

Peer-reviewed academic journal

**Innovative Issues and Approaches in
Social Sciences**

IIASS – VOL. 12, NO. 1, JANUARY 2019

Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences

IIASS is a double blind peer review academic journal published 3 times yearly (January, May, September) covering different social sciences: political science, sociology, economy, public administration, law, management, communication science, psychology and education.

| 2

IIASS has started as a Sldip – Slovenian Association for Innovative Political Science journal and is being published by ERUDIO Center for Higher Education.

Typeset

This journal was typeset in 11 pt. Arial, Italic, Bold, and Bold Italic; the headlines were typeset in 14 pt. Arial, Bold

Abstracting and Indexing services

COBISS, International Political Science Abstracts, CSA Worldwide Political Science Abstracts, CSA Sociological Abstracts, PAIS International, DOAJ, Google scholar.

Publication Data:

ERUDIO Education Center

Innovative issues and approaches in social sciences, 2019,
vol. 12, no. 1

ISSN 1855-0541

Additional information: www.iiass.com

Editor in Chief: Andrej Kovacic, assoc. prof. Faculty of Media
editor@iiass.com

Editors:

Matjaz Skabar, prof. Dean of the ERUDIO Center for Higher
editor@iiass.com

Uros Pinteric, prof. Faculty of Social Sciences, University of SS. Cyril
and Methodius Trnava (Slovakia) uros.pinteric@gmail.com

Editorial board:

Ph.D. Daniel Klimovský - Technical university of Košice (Slovakia)
daniel.klimovski@tuke.sk

Ph.D. Michaela Batorova - University of Tampere (Finland)
michaela.batorova@gmail.com

Ph.D. Aleksandra Tabaj - University Rehabilitation Institute - Republic of
Slovenia (Slovenia) - aleksandra.tabaj@ir-rs.si

Ph.D. Diana Camelialancu - National School of Politics and Public
Administration Bucharest (Hungary) - dcinacu@snsa.ro

Ph.Dr. Viera Žuborová - University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
(Slovakia) - viera.zuborova@ucm.sk

Ph. D. Dejan Jelovac - School of Advanced Social Studies (Slovenia) -
dejan.jelovac@gmail.com

Ph. D. Inez Zsófia Koller, - University of Pécs (Hungary) -
koller.inez@feek.pte.hu

Ph.D. Katarzyna Radzik Maruszak - University of Marie Curie
Skłodowska Lublin (Poland) - katarzyna.radzik@poczta.umcs.lublin.pl

Ph.Dr. Jaroslav Mihalik - University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
(Slovakia) - jaroslav.mihalik@ucm.sk

M.A. Simon Delakorda - Institute for Electronic Participation (Slovenia)
simon.delakorda@inepa.si

Ph.D. Sandra Jednak - University of Belgrade (Serbia)
sandra.jednak@fon.rs

Ph.D. Piotr Sitniewski - Bialystok School of Public Administration
(Poland) - psitniewski@wsap.edu.pl

Ph.D. Uroš Pinterič - Faculty of Social Sciences, University of SS. Cyril
and Methodius Trnava (Slovakia) uros.pinteric@gmail.com

Ph.D. Aleksandar Marković - University of Belgrade (Serbia) aca@fon.rs

Language editor: M.A. Tanja Kovacic

Contents

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING PROMOTION IN SMALL AND MICRO ENTERPRISES: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN INTENTIONS AND ACTUAL BEHAVIOUR

| 4

Mateja Rek, Nina Gorjup 6

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT YEARS OF STUDY OF TWO COURSES OF STUDY AT THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION IN LJUBLJANA

Tomaž Vec, Tanja Rupnik Vec 26

THE INFLUENCE OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE WITH REWARDS SEPARATION AS MODERATING VARIABLE

Khoirul Khuluq, Richie Wijaya 50

WHY IN VARIOUS PARTY AND MOVING TO OTHER POLITICS PARTIES: A CASE STUDY OF CHINESE ETHNIC IN INDONESIA, NORTH SUMATRA PROVINCE

Rudi Salam Sinaga, Y.Warella, Yuwanto, Budi Setiyono 70

**EXPLORING PUBLIC INTEREST ABOUT BLOCKCHAIN AND
RECRUITMENT: EVIDENCE FROM USING GOOGLE TRENDS**

Anita Maharani

87

| 5

**BEHIND SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL OVERSEAS
MIGRATION: WHAT MATTERS? A CASE STUDY OF
BANGLADESH**

Moumita Paul, Khurshed Alam, Md. Shahidul Islam

99

**RISKY SEXUAL BEHAVIOR AMONG IN-SCHOOL YOUTHS:
THE INFLUENCE OF PORNOGRAPHY USE AND SOCIO-
ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS ON STUDENTS IN ASSOSA,
WESTERN ETHIOPIA**

Zenaw Alem, Amanti Baru, Nega Jibat

121

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING PROMOTION IN SMALL AND MICRO ENTERPRISES: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN INTENTIONS AND ACTUAL BEHAVIOUR

Mateja Rek¹, Nina Gorjup²

Abstract

The research outlines the features of promotional practices in micro and small enterprises and does not group the smallest enterprises into often used broader category together with medium enterprises, as we show that there are significant differences between smaller and medium enterprises related to planning and implementing of promotion activities. We analyse the attitude of decision-makers in small and micro enterprises towards promotion, their intentions in the field and the way planning and implementation of promotional activities are being realized. Conclusions rely on quantitative survey that we conducted in 2015 on sample of 441 small and micro enterprises in Slovenia and additional semi-structured interviews that were conducted with decision-makers in 17 small and micro businesses.

Key words: small and micro enterprises, promotion, marketing, attitudes, planning, promotional tools

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art1>

Introduction

Small and micro enterprises (SMIE) are both globally and locally numerically by far the most powerful economic group and, therefore, generally recognized as the most important force in the global economy. In Slovenia, where our research took place, small and micro-enterprises represent 98.8% of Slovenian economy (Statistical Office RS, 2013). Due to their small size, they are more vulnerable and their performance is limited compared to larger enterprises, yet, they can be more flexible, able to respond quickly to new business opportunities and timely transform innovative ideas into marketable new products and services.

¹ Assoc. prof. dr. Mateja Rek is Dean at School of Advances Social Studies and associate researcher at Faculty of Media, Ljubljana, Slovenia.

² Nina Gorjup PhD is Direktor of Corporate Communication Department, TPV Group, Novo Mesto, Slovenia.

In a large part of scientific literature on marketing analysis, small and micro enterprises are grouped within a broader category of small-and medium-sized enterprises. In our research, we focus merely on small and micro enterprises for various reasons. Firstly, in Slovenian economy, the latter dominate by large. Secondly, we believe that there are significant differences in relation to the possibilities of organization and implementation of promotion activities between medium-sized enterprises and small and micro enterprises. With medium-sized companies there is a much higher occurrence of specialized professional workforce in the field of marketing and marketing departments, being a part of companies' organisational structure, ensure staff that deals mainly or solely with this business function. In this respect, they are more similar to large than small businesses because marketing in small and micro enterprises is often only one of many tasks performed by the owner/the managing director.

Marketing mix in a large company may be in its essence the same as in a small one – similar to large companies also small-sized companies usually use all of the elements of a classical marketing mix, even though they often do not reflect on it. In large companies, marketing is more complex, but unlike in small businesses, the significant advantage of large companies is that they usually have an available and skilled team, sufficient resources to be able to hire an external creative agency or sufficient resources for communication via mass media. Managers dealing with marketing activities in a small company have significantly different starting position as a marketing managing director of a large company. His/her operations often cannot follow the conventional marketing principles and approaches, so he/she has to be innovative, find alternatives and adopt conventional marketing frameworks to the specific situation of his/her company (O'Dwyer, Gilmor and Carson, 2009; Gilmore 2011; Gross, Carson and Jones, 2014).

This article focuses on promotion as a part of marketing mix, referring to the set of activities which communicate the product, brand or service to the customers with an aim to inform them about the enterprise and its offerings. It can include activities such as advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, public relations or direct marketing. Promotional activities of small and micro businesses are usually more informal, unstructured, sales-oriented, spontaneous and short-termed (see for instance Khattab, 2013; O'Donnell, 2014; Walsh and Lipinski, 2009). In the daily struggle for survival and growth the field of promotion is often not given sufficient attention. Investments in marketing may also be perceived as an unnecessary expense. With this, companies are losing

business opportunities that greater focus and professionalization of this segment can bring.

The main purpose of this research is to explore: a) the attitude of decision-makers regarding promotion activities in SMIEs (small and micro enterprises) and b) how promotional practices in SMIEs are currently being realized in Slovenia. Conclusions rely on our own quantitative survey that was conducted in 2015 on the national representative sample of 441 SMIEs in Slovenia and additional semi-structured interviews that were conducted with decision-makers in 17 SMIEs.

Numbers are not the only determining factors that distinguish small and large enterprises

To define SMIE (small and micro enterprises) we used the definition of small-, medium- and micro-sized enterprises in the EU recommendation 2003/361 (EC, 2003). The main factors of classification are: 1) staff headcount and 2) either turnover or balance sheet total.

Table 1: Classification of small-, medium- and micro- sized enterprises

Company category	Staff headcount	Turnover	or	Balance sheet total
Medium-sized	< 250	≤ € 50 m		≤ € 43 m
Small	< 50	≤ € 10 m		≤ € 10 m
Micro	< 10	≤ € 2 m		≤ € 2 m

Source: EU recommendation 2003/361(EC, 2003).

A literature review reveals that many authors (see for example Gilmore, Carson and Grant 2001; Fillis, 2002; Carson, 2003; Gilmore, 2011; Parrott, Room and Holiman, 2010; O’Cass, 2012; Franco et al., 2014; Londhe, 2014; Katona, 2014; Beneke et al., 2016) agree that marketing of small businesses is marked by certain common characteristics that distinguish them from large organizations. However, this does not mean that SMIEs practice the same kind of marketing (Reijonen, 2010). Their advantages can be flexibility and ability to adapt to the market situation faster, proximity to target market, lower overhead expenses, tighter direct relationship between employees and management etc. The obstacles to small and micro enterprises can be seen in limited financial resources, low market power, limited human resources and omnipresence of the owner/the managing director.

Marketing activities in smaller enterprises are more informal, unstructured, sales-oriented, spontaneous and short-termed. They are carried out intuitively and are often based on experience and knowledge of the owner/the managing director (Franco et al. 2014, Centeno, 2012).

He/she is usually torn between all aspects and processes in a company and is also the decision-maker when it comes to marketing activities, which are heavily influenced by his/her experience, limited skills and personal values (Carson, 1995). Owners/managing directors are the main drivers of personal sales, advertising and representatives for public relations. They are generalists who need to be able to undertake a full spectrum of business activities (Franco et al., 2014). However, most commonly a small business owner is an expert in one of technical areas and is often not specifically trained in marketing (Centano, 2012).

In SMIE, rather than on marketing, the focus is on sales and often these two concepts are seen as synonymous (Spicket-Jones and Teck-Yong, 2006; O'Dwyer 2009). One of the largest shortcomings of small businesses is their inability to attract and afford high-quality professional staff, which is especially characteristic for the field of marketing. In SMIEs, it is quite common that omnipresent owners/managing directors rely more than on strategic planning on their own feelings and impressions. Burdened with almost all the decision-making functions he/she is forced to act quickly and intuitively. Faced with numerous time constraints, he/she may focus more on solving current problems and neglect the long-term planning. Activities are usually short-term and based on owners' intuitive decisions, ideas and "common sense". The effect of marketing activities relies on continuous development of knowledge that develops based on actual experience with a particular use of marketing tools, the entrepreneurs obtain through learning by doing (O'Dwyer 2009). Formal tools of planning or systematizations of daily procedure are rarely used as they are often perceived as a lengthy, time-consuming and unnecessary activity.

Another common feature of SMIEs is a limited impact on the market. In comparison to large players they have incomparably fewer orders, fewer customers and fewer employees, so their impact in a sector or in a geographical area is very limited, which is reflected also in their abilities in marketing communication (Carson, 1989). Marketing budgets of large and small enterprises are mutually incomparable, therefore, it is not surprising that small businesses almost cannot afford advertising in traditional mass media such as television and the press or other support tools, which are important in the strategic planning and implementation of marketing – for example, research (as a key part in defining objectives and performance verification) or hiring high-quality creatives for the production of promotional messages (Franco et al., 2014).

As small businesses cannot compete on a basis of economics of scale, their competitive advantage heavily depends on the development of

innovative or specifically targeted products/services, which are processes that are very dependent on accurate information about the market and the consumer. In case of SMIEs, innovative approaches are needed in the area of marketing as creative, alternative and innovative marketing practice is also possible when there is a shortage of financial resources (O'Dwyer, 2009).

The featured characteristics of SMIEs affect processes of planning and implementation of marketing activities. Using survey methodology, we explored how these processes are being realized in SMIEs in Slovenia. Some companies seem to use marketing tools successfully in order to increase sales and in doing so they often rely on their own experiences, feelings and their own examples of good practice and good practice of others. In order to get further insights into these processes, we conducted semi-structured interviews with managers, responsible for marketing in some of the most successful small and micro firms in Slovenia.

Research Background and Methodology

In 2015, we conducted a survey on a national representative sample of 441 SMIEs in Slovenia. The target group in our study were the decision-makers in the field of marketing in small and micro enterprises in Slovenia. In the selection of the sample, the following selection criteria were set: a) the number of employees in the company is less than 50; b) the company has been active in the market for at least 5 years, which eliminates the companies that demonstrate high growth and different business focus in the initial phase of the existence. In doing so, we rely on recommendations of Gilmore, Carson and Grant (2001).

On 7. 1. 2015 there were 39,399 companies in Slovenia that met both criteria (AJPES). Based on such target population, the recommended optimal sample size of 381 companies was calculated. The database of web addresses for our sample population was provided by Agency of the Republic of Slovenia for Public Legal Records and Related Services (AJPES). After testing a questionnaire, an online survey was created. Invitations to the online questionnaire were sent via e-mail to 5,400 enterprises (every seventh company from the entire list of companies that match the criteria was chosen). 36.11% of addresses provided to us by AJPES proved to be invalid, which means that the questionnaire was delivered to 3,450 addresses. 441 responses were received (12.78% response rate), which is, considering that the questionnaire is quite long, satisfactory. Given that the realized sample of our survey, which included 441 companies that represent 1.12% of the population, exceeds the required sample size, which would provide a confidence

level of 95% with a 5% sampling error, for 15.75 % and given the sampling method used, we believe that the realized sample can be trusted without weighting.

Before the implementation of the survey, a pilot study was conducted, where our measuring instrument was tested. When designing our measurement instrument, we relied on Ajzen's idea (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen and Fishbain, 1980) that behavior depends on behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs. The statements used in the questionnaire refer to all three areas of beliefs. For measuring attitudes, we used the Likert (1-5) scale. Reliability was verified using Cronbach's α coefficient.

Survey Results

The respondents were the persons responsible for promotion in their SMIE. For most of them, this is only one of the functions they play in a company. They are also engaged in the management and performance of the company as a whole. 75.4% of the respondents responsible for marketing stated that they are also managing directors, 49.4% of them are also responsible for the organization of the work process, 49.2% of them for sales, 47% for marketing as a whole, 46% for finances and 42% for purchase. On average, the importance of promotion for their company is evaluated with $M = 3.8$ ($S.O. = 0.9$) on a 1–5 scale.

Most of the respondents are not formally educated or would consider themselves as experts in marketing as they come from a completely different professional field (40.3%). 36.4% have a formal degree in economics or marketing. 36.2% of the respondents stated that they were enrolled in trainings in the field of marketing. 53.2% attend education and trainings in the field of marketing more than once a year.

When being asked about their future intents in the field of promotion, the biggest share of respondents stated, that they intend to deal more with promotion in the future (58.9 %). 33.2% of the respondents agreed that promotion is one of the most important business functions, that visual elements of the promotion are very important (47.4%) and that active work on the promotion can increase revenue (42.8%).

Only 34.7% of respondents thought that they have enough of marketing knowledge to ensure quality promotion and 28.6% agreed with the statement that they have enough financial resources in their company to ensure quality promotion. Only 18.4% of the respondents agree with the statement that promotion is not a meaningful activity for their company.

Certain demographic characteristic of the decision-makers, such as age or education determines the attitude of the decision-makers to the role and the importance of promotion in their enterprise. T-tests show that younger and more educated respondents have a more positive attitude towards various aspects of promotion activities.

Also, the size of the enterprise does matter when it comes to promotion activities. Respondents from companies that have between 20 and 50 employees ($M = 3.4$) agreed more with the statement that the company has sufficient financial resources to ensure quality promotion, compared to companies with fewer employees ($M = 2.7$) ($F = 5.795$, $\alpha = 0.003$). The respondents from companies with more than 20 employees ($M = 3.4$) agree more with the statement that they have suitable staff that can carry out the promotion of high quality, while the respondents from companies with 11 to 20 employees ($M = 2,7$) ($F = 3,339$, $\alpha = 0,037$) agree least with this statement.

In most of Slovenian SMIEs, there is no plan of promotion and activities are not planned ahead. 63.8% respondents stated that they do not plan ahead, they decide on the spot, given the current situation. 27.6% of the respondents plan half a year in advance, and only 7. 4% have a one-year plan of promotional activities in place. As planning presupposes setting goals, the respondents were asked what their goals were to be achieved by the promotional tools they used in the last year. 80.9% of the SMIEs use promotional tools with an aim to increase sales by acquiring new customers and 47.2% to increase sales to the already existing customers (47.2%). 46.9% would like to increase the visibility of the company/product/services or build a strong companies image/brand (43%). The respondents who replied that their SMIE has promotional goals set were asked to assess the importance of these goals (on a scale 1–5). The goal of increasing sales was assessed as the most important goal ($M=4.5$). Even though almost a half of the SMIEs mentioned building a strong image or a brand as a goal of their activities in the last year, this goal was perceived as less important ($M=3.7$).

T-test points to the conclusion that the size and the revenue of the enterprise affect the goal setting in the field of promotion. The goal of increasing sales by attracting new customers was more frequently selected by enterprises that employ 11 to 20 workers (85.7%) and to a lesser extent by those with more than 20 employees (62.1%) ($\chi^2 = 7.440$, $\alpha = 0.024$). The goal of building a strong company's image or a brand was mostly selected by companies which have more than 20 employees (62.1%) and to a much lesser extent by companies with up to 10 employees (39.8%) ($\chi^2 = 7.838$, $\alpha = 0.020$). Companies that had a

profitable year chose market share increase as a goal more often (41%) compared to those, which operated at a loss (29.0%). The relationship between the two variables is statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 4.601$, $\alpha = 0.032$). Similarly, presenting new or improved products/services was more often set as a goal by profitable enterprises (42.9%) compared to those that were operating at a loss (31.5%) ($\chi^2 = 4.742$, $\alpha = 0.029$).

The respondents were also asked to assess their financial investment in promotion in relation to the goals they set. 51% responded that they invest as much as it is needed and 47% thought that they invest too little. Only 2% thought that they invest too much. The size of the enterprise does matter when it comes to allocating finances for promotional activities. Respondents from companies that have between 20 and 50 employees ($M = 3.4$) agreed more with the statement that the company has sufficient financial resources to ensure quality promotion, compared to companies with less employees ($M = 2.7$) ($F = 5.795$, $\alpha = 0.003$). Respondents from companies with more than 20 employees ($M = 3.4$) agree more with the statement that they have suitable staff that can carry out the promotion of high quality, while the respondents from companies with 11 to 20 employed ($M = 2.7$) ($F = 3.339$, $\alpha = 0.037$) agree less with this statement.

33.3% of the respondents expect for the effects of promotional activities to be visible in less than a month and 33.9% expect results in more than one month to half a year. A slightly smaller share of the respondents expects results in a period of six months to one year (25.6%). The share of those who expect results in a period longer than a year is small (7.2%).

Among the most commonly used promotion tools that SMIEs used to attract new customers or to communicate with the already existing customers in the last year are their own websites (79.0%), personal presentations to potential customers (72.7%) as well as recommendations and acquaintances (71.0%). Common is also sending direct mail (43.4%) and rumor prevalence (40.4%). Among the least used tools are advertising on TV (6.3%), blogs (4.4%), press conferences (3.8%) and promoting via SMS (3.3%). The respondents were given a list of 25 promotional tools and were asked to choose the ones that they used in the last year. On average, they used $M = 6.6$ promotion tools. 45.9% of respondents chose 5 tools and 54.1% of them used 6 or more promotional tools in the last year.

When being asked to assess the effectiveness of promotional tools they used, personal presentations to potential customers ($M=4.4$),

recommendations and acquaintances (M=4.4) and rumor prevalence (M=4.2) were listed as most effective. Listed as effective tools were also organization of events (M=3.8), location and marking location (M=3.7), networking (M=3.7), own web page (M=3.6) and direct mail (M=3.5). Advertising on TV was assessed as quite effective (M=3.4) even though it has been used by only 6.3% of SMIEs in the last year. Advertising on TV was assessed as more effective in companies that had profit (M=4.1) compared to companies that made loss (M=3.1). The differences were statistically significant ($t = -2.184, \alpha = 0.041$).

When being specifically asked which online tools they use, the respondents mostly answered that they use their own website (85.4%), e-mailing (58.6%) and Facebook (46.8%). For all other options (Linkedin, forums, mobile apps, Twitter, blogs, other), they mostly responded that they do not use them and are not even thinking about using them. When assessing the effectiveness of the online tools they used for promotional purposes, their own website was assessed as most effective (M = 4.2) and followed by e-mailing (M = 3.4). As the least useful mobile applications (M = 2.4), blogging (M = 2.3), and Twitter (M = 2.1) were assessed. The average effectiveness of the online tools was M = 2.7 (a scale of 1–5).

Planning and Implementation of Promotion Practices in Successful Small and Micro Businesses

In order to get further insights and additional explanations on planning and implementation of promotion practices in Slovenian SMIEs, 17 semi-structured interviews with decision-makers in selected enterprises were conducted. Non-probability sampling technique was used to form a selective homogenous sample, so the research results from this study cannot be generalized, as this is usual in qualitative research. The sample was limited to small and micro companies (the number of employees is fewer than 50) that have been active in the market for at least 5 years and are the examples of good business practice as we wanted to learn the features of planning and implementation of promotion in SMIEs in “best business case scenarios in Slovenia” in order to estimate not just the average numerical values that we learned from the quantitative survey, but also to be able to see whether best practices of promotion SMIEs in Slovenia deviate or share certain characteristics with the way promotional practices in SMIEs in Slovenia are currently being realized. Interviewees were chosen from a list of nominees for Slovene Business Gazette 2014, which is a ranking of the fastest growing small and medium businesses.

Structured interviews were conducted in 2015 in 17 enterprises. 5 of them can be classified as small, 12 are micro enterprises. The interviewee was a person responsible for marketing or promotion. In most cases (14 respondents) this was the owner/the managing director. Only in 3 companies the respondent was a marketing manager. In order to obtain the most variegated results, companies from different geographical regions and industries were chosen. All of them are “major players” in their respective industries.

Interviewees were persons responsible for promotion in SMIEs. Only four of them had formal education tied to economy or promotion. Other interviewees obtained their degree in natural sciences or finished high school education, which is not related to either economy or marketing.

Most of the interviewees are torn between (all) of the company's work tasks and activities. They perceive such a situation as a normal way of organizing in the case of micro and small enterprises. Many also stressed, that it is crucial for small businesses that the managing director/the owner knows and masters all of the operating segments of the enterprise. All of the interviewees perceived promotional activities as vital to the overall prosperity of their company. If promotional activities are abandoned, this affects other activities of the company and business performance. Therefore, promotional activities are carried out continuously in order to develop and maintain a sustainable and trustworthy relationship with customers. Eleven of seventeen interviewees estimated that the current promotional arrangements meet the needs of their company. When being asked what kind of barriers they face when organizing promotion, the majority listed time constraints, a lack of knowledge, staff and finances.

When implementing promotion activities, all of them use, at least to a certain extent, the assistance of external experts. In most cases, they need help from photographers and designers to prepare leaflets, POS materials or corporate image. They also outsource programming for creating and updating of websites and in fewer cases also editing content on the website and social networks. They rarely use outside help in developing promotional strategies or planning promotion activities. Most of the interviewees expressed doubts about contributions an outside expert on marketing could make. They expressed confidence in their own skills (although, at the same time, they do recognize the lack of internal knowledge on marketing) and believe that this obstacle can be better managed by constant (self)education.

Planning Promotional Activities

Using quantitative methods, it was established that SMIEs generally do not plan promotional activities in advance (63.7% decide on the spot, given the current situation). Only 7.4% plan promotional activities 6 to 12 months in advance. Qualitative research showed that successful SMIEs are among the smaller share of respondents, as most of the interviewees stated that they create at least a rough plan for promotional activities for 6 to 12 months in advance. When being asked what exactly they plan for in the field of promotion, for the most part they plan in terms of financial allocation of resources throughout the year and the use of certain communication channels. None of the respondents mentioned any other substantive elements of the plan, such as communication objectives they would like to achieve or the definition of the planned activities by target groups and the like. When planning for promotion, even best SMIEs are mainly only focused on allocating the budget between the tools of promotion. The promotion activities are planned to a very small extent. Promotion activities or well-established promotional activities, that have been in use in previous years, are more likely to be planned for in more detail, as they have documented and evaluated the way they have been implemented in the past. Most often, such documentation contains the amount of funding intended for certain promotional activities. The amount of funding that successful SMIEs devote to promotion is being determined in two ways: 1) determining a certain percentage of total revenue; 2) real-time decision making, depending on the current needs and capabilities. All of the interviewees were explaining that the situation and the conditions on the market are continuously changing and, in order to maximize agility, annual plans of operation are subjects to ongoing corrections. As a result, promotional activities are implemented very spontaneously and continuously adapt to current ideas or requirements of a specific moment. As a consistent communication plan is missing, the SMIEs are also unable to facilitate the synergistic effects of using multiple, well-coordinated promotional tools.

The fact that the SMIEs mostly do not have comprehensive, formally written marketing plans can also be a hindering element in sharing information and knowledge within the organization. Some of the owners/the managing directors stated that they have the elements of the communication plan "in their head". However, this can cause problems in transferring information to other employees who are also involved in broader aspects of the implementation of the promotion or subcontractors. One of the advantages of formally written plans, goals, tactics meant to attain goals and ways to evaluate them is the ability to involve more people in promotional processes, coming from both the

internal and external environment of the company (Arens, 2006; Stevens et al., 2013). In the absence of formally written documentation, most of promotional activities are coordinated according to real-time verbal agreement and the communication about their implementation lacks a wider context and is fragmented. If SMIEs do not have plans in the form of formal documentation, a greater efficiency and the integration of promotional activities is inhibited.

Setting Goals

Successful SMIEs are very similar to general population of SMIEs in subordinating promotional goals to sales targets. Promotion is mostly seen as a quick way to better sales results and promotional as well as broader marketing activities are mostly designed as tactics to attract new customers or to increase the volume of business and sales. Long-term positioning, building or consolidating the image is not a priority.

Setting goals in promotion depends on the familiarity with the use of certain promotional activity. Planning and outcomes of activities that have already been used or have been used for many years are well known. In such cases, objectives are easier to be defined. When new activities are being introduced, planning and setting goals is more intuitive and determined approximately. Interviewee 2 described this situation with the following words: "It is easy to set goals in case of the media we know. When we go to the fair, we know how much has been done in the past and set the sales goals at approximately similar level /.../ The more often a certain activity has been used, the more we know how it works, the more we can, based on our experience, set quality goals, that we wish for." Common are also the statements like: "We do not have a precise number. What happens, happens" (Interviewee 5) or "For promotion, unfortunately, we do not have precise goals set. We would like to do this, but this is again much work and one must take time for it" (Interviewee 6).

The decision-makers in successful SMIEs are trying their best when it comes to promotional activities, but often they themselves are not aware of various options of promoting or are not acquainted with possible further improvements of activities and tools they already use. They are very quickly satisfied already with the basic promotional options, even though there are still numerous possibilities for optimization of promotional mix.

Channels and Promotional Tools

When selecting promotional tools, the most listed criterion for selection was the degree to which effectiveness of promotion can be easily measured, which, in the eyes of the respondents, is directly related to sales and financial advantages. Most common promotional tools are the ones that give directly observable sales results, for instance personal selling, where “you can see clearly whether communication was successful or not” (Interviewee 7). When the owner/ the managing director devotes much of their time to promotion, their focus is mainly targeted at personal presentation to potential customers.

In many types of marketing communications, the effect is not immediately and directly visible and SMIEs are reluctant to use them. Such tools of promotion, where there is no direct, easily observable connection with sales, are neglected even in successful small and micro businesses. They do not trust them and do not devote much time to them. On the other hand, tools, where the effect is easily measured and quickly noticed, are trusted to a much greater extent (in addition to the already mentioned personal sales, AdWords were also highlighted as an example of a transparent tool of promotion, where advertising space is being paid per click which is perceived as an easily observable effect). Promotional tools that work in the long run or in conjunction with other elements are left aside.

Promotional tools that the decision-makers in successful SMIEs frequently used can be divided into three groups. The first group includes all promotional assets relating to the maintenance or strengthening of contacts/links between the SMIE and (potential)business customers, based on direct contact and personal communication, such as: personal presentations, recommendations, seminars, symposia, conferences, events, fairs, merchandising. Fairs are seen primarily as a means to keep in contact with end buyers or brokers and business partners. “The main channel for us is a personal contact with customers. That means attending fairs, even though this is a six thousand years old technology, very outdated, but for us fairs are still important, both in Slovenia and abroad” (Interviewee 2). Fairs are seen as a good way to network. “Every time I go, I meet some potential partners, which then recommend me to someone else” (Interviewee 5). Recommendation and personal presentations were among most commonly mentioned promotional tools used in the previous year. Personal presentation/sales have, according to interviewees, the following advantages: 1) if the customer buys the product they obtain immediate feedback on customers’ satisfaction; 2) it is possible to give immediate answers to the questions of potential buyers; 3) the

immediate perception of customer preferences can be perceived immediately; 4) information for further design development of the product can be obtained; 5) personalization of promotion.

The second groups consist of digital advertising media and includes promotional means like their own websites which are tailored to the needs of the company, brand or product, activities on social networks, lists of electronic client addresses and e-communication with them, Google AdWords etc. Interviewees noted that the use of promotional opportunities offered by the Internet is growing exponentially and the use of traditional means of advertising is in decline.

Many see the key purpose of digital advertising in maximizing the visibility of SMIEs on the Internet as “most people now are looking for information via the Internet” (Interviewee 6). Some respondents stated that online sales are a more “indirect” way of selling. They are trying to sell their products and services through writing and publishing tips, advice or stories. “We do not sell products only on web pages intended for promotion or sales /... / there are also covert web sites, where people come to Google because they have back pain. They get offered an advice and a free guide on how to get rid of back pain if they leave their e-mail address. This is how a database on people that have back pain compiles /... / If you write “your pain will stop” people will read the whole message, but if you write that you would like to sell something, they will ignore the message” (Interviewee 2). One of the reasons for the popularity of online promotion opportunities is also the low financial costs or as described respondent 11 “ /.../ these innovations – such as FB, LinkedIn and the like, do not cost a lot. The largest cost is your time”.

Even though the responded did acknowledge that management of online promotional activities offered by Digital Marketing are very complex and time-intensive, eleven interviewees manage online promotion completely on their own (except for programming their own websites). Only five of the respondents rely on assistance/advice of external experts/ suppliers or work with marketing agencies, particularly in the area of social networks.

The third group of promotional activities are “traditional forms of advertising” mainly referring to buying advertising space in traditional media (print media, TV, radio, bill boards). Most of the entrepreneurs interviewed are (increasingly) skeptical and distrusting towards these forms of promotions because: 1) it does not allow them to directly measure the effectiveness of promotions; 2) it is an excessive financial

burden; 3) it presents to them an inability to target very specific groups of consumers; 4) they are badly adjusted to contemporary promotion trends and (5) they perceive irresponsible attitude of traditional media to clients. Interviewee 2 describes the irresponsibility of traditional media in the following manner: "They say they have lots of readers /.../ wealthy readers. If you buy their advertising space, everybody will see you and the sales will grow etc. / ... / However, when after advertisement only three people respond and call, they do not assume any responsibility. They have excuses: maybe the timing was wrong, or our creativities were poor. Print media are by far the worst and therefore they are failing because they are not customized".

However, some interviewees did recognize the value of advertising in traditional media and linked them to promotional goals that are more long-termed and not just sales-oriented, like building a brand or certain image of the company or a product. Most interviewees generally stick to proven methods of promotion, which in the past proved to be effective, but they regularly try to upgrade them by constantly searching for new channels and opportunities. In doing so, they combine different tools to: 1) target different audiences and 2) search for and test new opportunities. Most of the respondents highlighted the continuity of change and the constant need to adapt to changing environment, which also applies to the field of promotion. Finding new ways of promoting was perceived as "an experiment, in which each year, carefully and with minimal financial inputs promotional novelties are tested" (Interviewee 6). Novelties usually refer to the use of modern technology and digital marketing, which allows for segregation of the key features of potential target groups and directly measure the effects of promotions to increase the sales of the company. However, a gap between thinking about possible online promotions and actual implementation was noticed as lack of time or knowledge are obstacles in implementing new promotional idea in SMIEs.

Discussion

We observed a very positive attitude as well as an intention of decision-makers in SMIEs in Slovenia to deal more with promotion as they see it as one of the most important business functions. However, positive attitude and behavioral intention (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen and Fishbain, 1980) do not correspond to their planning and implementation behavior. It looks like the factors that hinder the performance of promotional activities (behavioral control) are strong. Most commonly cited factor in both quantitative and qualitative research was the lack of time, which in practice often means that managing director/the owner who performs most of the business functions in an SMIE, has difficulties in finding time

to reflect on and implement promotion. Lack of time is also connected to lack of staff, lack of knowledge in the field of promotion and financial resources. Despite acknowledgments of these barriers, a recruitment of additional persons who would deal only with this field is not seen as necessary (it is not even considered that such an investment could pay off), nor is outsourcing of enterprises promotion to outside experts on marketing. A belief that these obstacles can be overcome by constant (self) education as well as through learning by doing, is widely present. Successful small businesses are not exceptions in that respect.

The size of the enterprise proved to be statistically associated with financial resources and suitable staff to ensure quality promotion. In case of micro enterprises, a lack of available financial resources and staff is inherent in all aspects of business, not only for promotion. Small companies can provide certain funds and develop specialized knowledge on marketing, but the capacity of micro enterprises to do so is lower and promotional activities are dependent on awareness, knowledge, experience and time availability of the owner/the managing director. Despite strong positive attitudes toward the field of promotion and a rather strong conviction that they are capable and able to manage promotional activities well by themselves, they may not be aware of all the potential that promotion can offer. They feel self-sufficient, believe that they are doing their best and, therefore, rarely seek “out of the box” activities from a wide range of marketing activities.

Fifteen years ago, Gilmorjeva, Carson and Grant (2001) observed that the promotional activities of small businesses are more informal, unstructured, sales-oriented, spontaneous and short-termed. Based on our research results, we can confirm that even after all this time this has not changed significantly. Important obstacles to small business are also their limited impact on the market and relatively small budgets intended for marketing, which in turn makes it impossible to advertise in traditional mass media, as well as perform other activities related to high costs (implementation of research, evaluation ...), which “small” enterprises cannot afford, irrespective of how important they are.

Among the most important promotional tools of small and micro enterprises are personal presentations, recommendations and acquaintances and word-of-mouth advertising. Personal contact is perceived as a powerful tool by the decision-makers on marketing in SMIEs since it enables personalization of communication, instant adjustment of supply based on feedback and maintaining long-term relationships with customers. SMIEs can also benefit from the use of online tools. There is a trend of replacing expensive traditional media

with new, possibly cheaper online alternatives (Danaher and Dagger 2013; Taiminen and Karjaluoto, 2015). Our research results show that there is still plenty of room for improvements in the use of online options for purposes of promotion. SMIEs are aware of the increasing importance of digital channels, websites, various online materials, social networks, keywords leasing etc., that can also be financially more accessible to them (compared to more traditional tools like TV or radio advertising). By using them, goals like building a strong company image or brand, which was set as a promotional goal by almost half of SMIEs in our survey, but in practice is not consistently carried out, might be easier to attain. Flexibility in marketing planning and ability to react quickly to market changes can be an advantage, but the lack of integrated planning can deprive SMIEs of possible synergic effects of their activities and can cause difficulties in evaluating them. Additional obstacle in evaluation is the very nature of planning in SMIEs, which is less systematic and more intuitive. Market research, which in theory provides an essential platform for planning, setting goals, knowing target groups etc. and could inform planning process, is virtually absent in SMIEs. None of the respondents mentioned market research not even as potentially useful, if it was available or accessible to them. It is not only problematic that research is not carried out or bought. What was surprising is that such external information or data, which may lead to more accurate positioning, planning and implementing of promotional activities in not even being missed. If lacking objective indicators and information from the external environment of the enterprise, they can uncritically trust their own, subjective judgment and knowledge, which may differ from market reality. This situation also affects setting of goals. Promotion goals in SMIEs are most commonly sales-oriented and promotion plans rarely go beyond planning the budget for promotion and selection of specific promotional tools, which are often selected based on the already existing experiences or intuition but are rarely informed by solid marketing data or knowledge on promotion. As objectives of promotion primarily focus on sales result, they can be set too widely. As they are not sufficiently concrete and specific, they cannot serve as a good strategic direction of planning communication activities.

Rapid and real-time planning processes with unclear goals can lead to sloppy evaluation, especially if only the effect on sales activities is checked and the possible reasons for failure or success of specific communication tool are not sought at all. If measurable communication goals are not specifically and clearly defined, also the evaluation of strategies, tactics and tools used depends more on the intuition and subjective perceptions and not objective, data-based feedback.

Our research shows that there is a significant gap between marketing theory and actual promotional practice in SMIEs. In a small country like Slovenia, where small- and micro-enterprises represent 98.8% of Slovenian economy, this calls for reflection whether a bigger share of research and also educational efforts should be aimed at understanding, informing and facilitating promotion needs and practices of SMIEs. Particularities of SMIEs promotion style, that were addressed in this article, are calling for consideration whether applications of scientific theories and models can adapt to the level of simplicity required by small and micro enterprises.

The aim of this research was to obtain an overall picture on promotion in small and micro enterprises in Slovenia. As not all SMIEs practice the same kind of marketing (Reijonen, 2010) and given the fact that numerous differences in marketing activities exist between B2B and B2C oriented businesses, further exploring of these could provide additional explanations about the underlying factors affecting promotional activities in SMIEs.

Bibliography

- Ajzen, Icek and Fishbein, Martin (1980): *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*, Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Ajzen, Icek (2005): *Attitudes, Personality and Behaviour*, New York, McGraw-Hill International.
- Beneke, Justin et. al (2016): The impact of market orientation and learning orientation on organisational performance: a study of small to medium sized enterprises in Cape Town, South Africa, *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, Vol.: 18 No.: 1, pp.: 90-108.
- Carson, David and Cromie, Staney (1989): Marketing planning in small enterprises: a model and some empirical evidence, *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol.: 5 No.: 1, pp.: 33–49.
- Carson, David, Audrey, Gilmor and Steve, Rocks (2004): SME marketing networking: a strategic approach, *Strategic Change*, Vol.: 13 No.: 7, pp.: 369–382.
- Centeno, Edger and Hart, Susan (2012): The use of communication activities in the development of small to medium-sized enterprise brands, *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol.: 30, No.: 2, pp.: 250–265.
- Danaher, Peter J. and Dagger, Tracy S. (2013): Comparing the relative effectiveness of advertising channels: a case study of a multimedia blitz campaign, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.: 50 No.: 4, pp.: 517–534.
- European Commission, (2003): “Smernice za opredelitev MSP”, available at: <file:///C:/Users/Mateja/Downloads/ET0115040SLN.pdf> (accessed 1. 6. 2016).
- Fillis, Ian (2002): Small firm marketing theory and practice: insights from the outside. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, Vol.: 4 No.: 2, pp.: 134-157.
- Franco, Mario et. al (2014): An exploratory study of entrepreneurial marketing in SMEs, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol.: 21, No.: 2, pp.: 265–283.
- Gillmore, Audrey, Carson, David and Grant, Ken (2001): SME marketing in practice, *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol.: 19 No.: 1, pp.: 6–11.
- Gillmore, Audrey (2011): Entrepreneurial marketing: is entrepreneurship the way forward for marketing?, *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, Vol.: 13 No.: 2, pp.: 137–145.
- Gross, Nicol, Carson, David, and Jones, Rosalind (2014): Beyond rhetoric: re-thinking entrepreneurial marketing from a practice perspective, *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, Vol.: 16 No.: 2, pp.: 105-127.

- Katona, Ferenc (2014): Examination of marketing activities of small businesses in Hungary, *On-line Journal Modelling the New Europe*, Vol.: 10, No.: 29.
- Khattab, Ishraga (2013): Microenterprises marketing problems and technology prospective, *International Journal of Business Information Systems*, Vol.: 12 No.: 3, pp.: 259–270.
- Londhe, Bhausheb R. (2014): Marketing mix for next generation marketing, *Procedia Economics and Finance*, Vol.: 11, pp.: 335-340.
- O`Cass, Aron, Liem, Viet Ngo and Siahtiri, Vida (2012): Examining the marketing planning-marketing capability interface and customer-centric performance in SMEs, *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol.: 20, No.: 6, pp.: 463–481.
- O`Donnell, Aodheen (2014): The contribution of networking to small firm marketing. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol.: 52, No.: 1, pp.: 164–187.
- O`Dwyer, Michele, Gilmore, Audrey and Carson, David (2009): Innovative marketing in SMEs. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol.: 43 No.: 1–2, pp.: 46–61.
- Parrott, Guy, Roomi, M. Azam and Holliman, David (2010): An analysis of marketing programmes adopted by regional small and medium-sized enterprises, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol.: 17 No.: 2, pp.: 184–203.
- Reijonen, Helen (2010): Do all SMEs practise same kind of marketing? *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol.: 17, No.: 2, pp.: 279-293.
- Spicket-Jones, Graham and Teck-Yong, Eng (2006): SMEs and the strategic context for communication, *Journal of Marketing Communications*, Vol.: 12 No.: 3, pp.: 225–243.
- Taiminen, Heini Maarit and Karjaluoto, Heikki (2015): The usage of digital marketing channels in SMEs, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol.: 22 No.: 4, pp.: 633-651.
- Walsh, Michael and Lipinski, John (2009): The role of the marketing function in small and medium sized enterprises, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol.:16, No.: 4, pp.: 569-585.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT YEARS OF STUDY OF TWO COURSES OF STUDY AT THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION IN LJUBLJANA

Tomaž Vec¹, Tanja Rupnik Vec²

Abstract

Critical thinking is recognized as one of the key professional competences. In our study, we wanted to research whether there were differences in critical thinking skills among the students entering the faculty, concerning some of their socioeconomic and educational characteristics, whether there were differences in critical thinking skills among students of two courses of study, as well as differences in critical thinking among the first-year and third-year students of each course of study, because the results could show the effects of courses of study on the ability of the graduates in this respect. Among the most important conclusions of the research we should emphasize that there were significant differences between the scores of the first-year students in relation to completed secondary school, that there were no differences in critical thinking among the first-year students of two courses of study, that these differences in the third-year students were significant, and that the first-year and third-year students of two courses of study practically showed no progress in critical thinking skills (except in one sub-test). Final conclusion would be that it would be necessary to introduce in study more specific content and different teaching styles, which would encourage critical thinking skills among students.

Keywords: critical thinking, skills, evaluation, study progress

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art2>

1 Tomaž Vec, PhD, psych.couns. is an Assistant Professor at the University of Ljubljana, the Faculty of Education Contact email address: tomaz.vec (at) pef.uni-lj.si

2 Tanja Rupnik Vec, PhD, spec. sup., is Head of Center for Quality and Research at the National Education Institute Slovenia. Contact email address: tanja.r.vec (at) gmail.com

Introduction

There seems to be no general agreement on the concept of critical thinking in sciences dealing with this topic (psychology, philosophy, pedagogy). There are a number of concepts with similarities and differences between them. O'Rourke (2005), classifies various concepts into two groups: a. critical thinking as an ability to analyse, evaluate and design arguments (this group includes mainly authors in the field of philosophy, e.g. Bowel & Kemp, 2002), and b. critical thinking defined in terms of skills, processes of thinking, procedures (e.g. Facione et al., 1990; Paul, Binker, Martin, Vetrano & Kreklau, 1989).

Moon (2008) distinguish different conceptions of critical thinking, "writers have used, consciously or not consciously in order to work with the complexities of critical thinking for the purpose in hand." (p. 35) Her work give the base for Rupnik Vec (2011) categorization of perspectives in the field:

Critical thinking as the ability to use the informal logic: a critical thinker is the person who skilfully formulates, analyses and evaluates both his own and others' arguments (e.g. Bowel & Kemp, 2002; Cottrell, 2011).

Critical thinking as the whole of emotional and motivational dispositions and cognitive skills: a critical thinker is the person who skilfully uses a range of cognitive skills (e.g. identifying problems, analysing assumptions, assessment in accordance with the criteria, etc.) at the same time, so he is characterized by a variety of emotional and motivational orientations (confidence in the intellect, intellectual honesty, courage and integrity, many perspectives, etc.) (e.g. Ennis, 1985; Facione et al., 1990; Halpern, 1996; Paul et al., 1989; Wade & Tavis 1996).

Critical thinking as the ability to use various thinking processes and cognitive strategies: a critical thinker is the person who skilfully uses a sequence of thinking processes and procedures, based on which he systematically analyses answers to the research questions (e.g. Pellegrino, 1995; Sternberg, 2001).

Critical thinking as the highest stage in the development of thinking: a critical thinker is the person who has reached the highest level in his mental development; he realizes that reality is contextually conditioned, and his reasoning and evaluation processes are based on probabilistic and contextually defined criteria (e.g. Kitchener, 2002; Kuhn, 2000).

Critical thinking as a social and reflective practice: a critical thinker is the person who actively participates in a democratic society, who raises awareness of injustice and actively opposes to it (e.g. Burbules & Berk, 2006; Giroux, 2006; Ten Dam & Volman, 2004).

Critical thinking as self-reflective practice: a critical thinker is the person who is able to constantly reflect on his own thinking, experience and behaviour in terms of the basic assumptions and values and is aware of the contextual conditionality of his own decisions and the tendency to cognitive delusions and prejudice, which he is trying to overcome (e.g., Brookfield, 1993; Levy, 1997).

Among the above-mentioned perspectives there are no clear dividing lines, resulting in many overlaps, but there are also differences in the aspect of thinking to which primary attention is given. Clear understanding of critical thinking has important implications for practical use, because it determines both the strategies of educational work at different levels of education and the approaches to monitoring and evaluation of the effects thereof (Ennis, 1985; Van Gelder, 2005).

In this paper, for the purpose of the research of the progress in critical thinking of female and male students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education, we understand critical thinking as the unity of cognitive skills and emotional and motivational dispositions of individuals.

Models of critical thinking skills

In the professional literature there are a variety of models of critical thinking skills, which vary in their complexity, from simple sets of skills (e.g. Wade, 1995; Starkey, 2004), to more complex, hierarchical models (e.g. Ennis, 1993; Paul et al., 1989).

One of the simplest models identifies eight critical thinking skills. Wade (1995) identifies: a. asking questions/constant questioning, b. defining a problem, c. examining evidences, d. analysing assumptions and biases, e. avoiding emotional reasoning, f. avoiding oversimplification, g. considering other interpretations and h. tolerating ambiguity. In addition to cognitive skills, the model also includes motivational and emotional characteristics of critical thinking (e, f and h).

An interesting, simple and useful model is Bonstingl's model (1996). The author classifies critical thinking skills into three major groups: a. identifying and clarifying a problem, b. assessing information, c. making decisions and solving problems. Identifying and clarifying a problem

means clear defining of problems, identifying facts contained in a piece of information, creation of quality questions, comparing and determining the relevance of information for a given context. Assessing information means distinguishing facts from opinions and conclusions, examining consistency, recognizing assumptions, distinguishing right from wrong images (e.g. stereotypes), recognizing propaganda, disorders and ideologies. Making decisions and solving problems means identifying causes and consequences, predicting consequences, identification of alternatives, showing reasonable assessment and making and examining conclusions.

There are other models as well, e.g. Facione et al. (1990), Marzano et al. (1988), Paul et al. (1989), Starkey (2004). Although the lists of basic skills are different, the most commonly cited are the following: identifying problems (problem identification, question formulation and / or research problem), judgement (to judge: information, relevance of problems, power of argument, etc.), distinguishing facts from opinions, and inferences/conclusions. This finding represents one of the starting points for the design of Critical Thinking Assessment Test in our study.

Critical thinking as one of the key competences of studying

According to numerous studies, critical thinking represents a key professional competence that should be included in undergraduate studies (Chabrak & Craig, 2013, Halx, Reybold, 2005 Niu, Behar-Horenstein, Garvan, 2013, C. Wilkin, 2017), so it seems to be one of the most important educational achievements with which the students would complete their studies (Holt, Young, Keetch & Larsen Mollner, 2015; Facione, 2015).

For this reason, in a number of higher education schools, critical thinking has been included in their curriculums and regarded as key competence that the students should acquire during the studies. Due to this widely accepted attitude, some authors have already recognized it as an implicit characteristic or even as a “mantra” of higher education (Halx, Reybold, 2005).

At the same time, Bartos and Banks (2016, p. 36) point out that critical thinking has a paradoxical status. On the one hand, it has been recognized as the most important group of skills, which should be achieved at the university level, on the other hand, it is often sidelined. A similar conclusion has been made by Moore (2013) and Wilkin (2017), who consider that critical learning should not be taught directly, but included in other teaching content. Bartos and Banks (2016) describe the model as Osmosis model, since it is expected that students will

absorb critical thinking on their own from a variety of teaching content, the same way as it happens with water osmosis, instead of being taught critical thinking directly. Consequently, it turns out that, although critical thinking can be learned (Cotrell, 2011; Facione, 2015; Halpern 1996), on the other hand, students often demonstrate poor critical thinking strategies (A. Heijltjes, T. Van Gog & Paas, 2014; Flores, Matkin, Burbach, Quinn & Harding, 2012). The above discussion encouraged us to examine the situation regarding explicitly required critical thinking skills and/or competences in the study of social pedagogy and pre-school education at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana.

Measurement of critical thinking skills

Research of critical thinking has been topical for nearly half a century. The authors have been studying a wide range of issues, from conceptual (e.g. what critical thinking is), through the phenomenological (e.g. the extent to which critical thinking is widespread in different populations) to the experimental issues (the extent to which critical thinking skills are general or contextually conditioned, how much they are transferable from one context to another, what the factors of the development of critical thinking skills are, etc.) In this paper, our aim is to research differences in critical thinking of students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education and to examine whether students make progress in critical thinking skills during the studies. Similar topics have been researched in few studies abroad (e.g. Chabrak & Craig, 2013; Çubukçu, 2006; Eigenberger, Sealmader, Jacobs & Shellady, 2001; Genc, 2008; Grosser & Lombard, 2008; Halx & Reybold, 2005; Niu , Behar-Horenstein & Garvan, 2013; Troff, 2005 by Wilkin, 2017). Various tests were used in these studies.

One of the tests of critical thinking skills, used in some of these studies, as well as in the study on the effectiveness of critical thinking in Slovenian teachers (Rupnik Vec, 2009), was the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal Test (1980). It consists of five sub-tests that measure critical thinking skills of an individual: reasoning, recognizing assumptions, deduction, interpretation and evaluation of arguments. Having taken this test for our model, we made some modifications and developed the critical thinking appraisal test for Slovenian students.

Research in the field of critical thinking

In the last twenty years there are different areas of research in the field of critical thinking, for example: Is critical thinking generic ability or is it discipline-specific ability? (Ikuneobe, 2001; Solon, 2007) How effective is explicit teaching of critical thinking (students know that they are learning to think) in comparison to implicit teaching of critical thinking

(tasks demand critical thinking but students are not aware of it)? (Solon, 2007; Zohar & Peled, 2008) How effective are different teaching methods in developing critical thinking of students? (Frijters, Ten Dam & Rijlarsdam, 2008; Ozturk, Muslu & Dicle, 2008) What are the differences in critical thinking between different groups of students (sex, age, study programs, socio-economic status etc.). (Cubukcu, 2006; Cheung, Rudowicz & KwanYue, 2002; Eigenberger, 2001; Genc, 2008; Grosser & Lombard, 2008). Some of the conclusions of these researches are used in interpretation of results in this study.

Research Objectives

The study period is a period of intensive development of knowledge and skills relevant to professional performance. One of the most important skills of professionals is the area of effective thinking, which is characterized by criticality and problem-solving skills. In this study, we have researched differences in critical thinking skills among the first-year and third-year students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana (future social pedagogues and preschool educators). At the same time, we were interested in differences in critical thinking skills among students entering the faculty with respect to certain socio-economic and educational characteristics. In this regard we set the following hypotheses:

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Among the achievements of the first-year students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana, being researched, in the sub-tests of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test and in the total test score, there are differences according to the achieved secondary school education, final school success and education of mother and father.

Hypothesis 2: Between the students of the two courses of study at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana, there are differences in critical thinking skills as well as in the general critical thinking ability.

Hypothesis 3: There are differences among the achievements of the first- and third-year students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana, being researched, in the sub-tests of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test and in the total test score.

Method

Participants

We used purposeful sampling. According to the objectives of the study, we included in the sample all first-year and third-year female and male students of preschool education and social pedagogy courses of study

at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana, who were present on the day of testing. Thus, our research involved the total of 100 students, as follows: 37 students (out of 63 enrolled) the first-year students (3 male, 34 female) of preschool education, aged 19-21
19 students (out of 39 enrolled) the first-year students of social pedagogy (all female), aged 19-20,
19 students (out of 51 enrolled) the third-year students of preschool education (1 male, 18 female), aged 20-23 and
25 students (out of 31 enrolled) the third-year students of social pedagogy (1 male, 24 female), aged 21-24.

Research instruments

For the purposes of the research, we have developed an instrument, namely Critical Thinking Assessment Test (CTAT). It consisted of five sub-tests that measure the following skills: identifying problems, recognizing assumptions, evaluating arguments, distinguishing facts, opinions, and conclusions and making conclusions. Each sub-test consisted of 15 issue tasks, and the candidate could reach from 0 to 15 points. The maximum score of the whole test was 75 points. The sub-tests construction followed to Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal test (1980), therefore, the test have the construct validity. The subtests in the CTAT are: Recognizing assumptions, Evaluating arguments, Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions and Making conclusions. The sub-test Identifying and defining problems were designed in accordance with Starkey (2004). Tasks in sub-tests of CTAT evoke some of the specific higher order thinking processes, which are in core of the critical thinking skills models (e.g. Ennis, 1985; Facione et. all, 1991; Halpern, 1996) Some authors (Watson and Glasser, 1980) claim that critical thinking tests should be content-free tests, namely they shouldn't presuppose any field-specific knowledge for the person to be able to complete the test tasks. So CTAT tasks differentiate from the WGCTA tasks according the content but inside the subtests they are of the same type.

Tasks of the sub-test Identifying problems require the ability to detecting or recognizing of the issues i.e. differentiation of the real issues from the imaginary issues, e.g. .: "Which of the following situations does not require a solution, i.e. in not a real problem: a. The children who were on a picnic where you took them, were dissatisfied because they were feeling bored. b. On the Internet, a picture of a child was found showing the child in an unfavourable light. "

Tasks of the sub-test Recognizing assumptions asses the ability to recognize the implicit premises that enable making a conclusion, e.g. .:

"The statement below is followed by an assumption. You should determine whether the assumption is contained in the statement or not. The statement: Long-term voluntary activities and voluntary contributions reduce the responsibility of the government in supporting vulnerable categories of population. Assumption: The government will invest in these areas less and less because non-governmental organizations will take care of them."

Tasks of the sub-test Evaluating arguments require distinguishing between weak and strong arguments, e.g. .: "The question below is followed by two arguments. Mark each one as either strong or weak. In the context of this test, consider each argument to be true. Make sure that your personal attitude regarding the issue does not affect your assessment of the strength of the argument. Question: In order to make students more capable, should each university exam consist of written and spoken part? Argument A: Yes, because only in this way can a professor adequately examine different aspects of the student's knowledge. B. ..."

Tasks of the sub-test Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions verify whether the candidate understands the concepts of fact and opinion or conclusion, i.e. can distinguish them, e.g.: You should determine which of the following statements refer to the fact, which refer to opinion and which represent a conclusion. The correctness of statements is not important. Statement: Poljšak Škraban (2004) states that children's development is mostly influenced by family environment."

Tasks of the sub-test Making conclusions, test the ability of assessment, i.e. whether a given conclusion follows from the given premises or not, e.g.: "Here is a number of premises, followed by several conclusions. Read the premises and judge whether the conclusion follows from them, or not. In the context of this test and for the purposes of this test all premises should be regarded as true. Premises: All children growing up in permissive mode, enjoy running barefoot through the puddles and mud. All children growing up in permissive mode, catch worms, snakes and other insects without hesitation. Conclusion: Some children, who catch worms, snakes and other insects without hesitation, enjoy running barefoot through the puddles and mud."

The reliability of the test measured by Cronbach's alpha for the whole test is 0.58. The reliability is low, but it is comparable to the reliability of the Watson - Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal Test (1980), which was reported by the authors to be measured on different samples resulting in the range between 0.55 to 0.85 (Watson & Glaser, 1980; Godzella, 2002). It would certainly require further exploration to improve the metric

characteristics of the test. The highest score to correlate with the total score was achieved in the sub-test Recognizing assumptions ($r=0,69$, $p<0,001$), following Identifying problems ($r=0,65$, $p<0,001$), Making conclusions ($r=0,62$ $p<0,001$), Distinguishing of facts, opinions and conclusions ($r=0,61$, $p<0,001$) and Evaluating arguments ($r=0,49$, $p<0,001$).

Collection and analysis of data

In first step we investigated the extent to which the concept of the critical (and its derivations) appears in the objectives and competences of different subjects in both examined courses of study.

The test was performed in January 2017 at the premises of the Faculty of Education. We invited all the students present at that time who were attending the first and the third year of preschool education (PV) and social pedagogy (SP) courses. As at the time of the first test (due to the upcoming holidays) there were only 8 students from the third year of SP (less than 30%), we gave the questionnaire to the remaining students in early February 2017. None of the students refused to participate in the study. The obtained data were analysed with the statistical program SPSS 22.0, using the correlation coefficient, t-test and multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA).

Results

1. Required critical thinking skills and/or competences in the study of social pedagogy and pre-school education at the Faculty of Education in Ljubljana.

We found that the Faculty has only one optional subject that directly teaches critical thinking (Developing strategies for critical thinking), which was not launched in 2016/17, and that critical thinking is (at least partially) covered by one of the general competences of the university graduates (Criticality and self-criticality). In individual subjects of the study of social pedagogy, the following skills are mentioned: critical treatment of activities in different areas of the socio-educational work, critical understanding of various phenomena, criticism of individual theories, critical aspects of research, critical thinking about own professional development. In the curriculum of preschool education the following skills are listed: critical analysis of educational work (as one of the fundamental objectives of the program), critical evaluation and application of theories (one of the subject-specific competencies), critical analysis of practice, critical judgment of discourse, critical evaluation of various educational experiences, teaching criticism and self-criticism. And additionally: critical analysis of basic motor skills elements, critical evaluation of theoretical knowledge, critical evaluation of walking, critical evaluation of the principles of safety and health planning, critical evaluation of different methods of learning to swim. It is particularly interesting that the last six competences refer to the subjects associated with physical activity (motor skills, exercise, mountain climbing and swimming).

Based on the teaching experience in the both courses of study, we can assume, similarly as Bartos and Banks (2016), Moore (2013) and Wilkin (2017), that critical thinking is encouraged indirectly, in particular by means of writing reflections on thinking, feeling and acting, evaluations of different things etc., while direct teaching of critical thinking to students has probably not been performed.

Table 1: Scores of the CTA test regarding a course of study and year of study (numerus, aritmetična sredina, standardna deviacija) (numerus, arithmetic mean, standard deviation)

CTAT Subtest	course of study	year of study	N	\bar{x}	SD
Identifying problems	PE (preschool education)	1.	37	9,92	2,32
		3.	19	10,00	1,15
		total	56	9,95	1,99
	SP (social pedagogy)	1.	19	10,84	1,34
		3.	25	10,72	1,94
		total	44	10,77	1,69
	Total	1.	37	10,23	2,08
		3.	19	10,41	1,67
		total	56	10,31	1,90
	Recognizing assumptions	PV	1.	37	9,62
3.			19	10,26	3,17
total			56	9,84	2,44
SP		1.	19	10,58	2,43
		3.	25	11,28	1,88
		total	44	10,98	2,14
Total		1.	37	9,95	2,16
		3.	19	10,84	2,54
		total	56	10,34	2,37
Evaluating arguments		PV	1.	37	11,54
	3.		19	11,37	1,80
	total		56	11,48	1,91
	SP	1.	19	12,58	1,83
		3.	25	12,52	1,26
		total	44	12,55	1,51
	Total	1.	37	11,89	1,98
		3.	19	12,02	1,60
		total	56	11,95	1,82
	PV	1.	37	8,27	2,30
3.		19	8,32	1,94	
total		56	8,29	2,17	

Distinguishing facts & opinion	SP	1.	19	8,42	1,89	
		3.	25	8,56	1,66	
		total	44	8,50	1,74	
	Total	1.	37	8,32	2,15	
		3.	19	8,45	1,77	
		total	56	8,38	1,98	
	Making conclusions	PV	1.	37	8,16	1,81
			3.	19	8,74	2,28
			total	56	8,36	1,98
SP		1.	19	8,37	2,19	
		3.	25	10,40	1,70	
		total	44	9,52	2,16	
Total		1.	37	8,23	1,93	
		3.	19	9,68	2,12	
		total	56	8,87	2,13	
Total	PV	1.	37	47,51	6,87	
		3.	19	48,68	5,94	
		total	56	47,91	6,54	
	SP	1.	19	50,79	5,13	
		3.	25	53,48	4,66	
		total	44	52,32	5,00	
	Total	1.	37	48,63	6,48	
		3.	19	51,41	5,71	
		total	56	49,85	6,28	

The results show that there are differences among all subtest (and total scores) in the Critical Thinking Assessment Test regarding a course of study (social pedagogy students achieve higher scores). The third-year students achieve higher results than first-year (with the exceptions on two subtests: Identifying problems where the first-year preschool education students achieve higher results than the third-year and Evaluating arguments where the first-year students achieve higher results than the third-year in both courses of study).

2. Differences among students in the Critical Thinking Assessment Test in respect to the education level of their father and mother, their final secondary school success, and the completed secondary school programme.

In this section, we check the hypothesis 1, which presupposes the existence of differences in the results of the first-year students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education on the Critical Thinking Assessment Test scale, as well as in the total score of the test in respect

to education level of their father and mother, their final success in secondary school, and the completed secondary school education.

According to the literature references (e.g. Cheung, Rudowicz, Kwan in Yue, 2002), various environments and experiences (type of school, family characteristics, etc.), have impact on multiple cognitive performance (e.g. academic success, general intellectual ability, etc.) of an individual. Accordingly, we assumed that it would also apply to the students' scores in the critical thinking assessment test in our sample. In that part of the analysis we included only the first-year students of two courses of study at the Faculty of Education, because we believed that their later studying experience would significantly improve their critical thinking (the second hypothesis verified).

Table 2: Differences in critical thinking in the first year depending on the mother's education (numerus, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, t-value, degrees of freedom)

CTAT	Mother's education	N	\bar{x}	SD	t	df
Identifying problems	High	18	10,94	1,86	1,65	53
	Low	37	10,00	2,04		
Recognizing assumptions	High	18	10,22	2,36	0,53	53
	Low	37	9,89	2,06		
Evaluating arguments	High	18	12,67	1,97	1,97*	53
	Low	37	11,57	1,92		
Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions	High	18	8,94	2,69	1,17	53
	Low	37	8,14	1,72		
Making conclusions	High	18	8,11	1,87	-0,28	53

	Low	37	8,27	2,01		
Total	High	18	50,89	5,94	1,69	53
	Low	37	47,86	6,32		

*p<0,05, **p<0,01

Table 3: Differences in critical thinking in the first year depending on the father's education (numerus, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, t-value, degrees of freedom)

CTAT	Father's education	N	\bar{x}	SD	t	df
Identifying problems	High	16	10,88	1,82	1,34	53
	Low	39	10,08	2,07		
Recognizing assumptions	High	16	10,50	2,36	0,96	53
	Low	39	9,79	1,89		
Evaluating arguments	High	16	12,75	1,73	2,02*	53
	Low	39	11,59	2,00		
Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions	High	16	8,94	1,81	1,22	53
	Low	39	8,18	2,19		
Making conclusions	High	16	8,44	1,90	0,53	53
	Low	39	8,13	1,99		
Total	High	16	51,50	4,94	2,05*	53
	Low	39	47,77	6,54		

*p<0,05, **p<0,01

The results show statistically significant differences between the first-year students according to the level of education of their mother, in the sub-test Evaluating arguments (Table 2) ($\bar{x}_1 = 12,67$, $SD = 1,97$; $\bar{x}_2 =$

11,57, SD = 1,92; $t = 1,97, p < 0,05$), and regarding the father's education, we found differences in the sub-test Evaluating arguments ($\bar{x}_1 = 12,75, SD = 1,73; \bar{x}_2 = 11,59, SD = 2; t = 2,02, p < 0,05$) as well as in the total score of the test ($\bar{x}_1 = 51,50, SD = 4,94; \bar{x}_2 = 47,77, SD = 6,54; t = 2,05, p < 0,05$) (Table 3). Higher scores were achieved with students whose parents had higher education.

In our further consideration we checked, by means of the t-test, differences among the first-year students scores in relation to the completed secondary school and secondary school final success.

Table 4: Differences in critical thinking in the first-year students of two courses of study regarding the completed secondary school (numerus, the arithmetic mean, the standard deviation, the t-value, degrees of freedom)

CTAT	Secondary school	N	\bar{x}	SD	t	df
Identifying problems	Gramm.	23	11,13	1,39	3,11**	54
	Vocat.	33	9,61	2,26		
Recognizing assumptions	Gramm.	23	10,26	2,37	0,90	54
	Vocat.	33	9,73	2,02		
Evaluating arguments	Gramm.	23	12,39	2,01	1,58	54
	Vocat.	33	11,55	1,92		
Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions	Gramm.	23	8,74	1,95	1,21	54
	Vocat.	33	8,03	2,27		
Making conclusions	Gramm.	23	8,39	2,16	0,51	54
	Vocat.	53	8,12	1,78		
Total	Gramm.	23	50,91	5,01	2,28*	54
	Vocat.	33	47,03	6,96		

* $p < 0,05, **p < 0,01$

The results show that there are no significant differences among the first-year students' scores in the Critical Thinking Assessment Test regarding their secondary school final success - neither in the whole test

nor in individual sub-tests (results are not show in the table). However, there are significant differences in the score regarding the completed secondary school (table 3). The analysis of average scores shows that students having completed grammar school (gymnasium), compared with students with completed secondary vocational schools, achieved in all sub-tests higher scores: differences are statistically significant only in the sub-test Identifying problems ($\bar{x}_1 = 11,13$, $SD = 1,39$; $\bar{x}_2 = 9,61$, $SD = 2,26$, $t=3,11$, $p<0,01$), and in other sub-tests they are not. At the same time, these differences culminate in statistically significant difference between the results of the two groups in their total scores in the test ($\bar{x}_1 = 50,91$, $SD = 5,01$; $\bar{x}_2 = 47,03$, $SD = 6,96$; $t = 2,28$, $p<0,05$) (Table 4).

Conclusion: Hypothesis 1 was partly accepted, because we found some differences regarding the mother's and father's education and some differences regarding secondary education, but we did not find differences between the students depending on their final secondary school success.

3. Differences in the scores of students in Critical Thinking Assessment Test regarding the course of study and the year of study

In this section, we checked the second and the third hypothesis by which it is assumed that there are differences between students of different courses of study, who as a rule, completed different secondary school programs (relation between the completed secondary school and the faculty course is high: $\Phi = 0,83$ $p < 0.001$), as well as the differences between the students of different years of the same course of study, because we assumed that the studying experience has a positive impact on a person's critical thinking skills.

First, we examined the adequacy of data for conducting the multivariate analysis of (MANOVA) variance: conceptual coherence of dependent variables, with low to medium correlations (Griego & Morgan, 1998). The analysis of correlations performed between the sub-tests of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test, showed the adequacy of the data for the implementation of MANOVA, as correlations between sub-tests range from 0.05 to 0.30, which, according to Field (2005), represents low to medium connections.

With MANOVA, we examined the effects of two independent variables (course of study, year of study) and their interactive effects on a group of dependent variables (the results of sub-tests of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test and the total score in the test).

Table 5: Differences in the scores of the CTA test regarding a course of study and year of study

MANOVA	CTAT Subtest	X2	df	F	Sig.
Course of study	Identifying problems	15,67	1	4,39	0,04*
	Recognizing assumptions	22,62	1	4,22	0,04*
	Evaluating arguments	27,83	1	8,89	0,00**
	Distinguishing facts & opinion	0,90	1	0,22	0,63
	Making conclusions	20,28	1	5,27	0,02*
Year of study	Identifying problems	0,01	1	0,00	0,95
	Recognizing assumptions	10,46	1	1,95	0,16
	Evaluating arguments	0,31	1	0,09	0,75
	Distinguishing facts & opinion	0,19	1	0,04	0,82
	Making conclusions	39,42	1	10,25	0,00**
Course of study * year of study	Identifying problems	0,24	1	0,06	0,79
	Recognizing assumptions	0,02	1	0,00	0,95
	Evaluating arguments	0,07	1	0,02	0,87
	Distinguishing facts & opinion	0,05	1	0,01	0,91
	Making conclusions	12,32	1	3,20	0,07

We found that there was a strong multivariate effect of a course of study on the score of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test ($F = 3.33, p < 0.01$, Wilks' Lambda = 0.85), but no effect of the year of study on the score of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test, except in the sub-test Conclusion ($F = 10.25, p < 0.01$) (Table 4). There was also no significant interactive influence of a course of study and the year of study on any of the studied dependent variables.

A more detailed analysis (Table 5) shows that the scores of students of both courses of study are significantly different in all sub-tests except in the sub-test Distinguishing facts, opinions and conclusions (Identifying problems: $F = 4.39, p < 0.05$; Recognizing assumptions: $F = 4.22, p < 0.05$, Evaluating arguments: $F = 8.89, P < 0.01$ Making conclusions: $F =$

5.27, $p < 0.05$). There is also a significant difference in the total score of the test ($F = 10.88$, $p < 0.01$).

Conclusion: We can accept the hypothesis 2 because there are significant differences between the students depending on the course of study. Hypothesis 3, where we examined the differences between the first-year and third-year students regarding their scores in the Critical Thinking Assessment Test, was, however, rejected, because it showed difference only in one the sub-test in students of one course of study.

Discussion

In this study, we examined three hypotheses, one was accepted in full and two in part. The first hypothesis was formed on the basis of the studies that identify the impact of several variables on the performance of critical thinking of different social groups, mostly students of different courses of study. Genc (2008) identifies the correlation of socio-economic status and critical thinking skills of students; Cheung, Rudowicz, Kwan Yue (2002) cite the influence of the profession of the father on critical thinking of children. Based on this, we made an assumption that in our cultural context, the education of mother and father, the final school success and secondary school education of parents, contribute to the differences in critical thinking of the examined female and male students, which was partially confirmed. Due to the small numerus in connection with this hypothesis, we do not want to generalize, but only to identify potential direction for further research. Concerning the result of the sample, i.e. the obtained difference in critical thinking skills in one sub-test concerning the mother's education, and a difference in one of the sub-tests as well as in the general score of the test concerning the father's education, the above mentioned direction in further research might confirm, with greater certainty, and on a larger number of first-year students of several courses of study, the existence of such differences and – indirectly – an assumption, that patterns of thinking that an individual is exposed to in his family environment with higher parental education, will have effects on the quality of cognitive functioning.

Several studies suggest that there are differences in students' scores in the Critical Thinking Test concerning previous education (Çubukçu, 2006) and study experience (course of study for students or education of graduates) (Çubukçu, 2006; Eigenberger, 2001; Genc, 2008; Rupnik Vec, 2009). Our assumption that significant differences will be found among the students having different previous education, has been confirmed. Students with completed secondary vocational school have achieved lower scores, compared with students having completed the

grammar school, in all sub-tests, and significantly lower scores in the sub-test Identifying problems as well as in the total test score. More demanding grammar school program therefore represents a more effective encouragement for critical thinking skills, particularly in identifying problems, to which may also contribute the requirements of the final exam (research paper) that represent the best opportunity for development of critical thinking. Enrolment in the grammar school program, in our educational system, in terms of opportunities, i.e. the encouragement for critical thinking, represents probably a better choice. But we also can interpret these results in different way, namely with possible differences in students' general abilities: in grammar schools probably enter students with higher abilities as in vocational schools. An interesting research question for further investigations could be asked: how much critical thinking correlate with general ability of students?

The other two hypotheses (concerning the population, i.e. the number of students enrolled in each academic course), we examined on a large sample, for which reason our conclusions are more relevant.

The second hypothesis was formed on the basis of the findings regarding the impact of courses of study on the disposition of critical thinking in students. Various studies found really significant differences between the students of different courses of study (Çubukçu, 2006; Eigenberger, 2001; Genc, 2008). Multiple analysis of variance showed the importance of the effect of a course of study on the scores in four out of the five sub-tests (evaluating arguments, making conclusions, identifying problems, recognizing assumptions), and the analysis of variance showed the differences in the total score. We can therefore conclude that the diversity of experiences in a particular course of study, actually contributes to the differences in critical thinking skills, in our case in favour of the study of social pedagogy. At the same time, we found that among the first-year and third-year students of pre-school education, there were no statistically significant differences either in any sub-test or in the total test score. Among the first-year and third-year students of social pedagogy there was a significant difference only in the sub-test Making conclusions, but in the total test score there was no difference. Assuming that generations of enrolled students at the beginning of their studies were equal in critical thinking skills – we have concluded that the students' experience in both courses of study does not contribute to the development of the researched skills, i.e. in both courses of study critical thinking skills are not being paid enough attention. In part, this result is surprising for us, since we expected the students to make progress in several critical thinking skills (especially

due to some methods used in their studies – e.g. a lot of reflections, encouraging dialogue, evaluation, etc.).

This result can be explained by the fact that in both courses of study there are no subjects explicitly teaching critical thinking, as well as the fact that these skills are also very rarely found in the set of competences of individual subjects. Several authors (Bartos & Banks, 2016; Ikuenobe 2001; Solon, 2007; Wilkin, 2017), highlight the importance of explicitness in the teaching of critical thinking, which means that the teaching of critical thinking should be made clear, and after the teaching, the reflection on the thinking process should be enabled or encouraged in accordance with the criteria. Abrami (2008 in Van den Brink-Budget, 2016) in a meta-study about the most effective strategies for the improvement of critical thinking finds that the combined approach gives the best results: teaching critical thinking as an individual subject along with the explicit teaching of critical thinking included in other subjects. In our interpretation, it means teaching critical thinking as a phenomenon along with promotion of critical thinking within the most diverse topics within courses of study as well as by continuous focusing on the analysis and evaluation of own thinking, which is, in fact, the central element of the concept of a critical thinker as defined by some authors (e.g. Paul et. al., 1989).

Conclusion

Taking into account the limitations present in this study, we can conclude that on the students' individual skills and overall ability of critical thinking, the fact which secondary school they previously attended has a significant impact. Consequently, we can see that among the first-year students of both courses of study the differences are small, which however, substantially increase by the third year of study, which is attributed to the impact of the studies itself. In general, we can conclude that the two courses of study do not have sufficient direct content and different methods that could explicitly and implicitly encourage individual critical thinking skills in general (because the first-year and third-year students do not make progress as much as we would like and expect them to do).

References

- Bartos, S.E. and Banks, A. (2016). How do students learn critical thinking? Challenging the osmosis model. *History and Philosophy of Psychology*, 16, 36–40.
- Bonstingl, J. J. (1996). *Introduction to Social Sciences*. Needham: Prentice Hall.
- Bowell, T. and Kemp, G. (2002). *Critical Thinking. A Concise Guide*. London: Routledge.
- Brookfield, S. (1993). *Developing critical thinkers. Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Burbules, N. C., & Berk, R. (2006). *Critical Thinking and Critical Pedagogy: Relations, Differences and Limits*. Retrieved 3. 12. 2006 from: <http://faculty.ed.uiuc.edu/burbules/paperc/critical.html>.
- Chabrak, N. and Craig, R. (2013). Student imaginings, cognitive dissonance and critical thinking. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 24 (2), 91–104.
- Cheung, C. K., Rudowicz, E., Kwan, A. S. F. and Yue, X. D. (2002). Assessing University Students' General and Specific Critical Thinking. *College Student Journal*, 36 (4), 504–526.
- Cottrel, S. (2011). *Critical Thinking Skills. Developing Effective Analysis and Argument*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan
- Cubukcu, Z. (2006). Critical Thinking Dispositions of the Turkish Teacher Candidates. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5 (4), Art. 4.
- Eigenberger, M. E., Sealander, K. A., Jacobs, J. A. and Shellady, S. M. (2001). Disposition Toward Thinking Critically: A Comparison of Pre-service Teachers and Other University Students. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 3 (1), 109–119.
- Ennis, R. H. (1985). A Logical Basis for Measuring Critical Thinking Skills. *Educational Leadership*, 43 (2), 44–48.
- Ennis, R. H. (1993). Critical Thinking Assessment. *Theory into practice*, 32 (3), 179–186.
- Facione, P. A. (1990). *Critical Thinking: A Statement of Expert Consensus for Purposes of Educational Assessment and Instruction*. »The Delphi Report« Executive Summary. Retrieved 13. 1. 2017 from: www.insightassessment.com/pdg_files/DEXadobe.PDF
- Facione, P. A. (2015). Critical thinking: What it is and why it counts. Retrieved 2. 2. 2017 from: <http://www.insightassessment.com/9articles%20WWW.html>
- Flores, K. L., Matkin, G. S., Burbach, M. E., Quinn, C. E. and Harding, H. (2012). Deficient critical thinking skills among college graduates:

- Implications for leadership. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 44, 212–230.
- Frijters, S., ten Dam, G. and Rijlaarsdam, G. (2008). Effects of dialogic learning on value-loaded critical thinking. *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 66–82.
- Genc, S. Z. (2008). Critical Thinking Tendencies among Teacher Candidates. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 8 (1), 107–116.
- Giroux, H. (2007). What is Critical Pedagogy? Retrieved 27. 11. 2007 from: www.perfectfit.org/CT/giroux2.html.
- Grosser, M. M. and Lombard, B. J. J. (2008). The relationship between culture and the development of critical thinking abilities of prospective teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 1364–1375.
- Halpern, D. F. (1996). *Thought and Knowledge: An Introduction to Critical Thinking* (third edition). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Halx, M. D. and Reybold, L. E. (2005). A pedagogy of force: faculty perspectives of critical thinking capacity in undergraduate students. *The Journal of General Education*, 54 (4), 293–315.
- Heijltjes, A., Van Gog, T. and Paas, F. (2014). Improving students' critical thinking: Empirical support for explicit instructions combined with practice. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 28 (4), 518-530.
- Holt, E. A., Young, C., Keetch, J., Larsen, S. and Mollner, B. (2015). The Greatest Learning Return on Your Pedagogical Investment: Alignment, Assessment or In-Class Instruction? *PLoS ONE*, 10 (9), 1–19.
- Ikuenobe, P. (2001). Teaching and Assessing Critical Thinking Abilities as Outcomes in an Informal Logic Course. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6 (1), 19 – 32.
- Kitchener, S. K. (2002). Skills, tasks and definitions: discrepancies in the understanding and data on the development of folk epistemology. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 20, 309–328.
- Kuhn, D. (2000). Metacognitive development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9 (5), 178–181.
- Levy, D. A. (1997). *Tools of Critical Thinking. Metathoughts for Psychology*. Needham Heights: Allyn&Bacon.
- Marzano, R. J., Brandt, R. S., Hughes, C. S., Jones, B. F., Presseisen, B. Z., Rankine, S. C. and Suhor, C. (1988) *Dimensions of Thinking: A framework for curriculum and instruction*. Alexandria Va.:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Moon, J. (2008). *Critical Thinking. An exploration of theory and practice*. London in New York: Routledge, Taylor&Francis group.
- Moore, T. (2013). Critical thinking: seven definitions in search of a concept. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38 (4), 506-522.

- Niu, L., Behar-Horenstein, L. S. and Garvan, C. W. (2013). Do instructional interventions influence college students' critical thinking skills? A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, 9, 114–128.
- O'Rourke, M. (2005). *UI Critical Thinking Handbook*. Retrieved 7. 9. 2007 from: http://www.class.uidahoo.edu/crit_think/
- Ozturk, C., Maslu, G. K., Dicle, A. (2008). A comparison of problem-based and traditional education on nursing students' critical thinking dispositions. *Nurse Education Today*, 28, 627–632.
- Paul, R., Binker, A. J., Martin, D., Vetrano, C. and Kreklau, H. (1989). *Critical Thinking. Handbook: High School*. Sonoma State University: Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Critique.
- Pellegrino, J. W. (1995). Technology in Support of Critical Thinking. *Teaching of Psychology*, 22 (1), 11–12.
- Rupnik Vec, T. (2009). *Kritično mišljenje učiteljev in spodbujanje tega mišljenja pri pouku*. Doktorsko delo. [Teachers critical thinking and the promotion of this thinking in the classroom. PhD work.] Univerza v Ljubljani. Filozofska fakulteta.
- Rupnik Vec, T. (2011) *Izzivi poučevanja. Spodbujanje razvoja kritičnega mišljenja*. [Learning challenges. Encouraging the critical thinking development.] Ljubljana: Zavod RS za šolstvo.
- Solon, T. (2007). Generic Critical Thinking Infusion and Course Content Learning in Introductory Psychology. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 34 (2), 95 – 109.
- Starkey, L. (2004). *Critical Thinking Skills Success in 20 Minutes a Day*. New York: LearningEkspres, LLC.
- Sternberg, R.J. (2001). Why Schools Should Teach for Wisdom: The Balance Theory of Wisdom in Educational Settings. *Educational Psychologist*, 36 (4), 227–245.
- Ten Dam, G. T. M. and Volman, M. L. L. (2004). Critical thinking as a citizenship competence: teaching strategies. *Learning and Instruction*, 14, 359–379.
- Torff, B. (2005). Developmental Changes in Teachers' Beliefs About Critical Thinking Activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97 (1), 13–22.
- Van den Brink-Budgen, R. (2016). *Why Schools Need to Teach Critical Thinking as Its Own Class?* Retrieved 20. 2. 2017 from: <https://www.macat.com/blog/why-schools-need-to-teach-critical-thinking-as-its-own-class/>
- Van Gelder, T. (2005). Teaching Critical Thinking: Some Lessons from Cognitive Science. *College Teaching*, 45 (1), 41–46.
- Wade, C. (1995). Using Writing to Develop and Assess Critical Thinking. *Teaching of Psychology*, 22 (1), 24–28.
- Wade, C. and Tavris, C. (1996). *Psychology in Perspective* (second edition). New York, Harlow: Longman.

- Watson, G. and Glaser, E. M. (1980). *Critical Thinking Appraisal Manual*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Wilkin, C. L. (2017). Enhancing critical thinking: accounting students' perceptions. *Education and Training*, 59 (1), 15–30.
- Zohar, A. and Peled, B. (2008). The Effects of explicit teaching of metastrategic knowledge on low- and high-achieving students. *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 337–353.

THE INFLUENCE OF REWARDS ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE WITH REWARDS SEPARATION AS MODERATING VARIABLE

Khoirul Khuluq¹, Richie Wijaya²

Abstract

As an effort to find out other factors that has influence on employees' performance other than extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards, this study to test impact of social rewards on employees' performance and rewards separations as moderating variable on extrinsic rewards and employees' performance. Using convenient sampling method, out of 300 employees distributed, 266 useful questionnaires were returned. Factor Analysis and Cronbach Alpha to test the instrument and data analysis were performed using linear regression. The results of this study showed that extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards have positive influence on employees' performance and rewards separation has moderated the relation between extrinsic rewards and employees' performance. This study has significant value in term of being the first to use rewards separation as moderating variable and give broaden knowledge on social rewards as a factor that influence the employees' performance.

Keywords: Social Rewards, Rewards Separations, Extrinsic Rewards, Intrinsic Rewards, Performance

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art3>

Introduction

Employee Performance Management is very important for organization, "when employees fail in their jobs, part of the organization also fails" (Amstrong and Taylor, 2014). Employers want their human resources function to add value by boosting profit and performance (Dessler, 2017) because employees' performance has significant impact on a company growth (Vosloban, 2012). Performance management practices help an organization to achieve sustained growth (Kumar et al, 2015). High performing work system significantly and positively contributes to organization performance (Zhang and Morris, 2013). It also has

¹ Khoirul Khuluq is the student of Magister Management Program in Bina Nusantara University, Indonesia (khoirul.khuluq@gmail.com)

² Richie Wijaya is the student of Magister Management Program in Bina Nusantara University, Indonesia (richiewijaya1994@gmail.com)

significant impact on bottom line, five percent increase in employee engagement is correlated to three percent growth in revenue of the subsequent year (Biro, 2014). Therefore, it can be concluded that employee's performances have direct impact to company.

It is vital to the long-term success of the business that employees do their jobs well. Effective performance management practices become formidable competitive machine for organization. An organization without shared vision is not called an organization. Each member of organization should understand to which direction they kick the ball. Hard workers are useless unless performing the tasks that are expected by employers. When incumbent works into the wrong direction, managers should remind them to focus on what expected to do. Underperformed employees should be motivated, incompetent employee should be trained and outstanding employee should be rewarded. The success in leading organization can be found in quote "Coming together is a beginning; keeping together is progress; working together is success." (Henry Ford, n.d)

In today's disruptive era, embracing creativity in improving employee performance is very important. Organization must make sure their team works in their best performance, have superstars in each line department and having effective rewards management in attracting and retaining their best talents. Many researches have been done to answer the needs of the company in attracting and retaining employees including financial and non-financial rewards. The problem most of the research only focus on two variables extrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Gohari et al, 2013; Huang, 2014; Edirisooriya, 2014; Danish et al,2015; Ibrar and Khan, 2015; Malik et al, 2015; Haider, 2015; Farooq and Shafique, 2016; Kanwal and Syed,2017; Syahreza et al, 2017; Ndungu, 2017; Jean et al, 2017; Seng and Arumugam, 2017; Zaraket and Saber, 2017; Khan et al, 2017). The majority of the research focus only on both extrinsic and intrinsic, it is very limited research considers social rewards as the alternative variable to motivate the employees (Salah, 2016) and none of them using rewards separation as moderating variable for the influence of extrinsic rewards and employee's performance.

Popular quote "Employees don't quit their job, they quit their boss" is best words to begin when discussing about Social Rewards. In many cases employees get very good salary and great position but they still leave the job because do not want to spend their time with their horrible manager (McMahon, 2014). Lousy managers tend to blame subordinates when problem rises, do not listen to team members, push subordinates to work late while they leave on time, use bad words when

speaking with no respect, demand many things support nothing and make working environment in stressful condition (Ryan, 2016). Unsupportive behavior from Managers and coworkers impacted on employee performance and make employees decide to quit their jobs. Supportive coworkers and good leaders during interaction in a job can boost employees' performance. Good leaders will lead the team into top performances and Good colleagues will collaborate with teammate in order to achieve share objective. Leaders who always give example, work together, show the way, coach and listen to the obstacle can be tangible benefits to the employees therefore it called social rewards.

The purpose of the study is to identify the impact of the rewards beyond the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards which is social rewards on employee performance and rewards separations as moderation role of extrinsic and employees' performance. The research proposes a model to better understand the social rewards with the context of Construction Company in Jakarta. This model will give an alternative and broaden the knowledge to practitioners on motivating employees other than current practices.

Literature Review

When discussing about performance management, people mix up with annual performance Employees appraisal, it's only one way to measure the performance management. Well defined performance management states that a "Performance management is a continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organization. Its five elements are agreement, measurement, feedback, positive reinforcement and dialogue" (Amstrong and Taylor, 2014). Employee performance are influence by extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Rewards Management is a kind of extrinsic motivation to improve employee performance. Company should link between strategy, performance and rewards, the problem is linking pay to performance easier said than done (Dessler, 2017). Rewards are classified into many forms, extrinsic and intrinsic are well known for decades. The combination of both extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards dominated the result of research and the phenomena of social rewards have enriched the reward management lately. Which type of rewards are the most effective in boosting employee performance is needed to be discussed further.

Financial rewards strategy classified into pay determination, base pay management, contingent pay and employee benefits and pension. In practical, GlaxoSmithKline (GSK) divides into total cash (base salary &

bonus) plus long-term incentive for executives and Managers (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014). Extrinsic rewards refer to physical return provided by company in exchange to job done such as salary, bonus, incentive, allowance, car ownership program (cop), loan, scholarship and other physical form of compensation. Financial rewards are paid to employees whose production exceeds some predetermined standard (Dessler, 2017). The empirical study had been done to investigate whether extrinsic rewards are the most effective rewards nowadays on relationship with employee performance.

Extensive research been done in analyzing the impact of extrinsic rewards on the performance, the results are divided among the researchers. Research in ElectriCo, a public-sector company in SriLanka examined the element of extrinsic dimension such as pay, bonus, benefits and promotion used five-point Likert scale, descriptive and inferential statistics showed a strong relationship between extrinsic and employee performance (Edirisooriya, 2014). Similarly, investigation in City of Faisalabad a courier company showed a strong relationship between extrinsic rewards and employee performance (Khan et al, 2017). In Addition, a study conducted to test the relationship between financial rewards and performance for blue collar employees in construction and printing companies found significance result on financial rewards and employee performance (Zaraket and Saber, 2017).

Prior research generally confirms that extrinsic rewards has impact on employee performance but good studies had been done by Ozutku (2012). Ozutku divided the firms into two groups as extrinsic group and intrinsic group, the result showed intrinsic result has a significant influence on employee result, and however, extrinsic reward has no significant influence on employee result. Similarly, Njanja et al (2013) have proven that cash bonus has no effect to employee performance and suggested to organization to focus on nature and content of job. Aguinis et al (2013) studied what extrinsic cannot do and concluded financial rewards do not improve employee Knowledge, Skill and Abilities. We can conclude that extrinsic rewards alone are not effective in boosting employee performance in organization.

Discussions regarding intrinsic rewards have dominated research in recent years. Danish et al (2015) examined the influence of intrinsic rewards on job performance with mediating role of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the banks of capital Lahore, Pakistan. The study generated intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation significantly mediate the relationship between intrinsic rewards and task performance while job

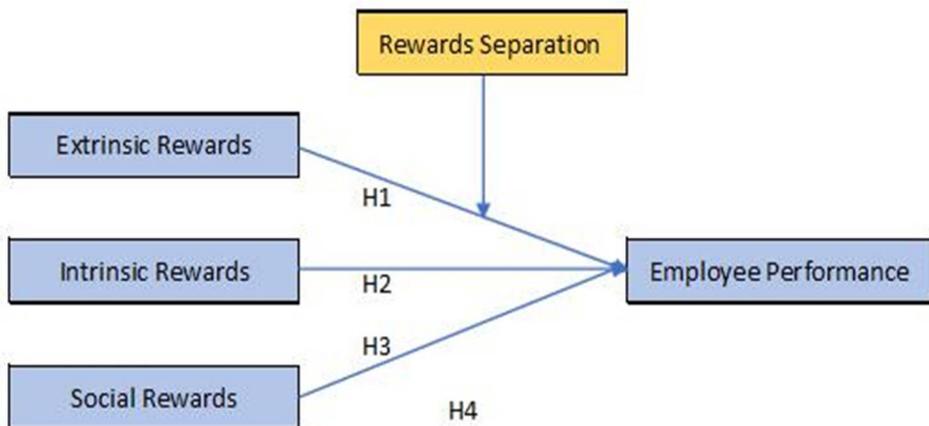
satisfaction in this regard partially mediates this relationship. The research provided integrated model to explain between rewards, motivation and job satisfaction but the word of intrinsic in two variables confused the reader and even the author themselves mixed up between intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation like in the phrase of "...revealed that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards significantly ...". The extrinsic motivation calls in to question since extrinsic rewards can be an example of extrinsic motivation. Like the research outcome, (Nujoo and Mayer, 2012) extracted intrinsic rewards has stronger relationship to performance than extrinsic rewards. Another research strengthened the majority founding, employees' perceived intrinsic rewards more important than extrinsic rewards on motivation and resultantly performing well (Farooq and Shafique, 2016).

Majority of the practitioners and scholars confirmed extrinsic and intrinsic reward play dominants role in recent years to improve performance meanwhile a few researchers have criticized the majority and suggested the need to go beyond rewards. As the solution of the problem a research on social reward have been done (Newman and Sheikh, 2013; Salah, 2016). Questionnaire distributed to 308 workers represented 60% population administered Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression analysis concluded that extrinsic, intrinsic, social and mix rewards has strong correlation on employee performance. Salah attributed the elements of social rewards to answer the challenge against risk of rewards to go beyond the rewards. Both research introduced social rewards to the existing of human resources management practically and academically, not only broaden the knowledge but also give huge implication on practical with inexpensive social rewards to organizations. Researchers and practitioner believed that not any single of rewards elements can stand alone, organization will be more competitive when they creatively apply all the rewards extrinsic, intrinsic and social without suffering in financial investment. The mix those three rewards can be winning strategy in attacking best talents. Employee predicted to be more motivated when they see the rewards categorized into several categories even though it is classified into meaningless group (Wiltermuth and Gino, 2013). Wiltermuth and Gino (2013) proposed separated rewards into several categories and conducted experiments on sixty-three undergraduate business students randomly assigned. Participants were motivated to gain one rewards from one category and another reward from another category than they were to obtain the two rewards in a pool contains all items.

Research Methodology

From the literature review, extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards, social rewards and combination of those rewards (Mix) has influence on employee performance (Salah, 2016). The conceptual model then all type of rewards will be independent variables has impacts on employee performance then will be dependent variable. The rewards separations into categories (rewards categories) will strengthen the correlation on both dependent and independence variables (Wiltermuth and Gino, 2013). The prediction on rewards categories, more category on rewards will motivate the employees and resultantly will impact on employee performance, so the rewards categories is proposed to be moderator role variable.

Figure 1. Research Theoretical Framework



From figure 1, we can see that extrinsic rewards are predictive factors in improving employees' performance. It has been founding for this century. Extrinsic rewards can be powerful tool in improving motivation and employee performance but it must be tied to performance not irrelevant factors such as number of years in organization. It cannot be alone in determining in boosting employees' performance. However, there are still researcher who use this as influencing factors (Aguinis et al, 2013; Zahra Idrees, 2015; Seng and Arumugam, 2017). Therefore, it should be the first hypothesis to be test whether it is still relevant in determining employees' performance.

H1: Extrinsic rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance.

Intrinsic rewards such as appreciation, promotion empowerment and recognition has positive impact on employee task performance. It's very popular for the last decade, in practical company proudly present to their targeting talent to have this type of rewards and supporting by many researchers in predicting employees' performance (Bari et al, 2013; Smith et al, 2015; Kumar et al, 2015; Nyaga, 2015; Danish et al, 2015; Farooq and Shafique, 2016). Therefore, the second hypothesis is about this variable.

H2: Intrinsic rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance.

Social rewards are a new paradigm in determining part of rewards. In practical, HR Managers are not familiar about this kind of rewards, the research is very limited on this variable. In addition to extrinsic and intrinsic, social rewards are included to be another variable in influencing employee performance for public sector (Miao et al, 2013) and for mining company (Salah, 2016). The term of social rewards come up initially for social workers, when social community appreciated the tasks performed by social workers. The social rewards mean that a good relationship within organization among stakeholders such as leader-members, Supervisors-subordinates and employees-employers. Study found that employees will improve their performance if there are problem with supervisor's interpersonal relationship with subordinates and presence of job aid (Jungert, 2012; Loi et al, 2014; Bushiri, 2014; Yang, 2015).

H3: Social rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance.

The fear of missing out of potential rewards motivated employee to perform the work longer (Wiltermuth and Gino, 2013). Rewards are classified as extrinsic motivation that can boost employee performance. In practical, labor who are still eligible to get overtime works longer than staff level who are not eligible to work late. When considering offering, employee will focus not only the high salary, but overall package including the best benefits that offered by company (Bort and Bernards, 2017). When comparing higher pay versus better benefits the expert recommendation for employee is to choose better benefits such as

retirement plan (Appleby, 2018). Even more, employee still interested when receiving less salary but better benefits, better tax rate, better work life balance and better opportunities. Keeping only basic salary with few basic benefits are not very attractive for employees (Jones, 2017).

H4: The influence of extrinsic rewards on employee’s performance is moderated by Rewards Separation

Measurement

Self-designed questionnaire will be distributed electronically using google form for one shot time horizon in non-contrived setting and the indicators of rewards are adopted from previous research. The Indicators of the research are taken from previous research (Salah, 2016). Only indicators who has proven impact on previous research are applied in this study. Below is the measurement variable that can be seen below table.

Table 1. Indicators of Rewards Variables

No	Variable	Indicators
1	Extrinsic Rewards	Accommodation & Transportation allowance
		Basic payment (wages & salaries)
		Compensation & incentives policies
		Medical allowance
		Performance (Bonus & awards)
		Retirement benefits
		Contract of employment
		Good environment & working conditions
		Job promotion
		Job security
		Challenging assignments
		Goals setting participation
		Job rotations
Responsibility & authority		
2	Intrinsic Rewards	Training & skills development
		Work freedom & independence (Reverse Question)
		Achievement & acknowledgement (Reverse

		Question)
		Advancement & growth (Reverse Question)
		Appraise & appreciation (Reverse Question)
		Recognition (Reverse Question)
		Group belongings and affiliations
		Off-job social recreation clubs membership
		Organizational supportive; structure and culture
		Prestige enhancement
3	Social Rewards	Status symbols
		Supportive environment
		Caring & supportive attitude
		Positive colleagues relationships
		Social status
		Supervisors support
4	Reward Separation	Fear of Mission out

The population of 271 total employees in a construction company and the appropriate sample size will be 159 respondents (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The questionnaire is comprised of five sections for primary data collection and then company data as secondary data for employee performance. Section I contained Represent Demographic information name, age, gender, education, experience and monthly spending. Section II contained five items which sought to collect information about the influence of extrinsic rewards on employee's performance. Section

represented five items regarding the perceptions of workers on the influence of intrinsic rewards on employee's performance. Section IV Consisted of five items requesting information about employee's views on the relationship between social rewards. Section V described items asked rewards Categorization as mediator's variable on Rewards and employee performance. All measures used five-point Likert-type scales, which ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Three types of analysis are proposed for this study. First, to provide a description of the sample from participants, descriptive statistics on name, age and gender setting will be explained, as well as the means for the independent variables. Second to determine the relationship between Rewards and Performance, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients will be determined. Third, to test the hypotheses linear regression analysis will be employed.

The questionnaires are checked by expert in University and we did pilot research to test the validity and reliability. After gathered 40 respondents the results showed the 34 out of 35 items are valid. One item in extrinsic reward variable is not valid and for social rewards, all item is valid. The detail result on factor analysis from 10 items in extrinsic variable only one item (EX5) is not valid the rest are valid with loading factor range from 0.64 to 0.87. All 10 items are valid for intrinsic rewards with loading factors range from 0.61 to 0.82. All 10 items are valid for social rewards with loading factors range from 0.60 to 0.88. All 5 items are valid for rewards separations with loading factors range 0.64 to 0.89.

The result of reliability test was showing that the instrument is reliable.

Table 2. Reliability Analysis

Extrinsic Rewards	0.78	9
Intrinsic Rewards	0.81	10
Social Rewards	0.89	10
Rewards Separation	0.71	5

Findings

Participants demographic profile frequency distribution are as follow: 67% Bachelor Degree graduate, 59.7 % the age between 22-34 years old, 62% Male, experience 32% 5-10 years' experience and the monthly spending 72% IDR 5-15 million. The detail shown in table 1.

Table 3. Frequency Distribution for Respondent's Demographics

Characteristic	Number	Percent
Education		
High School	24	10.6
Diploma Degree	18	8.0
Bachelor Degree	152	67.3
Master Degree	32	14.2
Age		

22 - 34 years old	135	59.7
35 - 44 years old	65	28.8
45 - 54 years old	22	9.7
55 - 64 years old	4	1.8
Gender		
Male	142	62.8
Female	84	37.2
Experience		
0-10 years	67	29.6
5-10 years	74	32.7
10-15 years	48	21.2
16-20 years	16	7.1
21-25 years	21	9.3
Monthly Spending		
Under IDR 5 M	24	10.6
IDR 5 M - IDR 15 M	164	72.6
IDR 16 M - IDR 30 M	29	12.8
IDR 31 M - IDR 45 M	8	3.5
IDR 46 M - IDR 60 M	1	0.4

The hypothesis relationship was tested using Pearson Correlation Coefficient.

Table 4. Coefficients Table

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients	t	Sig	R square
	Beta			
Extrinsic Rewards	1.10	18.48	0.000	0.60
Intrinsic Rewards	1.27	19.76	0.000	0.64
Social Rewards	1.15	17.06	0.000	0.56
Moderation of Rewards Separation	0.37	6.46	0.000	0.76

The hypothesis 1 (H1) for rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance, the results from table 3 showed that value at 0.05 significant level is 0.000 and the coefficient is 1.10, it is positive significant. According to the above results the null hypotheses (Ho) is rejected and the alternative hypotheses (H1) is accepted meaning that rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance. The R square results 0.60 shows that extrinsic rewards influence 60% on employee job performance. The test for Hypotheses 2 (H2): Intrinsic rewards has significant positive influence on employees' performance, the significance level is 0.000 and the coefficient is 1.27, supported the H2 means that intrinsic rewards has positive influence on employees' performance with influence factors 64%. The Results on hypothesis 3 (H3) shows the significant level is 0.000 and the coefficient is 1.15, the result is positive significant. According to the result the null hypotheses (Ho) is rejected and the alternative hypotheses (H2) is accepted means the result supported the hypothesis 3 and social rewards has positive influence on employees' performance. Social rewards are a factor that has 56% influence on job performance. For hypothesis 4 whether rewards separation has moderating variable for relationship between extrinsic rewards and employees' performance shows that the significant level is 0.000 and the R square of extrinsic variable is 0.0.60 and after moderation the R square is 0.76. It rose 16%. According to the above analysis the null hypotheses (Ho) is rejected and the alternative hypotheses (H4) is accepted.

As employee performance has significant impact on company performance and growth, many researchers studied on the impact of rewards specifically on extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Most of the attention of the existing research are on those two variables. Recently, there are a few researches had been conducted to find out the influence of third variable about social rewards on employee performance. However, it's very limited research have been done on the social rewards variable and no research using rewards separation as variable to test the moderating role on extrinsic rewards and employees' performance.

The finding of this study provide answer for research objective and the hypothesis testing of this study. The objective of the study is to find answer beyond extrinsic and intrinsic variables that are popular in recent decades as factors that can boost employees' performance. Social rewards and Rewards Separation as the answer of the research objective became the third variable that can be solution of the factors that can motivate employees' performance. The result of the study found that extrinsic, intrinsic rewards and social rewards have positive

influence on employees' performance and Rewards separations also moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and employees' performance. The significant impact of social rewards aligns with previous study (Jessen, 2010; Newman et al, 2011; Miao et al, 2013; Salah, 2016). Employee leaving the boss

not the organization, even if we give them high salary and good position that represents the two variables extrinsic and intrinsic variable, there is big possibility they leave us or remain the company but underperformed. Social rewards and the reward separation are the solution in maintaining employee performance. Supervisor and coworkers support in organization as a team bring performance culture that will impact company performance and growth in today's disruptive era.

The participants are 30% female, different from previous study that was 100% male and 60% are millennials who have been working in the company for less than 10 years with 72% monthly spending around IDR 5-15 million. In short, the participants are mostly male millennial with experience less than 10 years and salary below IDR 15 million. Those millennials would be given interesting assignment and attractive job and high salary to fund their traveling. The participants are working on a construction company in Jakarta and mostly are engineers, the job interesting for them can be combining working with traveling during their site visit. Those kinds of participants give us a view how millennials perceived about influence of rewards management on employees' performance, but, at the same time can be limitation of this research.

The term of social rewards is a new in research as well as in practical, we must give understanding to practitioners that this kind of rewards is not a cash benefits from social neighborhood but the rewards are more on social interactions within working environment or workplace. It has been many years that term of rewards is not about cash or money. Employees also should be familiar with the term and try to practice is in working environmental. This is the only rewards that not coming from employers but can be coming from coworkers or peers. As coworkers we don't need to give our peers a cash to apply social rewards just a smile and support during their difficulty time can be part of the rewards implementation. This reward is a unique and powerful in improving employees' performance. Support from coworkers is important during employee taking a leave, other employee can replace them temporarily by taking over their tasks. Not only good for employee who are on leave but it will sustain the business of the company and will give the peers who taking over the task. Doing other tasks will enlarge competency, multi-skilled employees are indispensable.

Another good thing is social rewards can be implemented with almost no cost for company side. A supportive working culture is a must to boost employees' performance as well as for company sustainability. The boss should not only instruct but they must lead and support the employees' performance and consider the obstacle of employees. The word of "it's not my business" is not a good word that come from a good leader. Everyone in the organization shares vision why everyone should have their own business. It's worst workplace condition when the boss does not consider the difficulty of employees (Bushiri, 2014).

Conclusion

Employees' performance is essential for sustainability of the organization; many factors influence the performance such as rewards management. The most popular variable in rewards management are extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. However, recently there are other variable that can have influence on the employees' performance, those factors are social rewards and rewards separations. The study found that social rewards also has positive influence on employees' performance and rewards separations has moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and employees' performance. Positive influence means that when we raise the level of rewards the employees' performance also will increase. Recommendation for future research is to involve more women and increase number of other generation than millennials. Another topic can be interesting to study further is to focus on social rewards on employees' performance.

References

- Aguinis, H., Joo, H., & Gottfredson, R.K. (2013). What monetary rewards can and cannot do: How to show employees the money. *Business Horizons*, 56(2), 241-249.
- Appleby, D. (2018). Job Hunting: Higher Pay vs. Better Benefits. Retrieved from Investopedia: <https://www.investopedia.com/articles/retirement/09/job-retirement-benefits.asp>
- Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice* (13 ed.). Kogan Page.
- Bari, N., Arif, U., & Shoaib, A. (2013). "Impact of Non-Financial Rewards on Employee Attitude & Performance in the workplace" A case study of Business Institutes of Karachi. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, 4(7), 2554-2559.
- Biro, M. (2014). Happy Employees = Hefty Profits. Retrieved from Forbes: <https://www.forbes.com/sites/meghanbiro/2014/01/19/happy-employees-hefty-profits/#3311c272221a>
- Bort, J., & Bernard, Z. (2017). The 50 best-paying big companies, according to employees. Retrieved from Business Insider: <https://www.businessinsider.com/comparably-50-best-paying-big-companies-salary-employees-2017-11/?IR=T>
- Bushiri, C.P. (2014). The Impact of Working Environment on Employees' Performance: The Case of Institute of Finance Management in Dar es Salaam Region. Open University of Tanzania, Dar-es-Salaam.
- Danish, R.Q., Khan, M.K., Shahid, A.U., Raza, I., & Humayon, A.A. (2015). Effect of intrinsic rewards on task performance of employees: Mediating role of motivation. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*, 4, 33-46.
- Dessler, G. (2017). *Human Resource Management* (15 ed.). Pearson.
- Edirisooriya, W.A. (2014). Impact of Rewards on Employee Performance: With Special Reference to ElectriCo. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Management and Economics*, 26, 311-318.
- Farooq, Q., & Shafique, M. (2016). Role of Intrinsic Rewards in Employee Perception and Motivation. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 6(5), 3.
- Gohari, P., Ahmadloo, A., Boroujeni, M., & Hosseinipour, S. (2013). The Relationship between Rewards and Employee Performance. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 5(3), 543-570.
- Haider, M., Aamir, A., Abdul Hamid, A.-B., & Hashim, M. (2015). A literature Analysis on the Importance of Non-Financial Rewards for

- Employees' Job Satisfaction. *Abasyn University Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(2), 341-354.
- Huang, C.J., & Hsueh, S.C. (2014). A Study of the Effect of Incentive System on Job Performance-Locus of Control as a Moderator. *Journal of Global Business Management*, 10(2), 57.
- Ibrar, M., & Khan, O. (2015). The Impact of Reward on Employee Performance (A Case Study of Malakand Private School). *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, 52, 95-103.
- Idrees, Z., Xinping, X., Shafi, K., Hua, L., & Nazeer, A. (2015). Effect of Salary, Training and Motivation on Job Performance of Employees. *American Journal of Business, Economics and Management*, 3(2), 55-58.
- Jean, K.N., Ngui, T.K., & Robert, A. (2017). Effect of Compensation Strategies on Employee Performance: A Case Study of Mombasa Cement Limited. *International Journal of Innovative Social Sciences & Humanities Research*, 5(3), 25-42.
- Jessen, J.T. (2010). Job Satisfaction and Social Rewards in the Social Services. *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 5(1), 18.
- Jones, K. (2017). The Most Desirable Employee Benefits. Retrieved from Harvard Business Review: <https://hbr.org/2017/02/the-most-desirable-employee-benefits>
- Jungert, T. (2012). The meaning of support from co-workers and managers in teams when working. Linköping University Electronic Press, Linköping.
- Kanwal, K., & Syed, M. (2017). Impact of Reward System On Employee Performance in Banking Sector. *RADS Journal of Social Sciences & Business Management*, 4(2), 82-103.
- Khan, N., Waqas, H., & Muneer, R. (2017). Impact of Rewards (Intrinsic and extrinsic) on Employee Performance: With Special Reference to Courier Companies of City Faisalabad, Pakistan. *International Journal of Management Excellence*, 8(2), 937-945.
- Kumar, D., Hossain, M.Z., & Nasrin, M.S. (2015). Impact of Non-Financial Rewards on Employee Motivation. *Middle East Journal Scientific Research*, 21(10), 1776-1786.
- Loi, R., Ao, O., & Xu, A. (2014). Perceived organizational support and coworker support as antecedents of foreign workers' voice and psychological stress. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 23-30.
- Malik, M., Butt, A., & Choi, J. (2015). Rewards and employee creative performance: Moderating effects of creative self-efficacy, reward importance, and locus of control. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36, 59-74.

- McMahon, A. (2014). Are Your Employees Quitting YOU? Retrieved from LinkedIn: <https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/20141002002115-51211860-are-your-employees-quitting-you/>
- Miao, Q., Newman, A., Sun, Y., & Xu, L. (2013). What factors influence the organizational commitment of public sector employees in China? The role of extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(17), 3262-3280.
- Ndungu, D.N. (2017). The Effects of Rewards and Recognition on Employee Performance in Public Educational Institutions: A Case of Kenyatta University the Effects of Rewards and Recognition on Employee Performance in Public Educational Chapter One. Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed *International Research Journal*, 17(1), 43-68.
- Newman, A., & Sheikh, A. (2012). Organizational commitment in Chinese small- and medium-sized enterprises: the role of extrinsic, intrinsic and social rewards. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(2), 349-367.
- Njanja, W.L., Maina, R.N., Kibet, L.K., & Njagi, K. (2013). Effect of Reward on Employee Performance: A Case of Kenya Power and Lighting Company Ltd., Nakuru, Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8(21), 41-49.
- Nujjoo, A., & Meyer, I. (2012). The relative importance of different types of rewards for employee motivation and commitment in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 442-452.
- Nyaga, J.W. (2015). Non-Financial Reward and Employee Retention in Private Primary Schools in Kenya (Kiambu County). *International Journal of Management and Commerce Innovations*, 3(1), 240-254.
- Özutku, H. (2012). The Influence of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards on Employee Results: An Empirical Analysis in Turkish Manufacturing Industry. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 3(3), 29-48.
- Ryan, L. (2016). The Five Biggest Differences Between Good Managers and Bad Ones. Retrieved from Forbes: <https://www.forbes.com/sites/lizryan/2016/02/16/the-five-biggest-differences-between-good-managers-and-bad-ones/#57f0ef321e9d>
- Salah, M. (2016). The Influence of Rewards on Employees Performance. *British Journal of Economics, Management & Trade*, 13(4), 1-25.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (7 ed.). Wiley.
- Seng, N., & Arumugam, T. (2017). Financial reward and motivation toward employee job performance in the hospitality industry in Klang Valley. *Electronic Journal of Business & Management*, 2(1), 51-60.
- Smith, E., Joubert, P., & Karodia, A. (2015). The Impact of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards on Employee Motivation at a Medical Devices

- Company in South Africa. *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 5(1), 39-87.
- Syahreza, D., Lumbanraja, P., Dalimunthe, R., & Absah, Y. (2017). Compensation, employee performance, and mediating role of retention: A study of differential semantic scales. *European Research Studies Journal*, 20(4A), 151-159.
- Vosloban, R. (2012). The Influence of the Employee's Performance on the Company's Growth - A Managerial Perspective. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 3(12), 660-665.
- Wiltermuth, S.S., & Gino, F. (2013). "I'll have one of each": How separating rewards into (meaningless) categories increases motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 104(1), 1-13.
- Yang, T., Shen, Y., Zhu, M., Liu, Y., Deng, J., Chen, Q., & See, L. (2015). Effects of co-worker and supervisor support on job stress and presenteeism in an aging workforce: A structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 13(1), 15.
- Zaraket, W., & Saber, F. (2017). The Impact of Financial Reward on Job Satisfaction and Performance: Implications for Blue Collar Employees. *China-USA Business Review*, 16(8), 369-378.
- Zhang, B., & Morris, J. (2014). High-performance work systems and organizational performance: testing the mediation role of employee outcomes using evidence from PR China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(1), 68-90.

Appendices

Appendix A

Table 5. Indicator Codes

No	Variable	Indicators	Kode
1	Extrinsic	Basic Salary	EX1
2	Extrinsic	Bonus Performance	EX2
3	Extrinsic	Incentive	EX3
4	Extrinsic	Retirement Benefits	EX4
5	Extrinsic	Medical Benefits	EX5
16	Extrinsic	Basic Salary	EX6
17	Extrinsic	Bonus Performance	EX7
18	Extrinsic	Incentive	EX8
18	Extrinsic	Incentive	EX8
19	Extrinsic	Retirement Benefits	EX9
20	Extrinsic	Medical Benefits	EX10
6	Intrinsic	Recognition	IN1
7	Intrinsic	Appraise and Appreciation	IN2
8	Intrinsic	Work Freedom and Independence	IN3
9	Intrinsic	Advancement & Growth	IN4
10	Intrinsic	Training and Skill Development	IN5
21	Intrinsic	Recognition	IN6
22	Intrinsic	Appraise and Appreciation	IN7
23	Intrinsic	Work Freedom and Independence	IN8
24	Intrinsic	Advancement & Growth	IN9
25	Intrinsic	Training and Skill Development	IN10
11	Social	Supervisor Support	SC1
12	Social	Social Status	SC2
13	Social	Positive colleagues Relationship	SC3
14	Social	Supportive environment	SC4
15	Social	Care and Supportive Attitude	SC5
26	Social	Supervisor Support	SC6
27	Social	Social Status	SC7
28	Social	Positive colleagues Relationship	SC8
29	Social	Supportive environment	SC9
30	Social	Care and Supportive Attitude	SC10
31	Rewards Separation	Categorization Incentive	RS1
32	Rewards Separation	Categorization Incentive	RS2
33	Rewards Separation	Categorization Incentive	RS3
34	Rewards Separation	Categorization Incentive	RS4
35	Rewards Separation	Extrinsic, Intrinsic and Social	RS5

Table 6. Questionnaires

Kode	Pertanyaan
EX1	Gaji pokok mempengaruhi seberapa besar usaha diberikan
EX2	Seharusnya Bonus diberikan untuk membedakan karyawan yang berkinerja baik atau bukan
EX3	Insentif yang diberikan memacu produktifitas
EX4	Tunjangan Pensiun memberikan rasa nyaman saat pensiun dan membuat karyawan mengeluarkan kinerja terbaiknya
EX5	Medical Benefit yang ditawarkan memberikan jaminan pada saya dan keluarga
EX6	Makin besar gaji sudah semestinya performa yang dikeluarkan makin optimal
EX7	Besaran bonus untuk yang berkinerja baik seharusnya lebih besar dibanding yang kurang baik kinerjanya
EX8	Semakin lama ditempat kerja semakin banyak insentif yang diperoleh
EX8	Semakin banyak hasil kerja semakin banyak insentif yang diperoleh
EX9	Karena terjamin masa pensiunnya maka performa yang terbaik yang diupayakan
EX10	Kesehatan sudah dijamin oleh perusahaan sehingga tidak ada kekhawatiran untuk fokus bekerja lebih baik
IN1	Penghargaan Karyawan Terbaik Diberikan Dengan Maksud Untuk Memotivasi Karyawan Agar Lebih Giat Dalam Bekerja
IN2	Perasaan dihargai, dihormati dan didukung membuat saya lebih semangat dalam kerja
IN3	Kebebasan dan Keleluasaan dalam berkarya membuat saya mencapai kinerja terbaik
IN4	Perusahaan memberikan kesempatan yang baik untuk maju dan berkembang
IN5	Perusahaan memberikan pelatihan dan pengembangan keterampilan untuk menunjang kinerja karyawan
IN6	Penghargaan akan pencapaian terbaik memotivasi karyawan dan yang lain untuk memberikan performa terbaik
IN7	Merasa dihargai, dihormati dan didukung membuat saya menghasilkan kinerja yang tak ternilai
IN8	Bebas dalam menentukan metode dalam bekerja membuat saya lebih efektif dalam bekerja
IN9	Adanya kesempatan untuk berkembang dan maju, membuat karyawan semakin berlomba dalam mencapai puncak kinerja
IN10	Pelatihan dan pengembangan membuat lebih memahami dan siap dalam bekerja sehingga menghasilkan kinerja yang baik
SC1	Dukungan atasan membuat kinerja karyawan lebih baik
SC2	Memahami pentingnya peran yang kita lakukan dalam perusahaan, membuat kita semakin bangga dan berkinerja baik
SC3	Hubungan dengan rekan kerja yang baik dan saling melengkapi bisa meningkatkan kinerja karyawan dan perusahaan
SC4	Komunikasi di lingkungan kerja terjalin dengan baik membuat nyaman dalam menghasilkan karya
SC5	Sifat saling peduli dan mendukung membuat kinerja karyawan dan tim tetap baik
SC6	Dukungan dari atasan dalam menghadapi kesulitan membuat karyawan lebih baik dalam bekerja
SC7	Pekerjaan saya dipandang bermartabat sehingga merasa bangga karena bisa berkontribusi dalam pekerjaan yang bernilai
SC8	Antar karyawan saling membantu apabila terjadi kesulitan dalam menyelesaikan pekerjaan
SC9	Lingkungan kerja yang saling mendukung membuat karyawan bisa menyelesaikan setiap pekerjaan
SC10	Perhatian dan perilaku saling mendukung membuat karyawan saling bahu membahu dalam menyelesaikan pekerjaan
RS1	Dengan adanya tambahan penghasilan dari setiap usaha yang kita lakukan akan membuat kita selalu optimal dalam melakukan pekerjaan
RS2	Tanpa adanya perbedaan kompensasi antara kinerja baik dan buruk membuat kita tidak bekerja optimal
RS3	Adanya potensi tambahan pendapatan (Overtime/Incentive/Bonus), Memacu karyawan untuk melakukan pekerjaan yang diminta
RS4	Kawatir akan kehilangan uang Lembur atau insentif, membuat saya bekerja lebih dari jam normal
RS5	Gaji besar dan posisi yang menarik tanpa adanya dukungan dari atasan dan rekan kerja membuat kinerja saya kurang optimal

WHY IN VARIOUS PARTY AND MOVING TO OTHER POLITICS PARTIES: A CASE STUDY OF CHINESE ETHNIC IN INDONESIA, NORTH SUMATRA PROVINCE

Rudi Salam Sinaga¹, Y.Warella², Yuwanto³, Budi Setiyono⁴

Abstract

Chinese Ethnic in Indonesia as a minority ethnic in terms of population number and religion, but on the other hand, it is understood as an ethnic that majority control the private economic sector. Political freedom of Chinese ethnic was only gained when the New Order regime ended in 1998. General elections in 1999 as the initial of Indonesia entered the democracy era which emphasized the right equality in social, economic and politic aspects. In the local context in the North Sumatera Province, people of Chinese ethnic began to be attracted in entering the arena of politic as the candidate of Regional People's Legislative Assembly (DPRD) members in 2004 General elections in several regencies/cities in North Sumatera Province until 2014 elections. This study aims to examine why the Chinese ethnic engage themselves in contestation of DPRD member candidate and scattered in various politic parties also moving to another politic parties in each general elections. The data obtained through interviews, literature studies, and documentation. The results of this study show that in General Elections arena in the open proportional system based on the most votes obtained there is democratization in the social cultural value of Chinese ethnic that forms the individual political awareness. The different of political experiences influence their point of view in determining the choice of politic parties to be the candidates for DPRD members.

¹ Rudi Salam Sinaga, is student of Doctoral Program in Social Science, Diponegoro University, West Erlangga Street, Number 31. Semarang City-Indonesia. Lecturer of Medan Area University, Medan City- Indonesia. Contact email address: rudisalam@staff.uma.ac.id.

² Y.Warella, Professor, is Lecturer of Doctoral Program of Social Science of Diponegoro University, Semarang City-Indonesia. Contact email address: prof.y.warella@gmail.com.

³ Yuwanto, Ph.D. is Lecturer of Doctoral Program of Social Science of Diponegoro University, Semarang City-Indonesia. Contact email address: yuwantosaja@yahoo.com

⁴ Budi Setiyono, Ph.D, is Lecturer of Doctoral Program of Social Science of Diponegoro University, Semarang City-Indonesia. Contact email address: bsetiyono@hotmail.com.

Keywords: Minority Ethnic, Indonesian Chinese Ethnic, DPRD Members, Political Parties.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art4>

Introduction

Studies toward minority ethnic in the politics arena of General elections have become an attention in various democratic countries. The main focus is on the issue of the minority ethnic representation in various political dimensions such as minority ethnic integration to the political system (Adolino, 1993: 254-255). In order to influence policies that stand up for the minority group Robbin (2000: 445) explain that political participation will be more effective if the minority groups understand the technical knowledge in influencing the policy. The representation of minority ethnic in the politic recruitment in some of the political positions (see Stegmaier, Lewis-Beck, & Smets, 2013) also become a concern in the study of minority ethnic in the political arena. In the study Mugge (2016: 16) obtained that in certain condition, the female candidates from woman ethnic can be superior than the man in an election and a study Aydemir & Vliegenthart (2015: 17) explore the views of legislative members from minorities ethnic, they are not always attracted in discussing the issues which represent the minorities ethnic in the legislative institutions. Some of previous studies shown that the issue of minority ethnic involvement in political arena become an important thing because democratic countries guarantee the equality of citizen rights and invite the citizen to give their political participation in the political arena.

In Indonesian context, Indonesian Chinese ethnic is a minority ethnic in Indonesia. Population census data in 2010 published by Indonesian Republic Central Statistical Agency (BPS RI) in 2011 showed that the national population of Chinese ethnic was 2.832.510 people or about 1,2 percent of the total population of Indonesian, amounting 236.728.379 people (BPS RI, 2011: 9; also see Chong (2015: 492). The changing of political system in Indonesian from authoritarian to democracy in 1999 contributed to the implication toward the “new” political culture for Chinese ethnic people which gradually formed their political awareness in participating in political arena General elections. Study toward the representation of Indonesian Chinese ethnic in the electoral political arena was began since the democratic system replacing the authoritarian system, which is marked through the first democratic general elections in 1999. After the end of the New Orde regime Freedman (2003) explored the changes of social-political identity of Chinese ethnic in Indonesia that showed the Chinese ethnic awareness

as the citizens has risen in the post-reform era by forming several political parties of Chinese ethnic-based. General elections with the direct system in post-reform era require significant expenses for the political parties to hold their political activities approach the general elections. Chong (2015: 503-507) shows the candidates effort from political parties to gain the costs support toward General elections campaign by establishing the communication of symbiotic mutualism with the entrepreneur society of Chinese ethnic.

While in the political arena of General elections in the local level Juliastutik (2010) look at the political behaviour of elite from Chinese ethnic community post-reform era. Sweinstani & Mariyah (2017) see that their political participation as the candidates of DPRD members. Faraidiany (2016) obtained, the used of ethnic identity in the political arena of General Elections. The involvement of Chinese ethnic in the electoral political arena of General Election is not just as the voter or as elected, but also Humaizi, Ermansyah, & Sinaga (2018) show the involvement of Chinese ethnic as the candidate support group in Election of Regional Head. Damanik (2016: 70-86) gained the usage pattern of patronage and clientelism networks to break through the support from the voter in the ethnic community and religion to win the candidate of Chinese ethnic to ran for as the candidates of DPRD members. This study takes a position to fill the gaps from the previous studies by analysing why the Chinese ethnic interested in becoming DPRD Members, why they are scattered in various political parties and why they tend to move to another political parties in every general election. To find out the answers to these questions, this study was assisted by Freedman's theory Freedman (1998: 225-226) who claimed in the condition of open political system, Chinese ethnic would involve themselves in the political arena by the support of elite and individual group and organization network.

Research Method

This study use qualitative research in the form of case study using descriptive method. The data obtained through interviews, literature studies and documentation. To analyse the validity of this study data using triangulation techniques. The key informants in this study are the candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province in 2014 from Chinese ethnic who were the subject in this study. This study also use supporting informants come from the political party administrators.

Discussion

1. The Role of Chinese Ethnic in the General Election of DPRD Members

The equality of rights in the social-economic and political aspects in Indonesia is formed when the democracy become the foundation in the state. Indonesian democracy born through the people movement which is called as Reformation Movement which took place in 1998 to end the authoritarian administration of New Order regime under the President Suharto leadership. Discriminatory policies which was implemented in the New Order regime are seen through the implementation of Inpres No. 14 in the year of 1967 that regulating the religious activity of Chinese ethnic can only be done in the internal environment (family, individual) and religious celebration should not be carried out prominently in public. Discrimination in this social religious aspect has resulted in the activity isolation of Chinese ethnic from social integration. Otherwise there is an Ampera Cabinet Presidium Circular about Chinese problem Number 06/Preskab/6/67 which emphasizes the use of Chinese terms to the people of Tionghoa ethnic (see Sutrisno & dkk, 2006: 117).. The implications of this legal instrument make Indonesian Chinese ethnic as the marginal people groups, isolated from their political right and intermingling as the citizen.

Discrimination era toward Chinese ethnic in Indonesia ended when the New Order era transformed to the Reformation era by the implementation of democracy system as the replacement of authoritarian system which began through General election in 1999 (see Haris, 2014: 13-17). One of the interesting things in the journey of Indonesian General Election since the general election in 1999 until the general election in 2014 is the emergence of Indonesian Chinese ethnic in the political arena to achieve political position through General Election. This action can be seen in the scope of National Legislative General elections (The House of Representatives) and in the scope of Local General Election (Regional People's Representative Council). Chinese ethnic representation in the political arena of General election in the local level that is in the North Sumatera Province has shown the forming of political awareness among Chinese ethnic society which marked by their participation as the political parties administrators, the candidates of DPRD members in some of regencies/cities and in the Province level, even Sofya Tan was ran for the candidate of the of Medan city head in 2010.

The total population of Chinese ethnic in North Sumatera Province based on the Population census data (SP) which published by Statistic Agency (BPS) North Sumatera Province in 2010 totalled 340.320 people

from the total population of North Sumatera Province which amounted to 12.981.432 people (BPS, 2010). This data shows that Chinese ethnic is minority citizen group in Indonesian but in the economic arena Noviani (2009: 121) notes that Chinese ethnic has successfully controlled for about 70 percent of private economic sector. Through this economic power and social ethnic solidarity which reinforce them to make their position to be the attraction of political parties in completing their need of campaign cost facing the general election.

General election in the local level of DPRD member general election of North Sumatera Province in 2014, some of the Chinese ethnic were included in the list of DPRD members candidates in several political parties. The data obtained from General Elections Commission (KPU) of North Sumatera Province shows the composition of DPRD members candidates from North Sumatera Province from Chinese ethnic spread in Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle (PDIP or Partai Demokrasi Indonesia Perjuangan) as many 5 people, Gerindra Party (P.Gerindra or Partai Gerakan Indonesia Raya) as many 2 people, National Mandate Party (PAN or Partai Amanat Nasional) as many 1 people, Indonesian Justice and Unity Party (PKPI or Partai Keadilan dan Persatuan Indonesia) as many 2 people, National Awakening Party (PKB or Partai Kebangkitan Bangsa) as many 1 people and Democratic Party (PD or Partai Demokrat) as many 1 people.

Table: DPRD Member Candidates of North Sumatera Province from Chinese ethnic based on the party: 2014 General Election

Parties	The Name of DPRD Member Candidate of North Sumatera Province					Sum of the candidate
PDIP	Yo Emil Lines	Sukiran	Juliutari	Brilian Moktar	Ferdinan Godang	5 people
PD	Ramli					1 people
PKB	Ng Kok Pheng					1 people
PAN	Tjja Susanto Wijaya					1 people
PKPI	Haryanto	Sanny Joan Salim				2 people
P.Gerindra	Tony	Sonny				2

dra	Chandra	Firdaus				people
-----	---------	---------	--	--	--	--------

Source: General Election Commission (KPU) of North Sumatera Province in 2014.

From the data in the table above shows that it was happened political channels penetration to only one political party even some of the Chinese ethnic who ran for to be DPRD members have been promoted as DPRD member candidates from different parties in the previous general elections. The image of political parties movement between the candidates of DPRD members from one general election to other general election was carried out by Ferdinan Godang (Godang), Sony Firdaus (Firdaus) and Sukiran. Godang in 2004 General election ran for himself as the candidates of DPRD members of Medan City from Democratic Party (PD), in 2009 General election ran for the candidate of DPRD member of Medan city from Indonesian Justice and Unity Party (PKPI) then renominating himself in 2014 General election as the candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province from Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle (PDIP) these data shows that Godang has been changed his party as much as three times. Similar condition also experienced by Firdaus when 2009 General election hold Firdaus ran for as the candidates of DPRD Members of North Sumatera Province from New Indonesia Party of Struggle (PPIB or Partai Perjuangan Indonesia Baru) and re-nominated himself as the candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province in 2014 general election from PDIP. The other Chinese ethnic Sukiran recorded that in 2009 to be the candidates of DPRD members of Medan city from PPIB and re-nominated in 2014 general election to be the candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province from PDIP (KPU North Sumatera Province, 2014).

2. The Interest of Chinese Ethnic to be the Candidates of DPRD Members

Legislative general election were held in 9 April 2014 to choose the legislative both in the national level (The member The House of Representatives/DPR) and in the local level (The member of the Regional People's Legislative Assembly /DPRD). In the local level in North Sumatera Province in 2014 General there were 12 people of Chinese ethnic who were nominated to be the candidates of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province which were spread to 6 political parties. From the total Chinese ethnic, there were 3 names who have ever had experiences to be the candidates of DPRD members in 2004, 2009, and 2014 general election on the different level and from the different parties. Those three names are Ferdinan Godang (Godang),

Sukiran and Sonny Firdaus (Firdaus). For more detail can be seen on the table below:

Table: The Movement of Political Parties of the Candidates of DPRD members from Chinese Ethnic.

Name	2004 General Election	2009 General Election	2014 General election
Ferdinan Godang	PD	PKPI	PDIP
Sonny Firdaus		PPIB	P. Gerindra
Sukiran		PPIB	PDIP

Source: Processed from General Election Commission (KPU) of Medan in 2004 and in 2009 follow by the data from North Sumatera Province KPU in 2014.

The table above shows that Godang recorded to move party as much as 3 times (PD, PKPI and PDIP), Firdaus as much as 2 times and Sukiran recorded to move party as much as 2 times. Those three candidate of DPRD member (Godang, Firdaus and Sukiran) show inconsistency attitude of their carriers in political parties. Godang, Firdaus and Sukiran attitude to move political parties as if show that the image of party has not become the main aspect to attract the voter's attention to the political actor, moreover, the political system with multiparty enable the emergence of new parties as the political channel for political actors.

The main purpose of Godang, Firdaus and Sukiran is to be able to compete and achieve the position of DPRD members in General election. Godang (Interview, 14 December, 2017) explains that the background of his candidacy as the candidates of DPRD member is based on his own awareness, while Sukiran (Interview, 25 July 2018) explained that his candidacy as the candidates of DPRD member was based on the encouragement of their colleagues and himself to follow the urge. Interview communication with Firdaus was not successfully done, some of messages via WhatsApp sent multiple times but have not received an answer of his agreement to be interview. Godang and Sukiran was very open with the questions related with themselves, but different with Firdaus who seem do not want to be interviewed or avoid the questions. Firdaus existence as the candidate of DPRD member from Gerindra Party explained by Robert L. Tobing, the secretary of Gerindra Party of North Sumatera Province by saying:

"...Gerindra Party as nationalist party based on Pancasila principle, as the open party that accepts the candidacy of DPRD member from across ethnic, religion and profession... (Tobing, Interview, 4 June, 2018).

Tobing statement above has explained the existence of various ethnics as the openness characteristic of Gerindra Party as nationalist party. Thus, Gerindra party become one of nationalist party that attract minority ethnic community, included Chinese ethnic because Gerindra Party carried pluralism values of nationality.

Godang and Sukiran involvement to be the candidate of DPRD member were motivated to fight for the problem faced by the people as Godang said:

“... In order to be able to express aspiration and idea to advance our own region...” (Godang, Interview, 14 December, 2017).

Godang statement is in line with the function of legislative institute (DPRD) which the duty is to absorb and fight for people aspiration. Similar statement also explained by Sukiran by saying:

“..., to make changes for people, we have to enter the system...” (Sukiran, Interview 25 July 2018)

Godang and Sukiran statement shows their understanding about the function and the authority of DPRD, so that their political awareness forms into the active action to participate as the candidates of DPRD member. On the other side, past experiences also has provided Sukiran motivation to enter the politics. Their background of social life that was isolated and pressed by the social situation in New Order era bring Sukiran to actively participate in the organization activities in the campus environment while he was studying in Faculty of Law of Dharmawangsa University. Organizational activities on campus have formed Sukiran political awareness to begin favouring of political activities, even more so in 1998 Sukiran has witnessed the political movement of Amin Rais (Rais) as the figure of reformation movement who dared to fight the New Orde regime. Sukiran admiration to the political movement of Rais made Sukiran to join with the organization of National Mandate of the Youth Mandate (BM-PAN) around 1998-1999 and for the first time Sukiran enter the political party in 2004 with PPIB.

The openness of democracy in 1999, step by step forming the citizen political participation. The political participation of Chinese ethnic has increased in every General election because of the system of General election used is a direct General election system with open proportional system based on the most votes. In this kind of General election system the equality of right will be valid to both minority and majority ethnics. The Chinese ethnic involvement in political arena with the open politic system explained by Freedman (1998: 111-146) in his dissertation which

found that Chinese ethnic can involve themselves in the political arena with the open politic system and that involvement influenced by several indicators such as elite, individual networks, group networks and comunity organization of Chinese ethnic Freedman Freedman (1998: 225-226).

The result of General election which have Godang participated (General election of 2004, 2009 and 2014), Sukiran (General election of 2009 and 2014) and Firdaus (General election of 2009 and 2014) generally each of them received the vote from the voter but only Firdaus who was able to obtain the total votes as require to be the member of DPRD in the General election of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province in 2014. Godang, Sukiran and Firdaus involvement in the political arena of General election intensively showed their strong desire in themselves to be DPRD member, to get the vote form the voter in democratic country with the open system and based on the most votes, so it is very important to build their self-image (figure) and actively involved in the solving problem faced by the people, so that it has an impact in increasing of their popularity and electability.

3. In Various Party and Party Movement among the Community of DPRD Members Candidates from Chinese Ethnic

In General elections contestation in 2014 from the data of KPU North Sumatera Province it is revealed that there were 6 political parties used by Chinese ethnic as the politic access to be the candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province. This situation can lead to torn apart of the voter attention in the community of Chinese ethnic based on the party choices, in addition that the choice candidates of DPRD members in one electoral region there are more than 2 candidates of DPRD members from Chinese ethnic. According to Indra Wahidin (Wahidin), the deputy head of the Chinese Indonesian Association (INTI Association) that democratization which happened in Indonesia has moved to all over life principle in citizenship included in the ethnic segmentation. Each individual has the political right which is admitted in the Act so the differences political choices including in choosing to have carrier in the any political party is individual political right that could not be limited. Social organization of INTI Association understands about democratizations and respects the social and political rights of the members of INTI Association by calling to keep the harmonies of brotherhood, nation and state in carrying out the social and political right of every individual (Wahidin, Interview, 20 February, 2017).

Democracy and democratization process give the new stage for every individual to be able to explore individual political understanding and

increase in the form of active political participation such as to be the cadre of party and to be the candidates in several political position. The diversity of political parties choice from Chinese ethnic to ran for the candidate of DPRD member show the efforts of exploring the party choice is done independently (by themselves) or without any influenced by the collectivity perception of Chinese ethnic group. What has been said by Wahidin about democratization which has an impact up to the ethnic segmentation has been proved by the difference of political party choice in Chinese ethnic community to run for the candidates of DPRD member in 2014 General election. Political right has been admitted by the country and the direct General election system with multi party system make the party cadre can move to another party. Furthermore, there are no tight regulation that limit the party movement. The party movement of the candidates of DPRD members from Chinese ethnic experienced by Godang (PD in 2004, PKPI in 2009 and PDIP in 2014), Sukiran (PPIB in 2009 and PDIP in 2014) and Firdaus (PPIB in 2009 and P. Gerindra in 2014).

Vermonte (2014: 83) noted that PKPI as nationalist party that carrying Pancasila ideology, then Macdonald (2013: 156) recorded that PD as nationalist party, Sofianto (2015: 164) recorded PDIP as nationalist party and Suwarko (2013: 284) recorder that PPIB as the party with ideology of democratic socialism. The majority of the movement party that occurred between the candidates of DPRD member (Godang, Sukiran and Firdaus) are seen to move around the party area that carry nationalist ideology except PPIB. Some studies show the political behaviour of Chinese ethnic which tend to choose the nationalist-leaning parties (see Ranto, 2014: 211). The characteristic of nationalist party have the party platform that fight for pluralism and nationality values so that in this situation, the Chinese ethnic will feel comfortable in fulfilling their social, economic and political activities as the citizen.

There are reason for someone who move from one party to another party such as the disappointment toward their previous party which were considered to not be able to ran the party management and only oriented to chase the authority kekuasaan (Bariroh, 2014: 142; Astrika, 2009: 1), personal interests to achieve the purpose to get the authority and money (Sarirani, 2015: 7, 9). The movement of cadre from one party to another party generally because there are lack of accommodation to the individual importance in party organization. The phenomenon of party cadre movement from one party to another party according to Radean (2013: 48-49) become the problem of democratic country, moreover in the representative democratic system. In order to maintain the freedom value in expressing the political right in party, it needs law

instrument to manage about the limitation of party movement or at least touching the number of movement which is tolerated for each party cadre.

In General election arena of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province in 2014 was gained by some candidates of DPRD member which their background have ever moved to another political party to the candidacy of DPRD member in the same level or in the different level.

Table: The candidate movement of DPRD member from Chinese ethnic based on the politic party and Election level.

Name	General election 2004	General election 2009	General election 2014
Ferdinan Godang	The candidate of DPRD member of Medan City from Demokrat Party	The candidate of DPRD member of Medan City from PKPI	The candidate of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province from PDIP
Sonny Firdaus		The candidate of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province from PPIB	The candidate of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province from Gerindra
Sukiran		The candidate of DPRD member of Medan City in 2009 from PPIB.	The candidate of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province 2014 from PDIP

Source: Process from General Election Commission (KPU) Medan City in 2004 and 2009 also the data of KPU North Sumatera Province in 2014.

From the table above show that Firdaus done the party movement as much as 2 times from PPIB in 2009 to Gerindra Party in 2014. Firdaus was not successful to be interviewed although has been contacted several times via mobile and also via WhatsApp message. Godang has been moved as much as 3 times from PD (2004) to PKPI (2009) and the last to PDIP in 2014 General Election. Related to party cadre movement from one party to another, Godang explains the importance of comfortable condition in party organization. He related with the criteria

as the example from determining the candidate of DPRD member in the party by saying:

“... it is important to find person who is honest, discipline, loyal and not only oriented to money but more on the quality of the candidate...” (Godang, Interview, 14 December, 2017).

Godang statement above directed to one willingness which he wished to happen in the party organization by realizing that condition so Godang get the feeling of comfortable in the political party. Godang focus on the quality aspect from a candidate of DPRD member which will be bring by the party and not only oriented to the financial. Quality indicators in Godang view related with honesty, discipline and loyalty. The quality concept mention by Gondang indeed now is very difficult to find as the party orientation because the reinforcing of pragmatism in the political party.

Sukiran have ever moved to another party as much as twice before the General Election. In 2009 General election, recorded as the candidate of DPRD member of Medan City from PPIB and in 2014 General election he ran for from PDIP as the candidate of DPRD member of North Sumatera Province. The party movement done by Sukiran because PPIB was not register anymore as the participant in the General Election in 2014. In Sukiran point of view, the consistency in party become the important thing and even more important than that the party chosen also has the consistent behaviour (Sukiran, Interview, 25 July 2018). Political party behaviour reflected from the implementation of political party function in internal and external party. If the political party was not able to show the party behaviour which appropriate with the party decision so that it caused the party cadre to move to other party. Several problems underlying the political party behaviour in Indonesia are the activity inheritance in social political sector or oligarchy-meritocracy (Purwaningsih, 2017: 163), oligarchy and the close recruitment process of DPRD member (Yanika, 2014: 14).

Multiparty political system with open proportional concept based on the most vote in the contestation arena of legislative General election open the space as wide as possible for the citizens in every ethnic segmentation, religion and profession to be able to participate as the candidate of DPRD member. In this study, Freedman's claim (1998: 225-226) has been proved to be right that Chinese ethnic can involve themselves in the political arena of General election when the condition of political system is open, in the same manner as identic to the direct election with multiparty party system and the candidacy of DPRD member based on the open proportional system and the selection based

on the most voted. To achieve the success in contestation candidate of DPRD member of Chinese ethnic using patronage and clientelism concept through the influence of elite in community, individual and institution community network.

4. The Regulation about the Party Membership and Party Movement

Law instrument used in every Legislative General election in Indonesia is different from one election to the next election but the equality in every law instrument is emphasize that the election is done directly, generally, freely, honestly and secretly. The requirement about the candidacy of DPRD member is regulated in Law and KPU Regulation. In 2004 election it was used two law instrument of Law Number 31 Year 2002 About the Politic Party and Law Number 12 Year 2003 About the General Election of The House of Representatives member and Regional People's Legislative Assembly. Then in 2009 election it was used three law instrument Law Number 22 Year 2007 About General election coordination and Law Number 10 Year 2008 about the General election of The House of Representatives member and Regional People's Legislative Assembly and in 2014 election it was used only one law instrument that is Law Number 8 Year 2012 about the General election of The House of Representatives member and Regional People's Legislative Assembly. From all of the law instrument used in every General election, it was never touch about the problem that limit the party replacement in party member/cadre community. The regulation that always become the orientation in every Law is that the future candidate of DPRD member is the member of politic party that participate in the election and was candidated only in one representative institute and only in one election region (Dapil).

The party movement of the party cadre is a common thing in a democratic country, more over the political party as the organization work in the area of political interest which ran dynamically and has its own dynamic in the internal of organization but the party movement in cadre community if it is done repeatedly with great quantities so this condition lead to bad result in the future of political party institute in democracy country. According to Directorate of Politics and Communication of the Ministry of National Development of the Republic of Indonesia / National Development Planning Agency (PPN/BAPPENAS, 2016: 51) move to another party will have on the decreasing of the voter preference to the candidate figure carry by the party and this condition happened as the result of the loosed of forming of cadres system in political party which has the characteristic elitist and pragmatic. Snagovsky (2015: 68) in his study found that the party

movement done by the political actor can influenced voter's trusty in the General Election.

5. Conclusion

The involvement of Chinese ethnic as the candidate of DPRD member in North Sumatera Province showed the political participation in minority ethnic community has been formed the a good political awareness and in the same time the political party open themselves to accommodate the minority ethnic in register to be the candidates of DPRD member. The movement from one party to another party in the party cadre community to run for themselves as the candidates of DPRD members in General election happened as the effort of individual actor to ensure their candidacy as the candidates of DPRD members could be realized in the internal party. On this condition, individual and organization network of ethnic community play a central role to support the actor to be accepted as the candidate of DPRD member in the political party. The movement of cadre from one party to another also because there are no law instrument that manage and limit tightly about the party movement in the party cadre community. Freedman's claim (1998: 225-226) has been proved to be right in this study. This study give suggestion to provide the limitation of party movement that can be tolerated to each party cadre in the form of formal law, so that the public trusty of party organization were not decrease.

References

- Adolino, J. R. (1993). Representation and political Integration: Ethnic Minority Local Councillors in Britain. Dissertation. The Ohio State University.
- Astrika, L. (2009). Intensitas Perpindahan Keanggotaan Partai Politik: Tinjauan Sikap dan Norma Subyektif Anggota Partai. *Politika: Jurnal Ilmu Politik*, 2(2), 1–14. Retrieved from <https://ejournal.undip.ac.id/index.php/politika/article/viewFile/4947/4487>
- Aydemir, N., & Vliegenthart, R. (2015). "Minority Representatives" in the Netherlands: Supporting , Silencing or Suppressing ? *Parliamentary Affairs*, 69(1), 1–20. <http://doi.org/10.1093/pa/gsv009>
- Bariroh, L. (2014). Positioning Ideologi Partai Politik Pada Preferensi Politik Santri. *Jurnal Review Politik*, 4(1), 133–164. Retrieved from <urnalpolitik.uinsby.ac.id/index.php/jrp/article/download/48/48/>
- Chong, W.-L. (2015). Local Politics and Chinese Indonesian Business in Post-Suharto Era. *Southeast Asian Studies*, 4(3), 487–532. Retrieved from <http://englishkyoto-seas.org/2015/12/vol-4-no-3-chong/>
- Damanik, A. T. (2016). Medan, North Sumatra: Between Ethnic Politics and Money Politics. In E. Aspinall & M. Sukmajati (Eds.), *Electoral Dynamics In Indonesia: Money Politics, Patronage and Clientelism at the Grassroots* (pp. 70–86). Singapore: NUS Press.
- Faraidiany, M. (2016). Politik Identitas Etnis Tionghoa di Kota Medan. *Jurnal Politeia*, 8(2), 74–82.
- Freedman, A. (2003). Political Institutions and Ethnic Chinese Identity in Indonesia. *Asian Ethnicity*, 4(3), 439–452. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1343900032000117259>
- Freedman, A. L. (1998). Politicization and Influence in Chinese Communities Overseas: The United States, Indonesia, and Malaysia. <http://doi.org/10.16953/deusbed.74839>
- Haris, S. (2014). *Partai, Pemilu, dan Parlemen Era Reformasi*. Jakarta: Yayasan Pustaka Obor Indonesia.
- Humaizi, Ermansyah, & Sinaga, R. S. (2018). Concord Communications And Interactions Between Ethnic Groups Supporting The Candidate; Case Study On Paguyuban Suku Tionghoa Indonesia And Joko Tingkir In Election Of Medan City, 2015. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 136(1), 139–143.
- Indonesia, B. P. S. R. (2010). *Sensus Penduduk Tahun 2010*. Jakarta.
- Indonesia, B. P. S. R. (2011). *Kewarganegaraan, Suku Bangsa, Agama, dan Bahasa Sehari-hari Penduduk Indonesia: Hasil Sensus Penduduk 2010*. Jakarta.
- Juliastutik. (2010). Perilaku Elit Politik Etnis Tionghoa Pasca Reformasi. *Humanity*, 6(1), 45–58.

- Macdonald, G. P. (2013). *Parties and Peacebuilding: The Institutional Origin of Multiethnic Politics in India, Indonesia, and South Africa*. Dissertation. University of Denver. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1494527794?accountid=13771>
- Mugge, L. M. (2016). Intersectionality, Recruitment and Selection: Ethnic Minority Candidates in Dutch Parties. *Parliamentary Affairs*, 69(3), 1–19. <http://doi.org/10.1093/pa/gsv060>
- Noviani, R. (2009). *Identity Politics in Indonesian Advertising: Gender, Ethnicity/Race, Class and Nationality in TV Advertisements during the New Order and the Post-New Order Era*. Dissertation. Ruhr-Universität Bochum.
- PPN/BAPPENAS, K. (2016). *Tinjauan Peran Partai Politik Dalam Demokrasi di Indonesia*. Jakarta. Retrieved from http://ditpolkom.bappenas.go.id/basedir/Kajian_Ditpolkom/5%29_Kajian_Tahun_2016/Kajian_Parpol/TINJAUAN_PERAN_PARTAI_POLITIK_DALAM_DEMOKRASI_DI_INDONESIA-edit-31.01.2017.pdf
- Purwaningsih, T. (2017). Political Family and Intra-Party Democracy in Indonesia. (A Study on the Political Recruitment of the Golkar Party during the Reform Era in South Sulawesi). *Jurnal Studi Pemerintahan*, 8(1), 141–165. <http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.18196/jgp.8154>
- Radean, M. (2013). *Party Politics and Legislative Party Switching*. Dissertation. The Florida State University. Retrieved from <http://fsu.digital.flvc.org/islandora/object/fsu%3A183865>
- Ranto. (2014). *Perilaku Memilih Etnis Tionghoa: Studi Kasus Perilaku Memilih Masyarakat Etnis Tionghoa Pada Pemilu Legislatif DPR Tahun 2009 Di Kabupaten Bangka*. Tesis. Universitas Gadjah Mada.
- Robbin, A. (2000). The politics of representation in the US national statistical system: origins of minority population interest group participation. *Journal of Government Information*, 27(4), 431–453. Retrieved from <http://eprints.rclis.org/11385/>
- Sarirani, E. (2015). *Persepsi Masyarakat terhadap Fenomena Pindah Partai oleh Calon Legislatif 2014 di Kabupaten Wonogir*. *Journal of Politic and Government Studies*, 4(2), 1–12. Retrieved from <https://ejournal3.undip.ac.id/index.php/jpgs/article/view/8242/8011>
- Snagovsky, F. (2015). *Party Switching in the Canadian House of Commons*. Thesis. University of Ottawa. Retrieved from https://ruor.uottawa.ca/bitstream/10393/32510/3/Snagovsky_Feodor_2015_thesis.pdf
- Sofianto, A. (2015). Peran Agama Terhadap Perilaku Pemilih Dalam Pemilu Legislatif 2014 di Jawa Tengah. *Analisa Journal of Social Science and Religion*, 22(2), 161–172.
- Stegmaier, M., Lewis-Beck, M. S., & Smets, K. (2013). Standing for parliament: Do black, asian and minority ethnic candidates pay extra?

- Parliamentary Affairs, 66(2), 268–285.
<http://doi.org/10.1093/pa/gss086>
- Sutrisno, E., & dkk. (2006). *Tionghoa Batam Dulu dan Kini*. Batam: Batam Link Publisher-PSMTI Propinsi Kepri & Batam.
- Suwarko, A. (2013). Penyederhanaan Sistem Kepartaian Pasca Orde Baru. *Jurnal Review Politik*, 3(2), 279–297. Retrieved from <http://jurnalpolitik.uinsby.ac.id/index.php/jurnalpolitik/article/view/24>
- Sweinstani, M. K. D., & Mariyah, C. (2017). Political Recruitment of Chinese-Indonesian Women Candidate: Study of PDI perjuangan's Recruitment in Semarang City Legislative Election 2014. *PEOPLE: International Journal of Social Science*, 3(2), 1156–1174.
- Vermonte, P. J. (2014). *People, Places and Voting Behavior: The Case of Indonesia's 2004 Legislative Elections*. Dissertation. Northern Illinois University.
- Yanika, A. (2014). *Rekrutmen Calon Anggota Legislatif Partai Amanat Nasional Provinsi Riau Periode 2014-2019*. *JOM (Jurnal Online Mahasiswa Bidang Ilmu Sosial Dan Ilmu Politik)*, 1(2), 1–16. Retrieved from <https://jom.unri.ac.id/index.php/JOMFSIP/article/view/3310/0>

List of Interview:

- Ferdinan Godang, Candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province from Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle (Partai Demokrasi Indonesia Perjuangan or PDIP) in 2014 General election, Interview, 14 Desember, 2017.
- Sukiran, Candidates of DPRD members of North Sumatera Province from Indonesian Democratic Party of Struggle (Partai Demokrasi Indonesia Perjuangan or PDIP) in 2014 General election, Interview, 25 Juli 2018.
- Indra Wahidin, deputy head of Indonesian Chinese Association (Pusat Perhimpunan Indonesia Tionghoa or Perhimpunan INTI), Interview, 20 Februari 2017.
- Robert. L. Tobing, Secretary of Greater Indonesian Movement Party (Partai Gerakan Indonesia Raya or P.Gerindra) North Sumatera Province, Interview, 4 Juni 2018.

EXPLORING PUBLIC INTEREST ABOUT BLOCKCHAIN AND RECRUITMENT: EVIDENCE FROM USING GOOGLE TRENDS

Anita Maharani¹

Abstract

Challenges with blockchain technology will not just of how it can offer transparency therefore it is trustable, and traceability since the process is known well by parties that involves in. Strategies have been developed by several countries and companies that have some interest in this technology. Method for research employ big data resulted from Google Trends, as Google may show massive number of queries through traffic data, called public interest and it can be used for research purpose, analyzed and show what is called the unrevealed interest cycles and which countries that has the most searches on this. We also show comparison between traditional process of recruitment and what if blockchain applies in recruitment process. Result of this research shows that public interest increasing in December 2017 after six years for blockchain as term search but decrease in June 2018, while recruitment increases from 2011 to June 2018.

Keywords: Internet, blockchain, recruitment, public, interest, google, trends

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art5>

Introduction

There are many practices of recruitment, that somehow all human resource practitioners need to follow. Company usually use several techniques for its recruitment tool, as far as we all know, classical recruitment tool is by placing advertisement through a bulletin boards or by posting openly through announcement, words of mouth. But, interesting fact, that with technology presence, it changes methods of recruitment, from usually rely on traditional and classical way of recruitment method to the using of technology, especially what we consider as new media. This is just an illustration on how company

¹ Dr. Anita Maharani, Bina Nusantara University, Indonesia (anita.maharani@binus.ac.id)

taking a much more conservative approach to hiring and experienced in measured growth and slowly decision-making process (Sanford, 2012). Shifting in recruitment process from traditional model to digital model, then when resume that written in traditional way is being replace with online footprint made by candidates (Clarke, 2016). Moving from previous model as derived from past practices and possibly instinct and toward information driven decision making (Maurer, 2017).

One of the practices of recruitment tool is new media through social media, that has been practiced since it is cost savings and offers snapshots of job applicants quality. Among many social media platforms, we know that some of it still become recruiter's options, and Facebook is the common platform that can be usable for recruiter to find job applicants (Maharani, 2018), and the same time checking their quality through network research, however, though it may be raise another issue such as privacy, but what we need to understand is that recruitment, as in process, has shifted (although still applied) from traditionally paper documents, to paperless. On other words, the more technology is applied and develop, the more recruitment process (and actually others too) will adjust and practice it.

Literature Review

The more decentralized a process, the better the whole process. Everyone may experience that technology will turn business models to a more decentralized models (Ignaczak, 2014), and since being decentralized meaning creating common prosperity (McKibbin, 2015), therefore if a business model become decentralize then it will create common prosperity among beneficiaries. But to decentralized is also to be aware about trust issues, will it be trust if decentralized? Recent issue (although it is not a new issue), blockchain technology arrives as technology that 1) limitless, 2) trusted within its system of records, 3) ensuring anyone can benefit from instantaneous, 4) transparent and cost-effective transactions, 5) disintermediating middlemen (Hendricks, 2017), blockchain technology is perfectly capable of making paperwork CV's and career networking websites obsolete (Ahmed, 2018).

Within human resource management activity, we understand four domains (Rowley, Jackson, 2011), that are: employee resourcing as the first domain, employee rewards as the second domain, employee development as the third domain, and employee relations as the fourth domain. Recruitment will have relevancy with employee resourcing. Usual recruitment method practiced by companies are internal and external recruiting sources along with their advantages and disadvantages (Mathis and Jackson, 2008). Studies shows, how trends emerge in recruitment strategies, from classical method using papers, to

modern method using online self-reported profile like social media (Kavitha and Pillai, 2011). Recruitment can also be defined in concept, as part of activity when an organization tries to attract individuals according to a timely basis, this activity should meet sufficient numbers and also should be considered with appropriate qualifications according to jobs within an organization (Mondy and Martocchio, 2016). Whatever the recruitment process that organization choose, it has to meet strategic recruiting stages, as follow

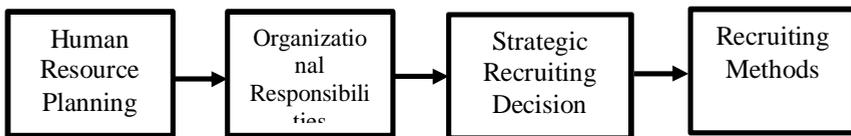


Figure 1. Strategic Recruiting Stages (Mathis and Jackson, 2008)

From figure 1, we understand, that to decide which recruiting methods that will undergo by an organization, first is to set the human resource planning, then organizational possibilities, then strategic recruiting decision before ends with methods of recruiting. This logic will be same on deciding whether an organization should employ the latest recruiting method.

There are plenty digital resources to learn about blockchain, however, as basic understanding, writer compile some sources that is valuable. When bitcoin first introduced to the world, it considered as the first known blockchain application. But, blockchain and bitcoin are not the same (Belin, 2018) However, since bitcoin known as unregulated shadow-currency, and intensively need resource, then the idea is developed to business needs. The differences are 1) identity over anonymity, 2) selective endorsement over proof of work, 3) assets over cryptocurrency (Dill, 2017), blockchains are secure database by design (Marr, 2017), and it is believed can creates a viable, decentralized record of transactions or what has been known as the distributed ledger, which allows the substitution of a single master database (Belin, 2018). Blockchain as a technology, creating the backbone of what is called a new type of internet, and at first it was devised for turning traditional currency to a digital type of currency (blockgeeks.com, 2018), it is obvious then, why bitcoin as digital currency is known better than blockchain, while in fact digital currency is just one of blockchain technology, and there are many other potential uses for it. Frankly, if us as Google users, we might acknowledge with Google Documents (Mougayar, 2018), it changes the way of sending and sharing files, and

let parties accessing each others with the similar document, at the same time, and actually the same way as a shared ledger. From the view of its durability and robustness, blockchain, will 1) free for being controlled, 2) zero failure (blockgeeks.com, 2018) this is why that blockchain believes it can solves problem of manipulation of data (Buterin, 2018). Blockchains have some values, 1) are excellent for recording events, and it can offer the potential of mass disintermediation of trade and transaction processing, 2) it permits anybody, to share their value anywhere at whatever point blockchain can be obtained, 3) it set up trust and characteristics, since nobody can alter a blockchain without having the comparing keys, 4) checking characteristics can be done all the more rapidly and precisely to avoid extortion and recording real exchanges (Marr, 2017).

lockchains offers a confided in benefit for organizations, with the goal that organization could check to approve that a hopeful has the correct aptitudes, on the correct frameworks and the correct associations, at that point it will enhance the way toward screening applicants and diminish the measure of time spent by spotters and contracting directors (Xuereb, 2017). In this manner the methods for blockchain for HR and particularly enlistment are: 1) another problematic innovation is rising and it has achieved a state of development that it will keep on developing into an out and out texture for society much like the web today, 2) people will have full control over their own information, to counteract distortion, 3) selection representatives and HR divisions will approach a competitor's instruction, business and preparing record that is exact and hard if not difficult to misrepresent, 4) Smart Contracts will have the capacity to streamline a great deal of the onboarding procedure, particularly for high volume, high turn-over positions (Akmeemana, 2017). This marvel changes the conventional outlook of enrollment process, blockchain as it gives an offer record, it can empower organizations and business confirmed record of people groups references, profession history and capabilities (Newberry, 2018). This article planned to see cycles of open enthusiasm for questions toward blockchain, enrollment, human asset, and human asset administration. Huge of investigation that author look for in this exploration is to see whether open articulation on specific issue.

Methodology

This research use primary data from web as literature, and trends.google.com as secondary data, by typing and combining keywords of: blockchain, recruitment, human resource, human resource management to see interests from internet. Employing Google Trends, to see traffic data, on a scale 0 (< 1% of the peak volume) to 100 (peak

of traffic) presented as weekly relative search volume or RSV that concern on keywords as mentioned before and time series covered from 2004 – May 2018. Writer believe that Google Trends may supported with another source, and for this research purpose, we also use big data displayed in tradingeconomics.com to see the employment rate of countries that will show within Google Trends result. Then xuru.org is also used to compute regression online, this is to seek whether any effect from one situation to another situation. From using several tools to calculate, writer believe that the discussion drawn from results will vary and useful.

Findings

Procedures that writer follow can be describe as follow: we use trends.google.com, and we enter keywords: blockchain and recruitment (as comparation). We set worldwide as our country context, length of time from 2008 to July 2018, we set “jobs and education” for categorization, and “news search” as our focus on interest. Figure 1(appendix) illustrate how interest over time in regard to blockchain, regarding to keywords as blockchain, recruitment, human resource, human resource management, and employment. We focus only to two keywords: blockchain and recruitment although in fact we are also demonstrate other related keywords. Figure 2 (appendix) illustrates dynamics of public interest in keywords as mentioned above. As we can see that there is a fluctuation in one keyword. While the rests will be quite similar, as if we derived into several terms, then we will have another information as mentioned in Figure 3 (appendix).

The red graph representing recruitment, while blockchain was represents by blue as color. We put human resource and represented in yellow color, human resource management in green color and employment with purple color. From there, we may see that keyword: blockchain receive less than 1 billion of all Google searches, while keyword: recruitment receive 69 billion of all Google searches on May 2011. Compared with May 2011, there is an increase on public interest toward keyword: blockchain and keyword: recruitment within December 2017. Therefore, we may draw a table concerning this

Table 1. Google Searches

Time frame	Topic that are observed	
	Blockchain (in billion Google Searches)	Recruitment (in billion Google Searches)
May 2011	1	69
December 2017	30	72
June 2018	14	80

While results concerning countries with their employment rate in percentage as follow.

Table 2. Countries and Employment Rate

No	Name of Country	Employment Rate	
		January 2017 (%)	January 2018 (%)
1	Germany	75,3	76
2	Spain	61,05	62,57
3	Italy	57,7	58,1 (December 2017)
4	France	65,3 (April 2017)	65,1 (October 2017)

Using linier regression (xuru.org), we employ table 2 colum January 2017 and regress it with table 1, the result as follow.

$$y = 1.026573427 x - 43.48391608$$

Correlation Coefficient : r = 2.882619255·10⁻¹
 Residual Sum of Squares : rss = 2078.623776
 Coefficient of Determination : R2 = 8.30949377·10⁻²

But, when we employ a linear regression method to see if there is an influence from the employment rate to public interest, and the results obtained from regressing table 1 and table 2 column January 2018, as follows.

$$y = 8.208696646 \cdot 10^{-1} x - 29.72313688$$

Correlation Coefficient : r = 2.280480505·10⁻¹
 Residual Sum of Squares : rss = 2149.102594
 Coefficient of Determination : R2 = 5.200591336·10⁻²

From here, we may see that deviations resulted from prediction of actual empirical values of data is decreasing, while of the other hand the correlation coefficient or r is increasing, meaning that the strength and direction of linear relationship between employment rate and blockchain as terms is a perfect or positive linear relationship. Last, the coefficient of determination as the output of regression analysis, shows that 83,09 percent is predictable when using employment rate in January 2017 to determine blockchain as term rather than using employment rate in January 2018, that resulted in predictability as 52,05 percent.

Discussion

Google Trends, offered a fair-minded example of Google seek information, and there are two sorts of Trends information (support.google.com, 2018), first is ongoing information, that came about because of arbitrary example of inquiries from the most recent seven days, second is no constant information, that came about because of an irregular example of Google look information, and it can be pulled from as far back as 2004 and up to 36 hours before looking term. After gathering of pursuit information is finished, at that point next is 1) to order, 2) to associate it to a theme, and 3) to expel if any individual data is shown. From here, at that point in the event that we can relate with the theme that saw in this exploration, there is a slight enhancing of blockchain as term looked in Google Trends inside seven years (May 2011 – December 2017), implying that open put intrigue more to this term. As we contrast and news, organizations over the world, utilize blockchain and what we know as advanced records as means for anchoring their organizations record exchanges and process other information over the web (Bloomberg. 2018). It's entirely fascinating to know the advantages of utilizing Google Trends, particularly when everybody would now be able to seek on a theme that is viewed as a pattern and see the progression of patterns from the subject. From an assortment of sources, Google Trends can be utilized to see if there is a decent variety of practices between regions that are put as focal point of perception, or the other way around. From here, we comprehend that blockchain is known for two imperative thing relates with web: security, and processAs we explore further, about security and process that blockchain offers, companies and business across the world are in fact entering the world of "fake", where issues of frauds and counterfeits has been something that dealt with companies and business in their daily. Interestingly, IBM conduct a research, and found that blockchain can actually help business and companies to rescue themselves from fraud and counterfeits (Balasubramanyam, 2018). But Google Trends shows a relative decreasing interest from public, where there were only 14 billion

of searches in June 2018, 16 billion less interest than December 2017. What happen then? While on the other hand it seems that IBM has released the article to public and somehow public must more knowledge on this? This could be due to other factors that made public not only pay too much interest to blockchain as search term. Information given by Google Trends will gives insight into what people are care about and what information that public need as Google sees, it can be used to track all sorts of information. From the data, we may know that public seems to have grown their attention about blockchain and keep the attention about recruitment. Moreover, Google Trends shows that compared breakdown by region (Figure 6, appendix), people from Germany, Spain, Italy and France sees recruitment as keyword compared to blockchain as keyword. Below is table explaining comparisons between four countries and their employment rate.

From here, we may conclude that increases of public searches relate with the increasing rate of employment within those four European countries. Another source mentioned that several European countries signed to join Blockchain partnership at the Digital Day 2018, on April 1th 2018 (ec.europa.eu, 2018). Among members of the blockchain partnership declaration, three out of four countries found in Google Trends as those countries that has high rate of public interest on recruitment and blockchain were listed in between members of the declaration. Therefore, it makes sense why four European countries have the most interest in term recruitment and blockchain.

Conclusions

This article aimed to see cycles of public interest in queries toward blockchain, recruitment, but then since we understand that it should be followed with another terms, then we add human resource, and human resource management to meet this article expectations. We use several tools and source of data to see whether queries will give an insight, and in fact we found that only several countries that pays attention of terms as blockchain and recruitment. The countries were representing European Countries, and surprisingly, since there is an event where the majority of European Countries agrees on blockchain technology, public seems pay more interest on it in several years, although levels of interest were decrease due to some issue that might not be explored only by using Google Trends. This would be the limitation of this research, where writer might not make some judgement on what factors are causing public interest of countries observed decreases during some month. Future suggestions for research, we believe that further research should employ another judgmental factor when dealing with some issues that cannot be found using only from Google Trends.

Appendix A

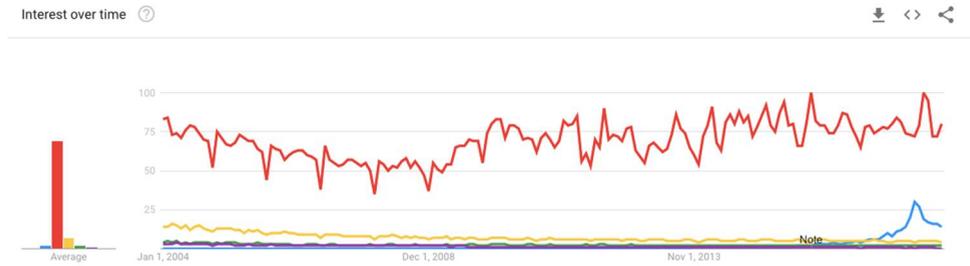


Figure 2. Public Interest in General (Source: trends.google.com, July 2018)

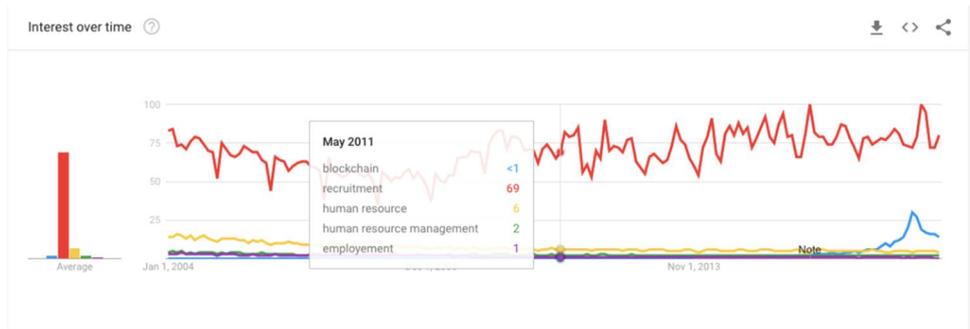


Figure 3. Interest Within May 2011 (Source: trends.google.com, July 2018)

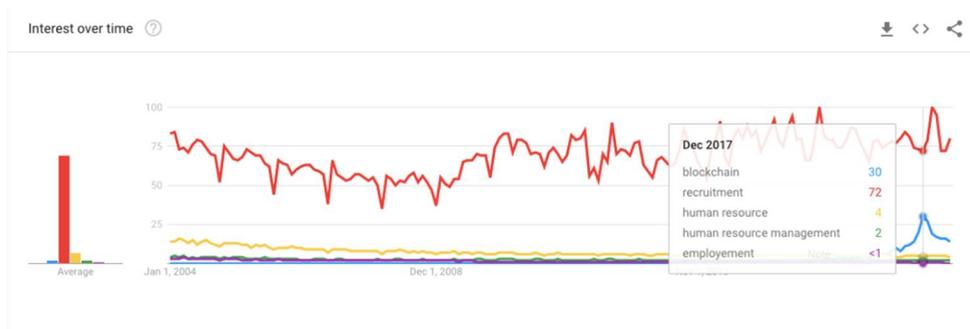


Figure 4. Interest Within December 2017 (Source: trends.google.com, July 2018)

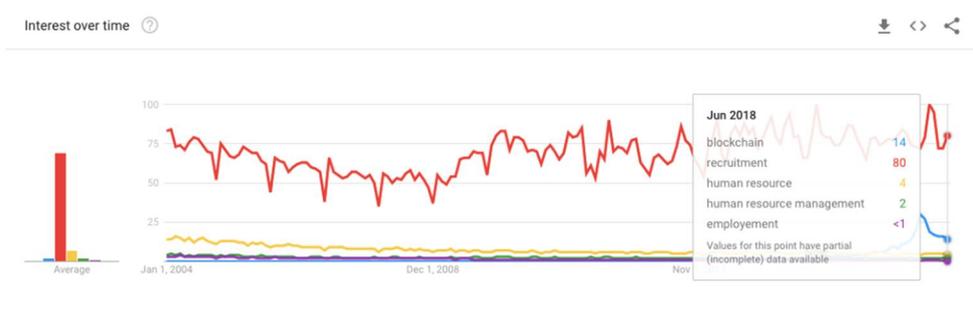


Figure 5. Interest Within June 2018 (Source: trends.google.com, July 2018)

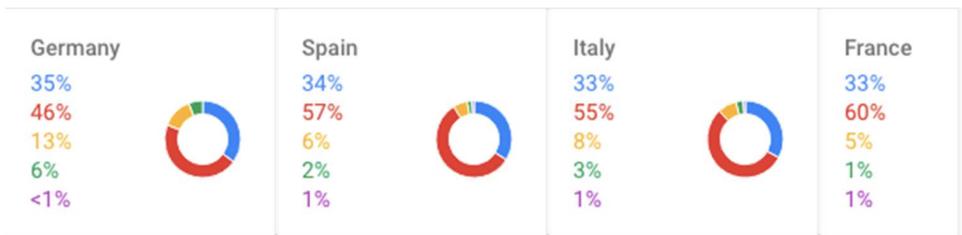


Figure 6. Compared Breakdown by Region (Source: trends.google.com, July 2018)

References

- Ahmed, A. (2018). How Blockchain Will Change HR Forever. Forbes. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/ashikahmed/2018/03/14/how-blockchain-will-change-hr-forever/#ed35896727ce>
- Ajmeemana, C. (2017). Blockchain for Human Resources and Recruitment. Retrieved from https://medium.com/@akme_c/blockchain-for-human-resources-and-recruitment-e33e8f1209b5
- Baarick, Murray R; Stewart, Greg L; Piotrowski, M. (2002). Personality and Job Performance: Test. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(1), 12.
- Balasubramanyam, K. . (2018). Blockchain technology can help weed out fakes, says IBM. Indian Times. Retrieved from <https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/tech/internet/blockchain-technology-can-help-weed-out-fakes-says-ibm/articleshow/63389546.cms>
- Belin, O. (2018). 6 Essential Blockchain Technology Concepts You Need To Know. Retrieved from <https://tradeix.com/essential-blockchain-technology-concepts/>
- Bloomberg. (2018). Google Working on Its Own Blockchain Technology. Retrieved August 6, 2018, from <https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/tech/internet/google-working-on-its-own-blockchain-technology/articleshow/63425038.cms>
- Butterin, V. (2018). Transparent and Incorruptible. Retrieved from <https://blockgeeks.com/guides/what-is-blockchain-technology/>
- Clarke, S. (2016). 5 Marketing Trends Shaping The Future of Recruitment. Retrieved from <https://www.socialtalent.com/blog/recruitment/5-marketing-trends-shaping-future-of-recruitment>
- Deutsche Welle. (2017). German jobs market hit record in 2017. Retrieved from <https://www.dw.com/en/german-jobs-market-hit-record-in-2017/a-41996084>
- Digibyte. (2018). European Countries Join Blockchain Partnership. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/digital-single-market/en/news/european-countries-join-blockchain-partnership>
- Dill, B. (2017). Learning Bluemix and Blockchain. Retrieved from <https://github.com/rddill-IBM/ZeroToBlockchain/blob/master/Chapter01/Documentation/Z2BChapter01.pdf>
- Google. (2018). How Trends Data is Adjusted. Retrieved from <https://support.google.com/trends/answer/4365533?hl=en>
- Hendricks, D. (2017). Blockchain: The New Technology of Trust. Retrieved from <https://www.inc.com/drew-hendricks/blockchain-the-new-technology-of-trust.html>

- Ignaczak, N. M. (2014). 21 Technologies That Will Decentralize the World. Retrieved from <https://www.shareable.net/blog/21-technologies-that-will-decentralize-the-world>
- Kavitha, H; Pillai, S. G. (2011). A Study on Emerging Trends in Social Media Recruitment Strategies: With Special Reference to Human Resource Department in Bangalore, India. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 4(9), 1–11.
- Marr, B. (2017). A Complete Beginner's Guide To Blockchain. *Forbes*.
- Mathis, Robert L; Jackson, J. H. (2008). *Human Resource Management* (12th ed.). USA: Thomson/South-Western.
- Maurer, R. (2017). 2017 Recruiting Trends Point To Technology Driving Change. Retrieved from <https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/talent-acquisition/pages/recruiting-trends-2017-technology-change.aspx>
- McKibbin, M. (2015). 5 Ways Decentralized Technologies Will Empower Individuals. Retrieved from <https://medium.com/d10e-decentralize/5-ways-decentralized-technologies-will-empower-individuals-a7ff998ce938>
- Mondy, R. Wayne; Martocchio, J. J. (2016). *Human Resource Management* (14th ed.). London: Pearson Education.
- Mougayar, W. (2018). Blockchain as Google Docs. Retrieved from <https://blockgeeks.com/guides/what-is-blockchain-technology/>
- Newberry, C. (2018). "Blockchain cuts out the middleman – recruitment agencies" days are numbered'. Retrieved from <https://www.ciphr.com/features/blockchain-recruitment-agencies-days-are-numbered/>
- Rowley, Chris; Jackson, K. (2011). *Human Resource Management: The Key Concepts*. Routledge.
- Sanford, D. (2012). *The Paradigm Shift - The Changing Face of Hiring and Recruitment*. Retrieved from <https://winterwyman.com/blog/paradigm-shift-changing-face-hiring-and-recruitment>
- Xuereb, P. (2017). Panel Discussion: Leveraging Smart Contacts to Reduce Administration, Transactional and Legal Costs.

BEHIND SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL OVERSEAS MIGRATION: WHAT MATTERS? A CASE STUDY OF BANGLADESH

Moumita Paul¹, Khurshed Alam², Md. Shahidul Islam³

Abstract

The paper examines the migration process along the factors related to successful and unsuccessful overseas migration from Bangladesh. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques such as questionnaire survey and Key Informant Interviews were used to find out data as per the research objectives. To determine the factor, T- tests were employed for testing the significance of mean and significance of proportion. The study found that level of education, occupation before migration; migration process, categories of skill, act of motivation sources, etc. were very significant to define the successful and unsuccessful migration. Push factors including economic depression, poverty and ultra poverty, etc. and pull factors including employment privileges, better livelihood opportunities, etc. were major reasons behind migration. Some (24%) successful migrant workers and maximum (66%) unsuccessful workers faced challenges in their workplaces and during travelling respectively. This study found the most common challenges of migration were: surplus manpower, migration without visa, poor monitoring and controlling of the relevant authority, high cost of process, etc.

Keywords: Migration Process, Push Factors, Pull Factors, Bangladesh.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art6>

¹ Moumita Paul is a Lecturer of Department of Criminology and Police Science at the Faculty of Social Sciences of University of Chittagong. moupaul881@gmail.com

² Khurshed Alam, Ph.D. is the Chairman of Bangladesh Institute of Social Research (BISR) Trust. bisr@agnionline.com

³ Md. Shahidul Islam is a Senior Assistant Secretary, Research and Development (R&D) Cell, Bangladesh Knitwear Manufacturers and Exporters Association (BKMEA), Dhaka, and Adjunct Research Fellow, Bangladesh Institute of Social Research (BISR) Trust. shahidulsoc@gmail.com

Background of the Study

Migration, a rising policy priority in the globalized world is a private decision taken by an individual in search of employment opportunities and better incomes for the improvement of their lives. International migration is closely linked with globalization and socio-economic development in countries of origin and destination (IOM, 2013). ILO estimates 150.3 million migrant workers in the world including 11.5 million domestic workers (ILO, 2015). Like other South-Asian countries, Bangladesh has also seen the increasing movement of its people into the international labor market over the years (ILO, 2014). There were 6000 Bangladeshi migrant workers in abroad in 1970s and since then the total number of migrant workers has climbed up to 8,307,749 (Afsar, 2009 and Siddiqui and Sultana, 2013).

Since the 1980s, Bangladesh has become one of the major sources of migrant labours. In Bangladesh, a lot of poor people migrated as temporary labour for better occupational facilities and chosen illegal ways in this regard (Islam, Parveen and Kamal, 2013). In most cases they were semi-skilled or unskilled and illiterate also. Generally people migrated toward the middle-east countries as labours for short-term period while skilled and professionals migrated toward the western countries for better educational opportunities, specialized job, and better health-care system. Income inequality, unstable political situation, lack of wealth/resources, and lack of social security forced people to migrate (Siddiqui, 2005).

In Bangladesh, people mostly emigrate to find better economic opportunities for leading sound life (Ratha, 2005). Migrants who are able to send remittances to the countries of origin are mainly considered as successful migrants. But migrants who are cheated by the recruiting agency or any medium and forced to come back from airport or travelling or destination countries are considered as unsuccessful migrants. A lot of records and surveys or study reports are available about the successful migrants with their flow of remittance and impacts of overseas migration. But unfortunately there is no record about the number of unsuccessful migrants. No one even the government is not aware about the misfortune of unsuccessful migrants as well as reasons behind unsuccessful migration in Bangladesh.

This paper tries to understand the international migration process with key focus on influencing factors behind successful and unsuccessful migration of Bangladeshi migrants. This study has discussed on the procedures of choosing the Government to Government (G2G), Business

to Business (B2B)/private process; factors behind reluctance of people to choose G2G or B2B process; coordination among the components of whole process; people's experience of managing the hostile environment during travelling abroad; fellow travelers related issues; justice and compensation related issues; people's experience of sharing their mass awareness and facing vulnerability in terms of sharing their experience; and finally the overall experience of returnee migrant workers in case of the effectiveness of selected initiatives.

Literature Review

Ratha, Mohapatra and Scheja (2011) found the increased income, poverty reduction, improved health and educational outcomes, economic development and gaining social cost were main reasons for migration. The study also found the most common challenges which include: integration of immigrants, job competition between migrant and native workers, fiscal costs of provision of social services to the migrants, violence, political persecution and human trafficking. IOM (2013) has conducted a situation analysis on migration and HIV in Bangladesh where migrant's health challenges and vulnerabilities issues were discussed in specific five phases: pre-departure phase, travel/transit phase, destination phase, interception phase and return phase. ILO (2014) discussed the challenges faced by the women and men domestic workers and care-service providers. From the viewpoint of migrants, aiming to improve the condition of life for themselves and for their families is a powerful motivation for migration (EC, 2000). Overseas migration has many positive economic impacts too on daily life as well as society (Alam et al., 2011; Rahman and Rahman, 2008; Sabur and Mahmud, 2008; Ahmed, 2012; Hassan, 2007; Khan, 2008). Particularly, migration is an effective tool to reduce poverty and important for socio-economic development of any labor intensive country like Bangladesh. Migrant's remittance has become major source of income for many households in Bangladesh and brought a change in life style, income, business activities from which non-migrants also get profit and also improve the livelihood as well as improve the socio-economic conditions of poor people. In Bangladesh, most of the people emigrate to find better economic opportunities for leading sound life (Ratha, 2005). Islam (2011) found that Bangladesh supplied four main categories of migrant workers: professional, skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled for two types of migration: short-term and long term. This study also elaborated the economic contribution of migrant workers through remittances as well as its policy implications. Ratha, Mohapatra and Scheja (2011) found that nowadays developing as well as developed countries are largely recipients of the international migrants. For suggesting the ways forward,

the study recommended few policies including improving recruitment mechanisms, facilitating international labour mobility through safe and legal channels, better monitoring of recruitment process and policies for controlling immigration border.

Data and Methods

Methods of Data Collection

The study used mixed method approaches including qualitative and explanatory research approaches which had been supplemented by the quantitative and qualitative data. Questionnaire survey and secondary data review were used at different stages to achieve the study objectives. Secondary data sources were used to explore the migration scenario of the world as well as Bangladesh.

Study Area

The study was conducted in Teknaf Upazila of Cox's Bazar district under the Chittagong division in the Southern Bangladesh (Figure 01). Geographical position of the study area was at 20.8667°N 92.3000°E.

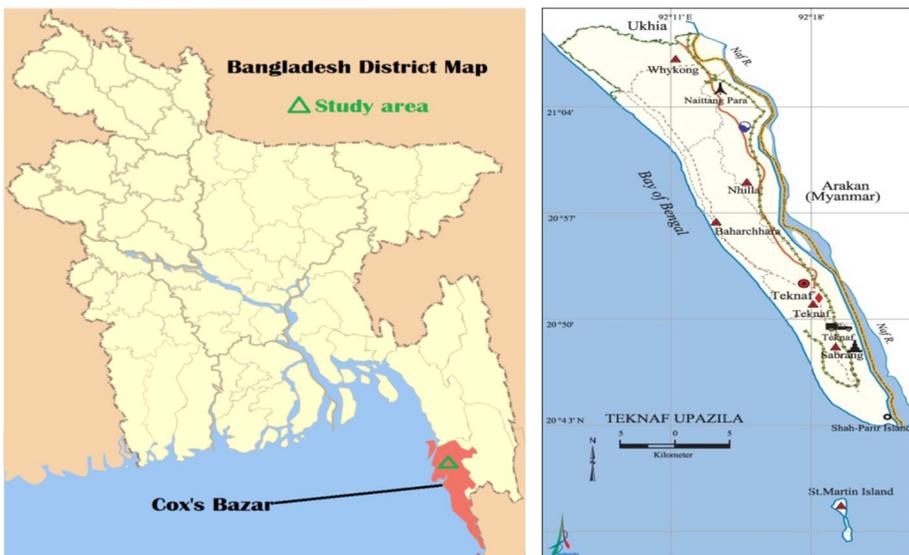


Figure 1: Teknaf Upazila, Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh

According to the report of BMET, district wise overseas employment rate of 2005-2016 shows that Comilla was the highest under the districts of

Chittagong division (BMET, 2016). Recently Teknaf had become the “Malaysia Airport” for jobseekers and traffickers of 41 districts of the country (Daily Star, 2015). Thus, unsafe migration promoted human trafficking which was big business in huge swathes of Teknaf and Cox’s Bazar, created an entry point of illegal activities, especially using fishing boats into the country (Hasan, 2015). This prompted the researchers to select Teknaf as study area purposely.

Sampling Technique

Five Unions named Baharchhara, Nhila, Sabrang, Teknaf, and Whykong of TeknafUpazila of Cox’s Bazar district were selected purposively as those were highly trafficking-prone areas where a good number of migrated people were there.

Sample Size and Respondents of the Study

The sample was selected by using two non-probability sampling methods: purposive and snowball sampling. In case of sample size selection for successful migration 50 respondents were selected purposively and for unsuccessful migration 50 respondents were selected through using snowball sampling method.

In order to achieve the research objectives, 100 households survey (50 of successful migrants and 50 of unsuccessful migrants), and 7 KILs were conducted in the five Unions of TeknafUpazila of Cox’s Bazar District and Dhaka with BOESEL members, local government representatives and private recruiting agency representatives at Dhaka – the capital of Bangladesh.

Data Collection Tools

Primary information was collected by using checklist and semi-structured questionnaire in order to know how people took decision to choose migration processes: G2G, B2B, Private and/or irregular, crisis management, fellow traveler related issues, justice and compensation related issue, role of both countries of origin and destination, role of recruiting agencies in the country of origin and the employers in the country of destination and finally safety, security and welfare of migrant workers’ related issues. The survey findings have been validated with the KIL findings. Among the KILs the researchers included the representative and/or members of BOESL, private recruiting agency representatives, local journalists, police officers, Chairmen/Members of

Upazila Parishad and Union Parishad. All these interviews were conducted in January, 2016.

Data Processing and Analysis

The survey questionnaire was pre-coded. After completing data collection, data was properly cleaned and corrected discrepancies by referring back to the original questionnaire. Once the task of data entry and cleaning was completed, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used for quantitative analysis as per study objectives.

Operational Definitions

Successful Migration: Migrant workers, who had successfully completed migration, provided remittances and returned home intentionally.

Unsuccessful Migration: Migrant workers, who were cheated by the recruiting agencies/ broker (dalals)/ by any middlemen and compelled to come back from airport and/or, on the way of travelling, and/or, destination country living there for mostly less than six months.

Results of the study

Socio-demographic Features of Returnee Migrant Workers (RMWs)

Under the study two types of respondent were taken into consideration: successful and unsuccessful returnee migrant workers.

Table 1: Comparison of socio-demographic characteristics between successfully and unsuccessfully returnee migrant workers

Socio-demographic characteristics of Returnee Migrant Workers			
Variables	Attributes	Successful Migration	Unsuccessful Migration
		Percentage	Percentage
Age	21-30	36	60
	31-40	32	22
	41-50	20	12
	More than 50	12	6
	Total	100	100

Sex	Male	82.0	0
	Female	18.0	0
	Total	100.0	100
Marital status	Single	14	30
	Married	86	68
	Widower	-	2
	Total	100	100
Educational qualification	Illiterate	14	26
	Primary	62	58
	Secondary	16	14
	Higher secondary	6	2
	Bachelor/Hon's	2	-
	Total	100	100
Number of family members	1-3	6	4.1
	4-6	38	40.8
	6+	56	55.1
	Total	100	100
Present occupation	Unemployed	60.0	36.0
	Farmer	-	10.0
	Small traders	28.0	8.0
	Service holder	2.0	10.0
	Fisherman	4.0	10.0
	Day laborer	2.0	12.0
	Others (specify)	4.0	14.0
	Total	100.0	100.0
Occupation before migration	Unemployed	24.0	14.0
	Farmer	14.0	20.0
	Small traders	30.0	18.0
	Service holder	4.0	8.0
	Fisherman	22.0	18.0
	Day laborer	4.0	12.0
	Others (specify)	2.0	10.0
	Total	100.0	100.0
Present monthly income	>5000	60.0	60.0
	5001-10000	18.0	34.0
	10001-20000	12.0	4.0
	20000+	10.0	2.0
	Total	100.0	100.0

The above comparative frequency table between the successful and unsuccessful returnee migrant workers points out the socio-demographic comparison of the two types of respondent including their age, marital status, educational qualification, number of family member, present

occupation, occupation before migration and monthly income of present and prior to migration. Among the successful migrants 82% were male and rest 18% were females while all unsuccessful migrants were male. In case of successful migrants, maximum 36% and 32% of the workers belonged to the age group of 21-30 years and 31-40 years respectively wherea few were from above 50 years age. In case of unsuccessful migrants as like as successful migrants, most of the respondents (60%) belonged to the age group of 21-30 years while the lowest number (6%) were more than 50 years. According to the marital status of the migrant workers, 86% married and 14% single who successfully migrated while 68% married and 30% single were unsuccessful. In terms of educational qualification, results were quite same for example, 62% successful and 58% unsuccessful returnees were primarily educated but only 2% successful returnees were graduated whereas there were no graduate unsuccessful workers. This finding also represents that educational awareness can eradicate unsuccessful migration. Additionally, 14% successful and 26% unsuccessful were totally illiterate.

Most of the successful (56%) and unsuccessful (55.1%) had more than 6 family members. Currently 60% successful migrants were unemployed but most of them were in Bangladesh due to vacation; so they didn't want to get involved in work, in turn their (60%) their monthly income was also less than BDT 5000. But those who didn't want to migrate again along with few of them who desired to re-migrate were involved with small scale business (28%), fishing (4%), etc. Before migration 30% and 22% of them were involved with small scale businesses and fishing respectively. In case of unsuccessful migrants, 36% were unemployed and rest started to get involved in several professions like agricultural activities (10%), services (10%), fishing (10%), day laborers (12%), etc. As like as successful migrant workers, monthly income of the major unsuccessful migrant workers was less than BDT 5000 (60%). Prior to their migration, 20% were farmers, 18% were businessmen and fishermen and their monthly income were less than BDT 5000 (48%), and BDT 5000-10000 (40%) respectively.

Country of Destination for Migration

The survey findings (Figure 2) have shown that mostly Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was the country of destination for successful 64% while other countries were Malaysia (12%), UAE (16%), Qatar (6%), and Singapore (2%). For unsuccessful migration, 63% migrants' country of destination was Malaysia and other countries were KSA (26%), UAE (7%), Oman (2%) and Qatar (2%). BOESL representative accorded that seven countries were major countries of destination in 2015 including Korea,

Jordan, Qatar, Bahrain, Maldives, Bahrain and Oman and private recruiting agency representative pointed Malaysia along with above-mentioned countries.

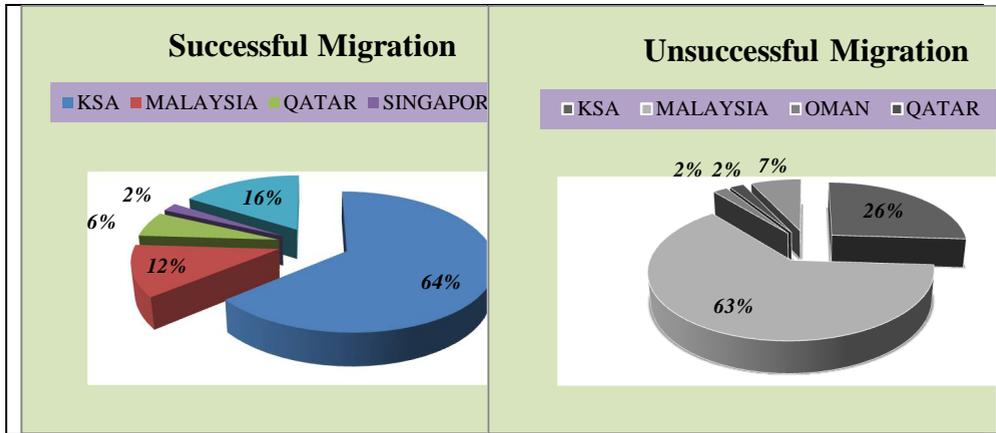


Figure 2. Country of destination for Successful and Unsuccessful Migration

Similar findings were found from the qualitative data of the study which was supported by the latest data of Bangladesh Bank (2014) and Bangladesh Economic Review (2014) which show that 4.41 million migrant workers were engaged in different job trades in different countries in 2012-2013 FY and more than 70% had migrated to the Middle East countries and others to Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Sweden, Malaysia, Singapore, Lebanon, South Korea, Brunei, Mauritius, United Kingdom, Ireland, Italy, etc., a total of 62 countries. Abrar and Sikder (2007) also opined that the Gulf States were the principal destination for migrants of Teknaf Upazila of Cox's Bazar District in Bangladesh.

Migration Process

Migration is considered as a common livelihood ensuring strategy and often socio-economic alternative to the family level income, especially for many Bangladeshi poor people (Islam, 2011). The study found the existence of three types of migration process:

1. Government to Government (G2G) process
2. Business to Business (B2B) process and
3. Irregular migration.

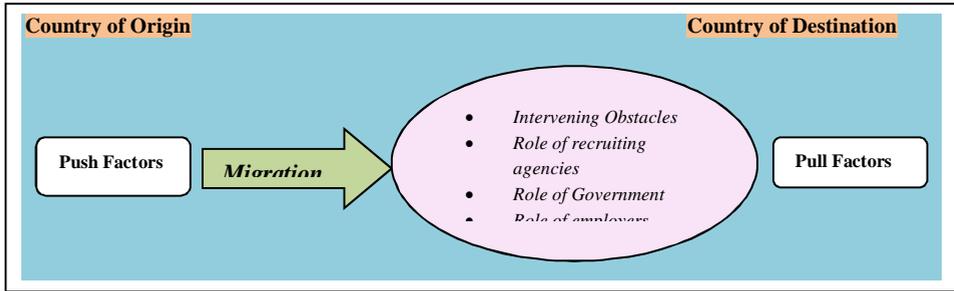


Figure 3. Migration Process

G2G recruitment process is encouraged to avoid unlawful emigration and for that reason, new labor wings have been established in various missions abroad, besides manpower of existing labor wings have been strengthened to ensure the welfare and to protect the migrant workers' rights (MHA, 2013). Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited (BOESL) is the only State owned institution of Bangladesh conducting tasks for safe migration with its low capacity. Then the B2B process under the supervision of BAIRA has established after the failure mechanism of G2G process. As a national level association BAIRA, with its international and national reputation of co-operation is working continuously for the welfare of the approximate 1100 member agencies in collaboration with and support from the Government of Bangladesh (BAIRA, 2016).

Very soon, B2B process has earned its popularity but due to its high cost many people has become discouraged to use the channel. At that time, they choose the illegal and/or irregular migration process introduced either by the local agents or, their family members, peers, neighbors, or local people. The survey found that all the studied successful migrants followed B2B processes whereas only 14% unsuccessful migrants had used the B2B process and maximum 86% was influenced by family members and local agents to use illegal channel.

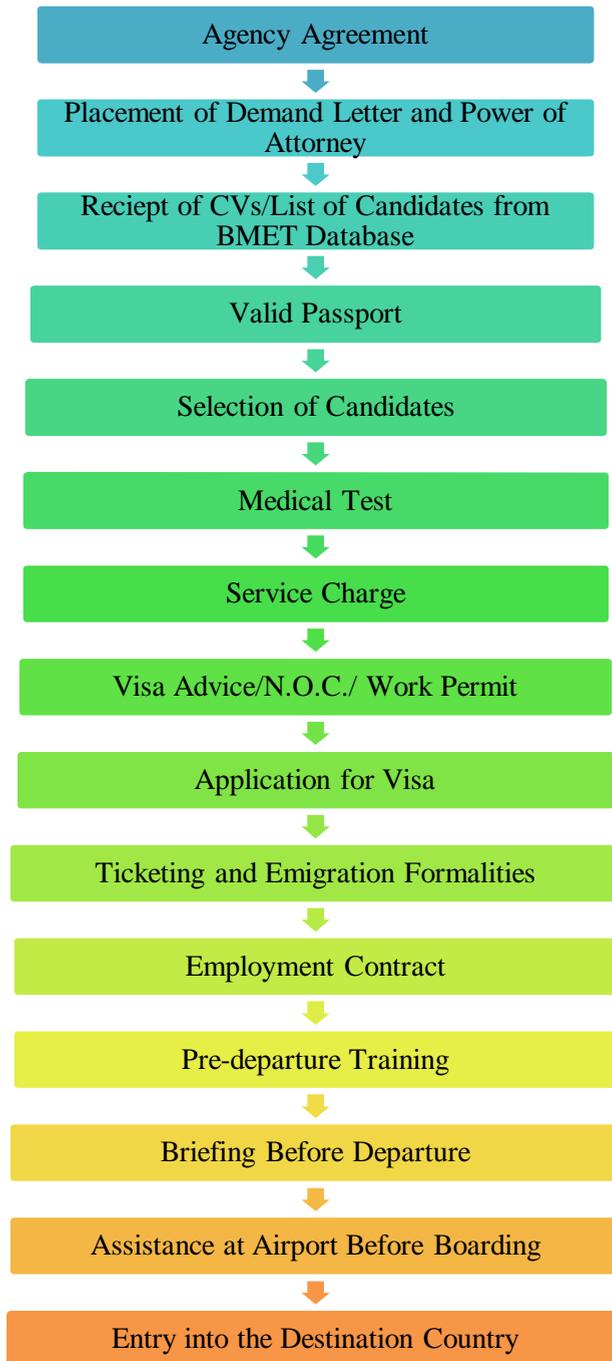


Figure 4. Recruitment process of G2G and B2B channel

In terms of identifying procedural differences, the study found that the migration process of both G2G and B2B is quite same excluding irregular migration. Major vision of the agencies is to ensure safe and low cost migration of the potential workers by efficient and transparent process where the missions are to ensure transparent selection process; ensure minimum migration cost; provide “Right person for Right job”; establish direct relationship with employer and employee without middleman/Dalal; and make migration process efficient and transparent by digitization. Basically, respondents accorded that G2G process is much safer and sound than B2B process.

The recruitment process initiates with the demand and announcement of the employer of the country of destination. In case of G2G process, this process is highly emphasized by the BOESL. In demand letter the type of workers required, nature of work, number of workers, wages/salary, qualification and experience and other terms and conditions of service and benefits the employer would like to offer are mentioned (Figure 4).

Then the recruiting agency maintains the power of attorney, visa advice/ N.O.C./work permit, etc. related issues. After that employment contract is issued including wages/salary, working hour, overtime allowance, travelling expenses, medical facilities, food, accommodation facilities, weekly holidays and annual holidays, etc. (BOESEL, 2015).

The recruiting agencies put much emphasis on the selection process of workers in terms of advertisement of vacancies, receipt of CVs, selection of candidates, medical test, etc. Moreover, they demand a rational service charge where G2G claims that their demand is much lower than B2B process. Finally, the recruiting agencies are bounded to provide pre-departure and departure facilities including visa, passport related issues, ticketing and emigration formalities, pre-departure training, orientation before departure, etc.

When people were unable to afford both G2G and B2B process, then they choose the illegal and/or irregular migration process. This process was generally publicized to the unsuccessful migrants either by the local agents or, their family members, peers, neighbors, or local people. As there was no specific procedure, so there was no excessive charge. Despite knowing the unfortunate consequence of using this path, the comparatively less financial cost provokes the naïve people to choose this illegal channel. All the studied successful migrants followed B2B processes whereas only 14% unsuccessful migrants had used the B2B process and maximum 86% was influenced by family members and local agents to use the illegal channel. Returnee migrant workers who used illegal channel for migration mainly because of the following reasons:

- Unawareness and illiteracy (34%) of the workers
- Low capacity (30%) of G2G process compare to B2B process
- High cost (22.7%) of B2B process compare to G2G process
- Passport and visa problem (4.5%).

Afsar (2009) also found that few regulations were very poor to control and monitor the level of fees charged to workers. Likewise, Abrar and Sikder (2007) found that local intermediaries and travel agencies demanded BDT 70,000 to BDT 130,000 for the cost of migration, but BOESL (2015) depending on the availability of airfare by the employer demand service charge.

Factors behind Overseas Migration

In this study, community level data was used to determine successful and unsuccessful migration. Though total sample size was 100, it was equally divided into two major segments successful and unsuccessful migrants. Different test statistics were employed for testing the significance of mean and significance of proportion and estimated their 95% confidence intervals as well as to test the hypothesis (Table 02).

Table 02: Hypothesis Result: Influencing Factors behind Overseas Migration

Category	Indicators	Successful (%)	Unsuccessful (%)	Mean Difference (Std. Dev.)	Significance Level, t-value [P(t)]
Education	Literate	86***	74	0.16 (0.55)	2.06 (0.02)
	Illiterate	14	26***	0.17 (0.55)	2.08 (0.03)
Occupation	Small Businesses	30***	18	0.18 (0.011)	2.14 (0.01)
	Farmer	14	20	0.08 (0.091)	0.94 (0.18)
Migration Process	B2B	98***	14	.64	8.62

				(0.49)	(0.00)
	Illegal	2	86***	0.66 (0.49)	8.63 (0.00)
Nature of Skill	Semi Skilled	16***	4	0.24 0.062	2.72 (0.004)
	Unskilled	84	96	0.10 (0.07)	1.15 (0.12)
Motivation Source	Recruiting Agency	72	74	0.02 (0.11)	0.30 (0.38)
	Relative	10	26***	0.16 (0.004)	2.06 0.02

Source: Researcher's Compilation based on survey data

Note: $p < 0.10$, $**p < 0.05$, $***p < 0.01$.

The T test shows that there were some particular factors that are determining migrants who are successful migrants and who are not. Explanation of these specific factors are given below –

Education: Migrants who had minimum literacy rate like having primary education or above were significantly more successful as migrants compared to those who are not. On the other side, the level of unsuccessful migration was significantly higher ($P=0.03\%$) among those people who were illiterate. So the level of education significantly influenced the fortune of migrated people in Bangladesh.

Occupation: Here occupation refers to involve those types of activities before migration. Survey data indicated that the rate of successful migration was significantly higher ($P=0.01\%$) among those people who were involved in small scale business before their emigration. The key reason behind this, for business purpose their communication networks or channels were wider than other professionals. So in many cases they could access the right of information and became successful migrants. Whereas unsuccessful migration rate was higher among those migrants who were involved in farming activities but this rate is not significantly higher. So it cannot be claimed that people who were farmer before migration will be unsuccessful.

Process of Migration: In Bangladesh, there exist three types of migration process including G2G, B2B and illegal. In study area, most of

the successful migrants (98%) followed B2B process and their rate of succession was significant at 1% level. On the contrary, the rate of unsuccessful migration is significantly higher ($p=0.00\%$) at illegal process. But B2B process could not achieve 100% successful rate. Around 14% people who followed B2B process were unsuccessful to migrate.

Nature of Working Skill: The rate of semi-skilled labour in successful migration was significantly higher ($p=0.04\%$) compared to unsuccessful migration. Survey data represented 84% successful workers did not have any professional skills but got permission to migrate for the skilled job especially in GCC countries. Adding to this 96% RMWs had no professional skills before migration but they dared to go.

Source of Motivation: Different sources played as impulsion factors for overseas migration like recruiting agencies and its' sub-agents in the community level were the major source for both successful (72%) and unsuccessful (74%) migration. From the perspective of successful and unsuccessful migration, the role of recruiting agency was insignificant. But people who were provoked by other family members or relatives were significantly more unsuccessful ($p=0.02$) in migration.

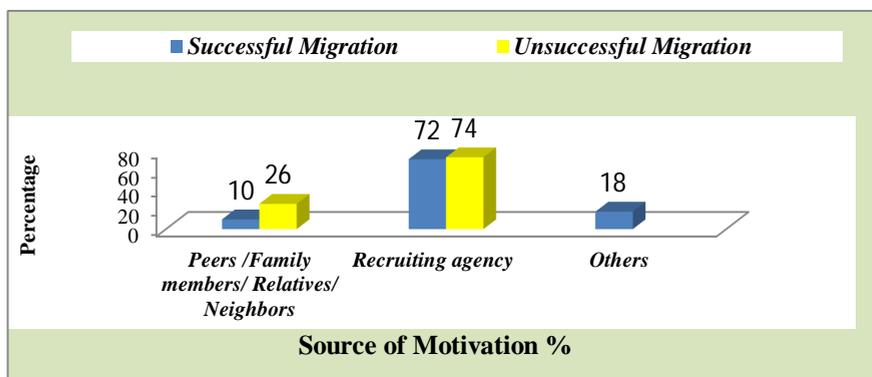


Figure 05: Sources of Motivation to Migrate

Again, peers, family members, relatives, and neighbors played another significant role for both successful (10%) and unsuccessful (26%) migration. Distinguishingly there were some other motivators (18%) especially for successful migration which was governmental announcement, etc. Figure 05 represents the picture of motivation.

So, it is clear that behind successful and unsuccessful migration, level of education including literacy or illiteracy; occupational patterns before

migration such as business or others; migration process such as B2B, G2G or illegal; nature of working skill such as semi-skilled or others; motivation sources such as recruiting agencies or relatives act had very crucial role to define the fortune of an overseas migrants in Bangladesh.

Misfortunes of Unsuccessful Migration

Though various factors are responsible for unsuccessful migration, lengthy and costly procedure of migration process is the crucial one. For this a large portion of emigrants chose the illegal process for overseas migration and became unsuccessful. Reasons behind choosing illegal process of migration are expressed by the following WMI (weighted mean index) (Table 03).

Table 03. Combined Weighted Mean Value of Choosing Illegal process

Reasons	WMI (in scale of 5)
Unawareness and illiteracy	4.68
High cost of B2B process	4.13
Low capacity of G2G process	3.75
Passport and visa problem	3.18

Source: Compilation based on survey data

Here, it is found that the main reason behind choosing illegal migration was Unawareness and illiteracy of migrants. So it is proved that illiteracy is the root cause of all unwanted misfortune. In overseas migration, gross amount of expenditure was ranging from BDT 25,000 to BDT 60,000 per worker in G2G process whereas in B2B process this expenditure was grossly ranging from BDT 250,000 to BDT 300,000 per worker (BMET, 2016). But the service providing capacity in G2G wastoo lower to B2B. This incredible situation influenced people to choose illegal process of migration.

Bad Experience Faced by Illegal Migrants

In study area about 66% RMWs those who were unsuccessful faced problems during travelling and as a consequence they had to return and often they did not reach their destination. The study found that 66% RMWs those who were unsuccessful faced problems during travelling and as a consequence they had to return and often they did not reach their destination. Unfortunately, 38% of them had experienced the bitter

things which were missing cases and sometimes death of fellow travelers during their migration phase

Those who were able to return, maximum (60%) of them still faced several mental traumas including fear of death, etc. despite they were in their homeland with their families. Afsar (2009) showed in her study that in many countries, few regulations existed to control and monitor the level of fees charged to workers which led to situations where the migrant workers could be heavily indebted before they left their origin countries. Most of them could not see their employment contracts prior to departure, and were promised conditions of work that were not subsequently met. Even if they saw their contract before departure, it might contain false information about wages and working conditions. Deception during the recruitment process set workers up for subsequent abuse that could amount, in extreme cases, to trafficking for forced labor.

Siddiqui and Sultana (2013) who conducted a study on the same region of the present study and found that there were many aspirant migrants originating from Maungdaw, Buthidaung and Akiyab of Burma and from Teknaf, Cox's Bazar and greater Chittagong districts of Bangladesh who intended to go to Malaysia through help of local intermediaries (dalal). By the time the route became manifold and cargo carrying engine boats were used to transfer the migrants from Shahpori Island of Teknaf to Malaysia. Now the main fact was that a few entrepreneurs in Shahpori Island, has transformed human smuggling into a profitable business. Due to courageous reporting of some journalists, the government could easily trace those individuals. But as yet no formal action had been taken against them. For that reason the whole migration procedure is still in questionable situation in terms of ensuring safety and security.

Harassment in Workplace Faced by Immigrants in Destination Country

Not only unsuccessful but successful workers faced harassment from their transiting time (thieving of money and others) to their workplace. In most cases, they felt hesitate to share their own harassment in time of overseas but they shared the experience of others. They became the victim of their own employers. Racial discrimination is one of the major issues for Bangladeshi migrants. For example, an Indian or Napoli immigrant consumes more privilege compared to Bangladeshi immigrant (Bhattarai, 2007). Overseas immigrants experience a variety of violence in their workplaces, like bribery, wage discrimination, harassment, stigma, physical violence including rape, other sexual harassment, torture, even murder, etc. (Samuels, et. al, 2012). One of

the basic reasons of their harassment was diplomacy of middleman, deceitful role between the workers and the actual employers of host country. The second most responsible factor was most of the migrants were not aware about their job offer letter or demand letter.

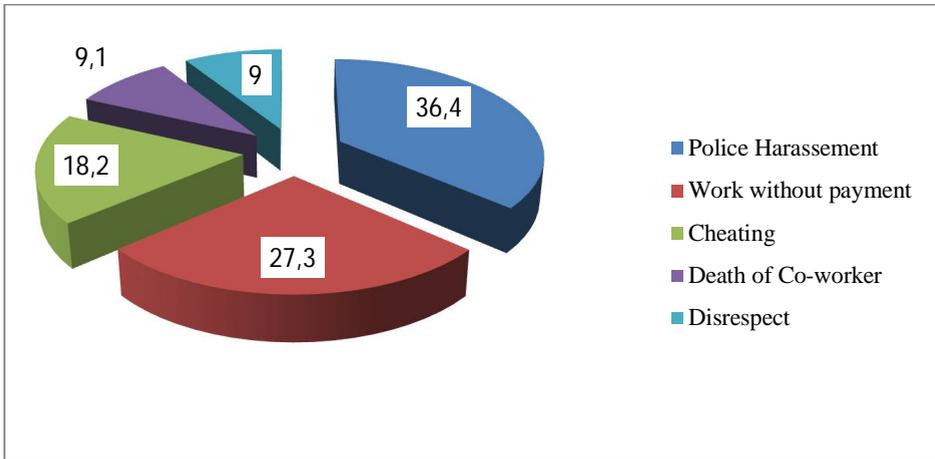


Figure 06: Workplace Harassment in Overseas Migration

With unsuccessful migrants, 24% successful migrants faced violence of several kinds in their workplaces. Of such violence, the highest violence was harassed by police and the second largest harassment was work without payment. Many of them were cheated by their employers, or by their co-workers and rest of them had seen the death of the co-workers due to severe punishment and disrespect of themselves. Additionally, as maximum unsuccessful migrants stayed abroad for only one to six months so, the role of employers in this regard could not be measurable properly.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In Bangladesh, labor migration has become a catchword and a reality for Bangladeshis and will remain so in the future. But still now migrants whether documented or undocumented, successful or unsuccessful have been facing challenges, discrimination, exclusion and exploitation continuously within both origin and host country. This study particularly focuses on the influencing factors behind successful migration and unsuccessful migration. From this perspective, to reduce the rate of unsuccessful overseas migration some possible measures are –

- ✓ Data availability of the rate of both successful and unsuccessful migration should be ensured not only at district level but also at

Upazila level, to take effective steps to reduce unsuccessful migration.

- ✓ Besides literacy rate, public awareness should be increased about the misfortune of choosing illegal process of migration.
- ✓ Each and every private recruiting agency should ensure the availability of their address and contact number to each and every sending manpower so that they can always be in touch and can be contacted if necessary. Recently BOESL has initiated this inspiring step which must be maintained by the private recruiting organizations.
- ✓ Before sending manpower, it is very urgent to prepare manpower with proper trainings and skill so that those migrants can cope with the overseas working environment.
- ✓ Providing bank loan opportunities for to be migrated manpower will be much more fruitful to avoid high cost and overcome recruitment process.

On the other hand, this paper could not address all possible reasons behind successful and unsuccessful overseas migration due to small sample size and limited study area. Further research at large scale level is necessary to identify all possible factors. Addressing the factors behind unsuccessful migration needs to answer some other several questions like; why people are so desperate to migrate overseas without education or skill? What is the role of destination country behind unsuccessful migration? How and at what rate community recruiting agent or Dalal provokes country people to migrate from origin? This set of question occupies the window of further research.

Unfortunately, Bangladesh does not rate very high on the governance scale. Migrant workers' violation of rights initiates at home by agents, Dalals and recruitment agencies and these continue in the receiving countries as well. Additionally, as most of the migrant workers come from rural areas, these people have very little access to knowledge of migration related knowledge including pre-departure information. So, the Government of Bangladesh along the civil society and relevant authorities must put much more emphasize on making the migration procedure safer and better than ever before to reduce the rate of unsuccessful migration.

References

- Abrar, C R., Sikder, Md. J. U. (2007) "Situation Analyses of Migratory Patterns of Cox's Bazar District. Dhaka: International Labour Organization." [online] : www.rmmru.org/newsite/wp-content/uploads/(Accessed 15 July 2017)
- Afsar, R. (2009) "Unraveling the Vicious Cycle of Recruitment: Labour Migration from Bangladesh to the Gulf States. Geneva: International Labour Office" [online]: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- Ahmed, S. M. (2012) 'Migration Remittances and Housing Development: Contribution of International Labor Migration and Remittances to Migrant Sending Households in Rural Bangladesh'. Lund University Master of International Development and Management, Sweden.
- Alam, F., Siwar, C., Talib, B., and Islam, R. (2011) "Impacts on International Migration and Remittance growth". American Journal of Environmental Sciences. Volume 7, Issue 1. pp.20-25.
- BAIRA (Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies) (2016) "Welcome to BAIRA: About BAIRA" [online]:<http://www.baira.org.bd/>(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- BB (2012). "Report, Bangladesh Bank". The Central Bank of Bangladesh, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, Dhaka, [online]: <https://www.bb.org.bd/pub/annual/anreport/bar1112/2011-2012.pdf>(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- BB. (2013) "Annual Report", Bangladesh Bank. The Central Bank of Bangladesh, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, Dhaka,[online] <https://www.bb.org.bd/pub/annual/anreport/bar1112/2012-2013.pdf>(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- BER (2016) "Bangladesh Economic Review" Ministry of Finance, People's Republic of Bangladesh. [online]:www.mof.gov.bd(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- Bhattarai, R. (2007) "Open borders, closed citizenships: Nepali labor migrants in Delhi". Institute of Social Studies, Netherlands.
- BMET (2016) "District Wise Overseas Employment from 2005 to 2016", Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training. [online]: <http://www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/statisticalDataAction>(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- BOESL (Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited) (2015). "Annual Report 2014-15". Dhaka: Quick Print Limited.
- Daily Star (2015) "Traffickers call departure points in Teknaf of Bangladesh".Malaysia airports'. [online]: <http://www.thedailystar.net> (Accessed 15 July 2017).

- EC (2000) "Push and Pull Factors of International Migration, A Comparative Report". European Commission, General Statistics Department. Luxembourg.
- Hasan, M (2015) "Why Bangladeshis are Leaving the Country by Boats? Locating the Global Roots of a Local Problem". Global Policy. [online]: <http://www.globalpolicyjournal.com> (Accessed 15 July 2017).
- ILO (2014) "ILO Global estimates on migrant workers: Results and Methodology (Special focus on migrant domestic workers)". International Labour Office, Department of Statistics, Switzerland. [online]: <http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public> (Accessed 15 July 2017).
- IOM (2013) "Migration for Development: Within and Beyond Frontiers". International Organization for Migration.
- Islam, Dr. Md. N. (2011) "Migration from Bangladesh and Overseas Employment Policy". [online]: www.bmet.org.bd (Accessed 15 July 2017).
- Islam, Dr. Md. N. (2013) "Migration from Bangladesh and Overseas Employment Policy" [online]: www.bmet.org.bd (Accessed 15 July 2017).
- Islam, S., Parvin, S. and Kamal, A. (2013) "Socio-economic Impacts of International Migration in Bangladesh" Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development.vol. 4 no 4, pp. 9-17.
- Khan, M. W. R. (2008) "The Micro Level Impact of Foreign Remittances on Incomes in Bangladesh: A Measurement Approach Using the Propensity Scores" Centre for Policy Dialogue(Dialogue). Bangladesh.
- MHA (Ministry of Home Affairs) (2013). "Bangladesh Country Report, 2012.Ministry of Home Affairs Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh", Dhaka, Bangladesh.[online]:http://mha.gov.bd/wpcontent/uploads/2013/10/Country_Report_2012.pdf(Accessed 15 July 2017).
- Rahman, A., Rahman, M. (2008) "Impact of Migration on Bangladesh Economy: A Critical Analysis". Research Department, TMSS.Bangladesh.
- Ratha, D. (2005) "Worker's Remittances: An Important and Stable Source of External Development Finance" Chapter 1 in S. M. Mainboald D. Ratha (eds.)"Remittances – Development Impact and Future Prospects. The World Bank.
- Ratha, D., Mohapatra, S. and Scheja, E. (2011) "Impact of Migration on Economic and Social Development: A Review of Evidence and Emerging Issues". Policy Research Working Papers, World Bank.
- Sabur, M. A., Hasan, M. (2008) "Political Impacts of Remittances: A Micro-level Study of Migrants' Remittances in a Village in Bangladesh". Asian Social Science.Vol.4, No. 12.pp.128

Samuels, F., Wagle, F., Sultana, T., Sultana, M. M., Kaur, N. and Chatterjee, S. (2012) "Stories of harassment, violence and discrimination: migrant experiences between India, Nepal and Bangladesh. Project Briefing, Overseas Development Institute" . [online]:<http://www.care.org/sites/default/files/documents/GBV-2012-7535>(Accessed 15 July 2017).

Siddiqui, T. (2005) "International labour migration from Bangladesh: A decent work perspective". Working Paper No 66. Policy Integration Department

National Policy Group International Labour Office Geneva.

Siddiqui, T., Sultana, M.(2013) "Labour Migration From Bangladesh 2012: Achievements and challenges" Dhaka: RMMRU [online]: http://ndc.gov.bd/lib_mgmt/webroot(Accessed 15 July 2017).

RISKY SEXUAL BEHAVIOR AMONG IN-SCHOOL YOUTHS: THE INFLUENCE OF PORNOGRAPHY USE AND SOCIO-ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS ON STUDENTS IN ASSOSA, WESTERN ETHIOPIA

Zenaw Alem¹, Amanti Baru², Nega Jibat³

Abstract

Introduction: This study investigated the influence of pornography use and socio-environmental factors on risky sexual behavior among in-school youths in Assosa, Ethiopia.

Methods: The study involved a cross-sectional survey of 317 students, FGDs and key-informant interviews.

Results: Pornography use had 24.6 % prevalence among the students. 31.2% of the students have started sexual intercourse, with 22.7% started sex before the age of 18 years. Gender (AOR [95% CI] = 3.2 [1.173, 8.734]), educational status of the students (AOR [95% CI] = 0.141 [0.025, 0.797]), religious attendance (AOR [95% CI] = 0.259 [0.088, 0.765]), pornography use (AOR [95% CI] = 6.401 [1.788, 22.919]) and alcohol use (AOR [95% CI] = 3.449 [1.359, 8.754]) have significantly influenced risky sexual behavior. Qualitative data revealed peer pressure, exposure to western media and less communication with parents about sex as influencing students' sexual behavior.

Conclusion: Pornography use and social-environmental factors strongly influenced students' risky sexual behavior: early sexual initiation, unprotected sexual intercourse and having sex with multiple sexual partners.

Keywords: Pornography, Youths, Risky sexual behavior, students

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12959/issn.1855-0541.IIASS-2019-no1-art7>

¹ Zenaw Alem is a lecturer in the Department of Sociology, Assosa University, Ethiopia. Contact email address: zenawfantastic@gmail.com

² Amanti Baru is a lecturer in the Department of Sociology, Jimma University, Ethiopia. Contact email address: amantibaru@gmail.com

³ Nega Jibat is associate professor in the Department of Sociology, Jimma University, Ethiopia. Contact email address: nega.jibat@gmail.com

Introduction

Globally in 2015, there were 1.2 billion young people aged 15 to 24 years, with 19 percent (226 Million) of them living in Africa (United Nations 2015). Youth have been found to be a group at the highest risk for adverse health consequences related to sexual risk taking behavior (Gurmesa, Fessahaye and Sisay 2012; Wondemagegn, Mulat and Bayeh 2014; Tadesse et al. 2016).

Young-adults are more likely than older-adults to engage in risky sexual practice, to have multiple sex partners, to engage in unprotected sexual intercourse and to select higher risk partners (Asekun-Olarinmoye et al. 2014; Elias 2014). Risky sexual behaviors among adolescents can lead to multiple negative health consequences such as: sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and teenage pregnancy. Nowadays, more frequent viewing of pornography is in some way associated with sexual behaviors that are potentially more risky like: permissive sexual attitudes, sexual preoccupation and earlier sexual experimentation (Abel and Fiseha 2014). Broadly speaking, adolescents who are frequent viewers of pornography are found to experience an array of negative health and wellbeing outcomes (Livingstone and Mason 2015).

The development and expansion of new forms of social media and technology has brought additional challenges to adolescents through leading them to increased exposure to sexting and violent content (Sawyer et al. cited in Pound and Campbell 2015). For instance, there has been a growing concern over the potential harms of pornography among young people which include: encouraging early sexual activity, acceptance of casual and extramarital sex, multiple partners, anal and oral sex, homosexuality, generate shame, guilt, anxiety, confusion, poor social bonds, addictions, undermine relationships and foster sexual violence (Bryant 2009).

According to different literature, young people in Ethiopia face multiple and interrelated health and risky sexual practices like: high levels of teenage pregnancy, unsafe abortion and sexually transmitted infections (STIs). These problems are further complicated by limited access to reproductive health information and good quality adolescent reproductive health services in the country. As empirical evidence to this, the different studies ever conducted about sexual behavior of adolescents and young people in different regions of

Ethiopia revealed that youths are engaged in risky sexual behavior because of different reasons: influence of alcohol and khat, poor parental attachment and age (Gurmesa et al. 2012; Deresse and Debebe 2014; Tadesse et al. 2016).

Different scholars in Ethiopia had shown their greater interest of uncovering risky sexual behavior tendencies associated with risk factors among young people in the country. For instance, study conducted about risky sexual behaviors among female youth in semi urban area of Amhara region, TissAbay, revealed that age, current marital status, drinking alcohol, chewing 'khat' and using any form of stimulant substances are the predictors of risky sexual behavior ([Gojjam](#) and [Bereket](#) 2015). Another study conducted in Bonga, Ethiopia, also reported that the majority of students who were sexually active engaged in unsafe sexual practices; and sex, year of study, income and ever use of 'khat' were independently associated with risky sexual behavior (Agegnehu et al. 2015). Several similar studies have also been conducted on high school, private and public college and university students in Ethiopia (Amsale and Yemane 2012; Gurmesa, Fessahaye and Sisay 2012; Abel and Fiseha 2014; Deresse and Debebe 2014). Nonetheless, studies about risky sexual behavior in Ethiopia have given little emphasis to study the prevalence of pornography use and its association with risky sexual behavior among young people. In fact, Tony, Zewdie and Serawit (2015) and Amanuel (2007) studied the magnitude of pornography consumption and associated factors among preparatory school youths in Hawassa city and the influence of exposure to pornography among the youths in Addis Ababa, respectively. However, their studies lack to address important social variables (Like religiosity of the study participants and whether the parent alive or not) that could potentially affect students sexual behavior.

Thus, much investigation is worthwhile to deeply understand youth's sexual behavior as specifically related to pornography and generally to other determinants. Accordingly, the major purpose of this study was to investigate pornography use and socio-environmental determinants of risky sexual behavior among students in Assosa General Secondary School and College Preparatory.

The study addressed the following specific objectives:

- To assess access to pornography among students in the study area.
- To describe sexual behavior of the students in the study area.
- To determine relationship between pornography use and risky sexual behavior among students in the study area.
- To examine socio-environmental factors related with risky sexual behavior of students in the study area.

Theoretical framework

Sexual script and problem behavior theories were used to orient this study. Sexual script is the most dominant sociological representation frequently used in understanding human sexuality as social behavior and practice (Wiederman 2015). It assumes that all social behavior including sexual behavior is socially constructed and derived from shared belief among a particular social group. Moreover, the theory was utilized by other researchers through interviews in studying participants' sexual script while validating the existence of a particular sexual script at three distinctive scenarios: cultural, interpersonal, and intra-psychic scripts (Wiederman 2015). The current study adopted sexual script theory to examine students' sexual behavior, access and usage of pornographic materials from peers, teachers and parents perspective.

The second framework, problem behavior theory, is a social-psychological perspective developed by Richard Jessor and colleagues during the 1960s to explain adolescents' problem behavior. Problem behavior theory insists on the social and environmental formulation of determinants of risk behavior by adolescents and young people. More so, the theory explains how the personal, perceived environment and behavioral systems cumulatively yield to a substantial account of problem behavior variations among adolescents (Jessor 2014). This study appropriated the personal, perceived social environment and behavioral system concepts that could determine the overall existence of risky sexual behavior among students.

Materials and methods

Study design

The study is a school-based cross-sectional design with descriptive and analytical purposes. The descriptive component of the study

described the socio-demographic characteristics, sexual behavior and use of pornographic materials of the students participated in this study. The analytical component of this study explained the association between pornography use, and social and demographic characteristics and risky sexual behaviors among students.

The study employed mixed research approach. A quantitative dominant mixed method (concurrent nested design) was a specific form of mixed method approach, which was appropriated under this study to catch a comprehensive understanding of students' sexual behavior and their exposure to pornography in the study area.

Study area

The study was conducted in Assosa Town, the capital city of Benishangul Gumuz Regional State. Assosa was established in 1929 and is located in the Western part of Ethiopia at a distance of about 678 kilometers away from Addis Ababa. The town is sub-divided into four administrative kebeles with 46,200 populations in 2015 as projected by Ethiopian Central Statistical Agency.

This study more specifically targeted students or in-school youths of Assosa General Secondary School and College Preparatory. This school was established in 1979/1980. The school is the only governmental General Secondary School and College Preparatory in Assosa town. Student's intake of the school in 2009 Ethiopian academic year had reached 3,326.

Sampling

To select respondents of the survey questionnaire, a total list of 3,326 students was obtained from the school. Hence, it was used as a sample frame for this study.

Inclusion Criteria

- Being a student at Assosa General Secondary School and College Preparatory.
- Those who volunteered to participate in the study were included.
- Students whose age is between 15 and 24 years were included.

Exclusion Criteria

- Students whose age categories below 15 and above 24 were exempted from participating in the study.
- Students who were involved in the pretest were excluded from the main study.

Survey respondents were drawn from a total population (3,326) of students in Assosa General Secondary School and College Preparatory. However, by using the exclusion criteria, 133 students were omitted from participating in the study. Hence, samples are drawn from a total population of 3,193 students from grade 9-12. Yemane (1967) formula ($n=N/(1+N(e)^2)$) was used to determine the sample size. A 95% confidence level, 5% non-response rate and $P = 0.5$ was assumed. Where n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e (0.05) is the level of precision (Kasiulevicius, Sapoka and Filipaviciute 2006). Therefore, the total sample size of the survey participants was 373.

$$\begin{aligned}n &= N/(1+N(e)^2) \\n &= 3193/(1+3193(0.05)^2) = 355 \\5\% \text{ non-response rate} &= (355/100)*5 = 18 \\ \text{Thus, the total sample size} &= (355 + 18) = 373\end{aligned}$$

Systematic sampling method was used to select the sample units from the sampling frame.

On the other hand, purposive sampling was used to select 18 participants for the FGDs. Two FGDs were held with students of male (eight participants) and female (ten participants) categories. Each FGD sessions approximately took 50 minutes of discussion and moderated by the principal researcher. Nine participants for the key informant interviews were selected from students, teachers in the school and parents of the students. Participants of the FGDs and the key informant interviews were selected based on the criteria's of students' involvement in mini media and anti HIV/AIDS clubs and their voluntariness to participate in this study. Teachers working as school principals and in different responsibilities in the school participated in the key informant interviews. Parents of the students who were members of the committee of parents for school affairs were participated in the key informants' interviews.

Outcome Variable: the dependent variable under the study was risky sexual behavior (early sexual intercourse, ever had unsafe sex and sex with multiple sexual partners) measured at nominal level.

Exposure Variables: the exposure variables for this study were socio-demographic characteristics of the students and pornography use. Thus, the socio-demographic characteristic of the students includes: Sex, Age, Religion, Attendance of religious education, Educational status, Ethnicity, Marital status, Parental living status, Whom currently students are living with, Fathers Educational level, Mothers educational level, Perceived Parental income, Having cell (smart) phone, Access to internet, Pornography, Khat, Alcohol, and Drug use.

Data management and analysis

Quantitative data processing, cleaning and analysis were done using SPSS version 20.0. The aim of this analysis was to examine the association between pornography use and socio demographic characteristics and risky sexual behavior. The analysis was conducted in three succeeding steps. The first step was simple tabulation to describe the respondents' socio economic profile, exposure to pornography & sexual behavior. The second step was a Univariate Logistic Regression analysis used to check crude effect of exposure variables by using Odds Ratio at 95% Confidence Interval. In the third step, Binary Logistic Regression analysis was used to fit a model and to check independent effect of selected exposure variables by using Adjusted Odds Ratio (Forward Stepwise Procedure) at 95% Confidence Interval. The third procedure was to determine how statistically significant exposure variables at the second step independently influenced the probability of engaging in risky sexual behaviors. Chi-square test of analysis was used and p-value less than 0.05 were taken as statistically significant. Qualitative data collected from the focus group discussions and the key informants' interviews were transcribed from the tape recordings into electronic and print forms. The transcript was read thoroughly and descriptive summary was arranged in different categories of responses and themes.

Results and discussion

Socio-demographic data

The study has a response rate of 85%, with 317 samples considered for analysis out of 373 sample size. Males were 145 (45.5%), and 172 (54.3%) were female students. Respondents whose age were 15 to 17 years were 196 (61.8%) and 18 to 24 years were 121 (38.2%). With respect to their educational status, 115 (36.3%), 83 (26.2%), 62 (19.6%) and 57 (18%) were from grade 9th, 10th, pre-college year 1 (11th), and pre-college year 2 (12th) respectively. Two hundred eighty nine (91.2%) of them were single, 18 (5.7%) of them were married, and 10 (3.2%) were neither single nor married (i.e. may be divorced, separated, or widowed). Around half (157) of the respondents are Orthodox religion followers and 53 (16.7%), 6 (1.9%), 92 (29%), and 9 (2.8%) are Protestant Christianity, Catholic, Muslim, and other religion followers, respectively. From the total respondents (317), 228 (71.9%) of them were active attendants of religious education provided in their respective affiliated religion.

With respect to the ethnic background of the students, 136 (42.9%) of them were Amhara ethnic group and 71 (22.4%), 44 (13.9%), 20 (6.3%), 8 (2.5%) and 38 (12%) were Oromo, Berta, Shenasha, Gumuz, and other ethnic groups respectively. Two hundred twenty nine (72.2%) of the students live currently with their fathers or (and) mothers and the remaining students live with relatives (14.8%), husbands or wives (2.2%), friends (2.2%), their employers (0.9%), and alone (6.3%). Out of the total study participants (317), 246 (77.6%) of them have mothers and fathers alive, the remaining 56 (17.7%) and 15 (4.7%) have only fathers or mothers alive and both not alive respectively.

Fifty six (17.4%) of fathers of the students were illiterate and 94 (29.7%) of the fathers had attended primary education. The remaining 50 (15.8%) and 115 (36.3%) of the fathers have respectively attended secondary and college level education. On the other hand, ninety two (29%) of mothers of the students were illiterate and 91 (28.7%) of the mothers had attended primary education. The remaining 53 (16.7%) and 78 (24.6%) of the mothers have respectively attended secondary and college level education. Three of the students' fathers' educational status was missing. Most majorities of the respondents' (224) out 317 have reported that their parent (family income) was medium. 66 and 27 of the respondents have reported that their parent's income was poor and high respectively.

One hundred fifty one (47.6%) of the respondents have cell or smart phones, while more than half (166) the study participants do not have cell (smart) phone. 155 (48.9%) of the respondents were users of internet, the remaining 51.1% of them were non users of internet. Around one third (32.8%) of the students have drunken alcohol previously. Ever users of khat substance were 47 (14.8%). Only 25 (7.9%) of the students have had abused other drugs in their life time from 317 total participants of this study. Finally, from 317 total respondents of this study, 78 (24.6%) of the students were exposed to pornographic materials.

Pornography Use among Students

Overall prevalence of pornography use among the study participants was 24.6 % (30.3% among males and 19.5% among females). Lower rates of pornography use among females were reported under this study as compared to males. Prevalence of pornography use for this study was lower as compared to Humara Secondary School students in Northwestern Ethiopia, which was 75.9% (Abel and Fishea 2014) and Jimma University students, 65.1% (Gurmessa, Fessahaye and Sisay 2012).

The prevalence of early exposure (before age 18 years) to pornographic materials among the study participants who have consumed pornography was 17% from the total 24.6%. Study participants obtained pornographic materials from major sources like from internet and CDs (DVDs). The students opted using pornography at their home and away on their cell phones. The influence of peers in motivating initial exposure to pornographic materials was strong reason for study participants ever had consumed porno materials. Generally speaking, about one fourth of study participants were exposed to sexually explicit materials as access to these materials largely remained easily available from internet and technologies that students avail on their hands like cell (smart phones) and desktop (laptop) computers.

Participants of the FGDs and key informants interviews agreed that students are intentionally and accidentally users of pornography because of its easy accessibility through cell phones and on internet. Participants of the key informant interviews also informed that some video houses in Assosa Town usually provide porno movies to their clients, majority of them are adolescents attending secondary school. A 9th grade male students stated:

“In-school youths access to porno videos and photos is common because one can easily access those materials on smart phones... to be

frank with you, someone having no access to porno or less interest to be exposed would be referred as 'uncivilized' (locally "geja") by his/her peers".

The finding obtained from the FGD conducted with male discussants also aligns with the findings described above. Majority of them expressed that students get pornographic materials from their friends and internet and pornography consumption is high among students in grade 12th and 11th as compared to new comers to high school (grade 9th students). And some of the participants have argued that senior students easily influence the newcomers to consume pornography materials; thereby affects sexual behavior of these groups of the in-school youths.

Sexual Experience of the Students

In this study, 99 (31.28%) of the respondents' were sexually active. This figure is much higher as compared to 17.8% prevalence rate of sexually active respondents' among in-school youth at Addis Ababa City (Lioul 2008) and almost similar with 33.5% and 30.2% prevalence rate of sexual experience among students of Haramaya and Axum Universities, respectively (Andualem, Assefa and Chalachew 2014; Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015). Regarding sex differences of sexual initiation for this study, 43 (29.7%) were males and 56 (32.6%) were females. The above percentage indicates that females are more active to start sex than their counter parts, males. This result is contradictory to what was reported by a study conducted among Arba Minch University students that prevalence of sexual intercourse is much higher among males than females (Bikila and Gemechu 2015).

Greater desire of having sex, peer pressure and maintain relationships were reported as major reasons to start sex for the first time among the respondents of this study. The findings from the FGDs of the present study also revealed similar factors. All these reasons were reported among the students of Arba-Minch University in a similar manner to the current study (Bikila and Gemechu 2015). Moreover, other studies in Ethiopia about sexual behavior of in-school youths also found that peer pressure, curiosity to have sex and to know sex were found reasons for initiation of sex at the first time (Andualem, Assefa and Chalachew 2014; Fekadu and Alemayehu 2009).

Sex under the influence of behavioral factors such as: drinking alcohol, use of pornography, and drugs like khat use were reported by respondents with history of sexual intercourse. For instance, 49 (15.5%) of the survey respondents having sexual experience reported that they

had sex under the influence of alcohol use. Among 99 (31.3%) of study participants who had sex, next to Alcohol, sex under the influence of pornography, drug and khat use were reported by 39 (12.5%), 33 (10.4%) and 20 (6.3%) respondents respectively. This figures showed that respondents' had history of having sex under the influence of one or more behavioral factors at the same time. In line with this findings, parents of the students also reported that shisha and khat houses were major places where students were exposed to substances and pornographic films, which thereby influences their sexual behavior.

Among the survey population, 218 (68.7%) of them never had sexual intercourse until this study was conducted. One hundred one respondents' among those who did not start sex up to now argued that they wanted to avoid sexual intercourse for the reason they emphasized on their education. Next to focus on education, to wait until marriage was another reason why 71 respondents delayed sexual intercourse. The two reasons were also prior options opted by respondents' for similar studies conducted in different parts of Ethiopia (Fekadu and Alemayehu 2009; Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015). Fear of HIV/AIDS and other STIs, unwanted pregnancy and afraid of making sexual intercourse were also reasons opted by other respondents for avoiding sex.

Sex Communication

It was found that communication about sex related issues among students and parents was very low. Only 76 (24%) of the students had reported ever communicated with their parents regarding sex related issues. Majority of female FGD participants have also confirmed that communication about sex and sex related topic among students and their parents was limited as the prevailing culture in the community considers the issue as taboo. One of the key informants in this regard had stated:

“This day's parents recognize that their children could probably or already started sexual intercourse and they never want wasting their time by teaching the bad sides of it. Rather, they say my children please keep your-self safe, locally.”

Devastatingly, some of the male FGD discussants have argued that parents less worry about where and with whom their children spend the whole day. Communication about sex related issues among parents and adolescents of the study participants was reported to be less, with the perceived benefit of saving students from their engagement in unpleasant sexual activities. Similarly, a study conducted in Mekelle City on Secondary and Preparatory school students found that parent-

adolescent communications on sexual and reproductive health issues were low (Zemenu et al. 2015).

Still, only 119 (37.5%) of the students who had participated in the study have reported that they have had ever communicated about sex related issues with their friends. Female students who have participated in the FGD revealed that students only communicate about their sexuality for only closer friends or they keep everything secret to the maximum possible. However, these discussants further argue that they observe students having walk with opposite sexes around streets in the town displaying charters that they are in love with whom they are. Yet, some of the male participants of the FGD discussed that sex discussions prevail among peers both in the class and outside the school thereby what they call it peer pressure comes in real sense. The finding of a study conducted by Roman (2015) to examine the sexual socialization of adolescents in Addis Ababa indicated that adolescents preferred peer groups as a first source of sexual information. According to Roman (2015), parents, particularly mothers were preferred as second source of information about sex related matters. Yadeta, Yemane and Alemayehu (2015) assessed parent-youth sexual and reproductive health communication in Eastern Ethiopia and they revealed rare practice of communicating about sexual and reproductive health related information among youths with parents.

Risky Sexual Practice

For this study, from the total respondents who had practiced sexual intercourse (31%), 72 (22.7%) of them had their first sex before age of 18 years; that was more than double times higher than 8.5% of the respondents having history of age at first sex above or equal to 18 years old. This figure indicates that early sexual initiation was prevalent among significant majority of the study respondents who had started sex (31%). This finding was consistent with studies conducted in Dessie Town (Fekadu and Alemayehu 2009), Bullen Woreda (Desalgne and Mesganaw 2010) and South Africa (Olufunmilayo 2009) and almost different from a study conducted in Axum, Axum University (Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015).

Another outcome variable treated as risky sexual behavior in this study was unsafe sexual intercourse. Unsafe sex practice was also reported among 29 (9.1%) of the study respondents who had sexual intercourse (31%). This finding was lower than 14% prevalence rate of sex without any protection among adolescents in Peru (Cueto and Leon 2016). This can be taken as another indication that students who had started sex were exposed to risky sexual behavior. Beyond this, there were students

who were exposed to unwanted pregnancy, abortion and STIs. This rational was exactly supported from a qualitative finding obtained from informants of the interviews. One of the key informants argues:

“As I am a health officer working in Assosa health center and dweller of Assosa Town, I knew adolescents at high school level attending medical services related to STIs and termination of unwanted pregnancy. Students encounter such problems because of they were drunken or peer pressure is there.”

Most of the informants of the key interviews and FGD discussants argued that prevalence of sexual practice without condom among high school students due to sex under the influence of alcohol and drug use was common, especially among those students attending nightclubs, 'shisha' and 'khat' houses. Significant numbers of the study respondents were exposed to sex without condom, which was one of the risky sexual behaviors for youth health. However, the prevalence rate of sex without condom reported in this study is slightly lower as compared to studies conducted in Axum University (Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015) and Jimma University (Gurmesa, Fessahaye and Sisay 2012).

Respondents who had multiple sexual partners were 65 (20.5%) among those 99 (31%) who started sex. The aforementioned proportions showed that larger majority of the students who have had sex were exposed to risky sexual behavior. More than half of the sexually active respondents 65 (20.5%) reported as they had sex with more than one sexual partners and this was higher among female students (69.6%) than their male counterparts (60.5%). This finding controversies with a study conducted in Gurage Zone, which reported higher proportion of male respondents were having more than one sexual partners as compared to their counterpart females (Tadesse et al. 2016).

Factors for Risky Sexual Behavior

In the Bivariate Logistic Regression analysis, different exposure variables showed a statistically significant association with risky sexual behavior of the study participants. For instance, religious education attendance and whom the students currently live with were associated with the practice of early sexual intercourse; sex and alcohol were associated with unsafe sexual practice; and educational status of the students, khat and pornography use were significantly associated with the practice of sexual intercourse with multiple partners. However, a Multivariate analysis for Logistic Regression was conducted to determine independent predictors of the three risky sexual behavior

typologies considered under this study by controlling the effect of confounding variables through forward stepwise analysis.

In the Multivariate Logistic Regression analysis, religious education attendance remained the only predictor having statistically significant association with early sexual experience of the study participants. Thus, attendance of religious education among students was more likely to decrease to engage in early sexual intercourse with AOR of 0.259 (95% C.I.: 0.088 - 0.765). Therefore, attending religious education remained the only protective factor for delaying of sexual intercourse among the study participants. This factor was also found as a protective factor among study participants in Axum University (Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015). In other similar studies conducted in North East and South West Ethiopia, alcohol drinking, khat chewing and watching pornography were reported as main predictors of early sexual initiation (Maregn and Gistane 2013; Fekadu and Alemayehu 2009). However, these important factors were found not significant predictors of early sexual intercourse for this study. This variation may be due the fact that the current study had used three different models to test the independent influence of many exposure variables on each outcome variables. Besides, alcohol use and exposure to pornography were found significant predictors in another models tested in this study.

Binary Logistic Regression indicating determinants of early sexual intercourse among students in AGSSPC, West Ethiopia, 2017 (N = 317)

Factors	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B) (AOR)	95% C.I. for	
							EXP(B) Lower	Upper
Religious education attendance (yes)1	-1.351	.552	5.982	1	.014	.259	.088	.765
Constant	1.032	1.128	.837	1	.360	2.806		
Variable(s) entered on step 1: Religious education attendance								
Omnibus tests of model coefficients (Sig = 0.001), Overall model prediction success in percentage 77.8%, Model summary (Nagelkerke R Square: 0.28), Hosomer & Lemeshow test (Sig = 0.86)								
Note: β - regression coefficient constant, exp B-odds ratio								

With regard to unsafe sexual practice of risky sexual behavior, male respondents three times [AOR= 3.2; 95% CI: 1.173, 8.734] more likely practiced unsafe sex than female students. Drinking alcohol 3.5 times

more increased the odds of practicing unsafe sexual intercourse among the study participants [AOR= 3.45; 95% CI: 1.359, 8.754].
 Logit (unsafe sexual practice 2017) = - .212 + 1.163 Male + 1.238 Alcohol use

Binary Logistic Regression indicating determinants of unsafe sexual practice among students in AGSSPC, West Ethiopia, 2017 (N = 317)

Factors	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B) (AOR)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Sex (male (1))	1.163	.512	5.157	1	.023	3.200	1.173	8.734
Use of alcohol (yes (1))	1.238	.475	6.786	1	.009	3.449	1.359	8.754
Constant	-.212	.370	.328	1	.567	.809		

Variable(s) entered on step 1: sex, use of alcohol
 Omnibus tests of model coefficients (Sig = 0.001), Overall success percentage 73.7%, Model summary (Nagelkerke R Square: 0.18), Hosmer & Lemeshow test (Sig = 0.98 (p> 0.05))
 Note: β- regression coefficient constant, exp B-odds ratio

Educational status of the study participants and exposure to pornography were significantly associated with risky sexual behavior implied by having sex with multiple sexual partners. Being ninth grade 0.141 times decreased the odds of having sex with multiple sexual partners as compared to being grade 12th [AOR = 0.141; 95% CI: 0.025, 0.797]. Hence, being at lower grade remained slightly a protective factor from having sex with multiple sexual partners than relatively being at higher grade level (grade 12th) among study participants. On the other hand, users of pornographic materials were 6.4 times likely to had sex with multiple sexual partners than the counterparts [AOR = 6.401; 95% C.I.: 1.788 - 22.919]. In the current study, strong positive relationship was observed among increased exposure to sexually explicit materials and sex with multiple sexual partners and this was in line with the sexual script theory, which claims that adolescents can learn about sexual activity from media (Wideman 2015). Watching Pornography was reported to increase the likelihood of practicing risky sexual behavior among Axum University students, which was similar finding with the current study (Hiwet, Wondwossen and Kidan 2015).

Logit (sex with multiple sexual partners 2017) = - .408 – 1.961 Grade 9 + 1.856 Pornography use

Binary Logistic Regression indicating determinants of sex with multiple sexual partners among students in AGSSPC, West Ethiopia, 2017 (N = 317)

Factors	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B) (AOR)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Educational status (grade 9 (1))	-1.961	.885	4.912	1	.027	.141	.025	.797
Use of pornography ((yes)1)	1.856	.651	8.137	1	.004	6.401	1.788	22.919
Constant	-.408	.715	.325	1	.568	.665		
Variable(s) entered on step 1: Educational status, use khat, use porno.								
Omnibus tests of model coefficients (Sig = 0.00), Over all percentage 71.7%, Model summary (Nagelkerke R Square: 0.35), & Hosmer& Lemeshow test (Sig = 0.66 (p>0.05))								
Note: β- regression coefficient constant, exp B-odds ratio								

The findings of this study reaffirm the explanations made by theories of both sexual scripting and problem behavior theories. For instance, in line with what theory of sexual scripting contends; any behavior is socially constructed and shared among particular social groups, with this exposure to sexually explicit materials could emanate from interaction with significant others and largely from exposure to media. Such experiences among the study participants in turn could have change the actual sexual behavior to extent of adopting unreal sexual scripts displayed in those medias (Widerman 2015; Livingstone and Mason 2015).

Unerringly, the findings of this study best fits with the theoretical explanations argued by Jessor (2014) in constructing problem behavior theory through further development of concepts central to the theory. Hence, personal factors (sex, educational status and attendance of religious education) and behavioral factors (use of alcohol and pornography) were found major factors (determinants) of the overall existence of risky sexual behavior among the study participants.

Conclusions and recommendations

This study proclaims that in-school youth’s sexual behavior remains significantly affected by the personal, interpersonal, behavioral and

social-environmental factors in which they are embedded with. In more precise terms, the use of pornography and alcohol, gender, peer pressure, media influence, and weak parent-children communication about sexuality are risky factors for risky sexual behavior among in-school youths of Assosa General Secondary School and College Preparatory. Proper parent-children communication at early stage of a person is a way-out from the multifaceted risky sexual behaviors observed at later age of young people, as human sexuality is a socially constructed reality interpreted from the power of self and meanings apprehended at broader community level. In view of this, the study insists on the adoption of need-based and informative ways of teaching in-school youths about risky sexual behavior in both academics and media. Parents should also give greater emphasis to address in-school adolescents risk sexual practices through enhancing straightforward and informative communication with their children than hardly communicating the issue. Local authorities and civil societies (Like: Police, Human Rights Agencies, Justice Offices, & *Kebele* Administrations) concerned with youths wellbeing also should take serious corrective measures on establishments like shisha and khat houses reinforcing youths exposure to risky sexual practice in Assosa town. School Mini-Medias, youth clubs and forums established in school compounds and elsewhere should advocate and disseminate massive information about youth sexual behavior so that the culture of vibrant discussion about the issue surpasses and risky sexual behavior could be reduced to higher level possible among young people. Teachers of Biology and Civic courses at high school level could also play an important role in facilitating open and productive discussions about youths reproductive health issues, and most importantly generally accepted ethics and behavior in the community, thereby to minimize the incidences of youth's exposure to risk factors. Future researches and policy initiatives within the country should consider as well pragmatic approaches of addressing youth sexual behavior. Most particularly, future researches on adolescents and youths sexuality should give prior attention for identification of protective factors for risky sexual behavior among these sections of the community.

References

- Abel Fekadu and Fiseha Gebrethadkan. 2014. "Risky Sexual Behavior and Associated Factors among Grade 9-12 Students in Humera Secondary School, Western Zone of Tigray, NW Ethiopia." *Science Journal of Public Health* 2(5):410-416. doi: 10.11648/j.sjph.20140205.16.
- Agegnehu Alemu, Muluegta Shegaze, Teshome Gobena, Hailay Abraha, Gebremaryam Temesgen, and Yohannes Markos. 2015. "Assessment of Substance Use and Risky Sexual Behaviour among Public College Students in Bonga Town, Southwest Ethiopia." *American Journal of Biomedical and Life Sciences* 3(5): 91-97. doi: 10.11648/j.ajbls.20150305.11.
- Agresti, Alan. 1996. "An Introduction to Categorical Data Analysis." John Wiley and Sons, Inc New York. Retrieved January 7, 2017 (<https://eclass.uoa.gr>)
- Amanuel Teferi. 2007. "The Influence of Exposure to Pornography among the Youth in Addis Ababa." Retrieved January 5, 2017 ([http://www.etd.aau.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/4867/1/3.Amanuel Teferi.pdf](http://www.etd.aau.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/4867/1/3.Amanuel%20Teferi.pdf)).
- Amsale Cherie and Yemane Berhane. 2012. "Peer Pressure Is the Prime Driver of Risky Sexual Behaviors among School Adolescents in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia." *World Journal of AIDS* 2:159-164. Retrieved January 2, 2017 (<http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/wja.2012.23021>).
- Andualem Derese, Assefa Seme and Chalachew Misganaw. 2014. "Assessment of Substance Use and Risky Sexual Behaviour among Haramaya University Students, Ethiopia." *Science Journal of Public Health* 2(2):102-110. doi: 10.11648/j.sjph.20140202.19
- Asekun-Olarinmoye, Asekun-Olarinmoye, E., Adebimpe W.O., & Akin G Omisore. 2014. "Effect of Mass Media and Internet on Sexual Behavior of Undergraduates in Osogbo Metropolis, Southwestern Nigeria." *Adolescent Health, Medicine and Therapeutics* 5:15-22. Retrieved January 4, 2017 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3956478/pdf/ahmt-5-015.pdf>).
- Beyens, Vandenbosch L., and Steven Eggermont. n.d.. "Early Adolescent Boys' Exposure to Internet Pornography: Relationships to Pubertal Timing, Sensation Seeking, and Academic Performance." *The Journal of Early Adolescence*. doi:10.1177/0272431614548069.
- Bikila Soboka and Gemechu Kejela. 2015. "Assessment of Risky Sexual Behaviors among Arba Minch University Students, Arba Minch Town, SNNPR, Ethiopia." *J Child Adolesc Behav* 3: 189. doi:10.4172/2375-4494.1000189.
- Braun-Courville, Debrak & Rojas M. 2009. " Exposure to Sexually Explicit Web Sites and Adolescent Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors."

- Journal of Adolescent Health 45:156–162.
doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2008.12.004.
- Bryant, Colleen. 2009. "Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice." *Adolescence, Pornography, and Harm* 368:1-16. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. Retrieved January 3, 2017(www.aic.gov.au/media_library/publications/tandi_pdf/tandi368.pdf).
- Cueto, S. and Leon Juan. 2016. Early Sexual Initiation among Adolescents: A Longitudinal Analysis for 15 – Years- Olds in Peru." *Revista Interamericana de Psicología/Interamerican Journal of Psychology (IJP)* 50 (2):186-203. Retrieved 3, 2017 (<https://journal.sipsych.org>)
- Creswell, John W. 2014. "Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approach." 4th ed. SAGE Publications. Inc.
- Deresse Daka and Debebe Shaweno. 2014. "Magnitude of Risky Sexual Behaviour among High School Adolescents in Ethiopia: A Cross Sectional Study." *Journal of Public Health and Epidemiology* 6(7). doi: 10.5897/JPHE2014.06.
- Desalegn Gebre Yesus and Mesganaw Fantahun. 2010. "Assessing Communication on Sexual and Reproductive Health Issues Among High School Students with Their Parents, Bullen Woreda, Benishangul Gumuz Region, North West Ethiopia." *Ethiop. J. Health Dev.* 24(2):89-95. doi: 10.1186/1742-4755-11-2.
- Elias Legesse. 2014. "Assessment of Risky Sexual Behaviors and Risk Perception among Youths in Western Ethiopia: the Influences of Family and Peers: A Comparative Cross-Sectional Study." *BMC Public Health* 14(301):1-12. Retrieved January 5, 2017 (<http://biomedcentral.com/1471-2458/14/301>).
- Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Ministry of Health. n.d.. "Adolescent and Youth Reproductive Health, Blended learning module for Health Extension Program me." Retrieved January 2, 2017 (www.open.edu/openlearncreate/mod/outcontent/view.php?id=60).
- Fekadu Mazengia and Alemayehu Worku. 2009. "Age at Sexual Initiation and Factors Associated with it Among Youths in North East Ethiopia." *Ethiop. J. Health Dev.* 23(2):154- 162.
- FPA. 2011. "Taking Sense about Sex: FAP Policy Statement about on Pornography." Freitas, H., Oliveir Mirian, Jenkins Milton and Popjoy Oveta. 1998. "The Focus Group, a Qualitative Research Method." ISRC, Merrick School of Business, University of Baltimore (MD, EUA), WP ISRC No. 010298. Retrieved January 12, 2017(<http://www.gianti.ea.ufrgs.br>).
- Gurmesa Tura, Fessahaye Alemesege, and Sisay Dejene. 2012. "Risky Sexual Behaviour and Predisposing Factors among Students

- of Jimma University, Ethiopia." *Ethiopian J HealthSci.* 22(3):170 -180. Retrieved January 5, 2017(<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC23209351>).
- [Gojjam Tadesse](#) and [Bereket Yakob](#). 2015. "Risky Sexual Behaviors among Female Youth in TissAbay, a Semi-Urban Area of the Amhara Region, Ethiopia." *PLoS one* 10(3).doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0119050.
- Golafshani, Nahid. 2003. "Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research." *The Qualitative Report* 8(4):597-607. Retrieved January 4, 2017(<http://nsuworks.nova.edu/ssss/tqr/vol8/iss4/6>).
- Hibret Alemu, Damen Haile, Kassahun Abate and Gail Davey. 2007. "Factors Predisposing Out-Of - school Youths toHIV/AIDS-related Risky Sexual Behaviourin Northwest Ethiopia." *J Health PopulNutr*(3):344-350. Retrieved January 12, 2017 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles>
- Hiwet Zelalem, Wondwossen Lerebo and Kidan Abreha. 2015. "Substance Abuse and Predictors of Risky Sexual Behavior among Students in Axum University, Ethiopia." *J Addict Res Ther* 6: 206. doi:10.4172/2155-6105.1000206.
- Hosmer, D. and Lemeshow, S. 2000. "Applied Logistic Regression." 2nd Ed.: John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Imaledo, Peter-KioEme, B., and EmeOlukemiAsuquo. 2012. "Pattern of Risky Sexual Behavior and Associated Factors among Undergraduate Students of the University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria." *Pan African Medical Journal* 9(97): 1-9. Retrieved January3, 2017 (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0>).
- Jessor, Richard. 2014. "Problem Behaviour Theory: A Half Century of Research on Adolescents Behaviour and Development." Pp. 239-256 in the *Developmental Science of Adolescence History through Autobiography*, edited by L. M. Richard, P.C. Anne, S. K. Rainerand Jeanne Brooks-Gunn. New York and London: Taylor and Francis group. Retrieved January 4, 2017 (www.colorado.edu/ibs/jessor-2014problem)
- Kalina, Ondrej. 2012. "Sexual Risky Behaviour among Slovak Adolescents and Young Adults: Social and Psychological Factors." *Informa Healthcare* (chapter 6 and 7), Kosice, Slovac. Retrieved January 3, 2017 (www.rug.nl/research/portal/files/2455957).
- Kasiulevicius, Sapoka, V. and Filipaviciute, R. 2006. "Theory and Practice; Sample Size Calculation in Epidemiological Studies." *Gerontologija* 7(4): 225-231. Retrieved January 3, 2017 (www.gerontologija.lt).
- Kheswa, J.G. 2014. "The Impact of Pornography on Adolescent Males' Sexual Behaviour in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, A Qualitative Study." *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences* 5(20):2831-2840. doi: 10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n20p2831.

- Largares, p. and Puerto, Justo A. n.d. "Population and Sample. Sampling Technique." *Management Mathematics for European Scholars*. Retrieved January 16, 2017 (www.optimierung.mathematheik.uni-ki.de).
- Leonini, Luisa.2012. "New Media and Pornography: How the Internet Has Modified the Sex Business." *Journalism and Mass Communication* 2(5):625-636. ISSN 2160-6579. Retrieved January 16, 2017 (www.etsd.aau.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/3225/3/lioul).
- Livingston, Sona and Mason J. 2015. "Sexual Rights and Sexual Risks among Youth Online: A Review of Existing Knowledge Regarding Children and Young People's Developing Sexuality in Relation to New Media Environment." *European NGO Alliance for Child Safety Online*. Retrieved January 5, 2017 (www.lse.ac.uk/64567/1/Livingston_Review_on_Sexual_rights).
- Lioul Berhanu. 2008. "An Assessment of Exposure to Sexually Explicit Materials and Other Factors as Predictors of Sexual Activity among In-School Youth in Addis Ababa." Addis Ababa University, Faculty of Medicine, School of Public Health: Addis Ababa.
- Luder, Pittet I., Berchtold Andre, Akre´ Christina, Michaud Pierre-Andre, and Suri ´Joan
- Carles.2011. "Associations Between Online Pornography and Sexual Behavior Among Adolescents: Myth or Reality?" *Arch Sex Behav* 40.doi 10.1007/s10508-010-9714-0.
- Malamuth, Nail M. and Billings V. 1984. "Why pornography? Models of Functions and Effects." *Journal of Communication* 34(3):177-129. Retrieved January 2, 2017(www.sscnet.ucla.edu/comm/malamuth/pdf/84jc34.pdf).
- Malmuth, Neil M. 1993. "Pornography's Impact on Male Adolescents." *Adolescent Medicine: State of the Art Reviews* 4(3):563-576. Philadelphia: Hamely and Belfus Inc. Retrieved January 4, 2017(www.sscnet.ucla.edu/comm/malamuth/pdf/93AM4.pdf).
- Maregn Tilahun and Gistane Ayele. 2013. "Factors Associated with Age at First Sexual Initiation among Youths in GamoGofa, South West Ethiopia: A Cross Sectional Study." *BMC Public Health* 13:622. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-13-622.
- Mcneil, Brian. 2015, January 26. "How Pornography Influences and Harms Sexual Behaviour." *Medical Press*. Retrieved January 5, 2017(<http://medicalxpress.com/news/2015-01-pornography-sexual-behavior.html>).
- McCormack, Mark and Wignall L. 2016. "Enjoyment, Exploration, and Education: Understanding the Consumption of Pornography among Men with Non-Exclusive Sexual Orientations." *Sociology*. doi: 10.117710038038516629909.

- Mesch, Gustavo. 2009. "Social Bonds and Internet Pornographic Exposure Among Adolescents." *Journal of Adolescence* 32:601- 618. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2008.06.004.
- Ndlala, Mfanufikile M. 2012. "An Investigation of Student's Attitude and Effects on Pornography (Unpublished MA Thesis)." Department of Psychology, University of Zululand, South Africa. Retrieved January 2, 2017 (<http://hdl.handle.net/10530/1252>).
- National Coalition to Prevent Child Sexual Abuse & Exploitation. 2011. "Facts for Prevention: The Impact of Pornography on Children & Youth." Retrieved January 3, 2017 (www.preventtogether.org/factsheets).
- Olufunmilayo, F.I. 2009. "The Association between Alcohol Consumption and High Risk Sexual Behaviour in the South African Adult Population." Retrieved January 4, 2017 (www.infiredspace.wits.ac.za).
- Owens, Behun R., Jill C. Manning, and Rory C. Reid. 2012. "The Impact of Internet Pornography on Adolescents: A Review of the Research." *Sexual Addiction and Compulsivity* 19:99 –122. Retrieved January 4, 2017(<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2012.660431>).
- Pappas, Stephane. 2010, October 11. "The History of Pornography: No More Prudish Than the Present." *Live Science*. Retrieved January 3, 2017(<http://www.livescience.com/8748-history-pornography-prudish-present.html>).
- Pound, Pandora and Campbell R.. 2015. "Locating and Applying Sociological Theories of Risk-Taking to Develop Public Health Interventions for Adolescents." *Health Sociology Review* 24(1):64-80. doi: 10.1080/14461242.2015.1008537.
- Rogala, Christina & Tyd'e'n T. 2003. "Does Pornography Influence Young Women's Sexual Behavior?" *Women's Health Issues* 13:39–43. Retrieved January 5, 2017([www.whijournal.com/article/s1049-3867\(02\)00174-3/pdf](http://www.whijournal.com/article/s1049-3867(02)00174-3/pdf)).
- Roman Tadesse. 2015. "Sexual Socialization of Adolescents in Addis Ababa: the Case of Adolescents in Ayer Tena Secondary and Preparatory School." Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Developmental Psychology. Retrieved from (www.etd.aau.edu.et).
- Tadesse Gossaye, Mitikie Molla, Yemane Berhane, Amenu Wesen, and Tesfaye Chuko. 2016. "Determinants of Risky Sexual Behaviour among Preparatory School Students in Gurage Zone, SNNPR, Ethiopia (A Cross-Sectional School Based Study)." *Science Journal of Public Health* 4(4):330-341. doi: 10.11648/j.sjph.20160404.20.
- Tony Habesha, Zewdie Aderaw, and Serawit Lakew. 2015. "Assessment of Exposure to Sexually Explicit Materials and Factors

- Associated with Exposure among Preparatory School youths in Hawassa City, Southern Ethiopia: A Cross-Sectional Institution Based Survey." *Reproductive Health* 12. doi: 10.1186/s12978-015-0068-x.
- United Nations. 2015. "Youth Population Trends and Sustainable Development." *Population Facts* 2015(1):1-4. Retrieved January 2, 2017(www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publication/pdf/popfacts/popfacts_2015-1.pdf).
- Wiederman, Micheal W. 2015. "Sexual Script Theory: Past, Present, and Future." In Plante, D. & Wiederman, M. (Eds), *Handbook of the Sociology of Sexualities*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-17341-2_2.
- Wondemagegn Mulu, Mulat Yimer, and Bayeh Abera. 2014. "Sexual Behaviours and Associated Factors among Students at Bahir Dar University: A Cross Sectional Study." *Reproductive Health* 11(84):1-12. doi: 10.1186/1742-4755-11-84.
- Yadeta Dessie, Yemane Berhane, and Alemayehu Worku. 2015. "Parent-Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health Communication Is Very Limited and Associated with Adolescent Poor Behavioral Beliefs and Subjective Norms: Evidence from a Community Based Cross-Sectional Study in Eastern Ethiopia." *PLoS ONE* 10(7). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0129941
- Zemenu Yohannes, Yonas Girma, Shimels Hussien, and Bazezew Fekad. 2015. "Factors Associated with Parent-Adolescent Communication on Sexual and Reproductive Health Issues Among Secondary and Preparatory School Students in Mekelle City, North Ethiopia." *Science Discovery* 3(6):55-61. doi: 10.11648/j.sd.20150306.13.

Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences (IIASS)

Editorial correspondence

All correspondence or correspondence concerning any general questions, article submission or book reviews should be addressed to info@iiass.si.
7/58

Subscription to IIASS

IIASS is available free of any charge at <http://www.iiass.com> under: You can sign in for a free newsletter.

Advertising

Please find our advertising policy at <http://www.iiass.com> For additional questions or inquiries you can contact us on e-mail info@iiass.si.

Language

The objective of academic journal is to provide clear communication with an international audience. Style and elegance is secondary aim. In this manner we allow US and UK spelling as long as it is consistent within the article. Authors are responsible for language editing before submitting the article.

Notes for Contributors

Please refer to www.iiass.com for detailed instructions. Sample layout can be downloaded from http://www.iiass.com/uploaded_articles/IIASS_layout.doc

Scope:

IIASS is electronic peer reviewed international journal covering all social sciences (Political science, sociology, economy, public administration, law, management, communication science, etc.). Journal is open to theoretical and empirical articles of established scientist and researchers as well as of perspective young students. All articles have to pass blind peer review.

IIASS welcomes innovative ideas in researching established topics or articles that are trying to open new issues that are still searching for its scientific recognition.

Copyright

IIASS is exclusively electronic peer reviewed journal that is published three times a year (initially in January, May and September). IIASS is an open access Journal under Attribution-NonCommercialCC BY-NC licence (see <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/>). This license lets others remix, tweak, and build upon your work non-commercially, and although their new works must also acknowledge you and be non-commercial, they don't have to license their derivative works on the same terms.

By submitting your article you agree to the above mentioned copyright licence.

Additional information is available on: www.iiass.com



ISSN 1855-0541



9 771855 054104