no longer in demand, and adults who have never worked a lasting job.

The term used in this study, “less-educated workers,” refers to workers who have no formal education beyond secondary school. This is equivalent to ISCED level 3, or the upper-secondary level of education. In the context of Malaysia, this definition is appropriate as the schooling rate at primary and secondary levels in the country is generally high. Only after the upper-secondary level is the schooling rate lower. According to the Ministry of Education (2014, p. 41), the enrolment rates for primary school, lower-secondary school, and upper-secondary school in 2013 were 94%, 85%, and 78% respectively, but the enrolment rate for post-secondary education was low, at only 16.8%. However, it should be noted that the actual figure must be higher as the ministry’s statistics exclude those who are enrolled at post-secondary private institutions.

1.3 Employment and Training Prospects for Less-Educated Workers

It is estimated that about 23% of secondary-school graduates in Malaysia, or approximately 100,000 students, enter the job market directly after completing secondary school, every year (Economic Planning Unit, 2010). Despite not having formal education beyond secondary school, they continue to find employment in the labor market. The unemployment rate in the country is 3% (Department of Statistics, 2015), which can be considered low. This implies that opportunities for work are still abundant in the country, even for those who are less-educated. Nevertheless, the situation may change in the future. In advanced countries, for example the United States, the employment prospects for low-skilled workers are deteriorating and the earning gap between low-skilled and high-skilled individuals is widening (Sum, Khatiwada, McLaughlin, & Palma, 2011).

When less-educated individuals join the labor market for the first time, the employers who hire them have to give them training. The amount of training they actually received may differ depending on the nature of their occupation. Schindler, Weiss, and Hubert (2011) argued that the training gap between high-skilled and low-skilled workers is primarily due to job characteristics (particularly the task performed and technology used) rather than worker characteristics. If we use this argument, it is reasonable to suggest that manufacturing firms are in a good position to give more training owing to the higher amounts of technology generally utilized in manufacturing processes. Xiao (2002) studied determinants of salary growth using data from both the manufacturing and service sectors in Shenzhen, China. She found that manufacturing firms provided more on-the-job training than service firms owing to the introduction of new technology at the manufacturing firms.

Cuesta and Salverda (2009) analyzed data from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) from 1995

to 2001 for several European countries. They found that the likelihood of being in a low-paying job can be reduced by high levels of general education and on-the-job training. However, they also found that in Italy and Spain, on-the-job training is important for upward mobility while in Denmark and the Netherlands, tertiary education is more important. Ng and Feldman (2009) conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between the level of education and job performance using data from empirical studies published in or before 2007. They found that although educational level is positively related to task performance, it is only weakly related to performance in training program. This indicates that less-educated workers can be trained to perform specific tasks until they become competent in executing them. Omar, Krauss, Sail, and Ismail (2011) studied career success among “late bloomers” in Malaysia. They found that success among these workers, who had low academic performance in school, requires a match between the individual’s strength and the organization’s compensation, motivation, and support for that person during their career progression.

Promotion within a firm, or upward mobility, is one of the ways in which less-educated workers can improve their earnings. An important determinant of mobility is the structure at the organization. Brüderl, Preisendörfer, and Ziegler (1993) stressed the importance of factors such as the structure of opportunity and the levels of hierarchy for the upward mobility of workers. However, it is unclear how existing structures influence the progression of individuals in low-wage jobs (Campbell, 2012). In the United States, for example, a large section in the middle of the occupational structure has disappeared (Massey & Hirst, 1998; Mouw & Kalleberg, 2010). This means that there are plenty of low-wage jobs and high-wage jobs, but fewer medium-wage jobs.

Having fewer middle-income jobs in the labor market puts low-wage workers who are at the bottom of the workplace hierarchy at risk because there are fewer opportunities for them to progress. There are many who support the idea that the career ladder is important to help low-wage workers move to better jobs (see, for example, Mills and Prince, 2003; Osterman, 2007), but current popular opinion is that climbing the career ladder is outdated (Claman, 2012; Kaye & Giuloni, 2012). Current career concepts such as the protean career (Hall, 2004) and boundaryless career (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994) suggest flexibility and freedom for individuals to move from one firm to another as and when better opportunities arise. While such freedom “may benefit those nimble enough to take advantage of it, it leaves countless others vulnerable” (Fitzgerald, 2006, p.11), especially among the less-educated population.

Currently there is little research on topics related to the employment of less-educated workers in Malaysia. This should be considered an important area for research because less-educated workers form the majority of the workforce in the Malaysian manufacturing industry. This paper provides some understanding of the employment of less-educated workers in manufacturing, particularly with respect to hiring, training, and job prospects.

1.4 Research Questions

There are three research questions in this study. First, what are the motivations behind the decision of manufacturing companies to hire less-educated workers? Second, how do manufacturing companies provide training for less-educated workers? Third, how do manufacturing companies provide opportunities for progression to less-educated workers?

2. Method

Data for this study were obtained through interviews with representatives from three different manufacturing companies. The first company is a small, privately-owned local factory that has 35 employees and manufactures woven narrow fabrics. The second is a large steel factory that employs around 1,000 people; about 800 of them work in the steel plant. This company is a subsidiary of a public company listed on the Bursa Malaysia. The third company is a car engine factory that employs around 600 people. This factory is a subsidiary of an automotive company that produces cars for the local market.

Interviews were conducted after receiving permission from company management. There were three interview sessions. The first session was with a technical director and an assistant factory manager at the fabric company. The second was with two human resource executives from the steel company. The third was with the deputy general manager and a trainer from the engine factory. It should be noted that at the first and second companies, only a single, one-off session took place. At the third company, ongoing work is currently being conducted by the first author, who is carrying out a case study for his doctoral dissertation. However, the data for this paper is based only on the first interview at the engine company.

All participants were male, with the exception of the assistant factory manager at the fabric company. The interviews were semi-structured. During the interviews, the participants were asked a similar set of questions relating to the research questions of this study. They were also asked additional questions based on their

responses during the interview. All interviews were recorded and transcribed for the purpose of analysis. The interview transcripts were analyzed to identify themes that emerged from the data. This process was done manually by coding the data and comparing the data from the three interviews. The practice in interview research is that the participants remain unidentified (Seidman, 2006). Thus, in this paper, pseudonyms are used to protect the identities of the participants.

In the findings section, direct quotes from company representatives are used when appropriate. Words or phrases added by the authors to improve meaning and clarity are enclosed in square brackets. Parts of speech that were omitted are indicated with empty brackets.

3. Findings

Based on analysis of the interview transcripts, three main findings can be presented. First, most of the companies prefer hiring less-educated workers for entry-level jobs because such workers are less demanding and more likely to remain working at the factory for a longer period of time. Second, the companies provide learning opportunities in the workplace. Company representatives believe that less-educated workers are trainable; a low level of education is not a barrier for workers to be trained or to do well at work. Third, employers are willing to promote less-educated workers regardless of their academic qualifications, as long as they show good performance.

3.1 Companies Hire Less-Educated Workers Because They Are Loyal and Less Demanding

The first research question was, “what is the motivation behind the decision of manufacturing companies to hire less-educated workers?” The findings from this study show that the manufacturing companies select less-educated workers for two reasons: First, less-educated workers are less demanding; and second, they are more likely to stay at the company for a longer time.

Company representatives believe that many better-educated people such as certificate and diploma holders do not have the right knowledge and experience to justify their salary demands. According to Tajinder, the technical director at the fabric company, these people think that they “know too much” and thus their “expectation for remuneration is very high”. This observation is supported by Nizam, one of the human resource executives at the steel company, who clearly stated his hiring preference: “Qualification wise, I take from the bottom. When we focus on diploma and certificate holders, they start to demand. They demand high salary with no experience”. The company representatives clearly have a preference for less-educated workers for entry-level positions. “I prefer those from the lower level,” was Nizam’s response when asked of his hiring preference. Tajinder explained his hiring policy:

You can take from primary school all the way up to degree. Management is usually degree. Supervisory can be anything from Form Five up to diploma [level]. But we find normally diploma holders are too impatient. The grass is greener on the other side so it’s difficult with them.

Formal education does not seem to make a person special. It seems that the skills that matter most to the companies are factory-specific skills; this is true within the context of entry-level manufacturing jobs. Someone with a diploma qualification still has to be trained but unfortunately, most of them don’t stay for long. According to Nizam, “the diploma students that I hire, they only worked here for two or three years. Then, they got other offers and left”. Company representatives think that diploma holders lack the patience to learn the trades at the company. Sheila, the assistant factory manager at the fabric company, made the following comment on people with diploma qualifications:

They didn’t have that attitude, or positive mind that “Okay, today I learn, I have people who gave me opportunity to learn. And I learn today and tomorrow I can use it in other places”. They don’t want to take that. They are not patient.

This phenomenon is in contrast to people who lack formal qualifications. They are less demanding and they have the patience to stay with the firm for a longer period. Tajinder thinks that they are more “receptive to be trained, to be given knowledge on [a] piecemeal basis, slowly in a steady manner so that they move forward”. Sheila made the following observation on less-educated workers:

They feel that they don’t have anything, so they have to learn. So they have that attitude. People who already got [a] certificate, they don’t have that attitude. They will feel that they know everything and you’re not giving enough to them. So they won’t stay.

Hamdi, the deputy general manager at the engine factory, told a similar story of how qualified machinists at the machine shop in his engine factory usually stay for only a short period of time. He said, “these people are quick

to leave". But Hamdi didn't put the blame solely on these individuals, as market demand and the company's existing pay structure also contribute to the situation. At his factory, the starting pay is the same regardless of qualifications. This means that individuals with vocational certificates and those with secondary qualifications receive equal starting pay. Hence, someone with a vocational qualification would use the knowledge and experience at the company as a stepping stone to obtain a better job elsewhere. "Demand is high," said Hamdi about his qualified machinists. "Here, you get a thousand and half [salary in Ringgit], outside they can get more than two, [or] three thousand basic [salary]," he added. At the engine company, less-educated workers tend to stay longer and thus provide stability to the manufacturing workforce.

Shahrin, a trainer at the engine factory and also a former production supervisor, explained that the factory used to differentiate between new recruits based on their qualifications. New workers with post-secondary vocational qualifications were normally given better pay and a slightly higher job-entry position than secondary-school graduates. However, over a period of time, the company observed that workers who lacked qualifications could sometimes perform better than qualified employees. This means that workers have the potential to perform well, despite lacking in academic credentials.

It is interesting to note that precautionary measures exist at the factories to ensure that new recruits meet the minimum literacy and numeracy criteria set by the companies. Before hiring, potential employees are assessed to make sure that they have sufficient literacy levels to perform work on the production floor. They must have skills such as basic literacy, numeracy and the ability to understand instructions. At the engine factory, the management purposely hire workers with good grades in mathematics to work as machine operators in a computer numerical control (CNC) machining line. According to Mohan, one of the steel's company human resource executives, new workers must at least be able to "read and write and then understand what we are saying". At the fabric company, according to Sheila, "if we hire operators, we want to make sure they can read at least Malay". Workers at the fabric company are also tested for measurement skills: They are given a ruler to measure, for example, the width of a tape, to see whether they have the basic measurement skill that is required for work the fabric factory.

There seems to be a common view among the company representatives that positive attitude is more important than a high level of education. The employers are willing to hire people with a low level of education as long as they are trainable and they have the patience to learn. People with low levels of education are seen as less demanding than certificate or diploma holders. They are also believed to be more likely to stay at the company for a longer period of time.

3.2 Companies Provide Learning Opportunities at the Workplace

The second research question in this study was, "how do manufacturing companies provide training for less-educated workers? From analysis of the interview transcripts, it appears that the companies provide plenty of ways and opportunities for workers to learn at work. According to the representatives, training is given to help workers to do well at work. Tajinder said:

We actually run a class, give them training for about minimum two weeks. They do nothing but learn, you know. Learn and practice, learn and practice. Two weeks in different aspects of the job. Then, they're put on the job. If they are okay, fine. That means they're learning, they're moving forward. If they're not okay, then we bring them back and again, do it again one more time.

The role of a supervisor or an immediate superior is important in the training of new workers. Mohan from the steel company said, "At each section there is an immediate superior, he will train every worker". The situation is similar at the fabric company: According to Tajinder, "We always have the supervisor teaching them. If the supervisor says the person is good, if he can't deliver the goods, then you are responsible for that person".

At the fabric company, there are also opportunities for off-the-job training. According to Tajinder, his company sends workers for technical certification: "We try to send people on the boilerman certificate and we try to send people on the charginan certificate". Company representatives believe that with the training and experience, less-educated workers can match or even surpass the ability of diploma holders. According to Nizam,

The boys whom I train from the bottom, with enough knowledge in them, they can beat diploma guys, they can beat them. By the time they reached a similar age to the diploma guys, they would've had more experience than the diploma guys who only have theories but no practice.

Tajinder narrated a success story of a former employee who joined the factory with only a Lower Certificate of Education (LCE), which is equivalent to ISCED level 2. This person was able to progress within the company, despite lacking in formal education. Tajinder told this story:

I had one Malay guy who joined us, who joined with me since 1979 I think, 1979 or '80. He was just an

LCE guy [] That guy came in with zero [knowledge], when he walked out of here he could do welding, he could repair electrical wiring, he could do wiring and stuff like that, he could repair gear boxes, very complex infinitely variable gear boxes, he could repair that [] He also got his boilerman certificate.

There is a common belief among the company representatives that a low level of education is not a barrier for workers to perform well in the workplace. This belief is probably rooted in their successful experience in providing training for less-educated workers. Companies can provide the right training to help workers gain the necessary skills for success. As less-educated workers gain skills and experience, they are able to work just as well as those with formal qualifications.

3.3 Companies Promote Based on Performance Not on Academic Qualification

The third research question was “how do manufacturing companies provide opportunities for progress among less-educated workers?” The findings from this study show that job prospects do exist. There is a willingness to promote, regardless of academic qualifications. According to Tajinder, “You deliver the result, you get the appointment”. This is true in the case of less-educated workers. They can be promoted as long as they demonstrate good performance. Sheila provided examples of female workers who, despite having low academic qualifications, managed to rise to supervisory levels. According to Sheila, “We have a foreign worker [] She joined us as an operator [and] now she’s a technician [] we have another lady, she’s a standard six [received primary schooling only] and she has become a line leader”.

A similar situation was reported by representatives of the engine factory. According to Shahrin, academic qualifications are not the main criterion for promoting workers. For example, operators can be promoted to team leaders and subsequently to supervisors if they demonstrate good performance. Shahrin said that there was an employee at the company who started as an operator but now holds the title of assistant manager. At the factory, a university degree is not required for promotion to an executive. A good example is Hamdi, the deputy general manager. He doesn’t have a university degree, only a vocational certificate from a skills training institute and an executive diploma from a private college. Nevertheless, with knowledge and experience gained on the job, he was able to gain promotion to a senior management position.

When promoting employees, the companies look for criteria that are beyond formal qualifications. According to Mohan, “Attendance must be good. Interest in the work must be good, quality of work must be good, and also attitude”. When he was asked whether there is a certification requirement for promotion, he answered,

Normally no. Of course we will encourage them. Then we will send them for internal training, something like safety training, 5S housekeeping, what they call on-the-job training, crane training, we have a few courses related to this position.

At the steel company, the entry-level employees at the production plant are called production technicians. The company uses this job title to reflect the nature of products manufactured at the company; Mohan refers to these as “heavy-duty” items. Even if a person joins the company with only a secondary qualification, he or she would still be called a technician. Mohan explained the company’s career ladder:

There are five levels for technicians. If a person is skilled enough after one or two years, he will move to level 2. At level 2, after two to three years move to level 3, and then when he has everything; [all the] information at his fingertips, most probably he can move straight to level 5 or level 4 [] If his performance is really good, after level three, double promotion is possible.

Workers who show good performance can be promoted to supervisory and even executive levels. Mohan said, “After level 5, the next position is called supervisor, after supervisor, then the next position is executive”. A similar pathway also exists for workers at the fabric company. Tajinder explained the career pathway, which consists of five hierarchies for production workers at his company:

You come in as an operator, sometimes line leader, sometimes no line leader, [then] technician, that means you start to be able to maintain the machines [] After technician you become assistant supervisor and supervisor.

The companies in this study have put in place a well-defined career pathway for entry-level production workers. Nevertheless, not all are promoted, and some eventually leave. But they leave after gaining useful knowledge, and after securing better jobs at other places. Tajinder said, “Some of them do get better offers because their friends have introduced them to other companies, like multinationals”. Tajinder added that the larger companies pay better salaries: “They pay at least 30% more than we do”. Similar events have occurred at the steel company. According to Mohan, “Not everybody stays for a long period. Even technicians, after three or four years, despite being skillful here, they still want to go for a higher salary, right, so they will quit”.

4. Discussion

This study shows that lack of formal education is not a barrier for less-educated workers to be trained or to be successful at work. To help workers to succeed, employers provide opportunities for them to learn in the workplace, mostly through on-the-job training. Prospects for job progression do exist for less-educated workers. At the manufacturing companies where they work, there are career ladders that they can climb in order to reach higher positions and better pay. When employers promote workers, they are willing to waive the formal education requirements as long as the workers show good performance.

Logically, an unskilled worker would cost a firm much less than a skilled worker; the cost of hiring a skilled worker is between 10 and 17 weeks of wage payments (Blatter, Muehlmann, & Schenker, 2012). However, the company representatives in this study didn't mention saving money as a reason for hiring less-educated individuals. Based on past experience, company representatives believe that people with formal qualifications will not stay very long and may also have some attitude issues. Thus, they prefer less-educated workers. One of the employers stated his willingness to hire even those with only primary school qualifications as long as they show a willingness to learn. These employees have the potential to stay at the company for a while, and at least a little longer than certificate or diploma holders, who tend to join just for the experience and leave as soon as they receive a better offer from elsewhere.

The fact that hiring less-educated workers is not detrimental to production operations indicates that manufacturing jobs at these companies do not require a high level of education. Of course, there are company-specific skills that need to be acquired in order to be able to do the job, but these skills have to be acquired on-site, not through academic courses at educational institutions. Nevertheless, the companies do take precautionary measures by screening the workers so that those who are hired have sufficient numeracy and literacy skills.

On the issue of the perceived negative attitude among certificate and diploma holders, it is possible that manufacturing jobs, especially entry-level jobs at a factory, may not be suitable for someone with a certificate or diploma qualifications. Certificate and diploma holders may not want to start in entry-level posts alongside secondary-school graduates, but unfortunately, employers feel that their skills and experience are not sufficient for them to start higher up in the company. Naturally, higher education leads to higher expectations. When the expectations are not met, better-educated individuals become dissatisfied.

A person's level of education is frequently equated to their skill level (Steedman & McIntosh, 2001; Illeris, 2006). However, the companies in this study did not equate skills with educational level. Lack of formal education is not a barrier to career success in manufacturing jobs because the critical skills can be acquired in the workplace. Manufacturing jobs require factory-specific skills that formal education is unable to provide. At the factories, on-the-job training is vitally important for ensuring that workers have sufficient skills and knowledge to perform their tasks in the workplace.

The reality of technical education in Malaysia is that the educational content lacks practical skill components that graduates can utilize immediately in the workplace. A person who has a bachelor's degree in engineering may have a great deal of theoretical knowledge, but will lack practical skills; these have to be acquired in the workplace. On the other hand, someone with a vocational certificate has plenty of practical skills, but lack the theoretical foundation that a bachelor's degree holder acquires through their university education. Between these two extremes are diploma holders, who possess a certain amount of both theory and practice.

The available graduates are often not suitable for the companies, so the companies hire employees who do not have formal higher education. To compensate for a lack of education, the companies provide support in the form of continuous training in order to help the workers acquire the skills and knowledge required to be successful in the workplace. The scenario in which less-educated employees are given plenty of opportunities to learn in the workplace is consistent with the findings of a study by Xu and Lin (2011), who suggested that "Workplace training is driven primarily by the gap between the job functions performed by workers and the education backgrounds of these workers, everything else being equal" (p. 423). This situation indicates that a lack of formal education is not necessarily a barrier for learning in manufacturing industry.

A less-educated person is likely to earn a low initial salary upon joining a firm. However, this situation is not permanent. There is a pathway for this person to move up the career ladder. Pre-employment formal education is an important determinant for salary only at the hiring point; as workers gain more experience and receive on-the-job training, their technical proficiency improves and so do their wages (Xiao, 2002).

The manufacturing firms in this study emphasized worker performance; that is, good employees are promoted.

This is how workers move up the career ladder. In cases where they do not move up the ladder, they still gain valuable knowledge and skills that increase their value or employability. At the companies in the study, there are reported cases of people leaving to join other companies, after working for a few years, in order to obtain higher pay. Their skills and experience helped them to earn better wages elsewhere.

5. Conclusion

An important point to emerge from this study is that workforce stability seems to be the key behind an employer's decision to hire. Employers dislike workers who join the company just for the experience and leave as soon as they receive a better offer from elsewhere. From past experience, employers have learned that less-educated workers are more loyal than their better-educated peers. Thus, employers prefer to hire less-educated workers for entry-level manufacturing jobs and to groom them for higher positions.

Career paths exist for less-educated manufacturing workers. Their low-wage initial pay is not permanent. They can progress higher up the organization and earn better pay through a well-defined career path that has been put in place by their employers. Progression along the career pathway depends on their work performance. To help workers perform better, learning opportunities are provided by the employers. Lack of formal education is not a barrier to career progress; workers can move up the career ladder despite having a low level of academic qualifications.

More studies are needed in order to examine whether similar situations exist in other manufacturing companies. One of the limitations of this study is that it had only a small number of participants. Thus, the findings are only valid for these particular companies and cannot be generalized to other manufacturing companies in Malaysia. Further data collection would be useful to improve the validity of the findings. Understanding the situation in a broader context will be crucial for designing intervention policies to improve the employment situation for less-educated Malaysian workers.

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Embracing the E-era: Constructing Internet Marketing Strategies and Practices in Teacher Education Departments

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Abstract

This research uses confirmation factor analysis both to construct a measurement model of Internet marketing strategies and to conduct an importance-performance analysis to examine how teacher education departments provide such strategies. The unit of analysis in this research is students and focuses on their attitudes toward the quality of Internet marketing at teacher education departments in Taiwan. The author used a questionnaire to collect data. Six hundred and sixty-four usable questionnaires and 12 invalid questionnaires were collected. The effective response rate was 69 %. The model of the existence of four-factor structure (need, convenience, cost and communication) was tested using AMOS and goodness of fit. Thus, it was concluded that the four-factor model both fits well and represents a reasonably close approximation of the population. Next, the results of the study highlight the usefulness of importance-performance analysis for helping management improve its Internet marketing strategies. This study finds that the managers of teacher education departments should not only focus on concentrating their benefits but also allocate resources to improve Internet marketing strategies.

Keywords: confirmation factor analysis, importance-performance analysis, internet marketing, teacher education department, website

1. Introduction

According to global Internet usage statistics published by the Convea organization, an increasing number of people have access to the Internet (Convea, 2003). The Internet is a worldwide computer network that can be accessed via a computer, a mobile telephone, a game machine, a PDA, or another device. Approximately 40% of the world's population has an Internet connection today, whereas in 2001, the rate was less than 10%. In 2014, there were 2,925,249,355 Internet users in the world (population 7,243,784,121); nearly 48.4% of Internet users worldwide live in Asia (Internet lives stats, 2014). Internet users have been increasing rapidly and doubling in size for many years. Many other business models are using the Internet to promote their business via websites, email, Facebook, and so on. Internet marketing involves using a website to communicate an organization's message. As a result, using the Internet and websites has become an important marketing strategy.

Mohammed et al. (2003) claim that consumers build a relationship with an organization through its website in four stages: from awareness to exploration to commitment and possibly through dissolution. These four stages represent a consumer-centric framework that creates profitable relationships with consumers. The manager can use a department website to implement effective Internet marketing programs and build strong relationships with students. Therefore, Internet marketing enables schools to conduct marketing activities that can retain and recruit more students in teacher education departments.

In Taiwan, to support the social development of evolutionary democracy and to improve teacher quality, the "Teacher Education Act" was passed by the Ministry of Education in 1994 and the "Teachers' Act" was passed in 1995. According to some scholars, teacher education policy was confronted by the biggest challenge. The Ministry of Education initiated a series of progressive policies for efficacious education and thus expects to improve both the quality and quantity of teachers (Lin, Wang, & Teng, 2007). For teacher education departments in Taiwan, protecting the superior and eliminating the inferior become important aims during a competitive period of low fertility rates.

It is more difficult to recruit excellent students to teacher-education departments during times of low fertility rates and departmental financial difficulties. This phenomenon is due to teacher education departments becoming less attractive to high school students. In such departments, marketing has received increasing attention. The Internet is creating a shared real-time commercial space, the likes of which has never existed before, and it provides organizations with an opportunity to do things differently (Dutta & Segev, 1999). For teacher education departments, the Internet can comprise an important marketing strategy. One useful approach to this consumer (student)-focused marketing mix is known as the 4Cs (consumer need, cost, communication, and convenience). Consequently, this research is based on the student dimension of the 4C marketing-mix model, which reforms the 4P (price, product, promotion, and place) marketing mix for Internet marketing strategies.

The literature has engaged in discussions about Internet marketing in many industries. However, less research has focused on departments of higher education, especially teacher education departments. This study focuses on constructing Internet marketing strategies of teacher education departments and demonstrating the use of the importance-performance framework to help management improve its marketing strategies. The structure of this article is as follows: The literature review section is first. In the methodology and measurement section, the author describes the data collection and the sample, instrument and design, and data-analysis method. In the results and analysis section, the author describes the respondents' demographic profile, reliability and validity, the measurement model, and the importance-performance analysis of Internet marketing strategies. Based on the above results, there are numerous relevant directions for future research and highlighted implications of findings for research and practice in the conclusion and suggestions section.

2. Literature Review

In this section, the author first discussed the meaning of Internet marketing and then described how this study used importance-performance analysis.

2.1 Internet Marketing

Internet marketing involves applying the Internet and related digital technologies to achieve marketing objectives and support the modern concept of marketing (Chaffey et al., 2006, p. 6). The Internet's potential to transform commerce is immense, as are the challenges and opportunities for businesses as they participate in the Gold Rush of the information age (Dutta, Kwan, & Segev, 1998, p. 541). Managers can use websites to communicate with their consumers and to achieve the goals of Internet marketing strategies. The image of the student as consumer is derived from the prevalence of what has come to be known as consumerism in modern Western society (Kay, Bickel, & Birtwistle, 2006, p. 86). Students are treated as consumers and schools must use appropriate marketing strategies to obtain and recruit them.

Today, almost every legitimate corporation has a website; by the end of 1996, more than 80% of America's Fortune 500 firms had websites (Dutta, Kwan, & Segev, 1998). Users can learn more about products and services by interacting with a website. The Internet also enables a greater accumulation of consumer knowledge because it is oriented toward consumers' needs and wants (Tankosic & Trnavcevic, 2008, p. 137). Today's higher education managers must make many choices related to marketing strategies. Websites are invariably used when Internet marketing strategies are applied.

In this research, Internet marketing and marketing mixes are combined to form an Internet marketing mix. A market mix is a business tool that is often associated with the 4Ps (price, product, promotion, and place). The 4Ps were first proposed by McCarthy (1964) during the 1960s, and since that time, they have been used by managers worldwide. The 4Ps are not appropriate for the new and competitive market; the 4Cs address the new nature of products and services. Lauterborn (1990) has proposed that the marketers should focus on the 4Cs concept instead of the 4Ps because the approach of the 4C model represents a consumer centric view of the marketing mix.

The 4Cs are more consumer-oriented. Four factors of Internet marketing strategies are adapted from the 4C marketing mix, including consumer need (instead of product), consumer cost (instead of price), consumer communication (instead of promotion), and consumer convenience (instead of place). Pursuant to the 4Cs of Internet marketing strategies, the organization must first know what the consumer wants and needs. The most critical challenge facing educators is how to implement the most appropriate methods for recruiting and retaining teacher-education students. First, the managers must know what students need and want. Second, consumer cost is a more appropriate consideration than price in higher education sectors. Price is only a part of the total cost and many factors affect consumer cost, for example, the cost of time. Third, consumer communication is cooperative and creates a dialogue with potential consumers based on their needs and wants (Lauterborn, 1990; Schultz, Tannenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1993). Managers can use the Internet and websites to communicate with

their students in teacher education departments. Fourth, consumer convenience is significant. In the Internet era, websites can satisfy the needs and wants of consumers (students), who are not limited to a few places that can satisfy those needs and wants. With the rise of Internet marketing, convenience takes into account the ease of finding information about the department where students study in higher education institutions. In this paper, the Internet marketing mix is defined as the set of tools available to the higher education institution to shape the website marketing of its offer to students to account for consumer needs, cost, communication, and convenience.

2.2 Importance-Performance Analysis

As a tool to develop marketing strategies, importance-performance analysis (IPA) has gained popularity over recent years for its simplicity, ease of application and diagnostic value (O’Neill & Palmer, 2004). IPA is best described as an absolute measure of performance (Martilla & James, 1977). An increasing number of papers demonstrate the use of IPA framework to assist managers in higher education institutions to improve their quality and service (Nale, et al., 2000; O’Neill, & Palmer, 2004; Pike, 2004). IPA is now an important tool in the higher education sector.

IPA provides management with a useful focus for developing marketing strategies (Martilla & James, 1977). By defining a two-dimensional matrix with the vertical axis signifying the importance of the attribute from low to high and the horizontal axis representing the perceived performance of the object from low to high, the analysis yields prescriptions for four strategies (Yavas & Shemwell, 2001). Quadrant descriptions consist of the following (Aigbedo & Parameswaran, 2004; Lai & To, 2010; Martilla & James, 1977; Wu, Tang, & Shyu, 2010; Yavas & Shemwell, 2001):

. Quadrant A/ Keep up the good work: Attributes in this quadrant are evaluated high in both performance and importance. Managers of higher education institutions merely need to maintain their current efforts and performance.

. Quadrant B/Concentrate here: Attributes located in quadrant B have high importance, but low performance is viewed as a major weakness for the organization. Students felt that higher-education institutions needed to engage in special marketing strategies. This quadrant is a critical area in which managers should not only concentrate on improvement but also and locate more resources.

. Quadrant C/Low priority: Attributes located in Quadrant C reflect low performance and importance ratings, which means that these attributes required no additional resources. Managers of higher-education institutions can pay less attention to this quadrant.

. Quadrant D/Possible overkill: Attributes located in Quadrant D represent high performance scores coupled with low importance scores. These attributes are regarded as being unimportant to consumers; therefore, managers can reallocate resources to other quadrants.

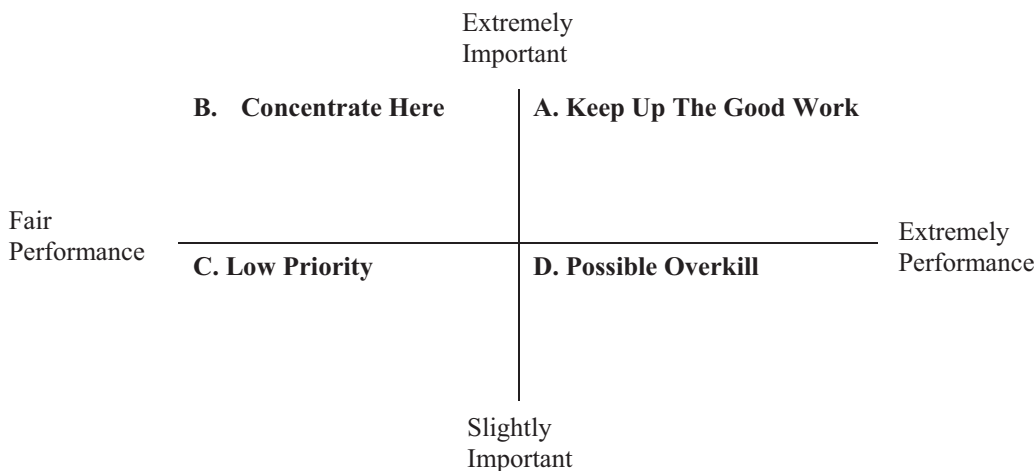


Figure 1. The IPA grid

IPA is an effective technique that can be applied to study consumer satisfaction. Since its inception in 1977, the IPA methodology has been widely applied in many sectors to evaluate the levels of consumer satisfaction. For example, Wong, Hideki, and George (2011) use IPA to evaluate the benefits of a e-government project, Yavas

and Shemwell (2001) modify IPA in a health-care setting, Shieh and Wu (2009) apply IPA to examine the services provided by the convenience store located at an Asian university, and so on. The use of the IPA method in higher education has received increasing attention. O'Neill and Palmer (2004) use IPA to explore the issue of service quality evaluation in the higher-education sector. Consequently, the simplicity of IPA has led to its recent use as a tool for developing marketing strategies in higher-education institutions.

3. Methodology and Measurement

In this section, the author discussed the data collection and sample in section 3.1, the instrument and design in section 3.2, and the data-analysis method in section 3.3.

3.1 Data Collection and the Sample

The unit of analysis in this research is the student level and focuses on student attitudes toward the quality of Internet marketing conducted by teacher education departments in Taiwan. The author applied a questionnaire to collect data. There are 120 teacher education departments in Taiwan, e.g., the Department of History, the Department of Chinese, the Department of Education, the Department of Physical Education, and so forth. Data for this study were collected using paper questionnaires.

The author mailed 8 questionnaires to every university-level teacher education department in Taiwan. Accordingly, 968 questionnaires were distributed to those departments' students over a one-month period in January 2015. The respondents were asked to return the completed questionnaires by mail within 3 weeks. The response rate was approximately 70 percent. After eliminating improperly completed questionnaires, 664 usable questionnaires and 12 invalid questionnaires were collected. The effective response rate was 69 %.

3.2 Instrument and Design

The research was designed to establish Internet marketing strategies that contribute to managing higher education institutions. Many organizations use the Internet to promote themselves via websites, email, Facebook, and so on. The author selected website strategies as one of many Internet tools used by teacher education departments. The survey's questions employed a Likert scale of 1-7 for most to least important and most to least satisfying. The respondents were asked to consider each type of Internet marketing strategy and rank the strategies that had been the most important and satisfactory for them. The values for the performance scale range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree), whereas the values for the importance scale ranges from 1 (Not important at all) to 7 (Extremely important). Other information includes demographics such as grades, gender, and so on.

An Internet marketing mix is defined as "the set of tools available to the higher education institution to shape the website marketing of its offer to students according to consumer needs, cost, communication, and convenience". In this study, the instrument included 16 items to measure Internet marketing in the higher-education sector. The 16 items derived from the literature review and the measurement of Internet marketing strategies include four factors: consumer need, consumer cost, consumer communication, and consumer convenience.

- A. Consumer need: The measurement of this factor includes 4 items. The "consumer need" factor refers to teacher education departments' need to know students' wants and needs when they use a department website.
- B. Consumer cost: The measurement of "consumer cost" also includes 4 items. The "consumer cost" factor refers to students' wish to spend their time or money using a department's website.
- C. Consumer communication: The measurement of this factor includes 4 items. The "consumer communication" factor refers to students' ability to communicate with departments through departmental websites. Managers also use Internet and websites to communicate with students of teacher education departments.
- D. Consumer convenience: The measurement of "consumer convenience" includes 4 items. In the Internet era, a website can satisfy students' needs and wants and is not limited to the use of only a few places to satisfy those needs and wants. With the rise of Internet marketing, convenience takes into account the ease of finding information about students' higher-education departments.

To assess not only the clarity of the question but also the validity and reliability of the variable measures, a pilot study was first conducted by collecting surveys based on 100 students in teacher education departments. An alpha coefficient between 0.50 and 0.60 is considered to be sufficient for a pilot study (Nunnally, 1978). In this paper, the range for Cronbach's Alpha was between 0.70 and 0.90, therefore indicating the internal consistency of the constructs.

3.3 Data Analysis Method

The data for this research were obtained through a questionnaire; the resulting data were analyzed using SPSS and Lisrel. First, SPSS 17.0 was used to examine the descriptive frequencies, including the number of respondents and sample percentage, based on the respondents' profiles. The author also calculated Cronbach's Alpha coefficients to check internal consistency and reliability. Second, the measurement model was estimated using CFA to examine the overall fit, reliability, and validity of the Internet marketing strategy model. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used for data analysis, whereas maximum likelihood estimation was used to acquire estimates of the model parameters (Wang & Li, 2010, p. 159). Third, IPA is best described as an absolute measure of performance (Martilla & James, 1977), and the author used it to assess the Internet marketing strategies of teacher education departments of higher education institutions.

4. Results and Analysis

In results and analysis section, the author discussed the respondents' demographic profile in section 4.1, reliability and validity in section 4.1, the CFA of Internet marketing strategies in section 4.3, and the IPA of Internet marketing strategies in section 4.4.

4.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

This study's response rate was approximately 70 percent. Six hundred and sixty-four usable questionnaires and 12 invalid questionnaires were collected. The effective response rate was 69%. Table 1 summarizes the demographics of the respondents and the overall mean scores for the 16 items.

Table 1 contains descriptive information about the demographic variables of the sample used in this research. Of these 664 samples, 30.1% (200) were male and 69.9% (464) were female. Respondents were students in the departments of education (37.3%, 248), science (20.5%, 136), humanities and liberal arts (34.3%, 228), and others (7.9%, 52). There were 143 freshman (21.5%), 236 sophomores (35.5%), 156 juniors (23.5%), and 129 seniors (and higher) (19.4%) represented in the sample.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of respondent characteristics

Characteristic	Number of times (n=664)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	200	30.1
Female	464	69.9
College		
Education	248	37.3
Science	136	20.5
Humanities and Liberal Arts	228	34.3
Others	52	7.9
Grade		
Freshman	143	21.5
Sophomore	236	35.5
Junior	156	23.5
Senior and above	129	19.4

4.2 Reliability and Validity

Reliability is the portion of the overall variance in a measure, which is true score variance in the research. Reliability assessments are used to test the consistency of the stability of the study results, and the coefficient alpha is used to estimate the degree of reliability, with estimates ranging from 0 to 1.0. The higher the coefficient, the stronger the linear relationship of the items being correlated and the higher the internal consistency (O'Neill & Palmer, 2004: 45). Conventionally, Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.7$ indicates satisfactory internal consistency reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The Cronbach's α of Need, Convenience, Cost, and Communication were 0.901, 0.929, 0.908, and 0.944. The overall reliability was $\alpha = 0.969$ for the performance scales. Above-alpha values indicated satisfactory internal consistency reliability.

Validity is a term used to describe the properties of measures, divided into three types: content validity,

criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Content and construct validity are used in this research. When a test has content validity, an expert judge may rate each item's relevance. Seven experts were invited to judge the scale of this research. Construct validity defines how well a test measures up to its claims; it was assessed using exploratory factor analysis (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). In this research, the author applied exploratory factor analysis to respondents' answers. The results were significant at $\chi^2 = 10775.528$ ($p = 0.00$). A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was computed to quantify the degree of variable inter-correlation; the results indicated an index of 0.965, which is considered to be good because the KMO value exceeds the recommended value of 0.6 and the Bartlett test of sphericity results support the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2005). These results indicate that the sampled data were suitable for factor analysis. The 16 items were rotated using a principal component analysis with varimax rotation; attributes with rotated factor loadings with absolute values of more than 0.50 were considered to be very significant (Hair, Anderson, Ronald, Tatham, & Black, 1998). This result explains the change to an 82.013% cumulative percentage of variance, and the factor analysis revealed four factors. The factor analysis revealed that each item had good construct validity.

The author also employed multiple measures of reliability; Composite reliability (CR) values were used to assess the component reliability. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) the CR should be higher than 0.80 and the average variance extracted (AVE) must exceed the acceptable value of 0.50 to ensure a good fit between constructs and underlying items. The CR values ranged from 0.900 to 0.950, exceeding the recommended 0.80. AVE values assess construct discriminant validity; here, the AVE values of the constructs ranged from 0.694 to 0.828, thus exceeding the acceptable value of 0.50. Byrne (2010) indicated that all CR values must be greater than the recommended AVE values. The above figures indicate this study's satisfactory reliability and validity (see Table 2).

Table 2. Standardized loading, AVE, CR, and Cronbach's α of the constructs

Construct	Factors	Standardized loading	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Need	N1	0.85	0.901	0.900	0.694
	N2	0.80			
	N3	0.82			
	N4	0.86			
Convenience	Con1	0.90	0.929	0.924	0.754
	Con2	0.84			
	Con3	0.89			
	Con4	0.88			
Cost	Cos1	0.86	0.908	0.911	0.719
	Cos2	0.81			
	Cos3	0.85			
	Cos4	0.87			
Communication	Com1	0.88	0.944	0.945	0.810
	Com2	0.92			
	Com3	0.92			
	Com4	0.88			
Internet marketing	Need	0.91	0.969	0.950	0.826
	Convenience	0.94			
	Cost	0.94			
	Communication	0.84			

4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Internet Marketing Strategies

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to test how well the measured variables represent the number of constructs. The author conducted a CFA to evaluate how well the 16 Internet marketing items fit the observations set forth above. A hypothesized model of the existence of a four-factor structure (need, convenience, cost and communication) was tested using AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures). There are specific measures that can

be calculated to determine goodness of fit. Most researchers use chi-square goodness, chi-square/*df*, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), the parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI), the normed fit index (NFI), the relative fit index (RFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI).

CFA relied on several statistical tests to determine the adequacy of a model fit to the data (Suhr, 2006). This paper uses the following criteria to determine good model fit: chi-square/*df* ratio less than 5, GFI, NFI, RFI, CFI, IFI and CFI all above 0.90 (values range from 0 to 1, and close to 1 indicates a perfect fit, whereas values close to zero indicate a bad fit). The RMSEA ranges from 0 to 1, with smaller values indicating better model fit, and a value of 0.08 or less is indicative of acceptable model fit. Other criteria—e.g., SRMR and PNFI—are below 0.50 (Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudek, 1993; Kline, 2010; Raked & Marcoulides, 2006). The thresholds are listed in Table 3.

Table 3. Decision criteria and result

Fit indices	Threshold	Result/value
χ^2/df	<5.00	4.954
RMSEA	<0.08	0.077
SRMR	<0.05	0.029
GFI	>0.90	0.911
NFI	>0.90	0.954
RFI	>0.90	0.945
IFI	>0.90	0.963
CFI	>0.90	0.963
AGFI	>0.80	0.879
PNFI	>0.50	0.795

The data were analyzed through CFA using AMOS. The chi-square/*df* values are 4.954 (< 5.00), RMSEA values are 0.077 (< 0.08), and SRMR values are 0.029 (< 0.05). The above test results revealed that the model has a good fit. The test results revealed that the GFI (0.911), NFI (0.954), RFI (0.945), IFI (0.963), and CFI (0.963) all exceed 0.90. The standard values also represent how well this model fits the population. The AGFI is 0.879, higher than the recommended maximum of 0.80. The PNFI (0.795) exceeds 0.50, which is well within accepted guidelines. Thus, it was concluded that the four-factor model fits well and represents a reasonably close approximation to the population.

4.4 The IPA of Internet Marketing Strategies

The next stage in the analysis was to examine the responses across the scale items to assess students' perceptions of Internet marketing and the relative importance assigned by respondents to each item in teacher education departments. In addition, a paired-samples t-test was used to conduct an evaluation where mean importance scores differed significantly from mean performance scores in all cases at the 0.001 level. The results showed that respondents' importance scores are larger than performance scores, and a paired-samples t-test was significant (See Table 4). This result reflects the existence of an Internet marketing performance gap in teacher education departments. Internet marketing strategies are important, but they must be seriously improved by managers of teacher education departments.

Figure 2 shows the importance-performance grid for the four factors constructed using the information obtained from students of teacher education departments. IPA can provide management with a useful focus for developing marketing strategies by defining a two-dimensional matrix with the vertical axis signifying the importance of the attribute from low to high and the horizontal axis representing the perceived performance of the object from low to high. There are four quadrants: Concentrate here, Keep up the good word, Low priority, and Possible overkill. In this study, the instrument included 16 items to measure Internet marketing in the higher education sector. The 16 items derived from the literature review, and the measurement of the Internet marketing strategies includes four factors: consumer need, consumer cost, consumer communication, and consumer convenience.

The Quadrant A results shown in Figure 2 suggest that the department is performing well and should keep up the good work. Quadrant A was composed of two factors: Need and Cost. Quadrant B, composed of only one factor, suggests that a department is not performing well enough in spite of the very high value placed on it by the

students. Students felt that institutions of higher education needed to engage in special marketing efforts. This quadrant is a critical area that managers should concentrate on improving. Quadrant C illustrates quite clearly that the departments are performing well below average. It is a low-priority region and managers of higher-education institutions can pay less attention to this quadrant in their teacher education departments. Quadrant D attributes represents high performance scores coupled with low importance scores. The respondents suggest that the department is doing more than necessary with respect to these attributes. This response is reflective of a misuse of the department’s resources with respect to Internet marketing strategies, and managers can reallocate resources to other quadrants. This research discovered no factors located in Quadrant D.

Table 4. Mean difference between each item importance and performance

items	Importance (A)		Performance (B)		A-B	t-value	Sig. (two-tailed)
	Average	Variance	Average	Variance			
<i>Need</i>							
1	6.00	1.066	4.76	1.338	1.238	20.481***	0.00
2	6.32	0.905	5.24	1.360	1.086	19.579***	0.00
3	6.15	1.014	5.05	1.321	1.102	20.389***	0.00
4	6.12	1.055	4.71	1.392	1.407	22.837***	0.00
<i>Convenience</i>							
1	6.10	1.039	4.65	1.375	1.450	23.658***	0.00
2	6.18	0.996	4.70	1.466	1.339	22.079***	0.00
3	6.15	0.986	4.70	1.466	1.446	22.449***	
4	6.19	0.968	4.67	1.478	1.514	23.249***	0.00
<i>Cost</i>							
1	6.21	0.968	6.10	1.362	1.105	19.898***	0.00
2	6.12	1.057	4.90	1.456	1.221	18.869***	0.00
3	6.01	1.151	4.89	1.334	1.117	18.889***	
4	6.13	1.055	5.03	1.338	1.098	19.647***	0.00
<i>communication</i>							
1	5.99	1.080	4.50	1.498	1.486	22.221***	0.00
2	5.80	1.215	4.40	1.453	1.398	22.072***	0.00
3	5.90	1.184	4.49	1.471	1.416	22.243***	0.00
4	5.78	1.275	4.32	1.526	1.452	22.155***	0.00

p***<0.001

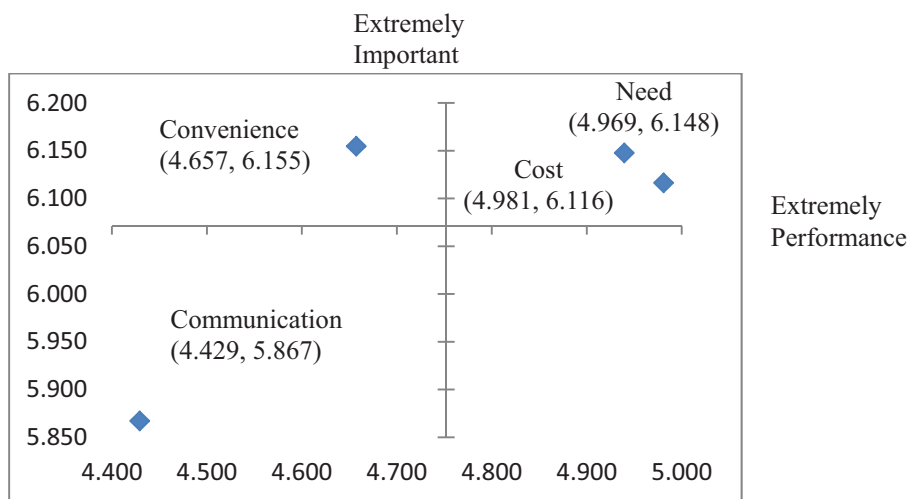


Figure 2. IPA matrix of Internet marketing dimensions

Quadrant B is reflective of the fact that some teacher education departments' Internet-marketing strategies are not performing to their full potential. It is essential that university improvement efforts and resources be prioritized in this area. The result indicates that "Convenience" is the strategy on which the departments need to concentrate. There are four Convenience items, three of which are located in Quadrant B (Concentrate Here area), including the following: to enable students to find information quickly, to make use of the website more convenient, and to enable students to become familiar with department information.

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

The purpose of this study is both to construct Internet marketing strategies for teacher education departments and to demonstrate the use of the importance-performance framework for helping managers improve their strategies. All of the values indicate this study's satisfactory reliability and validity. Internet marketing involves the application of the Internet and related digital technologies both to achieve marketing objectives and to support the modern-marketing concept (Chaffey, et al., 2006, p. 6). Students are treated as consumers and departments need to practice appropriate marketing strategies to obtain and recruit them: departmental websites are an important tool. In this research, four factors for Internet marketing strategies are adapted from the four Cs marketing mix, including consumer need, consumer cost, consumer communication, and consumer convenience. In this paper, an Internet marketing mix is defined as "the set of tools available to the higher education institution to shape the website marketing of its offer to students in accordance with consumer needs, cost, communication, and convenience".

This study's most important finding has been produced by the structure validation of the test by the CFA. The model of the existence of the four-factor structure was tested using AMOS and goodness of fit. Thus, it was concluded that the four-factor model fits well and represents a reasonably close approximation to the population. This is an important finding given the importance of better recruiting by teacher education departments to attract more students using Internet marketing strategies.

For the "Need" factor, departmental websites can support student learning, give them curriculum information, and so on. For the "Convenience" factor, departments maintain websites for student convenience, for example, by making them faster and more convenient. In this study, there are four items of Convenience, three of which are located in Quadrant B (Concentrate Here area), including the following: to enable students to find information quickly, to use departmental websites in a manner that is more convenient, and to ensure that students are well-informed about the department. In Taiwan, departmental improvement efforts and resources should be prioritized in this area. For the "Cost" factor, students can spend little time and money using departmental websites. For the "Communication" factor, students can communicate with departments through their websites, and managers use the Internet and websites to communicate with their students in teacher education departments.

For teacher education departments, protecting the superior and eliminating the inferior become important during a competitive period of low fertility rates worldwide. It is more difficult to recruit excellent students to teacher education departments during the time of low fertility rates and departmental financial difficulties. Internet marketing can play an important role in recruiting and retaining excellent students in teacher education departments. The CFA is used to test how well the measured variables represent the number of constructs in this study. A hypothesized model of the existence of a four-factor structure (need, convenience, cost and communication) was tested and showed a good model fit. Thus, it was concluded that the four-factor model fits well and represents a reasonably close approximation to the population. Internet marketing strategies in the business area can be applied to the educational area.

Next, IPA is a low-cost, easily understood technique that can yield important insights into which aspect of the marketing mix a firm should provide with more attention, together with identity areas that may consume too many resources (Martilla & James, 1977, p. 79). The results of the study highlight the usefulness of the IPA for helping management improve their Internet marketing strategies. The IPA offers numerous advantages for evaluating student acceptance of Internet marketing programs in teacher education departments. The items that currently perform effectively should keep up the good work. In this study, we see that managers of teacher education departments should focus on the "concentrate here" benefits and allocate resources to improve their Internet marketing strategies.

Students felt that institutions of higher education needed to engage in special marketing efforts, particularly related to "convenience". For Internet-era managers of teacher education departments, student needs and wants can be satisfied by websites, which are not limited to only a few places to satisfy those needs and wants. With the rise of Internet marketing, convenience takes into account the ease of finding information about the departments

in Taiwan's higher-education institutions, especially the rapidity with which students find information, thus increasing the convenience of website use and enabling the students to become familiar with departmental information.

Some suggestions for future studies are noted. First, researchers may consider examining the generalizability of Internet marketing strategies to various groups of educators. The group may include students from other departments in Taiwan or even from other countries. Second, this study collected and evaluated student feedback about their perceptions of Internet marketing strategies in teacher education departments. The quantitative approach followed in this paper reveals some factors important to these students. Research employing qualitative methods in support of quantitative findings could explicate students' underlying experiences. Finally, research on cultural differences is warranted.

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Customer Satisfaction with Electronic Banking Services in the Saudi Banking Sector

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Abstract

This research aims to examine the extent of customer satisfaction with electronic banking (e-banking) services in the Saudi banking sector and to address issues with quality of services by focusing on the following: (i) ease of use; (ii) information security and reliability and its role in influencing customer adoption of electronic services; (iii) the mechanisms of monitoring and control over these services. The research employed analytic and descriptive methodology, collecting primary data through a survey. It examined various aspects of electronic services provided by banks in Saudi Arabia to shed more light on these services and customer expectations, while also taking into account modern studies in this field as secondary data. The results show that Saudi banks have succeeded in attaining significant customer satisfaction by improving their electronic services, facilitating electronic transactions, improving processing performance and enhancing the specifications of electronic services. In addition, they have achieved effective communication with their customers as well as the speed of applications. However, there is an absence of awareness and guidance for customers about the e-banking system. The results of this research lead to some recommendations for improving the electronic services provided by banks in Saudi Arabia to enhance customer satisfaction.

Keywords: information technology, information security, e-banking, ease of use, customer satisfaction, adoption, Saudi Arabia

1. Introduction

In the last few decades, banks have seen a shift in their objectives and strategies due to the emergence of an information and communications revolution in the financial and banking markets. This has prompted banks to move towards the introduction of a new type of services based on information technology (IT), offering what is known as "electronic banking services", or e-banking, in addition to traditional banking services. There are new concepts and ways of providing services to customers based on IT, including checking customer satisfaction and profitability.

The banking services provided through the Internet are varied, including: a) the dissemination of information of different services and products offered by banks to the public in general and their customers in particular; b) the possibility of receiving customer inquiries and responding to them through e-mail, as well as providing simple transactions allowing customers to submit their instructions and applications for various services; c) the provision of sites allowing customers to make inquiries about their account balances, undertake financial transactions and pay various bills; d) the opportunity to use various other bank products and deal with the purchase and sale of securities, inter alia.

E-banking has had a significant impact on customers' use of bank services. Electronic services have become the main pillar for Saudi banks because of their ability to improve speed, performance and productivity. Online banking has been fully adopted in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia as a value-added service to attain customer satisfaction and cost advantages. Banks have also sought to reduce operational costs through the provision of electronic services and gain access to the largest segment of customers in terms of the geographical and temporal dimensions. Moreover, banks have sought greater integration in e-shopping networks. Electronic services provide higher accuracy and reliability in banking service provision due to the low rate of human error, resulting in increased effectiveness and efficiency in the banking business.

Although the benefits of the adoption of modern technology related to information systems are well known in many areas (administrative, financial, industrial), there are few studies that quantify these benefits scientifically. Thus, this study aims to examine customer satisfaction with e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector and study the reliability and privacy of banking service providers, as well as to address the mechanisms of monitoring and control over these services.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1 E-Banking

The term e-banking refers to the provision of small banking products (e.g. current accounts, loans, financial advice) and services (e.g. receipt of deposits, payment of bills, account management, the provision of products and services in exchange for e-money). Chavan (2013) defined e-banking as an Internet portal through which customers can use different types of banking services. It can also be defined as the provision of banking products and services through electronic distribution channels.

The main advantages of e-banking are the time saved through the automated processing of banking services and the provision of adjustment tools to manage customers' money. In addition, Ahmad and Al-Zu'bi (2011) found that e-banking has the following benefits: reducing the costs of accessing and using banking services; increased convenience and time savings, with customers able to conduct transactions 24 hours per day; rapid and continuous access to information; better money management through speeding up the cycle of the transfer of money and increasing the efficiency of business operations.

2.2 E-Banking in Saudi Arabia

A report published by the Saudi Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (MCIT, 2015) shows that Saudi Arabia has already started to provide Internet services under certain controls designed to take advantage of the informative aspect of the Internet to provide positive and useful services. According to Al-Somali (2009), Saudi Arabia is a regional leader in e-banking and indeed Saudi Arabia was ranked second in the Middle East in 2015 for the provision of e-banking. Almohaimmeed (2012) noted that Saudi Arabia is one of the countries developing rapidly in many fields, especially in the Internet market. As pointed out by Alotaibi (2015), Saudi Arabia is a financially rich country with well-developed financial services and infrastructure. Thus, the country has succeeded in transferring and adopting technology, including in the financial sector.

According to MCIT (2015), the latest statistics concerning the expansion of the Internet showed that there would be more than three billion Internet users by the end of 2015, covering 46% of the world population, estimated at 7.2 billion, in the most populated regions. Moreover, the Internet gained approximately 233 million new users in the first half of 2015, an increase of 8% compared to the number of users in 2013. In 2015, there were nearly 2.8 billion users, comprising approximately 39% of the world population.

2.3 Pillars of E-Banking Adoption

E-banking affects the daily activities of individuals and institutions. For organizations, information is crucial and they cannot operate efficiently without it. Perhaps the best example of the application of IT by organizations is e-banking, which can help organizations achieve their objectives. They have constant access to banking services over the Internet, including electronic payments, safe investments and the exchange of banking information. By exploiting the various advantages e-banking provides, organizations can enhance opportunities for growth and it seems clear that IT can contribute to increasing profits (Ahmadirezaei, 2011).

There are several factors that play a role in e-banking adoption, among which some central pillars are: customer satisfaction, ease of use, trust, information security, competitive advantage, compatibility and knowledge of technology. Each of these is addressed in turn below.

2.3.1 Customer Satisfaction

As found by Al-Somali, Gholami, and Clegg (2009), from the customer perspective, a number of aspects influence the adoption of e-banking, including ease of use, education, reliability and resistance to change. On the banking side, Lakhi and Gul (2012) noted that to attract customers and improve their services, banks must invest in IT and promote the culture of e-banking. Thus, banks' objectives are linked to the design of hardware and software necessary to improve access to their e-banking service channels. In particular, banks and other commercial institutions need to develop software applications that are "consumer-friendly" as key aspects of these service channels are that they are easy to use and useful.

Eid (2011) found that the quality of the user interface and the quality of information on e-commerce sites have a positive impact on customer satisfaction. Here, banks need to differentiate themselves as if customers notice

little, if any, difference in the services provided, any new offer will be held to be the same or similar to those of competitors.

Al-Tit (2015) also found that service quality has a positive influence on customer satisfaction and suggested that this leads to customer retention. Zaim et al. (2010) found that reliability, tangibility and understanding are the key factors in ensuring customer satisfaction, while response and security are also important. Moreover, Mian (2014) found a strong correlation between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia. Loyalty is the "currency of the 21 century" as the cost of providing services to existing clients is five or six times less than that of seeking and serving a new client. Walsh (2005) also found that it is preferable to deal with existing customers rather than having to acquire new customers.

2.3.2 Ease of Use

Ease of use refers to the (lack of) effort required to use a particular system, as defined by Davis (1993). Celik (2008) found that the individuals will have a positive view about new technology that they believe is easy to learn and use. In particular, there are strong indications that the ease of use of e-banking services increases the adoption of these services by customers. Thus, the first null hypothesis is:

H0₁: Customers are not satisfied with the ease of use of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector.

2.3.3 Reliability

According to Park and Kim (2003, citing Mayer et al., 1995), trust is the "willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, regardless of their ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). As noted by Ba and Pavlou (2002), notwithstanding the various advantages of trust, it is extremely difficult to build trust between an institution and a customer in e-commerce, in part because there are many online threats.

Akbar and Parvez (2009) stressed that banks should consider both the present and the future when making decisions concerning appropriate tools for gaining customer confidence. Here, confidence describes the extent of the customer's faith in the bank and suggests the bank's role in giving them the assurances they need about the present and the near future. Customers must have a positive and strong conviction that the bank is working for their benefit as any deficiency in this belief will lead to the client changing banks. Akbar and Parvez (2009) found that 40% of customers believe that these issues are critical aspects affecting the adoption of e-commerce in Saudi Arabia.

In relation to this, Lakhi and Gul (2012) found that banks need to make improvements to their communication models in order to motivate customers to use e-banking services. In contrast, Eid (2011) found that the quality of the user interface, security and privacy are related to the level of trust on the part of the client, whereas the quality of information is not. Thus, the second hypothesis is as follows:

H0₂: Customers are not satisfied with the trustworthiness of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector.

2.3.4 Information Security

Ambhire and Teltumde (2011) defined information security as the process of protecting the organization and confidence in its systems, as well as maintaining information vital to the enterprise's operations. According to Miyazaki and Fernandez (2001), information security is widely recognized as a crucial by both government and industry organizations. From the consumer's perspective, information security issues can be a barrier to the growth of e-commerce.

Risks with regard to Internet security have been identified as the focus of attention for both experienced users and novices in the use of Internet technologies. Financial and banking institutions protect their own and others' information through the development of security protocols, risk management strategies, application strategies and test execution, monitoring the environment to control risks. Moreover, Al-Jabri and Sohail (2012) noted that banks seek to reduce consumers' perceived risk through the provision of specific guarantees to protect them. In Alqahtani, Al-Badi, and Mayhew's (2012) study of e-commerce consumers in Saudi Arabia, 45.5% of the respondents agreed that monitoring and control were among the decisive factors influencing the adoption and use of e-commerce. Such issues have driven many Saudi banks to make information security a high priority. Thus, the third hypothesis is as follows:

H0₃: Customers are not satisfied with the information security of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector.

2.3.5 Competitive Advantage

According to Gillard, Bailey, and Nolan (2008), innovation means always being ready to "do something" with

the willingness to risk defeat and the threat of leakage associated with the adoption of modern technology. This behaviour satisfies the desire of innovators and makes them the first creators to overcome the risks and costs associated with modern technology. As noted by Ezzi (2014), to keep up with recent changes in the markets, banks have to compete with others to attract customers, who in turn seek the best available banking services. In this respect, banks have to be innovators to gain competitive advantage and enhance their own performance against that of their competitors.

2.3.6 Compatibility

Wu and Wang (2005) found that compatibility leads to positive accreditation and noted that human nature drives people to derive satisfaction from behaviours, products and services which are compatible with their lifestyle. In this regard, Al-Jabri and Sohail (2012) found that Saudi Arabia should provide e-banking services that are compatible with customers' previous experiences, lifestyles and beliefs, as well as their current requirements, to meet their expectations and provide optimal support in banking operations.

2.3.7 Knowledge of Technology

Davis (1993) found that there is greater user acceptance of e-services among those with knowledge of technology and who believe that the use of technology will enhance productivity. Wang and Wu (2005) also found this factor to be highly important in determining the use of online banking. In terms of online banking, its rapid adoption relates to the value of the product for technologically aware users keen to benefit from 24-hour availability and the opportunity to accomplish banking tasks for free.

3. Methodology

The methodology of the research was developed based on a wide-ranging and in-depth review of the literature. In line with the analytical and descriptive methodology, primary data were collected through a survey and analysed to derive indicators which could be evaluated and interpreted in line with this type of research. To collect the necessary data, a survey was distributed in the *AlQassim region* of Saudi Arabia. To ensure homogeneity in selection and the accuracy of results, international studies with a close relationship to this research were referred to as secondary source of data.

3.1 Sampling

The survey was distributed to 250 customers (N=100) of the Al Rajhi and Al Ahli banks in the *AlQassim region*. The response rate was less than 50%, with 100 completed questionnaires returned.

3.2 Instrument

The survey was developed based on the works of Al Nahian, Shahriar, and Nayeema (2009), Sadeghi, and Farokhian (2010), Kumbhar (2011), AlKhasawneh, AlSamyda, and Yousif (2012) and Unyathanakorn and Rompho (2014). The survey consisted of 15 items measuring the dimensions ease of use (items 1–5), trust (items 6–10) and information security (items 11–15) on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = strongly disagree) to (5= strongly agree). Before completing the survey, the objectives of the research were clarified and informed consent was obtained from the respondents.

3.3 Validity

According to Drost (2011), validity is concerned with the meaningfulness of research components. When researchers measure behaviours, they are concerned about they are measuring what they intend to measure. For this reason, a number of raters specialized in the field were chosen to comment on the questionnaire items and the survey was amended based on their observations.

3.4 Reliability

The internal consistency of the survey was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. As shown in Table 1, the coefficient for internal consistency is high and acceptable according to Sakaran (2013).

Table 1. Instrument reliability

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Ease of use	0.64
Information Reliability	0.75
information security	0.74
Total	0.86

4. Results

This section addresses the results of the survey and testing of the hypotheses. First, with regard to ease of use, Table 2 shows that customer satisfaction with this aspect of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector is high (mean = 3.76; SD = 0.65). The table also indicates that the response to the question, "How satisfied are you with the organization of e-banking services?" has the highest score (mean = 4.08; SD = 0.78), while the response to the question "How satisfied are you with the guidance provided by the e-banking system?" has the lowest score (mean = 3.28; SD = 1.02).

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of the level of customer satisfaction with the ease of use of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector (in descending order)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Level
i ₁	4.08	0.78	1	high
i ₃	3.87	0.95	2	high
i ₂	3.81	0.99	3	high
i ₄	3.77	0.87	4	high
i ₅	3.28	1.02	5	Medium
Total	3.76	0.65	-	High

Table 3 shows that customer satisfaction in relation to trust in e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector is high (mean = 3.76; SD = 0.70). The table also indicates that the response to the question "How satisfied are you with electronic bank account statements and reports?" has the highest score (mean = 4.16; SD = 0.80), while the response to the question "How satisfied are you with the speed and efficiency of e-banking in solving problems?" has the lowest score (mean = 3.30; SD = 1.20).

Table 3. Means and standard deviations of the level of customer satisfaction with trust in e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector (in descending order)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Level
i ₆	4.16	0.80	1	high
i ₉	4.16	0.98	2	high
i ₈	3.69	0.97	3	high
i ₁₀	3.50	1.20	4	Medium
i ₇	3.30	1.20	5	Medium
Total	3.76	0.70	-	High

Table 4 shows that customer satisfaction with the information security of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector is high (mean = 4.05; SD = 0.59). The table also indicates that the response to the question "How satisfied are you with the security of electronic bank account statements and reports?" has the highest score (mean = 4.34; SD = 0.80), while the response to the question "How satisfied are you with the speed and efficiency of e-banking in solving problems?" has the lowest score (mean = 3.30; SD = 1.20).

Table 4. Means and standard deviations of the level of customer satisfaction with the information security of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector (in descending order)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Level
i ₁₅	4.34	0.80	1	High
i ₁₂	4.11	0.91	2	High
i ₁₃	4.08	0.93	3	High
i ₁₁	3.89	0.98	4	Medium
i ₁₄	3.84	0.95	5	Medium
Total	4.05	0.59	-	High

The research hypotheses were tested using the *t*-test for each variable. Table 5 shows that the *t*-value calculated for the first variable was 9.33 with a *p*-value of 0.00, which is lower than the acceptable level of significance ($\alpha=0.05$). Therefore the alternate hypothesis is accepted, meaning that customers are satisfied with the ease of use of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector.

For the second variable, the *t*-value was 8.71 with a *p*-value of 0.00, again lower than the acceptable level of significance ($\alpha=0.05$). Therefore, the alternate hypothesis that customers are satisfied with the trustworthiness of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector is accepted.

Finally, the results show a *t*-value for the third variable of 14.36 with a *p*-value of 0.00, below the acceptable level of significance ($\alpha=0.05$). Thus, the alternate hypothesis that customers are satisfied with the information security of e-banking services in the Saudi banking sector is accepted.

Table 5. Results of hypothesis testing using the *t*-test

Hypothesis	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Result
H ₁	3.76	0.65	9.33	0.00	0.76	Accepted
H ₂	3.76	0.70	8.71	0.00	0.76	Accepted
H ₃	4.05	0.59	14.36	0.00	1.05	Accepted
Total	3.86	0.55	12.55	0.00	0.86	Accepted

5. Conclusion

The results show that Saudi e-banking does not pay adequate attention to the guidance provided to customers concerning how to deal with their websites, as mentioned by many researchers (e.g. Ismail and Osman, 2012). These authors identified 11 factors that affect the adoption of e-banking, including a weak role on the part of banks in raising client awareness and lack of clarity concerning e-banking guidelines and instructions. Shahar (2002) noted that complexity is the most important problem in e-banking systems. Moreover, Yoon and Occeña (2014) argued that lack of adequate guidance on the implementation of e-banking systems has proved to be a challenge that is difficult to overcome. The greatest emphasis has been placed on the organization and improvement of electronic services, facilitating electronic transactions, processing performance and enhancing the specifications of electronic services.

The results also showed that Saudi e-banking should pay greater attention to the issue of stimulating customers to opt for electronic services, in addition to the need for banks to develop the speed and efficiency of electronic solutions to problems. Folake (2014) found that to increase customers' acceptance of e-banking, banks need to understand the antecedents of trust and develop sound strategies to build customers' trust in internet banking.

However, the results also show that Saudi e-banking has succeeded – from a customer perspective – in attaining significant satisfaction through effective communication using reports and notices about daily account operations, as well as ensuring the speed of electronic applications. While e-banking has paid considerable attention to the confidentiality of customers' personal information, in addition to the confidentiality and privacy of electronic services, it has ignored the issue of customer awareness of the importance of confidentiality and privacy of their personal data. As Alsomali (2015) argued, e-banks must provide user guides for consumers which they can consult to use online banking safely.

The results of this research show that Saudi banks have broadly attained customer satisfaction, but they also highlight areas in which Saudi banks must improve their e-banking services to attain customer satisfaction and achieve greater success.

6. Limitations and Future Research

There are many limitations in this research. First, the sample was too small to confer reliability or generalizability in the findings. Second, the respondents were familiar with dealing with online applications, based on their level of education. Third, the sample was concentrated in the AlQassim region only. Fourth, the period of study was limited.

In future research, the study of e-banking could be expanded to include all regions of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which would provide a more homogeneous sample. A larger sample size covering a wider geographical area will provide more reliable and accurate results. Indeed, such research might be undertaken in other countries

with very different provision of services and consumers. Moreover, future research could encompass a greater diversity of knowledge and culture, in particular focusing on different age groups. Finally, studies of online services could investigate different business areas, focusing on new business requirements.

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The Evolution of University Governance in Ghana: Implications for Education Policy and Practice

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Abstract

The relationship between education and public policy is two way: (1) economic development of a nation depends on the human capital produced by the education system of that nation and (2) public spending and management of the education system is crucial to the welfare of the nation. Changes in this relationship generate public concerns about university governance and its implications to national development. Therefore, this study explores the questions: (1) Have the role and purpose of university governance changed since its inception? (2) Are there differences between the old and the new system of university governance? (3) What larger ramifications does this have on university governance? The study was conducted within the framework of qualitative research design. The researchers adopted the social constructivist worldview with phenomenology approach to inquiry. Participants who were mainly eminent former senior university administrators and regulators with management, administrative and governance experience in public and private university were interviewed. Data was transcribed and read repeatedly over time to make sense of issues raised by informants. Significant statements were selected, interpreted and used in the text to highlight key issues as well as to provide voice of the informants. The findings of the study suggest that remedies for the changes realized in governance should take into account measures such as strengthening institutional capacities; balancing between the interests of the private and public sector actors in university education; and safeguarding the policy space of the ordinary people to participate in university education affairs that concern or affect them.

Keywords: university governance, administration, management, Ghana, education policy

1. Introduction

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the idea of ‘good governance’ is given different meanings by different organizations, but is generally characterized as referring to participation, accountability, predictability, and transparency (OECD, 2004). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) refers to good governance as 'not only ridding societies of corruption but also giving people the rights, the means, and the capacity to participate in the decisions that affect their lives and to hold their governments accountable for what they do (UNDP, 1997). It means fair and just democratic governance.

It is an open secret to say that bad governance is among the major barriers to economic development and social well-being in the developing world (Castañeda, 2009; Forson, 2013; Forson et al., 2015; Kurtz & Schrank, 2007; Wolf, 2005). On the contrary, the belief that good governance promotes growth and development is all but completely indisputable (Kaufmann, 2004) irrespective of how subjective the term ‘good governance’ might mean. While to determine growth, it can be measured in a rather straightforward fashion, good governance on the other hand is much more problematic (Kurtz & Schrank, 2007). No wonder in granting many development aid, good governance is a pre-condition (see Forson et al., 2015).

Governance could also be the agreed form, structure and processes through which universities make decisions and act (Tierney & Lechuga, 2004). In this regard, governance is neither centered on an individual nor a single organization. However, for effective and efficient governance, there must always be leaders around the

institutions or organizations who seek to make governance coordination meaningful to the extent that they will be accountable to the people they govern. A governance system that is effective and efficient means and implies good governance. Governance, according to Bovaird and Löffler (2003) is the ways in which stakeholders interact with each other in order to influence the outcomes of policies for the public. By ‘good governance’, Bovaird and Löffler (2003) meant the negotiation by all the stakeholders in an issue of improved public policy outcomes and agreed governance principles, which are both implemented and regularly evaluated by all stakeholders.

Unambiguously, the manner in which power or authority is exercised in organizations in resource allocation and management can also be university governance. It involves the enactment of policies, procedures for decision-making, for organizational effectiveness (Carnegie & Tuck, 2010) and using the university’s laid down structure, and overall organizational coherence is governance (Considine, 2004).

Therefore, University Governance Issues (UGI) refers to matters surrounding the governance of a university that have a direct effective (positively or negatively) on the quality of output of the university. These issues may include among other things conventional indicators of governance plus any important topic or problem for debate or discussion that profoundly affects the running of the university. Hence, the research sought to explore the existing governance issues to infer the extent to which these issues might have impacted on the quality of outputs from the three Ghanaian Universities.

The relationship between education, governance, and public policy is two way: (1) economic development of a nation depends on the human capital produced by the education system of that nation and (2) public spending and management of the education system is crucial to the welfare of the nation. Changes in this relationship generate public concerns about university governance and its implications to national development.

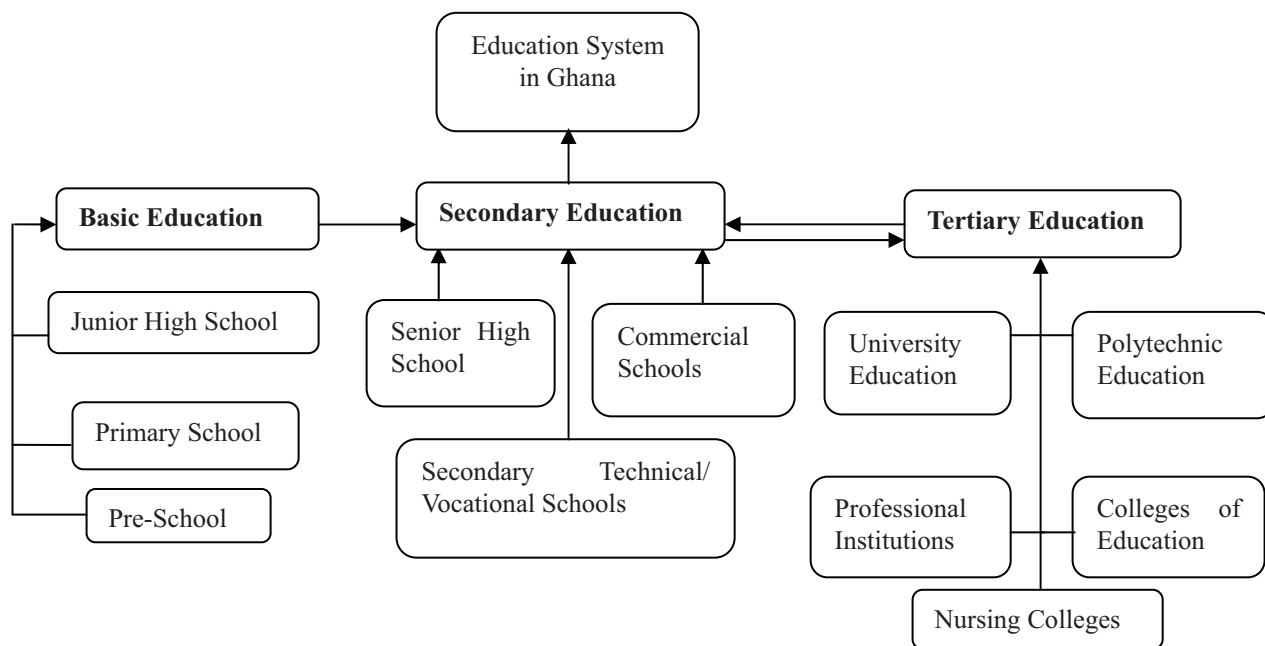


Figure 1. Components of educational system in Ghana
Source: Authors’ construct

Governance of the university requires that the university leadership defend academic freedom, encourage shared governance, promote accountability, ensure meritocracy in selection and strive for excellence (Bloom & Rosovsky, 2010). So, to look at governance means, an overview of the processes and the outcomes. That is the more reason why in the university system, it is not just your certificates that are important, but also the transcripts that come with those certificates. In the same vein, university education should not just end at transcripts and certificates, but also the impacts that the holders of such certificates have on communities they find themselves and the society at large. Effective and efficient university governance therefore must not just be what happens on the university campus but what also happens in the outside world with the university’s

graduates. The challenge however is that, universities might be able to control the outputs but might not be in the position to determine the outcomes as Bovaird and Löffler (2003) put it; outcomes are often contingent on factors outside the direct control of the agency responsible for delivering particular outputs. Whiles 'good governance' is still very much a contested area, such that measures of 'good governance' are used in widely different ways in different contexts around the world, it is important to also say that there is now widespread international and local interest in measuring not only the quality of services but also improvements in quality of life, both overall and in specific dimensions (Bovaird & Löffler, 2003). In that regard, universities must also take serious interest in how the lives of their products (graduates) are improved upon and not just on the fact that they have turned out huge numbers from their departments, faculties or institutions.

Ghana has an educational system that can be grouped into three main categories: Basic, Secondary and Tertiary. According to Ministry of Education (2012), there are 36,692 basic schools, 515 schools at the secondary level and 136 at the tertiary level made up of Public Universities/university colleges; Public Specialized/Professional Colleges; Chartered Private Tertiary Institutions; Private Tertiary Institutions; Polytechnics; Public Colleges of Education; Private Colleges of Education; Public Nursing Training Colleges and Private Nursing Training Colleges. Figure 1 is the pictorial representation of the categories with their respective components.

1.1 Basic Education

Basic Education is the beginning of formal education in Ghana just like the rest of the world. It consists of three stages of Pre-School, Primary School and Junior High School. It is free and compulsory and starts with pre-school for 2 years with a 4-year old child after which the child proceeds to primary school at age 6 for 6 years. It is expected that at age 13 the child enters Junior High School (JHS) for 3 years and so 4 years old before pre-school, 2 years of pre-school, 6 years of primary school and 3 years of Junior High School. Basic education therefore takes the form 2-6-3 years of education. Which means, by the time, a child completes basic school; the child will be about 15 years old.

Table 1. Gross enrolment numbers for basic education

Enrolment	2008/9	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13
KG	1,338,454	1,440,732	1,491,450	1,543,314	1,604,505
Primary	3,710,647	3,809,258	3,962,779	4,062,026	4,105,913
JHS	1,285,277	1,301,940	1,335,400	1,385,367	1,452,585
Total	6,334,382	6,551,930	6,789,629	6,990,707	7,163,003

Source: GoG, 2013: 9.

As captured in Table 1, gross enrolments at the basic level has be increasing from 6,334,382 in 2008/9 to 7,163,003 in 2012/13 academic years representing an average of 13% of the base year.

1.2 Secondary Education

Secondary education is composed of Senior High Schools (SHS), Commercial Schools, Secondary Technical or Vocational Schools of 3 years each depending on the one the JHS graduate offers to pursue. Table 1.2 provides the enrolment at the Secondary education level for 2011/12 and 2012/13 academic years with an increase of 12% growth rate.

Table 2. Gross enrolments in second cycle education

Enrolment	2011/12	2012/13
SHS	758,468	842,587
TVET	62,303	61,496
Total	820,771	904,212
Population 15-18	2,044,848	2,291,267

Source: GoG, 2013: 11.

All things being equal, the percentage increase in gross enrolment both at the basic and secondary levels compared to the annual population growth of 2.1% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014) indicates that the progress is commendable.

1.3 Tertiary Education

Tertiary Education is made of Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education, Nursing Colleges and Professional Institutions. Bachelor degrees in universities are usually 4 years, Polytechnics Higher National Diplomas 3 years, Colleges of Education and Nursing Colleges 3 years each and the professional institutions vary depending on the programme of study. As captured from the beginning, the focus of this study is on university governance and therefore focuses on the university component of the tertiary education in Ghana. It is important to mention that Figure 1 represents the current educational categories as at 2014; meaning it includes the reforms of the Anamuah-Mensah Presidential Commission report of 2002. A key component of the national reform agenda has been on the country's educational system. Notable among is the tertiary education reforms of 1991 which sought to improve upon educational access, relevance and quality so as to speed up the developmental agenda of the country.

These broad programmes and policies are multi-sectorial with the main aim of reducing poverty to the barest minimum and generally to improve the lives of every citizenry through the provision of relevant knowledge and skills. Under these strategic programmes, some gains have been made towards the realization of macro-economic stability and the achievement of poverty reduction goals.

Ghana has moved more quickly than she had envisaged in terms of her economic performance though much is yet to be done. For instance, the plan target of becoming a middle income country by 2020 was achieved 14 years in advance (2008) with GDP per capita (PPP) of \$3,300 in 2012. As defined, a country with a per capita income of more than \$976 a year is a middle-income country and Ghana's was \$1,318.36. Ghana's economy has maintained commendable growth trajectory with an average annual growth of about 9.0% over the past five years until 2013 (AfDB et al., 2014) and was the world's fastest growing economy in 2011.

The Ghanaian economy continued to record significant growth rate in 2012 to sustain the country's middle income status as envisaged under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (Government of Ghana, 2013). Additionally, the report showed that the per capita income increased from US\$1,563 in 2011 to US\$1,570 in 2012 compared to the target of US\$1,478.10 set under the GSGDA. Explaining further, GDP growth in 2012 was driven mainly by strong performance in the Services sector which recorded an average growth rate of 10.2%, compared with the situation in 2011 when the growth was led by the Industry sector with an average growth of 41.6% as a result of the impact of crude oil production that started in Ghana in 2011.

The Services sector continued to dominate the economy in 2012 with a share of 50%, followed by Industry (27.3%) and Agriculture (22.7%). In 2013, for example, though Africa maintained an average growth rate of about 4%, compared to 3% for the global economy, Ghana's economy grew at 7.4% (see Ghana Statistical Service, 2014) and for 10 years (2004-2013), Ghana's economy grew at an average of 7.4% annually (see CEPA, 2010). Growth in sub-Saharan Africa was 5% in 2013 and is projected to be 5.8% in 2014 (AfDB et al., 2014). The Bank further posits that, Ghana is currently among the most promising economies in West Africa and in the continent, and has recently been growing faster than the average of these two groupings (African Development Bank, 2011). According to (UNDP, 2013), Ghana's HDI value for 2012 is 0.558 in the medium human development category. This mark positioned the country at 135 out of 187 countries. The Agency further posits that between 1980 and 2012, Ghana's HDI value increased from 0.391 to 0.558, an increase of 43 % or average annual increase of about 1.1 %. Additionally, within the same period, Ghana's life expectancy at birth increased by 11.5 years, mean years of schooling increased by 3.4 years, expected years of schooling increased by 4.1 years and GNI per capita increased by about 71 % between 1980 and 2012.

Figure 2 shows trends in Ghana's HDI Component Indices between 1980 and 2012. It shows that there are positive gains in as far as Life Expectancy, Education, GNI per capita and overall HDI is concerned. In effect, there is some improvement in Ghana's development but is that enough?

On the educational front in general and according to Government of Ghana (2013) on the 'Education Sector Performance Report for 2012' spending on education continued to increase in 2012, with a total expenditure of GH¢ 6.0 billion in 2012, up from GH¢ 3.6 billion in 2011. In 2012 education expenditure was equal to 8.4% of GDP which is more than the 6% recommended by UNESCO. The largest source of funding to the education sector is the Government of Ghana (76% of all funds). However, 97% of this is allocated to compensation, leading to heavy reliance on other sources to pay for goods and services and assets, which make up 21% and 5% of total expenditure respectively (Government of Ghana, 2013).

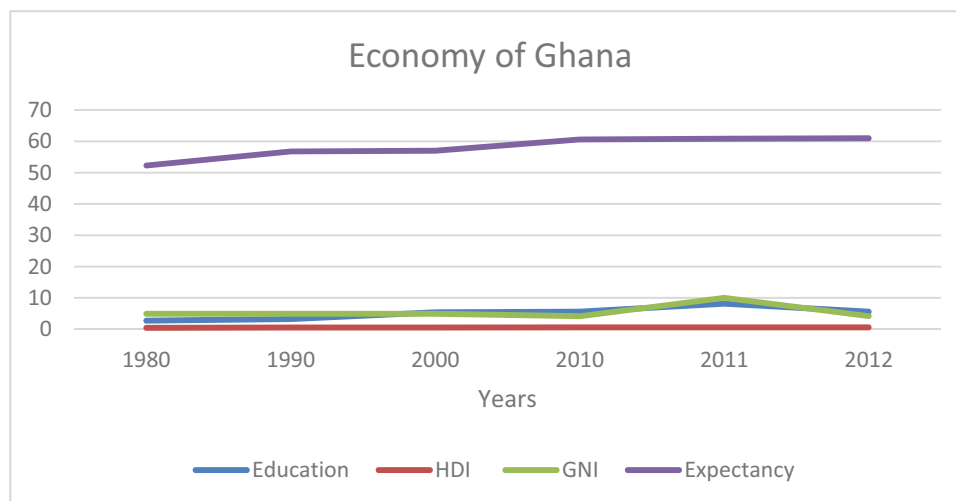


Figure 2. Trends in Ghana's HDI Component Indices 1980-2012

Source: Authors construct with data from World Bank.

Under the higher education reforms also, there have been increases in the number of universities from about 3 in 1991 to about 70 (see National Council for Tertiary Education, 2014). This increment in the institutions has also resulted in the increment in student enrolment. For example, student enrolment increased from 9,609 in 1990/91 (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2005) to about 73,000 in 2004/05 (Ministry of Education, 2012; National Council for Tertiary Education, 2006; United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2005) and further to over 160,000 in 2013/2014 academic year.

Although the proportion of Ghana's population defined as poor fell from 51.7% in 1991/92 to 39.5% in 1998/99 and further to 28.5% in 2005/06, poverty still remains an important challenge (Government of Ghana, 2010). Headline inflation at the end of March 2014 was 15.9 per cent, up from 13.5 in December 2013, 13.8 in January and 14.0 per cent in February 2014 (see Ghana Statistical Service, 2014), an indication that life conditions could get worse. Additionally, structural challenges have been characterized by large fiscal and balance of payment deficits (Government of Ghana, 2013).

Ghana in its bid to exploit its strengths and mitigate the impact of its challenges, identified education as a conduit to:

- The acquisition and application of knowledge and skills in solving problems in society aimed at achieving growth and social equity for national development.
- Enhancing productivity and creating employment opportunities especially for the youth. In particular, this was to address the increasing unemployment especially among the youth. The employment issue was to be mainstreamed into the development planning process at all levels such that, MMDAs and MDAs will be supported to develop and implement employment creation programmes (Government of Ghana, 2003).

In the medium to long term solution to these issues, government identified tertiary education as one major way out of the challenges. It is for this reason that tertiary education reforms were introduced not just to provide access but to also make tertiary education more effective, efficient and relevant to the development needs of the country. Reforming the tertiary educational system was also to ensure that there is uninterrupted quality education for all Ghanaians, reduce poverty and create the opportunity for human development (Forson & Opoku, 2014; Government of Ghana, 2003). Additionally, opportunities were to be created so that research and development results in universities and other scientific institutions find expression in the day-to-day operations of farmers, artisans, government agencies and industries.

Though the tertiary education reforms since introduced have increased the number of tertiary institutions to award degrees, increased the number of universities and subsequently increased student enrolments, there appears universities might be fulfilling the access component of the national agenda to the detriment of the relevance and quality parts. This is because, in spite of all these policies interventions with some modest gains as indicated earlier, Government of Ghana (2010) still posits that there still exist high levels of unemployment,

underemployment, disguised unemployment and accompanying incidence of poverty which constitute a threat to national cohesion, peace and stability, and require action to create sufficient jobs especially for young people in poverty endemic areas. More daunting is what the African Development Bank report says. The report asserts that though the Ghanaian population is becoming more educated, the current supply of skills required by the key growth and job creating sectors by the Ghanaian universities and polytechnics is still proving inadequate and according to the Bank, it is therefore important that tertiary, technical and vocational schools are encouraged to establish pro-active links with industries (African Development Bank, 2012).

While previous studies on the relationship between education and national development have taken into account the economic factors and their impact on national development (see Asongu, 2015; Forson *et al.*, 2013), the idea of university governance is least studied, yet it has far reaching implications on education outcomes and national development at large. The purpose of this study seeks to add the voice of experts in university governance to the discussion, by exploring thematic issues arising from their experiences in the administration and management of universities in Ghana. The study focuses on the historical and current governance practices and how such practices play a role in the quality of university education in Ghana. The study seeks to answer the questions: Have the role and purpose of university governance changed since its inception? (2) Are there differences between the old and the new system of university governance? (3) What larger ramifications does this have on university governance?

2. Methodology

This study was conducted within the framework of qualitative research design. The desire to use qualitative approach was influenced by exploring how people behave in their customary (natural) surroundings and how such behavior can be better understood as it unfolds naturally. The researchers adopted the social constructivist worldview, which holds the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work, and so the focus was on the specific contexts in which respondents have lived and worked in order to understand both the historical and cultural settings under which such experiences were gathered (Creswell, 2009). The researchers adopted the phenomenology approach to inquiry. This is an aspect of philosophy that deals with direct experiences of phenomena so as to determine their essence and the things that make them what they are (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). The study of “the shared meaning of experience of a phenomenon for several individuals” (McCaslin & Scott, 2003, p. 449) is also viewed as a phenomenological study.

Participants in the study were eminent former senior university administrators and former regulators with management, administrative and governance experience in public and private university sector namely: university council chairs; vice and former vice chancellors; registrars; senior finance officers; executive secretaries and former executive secretaries for National Regulatory Board; national level student leaders and former national level student leaders who served in university governance council. To collect data, the researchers conducted in-depth interviews with key informants (Bernard & Ryan, 2010) besides collecting documentary data from research reports, journals, books, government and non-governmental organizations reports. The first author’s over ten years’ experience and service in various university administrative capacities provided initial familiarity with the research context. It also gave the researchers an interaction platform which was used to negotiate access to the informants in the study. Guided by Bernard and Ryan (2010), the researchers sought assistance from the informants, one at a time. We chose the informants based on prior knowledge while the informants chose the lead author because they were willing to share knowledge obtained from years of experience in university governance in a study whose findings would bring to light insights that would improve policy and practice.

The research adopted the phenomenological steps as outlined by Bernard and Ryan (2010). This method is applied on the public university governance and is particularly necessary because of the first author’s exposure to the public university governance system. Key in this kind of study, as earlier stated requires that one puts aside his or her biases so that you don’t filter other people’s experiences. Specifically in gathering and analyzing data from this part of the research, the researchers adopted the live with the respondent method. At the public university, the researchers interacted with the respondents and took the data. The transcribed data was then manually coded and put into patterns of themes. Note taking and tape recording were used to record data. Data was transcribed and read repeatedly over time to make sense of issues raised by informants. Significant statements were selected interpreted and used in the text to highlight key issues as well as to provide voice of the informants.

The phenomenological procedure was used to ascertain if the initial proposition that universities are governed by Acts, laws and memoranda supports the argument. This paved way for the policy recommendation on university

governance and a conclusion done to mark the end of the research process. As a qualitative research, the process was largely inductive with the researchers generating meaning from the data that was collected (Creswell, 2009). In a bid to give an account of how university education governance system has operated in Ghana since its inception in 1948; the researchers collected the narratives from informants restructured and consolidated them into one coherent narrative that reflects the evolution of university governance and the different thematic issues that emerged from the informants' experiences. The final draft was taken back to informants to ascertain the accuracy of the account and to provide the feedback on the draft as well as other issues which they wished would be added in the research report. After this verification process, the final report was written.

3. Thematic Issues from the Study

3.1 Historical Account of University Education Governance System in Ghana

University education started in Ghana in 1948 with the setting up of University College of Gold Coast under the mentorship of University of London. Even though university education dated back to the days of Achimota School, "it is not officially regarded as university education because this only provided training of pre-first year university courses". Indeed the fact that the "British colonial government set up the Asquith Commission, in 1943" to investigate higher education and determine where they could set up a university for British Colonies in West Africa (Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone and the Gambia) gives the testimony that there was no formal university education in Ghana until 1948.

Prior to the setting up of the University College of Gold Coast, the British colonial administration approved a minority report of a Commission which recommended that the University for the British Colonists in West Africa be set up in Ibadan, Nigeria. Unfortunately or fortunately, a group of elites in Gold Coast (now Ghana) disagreed with this report and subsequently petitioned the British authorities.

But certain celebrities in Ghana including Dr. Joseph Boakye Danquah (J. B. Danquah) and Kwabena Sakyi, a prominent lawyer in those days decided they wanted a university in Ghana. (Former Executive Secretary, NCTE 1)

So they put up another proposal and this was accepted provided the university was to be funded by the colony itself. So the concept of self-financing of university education started as far back as 1948 even though, the research cannot confirm if indeed funding the University College of Gold Coast was entirely taken care of by the colony and if it was, how it raised the funds cannot also be determined. Accept to say that at least the first ten batches of the university college were not only provided with free luxury accommodation and given allowances, but were also provided with meals as former executive secretary, NCTE 1 who was a student from 1956 to 1959 put it:

I went to university college of Ghana, now Legon in 1956. We were actually the first people to go into commonwealth hall. Commonwealth hall was built for 300 students each one occupying one cubicle bigger than this office, but at that time there were only 53 students in the hall. At dining we were served on silver ware by well-dressed stewards, we were fed 3 times daily, in addition to snacks at 10am and tea at 4pm. At that time we were getting an allowance of 39 pounds a semester.

Several issues arise with the above statement; did the country Ghana fund university education from the taxes of the colony or there was some foreign support? Of course the numbers demanding university education were very low. But it is important to ask what plans were put in place by the political leaders to fund education in the future? How did Ghana as a country progress from this luxury of yesteryears to today where universities are facing huge infrastructural challenges? As the three Council Chairs all posited that the biggest challenge that their universities face is "huge infrastructural gap between student populations and available accommodation; academic and non-academic facilities". Additionally, the three Vice-Chancellors also alluded to the challenge mentioned and added that "to recruit and retained qualified academic staff possess a challenge to university education" and for that matter university governance. Very aging faculty are retiring but no qualified replacements especially that the minimum entry for an academic position in the university is now a PhD. Extracting from one of the universities, though the same exists in all the strategic plans of the other two universities in this research is "to recruit and retain high caliber qualified, committed and willing academic staff", confirmation that qualified academic staff is an issue in not only private universities but across board. Did we have a staff development plan and financial sustainability blue print? And if yes, what happened to it; if no, why?

The focus of the University College was more classical in its graduates as its aim was to train graduates to replace the upper labor force of the Gold Coast who were mainly expatriates. As a respondent put it, 'Initial purpose of university education was meant to replace the expatriate staff and therefore was more classical'.

Indeed, this was not only about Ghana as in classical times, universities trained only leaders because only those who were in leadership brackets could afford to go to the University.

The University College of Gold Coast therefore started and went on, but it was just about this time that the fight for independence also intensified. So Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, the first President of Ghana came and decided that because “the country was heading towards independence, and of course at that time the civil service was all made up of expatriate staff”, there was the need “to develop Ghanaians to replace these people when independence takes place”. Apart from “the sole administration, the country also needed certain individuals to start with developmental agenda of the country” and so came into fruition the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) in 1952. The KNUST succeeded the Kumasi College of Technology which was established by a Government Ordinance on 6th October, 1951. “It was however, opened officially on 22nd January, 1952 with 200 Teacher Training students transferred from Achimota School”, to form the nucleus of the new College.

The other problem was teachers because in 1960 Dr. Kwame Nkrumah launched the Ghana Education Trust (GET) and “we needed teachers for the numerous (at the time) secondary schools around, at least not less than 50 schools. Now how do you get the teachers”? So the idea was to establish the University of Cape Coast, which was started as a “University of Science Education in October, 1962”. The University was established out of the need for highly qualified and skilled manpower in science education. Its original mandate therefore, was to train graduate professional teachers for the country's second cycle institutions and the Ministry of Education, in order to meet the manpower needs of the country's accelerated education programme at the time.

From 1962 when the University College of Science Education was established, there was no additional university that was set until 1992 when the University for Development Studies was set up. So University of Cape Coast came as the last university to be established under the old system of university education whiles University for Development Studies (UDS) marked the beginning of the new educational reforms of 1991.

Apart from the other reforms that the university education witnessed, a key feature was how university councils now has the power to appoint the Chancellor of their respective universities which title hitherto was for the Head of State of Ghana. Additionally, the old system empowered the government of the day to appoint the Vice-Chancellor with recommendation from the governing council but this practice was also reviewed as councils were now empowered to appoint the Vice-Chancellor and only inform the appropriate stakeholders which includes government.

Upon the recommendation of the University Rationalization Committee (URC) and the subsequent government white paper that university education fell short addressing problems of the society and only sought to focus on theory rather than practice, University for Development Studies was established in March 1992 by the Government to:

[..] blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole (PNDC Law 279, Section 2c).

The University was therefore borne out of the new thinking in higher education that emphasized the need for universities to play a more active role in addressing problems of its society, particularly in the rural areas. The UDS by its mandate and nature of her constituency is pro-poor focus and also located in the three poorest regions of Ghana (Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions). The university started as a full-fledged university with the powers to award its own degrees, diplomas and certificates without being affiliated to any older university.

Then followed the University College of Education of Winneba (now University of Education, Winneba) in September, 1992 under the mentorship of the University of Cape Coast. The core mandate of the University is to produce professional educators that will “spearhead a national vision of education aimed at redirecting Ghana's effort along the path of rapid economic and social development”. The university came into existence as a result of the amalgamation of seven diploma awarding institutions and has four campuses located at Winneba (Head Quarters), Kumasi, Ashanti Mampong and Ejumako. The university also has 32 study centres dotted across the country. The University sought to bridge the gap between the demand and supply of teachers as a result of the massive expansion at the basic and secondary levels of education in Ghana.

Other public universities that have been set up along with the private universities since the educational reforms of 1991 include: the University of Mines and Technology (UMaT), Tarkwa; University of Professional Studies, Accra (UPSA); University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho and University of Energy and Natural Resources,

Sunyani. According to the National Accreditation Board, there are nine public universities and one professional university. There are also about 61 private universities/university colleges and institutions that provide degree programmes in Ghana.

The Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA) and the Ghana Technology University College (GTUC) operate in very different way as compared to either being public or private institutions. These two institutions though are not on government subvention; government appoints persons on their governing councils one of whom is the Chairman of the Council. These two institutions however with approval from their governing councils are allowed to charge full fees to run their operations. Whiles the governing councils of these two institutions are formed by the government of Ghana, they are financed through self-generated funds. In the case of GIMPA, it was taken off Government Subvention in 2001 but for GTUC, the university college has never been funded by the state. GTUC was started as a kind of relationship between the Government of Ghana and the then Ghana Telecom Company. These two universities charge their own fees and except the appointment of the governing councils, government has virtually nothing to do with them. Through these fees, they are able to carry out their mandates. Could this be suggestive that the public universities in Ghana can be taken off government subvention if they are allowed to charge their own fees as GIMPA and GTUC do? So the ownership of a university might not be the issue but being given the option to determine what charges are reasonable and acceptable to be able to run the operations of the university; private or public alike. As it is currently, the ownership of GTUC is not clear because whiles it has a council that is formed by the government, Vodafone Ghana which acquired majority shares of Ghana Telecom Company, claims ownership of the facilities in the university. The University College Strategic Plan (2011:6) puts it:

[...] GTUC still has a status issue. While the school is governed by a Council formed by the government, Vodafone also claims ownership of the university facilities. There is the need to have this issue resolved to enable the school have an identity. This is one of the issues confronting the school.

According to former Executive Secretary, NCTE 1, education in general from the “1970s to the mid-1980s went into sharp decline”, and for which reasons informed the basic and secondary educational reforms of 1987 in Ghana. These reforms brought in the 6-3-3-4 of education in Ghana putting aside the 6-4-7-3 years reducing the number of years from twenty to sixteen to progress from primary to university. So the 1987 reforms have six years of primary education, three years of Junior Secondary School, three years of Senior Secondary School and four years of university. The four years in the university as shown in Figure 3 has to do with general degrees whiles other courses like Medicine, Architecture and Law (professional) takes much longer period. Specifically, the new education reforms of 1987 took the form as indicated in Figure 3 in respect of years.

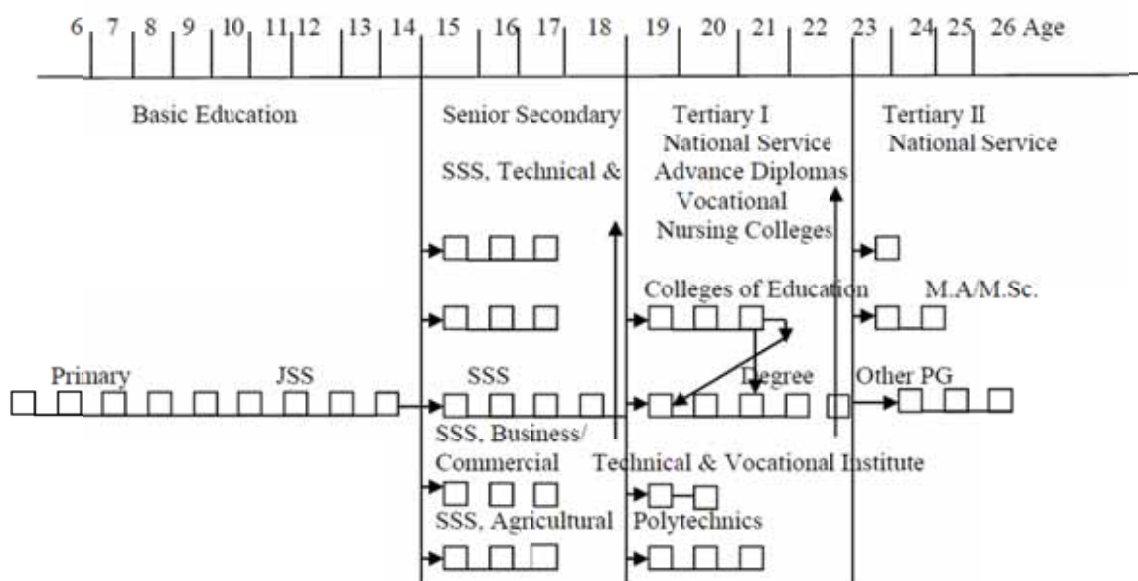


Figure 3. Structure of 1987 education reforms in Ghana
Source: Bingab (2012: p. 40)

Apart from the public universities, which were set up with a national agenda in mind, there is no evidence that the private universities were set up with the view towards meeting the national agenda apart from the access objective of the educational reforms. Accordingly, a retired regulator put it; 'I think that we were a bit too lenient in allowing some of these to go through'. His view is that when the state opened up tertiary education to private participation, there should have been a guide on which areas such private participation should focus on instead of living it entirely to the decision of the private entities.

As illustrated above, 'the reforms were tailored more towards the USA module of 6-3-3-4' thus moving away from the initial British system that had Ordinary Level ('O' Level) of five years secondary school and two years of Advance Level ('A' Level) and emphasized more on vocational and technical education (Polytechnics and Vocational Secondary Schools).

As part of the total educational reforms in Ghana the University Rationalization Committee (URC) was also constituted in 1987 because, there was need to revamp and open up the university education system. The need became more prominent because with the reforms at the basic and secondary levels as more demand for higher education was eminent apart from the structural changes that were required of Universities. The committee released its report on the state of the higher education in the country and included in the report were the changes that were needed within the structure, administration and governance of higher education institutions. As was captured in the terms of reference for the Committee, its main objectives were "to develop strategies to expand access and equity, to improve efficiency and effectiveness at the university" level so as to improve on the quality and relevance of degree programmes.

Based on these objectives, the URC identified some key issues facing higher education in Ghana and recommended the way forward as:

- a) Restructuring of academic programmes to be relevant to students and the economy
- b) Effective managing of higher education so that it will be cost effective
- c) Improving the existing facilities and efficient utilization of available resources and space
- d) Finding new strategies to expand higher education in Ghana.

In all, the URC made 166 recommendations to reform higher education system. These were adopted by the government in 1991 and became Government White Paper entitled "Reforms to Tertiary Education System". Indeed the reforms at the university level advocated for Ghana to open up university education to private participation because this was the time that there was a demand across the world for all countries to open up their markets, apart from the need arising from increased enrolment at the basic and secondary levels of education. As a regulator put it:

I can say that because of limited access to public institutions, the reforms thought it was prudent to open University education up and it was all across the world. You know when all those market reforms, globalization and all those reforms set in, it affected education as well. So if we are opening up our markets, education is also part of the market so let us open it up to private participation and that is how come the law allowed private participation.

In summary the university educational reforms of 1991 were targeted at improving quality, efficiency, access, equity, relevance and sustainability, a suggestion that prior to the reforms university education had challenges in its quality, efficiency, access, equity, relevance and was not sustainable, to say the least.

3.2 Key Differences between Old and New University Education Governance System in Ghana

University education in Ghana might appear young when compared with the ones in Europe (UK), Thailand in Asia, Australia and the USA but six decades of university education as accounted for has come with some issues worth thinking through especially comparing the period of 1948 to 1991 (closed door policy on university education) and the period of 1992 – present (open door policy on university education). There has been increase in institutional capacity to regulate university education for access and quality; funding university education strategy has changed; university councils have been empowered more and above all, the introduction of private participation in university education.

3.2.1 National Policy Shift on University Education

As suggested by the respondents, the university educational reforms ushered in private participation in university education. Before the reforms, there was only public university education in Ghana, a situation that appeared not be sustainable because of the ever increasing demand for university education. This coupled with the education reforms of 1987 at the basic and secondary levels that created more basic and secondary/technical and vocational

schools. The national policy shift now welcomed private sector into university education unlike in the previous. The current system has provided more access to university education and the researchers think, that the policy change was in the right direction but as to the relevance and quality of the current system will be determined by a lot of factors including the inputs that go into university governance. As part of the private participation into university education there was need to strengthen institutional capacity to supervise and monitor university education to ensure standards are maintained.

3.2.2 Institutions Regulating University Education

The new university governance system based upon the reforms now has two statutory regulatory agencies responsible for university education. One meant for the general oversight responsibility of universities (NCTE) and the other responsible for quality assurance issues (NAB) unlike in the past when there was only one body, the University Commission. Though this is a good idea to have two institutions, it might be partly because with the private sector participation in university education without an upper limit to the number of universities, the two regulatory bodies will be sufficient to handle the increases in the number of universities on matters of supervision and ensuring that quality is not compromised. So far the regulatory agencies have proved to be effective in the discharged of their duties as they have very swift in handing any regulatory issue as far as university governance is concerned.

3.2.3 Funding University Education in Ghana

As narrated in the historical account, university education in Ghana though started as self-financing by the colony, the entire training of the university graduate was funded by the state. The universities were well-resourced by the state and in addition paid allowances to the university students. Under the current university education system, the cost of running the university is a partnership between the state and the students at the public sector whiles at the private and quasi-public sector, the students bear the full cost of their training. It is the researchers' candid opinion that the old system where the state was responsible for the total cost of training a university student is not sustainable as getting resources for other equally important sectors of the national economy was going to post a serious challenge to the country. Especially that, some of those who were trained left to the western countries for greener pastures.

3.2.4 Powers of University Councils

The University councils have more powers now than in before the university education reforms in Ghana. Under the former university education governance system, the powers to decide who was the Chancellor of a university was not at issue at all as the Head of State was the Chancellor to all universities (public) in Ghana by law. Additionally, the government of the day also appointed the Vice-Chancellor of the University.

However, the current arrangements have given powers to the university council to appoint the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor of the University. The researchers believe that the new system allows the university to be more autonomous as the Vice-Chancellor will be accountable to the governing council of the university which is composed of stakeholders of the university and not just the government. This has minimized the interference of the government on the day-to-day operations of the universities. As far as the quasi-public university education is concerned, the appointment of the Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor is within the powers of the university council. Whiles the power to appoint a Vice-Chancellor is vested in the university council, the owners of the private university decides on who can be the Chancellor of the university. The researchers argue here that in the case of the private university, it may be difficult to entirely leave the appointment of the Chancellor in the hands of the university council because of private interest.

4. Implications for Education Policy and Practice

The colonial structure of education which Ghana inherited at independence limited access to higher education not only on the basis of qualifications but also a complex combination of discriminatory principles masked with limited public spending on education. Almost an entire West Africa (Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone and Gambia) was considered for only one university in 1948. Six countries paying taxes to the British colony and given one university in return for their taxes best explains exclusionary policies of the time. This exclusionary structure did not improve education quality. Instead, it led to complex education issues, after independence when the right to access to education was expanded. Two governance lessons can be drawn at this point: (1) exclusion and discriminatory policies have a complex and negative impact on education in the long run. (2) While the role of public policy is to limit those who benefit from public goods; measures used to limit the benefits of public goods should be balanced with a proportional expansion of alternative opportunities in order to ease pressure on public goods as well as to avoid future outbreaks of the demand for the very public goods a section of the population

was denied access to without developing alternatives.

The study also shows that Ghana systematically maintained low public spending on education despite growth in the population that required higher education as well as the demand for human capital formulation. It lacked a constituent future planning for the education sector as well as corresponding sustainable investment in higher education. This brings to light three governance lessons: (1) the political leadership of the country systematically lacked the will to plan and invest in education. (2) While in a good national development policy planning and development, education policy is made central to economic development; education policy was put at the periphery and was not among top priorities in public spending. (3) Future policies should strive to put higher education in particular and education in general at the center of public policy priorities so that it can be matched with future national development priorities not only in principle but in practice.

The initial fundamental goal of university education was to meet the demands of the labor force. However, over time the new way of thinking has emerged, that which demands that universities help solve a range of problems in society. To be able to do so, there is need for the appointment of university leadership to take into account the interest of the society, including the adjacent communities. This has the following governance lessons: (1) With increased demand for public participation, transforming university governance structures and goals to include to help solve community issues will provide the university with vast experiences from which knowledge can be generated to help the university to create more relevant and responsive training programs; (2) the university can make the adjacent community or society at large a development partner or even a client; (3) building such relationships will not only strengthen the university relevance, leadership, accountability, and programs; but will also fuel innovation, creativity, and access to resources in the community.

The expansion of the private sector into university education comes with a range of challenges and lessons for instance: (1) concerns about the quality of university education given that some universities may compromise quality for the sake of profits; (2) private public sector partnership in university stakes may end up limiting the policy space for the public in negotiating interests and opportunities in public sector education; (3) more autonomy in university governance would lead to universities hiking fees hence exploiting the public; (4) the need to balance between quality and expanding access to education ; private and public interests; and to safeguard the policy space of the masses regardless of the changes in university structures and governance arrangements.

The targets of 1990s university education reforms such as efficiency, access, equity, relevance and sustainability have not been achieved. As a result, there is need for current and future governance policies to strive to meet these basic policy needs. Some needs like efficiency will require more resources to tap into advanced technology. This is an area which government policies can take into account as a national priority when negotiating resources at the global level, especially in the context of post-2015 sustainable development goals, particularly technology transfer and sustainable development. In this case, technology transfer should not only be about the industry level, but also university level. This would lead to maximum benefits in the deal the nation can negotiate with international partners.

Privatization of education in Ghana was prompted by a number of factors for instance globalization in the face of harsh economic conditions during early 1990s. The growing demand for higher education in the wake of limited public spending on higher education and the growing demand for employment opportunities created incentives for emergence the thriving of private universities. At the birth of democracy, Ghana was also expanding democratic freedoms which demanded that through the prior structure of governance was so strict on public accountability; the emergence of private university build on a combination of public good and market principles required some deregulation. As a result, this paved way for more autonomy and devolution of power that once belonged to the state into the hands of university councils and the private sector, particularly private university owners.

Remedies for the shift in university governance should take into account policy measures that ensure the following: (1) As part of the private participation into university education there is need to strengthen institutional capacity to supervise and monitor university education to ensure standards are maintained. (2) Maintain and increase if possible oversight bodies that deal with monitoring and regulating university education and governance; (3) Search for alternative source of university financing to complement the current sources; (4) Increasing accountability mechanisms at university and national levels.

A key limitation of this study is that, its success was progressively contingent on the rapport the lead author has had with eminent heads and administrators having served in the capacity of student leadership and administrative positions previously. The outcome of the interview and analyses could have been value-driven or skewed to

preconceived view. We therefore recommend future research to explore university governance from the perspective of outsiders. The researchers should be outside university management system with minimal knowledge on university governance to ascertain whether the findings in this research will be corroborated. Additionally, for future research, it might be important to establish the impact of university education on the social and economic development of Ghana.

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The Relationship between Attitudes and Students Intention to Enter the Vocation Education and Training in the United Arab Emirates

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Abstract

The goal of this study is to examine the internal and external effect of students' attitude towards the intention to enter the vocational education in the UAE through examining the different factors of attitude such as social, individual, demographic and organization. Because of the inconsistent results, for further investigation, a new research has established through introducing new and different variables that may better explain the nature of that relationships and issues. In the literature, many theories have suggested that link between variables such as Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). Questionnaires were distributed to 700 students. 549 questionnaires were returned and using in the analysis using SPSS software version 18.0 through descriptive and inferential statistics. In addition, Independent T-test and Scheffe' test were used to test and hypothesized the hypotheses. So, the results of this study showed that there are significant differences in the parents' responses between Social factors of vocational education according to their gender and the region either urban or rural. In another hands, the result of the students was found to have significant differences of the attitudes and importance in rural and urban regions. In addition to that, all parents either in government or private sectors agreed the importance and vocational education future for their children. Moreover, the culture in both sectors is differently seen by society in terms of the vocational education. This study also supported the premises of the TRA, TPB, and SCT theories by reaffirming the importance of the study's variables for supporting the intention of the students towards the vocational education.

Keywords: United Arab Emirates, vocational education attitude scale, technical and vocational education and training, vocational education and training, career guidance, theory of reasoned action

1. Introduction

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is one of the Arabian countries that is located on the Arabian Gulf. The area of the UAE is 83,600 square kilometers, and the total populations in 2010 was 8,264,070 as claimed by the UAE Bureau of Statistics (Ibpus.com, 2012).

Currently, the technical and vocational arenas of learning can also be practiced at the secondary stage or post-secondary stage, and at various colleges. For example, eight secondary vocational institutes provides technical training courses in the industry and business areas for the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade male learners in the present public school co-ordination.

These technical schools are accustomed to the guidelines of the national system this is because the establishments are also a division of the government education structure. As stated by the World Development Indicators (World Bank), the unemployment rate numbers among the secondary education has somehow increased from the year 1995 with 23.0% to 42.6% in 2008. By which the unemployment rate of female is 46.7% and it is higher than the unemployment rate for the male which is at 36.4% in 2008. In addition, the third level education of the unemployment rate was 20.3% in 1995 and somehow amplified to 33.2% in 2008 (Economy, 2012).

In reference to the UAE's National Bureau of Statistics, the joblessness rate within the citizens were at 20.8% in the year of 2011 meanwhile it was 3.2% within the expatriates. The sum of both residents and expatriates overall unemployment rate was 4.6% in 2011. Nevertheless, Unemployment Rate in the United Arab Emirates diminished to 4.2% in 2012 from 4.6% in 2011. Unemployment Level in the United Arab Emirates averaged 3.12% from 1985 till 2012, attaining an all-time high of 4.6% in 2011 and a marked low of 1.15% in 1985.

Unemployment Percentage in the United Arab Emirates is stated by the Central Bank of the United Arab Emirates (Economics, 2013)

2. Related Literature Review

Its clear and important to say that the Vocational education is play big role in economic development in any country. Vocational education is important, and its role in economic development has been quite evident in any country. In fact, we require skillful and technicians people or blue collar of many vocations and technicalities in the labor market more than we need white collar occupations or academicians. Vocational education is at least as important as academic education, or even more important, especially when the statistical figures indicate higher unemployment rates among university graduates than among their counterparts from vocational schools or other technical intermediate community colleges (Richards, 1994). Despite the Importance of vocational education around the world, UAE has very poor rate among the world's countries. While the UAE has constructed a robust reputation as an educational hub, there persist some significant workforce supply and demand openings in several of industries counting energy and healthcare. Vocational and technical education doesn't have its rational share of the education market in the U.A.E. 8890 learners in Vocational institutes/ schools were accommodated in 24 institutes/ schools in 273312 students in the general school in 673 schools by 2013-2014 according to the Ministry of education, Education information system department.

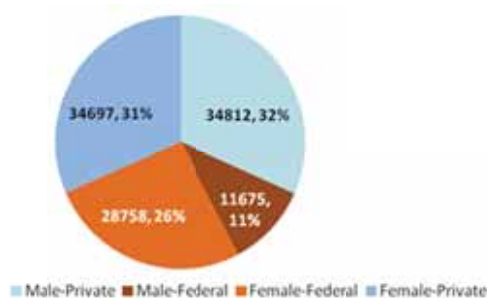


Figure 1. Distribution of enrolment by gender and type of institution in 2011 – 2012 (Interact, 2012)

2.1 The Attitude towards VET

The big difference between the Importance and usefulness of vocational education and training (VET) in most of the world and UAE shows big gap and question which needs urgent answers. VET can play major role to improve economic growth, market efficiency and social transformation. As many studies recommended that campaigns on the importance of VET programs in developing countries could increase budgetary considerations in favor of VET programs. This will lead to improve continue studying by educators in this route of education. Also identified that the school vocational program is an important issue in improving labour performance which lead to economic growth (Benson, 2013). This research will cover the awareness of important of VET to the UAE society.

In the different researches, it is found that gender-related differences between the view of students has been discovered by investigators to be at the minimum, however, there were differences in the point of view of university-bound students and other students (Henderson & Fisher, 2007; Benson, 2013; Wibisana, 1996). A main effect is on the point of view against technology based from social and gender standards (Rajput, 1988).

In high schools of the vocational education, female students had high satisfied with the skill studies given in enterprises. "Educating of the vocational education in school before starting the skill knowledge". Its necessary to implementing this new skill of education in the school before facing the real working environment so that they can improving the quality of workforce (Üstün & Savas, 2010).

According to Bergh (1997) and Walters (1989), Male students have more positive attitude against the vocational and technical programs than the female. On the other hand, the girls have more positive point of view towards vocational education, whereby the boys hold more negative concepts towards VET programs (Rojewski and Sheng, 1993). Also found out the negative perceptions about the vocational programs are more from the male students who come from the higher socioeconomic standard (Rossetti, 1990).

2.2 Students' Intention

The intention of student as a dependent variable has been studied in different countries as will be discussed in the following chapter. However, the factors of attitude included in this study has not studied before together in any one of those countries. In addition, there is a lack of studies in student intention in the UAE. Therefore, this study is one of the important studies that can bridge the gap in the existing body of knowledge. In addition, the framework of this study is an attempt to fill the gaps in the literature by involving new variables that may affect the intention of student in UAE.

2.3 The Relationship between Attitude and Students' Intention to Enter the VET

There were many factors that affects the students point view to choose VET programs. The people surrounding them are one of the main effect; for example, the friends, siblings and parents. Also there were times that when a teacher interpersonal action can play a main role in influencing VET program courses. The students who received more uncertainty, doubts, dissatisfied admonishing and strict actions in their teacher were more prone to demonstrate more negative view to their VET course and feel less satisfied with the programs (Henderson & Fisher, 2008; AlSa'd, 2007).

According to Ryeetey, Doh, and Andoh (2011) the vocational skills in Ghana are not competitive enough for more high income jobs in the labor market as parents view on Vocational education program. Other results reported that people have less positive attitudes against the vocational education and vocational education that is not easily accepted with vocational school has a bad reputation in the society (Saavedra, 1970; Rossetti, 1990; Gilliland, 1967; McKenna & Ferrero, 1991).

There are still some parents and students who have a positive view towards VET. A few researchers found that the more helping, leadership and understanding action that the students received from the teacher's demonstration and less restrain in student freedom, the more positive students' view towards their VET programs and the programs received more satisfaction from the students (Henderson & Fisher, 2007; AbdRahman, 1986; Noncolela, 1999; Elffers & Oort, 2013; Euroborometer, 2011; Wibisana, 1996; Benson, 2013).

Higher educated parents have no impact on attitudes against education. Somehow school background and students are having higher positive attitudes. The gender is also playing more important influence than the school profile (Szyellowski, 1987).

Ghanini (1994) investigated the attitudes of tenth grade students against the vocational studies in the Jordan's public schools in Madaba district. The outcomes showed that positive view were there within the students against the vocational education. However, there were no important connection were discovered between the independent variables.

The relationship between attitude and the intention of students has been investigated in the previous studies (Henderson & Fisher, 2007; Benson, 2013; Wibisana, 1996; Rajput, 1988). However, there is still inconsistency in those results. Therefore, this study comes to fill this gap in the literature by investigating these variables with new context, the UAE, which has lacking in these types of studies.

For the purpose of investigation in this study the following hypotheses have been proposed to be tested in the following sections:

H1: There are statistical significant differences among the parents' responses toward vocational education on the context of United Arab Emirates (UAE) due to their gender.

H2: There are statistical significant differences among the students' responses toward vocational education on the context of United Arab Emirates (UAE) due to their gender.

3. Methodology

This study is a quantitative methodology approach which investigates the relationships between different variables. Sample and population of this study were from people who researched on, these are students who either participated or not in the vocational education and their parents in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). 150 numbers of students are the sample respondents which were selected. They were from the technical and vocational schools and institutions in the UAE and other 250 students who did not involved in the VET program which were from grade eight, the grade that before the grade that accept student to enter VET program (the VET schools and institutes accept students from grade nine). Two types of schools which one for boys and another for girls' students. In case of the parents, the samples of questions that were hand out to the parents whose students are involved and not involved in the VET programs were 300. The statistical analysis contains Descriptive statistics, (t) test, ANOVA test, and Scheffe' test. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 18.0 software (SPSS)

was used to analyze the proposed hypotheses.

4. Data Analysis

The questionnaires are designed to gather information and data collection about the Knowledge, Attitude/beliefs/intention, Cognition, opinions and behavior of fathers, mothers, girls, boys, VET boys, and VET girls. The statements basically are chosen carefully to measure the vocational education attitude scale (VEAS). We used serious, rigorous, valid and reliable measuring tools to ensure that the results and analysis are meaningful.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Table 1. Parent's attitude

No.	The Domains	Mean*	SD	Ranking	Response degree
1	Vocational Education Importance	3.46	0.92	1	Mid
2	Social perception of vocational education	3.18	0.91	2	Mid
3	Vocational Education Future	3.16	0.31	3	Mid
	Total	3.29	0.27	-	Mid

Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) in the above table shows the parents' responses on the attitudes toward vocational education on the context of United Arab Emirates (UAE) questionnaire domains were computed.

On the other hand, Table 2 Shows the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of the students' responses on the attitudes toward vocational education on the context of United Arab Emirates (UAE) questionnaire domains were computed.

Table 2. Student attitude

No.	The Domains	Mean*	SD	Ranking	Response degree
1	Vocational Education Attitudes	3.17	0.89	1	Mid
3	Vocational Education Future	3.14	0.69	2	Mid
2	Social perception of vocational education	2.95	0.65	3	Low
4	Vocational Education Importance	2.90	0.29	4	Low
	Total	3.06	0.42	-	Mid

4.2 Testing Hypotheses

Table 3 shows that there are significant differences between the means of the parents' responses for responses toward (Social perception of vocational education domain and Responses toward vocational education as whole) according to their gender in favor of females. While there aren't any significant differences between the means of the parents' responses at the rest domains.

Table 3. Parent's attitude

Domains	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t-Value	Sig.
Vocational Education Importance	Male	3.46	.909	171	.127	.899
	Female	3.45	.932			
Vocational Education Future	Male	3.17	.361	171	.644	.521
	Female	3.14	.241			
Social perception of vocational education	Male	3.03	.899	171	2.557	*.011
	Female	3.38	.884			
Responses toward vocational education as whole	Male	3.25	.273	171	2.365	*.019
	Female	3.35	.261			

Table 4 shows that, there are observed differences between the means of the students' responses toward vocational education on the context of United Arab Emirates (UAE) according to their gender. To test the significant of these differences, independent samples (t) test was used as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Student attitude

Domains	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vocational Education Attitudes	Male	188	3.16	1.125
	Female	188	3.18	1.153
Social perception of vocational education	Male	188	2.92	.702
	Female	188	2.98	.595
Vocational Education Future	Male	188	3.10	.699
	Female	188	3.18	.685
Vocational Education Importance	Male	188	2.89	.256
	Female	188	2.91	.314
Responses toward vocational education as whole	Male	188	3.04	.417
	Female	188	3.08	.426

5. Discussion

As reported in the previous section, the effect of gender of parents in terms of vocational education importance, social, and future perception were examined and reported. This means that the women responded toward (social perception of vocational education domain and Responses toward vocational education as whole) is more positive than men. Therefore, the results support the proposed hypothesis of the parents' responses of social perception of vocational education according to the gender factor at 0.05 level of significance. Similarly, the results shows also the positive and significant effect of the vocational education as a whole according to gender factor This significant and positive results reflect the importance of social perception in parents' response towards the vocational education. In addition, the social perception is very important factor when dealing with vocational education that will increase the intention of students towards moving ahead to enhance their skills through education and training. Moreover, the parents' culture is dominant in terms of social factors to enhance the awareness of parents towards their children. In term of gender, it was found that female has more awareness and agreement than male which was clearly explained by the mean value (3.38 and 3.35). Female were more positive and significant than male in terms of vocation education social.

On the other hand, the results of this study showed insignificant results of the parents' vocational education importance and vocational education future. These results reflect the insignificant effect of parents' perception towards students' intention in terms of their importance and future. Also, the results showed the awareness of male than female which was very clear in the mean values (3.46 and 3.17). The non-significant results are due to many reasons. The first reason is about the low level of educations among parents that prevent them to understand the importance and the future of vocational education. The other reason is related to the culture of society in the UAE towards the vocational education and its role and importance in sustaining students' future, society and even the whole economy.

The attitude for male and female are the same toward all domains. The insignificant differences in results in the students' attitude, social perception, future, and importance of vocational education between males and females are happened because of many results. First, the level of education in schools is produced similarly and equally between male and female. Second, the government of the UAE is dealing with both genders in same level and provides the same facilities and educational instrument. Third, in the level of schools, male and female still have the same abilities and capabilities to think in the same way. In other words, there is any employment or social factors such as positions, salaries, and work place that may increase the difference of perceptions among them.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, the education either general or vocational is the most important for any country to be developed. In the literature, it was acknowledged the important role of attitude factors on the intention of students to enter the VET program. In spite of that, most of these studies in western counties and few of them in the context of developing countries especially in the Middle East. This study examined the effect of individual factors, social

factors, organizational factors, and demographic factors on the students' intention to enter the VET program. The results were discussed from the point view of student and parents where many hypotheses were found to have significant differences. In summary, the results of the empirical study highlight new insights about how attitude can play an important role in the students' intention.

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Patients' Satisfaction from Public Hospitals Services in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

Patients' satisfaction at public hospitals is an integral part to any hospital in the world. In recent times, health care industry has restructured its services to give better health care services to the study on patients. The focus of the study on patient' satisfaction from public hospitals services in selected cities Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim of Riyadh regions, Saudi Arabia. In these two public hospitals from each city, we conducted a sample of two hundred nineteen patients including hospitals representatives selected to collect primary data using Rasch measurement model, the measured items with the goodness fit and misfit of data. In the public hospitals services five items fulfilled the three stipulated criteria for misfit while two diagnosed as minor misfits. Patients' satisfaction from the two hospitals none of the items fulfilled the three stipulated criteria for misfit is due to varies of response from the respondents. The study shows that public hospitals are not performing well and hospitals services are inappropriate according to the needs of hospital representatives.

Keywords: patients' satisfaction, public hospital, representatives, Alkharj, Hotat Bani Tamim, services

1. Introduction

Hospital representatives seem indispensable to give better service in health care where good service is a pre-condition of systematic approach to deliver along with an environment or culture conducive to high standards. Patient satisfactions consider as important component in measuring health outcomes. The increasing strength of consumerism in society highlights the central role of patient's attitudes in health planning and delivery. Furthermore, a satisfied patient is more likely to develop a deeper and long lasting relationship with their health care provider, leading to improved compliance, continuity of care, and better health outcomes at large. To meet the patient's needs and to achieve the main goals of the health care system, it is essential to understand hospital representatives' attitudes in the hospitals of Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim, Saudi Arabia. Determinants of hospital services and patient satisfaction needed to investigate that reflected on the service quality of the hospitals. Thus, this research aimed at studying hospital representatives and their role in achieving patients' satisfaction using services of public hospitals in Saudi Arabia. The research will assist in assessing the practices and areas of satisfactions and the areas where the patients are dissatisfied.

1.1 Statement of Problems

The economy of Saudi Arabia is growing very fast. With the pace of reforms, the government of Saudi Arabia has focused on social sector such as education and health care system. The sudden increase in demand for healthcare services has exerted pressure on hospitals to meet new environmental challenges and bringing the quality of services in doubt leading to customer (patients) dissatisfaction. Previous studies reveal that over the years, Saudi Arabia is likely to increase sharply in its healthcare service needs. Researchers consider that population growth, a gradually aging society, and the conditions that affluence often exacerbates, such as obesity, diabetes, and heart diseases will create enormous new demand for healthcare services. Thus in the above situation, the present time is the appropriate time to measure the satisfaction of the patients to find out the areas to be focused for improvement in future. This study takes a step towards better understanding the factors responsible for patients' satisfaction and hospital representatives' skills to meet service quality, patients' need and satisfactions.

1.2 Study Objectives

In this study, the authors aim at ascertaining the satisfaction level of patients using the services of public hospitals in selected cities Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim of Riyadh regions, Saudi Arabia. Ministry of Health emphasizes to pay attention to this important sector due to recent sudden increase in demand for health care services. Moreover, in presented research authors analyze competence of employees to give quality services to the patients and to find out the satisfaction level of the patients availing the services of public hospitals of Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim in Saudi Arabia.

2. Literature Review

Ware and Snyder (1975) examined the dimensions of patient attitudes regarding doctors and medical care services. The study described factor analytic development and validation of numerous index scores to measure patient attitudes regarding characteristics of doctors and medical care services. Four major dimensions of patient attitudes identified and described, including attitudes toward doctor conduct and such enabling components as availability of services, continuity/convenience of care and access mechanisms (cost, payment mechanisms, and ease of emergency care).

Mayer, Collier and Goldstein (1998) conducted the study to investigate the effect of clinically concentrated customer service training on patient satisfaction in the emergency department and trauma Centre. The research analyzed the patient complaints, patient compliments, and a statistically verified patient-satisfaction survey indicate that fourteen key quality aspects identified in the survey increased dramatically during study period. The advancement in the patient satisfaction survey came in ratings of skills of the emergency physician, likelihood of returning, skill of the emergency department nurse, and overall satisfaction. The findings showed clinically focused customer service training improves patient satisfaction and ratings of physician and nurse skills. The study suggested that such training might offer a substantial competitive market advantage and patients' perception of quality and outcome.

Andaleeb and Khandakar (2000) conducted a study to compare the quality of services provided by private and public hospitals in urban Bangladesh. The study used twenty-four scale items such as patient perceptions was sought on five aspects of service quality including responsiveness, assurance, communication, discipline and baksheesh (tip). Unlike private hospitals are not subsidized, during study realized that the incentive format would induce them to provide better services than public hospitals on the measures of service quality. The result showed both private and public have more scope for improvement.

Sohail (2003) examined the quality of services supported by private hospitals in Malaysia. Empirical research used to determine patients' expectations and perceptions of the quality of service and a comprehensive scale adapted from SERVQUAL analytically calculated for its usefulness in the hospital environment. The results of the study based on testing the mean differences between expectations and perception indicated that patients' perceived value of the services exceeded expectations for all the variables measured.

Marley, Collier and Goldstein (2004) investigated the quality service delivery from managers, clinical and process quality to patients. Causal model used with a sample of two hundred two hospitals in the United States. The result concluded hospital leadership has more influence on process quality than on clinical quality.

Andaleeb, Siddiqui and Khandakar (2007) conducted a study about patient satisfaction in government hospitals in Bangladesh over the quality of health care services in public, private and foreign hospitals, low utilization of public health facilities and growing outflow of Bangladeshi patients to hospitals in neighboring countries. A survey conducted including inpatients in public and private hospitals in the capital city Dhaka. Regression models used to identify important key factors. Poor quality of health services identified poor faith in hospital services.

Chilgren (2008) investigated the study of managers role toward quality is essential particularly the mid-level manager, has a vital role in the success of any healthcare hospitals especially in patient perception of quality. The quality can refer to as patient satisfaction. Managers with his team can develop quality processes geared toward patient expectations by doing a number of things, including the following: clearly identify outcomes, and empower employees to achieve those goals. With a successful quality program, managers can expect a considerable return on investment, satisfied patients and staff and possible improvement of clinical outcomes.

Almalki, Fitzgerald and Clark (2011) reviewed the current services of health care system in Saudi Arabia. The Study emphasized the public health challenges and opportunities in health care system. Such challenges are lack of professional medical staff, financial resources, high free medical service demand. Despite the comparison the ministry of Health generally improved health services at all level of health services. Ministry of Health

introduced many reforms to improve the health system in Saudi Arabia.

Damnjanovic, Filipovic, Kostic, Novcic and Janicic (2011) analyzed a study to understand managers' attitude in health care organizations in Slovenia, Macedonia and Serbia with comparing their goals statement for internal and external perspective of patient attitude. The study conducted with three hundred managers in health care organizations in Slovenia, Macedonia and Serbia. The findings of the study suggested that health care managers should be educated to adopt management practices of better adopting to environment changes improve their managerial skills for running a better health care organization.

Sreenivas and Babu (2012) observed the patient satisfaction in three sample hospitals in the states of Andhra Pradesh, India. Thirty-eight items and seven dimensions used in the study. Perceived quality identified at a range of facility types for patients. Only perceived quality is found favorable and need more scope for improvement. Better staff and physician relationships, availability of medicines, hospital infrastructure can improve the patient satisfaction in the sample hospitals of the study.

Based on the previous studies, the present study needs in order to understand better health services system in both cities of Riyadh region public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim cover main objectives of the study to help in to identify the services orientation of hospital representatives which may influence patients satisfactions in public hospitals.

3. Method

The total number of 310 questionnaires distributed and 219 responded questionnaires in this study with patients and hospital representatives from each public hospital in Alkharj and Hota Bani Tamim. Rasch Measurement Model (Fischer & Linacre, 2007) measured the items designed in the questionnaires with goodness fit and misfit of data.

Rasch measurement model analysis applied to measure the relationship between hospital representatives and patients satisfactions from the both cities. A number of 36 items used to measure the satisfaction levels of 219 respondents and tested by using Rasch model. Evaluation of misfit and fit items suggest that the data demonstrated in the study. Fit analysis refers to logit scale, this model requires verification by looking OUTFIT column for mean square value, INFIT MNSQ = y , $0.5 > y < 15$. This model emphasises if any item is larger MNSQ (mean square) than the sum of mean of IMNSQ (Item mean square) and SD (Standard deviation), than this gives an indication of high Z-STD (Z-Score), in this case 1.23 logit clearly indicates item misfit.

4. Results

4.1 Overall Fit Analysis

4.1.1 Public Hospital Representatives Services of Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

The summary statistics, as shown in the Table 1, provide the goodness fit of the overall data. The person's Reliability Index was 0.95 with 4.25 Separation Index indicating that there were enough good items to differentiate person ability level. The further person fit statistics investigation on outfit for Mean-Square (OMNSQ) and Z-Score (OZSTD) showed that the OMNSQ was 1.04 and OZSTD was -0.80, which were close to the expected values of 1 and 0 respectively. This also revealed that the 36 items were targeting the right type of respondents in measuring the latent traits and yielded data at a reasonable prediction level of the responses to the items. The maximum person ability was $\delta_{\max} = +5.55 \text{ logit}$ and the minimum measure was $\delta_{\min} = -1.66 \text{ logit}$. The length of the logit scale was 7.21 logit . The Organisation Mean, $\delta_{\text{mean}} = 0.00 \text{ logit}$ revealed that the majority of the organisations found it relatively easy to endorse the items. This suggests that the people spread adequately into three groups across the items and the trait continuum.

As shown in Table 1, the Item Reliability was $\beta_{\text{item}} = 0.91$ with suggesting that the instrument had a good fit with the model. The high item reliability also indicated that the replicability of the items would occur if these items given to another sample of respondents of the same size. As for the Item Mean, it was set at $\mu_{\text{mean}} = 0.00 \text{ logit}$ to ensure that each organisation had a 50:50 chance of success in responding to the item that matched their ability. The OMNSQ was 1.04 and OZSTD was -0.10, which were close to the expected values of 1 and 0 respectively. This also revealed that most of the items targeted the organisation distribution, which meant an excellent targeting of the items to organisations. The maximum item ability was $\beta_{\max} = +1.52 \text{ logit}$ and the minimum measure was $\mu_{\min} = -1.71 \text{ logit}$. The length of the logit scale was 3.23 logit. The separation statistic for items was 3.10, indicating that the 36 items were generally separated into four groups.

Table 1. Public Hospital Representatives Services of Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

	58 measured person	36 measured item
Reliability	0.95	0.91
Separation Index	4.25	3.10
Mean	1.51	0.00
S.D.	1.57	0.71
Max.	5.55	1.52
Min.	-1.66	-1.71
Outfit MNSQ	1.04	1.04
Outfit ZSTD	-0.80	-0.10
S.E	0.21	0.12
Cronbach Alpha (Kr-20)		0.97
Raw variance explained by measures		54.3%
Unexplained variance explained by measures		45.7%
Unexplained variance in 1st contrast		6.4%

To ensure proper construct validity, the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was performed to assess residual variance for the 36 measured items. The results of PCA show that the raw variance explained by measures of 54.3% and it fulfilled minimum raw variance explained by measures as proposed by Fischer (2007) and Linacre (2007). The Raw unexplained variance by measures is 45.7% and unexplained variance in the first contrast of 6.4%, rated the instrument as good (Fischer, 2007) and show it unidimensional. In overall, this resulted in a 36-item in measuring the hospital representatives satisfaction of healthcare services in public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim, Saudi Arabia which was shown to be unidimensional with good internal consistency.

4.1.2 Item Fit Analysis

Item fit analysis conducted in assessing how well the items fitted the Rasch Model. Items regarded as misfits when they do not measure the variable accordingly and provide a distorted representation of the data. Keeping these misfit items would not be advantageous, and considered as a threat to validity. In Rasch Measurement Model, the items considered misfits when they fulfil the following three criteria:

- Outfit MNSQ - item should be accepted if it is within 0.5-1.5
- Outfit ZSTD - item should be accepted if it is within the range of +/- 2
- Point to Measure Correlation - item should be accepted if it is within the range of 0.30 - 0.80

Based on the aforementioned criteria, Table 2 shows that none of the items fulfilled the three stipulated criteria for misfit. However, seven items diagnosed as minor misfit.

1. *a1- the goals of our hospital the best describe as right attitude towards patients*
2. *a3-the goal of our hospital is to become one of the most competent hospital*
3. *c1- managers in hospital always act and react in ethical manner*
4. *c13-we have all the resources needed to perform the job are provided*
5. *c8-always provide enough information by the hospital to the job well*
6. *c9 - hospital is easily managed by the director /manager of the hospitaland*
7. *b8 – always provide enough information by the hospital to the job well*

The minor misfit is due to varies of response pattern from the respondents. Nevertheless, they were still at an acceptable range since, when referring vertically to Outfit MNSQ, Outfit ZSTD and Point Measure Correlation, all were within an accepted range. Thus, these items retained for further analysis. Overall, the statistics for fit analysis criteria of the items were in the following range:

- Measure = -0.71 logit > x < 1.52 logit
- Model SE = 0.18 > x < 0.25
- Outfit MNSQ = 0.38 > x < 2.98

- Outfit ZSTD = -3.90 > x < 7.10
- Point Measure Correlation = 0.52 > x < 0.81

Table 2. Item misfit order

S.N	Item	MEASURE	S.E.	MNSQ	ZSTD	Point Measure Correlation	Remarks
	a1	1.52	0.18	2.98	7.10	0.52	Minor Misfit
	c1	1.30	0.18	2.77	6.50	0.53	Minor Misfit
	c13	0.79	0.19	2.75	6.30	0.53	Minor Misfit
	a3	0.28	0.20	0.51	-3.00	0.77	Minor Misfit
	c8	0.00	0.20	0.50	-3.00	0.76	Minor Misfit
	c9	-0.04	0.20	0.48	-3.10	0.77	Minor Misfit
	b8	-0.12	0.20	0.38	-3.90	0.81	Minor Misfit
	b5	0.35	0.20	1.37	1.70	0.60	Normal
	b15	-0.04	0.20	1.11	0.60	0.72	Normal
	c2	-1.47	0.24	1.21	0.80	0.55	Normal
	b17	0.68	0.19	1.26	1.30	0.70	Normal
	b4	-0.99	0.22	1.18	0.80	0.58	Normal
	b12	-0.99	0.22	1.08	0.40	0.62	Normal
	b18	0.35	0.19	1.13	0.70	0.65	Normal
	c3	-0.12	0.20	1.07	0.40	0.70	Normal
	b3	-0.25	0.21	1.03	0.20	0.63	Normal
	c12	-0.47	0.21	1.05	0.30	0.62	Normal
	b1	0.68	0.19	1.04	0.30	0.74	Normal
	c7	-1.09	0.23	1.02	0.20	0.58	Normal
	b9	0.39	0.19	1.02	0.20	0.73	Normal
	b14	-0.99	0.22	0.90	-0.40	0.67	Normal
	b7	-0.47	0.21	0.86	-0.60	0.65	Normal
	b11	-0.12	0.20	0.93	-0.30	0.71	Normal
	b10	0.47	0.19	0.96	-0.10	0.72	Normal
	c6	0.35	0.19	0.85	-0.70	0.73	Normal
	c4	0.72	0.19	0.87	-0.60	0.74	Normal
	b16	0.04	0.20	0.85	-0.70	0.73	Normal
	b2	0.10	0.20	0.74	-1.30	0.76	Normal
	c5	0.12	0.20	0.83	-0.80	0.69	Normal
	b13	-1.71	0.25	0.70	-1.00	0.64	Normal
	a5	0.68	0.19	0.79	-1.10	0.75	Normal
	a4	0.54	0.19	0.76	-1.30	0.73	Normal
	b6	-0.08	0.20	0.69	-1.60	0.71	Normal
	a2	-0.60	0.21	0.64	-1.80	0.70	Normal
	c11	-0.16	0.20	0.59	-2.30	0.74	Normal
	c10	0.32	0.20	0.59	-2.40	0.77	Normal

Table 3. Public Hospital Representatives' Services in AlKharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

S.N	Code	Measure	S.E.	Dissatisfied Items
1.	a1	1.52	0.18	The goals of our hospital are best described as having right attitude towards patients
2.	c2	1.30	0.18	Mangers/Supervisors of the hospital tells when doing well & give enough authority to carry out work for patient satisfaction
3.	c14	0.79	0.19	Introducing a new program to improve patient satisfaction in your hospital is the main reason for possibility of losing patient satisfaction and possibility of loss of reputation in the region.
4.	c5	0.72	0.19	Clarity in communication of policies & procedures
5.	a5	0.68	0.19	Our hospital have mission and strategic goals
6.	b1	0.68	0.19	There is a clarity of administrative procedures of hospital
7.	b17	0.68	0.19	If patient satisfaction survey starts for health care services. Will it work effectively?
8.	a4	0.54	0.19	We understand the long-term plan of hospital
9.	b10	0.47	0.19	Hospital emphasizes competitive actions and achievement and measurable goals are important
10.	b9	0.39	0.19	Hospital emphasizes growth and acquiring new resources and readiness to meet new challenges
11.	c1	0.35	0.19	Managers in Hospital always act & react in ethical manner
12.	c7	0.35	0.19	Relationship with the supervisor and manager
13.	b5	0.35	0.20	Hospital maintain electronic data base of patients
14.	c11	0.32	0.20	Junior medical staff share the latest development in medical fields
15.	a3	0.28	0.20	The goals of our hospital is to become one of the most competent hospital.
16.	c6	0.12	0.20	There is trust between employees and their supervisors
17.	b2	0.10	0.20	Response of administration to problems and suggestions
18.	b16	0.04	0.20	Employees are rewarded for providing high quality services to patient.
19.	c9	0.00	0.20	Hospital is easily managed by the director or manager of the hospital
				Satisfied Items
20.	b15	-0.04	0.20	Environment of hospital is encouraging and stimulating to work
21.	c10	-0.04	0.20	Always use medical terms with explaining to patients for diagnosis
22.	b6	-0.08	0.20	Management has clarity of Administrative Procedures of Hospital
23.	b8	-0.12	0.20	They always provide enough information by the hospital to the job well
24.	b11	-0.12	0.20	Introducing a new program to improve patient satisfaction in your hospital is the main reason for possibility of losing patient satisfaction and possibility of loss of reputation in the region.
25.	c4	-0.12	0.20	They give us enough authority to make decisions
26.	c12	-0.16	0.20	Hospital management needs to do more for patient' satisfaction of health care services in hospital.
27.	b3	-0.25	0.21	Receive speedy feedback from authorities
28.	b7	-0.47	0.21	Initial training was provided by the hospital as needed
29.	c13	-0.47	0.21	We have all the resources needed to perform the job are provided
30.	a2	-0.60	0.21	The goals of our hospital are best described as achieving patient satisfaction.
31.	b4	-0.99	0.22	Give enough authority to make decisions
32.	b12	-0.99	0.22	Hospital management needs to do more for patient' satisfaction of health care services in your hospital.
33.	b14	-0.99	0.22	They always follow the guidelines of Ministry of health
34.	c8	-1.09	0.23	Always provide enough information by the hospital to the job well
35.	c3	-1.47	0.24	Communication from top management always keep up to date
36.	b13	-1.71	0.25	Resources needed to perform the job are provided

4.1.2.1 Overall Fit Analysis-Patients' Satisfaction from Public Hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

The collected primary data showed to be reliable in the summary statistics, as shown in the Table 4, provide the goodness fit of the overall data. The person' Reliability Index was 0.96 with 4.99 Separation Index indicating that there were enough good items to differentiate person ability level. The further person fit statistics investigation on outfit for Mean-Square (OMNSQ) and Z-Score (OZSTD) showed that the OMNSQ was 1.21 and OZSTD was -0.40, which were close to the expected values of 1 and 0 respectively. Revealed that the 36 items were targeting the right type of respondents in measuring the latent traits and yielded data at a reasonable prediction level of the responses to the items. The maximum person ability was $\delta_{\max} = +5.25 \text{logit}$ and the minimum measure was $\delta_{\min} = -5.24 \text{logit}$. The length of the logit scale was 10.49logit . The Organisation Mean, $\delta_{\text{mean}} = 0.03 \text{logit}$ revealed that the majority of the organisations found it relatively easy to endorse the items. This suggests that the respondents spread adequately into three groups across the items and the trait continuum.

Table 4. Patients' satisfaction-Public Hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

	161 measured person	36 measured item
Reliability	0.96	0.90
Separation Index	4.99	3.06
Mean	0.03	0.00
S.D.	2.09	0.34
Max.	5.25	0.64
Min.	-5.24	-0.79
Outfit MNSQ	1.21	1.09
Outfit ZSTD	-0.40	-0.08
S.E	0.17	0.06
Cronbach Alpha (Kr-20)	0.99	
Raw variance explained by measures	67.7%	
Unexplained variance explained by measures	32.3%	
Unexplained variance in 1st contrast	3.4%	

As given in Table 4, the Item Reliability was $\beta_{\text{item}} = 0.90$ with recommending that the instrument had a good fit with the model. The high item reliability also indicated that the replicability of the items would occur if these items given to another sample of respondents of the same size. As for the Item Mean, it was set at $\mu_{\text{mean}} 0.00 \text{logit}$ to ensure that each organisation had a 50:50 chance of success in responding to the item that matched their ability. The OMNSQ was 1.09 and OZSTD was -0.08, which were close to the expected values of 1 and 0 respectively. It also revealed that most of the items targeted the organisation distribution, which meant an excellent targeting of the items to organisations. The maximum item ability was $\beta_{\max} = +0.64 \text{logit}$ and the minimum measure was $\mu_{\min} = -0.08 \text{logit}$. The length of the logit scale was 1.17 logit. The separation statistic for items was 3.06, indicating that the 36 items were generally separated into four groups.

To ensure proper construct validity, the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) performed to assess residual variance for the 36 measured items. The results of PCA show that the raw variance explained by measures of 67.7% and it fulfilled minimum raw variance explained by measures as proposed by Fischer (2007) and Linacre (2007). The Raw unexplained variance by measures is 32.3% and unexplained variance in the first contrast of 6.4%, rated the instrument as good (Fischer, 2007) and show it unidimensional. In overall, this resulted in a 36-item in measuring the hospital representatives for patients satisfaction of healthcare services in public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim, Saudi Arabia which was shown to be unidimensional with good internal consistency.

4.1.2.2 Organization Misfit Analysis

The summary statistics in the Table 4 shows that some aspects do not conform to the required value. Hence, the identification of misfit Organisations was necessary to ensure that all respondents fit to model. This process is important because the 'misfit Organisations' agreeability on the items may not be appropriately measured by the

instrument. The misfit organisations known as unusual responses. After the process of identification of misfit Organisations, the analysis of the Organisations statistics revealed that out of 44 Organisations, 11 Organisations exhibited as misfit Organisations. This indicates that these Organisations could not have their perceptions precisely measured by the items used to measure the potential of clients' organisation towards implementing BIM. Finally, the fit Organisations with Rasch measurement model were at 33, indicating a goodness-of-fit to measure the potential of the clients' organisation towards implementing BIM.

Table 5. Patient' satisfaction of public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

	Before identifying misfit Organisation (n = 44)	After identifying misfit Organisation (n=33)
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.99	0.99
Organisation		
Reliability Index	0.96	0.97
Separation Index	4.99	5.57
Mean	0.03	0.31
S.D	2.09	2.05
Max	5.25	5.48
Min	-5.24	-4.84
Item		
Reliability Index	0.90	0.94
Separation Index	3.06	3.88
Mean	0.00	0.00
S.D	0.34	0.49
Max	0.64	0.95
Min	-0.79	-1.13
Standardized Residual Variance		
Raw variance explained by measures	67.7%	67.9%
Unexplained variance in 1 st contrast	32.3%	32.1%
Unexplained variance in 1st contrast	3.4%	3.4%

After the person misfit have been identified, it is important to analyse the results of the summary statistics to see if better results could be obtained compared to before the identification of person misfit, or vice versa. As shown in the Table 5, the value of Cronbach's alpha was at 0.99, which is same than before and considered to have a good reliability in measuring patients satisfaction of public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim, Saudi Arabia. Apart from that, person reliability was higher (0.97) compared to before (0.96) which denotes excellent reliability. Furthermore, person separation was higher than before at 5.57. This indicates that the assessment of demographic information can discriminate between the organisation's capability and difficulty of the task. The Raw Variance explained by measures also higher at 67.9% and unexplained variance in 1st contrast was lower after at the 32.1%. Thus, the analysis highlights that the measurement instrument used to measure hospital representatives' services for patients satisfaction of healthcare services in public hospital in Alkharj and Hota Bani Tamim, Saudi Arabia was reliable and valid and formed a good measurement.

4.1.2.3 Item Fit Analysis

Item fit analysis organized in assessing how well the items fitted the Rasch Model. Items considered as misfits when they do not measure the variable accordingly and provide a distorted representation of the data. Observing these misfit items would not be beneficial, and considered as a threat to validity. In Rasch Measurement Model,

the items treated misfits when they fulfil the following three criteria:

- Outfit MNSQ - item should be accepted if it is within 0.5-1.5
- Outfit ZSTD - item should be accepted if it is within the range of +/- 2
- Point to Measure Correlation - item should be accepted if it is within the range of 0.30 - 0.80

Table 6. Item Misfit Order

S.N	Item	Model S.E	OUTFIT		Point Measure Correlation	Remarks
			MNSQ	ZSTD		
1	d6	0.11	5.38	9.90	0.51	Minor Misfit
2.	c7	0.11	1.91	4.10	0.76	Minor Misfit
3.	c4	0.12	1.54	2.10	0.67	Minor Misfit
4.	a7	0.11	0.93	-0.40	0.81	Minor Misfit
5.	a1	0.12	0.91	-0.40	0.81	Minor Misfit
6.	c12	0.11	0.79	-1.30	0.81	Minor Misfit
7.	c2	0.11	0.72	-1.70	0.82	Minor Misfit
8.	c1	0.12	0.73	-1.60	0.82	Minor Misfit
9.	a8	0.12	0.77	-1.30	0.81	Minor Misfit
10.	c13	0.11	0.70	-1.90	0.83	Minor Misfit
11.	a11	0.11	0.65	-2.30	0.84	Minor Misfit
12.	b6	0.11	0.61	-2.50	0.83	Minor Misfit
13.	a6	0.12	0.64	-2.10	0.83	Minor Misfit
14.	c9	0.11	0.61	-2.40	0.84	Minor Misfit
15.	a4	0.12	0.62	-2.30	0.84	Minor Misfit
16.	c8	0.11	0.58	-2.70	0.85	Minor Misfit
17.	b5	0.12	0.50	-3.30	0.86	Minor Misfit
18.	c10	0.12	1.14	0.80	0.74	Normal
19.	d1	0.11	1.11	0.60	0.76	Normal
20.	c11	0.11	1.09	0.60	0.77	Normal
21.	c5	0.11	1.12	0.70	0.76	Normal
22.	a9	0.11	1.00	0.10	0.77	Normal
23.	d4	0.11	0.96	-0.10	0.78	Normal
24.	a10	0.11	0.95	-0.30	0.79	Normal
25.	a2	0.11	1.11	0.70	0.77	Normal
26.	c6	0.11	0.99	0.00	0.79	Normal
27.	b3	0.12	0.99	0.00	0.77	Normal
28.	d2	0.11	0.99	0.00	0.76	Normal
29.	b2	0.11	0.88	-0.70	0.79	Normal
30.	c3	0.11	0.91	-0.50	0.78	Normal
31.	b4	0.11	0.91	-0.50	0.79	Normal
32.	d3	0.11	0.85	-0.80	0.80	Normal
33.	a5	0.11	0.80	-1.10	0.79	Normal
34.	a3	0.12	0.91	-0.40	0.80	Normal
35.	d5	0.11	0.79	-1.20	0.80	Normal
36.	b1	0.11	0.69	-1.90	0.83	Normal

Based on the aforementioned criteria, The Table 6 shows that none of the items fulfilled the three stipulated criteria for misfit. However, the following seventeen items as minor misfit.

1. *d6-there is health care crisis in government hospitals in Saudi Arabia*
2. *c7-some time on request doctor treat me attentively*
3. *c4-receive more information about me and family members condition or treatment,*
4. *a7-doctor ask about family history before treatment*
5. *a1-doctor is always willing to answer my question*
6. *c12- If complain general manager of the hospital give fair treatment,*
7. *c2-admission process is easy*
8. *c1-prior treatment can easily access the specialist*
9. *a8-the doctors of this hospital are qualified*
10. *c13-coordination and communication between general manger,administrative staff doctors ,nurses and paramedical staff is good*
11. *a11-overall the attitude of doctors of this hospital is satisfactory*
12. *b6-security manager of this hospital is very dedicated and cooperative*
13. *a6-doctor give appropriate advice for prescriptions*
14. *c9- physical environment and services are good*
15. *a4- doctors explain the purpose of diagnostic test*
16. *c8- hospital provide me full information about the hospital*
17. *b5- medical staff treat me knows about the medical development.*

The minor misfit is due to varies of response pattern from the respondents. Nevertheless, they were still at an acceptable range since, when referring vertically to Outfit MNSQ, Outfit ZSTD and Point Measure Correlation, all were within an accepted range. Thus, these items retained for further analysis. Overall, the statistics for fit analysis criteria of the items were in the following range:

- Measure = $-1.13 < \logit < 0.95$
- Model SE = $0.01 < x < 0.12$
- Outfit MNSQ = $0.50 < x < 5.38$
- Outfit ZSTD = $-3.30 < x < 9.90$
- Point Measure Correlation = $0.51 < x < 0.86$

Table 7. Patient satisfaction of public hospitals in Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim

S.N	Code	Measure	Model S.E	Dissatisfied Items
1.	d6	0.95	0.11	There is health care crisis in government hospitals in Saudi Arabia
2.	d3	0.9	0.11	Operation theatre and equipment are available
3.	c9	0.81	0.11	Physical environment and services are good
4.	c8	0.72	0.11	Hospital provide me full information about the hospital
5.	d1	0.68	0.11	Waiting room is comfortable and pleasant
6.	c7	0.55	0.11	Some time on request doctor treat me attentively
7.	d4	0.49	0.11	Emergency is well equipped and services are prompt
8.	d2	0.4	0.11	Health care centres are well equipped
9.	c13	0.36	0.11	Coordination and communication between general manger , administrative staff, doctors ,nurses and paramedical staff is good
10.	c6	0.3	0.11	Before given new medicine ,hospital staff tell about the medicine

S.N	Code	Measure	Model S.E	Dissatisfied Items
11.	a10	0.25	0.11	Always happy to see the same doctor who treated me in my prior visit
12.	a7	0.23	0.11	Doctor ask about family history before treatment
13.	a11	0.17	0.11	Overall the attitude of doctors of this hospital is satisfactory
14.	c12	0.17	0.11	If complain, General manager of the hospital giver fair treatment
15.	c5	0.08	0.11	Receive free medicine
16.	b1	0.05	0.11	Nurses and paramedical staff are caring
17.	b6	0.05	0.11	Security manager of this hospital is very dedicated and cooperative
				Satisfied Items
18.	c2	-0.05	0.11	Admission process is easy
19.	d5	-0.08	0.11	Over all Hospital , its staff services, and level of care is satisfactory
20.	b2	-0.14	0.11	Nurses and paramedical staff give proper attention
21.	a5	-0.17	0.11	Doctor listens me attentively
22.	c3	-0.17	0.11	Easy to get choice of admission date
23.	a2	-0.18	0.11	Doctors are caring
24.	c11	-0.18	0.11	Doctors and supporting staff are neat and clean in appearance
25.	a9	-0.27	0.11	The doctors of this hospital is competent
26.	b4	-0.27	0.11	Staff at the registration counter are helpful and cooperative
27.	c1	-0.31	0.12	Prior treatment I can easily access the specialist
28.	a8	-0.35	0.12	The doctors of this hospital are qualified
29.	c10	-0.36	0.12	Hospital building and premises are neat and clean
30.	a3	-0.47	0.12	Doctor is always available on appointment date
31.	b5	-0.5	0.12	Medical staff who treat me knows about the medical development
32.	a4	-0.54	0.12	Doctors explain the purpose of diagnostic test
33.	a1	-0.55	0.12	Doctor is always willing to answer my question
34.	a6	-0.62	0.12	Doctor give appropriate advice for prescriptions
35.	b3	-0.82	0.12	Nurses and staff treat properly as per doctor instructions
36.	c4	-1.13	0.12	Receive more information about me and family members condition or treatment

Items clearly indicate the high dissatisfactions and satisfaction items in the study hospital representatives services and hospitals towards patients' satisfactions. Hospitals representatives found to be satisfactory in their orientation while hospitals infrastructure and basic medical services are not satisfactory especially Hotat Bani Tamim city public hospital. This city considered as weak compared to Alkharj city in terms of population, infrastructure and services.

5. Conclusion

Based on this comparative study the overall, result in thirty-six items in measuring public hospitals representative services of the two selected cities for the study shown to be unidimensional with good internal consistency, the analysis highlights that the measurement instrument used to measure patients' satisfaction was reliable and validated formed a good instrument. Therefore, the result shows the patients' satisfaction from the two hospitals is poor and they are dissatisfied ranges from the seventeen items (Table 6). On the other hand, service quality is inappropriate according to the need of hospitals representatives' ranges from the seven items (Table 2). Based on the study results, the study indicates high dissatisfaction of both hospitals services at local levels. It is highly recommended to improve the satisfaction levels at Public hospital of Alkharj and Hotat Bani Tamim-

1. The hospitals should provide regular training and orientation programme to their staff for professional development.
2. Both hospital have patients' complains and grievances counters for effective communications.
3. Hospitals should have proper medical and health infrastructure and proper availability of medical equipment for emergency.
4. Hospitals need to avoid unnecessary medical practices for medication and long procedures.
5. Hospital especially Hota Bani Tamim needs to pay more attentions to basic services without fail, which observed by regular hospital patients.
6. Comprehensive study at national level needed on urgent basis to improve the public hospital services.

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Indonesia Education Today: Dating Back Its History of Islam and Imparting European Education System

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Abstract

History of education in Indonesia dates back with its multicultural notion and acculturation since many years ago from Hindu Empire till the Islamic ruler. Later on in the colonial era, European education system gave much influence in Indonesia modern education. It was as if two sides of coin, the coming of European countries, such as Portugal and Dutch in Indonesia carried out lot of miseries on the other hands it also contributed to foster of modern education system in Indonesia. This paper is aimed to examine the influence of Islam and Europe influences to Indonesia Education. Modern Islamic Boarding Schools and Muhammadiyah (name of the biggest Modern Islamic Organization in Indonesia) Schools are the typical of the combination between European and Islamic education system synergy. The ethnography method with the participant –observation is used to get the dept observation and identification of the two different cultural contexts. Although, Many Modern Islamic Boarding Schools or Modern Pesantren and Muhammadiyah Schools have been risen up in Indonesia today, otherwise Pesantren with its traditional system are still existed in Indonesia.

Keywords: education system, education history, education reformation

1. Introduction

Education as a part of human and social life has become the salient pillar of society since the first of human history otherwise in the past time the education has the different system depending on its aims and trends from the different time. For example, in the pre – historic era, the people would bring up their children how to farming and how to hunting. Then, the human civilization was growth and the need of education was also at the coincidence time. The activity like the trade needed of communication between one and others and it was the education should be employed. The trade among the nation in the world was definitely contributed to the development of education in the society because the people needed to understand other languages and also required to write the manuscript for the trade documents as well. Thus the competence of reading and writing is very important to catch up. Probably the system of education could be different with the modern education today but the spirit to bring up the children for their better future was similar from one generation to the next generation.

Further social, political and religious aspects also profoundly contributed to the growth of education in the world, mainly in modern education. For an instance, the policy from the leader like the king and others would bring the significant changing in education, such as when Pericles reined the Greek, he contributed to the democracy and education for his country. Pericles led the Athenian Greeks between 460 – 430 B.C. during the so called Golden Age when democracy was at its height (Butts in Hessong, 1987). Education also evolved and was the most vital and rewarding during this period. The next was also happened in Persia, during of the war with the kingdoms around it their education was stressed on martial arts hence they could defense themselves from their enemies' attack. While the religion definitely contributed to the education through its teaching of each religious doctrines. For the Christianity, they need the education to teach their bible to the people and to plant the seed of religious values to the children. Or for the Muslim the reciting Qur'an is as the way to understand the religion teaching and makes it as their way of life. Such method of the teaching for the children can be carried out by the society in the prayer places such as the church, the mosque, and the temple or by the parents at home. Because the notion of education refers to the continuous process that was begun from the birth of human being and will be ended till they are passed away, it called long life education.

2. Research Method: Ethnography

As the identification of history of modern education in Indonesia, it dates back in colonial era and dealt with the European education history, the ethnography research is appropriately applied due to its way of the data collection that refers to the culture. In associated with the research, it remarked that doing ethnography as the collection of data that describe a culture (Bernard, 2004, p. 16). Then, the data collection uses the participant – observation method to record the data and to obtain the adequate information. On account of its comparison of the two different histories between European and Indonesia Education, the ethic perspective enables to observe the multi – cultural views from the different context. Because ethic perspective is associated with the comparison of differing cultures and populations enables researchers to develop broader cross cultural themes and concepts (Morris et al., 1999).

3. The Outgrowth of Modern Education: European Overview

The enlightenment of modern education in Europe began in Renaissance era and it was between fourteenth to seventeenth centuries. The term of “enlightenment” was come up due to their era had been faded by the dark of middle age era, when the church doctrines were very dominant in all aspects in human life including the education. In the previous era, the education was only aimed to learn the church doctrines as well as neglected the scientific knowledge. But, when the Renaissance out broke in Europe the scholars could think more independent without a lot of restrictions from the Church. The Renaissance tried to redefine the Greek victorious period in human thought and science or it could be called as the rediscovery of classical civilization. Further, the Renaissance focused on the human development of thought, thus every aspects like architecture, arts, trade, and education were increased. By contrast, the church power was declined and altered.

One of the education reformists in this period was Dutch educator, Desiderious Erasmus. He dedicated his life fostering the education. He wrote two famous books in acquainted with the education reform in Europe, there were the *Praise of Folly* and *Colloquies*. The first book was criticized the corruption of the church, and it would be referred as the important book in spiritual rebellion in Renaissance era or well known as the reformation period. While the other of his work was *Colloquies*, it discussed the guidance for the children connecting with the Christian way of life. Associated with the Erasmus idea in reformation, it was much inspired by Martin Luther, the German educator, was the advocate of the reformation for the church. In 1517 he nailed his reformation theses idea in the door of Wittenberg church. It consisted of ninety – five of his idea of reformation and later on this movement was famous as the Protestant reformation. This Reformation bore fruit to the development in education as well. It stated that Martin Luther suggested every prince should provide primary schools for both boys and girls, and he translated the Bible into peasant German for them to understand (Hessong, 1987). Martin Luther also wrote the book, *Catechism*, this prominent book was about the religious instruction for the children. This movement was spreading out in many countries in Europe and United States. On the other hand, the Catholics reacted with this reformation and also gave the counter by starting to build the order called Society of Jesus or “Jesuits”.

In Renaissance, the education still could not be separated from the church and religious values, even though the domination of the church was slightly declined. Such problem gave the idea to some educators in Europe to take away the education from the church or secularize the education. It was happened after Reformation period. The secular education notion in Europe, it could not be neglected from John Amos Comenius. He was the advocate of secular education from Moravia. His idea was brightly as the entering gate to the education enlightenment. He was the Moravian bishop who believed that children were not born human but became humanize through being educated in society (Hessong, 1987). His idea of education was the education for all people within all levels, every people had their right in education both rich and poor people as well as boys and girls. He suggested that the education should be less religious and focused on the development of science and knowledge. He wrote the first illustrated schoolbook, the *Visible World*. This book was used to teach the children using some pictures. Comenius principle in teaching was to make the students happy by using pictures in their learning process.

Another of his famous book was *The School of Infancy*, it was the guide book for the mother dealing with the nursery of their children at home. He argued that the basic education at home carried out by the mother was an essential problem for the basic education for the children. Comenius was the advocate of the learning by practice. It meant that if someone wanted to learn painting for example, he should practice how to paint, for the carving, he must practice the carving, for dancing he/she must practice dancing, for playing guitar he must practice to play the guitar and so on. Or, in other perspective, if somebody wanted to learn anything, he must experience in it. He stated that the sense of experiences can be used to stimulate the students’ intellect (Hessong, 1987).

The next great educator who was devoted his life for the development of education in Europe in the secular

education period was Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi. He was inspired by Rousseau, the French philosopher who wrote, *Emily*, the book telling the ideas of natural development of the child. According to Pestalozzi, the education and learning process for the children should be carried out step by step based on their level of competence. Like Comenius, Pestalozzi also suggested that the experience was the salient things in the learning process of the children. The students/the children must give the learning by emphasizing on the practical activities, thus the experience could precede his learning process for the next level, but at the first level the learning process will accompany them. The aim of education, for Pestalozzi was not only the result in the school activities but it was much deeper aim and it was to prepare the students had their independence in their daily activities.

Pestalozzi idea of education such as giving experienced activities and an independent action for the student gave inspiration a lot to his greatest student, Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel. He established the first kindergarten, the place for children with the joyful learning. Also, He created the child own world, it was land for song, story, and play. The children world took away from the adult world, due to its different characteristics. The students played and learnt in their own garden of learning. Furthermore, he suggested the principle “joy, freedom, contentment of inner and outer rest, peace with the world” (Froebel in Hessong, 1826, 1987). Several games like building cardboard block, playing in an outdoor garden in the baby pools were a kind of open – ended activities to empower the children creativity. Froebel truly combined the Rousseau’s naturalism and Pestalozzi’s practicality in the children learning process. His contribution in children learning within his idea of kindergarten had changed the world of education, not only in Europe but in all over the world also.

4. History of Indonesia Education: Modern Outlook

The modern education in Indonesia has a unique notion to discuss due to its combination of culture, religion, and society. Islamic culture absolutely affected Indonesia education many years ago through the practice of Traditional Islamic boarding School system, called *Pesantren*, it was the education that centered in the mosque or in the Muslim leader (ulema) house. Otherwise Western culture gave its influence through their colonialism and imperialism in Indonesia. At least, these were two European countries contributed in Indonesia development of education, they were Portugal and Dutch or Netherlands. All of such influences from the different countries, culture, and religion formed the national system of education in Indonesia. Thus, in Indonesia today, the heritage of the two different system of education is still found. *Pesantren* is under admission of Indonesia Ministry of Religion, and the common schools are under control and managed by Indonesia Ministry of education.

5. *Pesantren* (Islamic Boarding School)

Pesantren was the oldest education system in Indonesia nevertheless this education system is still survived till today together with the modern education system. *Pesantren* is the Traditional Islamic boarding school education system and its uniqueness makes it different from others. This traditional school system does not have the curriculum, clearly level or grade, examination system and learn only the Islamic religion doctrines in Qur’an and other books written by the Arabic scientists. The male and female students usually are separated; they have each distinctive boarding house. Further, the *kyai* or the Islamic teacher/*ulema* is central figure in *pesantren*, he is suggested as the holy people, and hereby the students/*santris* must obey him. The learning process in *pesantren* is according to verbalism. It means that *santris* (students) follow all of their teacher instructions, advices, suggestions, and lessons. There are two types of learning process, the first is individual learning, and the second is classical learning. For an individual learning, the student will learn face to face with the *kyai* (the teacher/Muslim leader). While in the classical learning, the students/*santris* will sit around their teacher, and the teacher will be as the center of learning, it likes the inquiry method. The learning process is not only in the class but it sometimes is also held in the mosque. The materials that are transferred mostly are the Islamic knowledge. In line with the level it follows the level in reciting holy Qur’an, then the *kyai* will judge he/she can go to the further level or not. Today in Indonesia, many *pesantrens* have changed their paradigm. They have combined the modern system of education and Traditional Islamic system of education, it is called Modern *Pesantren*, for example *Darussalam* in Gontor Village, Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia. Here the students are not only learning religious books but also learning Mathematics, sciences, and other knowledges.

6. Portugal and Dutch Influences

The next phase of education system that was really affected Indonesia was European education system that brought under the Portugal and Dutch Imperialism and Colonialism. Portugal came first in Indonesia for the trade, and occupied some areas in eastern part of Indonesia such as Molluca. During Portugal colonialism in the eastern part of Indonesia, it also had another mission to introduce the Christianity to the native people through the establishment of the Seminary School. In 1536 the first seminary school was opened in Ternate (One of the

city in Molluca isles). The founder was Antonio Galvao from Jesuit order. This school taught the Bible, writing, reading, Mathematics and also Latin language. But, Portugal reigned was not too long, then it was substituted by another European country, Dutch.

The impacts of Dutch education was much stronger due to its longer colonialism and imperialism in the whole of Java, part of Sumatera, part of Borneo, and part of Celebes. The Dutch influence in education began in 17th century. Like most of other countries, it was extremely hard in the connection between the native people and the Imperialist or between colonialist and the colonialized. Surely, such problems were also happened in education. The system of education applied by the colonialist was fully discriminated and racist. The school for the Dutch/the Netherland East Indies Government would be different in curriculum, system, and certainly the facilities, it was definitely better than the school for the Indonesian. While the education for the Indonesian also distinguished between the upper class, like the son of municipal regent and other high – rank officer and the lower class. Even, the low class people did not have an opportunity to get the better education. The school for European, Indonesian, and other East Asia countries such as Chinese were also different. Thus they separated each other according to their own race and the social status.

The best school for children or equal with Primary/Elementary school in Netherland East Indies Government or during colonialism in Indonesia was ELS, it stands for *Europeesche Lagere School* it was set up in 1808. This school was for the European children who lived in Indonesia. Certainly, this school had the best facilities, the best teacher, and the colonial government gave a lot of attention such as giving the big donation to ELS. For indigenous children, the Colonial government made two kinds of schools, they were *Hollandsch Inlandsche School* (HIS) and *the Inlandsche School* (IS). The HIS was the school for the children who were coming from the aristocrat family, while the IS was the school for ordinary people. Then, for the Chinese and other East Asia decent, the Colonialist built *Hollandsch Chineesche School* (HCS). Based on such category, it was obviously practiced the discrimination according to the race and the social class status in Indonesia education during the colonization. The colonialist attempted to keep their control through education by not allowing the indigenous people got the better education for example the High school at the same level as Junior High School was only opened many years after the first elementary school opened up.

The education system in Indonesia in Colonial era was aimed to fulfill the need of the workers, especially the lower rank officer for colonial government. Therefore, after the students graduated from the HIS and IS they could continue their education to *Pupillen Korps*, *Kweekschool*, STOVIA (*School Tot Opleiding Van Indische Artsen* or Medical School), *Ambachts School* and *Froebel Onderwijs*. All kinds of school were to fulfill the colonial government workers, such as *Pupillen Korps*, it was the school for military, *Kweekschool* was for teacher fulfillment, STOVIA was the medical workers, *Ambachtsschool* was for the carpenter and architecture, and at last, *Froebel Onderwijs* was aimed to educate the teacher in Kindergarten. To enhance the education quality then Dutch in 1914 opened MULO (*Meer Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs*) it was the school to continue the graduated students from elementary school level. While in 1919 for the Senior High school level it was established HBS (*Hogere Burger School*) for the indigenous student, and also AMS (*Algemeen Metdelbare School*). Further, for the higher education, the colonial government started to built some Institutes around 1920's for example THS (*Technische Hoogeschool*) for Technique institute, it was in Bandung, West Java, RHS (*Rechtshoogeschool*) or Institute of Law, GHS (*Geneeskudige Hoogeschool*) or Institute of Medical, both were placed in Batavia or today called Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia.

7. Indonesia Education Reform: Ahmad Dahlan Reformation

Muhammadiyah, one of the biggest Islamic Organization in Indonesia was the pioneer of the modern education in Indonesia. This organization was founded by Ahmad Dahlan in Jogjakarta in November, 18th, 1912. But, *Muhammadiyah* education preceded its organization, because it was established the school in 1911. This first school was founded in Jogjakarta with the equal level with HIS or Primary school. The different of *Muhammadiyah* school was, it was not only taught the scientific knowledge such as Mathematics, Arithmetic, social sciences and etc but it combined with religion subjects like *tarikh* or the history of Islam, reciting Qur'an, and *Hadith* (Muhammad teaching). Ahmad Dahlan reformed the Islamic traditional education that only learning the Islamic doctrines by combining them with the general science. *Muhammadiyah* School also used curriculum and the formal grade like Dutch education system. Unlike the *Pesantren* that the students were only taught by the *kyai* or Muslim leader as their mere teacher, in *Muhammadiyah* School, different subjects will be taught by the different teacher who has specific qualification.

Ahmad Dahlan as the founder of *Muhammadiyah* Organization and Education was an outstanding Muslim leader in Indonesia who got his education in Mecca and shared his idea of the Islamic reformation movement with

Muhammad Rasyid Ridha, Jamaluddin Al Afghani, and Muhammad Abduh in the Middle East. Back home in Indonesia, Dahlan involved with *Jami'at Khairiyah* and *Budi Utomo*. The first organization was the organization of Arab community in Indonesia, while *Budi Utomo* was the youth movement organization founded by the alumni of STOVIA or medical school and alumni of western schools in Indonesia. His involvement with *Budi Utomo* organization gave him awareness that Islamic education must be reformed. Dahlan idea for education was to bring the Muslim dated back to the values in Qur'an as well as to decline the dichotomy between Muslim scholar and Muslim leader. His other education vision was the education should produce the objective thinkers. He criticized the traditionalist Muslim in *Pesantren* who practiced *kyai* centrist (the only one teacher, leader, manager).

Further, his idea and vision in education applied with his establishment of the *Muhammadiyah* School in 1911. Then, to develop his striving and to convince his education reformation, he made the foundation or organization as the Management holding system. Thus in November, 18th, 1912 *Muhammadiyah* was founded by Ahmad Dahlan and his followers. This organization today has been evolved becoming one of the biggest Islamic organization in Indonesia with around 50 million followers. *Muhammadiyah* Schools adopted western system in its curriculum and level, but *Muhammadiyah* Schools were also taught their students with Islamic knowledge too. English and Arab language were the compulsory subjects in *Muhammadiyah* School besides Mathematics, science, social science, physics together with Qur'an and Hadith (Prophet Muhammad teaching). *Muhammadiyah* today as the Non - Government Organization in Indonesia has the biggest and prominent number of education institutions in Indonesia. The recent and the newest database mentions that *Muhammadiyah* has 2,604 elementary schools, 1,772 Junior High School, 1,143 Senior High School, and 172 universities scattered in the whole Indonesia areas.

8. Conclusion

The history of education in Indonesia particularly in modern era is strongly affected two mainstreams of education namely Islamic education from the Middle East and European system that was brought during Portugal and Dutch Colonialism in Indonesia. The education system that practiced in Indonesia by Dutch was fully discriminated because it distinguished the students according to their race and social class. On the other hand, Islamic education was also trapped in religion doctrines carried out by only one central figure called *kyai*, he was the only one that has the authority to teach and determine for everything till Muhammadiyah came with its brighter movement. Hence, the education today in Indonesia cannot neglect its own history. The development of education, the establishment of education system till the design of national curriculum must consider how the education had formed. The history of education is really important aspect to embrace the foundation of national education in the future.

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Designing an E-Portfolio as a Storage, Workspace and Showcase for Social Sciences and Humanities in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

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Abstract

The present articles introduce the e-Portfolio as a storage, workspace and showcase to support teaching and learning in higher education institutions (HEIs). Thus, the mix-method approach was implemented on determining important elements of e-Portfolio as a storage, workspace and showcase for a social sciences and humanities context. This study implemented thematic analysis and Fuzzy Delphi Method to obtain the result. Therefore, 25 experts in instructional technology was participated in the process of the making a decision. As resulted, this study highlighted the fundamental of e-Portfolio consists; workspace, storage and showcase. Eventually, the instructional designer will understand and strategies on how to develop an effective e-Portfolio as learning support tool to enhance the learning experience between facilitator and learner.

Keywords: e-learning, e-portfolio, workspace, storage, showcase, science social and humanities, higher education, design and developmental research, fuzzy delphi method

1. Introduction

There are many researchers who advocate the use of portfolios in higher education institutions for both learners and facilitators. However, very limited empirical research gives its due focus on the development of portfolios than their effects on student learning. This has resulted in the invention of e-Portfolio with the 'E' as a new concept which suggests online environments with electronic tools can be used to develop and present a self or group portfolios. This invention offers the creation, management, maintenance, and presentation of electronic portfolios. E-Portfolio can be used as a personal and lifelong content-management system for collecting, reflecting, selecting, and presenting learning outcomes, and other professional accomplishments.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the use of e-portfolio for assessing the achievements of student learning (Drost, Hanson, Molstad, Peake, & Newman, 2008). In 1990s, the e-Portfolios have been used by students in disciplines such as art and architecture as a means of collating evidence of learning (Harun & Cetinkaya, 2007). With the development of internet and technology, the use of e-Portfolio has significantly sprouted with higher education institutions (Jawah, Macfarlane-Dick, Matthew, Nicol, Ros, & Smith, 2004). At this juncture, there are two reasons why e-Portfolio has been chosen as the subject for this research. The first reason is influenced by the potentials of constructive approach to education which emphasizes learning by experience (Beck, Livne, & Bear, 2005; Klenowski, Askew, & Carnell, 2006; Lynch & Purnawarman, 2004). The second aspect is the prospect that computer technology holds in education to support the facilitators and learners (Meeus, Questier, & Derks, 2006).

The greatest attraction of e-Portfolios is that the students develop personalities, growth, and autonomy in learning (Batson, 2002). This is topped with the offer for better holistic representation of students' understanding supported with evidence-based rather than the traditional one-time assessment such as tests, quizzes or exam papers. In addition to support learning experience, the potentials of technology is undeniably palpable because it can hold a variety of artefacts or evidence. Consequently, students are provided with the choice to choose the method of submission, to select and explain the standards of the evidence in the documents. This in turn will assist them to better reflect upon their own learning allowing them to be the architect of their own learning (De

Rijdt, Tiquet, Dochy, & Devolder, 2006; Sturrock & Early, 2007; Syamsul Nor Azlan, 2015; Thomas, Lamson, & King, 2001).

However, a variety of problems and issues have come to the attention of researchers and practitioners with the use of portfolios in a learning environment such as the lack of well-defined guidelines and a clear structure (Smith & Tillema, 2003). This is feared to cause confusion and anxiety among students with regard to the scope and value of the e-Portfolio (Darling, 2001). Past researchers have stated that without proper guideline and being student-driven can lead the students to be lacking in self-directedness and motivation (Zeichner & Wray, 2001). Students need guidance and support to showcase their concepts, understanding, and skills to fulfill the learning outcomes (Smith & Tillema, 2003) which require a lot of time on the part of the facilitators and the students (Wade & Yarbrough, 1996).

Despite all the concerns raised, the researchers have agreed that students' e-Portfolio have a wide range of potentials that need to be explored and considered. Sturrock and Early (2007) explained that the use of e-Portfolio is capable as a place to manage visual art and design projects, researching, relating knowledge and becoming committed to on-going professional development and higher-order thinking, as they learn to collect, display, articulate, evaluate, and communicate their ideas. There is a strong support for the notion that e-Portfolio learning environments can be effectively used to support constructivism and transformative learning (Reushle, 2005; Wilson, 2004) and the advantages may be limitless. The building of content knowledge and skills was documented as a referral for future references. Eventually, the students will be equipped with specific learning domain and experience that may design their potentials as professionals or experts in their respective areas.

2. Literature Review

E-Portfolio designed as a learning support tool in teaching and learning process (Wade, 2005; Barrett, 2007) with Attwell (2005) provide prior support that e-Portfolio may be used not only for one generic approach but applicable in multiple or different pedagogic strategies to support teaching and learning. One such use is a developmental e-portfolio that is meant to record things that learners have done over a period of time and may be directly tied to learner outcomes or rubrics (Omidvar, Jaryani, & Abdul, 2011). Paulson, Paulson and Meyer (1991) described that the creation of e-Portfolio as follows:

A portfolio tells a story. It is the story of knowing. Knowing about things... Knowing oneself... Knowing an audience... Portfolios are students' own stories of what they know, why they believe they know it, and why others should be of the same opinion. A portfolio is opinion backed by fact... Students prove what they know with samples of their work. (1991, p. 2)

Research has proven that when students use portfolios, they will become more responsive to their strengths and limitations while learning to improve their ways (Zellers & Mudrey, 2007). In Malaysia context, the portfolio is used as an evidence to evaluate the level of specific cognitive ability and psychomotor skills. However, a paper-based portfolio is limited as a storage only. Due to prior limitation, the e-Portfolio has outperformed and provided a better means for learners. It is also aligned with the Ministry of Education (2011) encouragement for HEIs in Malaysia to expand the implementation of online tools for learning.

Various definitions were produced for e-Portfolio from earlier researches. Abrami and Barrett (2005) defined e-Portfolio as a digital storage that has a capability of storing and organizing multimedia materials on a server or cloud, whether locally or on the Internet. Since they are web-based, they provide remote access that encourage students to engage with their learning anywhere and at any time. In contrast, Heinrich (2007) emphasized that e-portfolio is much more than just a collection of students' work. He is supported by Barrett, Garthwait and Verrill (2003) and also Gülbahar and Tinmaz (2006) that e-Portfolio also can work as a workspace and showcase.

Meeus, Questier and Derks (2006) explained that an e-Portfolio is a platform to demonstrate, exhibit or show a person's life achievements and experiences (Rodriguez-Donaire & Garcia, 2011; Zheng et al., 2009). Therefore, e-Portfolio as a workspace represents the developmental process of the learners. Barrett (2007b) re-conceptualized the meaning of e-Portfolio by stated, it should be prioritized on learning reflection and achievement to enable learners to substitute the ideas and feedbacks among peers (Lorenzo & Ittleson, 2005).

The scaffold between peers as a result of learning domain is to reflect the relationship of higher-order thinking skills and learning context (Jones & Lau, 2009). While learners engage in the production of their works, they are made aware of the integration of the process and how they fit into the content of the e-Portfolio (Zimmerman, 2009). Meanwhile, peer engagement allows reflection (Eynon, 2012) by giving feedback and collaborating on each other's work on higher-order thinking throughout the meaningful process (Wade & Abrami 2005). The primary role of the facilitator at this level is to provide formative feedback on the students work so that they can

recognize opportunities for improvement.

In recent years, higher education institutions in Malaysia have started to use e-portfolio as a showcase of students' talents and works to aid curricular assessment and career development (Mobarhan, 2002; Rahim, 2015). The e-Portfolio as a showcase enables learner to get started on the process and learn the value of completing a portfolio. It is so significant with the current global economic crisis that HEIs' use e-Portfolio to show their graduates' performance and competency development (Wu, 2011). As an example of the use of e-portfolio for the showcase, Stevens (2008) introduced the South West Opportunities for Older People (SWOOP) program to showcase and enhance the employability of the elderly. These e-Portfolios will be useful when applying for employment, both for work experience placements and upon graduation.

In this study, Social Sciences and Humanities consists five faculties such Faculty of Education, Faculty of Art and Design, Faculty of Music, Faculty of Mass Media and Communication and lastly Faculty of Film, Theatre and Animation who practicing portfolio as an evidence-based assessment as to fulfil the Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA) requirement. Thus, MQA has indicated that 40%-70% of evaluation is an evidence-based assessment to measure the learning outcome and competencies of each learner. However, some of the setbacks with this traditional way of assembling learners' works in developing a portfolio involve tedious documenting process, restricted space, and take up more time to assess their performances. It is also worthy to signify the challenge that awaits portfolio assessors in facilitating learners in a crowded classroom while attempting to give focus in certain needs or specific skills as stated in the instructional objectives (Birgin 2007). Hence, it is timely that e-Portfolio take its place and fulfil the needs in learning while overcoming some of the constraints mentioned.

So, the researcher suggests that there is a necessity to have an e-Portfolio as a medium to sort all of the problematic issues including storage, workspace and showcase (Becta, 2007; Blaikie, Schonau, & Steers, 2004; Fitch, Peet, Reed, & Tolman, 2008). The possibilities of e-Portfolio being merged with cloud computing to solve the pertaining issues such as a storage as well as handling and controlling will extend teaching and learning to another level. In the 21st century, e-learning is a convenient platform in extending e-Portfolio usage by utilizing web-based to another level of accessibility. This study highlighted the fundamental or basic elements includes in e-Portfolio consists the function as workspace, storage and showcase. Eventually, the instructional designer will understand and strategies on how to develop an effective learning support tool to enhance the learning experience between facilitator and learner. The interaction and engagement is important to save the purpose and success of e-Portfolio.

3. Methodology

In this study, Fuzzy Delphi Method (FDM) has been proposed to allows experts to fully express their opinions. Interestingly, it also takes into account the ambiguity that cannot be avoided during the study. This method does not misinterpret the original experts' opinion and reveal their real reactions. Following are the steps of the Fuzzy Delphi Method:

3.1 Round One (1): Issues and Interview Protocol

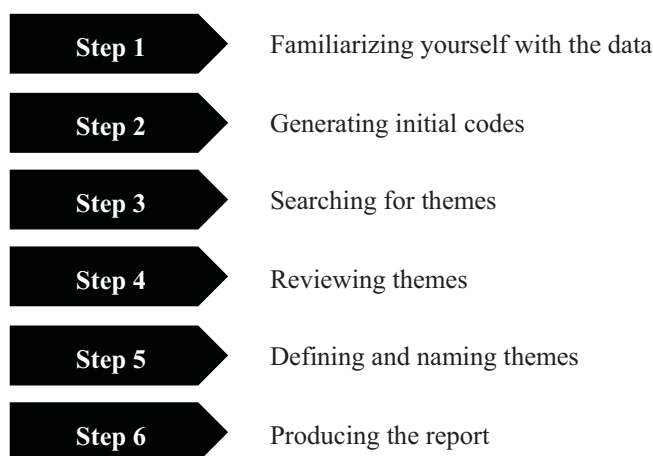


Figure 1. Six steps in thematic analysis

The first phase of data collection involved semi-structured interviews with experts in e-Portfolio enlisted at the different universities. Thematic analysis was executed to determine whether they were sharing experiences or simply pre-digested theoretical knowledge. The interview protocols were read independently in order to obtain intuitive grasp of the description. Statements made by each learners which are recognizable aspects of their experiences were retrieved and listed verbatim. The researcher collapsed the participants' statements into emergent themes and simultaneously distinguished possible linkages and relationships. In doing the analysis, the researcher referred to a few method or steps proposed by other researchers in research methodology. Braun, V. and Clarke (2006) has proposed six steps in thematic analysis. The steps are shown in Figure 1.

3.2 Round Two (2): Fuzzy Delphi Analysis

Fuzzy Delphi was employed bases on group thinking of the qualified experts as mentioned in (Syamsul, Mohamed Amin Embi, & Norazah 2015; Siraj, 2012) in their previous works. The "E-Portfolio Consensus Survey" was developed based on the emerging themes from the experts. There are about 25 experts in instructional technology involved and responses the survey.

4. Findings and Discussion

These constructs were divided into three (3) sub-constructs which are level 1 is storage (7 items), level 2 is workspace (6 items) and level 3 is showcase (4 items). The item analysis is described in the subsequent sub-sections.

4.1 E-Portfolio as a Workspace

Here is the threshold (d) values, expert consensus percentage and defuzzification by items can be referred to Table 1.

Table 1. Threshold values (d), expert consensus percentage, defuzzification and ranking by e-portfolio as a workspace items

Items	A1.1	A1.2	A1.3	A1.4	A1.5	A1.6	A1.7
Description	displays digital documents	displays digital work format	demonstration of projects/tasks or assignments	provides evidence for learning.	shows resources of learning	report that describes the success of the work or project	shared with anyone within and outside
Items $d \leq 0.2$	0.093	0.131	0.191	0.115	0.172	0.172	0.184
Construct $d \leq 0.2$	0.123						
% $d \leq 0.2$	100%	100%	88%	100%	88%	94%	94%
Expert Group Consensus Percentage % $d \leq 0.2$ (95%)							
Defuzzification	0.763	0.738	0.700	0.750	0.650	0.688	0.713
Ranking	1	3	5	2	7	6	4

- Rules 1: No items exceed the threshold value (d) = 0.2. (Cheng & Lin, 2002)
- Rules 2: Second rules in fuzzy delphi also accepted whereas percentage consensus of expert more than 75% expert agreed. (Chu & Hwang, 2008; Murray & Hammons, 1995)
- Rules 3: Defuzzification values showed each items reach above α -cut = 0.5.

As can see in Table 1, the item analysis explained the constructs achieved the experts' consensus. The items were arranged according to priority and ranking-based. The digital documents had the highest consensus expert score 0.763 and resources learning score was the lowest score with 0.650. Experts agreed that e-Portfolio is a place to displays **digital documents** (0.763), **evidence for learning** (0.750) and converting into **digital work format** (0.738). The e-Portfolio whereas the students **shared** (0.713), **demonstrate** (0.700), **progress report** (0.688) and show **resources**.

E-Portfolio as a Workspace: The learners keep learning using e-Portfolio as a workspace and reflect their learning as represented in the artifacts or artworks stored in the digital archive. The workspace provides learners to update and edit the digital artefacts that are stored in a virtual space or cloud. Therefore, the primary role of the artifacts or artworks is to promote self directed learning among learners and motivate them to collect and select the best quality of materials to showcase among their peers.

This level of reflection is more progressive and thinking forward to create a dynamic relationship among facilitators, learners and the body of knowledge. The formative and summative assessment is a key features to evaluate and diagnose the learner's performance time to time for room of improvement. The facilitator will set up the lesson structure for the learners to reflect provided with feedback, prompt and hints of the task given. This reflective learning allows the learners to scaffold with facilitator and peers. The learners reflect on the materials on the specific goals and outcome based on the supported evidence and documents.

E-Portfolio may foist some challenging experiences to students while they documenting their progress that subsequently becomes the emergence of the learners' portfolio narratives. Bogossian, F. E., and Kellett (2010) rises an issues that can impede the use of e-portfolios as workspace include: time constraints, issues related to privacy, colleagues' views of the value of reflection, and a lack of motivation to use the platforms.

Similarly, Smith, E., and Mills (2009) studies highlighted some disadvantages of e-Portfolios viewed by engineering students were that they found the technology frustrating, time consuming, and effective use depended ultimately on the student's computer literacy skills and how much they perceived they could benefit from the platform There is a need for an investigation into more effective ways for e-Portfolios to be used to promote and integrate higher-order thinking skills. This highlighted the importance of generic or specific pedagogical issues underpinning facilitation of higher-order thinking skills and in the use of e-Portfolios.

One of the effective strategies to facilitate higher-order thinking skills are with scaffolding between peers and facilitator. As a resulted, Jones and Lau (2009) has proven that the scaffolding has a significant effect between the higher-order thinking skills and e-Portfolio learning context. It occur when learners engage in the production of their works, they are made aware of the integration of the process and how they fit into the content of the e-Portfolio (Zimmerman, 2009). Meanwhile, peer collaboration allows reflection by giving feedback and collaborating on each other's work on higher-order thinking throughout the meaningful process (Eynon, 2012; Wade & Abrami, 2005). The primary role of the facilitator is to provide an effective strategy to the students work with e-Portfolio and had an opportunities improve their knowledge and skills

4.2 E-Portfolio as a Storage

Table 2 shows the threshold (d) values, expert consensus percentage and defuzzification by items as follows

Table 2. Threshold values (d), expert consensus percentage, defuzzification and ranking by e-portfolio as a storage items

Items	A2.1	A2.2	A2.3	A2.4	A2.5	A2.6
Description	systematic storage of different types of media	allows creation of content.	allows editing of content.	allows updating of content.	is a collection of digital artifact stored in a virtual space or cloud.	function as a file repository to backup or import/export different media.
Items $d \leq 0.2$	0.193	0.215	0.184	0.131	0.210	0.172
Construct $d \leq 0.2$	0.184					
% $d \leq 0.2$	88%	81%	88%	100%	88%	94%
Expert Group Consensus Percentage % $d \leq 0.2$ (90%)						
Defuzzification	0.688	0.675	0.713	0.738	0.700	0.700
Ranking	4	5	2	1	3	3

- Rules 1: Items A2.2 and A2.5 exceed the threshold value (d) = 0.2. (Cheng & Lin, 2002).
- Rules 2: Second rules in fuzzy delphi also accepted whereas percentage consensus of expert more than 75% expert agreed. (Chu & Hwang, 2008; Murray & Hammons, 1995).
- Rules 3: Defuzzification values showed each items reach above α -cut = 0.5.

As mentioned, the item analysis explained the constructs which gained the experts' consensus. The items were arranged according to priority and ranking-based. The updating content had the highest expert consensus score 0.738 while content creation score was the lowest score with 0.675. The items analysis showed, using e-Portfolio allows students to **updating** (0.738), **editing** (0.713), **virtual space or cloud** (0.700), **backup or import/export** (0.700), **systematic storage** (0.675) and also allows **content creation** (0.675).

E-Portfolio as a Storage: Various definitions were produced for e-Portfolio from earlier researches. Abrami and Barrett (2005) defined e-Portfolio as a digital storage that has a capability of storing and organizing multimedia materials includes text, graphics, sound, and video on a server or cloud, whether locally or on the Internet.

In contrary, C. C. Chang (2002) has compared traditional learning relies on man-made data collection and a writing-centered learning process. It makes some difficulties in data storage, search, and management after long-term implementation have become problematic in developing and implementing portfolio. Therefore, electronic form is a solution to ensure it can be used for a long-term implementation due to the capability store on server or cloud provided with a higher protection.

The basic level of creating e-Portfolio is the collection of artifacts or artworks **stored** virtually in the web 2.0 system and tools. At this stage, the facilitator asks the students to stores by **create, update, edit and share** the artifacts or artworks in a set of folder on the platform prepared by the researcher. This basic activity was designated to keep the **evidence-based** safely compared than the traditional paper-based e-Portfolio. It is also capable to include progress reports and resources on learning either to use within or outside of the classroom.

4.3 E-Portfolio as a Showcase

Table 3 display the threshold (d) values for the expert consensus percentage and defuzzification by items as follows.

Table 3. Threshold values (d), expert consensus percentage, defuzzification and ranking by e-portfolio as a showcase items

Items	A3.1	A3.2	A3.3	A3.4
Description	can be accessed by anyone or everyone, at anywhere and anytime.	showcases students' works.	showcases students' talents.	can be used to prepare for job hunting.
Items $d \leq 0.2$	0.172	0.143	0.115	0.172
Construct $d \leq 0.2$	0.150			
% $d \leq 0.2$	88%	100%	100%	88%
Expert Group Consensus Percentage % $d \leq 0.2$ (94%)				
Defuzzification	0.725	0.725	0.750	0.725
Ranking	2	2	1	2

- Rules 1: No items exceed the threshold value (d) = 0.2. (Cheng & Lin, 2002).
- Rules 2: Second rules in fuzzy delphi also accepted whereas percentage consensus of expert more than 75% expert agreed. (Chu & Hwang, 2008; Murray & Hammons, 1995).
- Rules 3: Defuzzification values showed each items reach above α -cut = 0.5.

As mentioned, the item analysis explained that the constructs had gained the consensus from the experts. The items were arranged according to priority and ranking-based. Showcasing students' talents had the highest consensus expert score of 0.75. Then, *Level 3* is a showcase in which the e-Portfolio exhibits students' talent and

works that can be accessed by anyone, anywhere at any time, and as preparation for their future job hunt. Experts agreed e-Portfolio showcase **students talent** (0.750), **students works** (0.700), **accessible for anyone** (0.700) and also as a preparation for **job hunting** (0.700).

E-Portfolio as a Showcase: The purposes of the e-Portfolio is a not only for learning but showcasing learner collected of their work and reflected upon their work, which are expected to provide them with directions for lifelong learning. Learners were mentored to extract relevant evidence and write reflections to showcase their skills, understanding and learning.

At level 3, the e-Portfolio requires the learners to organize and display the artifacts or artworks around the set of learning goals and outcome. The presentation is develop using e-Portfolio tools. Hence, the technology of e-Portfolio offers a variety of tool to enhanced learning experience and allows facilitator and learners stay connected all the time and benefit the use of technology in virtual classroom. Thus, the e-Portfolio allows the students to showcase their talent and artworks for future use especially relate to continuous professional development such as job preparation, lifelong learning and self evaluation.

In recent years, higher education institutions in Malaysia have started to use e-portfolio as a showcase of students' talents and works to aid curricular assessment and career development (Mobarhan, 2002; Rahim, 2015). The e-Portfolio as a showcase enables learner to get started on the process and learn the value of completing a portfolio. It is so significant with the current global economic crisis that HEIs' use e-Portfolio to show their graduates' performance and competency development (Wu, 2011). As an example of the use of e-portfolio for the showcase, Stevens (2008) introduced the South West Opportunities for Older People (SWOOP) program to showcase and enhance the employability of the elderly. These e-Portfolios will be useful when applying for employment, both for work experience placements and upon graduation.

In addition, Tillema (2000), for one, agreed that the importance of e-Portfolio is not only the end product but the process of constructing individual learning. Besides that, experts suggested the faculty also need to ensure the availability of computers and wireless connection to accommodate the number of learners who are using the *e-Portfolio* in the course. Universities throughout Malaysia intent to adopt blended learning in attempts to diversify the ways of teaching and learning. Therefore, accommodating for better infrastructure will benefit both learners and facilitators towards experiencing the best quality of teaching and learning.

5. Conclusion

The definitions of e-Portfolio need to be revised according to the purpose of the study. The experts agreed that e-Portfolio was divided into three levels of functions: *Level 1* storage, *Level 2* workspace and *Level 3* showcase. *Level 1* is considered as storage to display digital documents, provide evidence for learning and then to be converted into the digital format. The e-storage also works as a sharing tool to demonstrate the leaners' projects/tasks or assignments. It is also capable to include progress reports and resources on learning either to use within or outside of the classroom. Thus, *Level 2* is a workspace that allows learners to update and edit the digital artefacts that are stored in a virtual space or cloud. This also works as a file repository to backup or import/export different media with other types of media and allows content creation. Then, *Level 3* is a showcase in which the e-Portfolio exhibits students' talent and works that can be accessed by anyone, anywhere at any time, and as preparation for their future job hunt.

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Student Innovation Process from Self-architecting Point of View

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Abstract

Love to bubble the innovative creativity within oneself and increase the capacity of creativity capacity in human nature show the most striking difference between him and the other creations and will never be the end for this aim because man has always been following the attainment of immortality and is ahead of its era. The innovative creativity capacity of the mind is the most powerful incentives to form the processes that human could have been successful to represent it till today because human did a lot of searches and endeavors to access the eternity and being vanguard against the time over the time so as to find the solution to this cycle but he couldn't be successful in this field.

Lack of access to the innovative internal sources is because the man should at the first step be aware of philosophy, ignorance and life and critic them without the slightest consideration so that by attending self architect be aware of the value and the ability of the mind and by depending on own ingenuity move toward the creation of the new theoretical to outshine the time and lead up to the millennium of those won be and the powerful presence and immortality would be realized that it's output would be entering into the ultramodern mind cycle. The innovation means creating and providing new vents of the theoretical with the content of vanguard against the time. The process of entering to this cycle is so that the student must have believed his ignorance to be able to pass through his mental illness and feels the thirst of knowledge. Now he finds that having the eyes for viewing the wisdom and finding the ingenuity should pass via for main cycle to attend the knowledge and innovation through the sight of his architect (creator). Failure to pass the mentioned process expresses the shuck document with empty reason ownership. Realizing the process of forming own diagram and innovative design in this article has been delivered to the reader as discover page.

Keywords: self-architect's view, innovation, ultramodern mind, finding the ingenuity

1. Introduction

1.1 Introducing the Problem

Today, innovations in advanced societies has valuable place and has a very important determinant but this attitude in many nations towards innovation cycle does not pass a growing trend because educational system cycle in these communities is so that it wasn't defined for new creativity and ignoring it will lead to the formation of the least creative student as the philosophy of the students in the creation or discovery of new vents is of the theoretical but this process according to the existed realities cover a very slow and unsuitable movement in today's world. The reasons for the lack of innovation in students:

- 1- Lack of self-esteem and actual self confidence.
- 2- The fear of relying on internal capabilities for non passing through ignorance.
- 3- Searching out innovative creations in other's work.
- 4- Relying on the empty intelligence and lack of accessing the ingenuity.
- 5- Lack of enthusiasm on spontaneous research to explore the new vents
- 6- Coping the creations and annihilating the boiling inner creativity.
- 7- lack of understanding , companionship and conversation with his architect.
- 8- The role of the empty education system in the genesis of shells- oriented minds.

9- The lack of enough protection of the innovative aspects of the research.

10- Representing the books without leading the time.

11- Lack of passing the teachers through training cycle rhetorical approach to train creative students.

12- Lack of a strong relationship between the three main sides meaning education system, students and industry.

13- Getting value the shell document to access the false social position.

1.2 Methodology

Innovation procedure in the article should be so that its creator could represent the new vent of the leading time idea which is born from the opening mind and observers eye so as to create such an eager and motivation in the mind of students so that every time he wants to scrape it, he creates a beautiful sculpture and new sight meaning springing the creativity in him should be a discover type and new creative to be able to introduce the new vents for research.

Exploratory type is of the best and the most creative methodology because in this method, the researcher must have an open mind and a discerning eye leading the time to be able to see the core of the theoretical content and observe and criticize express the duration of its use or their putrefaction and need to the new creativity.

Creating a new theoretical depends on the student who realizes the value and potential of such an innovative approach to enable self-discovery and creativity towards new creativity and move with a positive impact on self-esteem and self-confidence and believe the responsibility on the neck and believe in his own ability and ingenuity in the creation of new theories leading time to show them.

Exploratory research is one of the most amazing reasons of creating ultramodern minds to create new theoretical because it leads to the existence of his ability in new creativity and being affected from other works and show the new impetus for new researches.

2. Theoretical

2.1 The Main Cycles of the New Creativities

The new and pure creativity process should have such a structure that it could guide the student to discover the new vents in order not to rely on the other's mind contents and have dare to accept his ignorance and enters to the main four cycles meaning 1) Temperament: the element making up the one's nature. 2) Inside Nature: being aware of the structure formation process by itself that would be extremely important and valuable. 3) Thoughtfulness: observing the extract of the content clearly and attributes of words. 4) Self-fledged: awareness of the nature formation process and infra structures.

The above cycle causes the student to understand the language of self friendship and this process leads to the formation of companionship and conversation with the self architect himself so he learns that to release the innovation from the inside he should be aware of ingenuity and create thirst in him and for releasing the new innovation he close his mouth and ride on his thought and take the others away from his thoughts in order to record the new vents of theoretical and represent them.



Figure 1. The pictures of self architect and the mind observer eye

This process resulted in the birth of a new leading time theorist who can investigate the other's work without being affected. So, the result of an innovative educational system is that enters the student into the open mind cycle to be able to create articles and books that never enters the decay process and by passing the time we find the new vents for research because the end of the education is creating leading time innovation.

The students should have an understanding of the cycle of innovation, ideas and creativity in order to obtain the

cycle of the mind and have close relation with self architect so move to the new plan with leading time content.

The process of innovation is such that it should move via the mentioned cycles to be able to understand the life philosophy and challenge the existed theoretical foundations and figure out the creation of new vents and show the mental abilities. The structure of forming this process, according to our source, will be so that when enter to the observer eye, he will understand the philosophy of university education and move toward new thoughts and leading time in the view point of his creator.

The student will understand this subject that without awareness of the structure of his nature he will not attend the nature of the formation process because temperament is the nearest vent for knowing the inner nature and lack of passing this process is ignoring the ingenuity of the architect and cause to choose the course based on the social situations and he will not aware of his fate so entering the self-fledged will be destroyed.

2.2 Ingenuity and the Process of Finding It

Own ingenuity is the most powerful immortal asset in every man that the process of knowing it depends on passing the students through the mentioned cycles to be able to start the innovation from the inside. Being aware of ingenuity and apply it cause that we get the most wonderful inner peace by releasing the new creativity. Because this property show the leading time observers eye and create enough motivation to new vents and force him to think deeply about the past start the future and will be able to see the subjects clearly.



Figure 2. The pictures of open mind

Now the student has gained the knowledge on the origin of the formation process and can create fundamental changes in it. The above process suggests that knowledge of the nature and structure of ingenuity, ideas and creativity have higher importance and value. Because it created the open mind and creative new thinking and it will have creation of new knowledge after itself.

2.3 The Empty Consciousness and the Creation of Shell-Oriented Mind

The empty consciousness is resulted from own ignorance and is the reason of creating the shell-oriented mind. Non-Proliferation architect at self-sustaining vent caused the formation of empty consciousness and shell-oriented mind and as a result he couldn't be able to win the nature of the innovation structure and represent a strong reply to the questions of the masters and the society. In the view point of them, he only entered the university to get a shell document and find a false social position.



Figure 3. The pictures of the mind with shelf

This process makes him a social person with empty consciousness who is only a leech on the other's mind and finally his ability would be creating a meaningless shell. Because the empty consciousness creates an empty mind that its base is decay words. The shell-oriented mind causes that the ingenuity will be abortive in the student and makes him as a moving scarecrow having no innovation which is not able to rely on his architect.

There is a lot of suffering and hardship in his way that cause him to take steps towards self away and caused that he find the solution in other's minds and this process create a thought that other's work is the best in his empty consciousness and constantly he moves toward them and kill the time and the life in these useless thoughts while the only way to live with own architect is to embrace your own ingenuity.



Figure 4. The pictures of the mind venom

The empty consciousness has destroyed the new creativity and cause not to think about mental poisoning that prevents to make process of vomiting and it will follow a vortex of mental slavery. This process provide a base for closed mind and create a base which is decay from the inside for the student and omit the leading time observer ability and also creates a shell knowledge that destroys own ingenuity architect.

2.4 Wisdom Role in Innovation

The wisdom is the observers which with we can see the final of the new theoretical creativity before entering the applied cycle clearly and challenge and criticize its contents. Wisdom has constructive role in the process of innovation is when the students obtain a thirst for knowledge and love of self discovery to lead to the emergence of open mind and to observer eye.

As long as the student misses the philosophy of ignorance he can't gain the value of innovation.

Failure to pass the above cycle causes not to see a various vents of the wisdom. Wisdom creates the ability to see the end and before the beginning even leading time and the value of their content value. This ability cause to form a powerful tool called preventive intelligence. Preventive intelligence is a factor that makes students to distinguish the difference between ignorance and wisdom and move to the new different thinking and in this way he will be familiar to the different points of view and understand the ultramodern mind.



Figure 5. The pictures of ultramodern mind

The process of the rational dialogue from the open mind vents with his genius architect makes the student create the new vents of leading time theoretical and know their application and the process of forming their content and their structure.

Taking value by new creativity will prepare him for knowing his mental abilities to follow the difficulties of this way and move to the true content of the logic, intelligence and new thought to prevent the ineffective life. Now he can by relying on the genius of the architect make the ahead time clear and can have the ability to observe the

new world and the content of it and experience the joy of life.

If the structure of the leading time innovation cycle is applied in the education system it will be the messenger of forming the most powerful tool for fostering open minds and observing eyes. This process shows that the number of innovative student with extraordinary speed will increase. Application of this theory requires a keen and armed eye because they would only create antidote to mental poisoning of students and the presence of this great master in a position to achieve an open mind and creative vent will accelerate the leading time theoretical.

Now the community is able to feel the progress and the joy of movement and by relying on the leading students can have new thoughts and logic. These amazing tools enable the students before creating a the new theoretical to consider a place for his wisdom and by applying that, create new nature and structure because the ability of the mind for criticizing is infinite that there is not any power that could be compared with it. So, the wisdom has a special place in innovative and ignoring it create empty bases and make the process of the educational system ill and such a society is not able to fight with breakers structures. Knowledge of the secret wisdom is of the most surprising part of the legacy for all ages because achieving this important and valuable cycle will be possible only through the nation who passionate love of wisdom and nurturing minds and put his life on the movement towards the creation of fundamental knowledge.

3. Findings

As mentioned in the theoretical papers lack of the application the above process prevents the inner creativity because the process of innovation in the educational system should pass via the cycles so that the student be armed with open mind and wisdom eye and move to the ultramodern mind and keep the motivation for sustainable development in the society.

If the educational system is rotten from the closed minds and decay thoughts it will be the messenger of decay thoughts because this movement in such a based remove the ability to create the new vents because of the accumulation of others' work in the mind.



Figure 6. The pictures of closed mind

Such a cycle can't guide the student to understanding, relying on the genius of own architect. Because destroy the accessing to the creative source of new ideas and the conditions of copying the works of others, which destructive heritage of the educational system lacks this infrastructure.

If the structure for any reason ignores the attitude of innovative student via the vent of his architect view will be cause of destruction within the society and as a result will not be able to pass the competitors in his life.

The purpose of the formation process of the educational system is that students can discover new vents from theoretical expressions and result in innovation, progress, dynamism and happiness because it is his open minds and observer eyes which is the best vent for forming the new process.

4. Summary and Conclusion

The quiet mind doesn't have a place for live in the philosophy of college education. If the process of raising creative student in the educational system is ignored, it will destroy ingenuity and this happening will destroy the ability to enter the new creative cycle. Because the min point is that we should destroy the belief of creating idol in false society to the inner creative spring would be appeared.

Ultramodern mind should have such a privileged position in the society that the student could provide a factor for development by relying on ingenuity because he can completely change the culture and economy and it is possible by relying on the open and creative mind. The student is nearest and full of the contents of the thought vent of a society and its purpose is accessing the open mind and wisdom eye, creating amazing heritage for all the ages and accomplish with his architect. So if the society fails to understand the philosophy of his architect,

his elites will be in the arms of its rivals.

Reference

Hosseini Kharvanagh, M. (2014). *Companionship glory with self architect*. Tehran, Bishe Publication.

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Online Interactive Activities to Learn Ramayana Epic by Primary Tamil Students

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Abstract

The Ramayana epic has many moral values that can be used as guidance in our daily life especially for the development of a person towards a better direction. Besides this, there are many other lessons that can be learned from within each Ramayana epic stories, for example, the values and norms, customs, mannerism lessons and the various characteristics of people and so on. But today's digital or Net Generation teenagers do not find reading Ramayana as fun or interesting because of its text form. The technology is more advanced and Ramayana epics look very ancient in the eyes of this Digital Natives. This study used the idea of gamification, a game play mechanics to create meaningful learning experiences and make the learning more interesting and fun. Gamification also looks at games and learning from a different angle on how to make learning more meaningful, engaging, interactive, fun and interesting. In view of this, this research aims to seek if the use of online interactive activities could encourage and motivate teenagers to read Ramayana epics. Forty Primary Tamil students participated in this study voluntarily. The data were collected through a questionnaire. Based on the pre-questionnaire data regarding respondents' prior knowledge on Ramayana, it was found that respondents had minimal knowledge about it. 37% said they would like to read the epic through comic books and 63% claimed that they would prefer computer. This study has some implications for computer assisted language learning.

Keywords: digital teenagers, Gamification, online interactive activities, Ramayana epic

1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the Problem

Learning provides intellectual growth that leads to scientific reasoning, abstract thought, and formal operations (Loughlin, 2012). As information technologies like virtual workspaces and digital libraries have evolved, they have formed new environments for learning and have given rise to new areas for research. Learning enhanced by information technologies is gaining momentum. This is partially in response to the demand for reduction in time-to-competency in the knowledge-based economy, spurred by intensive competition (Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunamaker, 2014). In addition, the globalization and cultural communication has added to this matter (Muthusamy & Farashaiyan, 2016). E-learning has recently become a promising alternative to the traditional classroom learning, helping society move toward a vision of lifelong and on-demand learning. It has become one of the fastest-moving trends and aims to provide a configurable infrastructure that integrates learning material, tools, and services into a single solution to create and deliver training or educational content quickly, effectively, and economically. Not only can instructional material be made available on the Internet but online collaborative learning and discussions can also occur (Wang, 2013).

Online interactive activities are an important aspect of distributed learning situations, wherein online communities and learners' motivational levels evolve and thrive. Through the thoughtful integration of interactive activities into the online learning process, learners and instructors gain considerable exposure to reciprocally favorable occurrences among learners, content, interface, instructor, community, and self. The

thoughtful design and development of a distributed learning environment aids the use of interactive activities in moving beyond mere online interactions towards a more theoretically productive level of interactions. Within a theoretically productive level of interaction wherein the learners obtain information, develop conceptual frameworks through which the information is not only derived but becomes useful knowledge, develop higher-level thinking skills, and continue to be internally motivated to continue with the content, the learners conceptualize a learning community which can be sorely lacking within distributed learning situations that do not integrate appropriate interactive activities (Ong Lai & Wang, 2012). Among different online interactive activities, the researcher made use of gamification which is a process that changes the learner's learning behavior.

Ramayana had originated from India and had spread widely throughout the world. Ramayana is one of the greatest Indian epics. The Ramayana tells about life in India around 1000 BCE that models on dharma. Most ancient Indians learnt the characters and incidents of these epics and applied the principles and knowledge in their life. The epics not only help to bind the people of India from different caste, distance and language but also focused on how the Ramayana taught Indians to perform their dharma. People learned to pick out examples of characters who were faithful to their dharma and those who violated their dharma. In fact, Mahatma Gandhi dreamed that one day modern India would become a Ram-rajya (Muthusamay, Wickramasinghe & Shanmuganathan, 2014). In the olden days, Ramayana was staged to the audience through shadow-play or drama and it was an interesting activity for both the adults and teenagers. Many would come to watch the plays as it was the only recreational activity. But in today's digital world or more famously known as Net-Gen, the Ramayana is slowly losing its popularity among many people especially, the young generation or Net-Gens (Ting Sebastian & Anang Tri, 2014).

Meanwhile, game play or online computer games have become popular among today's Net-Generation (Sinayah, Muthusamy, Narayanam, & Abd Rahim, 2015) This is because they use computer and other digital related gadgets like videogames, music players, video cams and handphones more often as digital tools (Prensky, 2010). These facilities that they utilize in their daily lives make them think and process information profoundly different from the previous generation (Prensky, 2010a). These learners like multi tasking parallel processes whereby they prefer graphics presented first before text. As such, reading Ramayana books in print form is no longer preferred by these Net Generation teenagers (Ting Sebastian et al., 2014).

1.2 Problem Statement

The Ramayana epic has many moral values that can be used as guidance in our daily life especially for a positive character development (Ting Sebastian & Anang Tri, 2014). One moral lesson that can be learned from the story Ramayana is loyalty to family and more specifically, to siblings. In the story, Lakshman gave up the life he was used to and live in the forest for 14 years just to be with his brother Rama. Another important moral of the story is protecting the weak, which was exhibited by Jatayu, an old demigod who has taken the form of a vulture. When Ravana kidnapped Sita, Jatayu disregarded his old age and fought Ravana, resulting in his death. Because of this deed, Rama was moved by the aged creature's courage amid overwhelming odds. Besides this, many other lessons can be learned from each story from the Ramayana epic, for example, the values and norms, customs, mannerism lessons, various characteristics of people and so on (Prachi, 2015).

Although, these moral values are exhibited in Ramayana, and are very close to the Hindu culture, not many teenagers are willingly reading the books (Prachi, 2015). Some teenagers read but they are forced or reminded by their parents to read. Even though these teenagers read, but they do not find reading Ramayana as fun or interesting because of its text form (Tripti, 2014). The technology is more advanced and Ramayana epics look very ancient in the eyes of the present day teenagers. Therefore, a strong and stern move must be taken to empower today's digital teenagers with Ramayana knowledge which is filled with moral values (Prachi, 2015).

Kapp (2012) has introduced gamification as a process that changes the learner's learning behavior. Gamification is the use of game play mechanics to create meaningful learning experiences and making the learning more interesting. Besides, gamification looks at games and learning from a different angle on how to make learning more meaningful, engaging, interactive, fun and interesting. It has high potentials to help solve problems. In addition, by gamifying an activity, learners who dislike participating in the activity, would now engage themselves with the activity and reach the target objectives in an enjoyable way (Garris, 2012). Although some studies (Aphilak, 2011; Parimalagantham, 2013; Tripti) have been conducted on different online interactive activities to learn oral stories and some lessons, there is a lack of study to examine the use of interactive activities to learn Ramayana epics. Therefore, this research aims to seek if the use of online interactive activities could encourage and motivate teenagers to read Ramayana epics.

1.3 Research Objectives and Questions

The main objective of this study is to investigate if online interactive activities can instill teenagers' interest to read Ramayana epics willingly. The study also seeks to explore teenagers' opinion on how they feel when reading Ramayana online. In view of the objectives mentioned above, the study seeks to answer the following research questions.

1. Are teenagers prepared to read Ramayana and gain knowledge from it?
2. What are teenagers' opinions when they play online interactive activities to learn Ramayana?

1.4 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the input-process-output game model developed by Garris, Ahlers, & Driskel, (2002). Some researchers agree that computer games are beneficial for learners due to the motivating nature of the computer games (Chang & Chou, 2008; Rajaravivarma, 2005). When learners are highly motivated they would take part in learning and learner motivation in playing games leads to greater attention and retention (Ricci, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996). Besides, motivated learners are also very enthusiastic, focused, engaged and are interested in what they do (Garris et al., 2012).

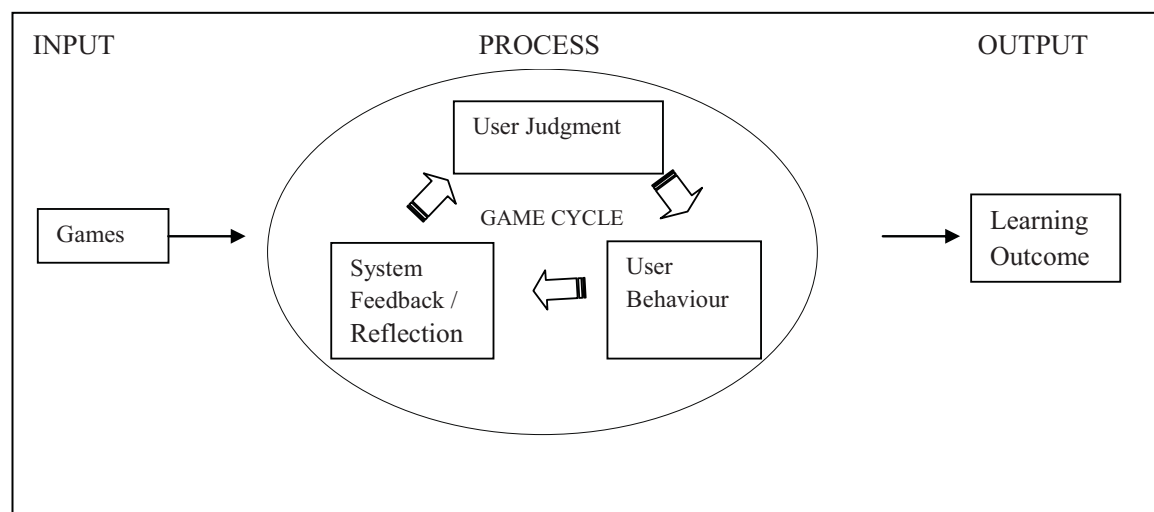


Figure 1. Input-Process-Output Game Model (adapted from Garris et al., 2002, p. 456)

The input domain comprises of online interactive activities that had been selected by the researchers for the respondents to play at home during their leisure time for a period of four weeks. Since playing online interactive activities needs internet connection, the selected online interactive activities were downloaded and saved in CDs. The CDs were distributed to respondents who do not have internet access at their homes. When playing the games, the respondents will experience a process that is shown in the model's process domain as a Game Cycle. This game cycle includes user judgment or reactions, user behavior and system feedback or reflection. A key characteristic of game play or online activities is that learners will not play a game and stop immediately but rather they will play the game over and over again as game play is very engaging, engrossing and even addictive (Garris et al., 2012).

When learners play the games or online activities, they make individual judgments or ratings about whether the game is fun, interesting, enjoyable or engaging. Learner behavior regarding the online activities can also be observed when the learners are more interested and involved in the activities. Finally, feedback or reflections regarding the activity by the learners is a very crucial and important component of the judgment-behavior-feedback cycle. Individual learner judgment and behavior are matched by comparing the feedback to standards or goals. If feedback or reflections on the games by the learners indicate that they could complete the tasks and activities in the games, this means that the desired goal has been attained. Thus, feedback provides the learners with an evaluation of progress towards the goals and motivates learners to put in more effort and give more attention to the tasks. Finally, this engagement with the online interactive activities leads to specific objectives or learning outcomes that can be observed in the output domain as illustrated in Figure 1. An

affective learning outcome is expected to take place whereby respondents are expected to feel accomplished, happy and have fun reading and playing with the online games regarding Ramayana epics (Prensky, 2010).

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The respondents of this study were forty Primary Tamil students in a semi-urban primary school in Selangor, Malaysia who volunteered to participate in the survey. They were of mixed gender, both male and female respondents. Their age ranges between 10 to 12 years old.

2.2 Instruments

This study is a survey study. The data were collected through the questionnaires answered by the respondents before and after they were exposed to the online interactive activities on Ramayana epics. The two questionnaires were adapted from Roblyer et al. (2010). The pre-questionnaire was administered to obtain respondents' prior knowledge on Ramayana and the post-questionnaire was conducted to ascertain respondents' opinion and views of the online interactive activities on Ramayana. To capture the reliability of the questionnaire in this study, 20 Primary Tamil students were voluntarily chosen for the pilot testing. The inter-rater reliability estimate for the questionnaire was satisfactory at around 0.80% which is an acceptable index. With regard to the validity, the questionnaire was evaluated by three experts in the field of E-learning and they confirmed the validity of the questionnaire.

2.3 Data Collection Procedure

This survey was conducted in a semi-urban primary school in Selangor, Malaysia in 2015. Before the respondents participated in the online interactive activities, all the forty respondents were administered with a pre-questionnaire to find out their prior experience on reading Ramayana for pleasure and knowledge. Then, the respondents were instructed to use online interactive activities to read and understand about Ramayana for four weeks. Thirty of the respondents played the selected online interactive activities directly using the Internet; meanwhile the researchers gave CDs to the remaining ten respondents to play the same online interactive activities as they did not have the Internet facility. All the respondents played the games for four weeks. At the end of the study, they had to answer a post-questionnaire to gauge their opinion about the online interactive activities on Ramayana. They were given as much time as needed to answer the questionnaire.

2.4 Data Analysis

The questionnaire data were subjected to descriptive statistics through the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21 software. The mean of each item with the percentage was calculated.

3. Results and Discussion

In answering the first research question, based on the pre-questionnaire data regarding respondents' prior knowledge on Ramayana, it was found that respondents had minimal knowledge about it. Although most of them (87%) knew that Ramayana is a story, but only 25% of the respondents have read the story. The 25% of the respondents, who knew the Ramayana story, got the information from the comic books. None of the respondents have actually read the original text. Most of the respondents (75%) were ignorant about Ramayana because they did not have any exposure to the epic from books, parents or teachers (see Table 1).

Table 1. Respondents' knowledge about Ramayana

Items	Total (n=40)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Know what is Ramayana?	40	35(87)	5(13)
Learn Ramayana in school?	40	0	40(100)
Think reading Ramayana benefits you?	40	10(25)	30(75)
Get information about Ramayana from your parents?	40	10(25)	30(75)
Think you can learn values from this story?	40	10(25)	30(75)
Think it is interesting to read this story?	40	10(25)	30(75)
Want to read Ramayana if given an opportunity?	40	25(63)	15(37)

However, when respondents were asked in what form they like to read the Ramayana, 37% said they would like to read the epic through comic books and 63% claimed that they would prefer computer.

To answer the second research question, the data from the post-questionnaire showed that 87% of the respondents enjoyed playing the online activities related on Ramayana. All of them (100%) found it interesting because of the colorful illustrations, sound effects and the beautiful 3D features. However, only 63% of the respondents could understand the story and found it informative, the other 37% of the respondents could neither understand the story nor the immediate feedback given in the online interactive activities. In addition, 52% of the respondents were unable to grasp the underlying moral values found in the online interactive activities. All the respondents (100%) said that learning Ramayana was not time consuming (see Table 2).

Table 2. Respondents' opinions after engaging with online interactive activities

Items	Total (n=40)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Did you ...			
Enjoy playing the online interactive activities related to Ramayana?	40	35(87)	5(13)
Think it was interesting to learn Ramayana through online interactive activities?	40	40(100)	0
Understand the story?	40	25(63)	15(37)
Find learning Ramayana through online interactive activities informative?	40	25(63)	15(37)
Learn the moral values in Ramayana by playing online interactive activities?	40	19(48)	21(52)
Think learning Ramayana through online interactive activities time consuming?	40	0	40(100)
Like the colourful illustrations in the online interactive activities?	40	40(100)	0
Like the sound effect in the online interactive activities?	40	40(100)	0
Like the immediate feedback given in the online interactive activities?	40	25(63)	15(37)
Like the beautiful 3D features in the online interactive activities?	40	40(100)	0

Comparatively, the respondents preferred to learn about Ramayana by playing the online interactive activities. This could be due to a few reasons derived from the data. Respondents showed an interest to colorful illustrations found in online interactive activities that was similar to comic books. Further, the Ramayana was neither taught in the formal setting i.e school or by their parents. The respondents had to take their own initiative to learn about Ramayana. The Ramayana text that is available commercially is wordy and has very little illustrations, so it does not create an interest in the respondents to read it.

Similarly, a small number (13%) of the respondents who played the online interactive activities on Ramayana were not computer savvy and due to their mixed proficiency level they had problems understanding the language used in the activities. Hence, they could not respond correctly to the immediate feedback displayed in the interactive activities. Respondents were unable to comprehend the values displayed or found in the online activities due to the limited timeframe (four weeks) and with no additional input from either parents or teachers. The findings of this study are not in line with the findings of Parimalagantham, (2013) who found out that the students couldn't learn Ramayana through oral stories.

4. Conclusion

It can be concluded that the respondents were able to understand the overall story of Ramayana because they learnt it in a playful atmosphere through the online interactive activities that was enjoyable, fun and exciting. However, to learn the underlying values that were depicted in the story students would require further guidance from parents and teachers. Further, all the currently available online interactive activities on Ramayana are in English language and it will create a language barrier for the low proficiency students. Nevertheless, this problem can be rectified if the online interactive activities are available in multi-lingual to appeal to all proficiency levels.

This study has a number of limitations. The first limitation is the selection of the students. The participants were primary Tamil students from a semi-urban primary school in Malaysia. So, they may not represent all primary Tamil students. In addition, this study investigated one group, i.e. primary students. Future studies can examine other groups such as secondary school students or at other settings.

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Searching for Disappeared Ming Dynasty Costume in South Korea Reflection on the Creative Application of Intangible Cultural Heritage

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Abstract

Based on the research on the diplomatic history of costume between China and South Korea in Ming Dynasty, this paper firstly summarizes the protective policies offered by central and local governments of Korea for projects of intangible cultural heritage in category of traditional dyeing and weaving. Then taking Hansan ramie as example, this thesis sums up different methods of activation and innovative design again for intangible culture of traditional dyeing and weaving in Korea. Finally, thesis concludes the tangible value of intangible heritage in Korea and example value for China, give a suggestion to hope that this feasible method can be used in China.

Keywords: Ming dynasty costume, intangible cultural heritage, South Korea

1. Introduction

South Korea and China are separated only by the ocean, their cultures influenced mutually since ancient time, especially in Ming dynasty (1368-1644) of China, the two countries conducted frequent trading activities of textiles and garments. In 1368, when Emperor Zhu Yuanzhang just established Ming dynasty, he informed neighboring countries of sharing the peace through establishing “principal and subordinate” relationships. At that time, South Korea was named as KORYO, the King Wang Xu responded to the call of the emperor of China proactively. In 1369, he accepted imperial edict (note: imperial letters and seals) issued by the government of Ming dynasty, and asked envoy to send local products (note: local specialty) to express his congratulations to Emperor Zhu Yuanzhan and asked for a title. Afterwards, Emperor Zhu Yuanzhan sent envoy with imperial edict and golden seal to KORYO, appointed Wang Xu as the king of KORYO, and gave high-class garment and textiles, to establish “principal and subordinate relationships. In 1392, KORYO changed its name to JOSEON after obtaining the permission of the government of Ming dynasty. In the subsequent two hundred years, JOSEON paid tributes to Ming dynasty and maintained good relationships, JOSEON asked for the granting of garments for many times, Ming dynasty gave JOSEON preferential treatment, frequently rewarding it with garment to show great courtesy. According to the Ming Shi-lu compiled by the government of Ming dynasty, the granting of garment and textiles was up to over five hundred times. In the 276th year under the reign of Ming dynasty, JOSEON adopted the dressing style and rules of China, following Chinese customs and advocating Chinese garments. Qin Baozhong, an envoy of Ming dynasty, highly praised JOSEON as its “cultures and etiquette was almost same with that of China”.

Unfortunately, Ming dynasty was overthrown by Qing dynasty in 1644, the Manchu ruler carried out the policy of “shaving hair and changing garment” to consolidate his regime, the garments of Ming dynasty were prohibited to dress, many technologies and customs related to making garment disappeared completely in China. But fortunately, JOSEON (1392-1910) survived for another three hundred years after Ming dynasty perished, and its garment still kept same style, pattern and dressing methods as that of Ming dynasty. At present, people of South Korea still wear the garment with the same style as Ming dynasty in folk activities, such as temple worshipping, puberty rite of boys and girls, traditional mask dances, etc. In addition, South Korea vigorously protects the intangible cultural heritage in cultural creative industry, and proactively advances the innovation on the design of traditional textile and apparel, to make intangible cultural heritage create “tangible” value.



Figure 1. Korean intangible cultural heritage of Incheon Airport Center

2. Overview of Intangible Cultural Heritage and Korean Cultural Industry

“Culture Heritage” refers to the heritage of national culture possessing existence value. “Intangible Cultural Heritage” refers to the outcomes from intangible cultures of drama, music, dance, craftsmanship and skill, and folk game which are handed down from traditional lives. However, “Cultural Industry” refers to an emerging industry which produces tangible or intangible artistic and creative product (or service) by ways of developing and utilizing cultural content and intellectual property. Cultural industries in Korea are called “Content Industries”, which is the “Resource Transformation” for “Cultural Heritage” especially for “Intangible Cultural Heritage”. That is to say, between “Cultural Heritage” and “Cultural Industry”, there is a relationship which is co-existence, common prosperity, and as exterior and interior for each other.

Korean economy suffered grave recession from the financial crisis across East Asia in 1997. To get rid of economic plight and seek new industry growth, Korea actively adjusted its industrial structure and started to march into cultural industry in large scale according to developing changes of both domestic and overseas markets. In 1998, Korea officially raised the strategy of “Culture Orientated National Development”. After taking office of President Kim Dae-Jung, he announced that “the foundations for developing Korea in the 21st century were industries of advanced technologies and cultures”. In 2000, the “Revitalization Committee for Korean Cultural Industry” was founded. Until 2002, the Korean cultural industry yielded unusually brilliant results with 17.46 billion dollars market size occupying 2.89% of Gross National Product in that year. Korean economic aggregate has ascended to one of the five strongest countries of cultural industry in the world.



Figure 2. Korea Television Drama “The Moon Embracing the Sun” by MBC

In policy aspect of protecting intangible cultural heritage, since the Protection Act of Cultural Property legislated in 1962, Korea has gradually constructed relative protecting systems for intangible cultural properties, of which core specifically embodies in following aspects: “designation and identification” for digging out intangible cultural heritage and making national directory, “inheritance and learning education” for ensuring passing intangible cultural heritage from generation to generation, “public support” for assisting protection and cultivation of intangible cultural heritage, and relative investigation, research and documentary production, etc.

In addition, Korea actively responds to externally international policies, which for instance, are the “Convention on the Protection of Intangible Cultural Heritage” instituted in 2003 by UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) and the “Convention on the Protection of Cultural Diversity” in 2005. Korea actively propels to institute a new law called Relative Law and Regulation of Protection and Revitalization for Intangible Cultural Heritage so as to adapt to requirements of pluralistic times nowadays.

Hence we can see that in Korea, “Protecting Cultural Heritage” and “Revitalizing Traditional Culture” are almost going on synchronously. Though they are in the charge of “Department of Cultural Property” and “Department of Cultural Tour and Sports” separately, this boundary tends to disappear gradually. In other words, relative policies of intangible cultural heritage are directing to “Activation” from previous “Preservation”, while policies of traditional culture are turning to “Industrialization” and “Globalization” from “National Sharing”.

3. Applications for Intangible Cultural Heritage of Traditional Dyeing and Weaving in Korean Cultural Industry

Cultural industry includes two relative scopes. One is “Culture” and the other is “Industry”. Development of Korean cultural industry relies heavily on traditional culture of Korea. Taking film and TV industry which is subordinate to cultural industry as an example, multiple movies and TV plays themed in ancient costumes of Korea are on hot broadcast globally, such as Midget Crabapple, Dae Jang-geum, The Moon Embracing the Sun, King and His Men and My Love From the Stars, etc. Besides for star effect and commercial promotion as reasons for successful spread of these films and TV plays, the help of a great quantity of magnificently ancient costumes in these plays cannot be ignored. And behind achievement of these gorgeous costumes, the resource regeneration and industrialization of traditional weaving culture in Korea are fully embodied so as to make the intangible cultural heritage of traditional dyeing and weaving brings both social effect and economic benefit by chain effort of “Protection, Heritage and Application”.

Protection and heritage of intangible cultural heritage has always been regarded as a global difficulty especially that the craftsmanship of traditional dyeing and weaving is one of the fiercest project impacted by modernization in modern times. But Korean practices have played very well. There are many highlights in their each link of identification, project approval, protection, education and heritage for intangible cultural heritage of traditional dyeing and weaving, which deserve to learn and use for reference for other countries. As below, let’s take traditional craftsmanship of Hansan Ramie as an example to elaborate.

Hansan is located in the west of Korea, which has a long history in production of ramie cloth. Now the traditional technology of ramie weaving in Hansan has been listed into intangible cultural heritage at national level in Korea and there are still several inheritors mastering this skill. Though the craftsmanship of ramie weaving in Hansan is facing the crisis that is about to vanish soon just like many other traditional craftsmanship, Korean government is investigating the unique natural attributes and irreplaceable features of Hansan Ramie-Koreans have shown special preferences to products made of ramie cloth which can be used to make dresses and decorate houses in all four seasons. And ramie cloth in Hansan is different from other ordinary ramie cloth due to its fine silk and soft hand feel. Hence, the government specially established a “Globalization Industry Group for Hansan Ramie” aiming for moving aggressively to make Hansan ramie as a well-known brand and globalized. Main methods to reach this goal are as below:



Figure 3. One of process of Hanshan Ramine Weaving

1) Popularization of Traditional Culture Deposits. Under the lead of governmental department, ramie culture is integrated into current lives and popularized with the goal to spread traditional culture in the direction of popularization. Here are specific embodiments which are organizing cultural festival of Hansan ramie once a year under the lead of government and launching various reliable folk popularizations. There are mainly traditional folk activities like the sacrificial ceremony to celebrate harvest of ramie, ramie twisting competition and traditional weaving demonstration of ramie cloth. Plus, there are some programs of interactive experience, like activities of creative weaving of ramie cloth, vegetation dyeing of ramie cloth, ramie game, rubbing book of ramie and so on. All these practices stimulate national interests and care for traditional culture and activate their participations, thus making the class which has alienation sense to this is able to increase personal experience in traditional culture.

2) Innovate and make flexible use of tradition so as to promote domestic demands. By cooperating with ramie culture and other industries, more added values are created. Take application scope of expanding ramie as an example, it makes people's cognition of ramie not only limited to garment cloth, but also more scopes are extended to. For instance, the diet extension develops ramie into healthy food like ramie tea, ramie wine, ramie cakes, etc. There is another example. By deeply researching and utilizing, ramie cloth can be designed into ramie clothing which has natural functions and highly aesthetic looks. Meanwhile, the fashion show of ramie is held to promote its added values of product culture.

3) Cultural Inheritance and Spread. Korean government established "Inheritance and Learning Hall of Hansan Ramie", which exhibits: ramie documents, relative reference books, numerous files of local culture, processing tools of ramie, ramie specimen and procedure recovery of weaving ramie cloth, etc. Moreover, protection for ramie craftsmanship also embodies in identification and assistance for inheritors. Korean government organizes professional evaluation group to implement pre-examination, investigation, appraisal and confirmation on inheritors about their craftsmanship of "Ramie Cloth Weaving of Hansan", and then awards them with the title of "No.** of Important Intangible Cultural Property in Korea" and offer oriented supports by government as well, like support on site of inheritance and learning, capital support, product promotion and support, etc. At present, in Hansan region, Ms. Fang Lianyu is the No. 14 inheritor of important intangible cultural property at national level.



Figure 4. Hanshan ramie inheritance venue

By way of above "Multiple Purposes for One Source" of ramie and under active support of Korean government, there has formed a series of effective protective measures for "Hansan Ramie" including tradition ramie planting, weaving of ramie cloth, product research and development, holiday promotion and so on. With such efforts, the intangible cultural heritage has connected with current life, industry has been developed and satisfactory economic benefit has been created. Except for Hansan ramie, there are some other intangible cultural heritages of traditional dyeing and weaving which also shine brightly, such as Andong-si hemp, spring cloth of Cheongyang-gun, blue dyeing of Naju, and traditional dressmaking, etc.....These products have become optimized categories of content development in Korean cultural industry. And they've made an important step for technological application and innovation of intangible cultural heritage.

4. Resource Regeneration of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Korean Traditional Dyeing and Weaving as Enlightenment to China

Korea had similar experiences as China. Both countries belong to the circle of Confucius culture and have many similar historical attributes and future topics. For example, both countries possess unique intangible cultural heritages of traditional dyeing and weaving and capacities of deep processing and creative design for products. During the transition period towards to modern times, cultures of both countries suffered great destructions due to external aggressions and internal wars. A large number of intangible cultural heritages lost their original hometowns. However, during a period time after that, citizens of these two countries blindly accept foreign cultures which led to quite low evaluation on their own traditional cultural values and even taking them as objects to make liquidations. Under such a cultural atmosphere, it was once very difficult to preserve and inherit cultural heritages. Intangible cultural heritages were in an endangered situation. It is widely believed by experts from different countries that the economy of cultural industry in 21st century will be on the basis of intellectual property. Cultural content will become the core power for development of information society. A country with powerful culture is able to become a country with powerful economy. China is a great country of cultural heritage with time-honored civilization, which has connaturally potential advantages in aspect of developing cultural industry. Most of all, glorious and splendid skills of Chinese traditional dyeing and weaving and diversified products of dyeing and weaving in various regions all can become dominant projects for promoting cultural consumption.

For recent years, Korean cultural industry has developed rapidly which has not only stimulated the domestic demands of national economy, but has also tremendously promoted the international influence of Korean culture. It can be said that its social and economic benefits “are both gained as fame and wealth”. However compared with China, there are more advantages of protective policies and inheritance ways for intangible culture of traditional dyeing and weaving in Korea.

China is paying more and more attention to cultural construction every year. General Secretary Xi Jinping has emphasized about importance of “Traditional Culture” in his speeches for many times. He said that Chinese traditional culture was the “Root” and “Soul” of our nation. We should insist making the past serve the present and bringing forth the fresh by getting rid of the old theories. And the relationship between inheriting natural culture and creative development should be handled well. The key points are creative transformation and innovative development. In particular, the connotations which still have reference values now and obsolete representation forms should be reformed according to era features and requirements. New representation forms should be endowed and their vitalities should be activated. And meanwhile, there have emerged a lot of national enterprises which reply on traditional craftsmanship of dyeing and weaving, and take creative technologies and original capabilities as their core competitiveness, for example, Excepation, Useless and Zuczug, etc. Many academies also set up relative courses and majors to train new talents. For instance, in 2014, Beijing Institute of Fashion Technology established “Inheritance and Innovation of Chinese National Dresses” as a major direction.

Ming dynasty is the peak time of traditional Chinese garment, not only textile technology such as dyeing, weaving, embroidery, but also the dressing rules and customs are worthy of our attention. Drawing lessons from South Korea’s research on the garment of Ming dynasty, and learning its experience in culture creative industry to develop innovation design of the garment of Ming dynasty is one of the feasible method to integrate Chinese traditional and current garment technology. The successful experience of cultural industry developed by Korea indicates that it is entirely possible for a country with time-honored and rich traditional cultural heritage to achieve a “leap-type” development of cultural industry on platforms of open international market and technology. Now China is in a big environment with “Good Timing, Geographical Convenience and Good Human Relations”. Countless beautiful craftsmanship of Chinese dyeing and weaving is waiting for us to protect, inherit, develop, expand and innovate.

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The Savings and Credit Cooperative of Royal Police Cadet Academy Limited: New Guidelines for Good Governance Reform in the Royal Thai Police

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Abstract

The fluctuations in the Thai economy since 1997 have had a big impact on the standard cost of living of the police officers. Many struggle to earn enough income to cover the expenses. Debt problems have put officers under a lot of stress affecting their standards of performance and encouraging corruption. The Savings and Credit Cooperative of Royal Police Cadet Academy Limited (RPCA Coop Ltd) has played a crucial role in improving a quality of life of the members by alleviating their financial problems. An evaluation of RPCA Coop Ltd operation revealed that it has achieved an objective to alleviate the members' debt problems. RPCA Coop Ltd has helped the members to decrease their physiological needs and their standard cost of living and to become economically sufficient. When their physiological needs are met, they will desire to be well respected and to have job security through high performance efficiency in the police force.

Keywords: good governance, evaluation, physiological needs, quality of life

1. Background and Establishing the Baseline Position, Post-1997

The fluctuations in the Thai economy since 1997 have resulted in a high cost of living. Most people find it is progressively harder to earn enough to live on. According to the Confederation of Thai's Labour (SERC), the review cost of living survey that compares more than 400 individual prices across 160 products and services, brushed up average monthly disposable salary was more than 14,016.10 Baht net after taxes since 2016 while the minimum wage was currently set at 300 Baht or 9,000 baht per month (Bangkok post, 2015). Therefore, Thai households are among the region's biggest borrowers, but also low wages that make the poor ready bait for illegal loan sharks. Thai police, especially low-ranking officers, are no exception. Most of the officers, especially those with partners with low income or being economically inactive, are constantly struggling with household debts. Some have managed to find a second job or extra cash each month as their salary can only cover three quarters of the monthly expenses. Many decide to get a loan, either from a financial institution or a loan shark, to make up for a shortfall to meet minimum standard of living. More than 70% the loans are informal loans from loan sharks. Debt problems have put many officers under a lot of stress (The Royal Thai Police's Research Office, 2011) affecting their standards of performance and encouraging corruption. As a result, the Savings and Credit Cooperative of the Royal Police Cadet Academy Limited (RPCA Coop Ltd) launched its Informal Loan Debt Management Project hoping to ease the police officers' debt problems. The project offers a special loan for the members to deal with informal loan debt repayment both for short-term and long-term arrangements as well as providing other benefits for the members in debt management and improving the quality of life of the members and their families. This is expected to improve police officers' psychological wellbeing resulting in better performance at work and to decrease corruption in the police force bringing a positive impact to the society and the country as a whole.

2. Literature Review

Thailand's Tom Yum Goong economic crisis in 1997 started when the Thai government was forced to float Thai baht using the floating exchange rate on the 2nd July 1997 due to lack of foreign currency. The Ministry of Finance then had to accept a loan from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) on the 5th of August 1997 (Kulpatra Sirodom, 2009). The US economic recession in 2007 or a so-called Hamburger Crisis further affected Thailand's economy shaking up the country's economic structure and every household. A decrease in

government revenue resulted in the government's hostility. In 2008, the Royal Thai Police received a budget of 36,959.40 million baht (Note 1) decreasing from a budget of 39,045.83 million baht in 1977 (The Royal Thai Police' Budget Office, 2008).

A survey from the Royal Thai Police's Research Office in 2009 stated that most police officers, including low-ranking constables, lieutenants, and majors, did not earn enough to live on as a cost of living increased. Those with partners who did not work or who had low income tended to be heavily in debt. Many managed to find a second job or earned extra income to cover a shortfall in income which constituted a quarter of their monthly expenses. 19.7% of the officers had a second career or were self-employed. 77.4% took either formal or informal loans. 17.4% took loans from a financial institution. 34.2 % took informal loans from their family or relatives. 24.2 % had to pawn their possessions. 11.1 % had to sell their possessions. A portion of monthly salary went toward repaying the loans. 70% of the police officers' loans were informal loans.

The survey revealed that police constables had an average monthly loan repayment of 1,577.87 baht while sergeants had an average monthly loan repayment of 4,269.81 baht. Major-ranking officers had an average monthly loan repayment of 5,977.81 baht. It was also found that most of the police officers were not a home owner. 46% lived in a police staff housing estate. Only 18.1% owned a house or had a partner who owned a house. This created a big concern of a housing problem when the officers were to be retired. Thai police officers' monthly outgoings also included additional social expenses believed to help improve their career prospects constituting 3,009 per month for superintendent ranking officers and 5,770 per month for superintendent inspectors. It was reported that low-ranking officers whose starting salary was at 4,700 baht for a constable had to set aside a certain amount of social expenses (Note 2) as well. Officers in special police divisions such as patrol officers or traffic officers received an extra position allowance of 1,200 baht per month. The pay scales mentioned above were gross salary. Therefore, tax and pension contribution were considered as additional expenses. Whilst a police inspector in a lieutenant rank had a starting salary of 5,000 to 6,360 baht per month, a prosecutor with the same education qualifications earned 11,120 and plus a monthly position allowance of 3,500 to 21,000 Baht (The Royal Thai Police's Research Office, 2011)

The Royal Thai Police's Research Office found that the police fringe benefits such as payment for overtime had been cut whereas the cost of living had increased. As a result, the police officers who had already been in debt struggled even more. When an emergency fund was needed, many could not access a loan from a bank or a formal financial institution as banks tended to limit their new household lending during the economy instability. Even though some financial institutions provided a loan specifically for government officials, some police officers did not have good credit history and found it was tiresome having to go through the complicated financial procedure. Many of them, therefore, were left with no other options than to take an informal loan with high interest rates. As a result, the debt kept mounting.

It can be concluded that the police officers' debt problems stemmed from basic needs expenses and social expenses relating to their career prospects. Debt problems had put many officers under a lot of stress (The Royal Thai Police's Research Office, 2011). As the police force had a crucial social duty to maintain law and order, prevent crime, and protect members of the public, their performance efficiency directly affected the quality of life for all citizens. The pressure from debt problems might affect the police standards of performance and encouraged corruption. The study found that alas, after the Financial Crisis, Thais' police began paying off some debts and defaulting on others, causing big ripples in this elegant debt-driven rather than income-driven economic model. And it kicked off the race to get police officers back into a borrowing binge as result corruption has become a malignant cancer of the police in Thailand since the police debt were not corrected seriously. In present day, most Thais' people were lose faith or believed to the police officers because of the corruption. (Pasuk Pongpijit, 2016)

The ongoing economic recession in Thailand has resulted in a high level of personal loans. The Savings and Credit Cooperative of the Royal Police Cadet Academy Limited saw a rise of loans from 127,832,843 baht in 2009 to 177,108,000 in 2010. It is very possible that the loans from RPCA Coop Ltd were more attractive than other lenders because it offered lower interest rates of 5% for a special personal loan, 7.25% for a personal loan, and 7.25% for an emergency loan (The Savings and Credit Cooperative of the Royal Police Cadet Academy, 2011 p. 2). Moreover, financial institutions are expected to remain cautious on providing loans, particularly housing loans and other long-term repayment loans in this year's first quarter due to concerns over loan quality, according to the central bank's latest survey. This creates even more attraction to Thais' police officer to register to RPCA Coop Ltd lenders instead of others' (Bangkok post, 2016).

RPCA Coop Ltd had revenue of 134,364,550 baht (The Savings and Credit Cooperative of the Royal Police

Cadet Academy, 2011, p. 42) with 1,352 members, the RPCA Coop Ltd was set up with an aim to improve the members' quality of life (The Savings and Credit Cooperative of the Royal Police Cadet Academy, 2011, p. 42). Quality of life improvement also includes alleviation of the members' economic problems. Debts from informal loans are considered one of the crucial economic problems in the Thai police force directly affecting the quality of life of the officers and their performance efficiency as well as encouraging corruption. Giving a financial support to help the members manage their informal loan repayment is one of the RPCA Coop Ltd's objectives especially when the debts keep mounting and the income is no longer sufficient to cover the expenses.

RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project was set up to alleviate the members' financial struggles. The project provides a special personal loan to its members to transfer their debts from informal lenders or loan sharks to their Cooperative account with both short-term and long-term repayment plans whereby the members can repay their debt in reduced payments that are more affordable. The repayment plans depend on the duration of membership, salary or the value of shares and an asset or a property to secure the loan required by the committee.

RPCA Coop Ltd has stepped in to resolve its members' debt problems from informal loans to improve their quality of life as stated in its objectives. RPCA Coop Ltd provides an easily accessed loan with low interest rates to the members to ease the financial burden of debt repayment. The project has a feasibility to rescue the members from their debt crisis resulting in an improved psychological wellbeing of the police officers and better performance efficiency. It is also hoped that a more financial stability will decrease the tendency of corruption in the police force. This, therefore, will give a positive impact to the society and the country. This study is particularly interested in evaluating RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project to see whether the project has achieved its outcomes and how the project has helped improving the performance efficiency of the police officers.

In the study, Maslow's hierarchy of needs will be employed as a main theoretical framework. The research question expected to be answered in this study concerns the unmet basic needs. When basic needs are unmet, the needs to fulfil such needs will be stronger. In the case of Thai police officers, if their basic needs, including the economic means, are still unmet, they will feel anxious and tense and focus their motivation to fulfil the unmet needs rather than dedicating to their job resulting in low performance efficiency. The study also aims to provide some guidelines in project evaluation and improvements as well as good practices for RPCA Coop Ltd to maximise the benefits to its members in improving their quality of life.

3. Research Problem

Has the RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project alleviated the members' debt repayment?

How can the RPCA Coop Ltd's debt management support improve the performance efficiency of the police officers?

What are guidelines for project improvement and good practices to maximise the benefits of the members?

4. Research Objective

To study backgrounds of the RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project.

To evaluate the RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project in achieving the aim of alleviating the members' debt from informal loans and helping the members to have a more affordable repayment plan.

To provide guidelines for the project improvement.

5. Research Methodology

Triangulation research methodology was employed in this study using multiple data sources, both quantitative and qualitative, in an investigation of the same sample group which are 1) the borrowers of RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project 2) the authorities of RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project 3) the expert on Informal Loan Debt Management.

The methods used in the study are 1) documentary research: conceptualising, the authorities of such as the Federation of Savings and Credit Cooperatives of Thailand Limited's reports and meeting minutes, RPCA Coop Ltd's reports, reports from other Savings and Credit Cooperatives 2) questionnaire: questionnaires were given out to explore the operation of RPCA Coop Ltd, its member profile, and debt problems from informal loans 3) focus group: RPCA Coop's members, management team, and staff were asked about their views towards the operation of RPCA Coop Ltd and debt problems from informal loans.

The Discrepancy Evaluation Model (DEM) developed by Malcolm Provus (1966) was used to analyse the

collective data received from the multiple data sources stated above in order to set out a desired standard on Informal Loan Debt Management Project and then comparing the standard to the RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project's actual performance (Output).

Using DEM model, the specific flaws in given project were identified and rectified by determining any discrepancies that exist between a pre-determined set of standards for the RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project. Finally, the decisions will be divided into two classes: 1) the project has successfully alleviated the members' debt repayment and the project should be continued when the discrepancy scores (objective-output) were less than 5; 2) the project has not been successfully alleviated the members' debt repayment and the project should be discontinued when the discrepancy scores (objective-output) were more than 5.

6. Research Result

6.1 Has the RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project Alleviated the Members' Debt Repayment?

Using a collection of the rating scale from the World Bank Project Performance Rating Dataset carried out by IEG, the unit of evaluation analysis can be divided into six categories which are; 1) the debtors' attitude adjusting after attending to RPCA Coop Informal Loan Debt Management Project 2) The effectiveness and efficiency of debtors' debt reconstruction after attending to the Project (the bad loans become good loans) 3) The efficiency of information and data related to the projects' benefit provided to the debtors' 4) the RPCA Coop executives' and debtors' involvement in the debt restructuring process 5) the Project transparency 6) The effectiveness and efficiency of the RPCA Coop debt reconstruction process (Sustainability) (World Bank, 2015). An evaluation of the RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project revealed that the project has successfully alleviated the members' debt repayment as the discrepancy scores equal to one.

A focus group was conducted. The participants in the focus group were RPCA Coop Ltd's members ages between 45-50 years old, most of whom had been a member for approximately 10 years. They had worked in the police force for 15-25 years. Most of them were administrative staff while some were trainers. Most of them were sergeant majors. Their salaries ranged from 19,000-28,000 baht per month. They found that their income did not meet the basic standard of living forcing them to find additional income to cover a shortfall in income of between 10,000-20,000 baht per month. They were not comfortable to discuss the types of second jobs they did. However, further investigation revealed that some second jobs included security guards and motorcycle taxi drivers.

The participants explained that their income was not sufficient to cover their expenses when they had unexpected expenses such as their children's tuition's fee, educational equipment, and medical or dental emergency. Informal loans were taken out for the basic needs of the families. Taking out a loan for luxury needs was very rare among the police officers and constituted less than 10% of the members.

When employing Maslow's hierarchy of needs to the circumstances of the police officers, it can be explained that the officers primarily focused on their physiological needs which are the physical requirements for human survival. In the modern society, money is a crucial factor in providing basic survival requirements. When their basic needs, such as a need of additional medical treatment which was not covered by government benefits, were not met, they were motivated to fulfil their unmet needs.

Earning a second income was a way to fulfil their unmet needs. However, when unexpected expenses emerged, such as medical treatment or tuition fee, they had no other alternatives than to take out an informal loan to meet the needs.

Members who took part in the Informal Loan Debt Management Project agreed that the project achieved its objective in alleviating the members' debt repayment through the project inputs, activities, and outputs which truly benefited the members. These included a reasonable amount of loan, appropriate interest rates, and fair management fees. The project successfully provided suitable welfare facilities for the members to alleviate their debt repayment and become debt-free from informal loans.

The study also revealed that a concept of basic needs varied from one person to another and was flexible depending on their circumstances. When the members had emergency expenses, the motivation to fulfil those unmet needs became stronger. In particular, families with children were found having more motivation than a single person. A definition of basic needs also varied. Some said owning a house was a basic need while others said to be able to earn a sufficient income to cover the expenses was basic needs and owning a house was a luxury.

RPCA Coop Ltd does not only provide financial services, it is also perceived as an institution providing emotional and spiritual security to the members. RPCA Coop Ltd's management have a close relationship with the members. Its admin staff members provide a caring service above and beyond the expectations. The caring service is not only provided to the members, but has stretched to their families and those they will leave behind. RPCA Coop Ltd's secured loan policy, for example, does not include the member's pension in a list of assets to be used against the loan. The RPCA Coop Ltd's staff explained that "If a pension is used against the secured loan, the member may not be able to leave anything for their family." RPCA Coop Ltd's received high praise from its members for its transparency and the staff's exceptional service.

Interestingly, in evaluating the performance of RPCA Coop Ltd, the members did not evaluate it against standard criteria, but compared it with their experience in using other financial institutions. If the service they received from RPCA Coop Ltd was better, they would then consider the Cooperative as above the standard. "When I used a financial service from a financial institution, I was not informed about tax payment on a loan and ended up with a large amount of penalty. RPCA Coop Ltd is reliable. I can trust them. There are no hidden costs," one of the members shared his experience.

The members' flexible views of what basic needs involved may be opposed to Maslow's idea that human behaviour is a result of the environment from birth. These flexible leaned towards the existentialist belief in individual existence, freedom and choice. However, their freedom and choice have also been shaped by their environment. Negative experiences from other financial institutions have influenced their thoughts, beliefs, and decisions in evaluating the performance of RPCA Coop Ltd.

Apart from an ability to alleviate the members' debt repayment, the members were satisfied with RPCA Coop Ltd's benefits and activities provided for the members. One of the members suggested that "RPCA Coop Ltd provides a wide range of activities from a holiday trip to a small scholarship for our children (1,000 baht per person). However, it would be nice to have a lucky draw with highly valued prizes in the New Year celebration." All members were happy with the terms and conditions of the services. At the same time, they understood of limitations and constraints of RPCA Coop Ltd management. One of the members commented, "I am happy with the benefit associated with the member's death. It is not a huge amount, but reasonable for a small financial institution. RPCA Coop Ltd's office building is not spacious, but does not cause any inconvenience. It should be renovated if the budget allowed." It shows that the members sees a unity between RPCA Coop Ltd and themselves. For them, the benefits of RPCA Coop Ltd are of their own. A close relationship and a caring service make the members feel they are part of the "family". One of the members responded that "I'm satisfied with the service because we know each other very well."

King Bhumibol Adulyadej's philosophy of sufficiency economy has been adopted as a guideline to improve the quality of life of the members. The philosophy addresses the root of the problem- a demand of unmet basic needs. If the members' basic needs are low, it will be easier for them to manage their expenses and repayment of the loans.

6.2 How Can the RPCA Coop Ltd's Debt Management Support Improve the Performance Efficiency of the Police Officers?

The study showed that the RPCA Coop Ltd's support in debt management could improve the performance efficiency of the police officer. It was found that, as reference to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the members' most fundamental needs are at the bottom and the growth needs are at the top. The unmet basic needs will motivate them to fulfil the needs. When the needs are met, the desire will disappear. In terms of the service received from RPCA Coop, when the services have fulfilled their basic survival needs, the members do not demand any further improvements as it was stated that "RPCA Coop Ltd offers services and activities in accordance with a sufficiency economy initiative."

When the members were asked to evaluate the level of performance of RPCA Coop Ltd as compared to other financial institutions and comment on RPCA Coop's limitations as well as suggestions, regarding Maslow's theory, it can be seen that after the physiological needs are fulfilled, the members has a tendency to show their sympathy and understanding towards the management of RPCA Coop Ltd as the feeling of belongingness has emerged.

However, when the basic survival needs are fulfilled, the next stage of needs will be developed. When being asked about additional services and activities from RPCA Coop Ltd after it is able to sufficiently provide all the basic services of a financial institution, the members suggested "a support to help the members rent or buy a house and a car, a funding or lucky draw of a house prize". It can be said that the members' stage of needs have moved up the hierarchy to security or safety needs.

This has proved that when the physiological needs are met, human beings are not motivated to fulfil those needs any longer. Therefore, if the police officers' physiological needs are met, they will stop an urge for those needs. Instead, the higher stage of needs in the hierarchy will step in making them feel they need to feel respected, accepted, and valued by others. A desire for esteem will drive the officers to focus on better performance and responsibility to give them a sense of contribution and value.

Maslow stated that when one need is fulfilled, a person seeks to fulfil the next one, and so on. We always seek for better achievement.

This theory has been supported by the members' views. They admitted that households debts from informal loans made them feel demotivated at work. Some believed that "debt problems could lead to corruption when it might be the only way to provide an emergency income. In this case, RPCA Coop Ltd has played a crucial role in preventing a tendency of corruption. RPCA Coop Ltd offers a quick and easy access to an emergency loan for its members in which only the salary level and the duration of membership will be used as criteria to approve the loan."

Concerning the effect of debt problems from informal loans, the members mentioned that "debt problems have a major impact to our lives as our income is not sufficient to cover the expenses. The expenses also increase at the start of the school year, for example. I cannot concentrate on working as I am constantly worried how I can manage to pay for my children's tuition fees."

As Maslow explained, all human beings have a need for self-respect and self-esteem. However, when the physiological needs are not fulfilled, it is difficult to move to the higher stage of needs. Disrespectful behaviours such as corruption, therefore, are a result of an unmet physiological need.

The members admitted that their debt problems were a result of having an imbalanced life of considerably low income in which they could not set aside an emergency fund for when it was needed. Moreover, as having low income, it was difficult for them to get a decent amount of loan from a bank. There was also a chance that their loan application was rejected. When being asked whether the imbalance of income and expenses was a result of having low income or was an impact of the economic crisis, the members explained that it came from several factors. "Salaries must be set according to the cost of living and the inflation rate. In the past, a starting salary of a police officer was equal 1 Baht of gold. Therefore, the current starting salary nowadays should be equal the price of 1 Baht of gold too." Human beings clearly have more desires than to fulfil the basic survival needs seeking for conditions to be able to accomplish their full potential. RPCA Coop Ltd, therefore, must aim to both meet the members' basic needs and their other levels of needs as being influenced by the economy and the change of the society.

It can be concluded that the root of debt problems from informal loans among the police officers is a result of having low income which does not meet the current minimum standard cost of living making it harder for a family to make ends meet and leaving them with no opportunity to save up for an emergency fund. When an emergency expense emerges, they, therefore, have no other choice than to seek for informal loans with high interest rates. The debt incurred from the loans has a big impact on their psychological wellbeing and their performance efficiency. It also indirectly encourages corruption.

The RPCA Coop Ltd's Informal Loan Debt Management Project has responded to the members' basic needs. The project has played an important role in alleviating the members' debt repayment by offering a higher limit loan with appropriate interest rates, and fair management fees. At the same time, RPCA Coop also offers a support to the members to become economically sufficient, for example, a personal and household goods repair and maintenance activity or a vegetable garden activity. It is hoped that by decreasing a level of basic survival needs, it will also decrease the motivation to find financial means to fulfil the needs through informal loans with an ultimate aim to help the members become debt-free. When the members' basic needs have been fulfilled, it is expected that they will put more emphasis in seeking to fulfil a higher level of needs, in particular, the need to be respected by others and job security through high performance efficiency.

6.3 What Are Guidelines for Project Improvement and Good Practices to Maximise the Benefits of the Members?

RPCA Coop Ltd's management, staff, and members commented on the operation of the RPCA Coop's Informal Loan Debt Management Project. They mentioned that communications and public relations were their weaknesses. Traditional ways of advertisement and publicity such as a paper-based memo or a notice board had been used. This created a one-way communication. A number of members might not see or read the memo and may miss an opportunity to take part in a given activity. RPCA Coop Ltd's management has proposed 1) memos are to be more frequent and a billboard to be used 2) RPCA Coop's to be regularly updated 3) RPCA Coop's

newsletter to be launched.

7. Research Conclusion

RPCA Coop Ltd has set an organisation's mission and strategy to improve the quality of life of the members by becoming economically sufficient. It aims to help the members manage their household finance so that their income is sufficient to cover the expenses. The organisation also provides projects and activities to improve their quality of life and to have better wellbeing. RPCA Coop Ltd provides a financial support to help the members manage their debt repayment with an easily accessed loan with low interest rates making their repayment of informal loans is more affordable. It is hoped that the members will eventually regain their financial stability. As the management board and the members of RPCA Coop Ltd are officers in the Royal Police Cadet Academy, they have a close relationship and unity resulting in positive knowledge sharing and exchange between members helping improve the operation of RPCA Coop Ltd.

External land and property valuation services have been used in land valuation in the Informal Loan Debt Management Project for a loan approval process to show the organisation's transparency and good practices. RPCA Coop Ltd. also provides financial advice to the members. RPCA Coop Ltd's loan approval process and advice are concise and accurate. RPCA Coop Ltd provides its services with much lower management cost and fees. The profits will then be used for the benefits of the members.

8. Research Recommendation

Although word of mouth is a powerful communication tool for RPCA Coop Ltd to communicate with its members, its publicity can be improved. A project inputs and project activities are to be considered for a better output. One-way communications such as memos or a noticeboard may not reach all the members resulting in loss of opportunities for some members. The publicity can be enhanced by a more modern and ongoing tools of communication. At the same time, activities to encourage the members' sense of accountability and being financially disciplined can be organised.

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Notes

Note 1. The Thai Baht is the currency of Thailand. The currency rankings show that the most popular Thailand Baht exchange rate is the THB to US rate. In 2016, Thai Baht exchange rate is equal to 0.028 US dollars.

Note 2. Social expense is the expenditure paid for sociability. The main expenditure typically associated with traditional clerics such as weddings, funerals or religious ceremony supports.

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Islam and Social Media: Attitudes and Views

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Abstract

Social media has become an integral part of our daily life encapsulating time and place, creating new relations and fostering old ones not only on an individual level but also on social and global ones. This revolution in human interaction was led by the introduction of Facebook in 2004 that was followed by other social media platforms such as Twitter and Instagram. This electronic revolution swept over to reach mobile phones and to introduce new platforms such as WhatsApp and Viber. The present study investigated attitudes and views towards the use of social media in promoting Islam. A random sample of Facebook users was asked to fill in a questionnaire that tackled questions related to their attitudes towards the role of social media in promoting Islam, the linguistic influence of the social media on their English language skills when talking about Islam and the most preferred social media platform. Respondents were then classified according to education and gender. The study revealed that the social media have affected the way the other is addressed when discussing Islamic topics. Despite some negative stands, the positive attitudes towards social media in promoting Islam prevailed. The views were influenced by the respondents' age, gender and education. The linguistic influence of the social media on developing English skills was viewed positively. The Facebook was the most preferred social media platform. Further research is recommended on the interrelationships between social factors and views of social media. Code-switching among social media users and the effect on Arabic might be also investigated.

Keywords: Islam, social media, Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, Viber

1. Introduction

Not only has the spread of the internet marked a new phase of technological development, but it has also inaugurated a new era of cultural mobilization that has transcended all limitations of time and place. Religions as an integral part of human culture have been affected considerably. The classical 'halo' of religious male scholars has drastically been affected and traditional control over the production and interpretation of religious discourse has been challenged by the spread of social media. According to a report by the Governance and Innovation Program (Dubai School of Government, 2013), more than 125 million people use the internet in the Arab region, and more than 53 million actively use social networking technologies. 44% of users are aged 15-29, while 23% are aged 30-39.

Islamic web sites have played important roles recently and their popularity among Muslim minorities has been rapidly growing thus forming social, cultural and epistemological bridges between Islamic minorities on the one hand and Islamic countries on the other.

Since the 1999, the greatest manifestation of the internet could be traced in all walks of life. The internet has turned the whole world into a global village, creating new types of discourse and new communicative practices. This new form of media is praised by Campbell et al who state that

'With its ability to transport both personal conversations and mass communication, the Internet has begun to break down conventional distinctions among various media and between private and public modes of communication' (2007, p. 42).

Social network sites provide the perfect setting for creating interpersonal relations where people can express themselves freely and gain more friends. In 2008 about half of UK citizens did not have any Muslims among their "closest friends," (Dispatches, 2008), recently, there is evidence that social network sites change interpersonal relationships in some ways.

Social capital is broadly defined as the resources gathered through relationships among people (Coleman, 1988). Internet is considered as a source of social capital (Boase, et al., 2006; Ellison et al., 2007). This view of the internet as a social capital is closely related to digital social media. The term 'social media' might be difficult to define as it encompasses people's views and varied practices. For some, any material posted online is social media, while for others; social media is what is shared through the social sites. For the present study, the term social media is used to refer to internet sites that ask readers to interact such as Facebook and Twitter on one hand, and WhatsApp and Viber, on the other.

The present study examines attitudes towards social media in the Arab countries and their effect on the language used for religious purposes addressing the following questions:

1. How do Muslims view the role of social media?
2. Are these views affected by respondents' age, education and gender?
3. Do these views and attitudes tackle the linguistic influence of social media, particularly with regard to English?
4. Which is the most preferred social media platform and what factors affect this preference?

2. Review of Related Literature

Human to human interaction through the shared use of Inter-supported technologies is known as Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC). Computer mediated social communication is a recent field of investigation.

A lot of theories have been proposed to account for the influence of the internet on our communication process, e.g., social presence theory (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976), reduced-context cues theory (Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984), and social information processing (SIP) theory (Walther, 1992). Social presence theory postulates that human interactions are influenced by the medium chosen for communication. Placing different communication media along a one-dimensional continuum, the degree of social presence was equated to the degree of awareness of the other person in an interaction.

The face-to-face medium was preferred to text-based communication for being more effective (Short et al., 1976). With regard to the attitude of the participants, it was found out that anonymous CMC interaction was favored for encouraging depersonalization among participants (Kiesler et al., 2006).

Assimilation theory is widely used in studies that tackle the issue of adaptation. It argues that migrants' convergence into the dominant culture leads to, 'decline, and at its endpoint the disappearance, of an ethnic/racial distinction and the cultural and social differences that express it' (Alba & Nee, 1997, p. 863).

Interest in the relationship between the internet and religion can be traced to the in 1990s with Lorne Dawson (2000, p. 8) raising the following questions:

First, we need to know what is on the Internet, who has put it there, and for what purpose. Second, we need to know how many people are using these resources. How often are they using them? In what ways are they using them? We need to develop a social profile of those who use the Internet for religious purposes ... Third, we need to know what influence these activities are having on religions and practices of users.

Helland (2000) tried to establish a distinction between two concepts, 'online religion' and 'religion online' concluding that both are common nowadays where online sites provide information and a chance for interaction. Campbell (2005) tackled the concept of "lived religion" and the Internet in her article '*Spiritualising the Internet: Uncovering Discourses and Narratives of Religious Internet Usage*'. The basic objective of her work is to investigate how the internet has affected religious worldview through identification of narratives used to shape religious or spiritual Internet usage.

Larsson (2005) investigated the online linguistic behavior of an Islamic Swedish group calling for combining online research with traditional fieldwork (in particular interviews) in order to be able to use data taken from the Internet. Larsson stressed the need to recognize global Muslim community in different languages and on many "global" topics. Krüger (2005) investigated methodological aspects involved in research of religion on the Internet.

The role of Social network sites has been stressed by several scholars. For (Boyd & Ellison, 2007) they are viewed as

'a cultural arena which gives rise to the processes of self-presentation, impression management and friendship performance.'

“Cyber Islamic Environments represent one barometer of diversity within the Islamic spectrum” (Bunt, 2000, p. 37).

Castells (2004, p. 56) postulates that the use of the internet led to the emergence of a new social order where the local fights against the power of globalization stating that

‘In a world submitted to cultural homogenization by the ideology of modernization and the power of global media, language, as the direct expression of culture, becomes the trench of cultural resistance, the last bastion of self-control, the refuge of identifiable meaning’

‘People resist the process of individualization and social atomization, and tend to cluster in community organizations that, over time, generate a feeling of belonging, and ultimately, in many cases, a communal, cultural identity’ (Castells, 2004, p. 64).

Research on religion and the internet is relatively recent. Prominent studies were conducted by Dawson & Cowan (2004) and Højsgaard & Warburg (2005). The linguistic aspect of the internet communication is highlighted by Crystal who maintains that the internet is a social fact which has textual language use at its very heart (2001, p. 237).

Studies on Islam and social media are very scarce and have been basically conducted by either sociologist or computer specialist. Ibahrine (2014) investigated the role of social media in spreading Islam among social media users focusing on the influence of social media on religious practices. Presenting many examples of Islamic social media, Ibahrine came to the conclusion that the use of social media has created an open sphere for a young Muslim generation that started to assume an authority that was usually assigned to Muslim scholars thus ‘the religious authority has become a contested domain, rather than an accepted reality by the uneducated masses’. Allievi (2002) coined the term ‘neo-communities’ to refer to the emerging Muslim community in Europe that has started to assume an underlying authority manifested in the political views towards the foreign policy regarding Muslim countries. His work is an attempt to investigate the role of the internet and the mass media in constructing transnational and non ethnic Muslim communities focusing on the processes involved in the way they establish their borders as well as transborders. Allievi provided examples of Islamic networks that contributed to the building of Muslim neo-communities in Europe and fostering a new image of Islam.

Nassar, Hayajneh and Almsafir (2012) conducted a survey to study the use of social media among students of different educational levels in Jordan. The study focused on social network usage, purposes and Islamic effects. The study revealed that the use of social media increased information promoting Islam to 78% calling for more utilization of social media by religious scholars.

3. Research Methodology

A questionnaire covering points related to the attitudes towards the role of the social media in promoting Islam, the way they have influenced discourse and the most preferred social platform was distributed to a random sample of Facebook users during the year 2014. Respondents were asked to comment on the effect of using the social media on their English language skills. Respondents were then classified according to age, education and gender. The age groups ranged between 18-60 with various educational levels ranging from high school to doctorate.

4. Discussion

Though use of social media has become a daily routine for many people, attitudes towards its contribution to our life vary. 91 % of the female respondents strongly agreed that the social media has positive effects on promoting Islam and creating a positive image while 9% females strongly disagreed. It is worth to mention here that all females in this random sample were undergraduate university students. Results for male respondent, on the other hand, were different. The difference could be attributed to the different educational backgrounds. Three educational levels could be identified as far as male respondents were concerned. These included high school, undergraduate and postgraduate. Half of the high school respondents agreed that social media plays a significant role in promoting Islam. Male university respondents showed more belief in the positive role of social media where the percentage for those who agreed was 76%. Results obtained for postgraduates presented a strong support for the positive role of social media with 88% supporting and only 12% disagreeing. Those who had a negative attitude towards the role of social media postulated that social media created more enemies for Islam rather than more friends. Some respondents believed that the social media had affected Arabic negatively while those who had positive views maintained that social media helped in creating a positive image of Islam and decreasing Islamophobia.

As far as the linguistic influence of the social media is concerned, about 91% of the female respondents agreed

that the social media has created a new discourse while 70 % of male university students agreed. Though high school respondents were less aware of the effect of the social media on discourse, 60% agreed that the social media had created new discourse. 36% of the postgraduates agreed. Different attitudes according to age can be attributed to the frequency of using social media and the exposure to various discourse genres. Young users might spend more time on social platforms but might not have the ability to engage in demanding linguistic situations. Postgraduates, on the other hand, tend to be more equipped with linguistic as well social communicative skills that enable them to get exposed to various discourse genres and consequently have stronger ability to judge.

Respondents had various views towards the effect of the social media on their linguistic skills when talking about Islam in English. Females' responses indicated that the social media improved their listening and reading skills most while male high school students and male university students said that social media improved their reading and writing skills most. Postgraduates' responses emphasized the positive effect of the use of social media on their listening and speaking skills. Most respondents agreed that the social media increased their English vocabulary. 64% of Male undergraduates and postgraduates praised the social media for improving their English vocabulary while the figures for the females and high school students were 57% and 62% respectively.

The last question investigated the most preferred social media platform for discussing Islamic issues. Facebook was the most favored social platform for all respondents. WhatsApp came next for all respondents except postgraduates who preferred Twitter to it. The reasons for favoring Facebook might be related to the vast numbers of users since it began earlier than other social media platforms in addition to the features provided by the Facebook that facilitate international communication.

5. Conclusion

Analysis of the responses elicited by the questionnaire in the present study revealed that the social media have affected the way the other is addressed when discussing Islamic topics. Despite some negative stands, the positive attitude towards social media in promoting Islam prevailed. These views were influenced by the respondents' age, gender and education. The linguistic influence of the social media on developing English skills was viewed positively. The Facebook was the most preferred social media platform. Further research is recommended on the interrelationships between social factors and views of social media. Code-switching among social media users and the effect on Arabic might be also investigated.

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Is Thai Banking Ready for AEC Financial Liberalization in 2020?

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Abstract

Thai banking's readiness before approaching a new phase of regional economic integration under AEC's Financial Liberalization in 2020 is evaluated through the applications of Financial Development Index (FDI), developed by World Economic Forum (WEF). The paper assesses bank's readiness for regional competition by using readiness index constructed in this study. Data limitation allows this article to cover only six countries in ASEAN, namely, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. The analysis includes four pillars and one sub-pillar out of 7 pillars representing the whole financial system. Results show that Singapore's banking system is the readiest country for regional competition, followed by Malaysia, Thailand and Philippines. The banking sector in Thailand is not quite ready for AEC financial liberalization. The pillars that weaken Thai banking system are the "Institutional environment" and the "Business environment". The country needs to improve these two pillars to foster its competency for AEC challenges.

Keywords: Thailand, bank, ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), financial liberalization, regional economic integration, bank readiness

1. Introduction

1.1 Why the Banking Sector Is Important?

Thailand as a member of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) is now approaching a new phase of regional economic integration. The adoption of AEC in 2015 will deepen economic integration regarding the free movement of goods, services, investments, and people. For service sector, the ASEAN Banking Integration Framework (ABIF) is expected to come into effect by 2020. Financial Integration among AEC is imperative. ASEAN banks and other financial institutions are not large in asset size to compete effectively against global players in international financial markets, and they are vulnerable to shocks from outside the region (Asian Development Bank, 2013). It is expected that the integration will help pave the way for the entry of regional banks into domestic markets, and improve ASEAN banks competitiveness against foreign banks. However, the AEC can give both positive and adverse effects to banking sector of the country members. Bank may benefit from market expansion through the increasing in cross - border financial and trading activities as well as revenue remittance. Meanwhile, a freer movement of capital among member states also induce higher competition and more risk exposure due to capital outflows, sharp currency depreciation, emerging inflationary pressures and tightening financial conditions, which could dampen economic growth.

To make Thai banking sector stay resilience and competitive in the more open market; it is necessary to be aware of the strength and weakness of the Thai banking system, and to identify country positions and strategy in responding to its impacts. This paper intends to evaluate the readiness of Thai banking for regional competition before approaching a new phase of AEC economic integration. A study of the readiness of banking system is essential because commercial banks are the most dominant sector of the financial system in the ASEAN countries, as well as, Thailand.

1.2 Review of Previous Study

The degree of competition can be measured by the actual behavior of bank conduct. Empirical research on competition in the financial sector has been scarce and the extent available is still at an early stage. To date, greater competition has been achieved by traditional means: removing entry barriers, liberalizing product restrictions, abolishing restrictive market definitions, eliminating intra-sectoral limitations, (Claessens, J.2009)

and reducing government activity restrictions to enhance financial accessibility (Beck, Asli, and Vojislav; 2004). The Later concept in a broader perspective about factors determining competitiveness was pointed out by Claessens, J. (2009) that - there are so many factors that are driving competition in the financial sector; it is not sufficient to analyze competitiveness from a narrow concept alone or focus on one effect only. He suggested that competition has to be considered as part of a broad set of objectives, including financial sector efficiency, access to financial services for various segments of users, and systemic financial sector stability, and consider possible trade-offs among these objectives. Therefore, when trying to increase competition in the financial sector, it is essential for a policymaker to consider a broad set of policy tools instead of any particular factor.

Several previous studies assessed and explained the readiness situation of banking integration in ASEAN. Asian Development Bank (2013), for example, determine the current state of banking market integration in ASEAN to show their readiness and also assess their compatibility with regulatory systems among the countries, while some studies put their focal point on readiness to fulfill countries' commitments to ASEAN Framework Agreement on Services (Wai-Mun, Teck-Heang, & Cai-Lian, 2011). There have been only a few country studies that answer whether the country is ready for regional competition under ASEAN Financial Liberalization. This paper will evaluate the readiness of banking sector for Thailand by constructing readiness index, using the scores and ranks in FDI (Financial Development Index) developed by WEF (World Economic Forum). The FDI is selected for this study because it is one of a complete datasets for analyzing competitiveness of banking sector to date.

1.3 Background

1.3.1 Country Background

The AEC as a collection of ten member countries has a combined population of approximately 625 million people, 8.8% of the world's population. ASEAN has the world's third largest labor force that remains relatively young. In 2015, the combined nominal GDP is expected to grow more than US\$ 2.2 trillion, ranked as the eighth largest economy in the world (Note 1).

Thailand is currently considered a newly industrialized country and is the second largest economy in Southeast Asia after Indonesia. Among the six countries studied, Thailand is ranked the third richest nation regarding GDP per capita and the major type of financial assets to GDP after Singapore, and Malaysia (Table 1).

1.3.2 Financial Background

Unlike EEC, there will be no regional central bank among AEC members. Commercial banks of each country will still be supervised and regulated mainly by their central bank, whereas special-purpose banks and nonbank financial institutions are under different regulatory agencies.

Table 1 shows that Malaysia and Singapore have much higher levels of financial depth than Thailand and the rest of AEC. Only Thailand and Vietnam is a bank-based system; holding their wealth regarding banking deposits, compared to the rest of countries which hold equity and bonds as their major financial assets.

Table 1. Selected key ASEAN macroeconomic indicators

Key indicators	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
Population (millions), 2011.	241	28.7	95.9	5.3	64.1	89.3
GDP (US\$ billions), 2011	845.7	278.7	213.1	259.8	345.6	122.7
GDP (current prices) per capita, 2011	3,509.00	9,700.00	2,223.00	49,271.00	5,394.00	1,374.00
Total Financial assets by major type/GDP,2010	117.10%	434.90%	193.90%	432.50%	248.80%	168.00%
Total debt securities (%)	25.54	29.37	30.99	32.3	23.84	34.14
Banking deposits (%)	31.01	30.94	28.35	30.08	41.17	54.14
Equity securities (%)	43.44	39.69	40.66	37.63	34.99	11.72
Total (US\$ bn)	829.6	1,034.30	386.9	983.4	793.6	174

Source. Country/Economy Profiles in the Financial Development Report 2012, p. 148, 188, 224,248, 276 and 304.

The AEC size of assets in the financial sector is rather small, resulting in the low efficiency and weak international competitiveness. Banks are by far the most important type of financial institutions in ASEAN.

Table 2 shows that commercial bank in ASEAN held largest assets with the average share of 76.7 % of the total compared to other financial institutions. It is expected that the integration of banking sectors in ASEAN will contribute to an enlargement of bank size through expansion of their customer base, lowering of price for bank services which will finally help foster an "inclusive growth" in the region.

Table 2. Total assets of ASEAN financial institutions

Composition (% of total)	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam	ASEAN
Banks (1+2)	88.6	91.3	91.5	77.5	90.9	96.7	87.3
--Commercial banks (1)	82.7	69.6	80	77.3	70.7	93	76.7
--Other banks (2)	5.9	21.7	11.6	0.1	20.2	3.6	10.6
Non-bank financial institutions (insurance companies and other institutions)	11.4	8.7	8.5	22.5	9.1	3.3	12.7
Total (billions US dollars)	325.9	476.5	147.9	650.1	440	177.7	2,245.30

Note. All data except for Brunei Darussalam was for end-2009; end-2010 for Brunei Darussalam only.

Sources. Official websites and annual reports of ASEAN central banks and financial supervisory agencies.

Concerning the number of financial institutions, there are 368 commercial banks in ASEAN countries in 2012/2013 (Table 3). More than half of them are from 2 countries; Indonesia (24.54% (and Singapore (27.52%). For Thailand, there are only 31 commercial banks in operation, ranked the 5th in AEC.

Around 53.90 percent of the commercial banks in AEC are foreign owned banks, either partial or whole. Most of them are in Singapore and Indonesia. Singapore government liberalized the banking sector by awarding greater liberty for foreign banks to operate in Singapore since 2001 (Hawksford, 2015). Indonesia, on the other hand, had allowed foreign investors to hold local banks equity up to 99%. Foreign banks got permission to locate their branches freely within Indonesia territory as a measure to rescue the monetary and banking system as well as the economy during Asian financial crisis of 1997–98 and the previously settle during the crisis is still in operation (Sato, 2005).

Table 3. Number of financial institutions in ASEAN member countries

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam	ASEAN (10)	%
Commercial banks	107	31	20	120	37	53	368	100
Public banks	4	8	3		7	6	28	8.72
Private banks	56		17	3		37	113	37.39
Foreign own banks (whole/partial)	47	23		117	30	10	227	53.90
Quasi-banks (Subsidiaries/Agency)	23	50			15	96	184	100.00

Note: All data presented in table are in 2012/2013 except 2011 for Vietnam

Source: Official websites and annual reports of ASEAN central banks and financial supervisory agencies.

2. Method

2.1 Conceptual and Operational Definition

Forming ABIF is expected to improve ASEAN banks competitiveness against foreign banks. However, the entry of regional banks into domestic markets will also increase competition in allocating country's savings. Connectivity of financial services among countries in AEC transfers both benefits and cost to each other and competition among member countries within the region is unavoidable. Cross-border financial contagion can be a potential risk for countries whose financial system does not well prepare for integration.

Given the degree of financial competitiveness among countries, several studies come up with the solution that in fostering sustainable financial development and improving the performance of financial systems, there should contain numerous institutional factors and stakeholders. The WEF, for example, defines country competitiveness as the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a nation. The productivity, in turn, sets the level of prosperity and degree of competitiveness for the financial system (WEF, 2013). The definition imposed by WEF is also consistent with Claessens (2009) and the Global Financial Development Report (the World Bank, 2013).

In assessing the readiness for competition among banking in AEC, this study uses "Readiness Index" as an indicator. The "Readiness Index" includes the variables that manifest both short run and long-run

competitiveness features. This study presumed that scores and ranks of Financial Development Index reflect only the short run competitiveness of banking system. For the long- run competition, this study used two sets of variables underlining each pillar: the ratio of advantage to disadvantage variables for financial development, and the trend of the scores for long-run measurement. Assume that a country with a high ratio of advantage to disadvantage variable indicates more readiness to face regional economic integration under AEC's Financial Liberalization than a country with a lower ratio. Similarly, a country with a high ratio of increasing trend variables to decreasing trend variables would also display more readiness in the banking sector than a nation with a lower ratio. Therefore, a country with the highest ratio of advantage to disadvantage variable in accompany with the highest ratio of increasing trend variables to decreasing trend variables will be the most readiness for competition in the long run (Figure 1)

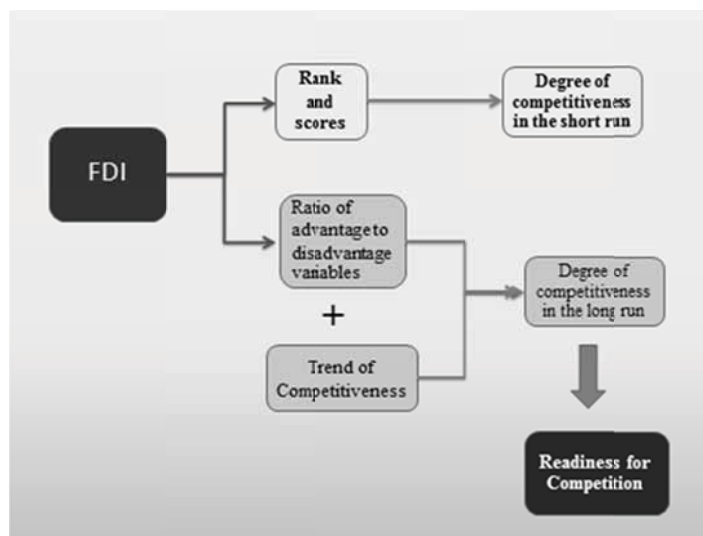


Figure 1. Framework for computing readiness index

2.2 The Data and Scope of Study

This study used the “Financial Development Index (the Index)” derived from the Financial Development Report of WEF as a proxy for the degree of competitiveness among bank in the countries studied. The Index was employed in this study because it provided scores and ranks of 62 world’s leading financial systems and capital markets, covering the most variety of dimensions in the financial sector; as of 121 variables in 7 pillars, compared to other sources. In addition to the FDI, indicators considered compatible with the FDI are found in the “Financial Sector Development Indicators (FSDI)” that offered by the World Bank. Even though the FSDI also provided the set of data as the basis for assessing a country’s overall financial sector, especially when benchmarked against international, regional, or cross-country standards. The indicators are grouped into only four broad dimensions: (1) Size; (2) Efficiency; (3) Access; and (4) Stability.

Data limitation of the Report allows this study to cover ASEAN communities cover only six countries, namely, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand. The rest of them in AEC members not included are Brunei, Republic of Laos, Cambodia, and Myanmar.

In the Report, various aspects of the impetus for financial development can be seen as seven pillars, grouped into three broad categories with 25 indicators as shown in Appendix A.

2.3 Methodology

The Index used in this study comprised of three sets of indicators. Firstly, scores and ranks in the Financial Development Report developed by World Economic Forum (WEF) in 62 countries in 2012 were used to compare the degree of competitiveness among ASEAN community in the short run; the Financial Development Report in 2012 was the latest data available from WEF to date. Secondly, the number, as well as, the computed ratio of advantage and disadvantage variables to financial development of the country was utilized to investigate the driving forces supporting banking sector of Thailand compared to other ASEAN countries. Thirdly, the time series of FDI during 2009-2012 were used to analyze the trend of competitiveness for each country in the long run. Fourthly, the second and third indicators were combined to construct “Readiness Index” which showed the

stage of Thai banking readiness for competition under financial openness in the long run.

(a) *Indicators*

This paper assesses bank readiness for competition by using only indicators that related to the banking sector. Only five out of seven pillars were selected and grouped into two sets of indicators. Set A (Supporting Indicator) contained three pillars which reflected basic features that supporting the banking system which are pillar 1 (Institutional environment), pillar 2 (Business environment), and sub-pillar 3 (Banking system stability)

Set B (Banking Indicator), on the other hand, included two pillars which directly related to bank sector (pillar 4 and pillar 7), as shown in Table 4. Of the five pillars studied, there are altogether 79 variables included in 17 sub-pillars.

Table 4. Financial indicators explaining the readiness for competition

A. Supporting Indicator	B. Banking Indicator
1st pillar: Institutional environment	The 4th pillar: Banking financial services
Financial sector liberalization	Size index
Corporate governance	Efficiency index
Legal and regulatory issues	Financial information disclosure
Contract enforcement	7th pillar: Financial access
2nd pillar: Business environment	Commercial access
Human capital	Retail access
Taxes	
Infrastructure	
Cost of doing business	
3rd pillar: Financial stability	
Banking system stability	

(b) *Criteria for Identifying the Index Variables*

The Financial Development Report imposed criteria in identifying the Index variables as advantages or disadvantages to financial development of a nation. The Report (2012) hypothesizes that a variable is advantages to the financial system if its rank is better than the country ranking; implying that it help drives the country financial development forward, and is disadvantaged if its development is lag behind the country ranking. Following the Report, the rules identifying variables as advantages or disadvantages in this study are presented in Table 5.

When the variable is specified whether it constitutes an advantage or a disadvantage role for the country development through the financial system, such an approach will allow decision-makers to develop a balanced perspective in determining which aspects of their country's financial system are most important, and which aspects need improvement.

Table 5. Criteria for identifying the index variables

Rank of FDI	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
Rank of Country Financial Development Index	50	18	49	4	34	52
Rank for Advantage Variables	1-31	1-17	1-31	1-10	1-31	1-31
Rank for Disadvantage Variables	32-62	18-62	32-62	11-62	32-62	32-62

Source: The Financial Development Report 2012, World Economic Forum USA Inc. New York, USA., p. 58

(c) *Trend of Competitiveness*

Financial Development Index during 2009-2012 was used to analyze the trend of competitiveness for each country. The trend variable can be calculated by using equation (1) as follow:

$$\text{Trend}_i = (\text{Score in 2012})_i - (\text{average scores of 2009-2011})_i \quad (1)$$

Where; Trend = D (Decreasing), if the sign is negative.

= I (Increasing), if the sign is positive.

= Unchanged, if the difference is zero.

i = Country "i"

(d) *The Readiness Index*

The "Readiness Index" displayed two dimensions of banking competitiveness. It indicated whether the trend of each pillar (and variables within the pillar) were rising or declining during 2009-2012, and also shows whether each pillar (including variables within the pillar) were advantages or disadvantage for banking development. A pillar/variable was considered ready for financial liberalization challenges if it had a rising trend and was advantageous for financial development (A1). For a pillar/variable that was ranked worse than country rank but its scores during 2009-2012 was rising, it will be in a rather ready situation (A2). In the opposite situation, a pillar/variable with declining trend was considered risky in losing their competitiveness in the long run; the condition was classified as "rather risky (B1)" and "risky (B2)" conditions (Table 6).

Table 6. Criteria for classifying pillar and variable readiness of competition

Trend	Development Challenges	
	advantage	disadvantage
Rising	ready (A1)	rather ready (A2)
Declining/Stable	rather risky (B1)	risky (B2)

3. Results of the Study

This paper evaluated the readiness of Thai banking sector in comparison with Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Vietnam. Presentation of results was in two parts. The first part analyzed the degree of competitiveness in banking services among ASEAN countries in the short run perspective. The second part introduced the computed ratio of advantage and disadvantage variables to compare the strength of driving forces that supporting banking sector of ASEAN countries. The following sections showed results of competitiveness computed from equation (1). Lastly, the "Readiness Index" was used for evaluating whether Thai Banking is ready for competition under financial openness in the long run.

3.1 Competitiveness of AEC Banking in the Short Run

This study used scores and ranks in the FDI developed by WEF (World Economic Forum) in 2012 to display competitiveness of the financial system of each country in the short run. The results showed that there were only two out of six ASEAN countries that their scores rank top 20 of the world; they were Singapore (4th) and Malaysia (18th). Thailand was ranked third in ASEAN at the 34th, where Philippines, Indonesia, and Vietnam stayed at the last quartile of the world (Table 7).

Among the six countries, Singapore scored best in every pillar and maintained its position at the fourth in the World 2012's Index. Singaporean bank was dominant among highly developed banking in the world market and was hard for Thailand to challenge. Banks in Indonesia, Vietnam, and the Philippines, on the other hand, had large populations and had relatively small banking sectors. Therefore, the only challenge for Thai bank in AEC to catch up with in the future is Malaysian bank that by far is much stronger than the commercial banks in Thailand.

Table 7. Ranks in FDI 2012 among 6 ASEAN Members

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
Rank of FDI 2012	50	18	49	4	34	52
A. Supporting Indicators						
Pillar1: Institutional environment	51	21	39	1	33	53
Pillar 2: Business environment	53	25	54	1	45	56
Subpillar 3: Banking system stability	48	29	54	8	56	46
B. Banking Indicators						
Pillar 4: Banking financial services	53	11	49	10	28	32
Pillar 7: Financial access	54	28	53	14	25	43

Note: Shaded pillar represents indicator that is the disadvantage to financial development, and unshaded pillar stands for the indicator that is the advantage of financial development.

3.2 The Computed Ratio of Advantage and Disadvantage Variables

Following the criteria of WEF in identifying variables as advantages or disadvantages to country development; of the five pillars, there were altogether 79 variables that explain the degree of bank competitiveness. When categorizing the variables into two groups; the advantage and the disadvantage ones as shown in Table 8, the results indicated that only banking sector of Singapore constitutes more advantage than disadvantage variables, reflecting the country's strength for competition and readiness in facing regional economic integration under AEC's Financial Liberalization.

Table 8. Ratio and number of advantage and disadvantage variables categorized by country and by pillar in 2012

Indicator Set	Financial Development Index	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
	Ratio of Advantage to Disadvantage Variable						
A	1st pillar: Institutional environment	0.3	0.86	0.44	4.2	0.44	0.24
A	2nd pillar: Business environment	0.29	0.47	0.22	2.14	0.16	0.1
A	3rd pillar: Banking system stability (subpillar)	1.5	1.5	0.25	1.5	0.67	0.67
B	4th pillar: Banking financial services	0.4	0.75	0.4	1.33	2.5	1.33
B	7th pillar: Financial access	0.71	3	0.71	1.4	3	0.33
Total Number of Variables in Each Pillar							
A	1st pillar: Institutional environment	26	26	26	26	26	26
A	2nd pillar: Business environment	22	22	22	22	22	22
A	3rd pillar: Banking system stability (subpillar)	5	5	5	5	5	5
B	4th pillar: Banking financial services	14	14	14	14	14	14
B	7th pillar: Financial access	12	12	12	12	12	12
Total Number of Variables		79	79	79	79	79	79

Note. a) Ratio $X_{ij} = \frac{\text{Number of advantage variable of pillar "i" in country "j"}}{\text{Number of disadvantage variable of pillar "i" in country "j"}}$.
 b) A shaded cell represents the ratio which its value is greater than one.

Fortunately, variables that supported the strength of banking system in Thailand were on pillars that directly related to the banking sector; they are Banking financial services and Financial access. This help explains why Thailand's financial system was ranked the third in ASEAN. Most of the disadvantageous variables which will be the negative factors for Thailand in the long run, were found in 3 supporting services of the banking system; Institutional environment, Business environment, and Banking system stability (sub-pillar). For other AEC, Vietnam was the weakest among the six countries, followed by the Philippines and Indonesia. The Index showed that only Singapore and Thailand earned the highest strength in pillars 4 and pillar 7. Vietnam, on the other hand, had a greater number of the advantage than disadvantage variables in driving "banking financial services", and Malaysia had higher strength in Pillar 7 than in Pillar 4. For banking sector, Indonesia and Philippines seemed to be the weakest among countries studied.

3.2.1 Banking Financial Services (Pillar 4)

Index in the pillar 4 was designed to measure financial services provided by the banking system of the country; they were size index, efficiency index, and financial information disclosure, which altogether were expressed in 14 variables as shown in Table 8. Among AEC, this pillar supported strength in the financial sector of Malaysia (11th), Thailand (28th), and Vietnam (32th). However, this phenomenon may not prolong in Malaysia, because the country does not have a sufficient number of advantageous factors in driving its strength in the long run; as the ratio of advantageous variable to the disadvantageous variable was less than 1 (Table 8). For Singapore, even though the pillar rank was worse than the country rank, the ratio was greater than 1, shedding hope for a better position in the long run. Indonesia and Philippines were the weakest in these services.

For Thailand, the "Banking financial services" was considered the most competitive in AEC; there were 10 out of 14 variables that were the positive factors for banking development. Of the three index which were Size index, Efficiency index, and Financial information disclosure, it is worth noting that most factors that support pillar 4

were variables in the category of “Size Index” (Table 9).

(a) *Size Index*

The “size index” displays the overall value of financial assets related to banking services. The larger the banking system, the more capital it can channel from savers to investors (Chinn, (2007), the better the rank of “size index” as well as degree of bank competitiveness. Measures of size include variables such as deposit money bank assets to GDP, M2 to GDP, and private credit to GDP, as shown in Table 8. The only weak variable in this category was the size of money market instruments which was rather small and approach to zero as compared to GDP. Among ASEAN countries, Singapore was the only country of which the score of “size of money market instruments to GDP” was compatible with the world and was ranked at the 9th. For other members of AEC, the size of money market instruments was also small.

Table 9. Comparison of Banking Financial Services (Pillar 4) among the AEC

Rank of FDI 2012	Rank (Out of 62)					
	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
4th pillar: Banking financial services	53	11	49	10	28	32
Size index	50	18	44	9	24	33
Deposit money bank assets to GDP	54	19	49	20	24	21
Central bank assets to GDP	14	42	22	25	23	15
Financial system deposits to GDP	47	12	40	10	25	58
M2 to GDP	52	9	48	10	12	16
Private credit to GDP	53	22	52	26	20	21
Bank deposits to GDP	48	12	42	10	25	59
Money market instruments to GDP	33	33	33	9	33	33
Efficiency index	48	27	33	6	17	15
Aggregate profitability indicator	24	13	42	6	20	7
Bank overhead costs	50	21	47	15	34	24
Public ownership of banks	57	54	29	48	37	43
Bank operating costs to assets	51	23	43	11	33	21
Non-performing bank loans to total loans	15	22	29	7	27	n/a
Financial information disclosure	41	2	54	32	37	43
Private credit bureau coverage	53	17	48	25	30	53
Public credit registry coverage	10	5	26	26	26	11
Advantage variables	4	6	4	8	10	8
Disadvantage variable	10	8	10	6	4	6

Note: Shaded variable represents indicator that was a disadvantage to banking development and unshaded variable stands for an index that was an advantage for banking development.

(b) *Efficiency Index*

The role of banking system in financing the economy requires banking system to operate efficiently. Efficient banking system means it can provide service financing at lower cost (Mongid & Kurniadi, 2014). Efficiency index in the Report includes aggregate profitability indicator, bank overhead costs, bank operating costs to assets, and the ratio of non-performing loans to total loans (Table 8). For this indicator, Thailand was ranked 17th, and was the third in AEC after Singapore (6th) and Vietnam (15th). Malaysia was ranked at 27th behind Thailand because there were too many public banks in the country as shown in Table 2.

In the Report, a country with high government ownership of banks tends to be scored less. Thailand, Malaysia together with another AEC has no exception. For Thailand, government ownership banks were known as Specialized Financial Institutions (SFIs). The existence of SFIs was not for enhancing country growth or competitiveness. Currently, SFIs serve market niches that do not adequately reached by traditional financial institutions and help build private markets, generate tax revenues and empower poor people (Note 3). If the results of publicly owned banks will lead to being less efficient, impeding credit allocation and the channeling of capital, and slowing banking operation as suggested by Xiao and Zhao (2011); almost all AEC countries tend to have the same barrier in enhancing their competitiveness.

In 2012, the ratio of average nonperforming bank loans to total in most of the AEC members except Vietnam was less than 4%, implying that, on average, the commercial bank in Thailand and another four countries were operating efficiently and meet the international standards.

Two variables were used to measure bank performance: bank overhead costs and bank operating costs to assets. From Table 8, the banks in Thailand were highly profitable even though performs poorly in the operational measures; these due to policy objectives that strictly put control on low ratio of non-performing bank loans to total loans, and partly may due to the degree of less competition among bank within the country. Regarding comparison among AEC countries, almost every bank in AEC performs well in earning profit except the Philippines, indicating the unreadiness of Philippines' bank to face tougher competition.

(c) Financial Information Disclosure

A Third key aspect of the efficacy of the banking system was the role of the financial information disclosure within the operation of banks. Barth et al. (1999) suggest that policies that induce proper information disclosure authorize private-sector corporate control of banks, and motivate private agents to exercise corporate control, tend to encourage bank development, operational efficiency, and stability.

In the Report, the sub-pillar of "Financial information disclosure" was expressed by two variables; Private credit bureau coverage and Public credit registry coverage. Among AEC, Malaysia earns the highest score in this pillar, and Thailand rank was at 37th lagged behind Malaysia (2nd) and Singapore (32th).

3.2.2 Financial Access (Pillar 7)

Financial access promotes growth through the provision of credit to both new and existing businesses and household. It benefits the economy in general by accelerating economic growth, intensifying competition, as well as boosting demand for labor (Beck, Levine, & Levkov, 2010). The lack of financial access limits the range of services and credits for household and enterprises. Poor individuals and small businesses have to rely on their personal wealth or internal resources to invest in their education and businesses, which limits their full potential and leads to the cycle of persistent inequality and diminished growth (Demirgüç-Kunt, Beck, & Honohan, 2008).

Table 10. Comparison of Financial Acces (Pillar 7) among the AEC

Rank of FDI 2012	Rank (Out of 62)					
	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
7th pillar: Financial access	54	28	53	14	25	43
Commercial access	23	6	38	2	24	43
Financial market sophistication	45	22	36	6	30	61
Venture capital availability	17	9	39	3	33	51
Ease of access to credit	33	5	25	2	19	47
Financing through local equity mkt.	23	6	29	3	21	47
Ease of access to loans	11	7	28	2	21	50
Foreign direct investment to GDP	33	17	56	2	27	8
Retail access	56	35	48	31	25	36
Market penetration of bank accounts	57	29	52	6	26	55
Commercial bank branches	42	37	43	38	35	50
Total number of ATMs	44	31	43	27	19	42
Total number of point of sale (POS) devices	55	42	50	39	26	48
<i>Loan from a financial institution</i>	35	24	26	28	8	14
Advantage variables	4	5	4	7	9	2
Disadvantage variable	7	6	7	4	2	9
Ratio of advantage to disadvantage variables	0.6	0.8	0.6	1.8	4.5	0.2

Note: Shaded variable represents indicator that was a disadvantage to banking development and unshaded variable stands for an index that was an advantage for banking development.

The Report categorizes accessibility to banking into two channels; Commercial access and Retail access. Singapore, Thailand, and Malaysia were competitive in providing services access to capital through both commercial and retail channels and were expected to be robust in the long run since the ratio of advantage to disadvantage variable was greater than 1 in all three countries (Table 10). Thailand's score was the second highest in AEC after Singapore (14th), beat Malaysia (28th) that go to the third this time. Malaysia was weak in Retail access of which every variable in this sub-pillar was disadvantageous for bank competitiveness.

For Thailand, the only negative factor in Commercial access was the laggard in developing venture capital industry which significantly stays behind after Singapore and Malaysia. Lyons (2007) pointed out that Thailand was not an attractive environment for venture capital investing. Because English-language competency was competent only in some educated group, the Thai legal and financial systems were closer to those of Continental Europe rather than the Anglo-American system. Also, Thailand lags both Singapore and Malaysia regarding transparency, corruption, and a predictable legal system.

For Retail access, the only weak variable for Thai banking system was "Commercial bank branches." Commercial bank branches for Thailand were considered too few to support country financial development. However, Thailand earns the highest score among AEC and hence was not considered as detrimental to Thai bank competitiveness under AEC financial liberalization in this study

3.2.3 Bank Foundational Factors

Conceptually, a country with low fundamental characteristics to support banking system could limit bank capability to growth and competitiveness in the opened financial system. Factors covering these structural features as proposed in the Report were the Institutional environment, the Business environment, and the Degree of financial stability. Table 10 showed that except Singapore, every AEC member countries were weak in Pillar 1- Institutional environment, Pillar 2- Business environment, and a sub-pillar of Pillar 3 – banking system stability.

(a) Institutional Environment (Pillar 1)

Theoretically, a healthy institutional environment lessens information and transaction costs (Levine, 2004), and was likely to contribute to a more efficient financial sector (Mishkins, 2001). Singapore scores best in this pillar not only in AEC countries but also the 62 countries. Thailand was ranked at the third among AEC after Malaysia, as shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Advantage and disadvantage variables for supporting indicators (Pillar 1-3) among the AEC

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
1st pillar: Institutional environment	51	21	39	1	33	53
Financial sector liberalization	54	29	30	19	33	51
Corporate governance	51	21	39	1	33	53
Legal and regulatory issues	41	19	48	1	39	52
Contract enforcement	54	13	57	1	23	42
2nd pillar: Business environment	53	25	54	1	45	56
Human capital	40	18	42	3	32	59
Taxes	37	25	41	7	29	56
Infrastructure	53	35	55	13	46	50
Cost of doing business	61	30	60	1	50	52
3rd pillar: Financial stability	35	10	47	1	34	56
Currency Stability	12	3	32	2	8	49
Banking system stability	48	29	54	8	56	46
Aggregate measure of real estate bubbles	17	12	43	45	24	N/A
Risk of sovereign debt crisis	37	22	39	21	35	51

Note. Shaded figures represent disadvantage variables, and un-shaded ones stand for advantage variables.

Theoretically, financial liberalization permits a greater degree of financial depth that translates into a larger number of financial intermediation for savers and investors, and results in a more efficient flow of resources to the banking system (Fitzgerald, 2007). Singapore was ranked world number one in this sub-pillar with the help of 2 driving forces "Capital account openness" and "Domestic financial sector"; unfortunately, a failure to follow commitments to WTO agreement on trade in services downgrade her rank in these sub-pillars to 19th. The

domestic financial sector in almost every country was ready for liberalization except Indonesia and Vietnam, which was still after the financial development path. Strict control in capital account openness drives down scores of both Thailand (53th) and Philippines (52th) to the bottom of the Financial Development Index among the six ASEAN countries.

For the last three variables, it is widely believed that high-quality in corporate governance, the presence of legal institutions that safeguard the interests of investors, and contract enforcement would limit the scope for default among debtors and encouraged banking development (Goldsmith, 1969; Bekaert & Harvey, 2005; Tavares, 2002). Among countries in ASEAN, except Singapore, most variables in this pillar revealed their poor performance. The only advantage variable in supporting competitiveness for Thailand and Malaysia was “Contract enforcement”; the variable represented the cost of enforcing contracts as a percent of the legal claim (Table 11).

(b) Business environment (Pillar 2)

Even though Business environment does not directly relate to the banking sector, but its fundamental characteristics support the development of financial intermediaries, markets, instruments, and services. Singapore was also the world number one in the business environment for the financial sector while other countries were far lag behind (Table 11).

Among the four sub-pillars: Human capital, Taxes, Infrastructure, and Cost of doing business, “Infrastructure” and “Cost of doing business” were the weakest variables for every ASEAN members except Singapore and Malaysia. Thailand as well as others stay almost at the bottom of the world rank. The only factor that supports business environment for Thailand and strengthens the degree of competitiveness was “marginal tax variation” in the sub-pillar “Tax” (Note 2).

(c) Banking system stability (Sub-pillar 3)

The banking sector was unlike other areas of the economy; competition policy must take account of the interaction between competition and financial stability. Greater competition may be good for efficiency in the short run, but bad for financial stability, in the long term, where liberalization and unfettered competition have resulted in fragility (Allen & Gale, 2004).

In this sub-pillar, Thailand was ranked at the 56th, almost at the bottom of the world rank in 2012. Because Thailand used to go through financial crises in 1997, and the evaluation of the systemic banking crises sub-pillar combines measures of historic banking system instability, an assessment of aggregate balance sheet strength, and the presence of real estate “bubbles”. Such a result does not have any relationship with the degree of competitiveness for banking in Thailand. It was pointed out by Beck, et al. (2008) that the relationship between competition and financial stability was ambiguous in general, and Stijn Claessens (2009), on the other hand, suggested that the relationship between competition and financial stability was considerably more complex than simple “trade-off.”

3.2.4 Factors that Supporting Banking Sector of Thailand Compared to Other ASEAN Countries

It is worth summarizing here that, for the “Banking Indicator,” Thailand is ranked at the third in the pillar of “Banking financial services” after Singapore and Malaysia but is at the 28th of the world. Factors underlying the “Banking financial services” for Thailand were considered advantageous for competition. Of the three index: size index, efficiency index, and financial information disclosure, it is found that 10 out of 14 variables were supporting factors for the development of banking sector. To improve her readiness, Thailand has to develop her money market instruments and the bank efficiency in reducing overhead and operating costs. Pillar of the “Financial access”, on the other hand, showed that the pillar score for Thailand was the second highest in AEC after Singapore and beat Malaysia. With the greatest number of advantageous variables in this pillar among ASEAN countries, it is possible for Thailand in paving the way to a higher degree of competition in financial accessibility in the future. The only weak variable in this pillar was the laggard in developing venture capital industry.

Pillars that portray essential features of Thai banking sector in the “Supporting Indicator” were rather weak. Competency of Thai banking either in banking services or financial access so far has got very few supports from these foundational factors.

3.3 The Trend of Competitiveness

Following the criteria imposed on constructing the “Readiness Index” from Table 6, results in Table 12 showed that the pillar of “Banking financial services” for every country had a trend of score improvement. However, only three countries: Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand were ready for competition in mode A1, while Indonesia,

Philippines, and Vietnam were in the mode of A2.

For the pillar of “Financial access”, there were only three countries that have the promising trend, namely Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Malaysia score in this pillar was less than Thailand in both commercial access and retail access; the pillar trend was decreasing and owing disadvantage feature (B2). The results implied that Thailand is most ready for competition in this pillar (A1).

For the three foundational pillars (pillar 1-2 and sub-pillar 3) that defined as the “Supporting Indicator,” it appeared that Singapore was best in these pillars in mode A1 while Thailand was in mode B2. For Thailand, the score was decreasing in “Business environment” and “Banking system stability”, the most detrimental factors for the pillar of “Business environment” were “Infrastructure” and “Cost of doing business”.

3.4 The Readiness of Banking Sector for Thailand

In this part, the “Readiness Index” was used in evaluating whether Thai Banking is ready for competition under financial openness in the long run. To draw such a conclusion for Thailand compared to other ASEAN countries, two indicators; ratio of advantage to disadvantage variable and ratio of increasing to decreasing trend variables were used. As mentioned before that, a country with the high ratio of both indicators will be more ready to face regional economic integration under AEC’s Financial Liberalization than a country with the lower ratio, because it showed the higher number of variables/factors in driving its banking competency. Following the above assumption, it is summarized in Table 12 that Singapore is the readiest country for regional competition; with both ratios are greater than one, and most of the variables explaining each pillar are in mode either A1 or A2.

Thailand, Malaysia, and the Philippines are not quite ready for AEC financial liberalization. The ratio of advantage to disadvantage variables for the banking sector is lower than 1, indicating that most factors included in the pillars are weak in driving their banking industry. However, the ratio of variables with increasing to decreasing trend of these three countries was greater than 1; implying the strength for future competition. Finally, results displayed that both Indonesia and Vietnam were in the risky mode in losing her competitiveness in the long run. The status of readiness for AEC financial liberalization of each country is illustrated in Table 13.

Table 12. Trends of competitiveness and readiness index among AEC

		Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
	Rank of FDI 2012 Index	50	18	49	4	34	52
1	1st pillar: Institutional environment	A2	A2	A2	A1	unchange	B2
1.1	Financial sector liberalization	A2	A2	A1	A2	A2	A2
1.2	Corporate governance	A2	B2	A2	B2	B2	B2
1.3	Legal and regulatory issues	A2	A2	A2	A1	A2	A2
1.4	Contract enforcement	B2	A1	A2	B1	B1	B2
2	2nd pillar: Business environment	A2	A2	A2	unchange	B2	B2
2.1	Human capital	A2	A2	A2	A1	B2	B2
2.2	Taxes	A2	A2	A2	A1	A1	unchange
2.3	Infrastructure	B2	A2	B2	A2	B2	B2
2.4	Cost of doing business	B2	A2	B2	A1	B2	B2
3	3rd pillar: Financial stability	B2	A1	B2	A2	B2	B2
3.2	Banking system stability	B2	A2	B2	B1	B2	B2
4	4th pillar: Banking financial services	A2	A1	A2	A2	A1	A1
4.1	Size index	A2	A2	A2	A1	A1	A2
4.2	Efficiency index	B2	B2	unchange	A1	A1	B1
4.3	Financial information disclosure	B2	A1	B2	A2	A2	B2
7	7th pillar: Financial access	B2	B2	A2	A2	A1	B2
7.1	Commercial access	B1	A1	A2	A1	A1	B2
7.2	Retail access	B2	B2	A2	A2	A1	B2
	Ratio of increasing to decreasing trends	0.75	3.67	2.25	3.67	1.33	0.3
	Ratio of advantage to disadvantage variable	0.41	0.88	0.39	2.16	0.68	0.34

Note. The shaded figure represents disadvantage variables and un-shaded stands for advantage variables.

Source. Financial Development Report, 2009-2012.

Table 13. Classification of bank in ASEAN SIX by readiness index

Trend	Development Challenges	
	advantage	disadvantage
Rising	Singapore (A1)	Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines (A2)
Declining/Stable		Indonesia, Viet Nam (B2)

4. Is Thai Banking Ready for AEC Financial Liberalization in 2020?

To sum up, the bank is by far the most important type of financial institutions in Thailand and other ASEAN members. By using Financial Development Index in assessing Thai bank readiness for AEC Financial Liberalization, this paper evaluates four pillars and one sub-pillar in the financial system. Two of them were pillars that related to banking system directly: Banking financial services (pillar 4) and Financial access (pillar 7). Another three were pillars that indicated underlying factors of bank competitiveness: Institutional environment (pillar 1), Business environment (pillar 2), and sub-pillar of “Banking system stability” (pillar 3).

Upon assessing Thai banking’s readiness for regional competition by using readiness index constructed in this study, results show that Singapore’s banking system is the readiest country for regional competition, followed by Malaysia, Thailand and Philippines. The banking sector in Thailand is not quite ready for AEC financial liberalization. Even though Thailand performs quite well across the banking pillars, there are still several areas of concern, namely, a decrease in financial stability (34th) driven by an increase in the risk of sovereign debt crisis (35th) and banking system instability (56th). The variables that threaten Thai banking for future competitiveness are “Legal and regulatory issues (39th),” which are in the category of the “Institutional environment (33rd).” Moreover, the “Infrastructure (46th)” and the “Cost of doing business (50th)” in the “Business environment” (45th) are also not the promising factors for supporting the banking system in Thailand for the long run. The Thai government should be proud of her current strength in the banking sector, but also improve all the negative aspects that can threaten Thai bank competitiveness in the future.

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Notes

Note 1. Data are from Country/Economy Profiles in the Financial Development Report 2012, p. 148, 188, 224,248, 276 and 304, and the Official websites and annual reports of ASEAN central banks and financial supervisory agencies.

Note 2. Marginal tax variation is the variation between the top tax rate on corporate income and the taxes and mandatory contributions paid by a prototypical business as a percent of commercial profits.

Note 3. Thailand: Rationalization and Corporate Governance of ... (n. d.). Retrieved from <http://www.mfdr.org/Sourcebook/1st Edition/6-4Thailand-Rationalization.pdf>

Appendix A

The Seven Pillars of Financial Development Indicators

In the Report, various aspects of the impetus for financial development can be seen as seven pillars, grouped into three broad categories with 25 indicators as shown in Table 4. The first category is "Factors, policies, and institutions", it covers the first three pillars that explain essential features supporting financial intermediation including banking system. The second category named "Financial intermediation" contains pillar 4 to 6, it measures the degree of development of the financial sector, as expressed in the different types of intermediaries. The third category comprises of only pillar 7 (Financial access) which spans areas of access to capital through

both commercial and retail channels.

Table A1. Financial Development Indicators for 7 Pillars

I	Factors, policies, and institutions	II	Financial intermediation
1	1st pillar: Institutional environment	4	4th pillar: Banking financial services
1.1	Financial sector liberalization	4.1	Size index
1.2	Corporate governance	4.2	Efficiency index
1.3	Legal and regulatory issues	4.3	Financial information disclosure
1.4	Contract enforcement	5	5th pillar: Non-banking financial services
2	2nd pillar: Business environment	5.1	IPO activity
2.1	Human capital	5.2	M&A activity
2.2	Taxes	5.3	Insurance
2.3	Infrastructure	5.4	Securitization
2.4	Cost of doing business	6	6th pillar: Financial markets
3	3rd pillar: Financial stability	6.1	Foreign exchange markets
3.1	Currency Stability	6.2	Derivatives markets
3.2	Banking system stability	6.3	Equity market development
3.3	Aggregate measure of real estate bubbles	6.4	Bond market development
3.4	Risk of sovereign debt crisis	III	Financial access
		7	7th pillar: Financial access
		7.1	Commercial access
		7.2	Retail access

Note. a) Details of each variable can be found in “Technical Notes and Sources” from WEF (2013, p. 385).

b) The shaded variables and pillars are the ones being use in this study.

Source. The Financial Development Report 2012, World Economic Forum USA Inc. New York, USA.

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Local Community Perception towards Slow City: Gokceada Sample

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Abstract

Slow city movement has been firstly emerged in Italy with the purpose of eliminating the homogenous structure that the globalization has created in the cities. Slow city has been turned into an international network due to a philosophy providing sustainability of the city by improving the quality of individuals' life. Turkey is also among the states which are the members of International Cittaslow Union. 11 districts have participated slow city movement starting with Seferihisar in Turkey. One of these districts is Gokceada constituting the case study. Gokceada has assumed the title of slow city by carrying out the criteria required for slow city in 2011. The aim of this study is to determine how the people's perceptions and what their expectations towards citta slow phenomenon are. It is aimed to clarify the advantages and disadvantages of being a citta slow according to the public. The study has been conducted in the center of Gokceada through interview method. As a result of the research, it has been reached a conclusion that the people have knowledge about the Cittaslow concept. In addition, they have also assessed Gokceada being a citta slow as a positive development in terms of advantages provided.

Keywords: slow city, Cittaslow, slow food, life quality, sustainability, Gokceada

1. Introduction

Due to social, cultural and economic features, the cities are affected by the social changes. The change caused by the globalization has also created a negative effect on the local features, customs and cultures of the cities. In reaction to these problems, the slow city movement has been started. The fundamental philosophy of the movement is to provide the sustainability of the city with its own values. Its most important aim is to increase the life quality of the local people in the city.

Slow city is firstly emerged in Italy and inspired by the slow food movement. The Slow Food act, which was first seen in Italy in 1986, influenced social, cultural and economic areas over time due to the fact that the act regarded slowness and sustainability as the main philosophy. The Slow City act was launched in Italy in 1999 as a reflection of the Slow Food act on the urban areas.

The Slow City is an act that focuses on the local culture, traditions and the forms of local production. This act, despite being started in Italy, has turned into an international urban network that is implemented in various parts of the world. Turkey is also a member of this network with its 11 slow cities. One of Turkey's slow cities is Gokceada, which became the subject of this research study.

The primary goal of this study is to be able to reveal how the public's perception towards slow city is. Primarily, the concept of slow city, slow city criteria and the slow city movement in Turkey will be discussed in the study. In the last part of the study, findings of the research that have been executed regarding the slow city perception of the public.

2. Slow City Concept

Slow city movement has been based on idea of the former mayor of Greve in Chianti, Paolo Saturnini's opinion on establishing a different development model and the evaluation of the cities themselves in order to increase the quality of life in the year 1999. Saturnini's opinion later has been adopted by mayors of Bra (Francesco Guida), Orvieto (Stefano Cimicchi) and Positano (Domenico Marrone) and the president of the Slow Food, Carlo Petrini. Cittaslow movement is the urban life application of the Slow Food movement. (cittaslowturkiye.org/cittaslow/).

Slow Food movement has been established by Carlo Petrini in the year 1986 as a result of the reaction to the

opening of a McDonalds in Roma Piazza Spagna. Slow Food has become an international movement aimed at the sustainability of gastronomy and shared cultural values (Yurtseven, 2007). Slow food is not only a movement against the fast food nourishment. Petrini evaluates slow food movement as a part of the human rights (Cittaslow Bilgi Notu).

As a result and reflection of the slow food movement on the urban area, Cittaslow movement has been emerged. Cittaslow have the meaning of slow city; with the merging of the words Citta (*City* in Italian) and the word Slow (in English). Cittaslow does not mean going back and living in the past. Cittaslow is for cities to think on which areas they are important and special and to develop strategies in order to protect these attributes and with the harmony of the texture, color, music and the story of the city and to live in a speed that both inhabitants of the city and the visitors are able to enjoy the city. The essential emphasis on the word slow is the improve the quality of life (Radstrom, 2011; Cittaslow Bilgi Notu)

The essential goal of the cittaslow movement is to develop sustainable development principles in the cities and to remove negative influence of the monotony that has been arisen from the globalization (Kostulska, Holowiecka, & Kwiatkowski, 2011). However, the movement aims to provide quality living by using the technology, to provide income justice by supporting local economy and to preserve natural environment and historic values and to execute urban design and planning (Yurtseven, Kaya, & Harman, 2010; Miele, 2008).

Cittaslow movement that has been originated in Italy aiming the goals mentioned above, now has 208 members in 30 countries. While Italy is being in the first place the movement has member countries such as Germany, United Kingdom, Spain, Poland, Australia and New Zealand and outside of the Europe, Australia, New Zealand, China, Korea and South Africa. Within this context, cittaslow movement can be considered as a successful network that enables little cities to benefit from this international connection. (cittaslowturkiye.org/cittaslow/; Ergüven, 2011)

3. Slow City Criteria

In order to ensure preservation of the traditions and customs, foods and historical identities of the cities, Cittaslow Association was established in Oriveto in the year 1999. Various criteria have been stated for the cities with the population less than 50.000 in order to enable them to take action in accordance with the cittaslow philosophy (Baldemir, Kaya, & Şahin, 2014). Aforementioned criteria are based on the principle of “festina lente” principle which is one of the essential ideas of the renaissance period. Festina lente means that becoming aware while living fast and being able to slowing it down and fastening up when it is necessary in order to establish a balance in between (Sungur, 2013).

Said criteria can be summed under relevant project titles and slow city identity, awareness, hospitality, preservation of the local production, facilities and technologies for the urban life quality, infrastructure and environment. In accordance with the subject of this study, criteria shall not be evaluated in detail but in general.

Within the context of the environmental policies; in order to become a cittaslow; cities shall attach importance to recycling and reuse technics and relevant responsibilities and shall also adopt policies in order to preserve the texture of the city and the environment (Bilgi, 2013). Within the environmental policies, preservation of the soil, water and air quality, waste management, prohibition on usage of the products with the modified genetics, issuing regulations in order to noise and light pollution. If we evaluate the criteria articles, then we are safe to say that cittaslow movement is based on the preservation of the environment and ensuring sustainability. Also, the following can be considered as a key factor; if the environment is healthy, then people are living in this environment has increased life quality.

Within the context of infrastructure policies; in order to preserve the urban texture, planning regarding the preservation of the cultural and historical values shall be executed and the city shall be designed appropriate for the disabled and old people and projects regarding degenerating urban areas shall be executed (cittaslowturkiye.org/uyelik). In this criteria, preservation of the city with regards to sustainability and the restoration is underlined. However, the importance of disabled and old people has been called into attention.

Within the context of development of technologies for the urban quality, bio architecture has been considered important and promotion of homeworking electronically and establishing connection network based on internet between municipalities and citizens. Within the context of preservation of the local products; development of the organic farming, continuing local and traditional production methods and determining the local products and providing support for its commercialization is foreseen (Sungur, 2013). Essential point on this subject is to remind cittaslow is not only against the technology but also supports it.

Within the context of the hospitality; preparing studies regarding the tourist information and the qualified

hospitality, making access to services and information regarding activities that have been put into calendar easier and prepare slow route of the city. In order to fulfill the awareness criteria, before starting the cittaslow process, local officials shall submit the necessary information to the local public and to create programs regarding slow city and slow food operations.

When we evaluate these criteria in general; It is not possible to not to agree Knox and Mayer's (2006) opinions regarding local economy, social and cultural differences are essential components with regards to importance slow food and slow city movement regarding the resources and environmental quality.

In order to being a member to Association, cities are required to develop programs and projects in accordance with these criteria. After the evaluation of the projects that cities have been executed, cities that are graded 70 points and above can be members of the Association (cittaslowturkiye.org/uyelik). After completing the membership process, cities shall be required to renew their certificates about their continuation of the urban life quality and the preservation of the values that the cities own in every four years (Tosun, 2013). This requirement is essential in order to provide sustainability and the development.

4. Cittaslow Movement in Turkey

There are eleven districts that have been granted the title of cittaslow. First slow city of Turkey was Seferihisar in the year 2009 and the Cittaslow Local Network was established in Turkey. Then, Akyaka (Muğla), Taraklı (Sakarya), Yenipazar (Aydın), Yalvaç (Isparta), Vize (Kırklareli), Perşembe (Ordu), Halfeti (Şanlıurfa), Gökçeada (Çanakkale), Şavşat (Artvin), Uzundere (Erzurum) joined the cittaslow network. (cittaslowturkiye.org)

All required coordination activities regarding cittaslow are being executed by the Seferihisar Municipality. Seferihisar is a member of the "Cittaslow Executive Board. Major of the Seferihisar also executes the Vice President duty of the International Coordination Committee (Sırım, 2012). Göynük (Bolu) is an applicant district and under the evaluation.

5. Research

The aim of this research study is to investigate how the people who live in Gokceada consider the concept of slow city in terms of the sustainability of the city, how much the local people participate in the processes, what the benefits and the disadvantages of being a slow city are.

5.1 Method

Interview method was used in this research study. During the preparation of the questions for this research study, the research studies by Ozgen (2012) and Cosar (2013) were used. The present research study was carried out in the city center of Gokceada between 21/02/2016 and 22/02/2016. The interviews were lasted 20 to 40 minutes and the local people made assistance to the researcher.

5.2 Results

This research study was carried out on the basis of questions about four main topics. These topics are as follows:

- 1) Demographic characteristics of the local people
- 2) Evaluations of the local people about their lifestyles
- 3) Evaluations of the local people about the concept of slow city
- 4) Effects of Gokceada as a slow city on life quality

5.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Local People

13 people who were interviewed were from different groups of occupations, 9 of them being males, and 4 of them being females. When it comes to educational status, 5 of the participants had a bachelor's degree, 4 of them were high school graduates, and 3 of them were elementary school graduates. The age range of the participants was between 21 and 85. Durations of residence in Gokceada were between 2 and 85. 7 of the participants were born in different places, and they came to Gokceada for occupational or educational reasons. 4 of the participants were born in different counties of Canakkale, and only 2 participants were born in Gokceada. The group of participants was heterogeneous in terms of the demographic characteristics.

Table 1. Profile of the local people

Item Number	Age	Educational Status	Occupation	Years of Residence
1	52	High School	Civil Servant	52
2	68	Elementary School	Retired	30
3	50	High School	Tradesman	24
4	52	Bachelor's Degree	Tradesman (Soap Manufacturing)	30
5	85	Elementary School	Retired	85
6	45	High School	Tourism Professional	30
7	37	High School	Tradesman (Olive Oil Sales)	8
8	42	Associate Degree	Accountant	30
9	23	Bachelor's Degree	Waiter	17
10	43	Elementary School	Waiter	23
11	34	Bachelor's Degree	Archaeologist	16
12	38	Bachelor's Degree	Attorney	33
13	21	Bachelor's Degree	Student	2

5.2.2 Evaluations of the Local People about Their Lifestyles

The participants were asked how they spent their daily life in Gokceada. 6 of the participants said that they went to seaside in order to walk around. 2 of the participants said that they read a book, and 5 of the participants said that they spent time chatting with their friends.

The participants were asked how they would spend their daily life provided that they lived outside Gokceada. 2 of the participants said that living in Gokceada was special, and they would be unhappy if they lived in another city. 1 participant stated that s/he wanted to live away from people and chaos. The participants aged between 20 and 40 pointed out that they would be more socialized.

The participants were asked what living in Gokceada meant to them. 8 participants said that it meant peace to them. In addition, they mentioned calmness, health and happiness. 2 participants said that it meant privilege to them, and 1 participant said that it meant life itself. 2 participants in the age group of 20 said that it just meant obligation, and nothing else.

When the participants were asked where and how they got their food, 10 participants said that they grew their own food, and 3 participants said that they bought food at a supermarket. When the participants were asked how they traveled, 8 participants said that they walked, 5 participants said that they drove a car, or rode a motorbike.

5.2.3 Evaluations about the Slow City

In this part, the participants were firstly asked if they knew that Gokceada was a slow city. 10 participants pointed out that they knew about the concept of slow city. The remaining 3 participants said that they did not know what the concept of slow city was. Therefore, the questions about the evaluations of slow city were asked to those 10 participants. These 10 participants were firstly asked how they defined the concept of slow city. 1 participant defined it as "a place where one can stay quiet that is free of human chaos and traffic jam". 1 participant defined it as "transferring the existing culture of the society to the future generations". 3 participants defined it as calmness and naturalness, 1 participant defined it as a happy city, and 1 participant defined it as a properly sustainable city. 1 participant defined it as a snail which is the symbol of a slow city, and 1 participant defined the concept of slow city same as regular development.

When the participants were asked what the main problems were in Gokceada, the answers were about transportation, healthcare, unplanned urbanization and underdevelopment of fishing. The people who participated in this research study stated that it was an important problem that the island only had water transportation. In addition to these, the participants emphasized that the passive airport must be activated. The participants also drew attention to the importance of the transportation problem in terms of emergency healthcare.

When the participants were asked what were done in Gokceada after it became a slow city, 1 participant said that

infrastructure work was focused on. This participant, who had been living there for 24 years and who was a tradesman, said that some enterprises were established for organic production, and advertising activities were emphasized for the organic honey. 2 participants said that the slow city concept was only of a name plate, and there were no significant activities being conducted in the city. 1 participant mentioned the increase in the number of houses, and 5 participants stated that there were no remarkable activities being conducted in the city.

The participants were also asked what should be done in the slow city of Gokceada according to them. The civil servant participant, who had been living in Gokceada since s/he was born, emphasized that activities must be done for organic agriculture and organic tourism. S/he also stated that healthcare campuses and sanatorium hospitals could be built because of the fresh air in Gokceada. 2 participants emphasized the olive cultivation and said that goat raising must be prohibited in olive groves. Most of the participants pointed out that awareness about tourism must be improved, and social reinforcement areas (parks, cinemas) must be built. 1 participant said that “culture and values of the society must be preserved, and differences must be emphasized”.

When the participants were asked what problems appeared after Gokceada became a slow city, 6 participants said that there were not any problems that appeared after Gokceada became a slow city. 1 participant said that noise pollution emerged and the natural beauty was spoiled. 1 participant said that building increased, 1 participant said that the number of tourists increased, and 1 participant said that s/he had no idea.

5.2.4 Effects of Gokceada as a Slow City on Life Quality

In this part, the people who participated in this research study were firstly asked how they evaluated Gokceada being a slow city in terms of life quality. Only 2 participants said that they viewed it as negative while most of them, 7 participants, said that they viewed it as positive. 1 participant said that he had no ideas.

The point that was viewed as the most important problem by the negative-viewing participants was the population increase. These participants stated that building increased due to this population increase.

The statement of one of the positive-viewing participants is as follows: “Work has been done about the coalfields in terms of environment. The number of foreign tourists and the number of domestic tourists of high segment increased. An ambulance helicopter was obtained for the emergency cases. Natural spring water has been transported to the city and it is now used as spring water.”

1 positive-viewing participant said that sensitivity about using the natural sources increased. S/he pointed out that the local people reacted to the project plan about the harbour wastes, and it was prevented.

The benefits which were considered in common by the positive-viewing participants were the increase in trades and the improvement in tourism. In addition, it was stated that local production was supported, and that agriculture and stockbreeding increased.

When the media preferences of the participants were evaluated, it was seen that 4 participants read the local and national newspapers. 6 participants were seen to follow the national newspapers. All of the participants were found to watch television and use the Internet every day. Only two participants were found to listen to radio.

6. Conclusion

Gokceada obtained the title of slow city in year 2011. This research study was carried out in order to determine how the people of Gokceada perceived the slow city. When the results which were obtained from this research study were examined, it was found that it was important to most of the participants to live in Gokceada. Living in Gokceada makes them happy so they generally described Gokceada as a place that gave peace to them. In addition, the participants were seen to have lifestyles that were conforming to the criteria of the slow city in terms of production and transportation. Most of the participants were found to be able to define the concept of slow city as specific to the philosophy of the act. We evaluated the findings of the research for using technology, all participants use mass media and internet.

In conclusion, it is possible to state that most of the participants viewed the concept of slow city as positive. They were found to think that the slow city act was beneficial to their life quality. On the other hand, they were seen to emphasize what to be done in order to get more benefits from the slow city act both for the city and the local people. They evaluated two main problems as health and transportation from outside Gokceada. The two problems should be solved with local governors and local people for sustainable cittaslow of Gokceada. The local governors should participation of local people in period of making decisions so, the decisions can be implanted easily.

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