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Contents

Anatomy of an MBA Program Capstone Project Assessment Measure for AACSB Accreditation

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Abstract

There is very little written about assessment measures business schools use for assessing their programs that not only helps them meet the assessment criteria necessary for AACSB accreditation but also helps them improve the curriculum to build top-tier successful programs. This paper informs the literature on the assessment measure (and process) used by an MBA program to assess student learning through end-of-program capstone projects; success that is demonstrated by stabilized enrollments and a recent top-tier ranking. This paper is useful to any graduate or undergraduate business program that chooses to use capstone projects as an assessment measure to earn or renew AACSB accreditation. Following guidelines suggested by Banta (2004, 2007, 2011) and Polomba and Banta, (1999) a defined process is implemented to collect, assess, and disseminate assessment data to improve the MBA curriculum.

Keywords: assessment, AACSB accreditation, assessment measures for AACSB accreditation, capstone projects

1. Introduction

Business school accreditation is a way for business schools to differentiate their brand and demonstrate "…the highest standard of achievement," (AACSB, 2014). To earn accreditation from the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) a business school must demonstrate that they have met standards in four broad categories including how the school is managed (Standards 1-3), how the schools participants contribute to the learning environment (Standards 4-7), learning and teaching (Standards 8-12), and academic and professional engagement (Standards 13-15) (AASCB, 2013). This paper will focus on Standard 8, *Assurance of Learning*; specifically, the use of student projects for assessment of the MBA program at a top-80 ranked university.

This paper seeks to expand the literature on the use, analysis, and implementation of MBA projects as a means of improving the program and fulfilling the requirements for Assurance of Learning for the purposes of earning AACSB accreditation. While there are studies that inform the literature on business schools' use of multiple choice questions (Santos, Aidong, & Douglas, 2014), individual course analysis (Christiansen, Judd, & Nicols, 2011), and course embedded direct assessment (LaFleur, Babin, & Lopez, 2009), there is no peer-reviewed research that assists business colleges in understanding how to use student projects as an AACSB Assurance of Learning (AOL) measure. Pringle and Michal (2010) suggest that most business schools use test items or written deliverables embedded in class assignments. Specific examples of what test items or written deliverable are used and how they are used will reduce the need to 'reinvent the wheel' in assessment activities. This paper can also be useful to undergraduate programs that use projects as a means of assessing a specific program. This paper is not meant to debate the assessment process defined by AACSB but instead will inform the literature in modeling an assessment process that has undergone two successful iterations of AACSB accreditation and resulted in "Closing the Loop (CTL)" procedures that have boosted enrollments, and led to a ranked program.

We accomplish the objective of the paper by first addressing the importance of AACSB accreditation in a competitive higher education marketplace. We follow with a summary of the Assurance of Learning process as defined by AACSB and how this process informs the type of assessment measurement choices that university programs face. We follow with an MBA AOL assessment model that has undergone two successful accreditation iterations and resulted in programmatic changes that led the MBA program becoming nationally ranked.

2. Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB)

AACSB will celebrate 100 years of service to business schools in a few short years. AACSB's beginnings in 1916 are rooted in bringing U.S. business school faculty together to discuss issues related to teaching business; today AACSB is an international organization that has a membership of 681 business schools across 50 different countries and territories (AACSB, 2013). While AACSB accreditation is fairly well known in the United States it has only become more prominent in the international arena in the last ten years. Currently fewer than 5% of the 13,000-business schools worldwide have earned AACSB accreditation (AACSB, 2013). Business schools that earn AACSB accreditation must undergo a continuous improvement review every five years. For this reason assessment and AASCB AOL will continue to be of interest to business schools across the world.

2.1 Assurance of Learning at the Program Level

Assurance of Learning is a critical component of the AACSB accreditation process because it is the standard that documents that degree program goals have been met. Palomba and Banta (1999) define the outcomes assessment process as, "The systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs, undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development." AACSB relies heavily on the work of Palomba and Banta (1999) in training faculty on how to define and measure AOL (AACSB, 2013). AACSB Standard 8 suggests, "The school uses well-documented, systematic, processes for determinining and revising degree program learning goals; designing, delivering, and improving degree program curricula to achieve learning goals; and demonstrating that degree programs learning goals have been met." A critical building block to understanding AOL is that the focus is on *programs* not on individual classes.

AACSB does not mandate how colleges collect the data or what data is used and this both an advantage and disadvantage for colleges undergoing accredidation or reaccredidation. In other words there is no panacea for business school assessment; no standardized test that fits the many varied programs. To this end AACSB has expanded the dialog on the word 'program' so that business schools focus on broad-based content and not on classes, concentrations, or majors (AACSB, 2013). An AACSB white paper (2013) explains that curricular content should drive learning goals and that curricula shared a common core are justified in assessing that content as a 'program' (p. 6).

2.2 The AACSB Assurance of Learning Model

The AACSB assurance of learning model is a 5-step process that is based on the work of Palomba and Banta (1999):

1. Define student learning goals and objectives
2. Align the curricula with the goals
3. Identify assessment measures
4. Collect, analyze, and disseminate results and,
5. Close the loop

In this paper, we focus on steps 3-5 with emphasis on use of the capstone project as an assessment measure.

2.2.1 Identifiying a Measure: Formative versus Summative Assessment Measures

There are various approaches to assure student learning; however, AACSB (2003) suggests three approaches to assuring student learning including student selection, course-embedded measures, and stand-alone testing or performance. The first approach proposes that schools select students into a program based on the knowledge and skills they have already obtained previously and that support requirements of knowledge and skills for submission into the program. However, it is important to assess levels of student learning at the beginning of the program even after they meet the initial criteria standards. This type of initial assessment conducted at the beginning and midway through the program is known as *formative assessment*. This type of assessment is critical to establishing a foundation of analysis to truly measure advancements in learning (Suskie, 2009). Examples of formative assessment may include such instruments as observations of performance, assignments, short tests or quizzes, written questions, peer/self-evaluations, or projects. Though formative assessment practices are critical to further understand student learning in accredited programs, it is essential to recognize *summative assessment* practices in order to gain a holistic sense of what students have learned upon completion of the program (Suskie, 2009). Stand-alone testing or performance measures such as graduate exit exams and capstone projects provide an ideal opportunity to gather summative data on student learning. According to Palomba and Banta (2001), these assessment measures are idea for summative assessment since they can cover university-wide general outcomes as well as program specific outcomes

such as an MBA program. For the purpose of this discussion, we will focus on end of program projects like the capstone project. The intention of these summative assessments are to provide stakeholders such as faculty and administrators with a snap shot of student learning as a result of a culminating course experiences within the programs. Instead of a single writing project or oral presentation that may be covered in a specific course, these assessments yield areas within the curriculum where students are either flourishing or struggling within a program.

2.2.2 Collecting, Analyzing and Using the Data

The data collection process for course embedded assignments may be carried out through such assessment instruments as case studies where students provide evidence of their ability to integrate, transfer, and apply learning they have recently acquired. In some instances, faculty may choose to use rubrics to score levels of learning and in other instances faculty may prefer to employ outside evaluators to analyze and score the assignments (Maki, 2010). Similarly, faculty may choose to use more elaborate means of data collection such as videotaping or observations to identify emerging abilities students have learned within the courses. Stand-alone projects such as an end of program capstone project may be more robust than course-embedded assignments where faculty have the option of collecting data on the students chronological learning (Maki, 2010). Furthermore, these types of assessment approaches also allow for student self-reflection that can be captured in written reports supported by artifacts acquired throughout the program.

Depending on the data collected, results may be analyzed in various ways. For instance, qualitative data may be analyzed by using themes, patterns, links and relationships among the results (Suskie, 2009). Categorical data such as responses to multiple choice questions can be tallied; however, it is difficult to provide means and medians (Suskie, 2009). This type of analysis may be used only to explore and predict learning levels. Ordered results such as those used in surveys and rubrics provide statistical analysis. According to Suskie (2009), explanations and predictions can be extrapolated from such analysis but programs must determine from the beginning what questions they are trying to answer. Assessments are often used to describe student learning; however, determining how results will be analyzed provides further insight into the intentions of assessment such as using results to explain, predict, or explore areas or levels of learning.

2.2.3 Dissemination of the Results & Closing the Loop

All too often assessment results that are briefly pursued and filed away are many times considered a waste of time for faculty (Suskie, 2009). Using results to inform decisions can be one of the most difficult tasks in the whole assessment process but can yield valuable information to make evidence-based decisions. Some serious questions should be posed from faculty as a result of the assessment findings. For instance, faculty may ask why did certain groups of students do poorly on the assessment, is the assessment clearly addressing the learning goals, what decisions will be made as a result of the findings, is there a clear strategy in place to provide every student the opportunity to achieve the goals, are key concepts reinforced throughout the program (Suskie, 2009)? Pringle and Michael (2007) suggested that research should be conducted on how to reduce faculty resistance to assessment activities. Once faculty feels they have substantive evidence to address such questions, action plans should be formulated.

Action plans (closing the loop) may consist of key faculty members or groups of faculty exploring such areas as the curriculum. Suskie (2009) suggested that faculty consider such actions as possibly replacing a program elective with a required capstone course, have faculty review skills or key concepts over several courses, and reduce attention to less important goals to ensure greater coverage of more important goals. Maki (2010) suggested that decisions should lead to agreed upon time tables and activities involving faculty and staff that emerge from reflections and discussions of the results. These activities should include changes that once implemented lead to improved student learning. A timetable to reassess the implications of the changes on student learning is essential for quality assessment processes (Maki, 2010). Action planning is the key element to closing the loop—using data obtained by measuring student learning to plan, complete, and deploy improvements in educational programs and to reassess learning after improvements are made (Hersh, & Keeling, 2013).

3. Anatomy of a Successful AACSB Assurance of Learning Model

Exhibit 1 shows the successful assurance of learning model used for an MBA program for a top 200 ranked university and a top ranked online MBA program. How is success defined? Our program defined success in terms of three outcomes: two successful iterations of renewel of AASCB accreditation, a curriculum revision that was based on results from the implemented assurance of learning model, and two years of recognition as a top-ranked online MBA program.
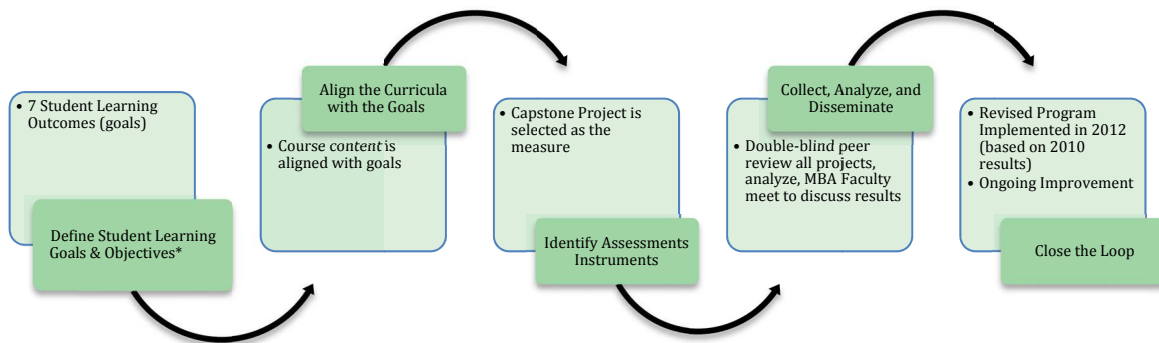
Exhibit 1. Anadomy of assurance of learning at a mid-western university

Based on the work of Palomba & Banta (1999)

Palomba & Banta (1999) program has identified 7 student learning outcomes (SLOs) that are aligned with the curriculum (specific courses are in parenthesis).

General knowledge skills:

1.   Demonstrate effective communication skills in both writing and oral presentations (MBA 650, 680, 690, and 699)

2.   Demonstrate understanding of the importance of socially responsible behavior (environmental, sustainability and ethical) in business decision-making process. (MBA 660, 680, and 690)

Management specific skills:

3.   Demonstrate a global perspective in business decision-making process. (All MBA courses)

4.   Demonstrate ability to apply quantitative decision making techniques and information systems for business problem solving (MBA 610,640, 680 and 669)

5.   Demonstrate ability to evaluate and monitor the performance of a firm's financial operations (MBA 620 and 670)

6.   Demonstrate ability to apply organizational structure and behavior principles to maximize employee performance (MBA 630, and 610)

7.   Demonstrate ability to integrate functional business areas in the strategic planning process (MBA 690, 650 and 699)

4. The Capstone Project as an Assessment Measure

Twenty randomly selected projects were independently evaluated by two MBA faculty members to rate competency in the seven student learning outcomes (SLOs). Care was taken to make certain that no faculty member rated the performance of a project that they also advised.

Table 1 and Table 2 present the results from the MBA project assessment (exactly as they appear in the AACSB assessment report). The 7 student learning outcomes were assessed using a 5-point scale: 5=excellent and 1=poor based on the each faculty member's review of the project. Each faculty member reported their results in an excel spreadsheet and results were analyzed in aggregate. Faculty members were compensated with a $500 stipend for their time to reduce faculty resistance to participating in this assessment activity.

Table 1. Summary statistics

Rubric	Mean	Median	St.Dev	Kurt	Skew	Min	Max	N
Communication skills	4.3	4.5	0.86	1.14	-1.21	2	5	20
Socially Responsible	3.9	4	0.55	0.77	-0.08	3	5	20
Global Perspective	4.1	4	0.79	-1.31	-0.19	3	5	20
Quantitative Skills	3.4	3.5	0.68	-0.45	-0.71	2	4	20
Monitor Financial Performance	3.8	4	0.79	1.12	-0.95	2	5	20
Sensitivity to Human Resource	4.0	4	0.51	1.65	-0.11	3	5	20
Integrate functional Areas	4.3	4	0.64	-0.44	-0.25	3	5	20

Table 2. Assurance of learning: Using the MBA project for an assessment measure

Rubric	Excellent	Good	Adequate	Week	Poor
Communication skills	50%	35%	10%	5%	0%
Socially Responsible	10%	70%	20%	0%	0%
Global Perspective	35%	40%	25%	0%	0%
Quantitative Skills	0%	50%	40%	10%	0%
Monitor Financial Performance	10%	65%	15%	10%	0%
Sensitivity to Human Resource	10%	75%	15%	0%	0%
Integrate functional Areas	35%	55%	10%	0%	0%

(Percentage of Students Achieving Learning Goals)

As shown in Table 1, the median scores for most of the SLOs are in 4 or better. Table 2 shows the percentage of students meeting and exceeding expectation. For instance, in terms of "Communication skills" most students do very well with a median of 4.5; 85% of students have reached "Good" or "Excellent" levels. In terms of "Socially Responsible" most students do well with a median score of 4 with 80% of students have reached "Good" or "Excellent" levels. In terms of "Global Perspective" the median score is 4.1 and 75% of students have reached "Good" or "Excellent" levels. Finally with regard to "Quantitative Skills" the median score is 3.5 respectively and 50% of students have reached "Good" level, 40% have reached "adequate" level, and 0% have reached "Excellent" level. The "Monitor Financial Performance" SLO data shows a median score of 4.0 and 75% of students have reached "Good" to "Excellent" levels. In terms of "Sensitivity to Human Resource", the median score is 4.0 and 85% of students have reached "Good" to "Excellent" levels. Lastly, the "Integrate Functional Areas" SLO data shows a median score of 4.0 and 90% of students have reached "Good" to "Excellent" levels.

The area that was identified for further analysis and improvement is the "Quantitative Skills" SLO.

4.1 Dissemination of the Results

MBA faculty are encouraged, but not required to attend a CTL meeting once per year; attendance is typically around 60%. To encourage participation in this activity a number of strategies are used including: choosing a day of the week that the majority of faculty will be able to attend, sending out an agenda in advance of the meeting, keeping the meeting concise and as short as possible, providing lunch for attendees, and including the university assessment director so that he can provide guidance and expertise when necessary. Results are presented by providing a physical document that faculty can take with them for future reference; the packet includes current and historical data which aids in getting a 'big picture' of how current results compare to past results.

4.2 Closing the Loop

Faculty are asked for their input and ideas for improvement in areas that show little or no improvement from previous years. Faculty are encouraged to brain storm without regard to costs or feasibility. These ideas are recorded and discussed during by the Graduate Business Studies Committee which is the primary decision-making committee

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for the MBA program. The AOL process including declining measurement results in 2010 and 2011 led to a complete revision of the MBA progam including goals and curriculum. As a result of Closing the Loop—that is, making changes directly tied to student learning results, the program has increased from 36 to 39 credits and as a result, the program has stabilized enrollments and recently become ranked nationwide.

We use the MBA project assessment to close the loop for each of our student learning goal in our AOL system. For instance, Table 3 and Table 4 demonstrate our results in closing the loop for each of our SLO from 2011 to 2014.

Back in 2011 shortly after our MBA program revision, we conducted our program assessment using MBA capstone course projects. Results of 2011 project assessment show that our weakest area is the "Integrate Functional Business Areas" SLO which has a mean score of 2.88; 2% of students reached "Excellent" and less than 30% of students reached the "Good" level (see Table 3&4). According to Table 4 assessment results, after adding up the "Good" and "Excellent" categories of results for 2011, those SLO areas that need improvements are "Monitoring Financial Performance" (only 31% of students reaching "Good" or better), "Sensitivity to HR" (only 26% of students reaching "Good" or better), and " Integrate functional business areas" (only 31% of students reaching "Good" or better). Thus each faculty teaching MBA capstone courses has taken various improvement efforts in increase student learning in these key areas. By the year 2014, according to Table 3, our project assessment results show improvement on all SLOs except "quantitative skills". The most impressive improvement is with the "integrate functional business areas" SLO, a 47.5% increase in terms of mean scores. In terms of percentage of students reaching "good" or better for 2014 as shown in Table 4, we have seen improvements in all SLOs except "Quantitative Skills". The most impressive improvement areas from 2011 to 2014 are "Monitor financial performance" (142% increase), "Sensitivity to HR" (225% increase), and "Integrate functional business areas" (191% increase), the same three areas we identified that need improvements back in 2011. However, our assessment results in terms of mean scores and percentage of students achieving "Good" or better in 2014 indicate that the area that needs further improvement is needed for the "quantitative skills" SLO. As a result of faculty discussions and reflections the program has decided to improvement our AOL system for this SLO by adopting the Bloomberg Aptitude Test (BAT) as a supplementary measurement for students' quantitative skills. BAT has also been adopted successfully in the undergraduate finance program assessment at this university.

Table 3. Closing the loop using MBA project for assessment 2011-2014

(Mean scores)

SLOs	2011	2012	2013	2014		%change 2011-2014
Communication Skills	4.17	4.54	4.1	4.3	⬆	3.2%
Socially Responsible	3.60	3.89	3.7	3.9	⬆	8.5%
Global Perspective	3.57	3.46	3.8	4.1	⬆	14.8%
Quantitative Skills	3.57	4.14	3.85	3.4	⬇	-4.8%
Monitor Financial Performanc	3.10	3.64	3.65	3.75	⬆	21.2%
Sensitivity to HR	3.12	3.61	3.85	3.95	⬆	26.6%
Integrate Functional Areas	2.88	3.25	3.9	4.25	⬆	47.5%

Table 4. Closing the loops

	Excellent+Good		
SLOs	2011	2014	%change
Communication skills	81%	85% ⬆	5%
Socially Responsible	57%	80% ⬆	40%
Global Perspective	57%	75% ⬆	31%
Quantitative Skills	52%	50% ⬇	-5%
Monitor Financial Performance	31%	75% ⬆	142%
Sensitivity to Human Resource	26%	85% ⬆	225%
Integrate functional Areas	31%	90% ⬆	191%

5. Conclusion

The AOL process is valuable for learning what areas of improvement are needed to ensure students are learning what we believe they are learning. Using integrated capstone projects as an assessment measure has helped our university identify weak areas and instigate changes that has resulted in marked improvements in student learning. We hve also learned that it is important to let faculty take ownership of AOL and the assessment process should be driven by faculty.

Programs with successful AOL outcomes should begin to share their successes to build unambiguous alternatives for collecting and analyzing AOL data that result in successful program building. While successful student learning is the ultimate goal in higher education program success, renown, and respect are rewarding byproducts that validate and encourage faculty involvement in assessment activities.

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The Effects of Job Embeddedness on Organizational Cynicism and Employee Performance: A Study on Sadat City University

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Abstract

Purpose: Using a new construct, Job Embeddedness (JE), from the business management literature, this study examines the effects of JE on Organizational Cynicism (OC) and Employee Performance (EP) at Sadat City University.

Research Design/Methodology: Using Mitchell et al., 2001 of JE, the study develops a number of hypotheses and tests them. Out of the 692 questionnaires that were distributed to employees at Sadat City University in Egypt, 400 usable questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 58%.

Findings: The results showed that JE is related to the OC and EP. In other words, fit, links and sacrifice significantly correlated with OC and EP. This research outlined a strong relationship between JE, OC and EP. The study findings suggest that improving JE will have a positive impact EP.

Practical implications: The study suggests that the University of Sadat City in Egypt can improve EP by influencing its JE, specifically, by developing fit, links and sacrifice. The study provided that it is necessary to pay more attention to the dimensions of JE as a key source for organizations to enhance the competitive advantage which is of prime significance for OC and EP.

Originality/value: JE is valuable for evaluating employee retention in Sadat City University. The study observes that there is a critical shortage of JE and that a greater understanding of the factors that influence the EP, including fit, links and sacrifice, is of great importance. Therefore, this study is to examine the relationship between JE, OC and EP among employees at Sadat City University.

Keywords: job embeddedness, organizational cynicism, employee performance

1. Introduction

Job Embeddedness (JE) theory represents one of these new perspectives (Holtom et al., 2008), focusing on factors that encourage an employee to remain with an organization. Several studies reveal that JE predicts incremental variation in turnover after controlling for traditional turnover predictors, such as job satisfaction and quit intentions (Crossley et al., 2007; Mallol et al., 2007).

JE theory is a broad constellation of psychological, social, and financial influences on employee retention (Yao et al., 2004). These influences are present on the job, as well as outside the employee's immediate work environment, and are often likened to strands in a "web" or "net" in which a person can become "stuck" (Mitchell et al., 2001).

JE is comprised of (1) the links one has to others, (2) the fit with the organization and community, and (3) how much one would have to sacrifice to change jobs (Lee et al., 2004; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006).

JE research has extended to other outcomes such as performance and social capital (Sekiguchi et al., 2008). It is a retention or anti-withdrawal construct. JE was composed of factors such as the overall fit employees have with the organization, it would yield positive outcomes. JE should lead to the development of human and social capital for two reasons. First, for highly embedded individuals, there is good fit of the employees' existing knowledge, skills and abilities with the requirements of the organization that provides opportunities for the natural extension and development of additional and complimentary skills. Second, the highly embedded employees have many links with more important individuals which provide opportunities to develop additional social capital. In fact, there is a positive relationship between JE and social capital but found declines in social capital development over time (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

JE represents rich social ties, job fit, and personal investment in a job or organization and the community that in turn create opportunities for the employee to extend and develop new skills and social ties with others (Holtom et al., 2006).

JE have numerous features; these are (a) work or organizational options by way of choosing your clients, (b) empowerment, or mentoring activities, and (c) non-worker social embeddedness (Van Emmerik & Sanders, 2004) which includes direct links to family, non-work activities, off-the-job interests, and job and embeddedness in the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Job Embeddedness

The term "embeddedness" has been used in the sociological literature to explain the process by which social relations influence and constrain economic action (Granovetter, 1985; Uzzi, 1996, 1997).

Embeddedness is the idea that individuals can become enmeshed in their surrounding and situation to such an extent that they have a difficult time separating from it (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

It is distinct in that it not only represents factors that influence attitudes and intentions toward behaviors on-the-job, but community and social aspects also come into play that influence job behaviors (Crossley, et al., 2007).

Embeddedness suggests that there are numerous strands that connect an employee and his or her family in a social, psychological, and financial web that includes work and non-work friends, groups, then on-work, and the physical environment in which he or she lives. More recently, a new construct was introduced to help define why people stay on their jobs, called JE (Mitchell, et al., 2001).

JE is a new concept for how well a person was socially enmeshed within their organization (Granovetter, 1985). It is relatively a new concept and is under-researched in the hospitality management and marketing literature (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2011).

JE reflects employees' decisions to participate broadly and directly, and it moves scholarly attention beyond dissatisfaction-induced leaving. More aptly, JE is a retention (or "antiwithdrawal") construct (Dong-Hwan & Jung-Min, 2012).

It encompasses the total forces on an individual causing the person to remain at his/her current job. JE has been empirically demonstrated to impact work-related behaviors such as turnover, performance, absenteeism and citizenship behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

JE has been conceptualized to consist of two dimensions: on-the-job (organizational) embeddedness and off-the-job (community) embeddedness. On-the-JE refers to the degree to which individuals are immersed in their organizations, while off-the-JE represents the degree to which individuals are immersed in their communities. On-the-JE better predicts employee job performance than does the off-the-JE. Furthermore, the On-the-JE better predicts employee retention than does the off-the-JE. Each embeddedness dimension is composed of three facets: fit, links, and sacrifice (Allen, 2006).

It is a new construct developed to capture a more comprehensive view of the employee-employer relationship than is typically reflected by attitudinal measures such as satisfaction or commitment. JE is constellation of influences which enmesh or embed people within organizations. Consequently, the embedded employee either finds it more difficult to leave or does not want to leave the organization to which they have become a part (Mitchell et al., 2001).

JE is the combined material, financial, and psychological factors that keep a person from leaving his or her job. Theoretically, workplace friendships could increase JE by creating social links, perceptions of fit and greater sacrifice of having to leave work friends if a new job opportunity was present. JE is conceptualized as influencing the decision to remain through the level of links a person has to other people or activities, the extent that the person's job and community are congruent with the other aspects of their life, and the sacrifices a person would make in the process of leaving their employment. It is an assemblage of psychological, social, and financial influences that determine employee retention (Mitchell et al., 2001).

JE is an employee retention theory and evolved from the unfolding model voluntary employee turnover (Lee et al., 1996).

If JE is indeed a broad-based retention (antiwithdrawal) construct and if it captures a sizable portion of the "decision to participate," both on- and off-the-JE should predict not only employee turnover, but also other withdrawal behaviors, such as decreasing organizational citizenship behavior, decreasing performance, and increasing absence.

Further, the explained variance in these withdrawal behaviors should exceed that explained by job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Hulin, 1998).

Because on-the-JE correlates to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover, it should predict subsequent absences as well (Griffeth et al., 2000).

However, the effect of on-the-JE on absences and turnover may be reduced to zero when researchers control for satisfaction and commitment. Further, off-the-JE predicts absences and turnover, and it may do so even when satisfaction and commitment are controlled for. That is, leaving a job may have significant effects on an individual's off-the-job life, especially if he or she has to relocate to find new employment. More specifically, people who are embedded in their communities should want to keep their jobs (Hulin, 1998).

High levels of JE indicate that a person feels a sense of compatibility between his or her personal career needs, goals and values and those of the job and organization; experiences positive formal and informal connections between himself or herself and the team or organization; and perceives the costs of leaving the job as being too high (Mitchell et al. 2001).

2.2 The Dimensions of Job Embeddness

The three component dimensions of JE include links, fit and sacrifice (Mitchell et al., 2001). JE explains why employees remain in an organization based on a number of influences rather than solely on positive job attitudes. JE suggests that people remain in organizations based on three criteria which are influenced by elements both on the job and in the community: (1) the extent to which they are linked to other people and activities, (2) the extent to which they feel they fit in their organizations and communities, and (3) what they would have to sacrifice if they left (Mitchell et al., 2001).

The *links* aspect of embeddedness suggests that employees have formal and informal connections with other entities on the job and, as the number of those links increases, embeddedness is higher. *Fit* refers to the match between an employee's goals and values and those of the organization; higher fit indicates higher embeddedness. Finally, *sacrifice* concerns the perceived costs of leaving the organization, both financial and social. The higher the perceived costs, the greater the embeddedness (Holtom et al., 2006).

The greater the extent of fit, the higher number of links and level of sacrifice, the more embedded an individual will be in his or her job (Sekiguchi et al., 2008).

2.2.1 Fit

Organizational fit is the degree of similarity or compatibility between the individual and organizational culture, overlap between the individual abilities and organizational demands, and match between individual interests and organizational rewards. Community fit is the degree of match, similarity, or compatibility between the individual and his or her community (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

Fit is the individual's perceived compatibility with the organization and with the community. The employee's personal values and career goals need to be in line with the overall organizational culture, allowing the employee to feel connected to the organization. Additionally, the individual needs to feel a fit between his or her family and the local community (Felbs, et al., 2009).

A person who perceives person-organization fit would find it difficult to leave an organization. People take jobs for other fit reasons, including proximity to extended family, climate considerations, and culture (Valle, 2006).

JE was significantly enhanced by off-the-job, or community fit. Perceptions of fit within an organization and in the community would likely lead to decreased turnover intentions (Lee et al., 2004).

Fit is an employee's perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and with his or her environment. Ensuring that individuals fit well within the organization's environment is one way for managers to reduce early turnover (Snow, 2002).

The degree to which people's lives align with their jobs and communities is called fit (Mitchell et. al., 2001). An employee's personal values, career goals and plans for the future must "fit" with the larger corporate culture and the demands of his or her immediate job. In addition, a person will consider how well he or she fits the community and surrounding environment (Mitchell et. al., 2001).

Fit has often been described as an employee's perceived compatibility with his or her organization. This construct has been further described as a composite of person-organization fit (Chatman, 1989) and person-job fit (Careless, 2005). Studies have shown that poor person-organization fit leads to turnover (Villanova et al., 1994).

2.2.2 Links

Links mean that each individual is linked to other people, teams, and organizations officially or unofficially (Dong-Hwan & Jung-Min, 2012).

Links refer to the formal or informal connections of individuals with other people, projects, locations, activities, and groups in their organizations and communities (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

The more connected an individual and/or his or her family is with the organization and the community, the more difficult leaving is and the more embedded the person is (Felbs, et al., 2009).

One can become embedded in an organizational web of connections, much as one can become heavily involved in family and social links outside of work (Valle, 2006).

Links are characterized as formal or informal connections between a person, and institutions or other people (Lee et al., 2004).

Links are the degree to which people have connections to other people and activities. JE suggests that a number of strands connect an employee and his or her family in a social, psychological, and financial web that includes work and non-work friends, groups, the community, and the physical environment in which he or she lives (Mitchell et. al., 2001).

2.2.3 Sacrifice

Sacrifice refers to the ease with which the links can be broken upon quitting work or moving to another home or community. Specifically, it is grounded in the perceived cost of material and psychological benefits that would be given up upon leaving the job or community (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

Sacrifice refers to the perceived costs associated with leaving. These costs may be physical or psychological. Leaving may mean giving up the advantages associated with tenure in the organization (pay, corner office), as well as the personal losses such as close friendships with coworkers or benefits unique to the organization. Community sacrifices are applicable only if the person will move to a new location (Felbs, et al., 2009).

Sacrifice is the individual's perceived cost (in psychological and financial terms) of job change. The psychological costs may include those associated with leaving friends or family and job conditions which one desires. Financial costs may include relocation of related expenses (Fields et al., 2005).

Sacrifice means the opportunity cost of turnover, which is the perceived cost of physical or psychological convenience sacrificed when leaving a current job. Recent research suggests that job attitude has relatively little influence on the stay or turnover of the employees. Other factors than job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job alternatives stand out to understand turnover (Park & Lee, 2004).

Sacrifice to the organization was defined as the perceived cost of physical or psychological convenience sacrificed when leaving a current job (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Sacrifice captures the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving one's job. For example, leaving an organization likely promises personal losses (Taunton, 1997; Shaw, et al., 1998). Though comparable salary and benefits may be easily found in an environment of low unemployment, the switching costs are real and relevant (Gupta & Jenkins, 1980).

2.3 Organizational Cynicism

There are different types of cynicism such as social cynicism, employee cynicism, civil servant cynicism, work cynicism and Organizational Cynicism (OC) (Dean et al., 1998).

General cynicism is an inborn and determined personality trait which reflects generally negative perceptions about human behavior. Cynicism is a defensive response, because it can shield employees against feeling strong emotions and prepare them for the next "inevitable failure" (Abraham, 2000).

Cynicism is an individual's having negative feelings, such as anger, disappointment, hopelessness, about many problems both for the staff and organizations (Özler Ergun et al., 2010).

Cynicism is an evaluative judgment that stems from an individual's employment experiences. Furthermore, irrespective of the accuracy or validity of the individual's perceptions on which the employee cynicism construct is based, it is real in its consequences (Bruch, & Vogel, 2006).

Cynicism can be expressed both overtly, such as through direct statements questioning the integrity of the organization, and covertly through the use of sarcastic humor and nonverbal behaviors, such as "knowing l looks," "rolling eyes," and "smirks" (Dean et al., 1998).

Cynicism is a negative and is therefore a sensitive topic to managers and organizations. Because of this sensitivity, negative attitudes as well as the organizational practices that foster them have been relatively neglected in management research (Andersson (1996).

Cynics may feel embarrassment, hatred and even dishonor when they think about their organizations. Business ethics is a system, principles, codes or values, which provide guidelines for morally right behavior and honesty in specific situations (Lewis 1985).

OC is an individual negative feelings, such as disturbance, dissatisfaction and hopelessness about the staff and organization (Ozler et al., 2011).

It is an attitude that involves unfriendliness from the organization due to a confidence that the organization lacks honesty and will always attempt to fool its employees (Nair &Kamalanabhan, 2010).

OC concept is based and not depending on a single theory, when it is considered conceptually, are expectancy theory, attribution theory, attitude theory, social exchange theory, emotional events theory and social motivation theory. OC concept is the negative attitudes of an individual in connection with his/her organization (Kalağan, 2009).

It arises when employees believe that their organization is deficient in honesty. This may especially result from the perception of which is expectations related to morality, justice and honesty are despoiled. OC takes place when employees think that their organization is lacking integrity. OC is not simply the feelings that 'negative' people bring into the organization, but that these attitudes are shaped by experiences in the work context" (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003).

OC is an attitude, characterized by frustration and negatively beliefs, resulting primarily from unmet expectations, which is capable of being directed towards an organization in general and/or more specific facets of the organizational environment (Brockway et al., 2002).

It refers to the lack, among workers, of the feelings of righteousness, confidence, fairness and sincerity towards the organization where they work (Abraham, 2000).

OC is a learned response rather than a personality-based predisposition (Wanous et al., 2000). It is a negative attitude towards the organization where one works, which has cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions (Dean, et al., 1998).

OC was found to have negative relationships with organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and job satisfaction (Andersson & Bateman, 1997).

It is a negative attitude that develops as a result of perceived malfeasance of the agent or entity. Such a negative attitude can be directed at the organization as a whole and/or the individuals in the organization (Reicher et al., 1997).

OC is a general and specific attitude characterized with anger, hopelessness, disappointment and a tendency to distrust individuals, groups, ideologies, social abilities or institutions (Andersson, 1996).

It exists as a resistance against improvement of the organization and severely damaging the organization (Zapf et.al., 1996; Davenport et.al., 2003; Pitre, 2004; Arabacı, 2010).

2.4 Organizational Cynicism Dimensions

OC is a negative attitude with three dimensions towards the organization where one works. These dimensions are (1) a belief that the organization lacks integrity; (2) negative affect toward the organization; and (3) tendencies to disparaging and critical behaviors toward the organization (Kutanis & Çetinel, 2009). OC is a complex process which culminates in a belief that the organization is not fair (Dean et al., 1998).

2.4.1 Cognitive Dimension

The first dimension is the belief in the organization's lack of honesty. The cognitive (belief) dimension of OC consists of the belief that the organization's practices are deficient in justice, honesty and sincerity (Dean et al., 1998). Cognitive dimension refers to employees' disbelief in their organizations. (Urbany, 2005). Due to these beliefs, they think that the organizational practices betray them (Dean et al., 1998).

2.4.2 Emotional Dimension

Emotional /sentimental reactions to the organization are the second dimension of OC. The sensitive/emotional dimension of OC consists of strong emotional reactions towards the organization (Dean et al., 1998).

Emotional dimension consists of emotional reactions such as anxiety, shame, anger, disappointment (O'Leary, 2003) or rage/pessimism (Brandes, 1999). OCs of emotional dimension contains some powerful emotional reactions like disrespect, anger, boredom and shame (Abraham, 2000).

2.4.3 Behavioral Dimension

The last dimension refers to negative tendencies and mainly humiliating attitudes. Behavioral dimension, the last dimension of OC, consists of negative and frequently critical attitudes. The most prominent of behavioral tendencies is strong critical expressions towards the organization (Dean et al., 1998).

Behavioral dimension covers employees' fierce criticisms of the organization such as condescension, denigration and belittlement (Turner & Valentine, 2001). In this dimension, the employee may get alienated from or sever her ties with the organization (O'Brien et al., 2004).

2.5 Job Performance

Performance is a reflection of the organization's ability to achieve its goals (Miller & Broamiley, 1990). It is a combination of resources, capabilities of the organization that are being used efficiently and effectively in order to achieve its objectives (Collis & Montgomrey, 1995).

Performance is the level of the outputs of the organization after conducting operations on its inputs. It is the output of the activities that occur within the organization (Wit & Meyer, 1998).

Individual performance has become a topical issue in today's business environment, so much so that organizations go to great lengths to appraise and manage it (Armstrong and Baron, 1998).

Individual job performance is a function of knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivation directed at role prescribed behavior, such as formal job responsibilities (Campbell, 1999).

Job performance is a multidimensional construct consisting of task dimension and contextual dimension (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Job performance refers to the effectiveness of individual behaviors that contribute to organizational objectives (McCloy et al., 1994; Motowidlo, 2003).

The effective management of individual performance is critical to the execution of strategy and the organization achieving its strategic objectives (Amos, et al., 2004).

A review of literature indicated individual differences such as self-monitoring personality (Caligiuri & Day, 2000), gender (Sinangil & Ones, 2003), non-ethnocentrism (Hechanova et al., 2003), Big Five Personality (Mol et al., 2005), communicational ability, relational ability, stress tolerance (Holopainen & Bjorkman, 2005), cultural flexibility (Shaffer et al., 2006), task and people orientation (Shaffer et al., 2006), goal orientation (Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) and previous international experience (Varma et al., 2006) related to expatriate job performance.

Hence, after a thorough review of the different concepts of performance, it can be argued that performance in its simplest form is the desired result which the organization seeks to achieve efficiently and effectively.

3. Research Model

The proposed comprehensive conceptual model is presented in Figure 1. The diagram below shows that there is one independent variable of JE. There are two dependent variables of OC and JP. It shows the rational links among the variables. The research model is as shown in Figure 1 below.
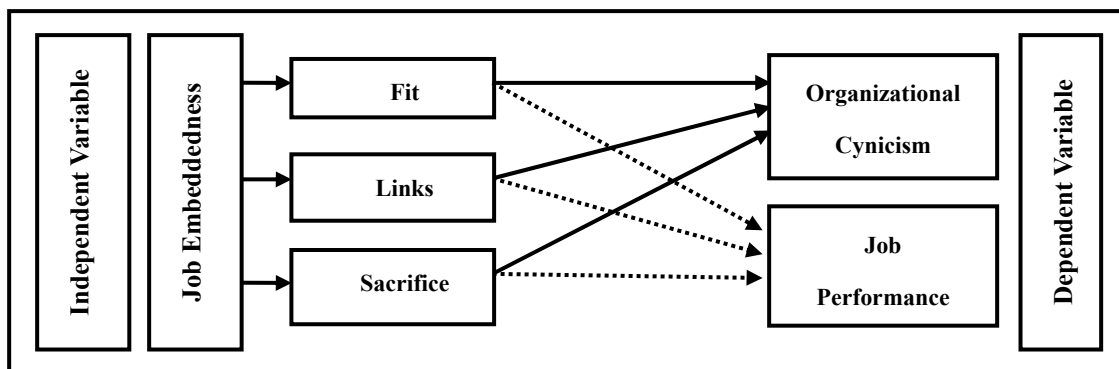

Figure 1. Proposed comprehensive conceptual model

The research framework suggests that JE has an impact on OC and JP. JE as measured consists of fit, links, and sacrifice (Nitchell et al., 2001).

OC is measured in terms of belief, affect and behavior (Reichers & Wanous, 1997). JP is measured in terms of task performance, contextual performance, and assignment specific performance (Black & Porter, 1991; Caligiuri, 1997).

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research process includes both questions and hypotheses. The research questions of this study are as follows:

Q1: What is the nature and the extent of the relationship between JE (Fit) and OC at Sadat City University.

Q2: What is the nature of the relationship between JE (Links) and OC at Sadat City University.

Q3: What is the extent of the relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and OC at Sadat City University.

Q4: What is the statistically significant relationship between JE (Fit) and JP at Sadat City University.

Q5: What is the nature and the extent of the relationship between JE (Links) and JP at Sadat City University.

Q6: What is the nature of the relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and JP at Sadat City University.

The following hypotheses were developed to the test if there is a significant correlation between JE, OC and JP.

H1: JE (Fit) of employees has no statistically significant effect OC at Sadat City University.

H2: JE (Links) of employees has no statistically significant impact on OC at Sadat City University.

H3: JE (Sacrifice) of employees has no statistically significant influence on OC at Sadat City University.

H4: JE (Fit) of employees has no statistically significant relationship with JP at Sadat City University.

H5: JE (Links) of employees has no statistically significant effect on JP at Sadat City University.

H6: JE (Sacrifice) of employees has no statistically significant impact on JP at Sadat City University.

5. Research Methods

5.1 Research Population

The study subjects are employees at University of Sadat City in Egypt. The total population is 692 employees. The research population is illustrated in the following table:

Table 1. Distribution of the population

Faculty Members	Number	Percentage
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine	137	19.8%
Faculty of Tourism & Hotels	89	12.9%
Genetic Engineering Research Institute	117	16.9%
Faculty of Physical Education	174	25.1%
College of Education	33	4.8%
Faculty of Commerce	55	7.9%
Faculty of Law	43	6.2%
Institute for Environmental Studies and Research	44	6.4%
Total	692	100%

Source: Staff Members Affairs Department, Sadat City University, Egypt, 2014

Due to the small number of members of the research community at the University of Sadat City, it was decided to study this community using comprehensive inventory (Complete Numeration or Census) in order to get the highest percentage of survey lists. Table 2 illustrates features of sample units.

Table 2. Characteristics of the sample units

Variables		Number	Percentage
1- Sex	Male	220	55%
	Female	180	45%
	Total	**400**	**100%**
2- The Academic Degree	Professor degree	70	17.5%
	Associate professor	102	25.5%
	Assistant professor	133	33.3%
	Lecturer	45	11.3%
	Demonstrator	50	12.5%
	Total	**400**	**100%**
3- Marital Status	Married	313	78.3%
	Single	87	21.8%
	Total	**400**	**100%**
4- Age	Less than 30 years	61	15.3%
	From 30 to 45	192	48.0%
	More than 45	147	36.8%
	Total	**400**	**100%**
5- Period of Experience	Less than 5 years	203	50.8%
	From 5 to 10	138	34.5%
	More than 10	59	14.8%
	Total	**400**	**100%**

5.2 Method of Data Collection

The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between JE, OC and JP at Sadat city University in Egypt. A survey research method was used to collect data in this study. The questionnaire included four questions, relating to JE, OC, OC and biographical information of employees at Sadat city University in Egypt.

A total of 692 questionnaires were sent out in March, 2014 and collected in April 2014. Four hundred and fifteen effective questionnaires were collected (60% collection rate). Fifteen ineffective ones (with unanswered questions, duplicated entries and inappropriate marks) were excluded, and the number of effective ones was 400 (58% valid collection rate).

5.3 Research Variables and Methods of Measuring

The 18-item scale JE section is based on Nitchell et al., 2001. There were six items measuring fit, six items measuring links, and six items measuring sacrifice.

The 18-item scale OC section is based on Reichers & Wanous, 1997. There were six items measuring belief, six items measuring affect, and six items measuring behavior.

The 17-item scale JP section is based on Black and Porter, 1991; Caligiuri, 1997. There were five items for task performance, five for contextual performance, and seven for assignment specific performance.

Responses to all items scales were anchored on a five (5) point Likert scale for each statement which ranges from (5) "full agreement," (4) for "agree," (3) for "neutral," (2) for "disagree," and (1) for "full disagreement."

5.4 Methods of Data Analysis and Testing Hypotheses

The researcher has employed the following methods: (1) The Alpha Correlation Coefficient (ACC), (2) Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA), and (3) the statistical testing of hypotheses which includes F- test and T-test.

6. Hypotheses Testing

Before testing the hypotheses and research questions, descriptive statistics were performed to find out means and standard deviations of JE, OC and JP.

Table 3. The mean and standard deviations of JE, OC and JP

Variables	The Dimension	Mean	Standard Deviation
JE	Fit	3.4429	1.20423
	Links	3.3771	1.08274
	Sacrifice	3.5758	1.03076
	Total Measurement	**3.4653**	**1.08053**
OC	The Belief Dimension	3.3946	1.11660
	The Affective Dimension	3.2437	1.21977
	The Behavioral Dimension	3.4179	1.24235
	Total Measurement	**2.5141**	**0.85691**
JP	Task Performance	3.9150	1.17244
	Contextual Performance	3.7900	1.27867
	Assignment Specific Performance	3.7554	1.25281
	Total Measurement	**3.8125**	**1.20832**

Table 3 lists the mean and standard deviation among variables. The mean of each variable is more than 3, and this result indicates that the study subjects in general have a higher level of JE, OC and JP. The different facets of JE (fit, links, and sacrifice) are examined. Most respondents identified the presence of sacrifice (M=3.57, SD=1.03). This was followed by fit (M=3.44, SD=1.20), and links (M=3.37, SD=1.08). The different facets of OC (belief, affect and behavior) are examined. Most respondents identified the presence of behavioral dimension (M=3.41, SD=1.24). This was followed by belief dimension (M=3.39, SD=1.11), and affective dimension (M=3.24, SD=1.21). The different facets of JP (task performance, contextual performance, and assignment-specific performance) are examined. Most respondents identified the presence of task performance (M=3.91, SD=1.17). This was followed by contextual performance (M=3.79, SD=1.27), and assignment specific performance (M=3.75, SD=1.25).

6.1 Evaluating Reliability

Table 4. The results of the reliability test for each variable of JE, OC and JP

Variables	The Dimension	Number of Statement	ACC
JE	Fit	6	0.9020
	Links	6	0.8327
	Sacrifice	6	0.8271
	Total Measurement	**18**	**0.9531**
OC	The Belief Dimension	6	0.9379
	The Affective Dimension	6	0.9564
	The Behavioral Dimension	6	0.9365
	Total Measurement	**18**	**0.9765**
JP	Task Performance	5	0.9676
	Contextual Performance	5	0.9488
	Assignment Specific Performance	7	0.9663
	Total Measurement	**17**	**0.9849**

ACC was decided to exclude variables that had a correlation coefficient of less than 0.30 when the acceptable limits of ACC range from 0.60 to 0.80, in accordance with levels of reliability analysis in social sciences (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). To assess the reliability of the data, Cronbach's alpha test was conducted. Table 4 shows the reliability results for JE, OC and JP. All items had alphas above 0.60 and were therefore excellent, according to Langdridge's (2004) criteria.

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The 18 items of JE are reliable due to the fact that the ACC is 0.9531. The fit, which consists of six items, is reliable since the ACC is 0.9020 while the six items related to links is reliable as the ACC is 0.8327. Furthermore, the sacrifice, which consists of six items, is reliable due to the fact that the ACC is 0.8271.

The 18 items of OC are reliable because the ACC is 0.9765. The six items of belief scales are reliable due to the fact that the ACC is 0.9379. The affect, which consists of six items, is reliable since the ACC is 0.9564. The six items related to behavior are reliable as ACC is 0.9365.

The 17 items of JP are reliable because the ACC is 0.849. The five items of task performance scales are reliable due to the fact that the ACC is 0.9676. The contextual performance, which consists of five items, is reliable since the ACC is 0.9488. The seven items related to assignment-specific performance are reliable as ACC is 0.9663.

6.2 The Correlation among the Research Variables

Table 5. Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among variables

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	JE	OC	JP
Job Embeddedness	3.46	1.080	1.000		
Organizational Cynicism	3.41	1.242	- 0.614 **	1.000	
Job Performance	3.81	1.208	0.499 **	0.473 **-	1.000

Table 5 presents correlation coefficients between the research variables, and the results indicate the presence of significant correlation between variables (JE, OC and JP). JE is average (Mean=3.46; SD.1.080) leading to a higher level of JP for employees (Mean=3.81; SD.1.208). But there are some feelings of cynicism among some employees staff in the organization (Mean=3.41; SD.1.242). Table 5 refers to the existence of a reverse correlation between JE and OC (R= - 0.614; $P < 0.01$). This shows that the high level of JE helps lower feelings of OC among employees. The table shows the existence of a direct correlation between JE and JP (R=0.449; $P < 0.01$); the high level of JE leads to the high level of JP. Finally, Table 5 refers to the existence of reverse correlation between OC and JP (R= - 0.473; $P < 0.01$); rise in the level of OC leads to lower level of JP of employees in the organization.

6.3 The Relationship between JE (Fit) and OC

Table 6. MRA results for JE (Fit) and OC

The Variables of JE (Fit)	Beta	R	R2
1. I have a relationship of friendship and love with all the members of the working group.	0.695**	- 0.253	0.064
2. My job enables me to exploit my skills and talents well.	- 0.432**	- 0.280	0.078
3. My values and goals are consistent with the values of the organization.	- 0.161*	- 0.556	0.309
4. I can achieve my professional goals through work in this organization.	- 0.390**	- 0.577	0.332
5. I feel satisfied about my progress, during my professional career in this organization.	- 0.686**	- 0.622	0.386
6. If I will stay in this organization, I will achieve more of my goals.	0.275**	- 0.463	0.214
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)		0.747	
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)		0.558	
▪ The Value of Calculated F		82.828	
▪ Degree of Freedom		6, 393	
▪ The Value of Indexed F		2.80	
▪ Level of Significance		0.01	

* $P < .05$ ** $P < .01$

According to Table 6, the regression-coefficient between JE (Fit) and OC is R= 0.747 and R2= 0.558. This means that the OC can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "I feel satisfied about my progress, during my professional career in this organization" (β= 0.686, R= 0.622, and R2= 0.386), "I can achieve my professional goals through work in this organization" (β= 0.390, R= 0.577, and R2= 0.332), and "my values and goals are consistent with the values of the organization" (β= 0.161, R= 0.556, and R2= 0.309). Because of the calculated F (82.828) more than indexed F (2.80) at the statistical significance level of 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected.

6.4 The Relationship between JE (Links) and OC

Table 7. The relationship between JE (Links) and OC

The Variables of JE (Links)	Beta	R	R2
1. I interact constantly with my colleagues at work.	- 0.307 **	- 0.573	0.328
2. A lot of co-workers depend on me to help achieving their work.	0.071	- 0.415	0.172
3. The current system allows the possibility of forming interacting work teams	- 0.114 **	- 0.321	0.103
4. Regular informal meetings are held to strengthen relationships among workers.	- 0.232 **	- 0.577	0.332
5. I feel that my current job satisfies my need for appreciation.	- 0.746 **	- 0.622	0.386
6. The organization allows all members to participate in work committees.	0.449**	- 0.463	0.214
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)	0.757		
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)	0.572		
▪ The Value of Calculated F	87.648		
▪ Degree of Freedom	6, 393		
▪ The Value of Indexed F	2.80		
▪ Level of Significance	0.01		

* P < .05   ** P < .01

According to Table 7, the regression-coefficient between JE (Links) and OC is R= 0.757 and R2= 0.572. This means that the OC can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "I feel that my current job satisfies my need for appreciation" (β= 0.746, R= 0.622, and R2= 0.386), "regular informal meetings are held to strengthen relationships among workers" (β= 0.232, R= 0.577, and R2= 0.332), and "I interact constantly with my colleagues at work" (β= 0.307, R= 0.573, and R2= 0.328).

Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected because JE (Links) and OC have a statistical relationship at the significance level of 0.01.

6.5 The Relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and OC

According to Table 8, the regression-coefficient between JE (Sacrifice) and OC is R= 0.775 and R2= 0.483. This means that the OC can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "I get a good profit meeting level of my performance sufficiently" (β= 0.604, R= 0.583, and R2= 0.339), "I have a lot of freedom to choose how to set out my goals" (β= 0.257, R= 0.539, and R2= 0.290), and "the organization provides a distinct package of health care for workers" (β= 0.103, R= 0.408, and R2= 0.166). Therefore, there is enough empirical evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 8. The relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and OC

The Variables of JE (Sacrifice)	Beta	R	R2
1. I have a lot of freedom to choose how to set out my goals.	- 0.257**	- 0.539	0.290
2. I feel that colleagues at work show me a lot of respect and appreciation.	- 0.510**	- 0.401	0.160
3. Promotion opportunities in this job are excellent.	- 0.243**	- 0.321	0.103
4. I get a good profit meeting level of my performance sufficiently.	- 0.604**	- 0.583	0.339
5. The organization provides a distinct package of health care for workers.	0.103	-0.408	0.166
6. The organization provides a distinct package of rewards at retirement.	0.625**	- 0.208	0.043
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)	0.775		
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)	0.600		
▪ The Value of Calculated F	98.448		
▪ Degree of Freedom	6, 393		
▪ The Value of Indexed F	2.80		
▪ Level of Significance	0.01		

* P < .05   ** P < .01

6.6 The Relationship between JE (Fit) and JP

Table 9. MRA results for JE (Fit) and JP

The Variables of JE (Fit)	Beta	R	R2
1. I have a relationship of friendship and love with all the members of the working group.	0.136	0.394	0.155
2. My job enables me to exploit my skills and talents well.	0.088	0.363	0.131
3. My values and goals are consistent with the values of the organization.	0.243**	0.328	0.107
4. I can achieve my professional goals through work in this organization.	0.294**	0.395	0.156
5. I feel satisfied about my progress, during my professional career in this organization.	0.349**	0.462	0.214
6. If I will stay in this organization, I will achieve more of my goals.	0.046	0.423	0.178
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)	0.514		
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)	0.264		
▪ The Value of Calculated F	23.521		
▪ Degree of Freedom	6, 393		
▪ The Value of Indexed F	2.80		
▪ Level of Significance	0.01		

* P < .05   ** P < .01

According to Table 9, the regression-coefficient between JE (Fit) and JP is R= 0.514 and R2= 0.264. This means that the JP can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "I feel satisfied about my progress, during my professional career in this organization" (β= 0.349, R= 0.462, and R2= 0.214), "If I will stay in this organization, I will achieve more of my goals." (β= 0.046, R= 0.423, and R2= 0.178), and "I can achieve my professional goals through work in this organization" (β= 0.294, R= 0.395, and R2= 0.156). Because of the calculated F (23.521) more than indexed F (2.80) at the statistical significance level of 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected.

6.7 The Relationship between JE (Links) and JP

Table 10. The relationship between JE (Links) and JP

The Variables of JE (Links)	Beta	R	R2
1. I interact constantly with my colleagues at work.	0.092[*]	0.288	0.082
2. A lot of co-workers depend on me to help achieving their work.	0.112[*]	0.391	0.152
3. The current system allows the possibility of forming interacting work teams	0.108[*]	0.268	0.071
4. Regular informal meetings are held to strengthen relationships among workers.	0.082	0.395	0.156
5. I feel that my current job satisfies my need for appreciation.	0.166	0.462	0.213
6. The organization allows all members to participate in work committees.	0.114	0.423	0.178
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)	0.507		
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)	0.257		
▪ The Value of Calculated F	22.612		
▪ Degree of Freedom	6, 393		
▪ The Value of Indexed F	2.80		
▪ Level of Significance	0.01		
	* P < .05		** P < .01

According to Table 10, the regression-coefficient between JE (Links) and JP is R= 0.507 and R2= 0.257. This means that the JP can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "I feel that my current job satisfies my need for appreciation" (β= 0.166, R= 0.462, and R2= 0.213), "the organization allows all members to participate in work committees" (β= 0.114, R= 0.423, and R2= 0.178), and "regular informal meetings are held to strengthen relationships among workers" (β= 0.082, R= 0.395, and R2= 0.156). Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected because JE (Links) and JP have a statistical relationship at the significance level of 0.01.

6.8 The Relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and JP

According to Table 11, the regression-coefficient between JE (Sacrifice) and JP is R= 0.516 and R2= 0.266. This means that the JP can be explained by the dimensions of JE, for example, "the organization provides a distinct package of health care for workers" (β= 0.555, R= 0.452, and R2= 0.204), "I get a good profit meeting level of my performance sufficiently" (β= 0.101, R= 0.404, and R2= 0.163), and "I feel that colleagues at work show me a lot of respect and appreciation" (β= 0.114, R= 0.377, and R2= 0.142). Therefore, there is enough empirical evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 11. The relationship between JE (Sacrifice) and JP

The Variables of JE (Sacrifice)	Beta	R	R2
1. I have a lot of freedom to choose how to set out my goals.	0.210[**]	0.261	0.068
2. I feel that colleagues at work show me a lot of respect and appreciation.	0.114	0.377	0.142
3. Promotion opportunities in this job are excellent.	0.109[*]	0.278	0.077
4. I get a good profit meeting level of my performance sufficiently.	0.101	0.404	0.163
5. The organization provides a distinct package of health care for workers.	0.555[**]	0.452	0.204
6. The organization provides a distinct package of rewards at retirement.	0.217[*]	0.332	0.110
▪ Multiple Correlation Coefficients (MCC)	0.516		
▪ Determination of Coefficient (DF)	0.266		
▪ The Value of Calculated F	23.626		
▪ Degree of Freedom	6, 393		
▪ The Value of Indexed F	2.80		
▪ Level of Significance	0.01		
* P < .05 ** P < .01			

7. Research Finding

The findings support the view that the dimensions of JE (fit, links, and sacrifice) were negatively related with OC (belief, affect, and behavior). The findings reveal that there is a negative relationship between JE and OC.

The results of this research indicate a direct effect relationship and in the opposite direction between the level of JE of employees and OC. Employees with high JE have a higher ability to control their negative emotions towards the organization as compared to their counterparts with low JE. This result is consistent with the findings of Caldwell (2012) regarding the need to adopt a practical strategy for mitigating the effects of OC through following the pattern of transformational leadership which absorbs negative trends of employees. At the same time, it cares about their interests in a manner that achieves the goals of all parties in the organization. This result is also consistent with the findings of the Dinger (2010); Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Reitz et al., 2010; Abad 2010; Watsou, 2011; Chen & Lim, 2012; Clinton et al., 2012) on the importance of the role played by JE in the development of many of the positive behaviors and reducing negative behaviors in the work environment.

On the other hand, the results support the view that the dimensions of JE were positively related with JP. The results support the view that JE significantly influences JP. The findings reveal that the JE was positively related with JP. Overall findings from this study suggested that JE does affect JP. Management should ensure that JE be applied in the organization through the encouragement of cooperative teamwork. Our findings support the view that more JE are more effective in achieving JP. High JE will be more likely to achieve high JP.

The results support the view that the high JE would lead to more team success, more collective efficacy, better group communication, and more satisfaction of the group members. The results of this research refer to a direct exponential impact relationship between JE and JP of employees. Employees with high JE enjoy higher production capacity compared to their counterparts with low-level JE as the availability of a high level of JE among employees leads to improving the quality of the relationship between employees and their bosses which leads to the improvement of the level of performance.

8. Recommendations

1. There is a need to rely on JE to reduce feelings of OC, as JE highly contributes to the reduction of the negative effects of unpleasant events in the work environment. It also plays an important role in the compliance of the individual to stay in the organization and adapt to some of the negative behaviors and the desire to preserve the gains achieved in the future.

2. There is a need to pay attention to JE as an effective strategy to improve relations between employees on the one hand, and their superiors, on the other hand, in order to improve the level of JP within the organization.

3. There is a need to focus on the three dimensions of JE and using them to reduce the feelings of OC of employees in the organization.

    ▪ It is found out that an individual's ability to comply with the organization (Fit), and its goals affect the feelings of cynicism toward it. This ability decreased the gap between the values and goals of the individual and the values and goals of the organization and this decreased feelings of OC among individuals.

    ▪ As for the ability to build a network of good organizational relationships (links), the existence of good relations between individuals and the management of the organization contributes to reduce feelings of OC.

    ▪ The high volume of moral and material sacrifices that can be borne by the individual as a result of his employment in the organization will affect the level of JE. His view of the adverse events within the organization is also affected, and this reduces the feelings of cynicism about the organization.

4. Promoting and supporting organizational culture encourages JE of employees. This can be achieved through the support and consolidation of mutual trust between the management of the organization, its leadership and its staff , as the high level of JE soften the negative effects of the work environment. This is achieved by increasing the capacity of the individual for compatibility with the organization and the development of relationships with others at all levels of the organization.

9. Research Implications

The application of JE has important ramifications for line managers. Leaders in organizations who are worried about losing their most valuable employees should not only study external pay equity or the job satisfaction of their employees, but they should also try to identify viable methods for helping employees become embedded in the organization and the community.

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Managers could establish mentoring programmes to strengthen the links employees have with others in the organization. Managers might encourage work groups to take a prominent role in deciding who to hire into the work group. Organizations can support community outreach programmes to give their employees opportunities to volunteer and become more integrated into their communities.

Employers need to be thoughtful in the recruitment and selection of their employees. They need to provide realistic information to the candidates before employment and subsequently, employers need to assist their employees in planning their careers.

Employers can provide information about community events or amenities. Employers should also consider locating plants or offices near housing sectors that offer affordable dwellings for employees.

The evidence in this research suggests that employers can improve human and social capital in employees by increasing their JE.

Employers can give ample opportunity to build solid organizational links, establish ways for employees to be involved in long-term projects, create opportunity for business and social networking, and provide benefits both financial and psychological that could be seen as sacrifices if one were to leave.

Employers should seek to increase the organizational identification of employees in general, ensuring that those employees who are embedded in their jobs will have a favorable view of their JE, thereby increasing potential outcomes such as internal social capital. Since job embedded employees who disidentify with the organization will have reduced human capital, managers should identify these individuals and seek to remedy issues that are causing disidentification.

10. Research Limitations

This research was conducted in light of a set of limitations. First comes the application on the faculty members at the University of Sadat City, including demonstrators, assistant lecturers, lecturers, assistant professors, and professors. Administratives are ruled out to ensure the ability of the sampling unit to fill the questionnaires form. Second: JE is limited to dimensions of on-the-job environment only; not addressing off-the job external environment because of the difficulty of controlling the variables and elements of this environment. Third, this research has been done in the period following the January 25 revolution; OC of employees varied greatly in the form of strikes and demonstrations. Therefore, the dimension of time may be taken into account to study the impact of different findings of this research.

11. Future Research

In light of the findings of the research results, a set of proposals to conduct future research are as follows:

1. The impact of psychological capital on supporting the competitiveness of human resources.
2. The impact of JE on job attitudes of employees in the public sector.
3. JE as a mediator variable between the psychological capital and organizational cynicism.

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Linking Leadership Studies to Corporate Brand Management: A Review

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Abstract

Two models of corporate brand or reputation management include "leadership and success" as a dimension that influences reactions of multiple stakeholders to organisations. Primary groups of stakeholders such as shareholders/investors, employees, and customers, often associate leadership of organisations with Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) or managing directors. This paper proposes that if CEOs are to be capitalised as part of corporate brand management, their leadership should be projected clearly to stakeholders to influence stakeholder attitudes. Although some studies tend to focus on linking leadership brands and transformational leadership to employees' commitment, little is known what type(s) of leadership is (are) attractive to multiple stakeholders. Both, leadership brands and transformational leadership, can be presented as leadership archetypes, that is, personifications of abstract leadership qualities summing up leaders' traits and behaviours in situational contexts. Using the Competing Values Framework (CVF) for leadership, the researchers reviewed publications of CEO leadership in situational contexts and classified the CEO leadership roles based on the respective scholars' conceptual definitions. The classification revealed that CEOs were perceived as playing multiple leadership roles, which are manifested into leadership archetypes. The archetypes were derived from respondents' perceptions and had different labels subject to the situational contexts. Some of the archetypes reflect CEO functional roles, whilst others were metaphoric. A few leadership archetypes were common across academic literature, whilst others were not. These archetypes offer explicit representations of "leadership" dimension of the CBM models and can assist image generators to gauge which leadership archetypes are excellent or appealing to multiple stakeholders.

Keywords: leadership archetypes, CEOs, corporate brand, reputation, metaphors, the CVF

1. Introduction

In corporate marketing, corporate brand management (CBM) or reputation can be represented as "the overall estimation in which a company is held by its constituents....., the 'net' affective or emotional reaction—good, bad, weak, or strong—of customers, investors, employees, and general public to the company's name" (Fombrun, 1996 cited in Reil and Fombrun, 2007, p. 44). This definition treats CBM as an evaluative judgement (Clardy, 2010). Several models have been developed to assess CBM, namely, Brand Asset Valuator (BAV), BrandZ, Equitrend, Brand Power, USA's Most Admired, Reputation Quotient (RQ^{sm}) and RepTrak® Scorecard (Reil and Fombrun, 2007). Of these models, RQ^{m} and RepTrak® Scorecard are closely similar and include leadership as one of the elements contributing to CBM or corporate reputation. The RQ^{m} has six dimensions (i.e. emotional appeal, product and services, visions and leadership, workplace environment, financial performance and social responsibility). These dimensions were identified through the 1998-to-2000 mixed method research in USA, Australia, and Europe (Reil and Fombrun, 2007). The leadership component consists of capitalizing market opportunities, possessing excellent leadership and having clear vision for the future. The RepTrak® Scorecard has listed seven dimensions (i.e. performance, products/services, innovations, workplace, governance, citizenship and leadership). The scorecard was "created from qualitative and quantitative research conducted in six countries...since 1999" (Reil and Fombrun, 2007, p. 253). The leadership dimension comprises an appealing leader, excellent management, clear vision for the future as well as being well-organised. However, both models have not defined the meaning of excellent leadership and appealing leaders nor did specify whose leadership should be evaluated.

Leadership studies in organisations often refer to organisational leadership, which has two connotations: leadership *in* organisations and leadership *of* organisations (Dublin, 1977). Leadership *in* organisations represents the lower-level leadership in organisational hierarchy (Hunt, 2004). This leadership is often evaluated by the

organisational members. Leadership *of* organisations refers the strategic leadership that "connotes management of overall enterprise… and implies substantive decision making responsibilities, beyond the interpersonal and relational aspects usually associated with leadership (in organisations)" (Finkelstein *et al.*, 2009, p. 4). The leadership is characterized as "a person's ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organisation" (Ireland and Hitt, 2005, p.63). Such ability is often summarised as leadership archetypes, that is, personifications of abstract leadership qualities summing up leaders' traits and behaviours in situational contexts. This paper aims to summarise leadership archetypes identified by management scholars for researchers (i.e. marketing and management) and practitioners. These archetypes can represent more explicit representations of "leadership" or "leaders" specified by the two CBM models to expand research in corporate brand and reputation. They can provide bases for image generators to plan how CEOs can be capitalised beyond brand endorsers or spokespersons for product or corporate marketing. Besides, the archetypes can also be a starting point in developing brands for organisational leaders that match the vision and missions of organisations.

2. Material Studied

The highest ranking corporate officers such as Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) or managing directors compared to leaders at the lower rank such as the managers and supervisors are often associated with strategic leadership (Finkelstein *et al.*, 2009; Boal and Hooijiberg, 2000; Hunt, 2004). CEOs are in charge of the management of organisations and "enact the most visible leadership role" for an organisation (Kitchen and Laurence, 2003, p. 106). Studies investigating the influence of CEO leadership on capital market described CEOs as charismatic leaders (Collins, 2001; Agle *et al.*, 2006; Fanelli, 2003; Agle, *et al*., 1999; Harris and Ogbonna, 2001; Waldman, *et al.*, 2001, 2004; Tosi *et al.*, 2004; Flynn Staw, 2004). For customer market, studies on CEOs were limited to CEOs being brand endorsers (Rubin *et al.*, 1982), and spokespersons (Reidenbach and Pitts, 1986; Freiden, 1984) of products and firms. Other than being credible brand endorsers and spokespersons, not much is known what types of CEO images are presented to customers. For example, among customers, studies found that the reputation of CEOs and directors was one of the cues used in evaluating corporate image of firms (Shandwick, 2012; LeBlanc and Nguyen, 1996), but offered no clear definition of CEO reputation.

For multiple stakeholders, CEOs are the most accessible touch point contributing to evaluation of CBM or corporate reputation (Fombrum and Riel, 1997; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Knox and Bickerton, 2003; Page and Fearn, 2005). Leader image has a spill-over effect on organisational image and is vital for corporate branding (Power *et al.*, 2008). "A CEO or managing director, if associated with a corporate brand, must be willing to maintain a more public profile to help to communicate news and information" (Keller, 2008, p.4). Often, a public profile leads CEOs to be perceived as "exemplary individuals… where their actions, personalities and/or private lives function symbolically to represent significant dynamics, and sometimes alleviate significant tensions, prevalent in the contemporary business environment" (Guthey *et al.*, 2009, p. 13). This paper argues that CEOs' actions and attributes are often framed into situational contexts.

Table 1. Transformational leadership theory: aspects of leadership

Five Central Leaders' Traits (Northhouse, 2010)	Three Behavioural Meta-Categories (Yukl, 2006; Yukl et al 2002)	Two Situational Contexts of Leadership (Sashkin, 2004)
Intelligence	Task	Organisational Cultures
Self-confidence	Relation	(i.e. Social Systems)
Determination	Change	Organisational Structures
Integrity		(i.e. Hierarchy)
Sociability		

In leadership studies, leaders' actions (i.e. leaders' behaviours), personality (i.e. leaders' traits and attributes) and situations (i,e. contingency and situational leadership) represent part of major schools of leadership and each suggests multiple approaches (see Antonakis et al, 2004 and Northhouse, 2010). These three schools of leadership can be represented as transformational leadership that is originated from Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory (TLT), a hybrid leadership theory (Sashkin, 2004). The theory combines three basic aspects of leadership,

namely, leader personal characteristics, leader behaviour, and situational contexts as illustrated in Table 1 (see Sashkin, 2004 for review).

Some early researchers have attempted to identify the most effective leadership for CEOs according to situational contexts (e.g. Leontiades, 1982; Wissema *et al.*, 1980). These studies are consistent with the contingency approaches of leadership such as Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) situational theory, and the Vroom-Jago's (1988) contingency model. These approaches argue that effective leadership styles are subject to specific situations (Daft, 2005). This notion is also known as leader-match concept (Northouse, 2010). However, the match often refers to fitting leadership styles (i.e. leadership behaviours) into situational contexts, and appears to ignore leaders' traits and attributes. Current management scholars assert that CEOs should apply the transformational leadership (Hitt *et al.*, 2007). This assertion suggests that CEOs leadership is a manifestation of CEOs' traits and behaviours in situational contexts. In this paper, such a manifestation is defined as leadership archetypes, that is, personifications of abstract leadership qualities summing up leaders' traits and behaviours in situational contexts. Yet, little is known what strategic leadership archetypes have been identified by scholars.

Flexibility and Discretion

Collaborate-Orientation **Leader type:** Facilitator, Mentor **Value drivers:** Commitment, Communication, Development **Theory of Effectiveness:** Human development and participation produce effectiveness	**Create-Orientation** **Leader type**: Innovator, Visionary **Value drivers:** Innovative outputs, Transformation, Agility **Theory of Effectiveness:** Innovativeness, vision, and new resources produce effectiveness
Control-Orientation **Leader type:** Coordinator, Monitor **Value drivers:** Efficiency, Timeliness, Consistency and uniformity **Theory of Effectiveness:** Control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness	**Compete-Orientation** **Leader type:** Competitor, Producer **Value drivers:** Market share, Goal Achievement, Profitability **Theory of Effectiveness:** Aggressively competing and customer focus produce effectiveness

Internal Focus and Integration (left axis)   *External Focus and Differentiation* (right axis)

Stability and Control

Figure 1. Competing values framework for leadership

Adapted from (Cameron *et al.* (2006)

An emergent theory for strategic leadership that suggests leadership archetypes refers to Cameron, *et al.*'s (2006) competing value framework (CVF) for leadership as illustrated in Figure 1 (Boal and Hooijberg, 2001). The CVF has four quadrants of orientation: collaborate, create, compete and control. It has been used as a broadly applicable model to foster successful leadership, improve organisational effectiveness and promote value creation (Cameron et al, 2006). The CVF contends that effective leadership improves organisational performance, which creates values (i.e. financial and human capital). The collaborate-orientation emphasises flexibility-and-discretion and internal-factors-integration. This leadership orientation requires leaders who are warm and supportive to manage teams (commitment), interpersonal relationships (communication) and the development of others (development). Leaders act as facilitators and mentors whose effectiveness is translated into sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The create-orientation focuses on flexibility-and-discretion and external-factors-and-differentiation. It

requires leaders who break rules to manage innovation (innovative outputs), the future (transformation) and continuous improvement (agility). Leaders act as innovators and visionaries whose effectiveness refers to generating unique and new products or services.

The compete-orientation focuses on stability-and-control and has external-focus-and-differentiation. This orientation requires leaders to be tough and demanding in order to manage competitiveness and customer service (market share and profitability), and energise employees (goal achievement). Leaders act as competitors and producers whose effectiveness is reflected in improving profitability, market share and financial performance. The control-orientation focuses on stability-and-control and has internal-focus-and-differentiation. This orientation requires leaders who reinforce rules to manage coordination (timeliness), the control system (efficiency), and acculturation (consistency and uniformity). Leaders following this orientation are monitors and coordinator whose effectiveness is manifested through dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low cost. In short, each quadrant theorises that organisational effectiveness is subject to the leader-context match. Leader types or roles are leadership archetypes (i.e. personifications of abstract leadership qualities such as the commander, the fighter, the visionary, etc.) should match situational contexts (i.e. organisational orientations).

Though the match concept has been suggested by the CVF, most CEO leadership studies have not clearly associated their findings with the same concept. This paper illustrates how findings of previous research actually represent CEO leadership archetypes (i.e. personifications of abstract leadership qualities summing up leaders' traits and behaviours in situational contexts) and can be associated with the CVF for leadership. These leadership archetypes could have more holistic representation of CEOs as part of organisational leadership and success (i.e. a dimension of CBM) compared to random information about CEOs.

This paper argues that public profiles of CEOs often portray CEOs' leadership archetypes to stakeholders. These archetypes such as the commander, the fighter, the visionary, etc. are images held by the stakeholders and "not picture(s)… (or) detailed representation(s), (but)… rather, a few details softened with the fuzziness of perception" (Newsom et al, 1989, p. 364) and should be part of CBM. CEO leadership archetypes may signal to multiple stakeholders that the CEOs are highly skilful and competent leaders and likely to improve their firms' performances (Wade *et al.*, 2008). The paper presents a review of CEO leadership in situational contexts and suggests that leadership archetypes of CEOs can be capitalised to contribute to the CBM.

3. Method

A review of the leader-context match concept in academic literature was carried out. The scholarly publications selected included journal articles, leadership books and working paper series. Using the CVF framework, the identified leaders in situational contexts were fit into each quadrants based on the conceptual definitions of the respective authors. In other words, the CVF provides the basis for organising previous research findings on CEO leadership in situational contexts (i.e. the organisational critical and contemporary issues).

The online search for full text and peer reviewed articles up to 2012 through the ProQuest database led to 1355 articles on leadership archetypes (i.e. the personification of abstract leadership qualities, namely, traits and behaviours in situational contexts) and 558 articles on CEO archetypes. These articles were shortlisted to include only CEO leadership in situational contexts. The process suggested that only limited number of articles (i.e. only 6 articles) specifically investigated CEO leadership in situational contexts. Each one was extracted from the *Administrative Science Quarterly, Creativity and Innovation Management, Harvard Business Review, Human Relations, Leadership Quarterly, Organisation Studies*, and *Organisational Dynamics*, for analysis (see References). Two books entitled *Metaphors We Lead By* and *In Their Time: The Greatest Business Leaders of the Twentieth Century* and one Harvard University faculty research working paper series were also reviewed to summarise leadership archetypes in academic literature. Another online search using a popular search engine focusing on scholarly articles on CEO leadership up to 2014 hit 7720 results. Of these articles, a few scholars have written about leadership archetypes between 2013 and 2014 and associated them with Jung's (1980) twelve archetypes, namely, caregiver, ruler, creator, sage, explorer, innocent, outlaw, hero, magician, jester, everyman and lover (see Kooskora and Isok, 2014; Moxes 2013). However, they have not linked those archetypes to transformational leadership. The next section illustrates how the identified CEO leadership archetypes (i.e. personification of leadership qualities in situational contexts) as a representation of transformational leadership were mapped onto the CVF framework.

4. Results and Discussion

The review of the selected articles revealed that the findings of recent research on leadership in situational contexts could be fit into each CVF quadrant. These research works used primary data sources (i.e. critical studies of

leadership, surveys of organisational leaders and members and direct observations by leadership scholars) and secondary data sources (i.e. leadership portrayals by image generators such as corporate documents, analyst reports, publications and mass media). The findings are detailed in the next two subsections: studies using primary data sources (see Figure 2) and studies using secondary data sources (see Figure 3).

4.1 Studies Using Primary Data

Recent critical studies in *Metaphors We Lead By* suggest that leadership is simultaneously influenced by leaders, followers and contexts (see Alvesson and Spicer, 2011). The studies examined leadership from critical perspectives and presented leaders as saints, buddies, gardeners, commanders, cyborgs and bullies.

Flexibility and Discretion

Collaborate-Orientation Saints (Alvesson, 2011) Buddies (Sveningsson and Blom, 2011) Gardeners: landscapers and crop-rotators (Huzzard and Spoelstra, 2011) Achievers; Diplomats (Rooke and Tobert; 2005) Coaches; Communicators; Transactors (Kets De Vries; 2007)	**Create-Orientation** Alchemists (Rooke and Tobert, 2005) Builders; Innovators; Strategists*; Change-Catalyst *(Kets De Vries, 2007) Leaders; Entrepreneurs (Mayo and Nohria, 2005)
Control-Orientation Gardeners: pruners and harvesters (Huzzard and Spoelstra, 2011) Cyborgs (Muhr, 2011) Bullies (Karreman, 2011) Experts; Individualists (Rooke and Tobert, 2005) Processors (Kets De Vries, 2007)	**Compete-Orientation** Commanders (Spicer, 2011) Strategists; Opportunists (Rooke and Tobert, 2005) Managers (Mayo and Nohria, 2005)

Internal Focus and Integration (left axis) — *External Focus and Differentiation* (right axis)

Stability and Control

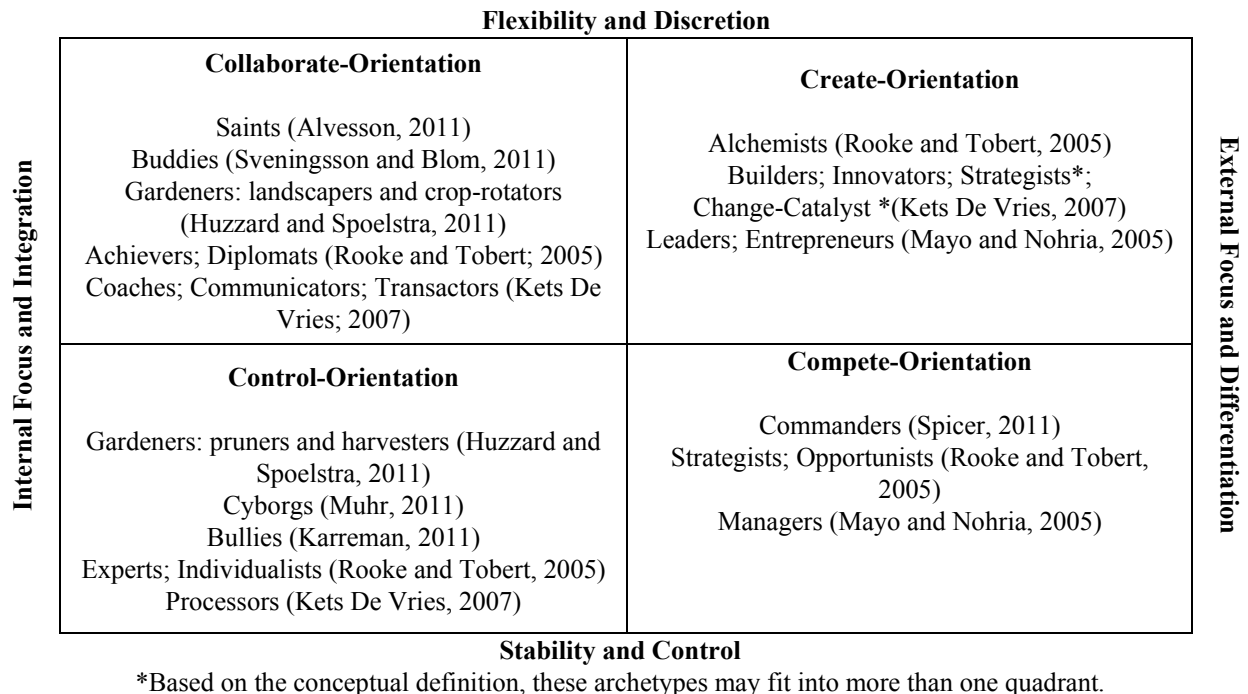*Based on the conceptual definition, these archetypes may fit into more than one quadrant.

Figure 2. Studies using primary data

Saints, who strive for moral peak performance, represent leaders who are servants to others, inner moral super(wo)men, martyrs, champions of good cause and good guys (Alvesson, 2011). Buddies, who make people feel good, are party hosts, pseudo-shrinks/therapists, equals, and ombudsmen/watchdogs (Sveningsson and Blom, 2011). As illustrated in Figure 2, both saints and buddies appear to represent leaders with the CVF collaborate-orientation. Gardeners, who facilitate growth, are sub-divided into landscapers, crop-rotators, pruners, and harvesters (Huzzard and Spoelstra, 2011). Huzzard and Spoelstra (2011) argue that landscapers and crop-rotators focus on empowerment, skills and growth, whilst pruners and harvesters focus on controls, jobs and costs. These focuses suggest that the first two sub-types of gardeners fit into the CVF collaborate quadrant, whilst the latter two sub-types fit into the CVF control quadrant. Commanders, who create clear directions, are leaders of change, ass-kickers, antagonizers, and rule breakers (Spicer, 2011). These leaders who "aim to establish a sense of social order….to drive towards victory over a well-defined enemy' (Spicer, 2001, p. 136) appear to fit into the CVF compete-orientation. Cyborgs, who ensure mechanistic superiority, are charisborgs, technocrats, and perfectionists (Muhr, 2011). Bullies, who "aim to undermine, coerce, exclude and silence" (Karreman, 2011, p. 170), are often malicious and intimidating. Both cyborgs and bullies fit into the CVF control quadrant. In essence, *Metaphors We Lead By* suggests that leaders play multiple metaphorical roles.

Surveys of managers and professionals in American and European companies have identified seven ways of how leaders interpret and react to situations: opportunists, experts, individualists, diplomats, achievers, strategists and alchemists (Rooke and Tobert, 2005). The surveys revealed that that strategists and alchemists were associated with high corporate performance whilst opportunists, diplomats and experts were associated with below-average performance. As illustrated in Figure 2.3, they appear to represent leaders with different CVF orientations.

Alchemists, who generate social transformations through integrating material, spiritual and societal transformation, appear to fit into the CVF create-orientation. Strategists, who generate organisational and personal transformations through exercising power of mutual inquiry, vigilance, and vulnerability for both short-term and long-term, and opportunists, who win any way possible through exploiting situations and people, seem to be leaders with the CVF compete-orientation. Experts, who rule by logic and expertise, and individualists, who resolve gaps between strategy and performance through unique structures, represent leaders with the CVF control-orientation. Finally, diplomats, who avoid overt conflicts through bringing people together, and achievers, who meet strategic goals through teams, appear to be aligned with the CVF collaborate-orientation. Unlike, Alvessson and colleagues' (2011), Rooke and Tobert's (2005) findings suggest that leaders play both functional and metaphorical roles depending on situational contexts.

Meanwhile, surveys among organizational members categorised great American business leaders of the last century into three archetypes: entrepreneurs, (charismatic) leaders, and managers (Mayo and Nohria, 2005). As shown in Figure 2.3, entrepreneurs, who revolutionized processes, businesses, or even the whole industries, and (charismatic) leaders, who reinvigorated businesses or industries, appear to represent business leaders with the CVF create-orientation. Meanwhile, managers, who were skilled at reading and optimizing the context of their times, seem to be compete-oriented business leaders. The researchers exemplified business leaders of the twentieth century starting from 1910s to 1990s. For the 1990s, the study exemplified Jeffery P. Bezos of Amazon.com, Jerry Yang of Yahoo! and Thomas M. Siebel of Siebel Systems as entrepreneurs, Roger A. Enrico of PepsiCo, Harvey Golub of American Express Company, and Richard S. Fuld Jr. of Lehman Brothers as (charismatic) leaders, and John T. Chambers of Cisco Systems, Rochelle Lazarus of Ogilvy and Mather, and Lee R. Raymond of Exxon Mobil Corporation as managers. These findings suggest that the CEOs in the twentieth century merely played functional roles subject to situational contexts.

Instead of gathering results from surveys, (Kets De Vries, 2007; see also Kets De Vries, *et al.*, 2010) observational studies of real leaders suggest that the effectiveness of leadership types depends on executive situational contexts. The types identified stem from the researcher's argument that individuals' effectiveness within organisations is influenced by a number of recurring patterns of behaviour called archetypes. Highly effective top executives play the role of builders, innovators, transactors, processors, coaches, communicators, strategists and change catalysts. Builders, who embrace leadership as an entrepreneurial activity, and innovators, who treat leadership as a creative idea generation task, appear to fit into the CVF create quadrant. Builders are talented and determined in making their dream come true, and are long-term oriented and work well setting up an unconventional project or other ventures inside or outside the organisation. Innovators are greatly capable of solving extremely difficult problems, long-term-oriented and always on the lookout for future possibilities.

Transactors, who see leadership as a deal-making opportunity, coaches , who embrace leadership as a people development exercise, and communicators, who treat leadership as stage management, appear to represent the CVF collaborate-orientated leaders. Transactors are good at identifying, tackling and negotiating new opportunities, acquisitions or deals, and are short-term oriented. Coaches create high performance teams and cultures, and institute cultural change. Communicators are influential among various organisational stakeholders and good at overcoming crisis situations. Meanwhile, processors, who emphasise leadership as an exercise of efficiency, appear to represent leaders with the CVF control-orientation. They establish the necessary structures and systems to support organisational objectives.

Strategists, who believe leadership is a game of chess, appear to fall in both create- and compete-orientations. They provide vision, strategic direction and outside-the-box thinking to create new form of organisations and generate future growth. They are long-term-oriented, and work best in turbulent times when changes in the environment require new directions. Change catalysts, who emphasise leadership as a turn-around activity, appear to fit into both CVF collaborate-, and create-orientations. They reengineer and create new organisational blue-prints (transformations) and work best to integrate organisational culture after a merger or acquisitions, or when spearheading a re-engineering or turn-around project. Similar to Rooke and Tobert's (2005), Kets De Vries (2007) findings suggest that leaders play both metaphorical and functional roles in situational contexts.

In general, the findings of studies using primary data sources present various labels of functional and metaphorical leadership archetypes, however, none is common across literature.

4.2 Studies Using Secondary Data

While some researchers gathered leadership perceptions and impressions from primary sources through surveys and observations, other researchers conducted the same task through analysing corporate documents, market analyst reports, publications and mass media.

Flexibility and Discretion

Collaborate-Orientation Pedagogue; Saint (Amernic, *et al.*, 2007) Guru; Facilitator (Oberlechener and Mayer-Schonberfer, 2002) Parent; Father; Preacher; Builder (Chen and Meindl, 1991)	**Create-Orientation** Architect (Amernic, *et al.* 2007) Messiah; Inspirator; Enlightener (Oberlechener and Mayer-Schonberfer, 2002) Mr Peanut; Maverick; Entrepreneur; Visionary (Chen and Meindl, 1991)
Control-Orientation Physician (Amernic, *et al.*, 2007) Mechanic (Oberlechener and Mayer-Schonberfer ,2002) Whiz ; Wizard; (Chen and Meindl, 1991)	**Compete-Orientation** Commander (Amernic, *et al.*, 2007) Theseus (Fanelli and Grasselli, 2006) Commander (Oberlechener and Mayer-Schonberfer,2002) Competitor; Fighter; Hero; Spartan (Chen and Meindl, 1991)

(left axis: Internal Focus and Integration; right axis: External Focus and Differentiation)

Stability and Control

Figure 3. Studies using secondary data

An analysis of Jack Welch's letters to shareholders found that the content depicted Welch through five key metaphors: pedagogue, physician, architect, commander, and saint (Amernic, *et al.*, 2007). The researchers framed these metaphors under the transformational leadership approach (the hybrid leadership). Similar to the studies reviewed earlier, each key metaphor could be fit into (Cameron *et al.*, 2006) CVF for leadership (see Figure 2.3). However, this analysis also highlighted that the same CEO can evolve, moving into different quadrants of the CVF as the organisation develops. This evolution is still essentially captured in terms of metaphors suggesting different leadership archetypes. As the pedagogue, Welch sounded like a teacher who aimed to convince others about his beliefs and vision, present a management theory, clearly define management terms, and consistently tell the GE story. This initiative could be associated with efforts in engaging others' commitment to GE as suggested by the CVF collaborate quadrant. As the physician, Welch diagnosed the GE health and prescribed remedies to GE ills. The diagnosis and prescriptions were meant to identify and solve GE problems. This often required a leader to analyse the organisational strengths and weaknesses, which could be easily associated with monitoring GE agility, thus fitting into the CVF control quadrant.

As the architect, Welch defined GE organisational structure as social architecture that engaged every organisational member. The social architecture was often manifested in new organisational structures, which is the focus of the CVF create quadrant. Welch conveyed himself as the commander through using military metaphors and images, and action-oriented verbs (e.g. upgrade, expunge, dispose, shed etc.). These metaphors, images and verbs could be associated with aggressiveness which is associated with the CVF compete quadrant. As the saint, Welch was portrayed as having compassion, empowering employees and committing to social responsibility which suggests that Welch was employing the CVF collaborate-oriented leadership. Since the metaphor has been associated with the transformational leadership, these results suggest that a CEO who practises transformational leadership (the hybrid leadership) could portray his/her leadership in a number of metaphoric representations depending on the situational context.

Each metaphoric role was also contextualised into three waves of GE transformation, namely, hard, soft, and soft-cum-hard (Abetti, 2006) and framing theory (Entman, 1993). "Abetti regards a 'hard wave' as one in which 'the lives of the employees are physically disrupted by mass dismissals, divestments, acquisitions and major organizational changes'; whereas in a 'soft wave', 'the minds and habits of the employees are disturbed because they must absorb new ways of operating and new working practices'" (Amernic *et al.*, 2007, p. 1857). The hard wave (1981-84) involved "the creation of a new vision and strategy to drive reorganisation, mass dismissals, divestments

and acquisitions"; the soft wave (1985-95) had "the intent to revolutionise GE to gain the strengths of a big company with the leanness and agility of a small company"; the soft-and-hard wave dealt with "the intent to develop an integrated, boundaryless, stretched, total quality company with A-players" (cited in Amernic et al,. 2007, p. 1860). The hard wave appears to represent a context that requires coordination (the control quadrant) and goal attainment (the compete quadrant). The soft wave seems to suggest a context that calls for adaptation (the create quadrant). The soft-and-hard wave could be associated with a context in which organisational members have shared values and beliefs (the collaborate quadrant). Based on the three waves of GE transformation (Abetti, 2006), the study revealed that Welch projected his image as the architect (create-oriented) and commander (compete-oriented leader) during the hard wave, as the physician (control-oriented) during the soft wave, and as the saint (collaborate-oriented) during the third wave (Amernic *et al.*, 2007). These findings suggest that a legendary CEO such as Welch matched his metaphorical leadership archetypes to situational contexts.

Similar to Armenic *et al.* (2007), another content analysis of corporate documents and analyst reports illustrated the construction of CEO charisma within the US stock market and the CEOs' persona and vision during succession events through metaphors (Fanelli and Grasselli, 2006). The construction of CEO charisma was based on the charismatic leadership theory (CLT) which was represented by Ariande, the daughter of Minos and Pasiphaë. The CLT contends that charisma affects performance, that is, "effective leadership has the potential to enhance organisational performance and promote a more rewarding workplace" (Conger and Kanungo, 1998, p. 36-37). The US stock market was represented by the Minatour, a monster, to project the image of cruelty. The study suggests that Theseus (heroic CEOs) defeated the Minatour (the cruel stock market) with the help from Ariandne (the CLT) in the fight. In other words, CEOs who employ charismatic leadership tend to have powerful influence over the impressions formed by financial analysts. The impression articulated by financial analysts would influence investors' decisions. In essence, depicted as "heroic" in mass media, CEOs tend to have indirect effects on share price movements. The findings suggest that with the CLT, CEOs were heroic, which could be associated with the CVF compete-quadrant (defeating the cruel stock market, see Figure 2.3), whilst without the CLT, CEOs were non-heroic, which could be fit into the CVF control-quadrant (monitoring flow of information and financial resources).

In contrast, another analysis of written publications by leaders revealed both metaphorical leadership archetypes (i.e. commander, mechanic, Messiah, guru) and functional leadership archetypes (i.e. facilitator, inspirator and enlightener) in metaphorical organisational contexts namely, war, play, machine and spiritual experience (Oberlechener and Mayer-Schonberfer, 2002). In wars, the goal is winning at all costs and the leader is a commander, who could be placed into the CVF compete-quadrant (see Figure 2.3). In games, goals are achieved through collaboration and participation and the leader is a facilitator, who seems to have the CVF collaborate-orientation. The machine metaphor has pre-defined goals and the leader is a mechanic, who appears to have the CVF control-orientation. In spiritual experience, the leader acts as a Messiah, a guru, an inspirator, or an enlightener, and influences others to achieve goals through conviction with high ethical and moral implications. Based on leadership goals and roles, gurus, who tend to generate hopes in others, appear fit into the CVF collaborate quadrant, whilst Messiahs, inspirators, or enlighteners, who tend to be creative, appear to fall into the CVF create quadrant.

An exploration of mass media portrayals of CEOs leadership in situational contexts examined how business students perceived the leadership of Donald Burr, the founder of People Express Airline Inc. (Chen and Meindl, 1991). The study examined the portrayals of Burr in popular press media across three time periods: initial and growth stage (1981-83), mixed performance (1984-85) and merger (1986). The initial and growth stage represented the People Express' great success. The initial stage appeared to fit into the CVF create quadrant, whilst the growth stage into the compete quadrant. The mixed performance presented great expansion, loss and gains which suggested the compete-orientation. The merger stage presented the collaborate-orientation.

Based on content analysis, the study revealed 13 roles: preacher, parent/father, builder, wizard, whiz, visionary, Mr. Peanut, entrepreneur, maverick, competitor, Spartan, fighter and Fallen Hero (see Chen and Meindl's Appendix B, 1991). These images were elicited from business undergraduates who read selected articles about Burr. Some roles are metaphorical and represented familiar characters in the respondents' minds. For example, the preacher who often gave religious instructions was evoked by phrases such as "horizontal-management philosophy", "he condemns and praises", and "the messiah". The parent/father metaphor was expressed in "watched like (a) proud father", "give birth", and "the founding father". The builder metaphor was associated with Burr's priority of developing employees' commitment as a family at the company. The wizard/whiz referred to Burr's exceptional skills. This metaphor tends represent the CVF control quadrant. Mr Peanut (the logo of Planters, a company, which was started by an immigrant entrepreneur as a small business with innovative products) referred to Burr's unusual ways of doing things as captured in the phrase "peanuts fares". The entrepreneur referred to a business owner who was responsible

for managing every aspect of his/her business. The maverick often defied established rules or practices. While roles such as the Spartan, and the hero, are metaphorical, others such as the fighter and the competitor, are functional. However, all four roles were typically associated with aggressiveness.

Of the leadership archetypes, the study revealed that the "preacher" (the collaborate-orientation) metaphor appeared consistently across three time periods and represented the unifying metaphor. The competitor (the compete-oriented leader), the wizard/whiz (the control-oriented leader) and parent/father (the collaborate-oriented leader) appeared consistently in the first situational context (i.e. the initial stage or create-orientation, and growth stage or the create-orientation and the compete-orientation) and the second situational context (i.e. the mixed performance or the compete-orientation). The Spartan, the fighter and the hero (the compete-oriented leader) appeared repetitively in the second and the third situational contexts that called for the compete-orientation and the collaborate orientation, respectively. These repetitions suggest that CEOs may have multiple predominant leadership archetypes depending on the situational context that the organisation faces.

In general, similar to leadership archetypes derived from primary data, the findings of studies based on secondary data also suggest a wide range of functional and metaphorical leadership archetypes. However, one leadership archetype (i.e. commander) was repeated across two data sources.

5. Conclusion

In sum, most recent research findings suggest that CEO leadership could be placed into the four quadrants of the CVF for leadership (see Figure 1). Each quadrant is represented by multiple leadership archetypes, which are personifications of abstract leadership qualities. The archetypes were inferred from accounts of CEOs' expressions and actions in situational contexts. Some of these archetypes such as achievers, communicators, processors, and strategists sound functional. Others such as diplomat, coach, gardeners, and saints are purely metaphorical.

Of the identified leadership archetypes in the academic literature, the analysis suggests that three leadership archetypes, namely, collaborate-oriented saints, create-oriented entrepreneurs, and compete-oriented commanders were cited across studies using primary and secondary data sources. However, some leadership archetypes did not fall into the same CVF quadrants. For example, builders could either demonstrate entrepreneur-like behaviors or focus on employee commitment. This suggests that builders could be either create-oriented or collaborate-oriented leaders. Similarly, gardeners may facilitate growth or control day-to-day business, whilst strategists may focus on generating personal transformations or organizational transformations. The varying situational contexts suggest that gardeners could be both create- and control-oriented, whilst strategists could be both collaborate- and create-oriented.

Nonetheless, the review confirms that research on CEO leadership tend to focus on matching leadership qualities to the contemporary business challenges faced by the companies the CEOs run. Since leadership studies implicitly aim to identify effective leadership and CEOs have been identified as part of corporate brand managements, projecting CEO leadership archetypes (i.e. the personification of leadership qualities, namely, traits and behaviours in situational contexts), instead of random information about CEOs or merely traits and/or behaviors of CEOs, to stakeholder may offer better support to enhance organizational images. However, no known study has proposed or investigated whether these leadership archetypes can influence stakeholders' perception in evaluating corporate brand managements. Thus, future research should investigate the impact of CEO leadership archetypes on corporate brand management assessments especially for profit-oriented organizations. The results of such investigations would give some insights on which leadership archetypes would be beneficial to organisations in the effort to have favourable impressions among multiple stakeholders.

Acknowledgment

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The Corporate Way: Meaning and Dimensions in the Great Companies

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Abstract

Great organizations such as IBM, GE, Toyota, Walt Disney, etc. developed their own ways to effectively manage their business, create high value, and achieve sustainable competitive advantage that can not be imitated by their competitors. The way is not a magical ability or miraculous phenomenon in the successful organization, but it is a managerial innovation to create a unique combination of vision, values, and practices in unique circumstances of organization. It's a corporate DNA, the dominant gens, and organization's spirit.

This paper aims to investigate the meanings, features, and functions of the organization's way and its impact on formulating and promoting its excellence and achieving outstanding results. The paper results show that there are many directions to explain the deep meaning of the way in successful organizations. Finally, some learned lessons are drawn.

Keywords: the way, corporate DNA, mental model

1. Introduction

Individuals develop their own ways of life and work, as well as companies work hard in a competitive context for the development of its own way in order to work efficiently and achieve superiority over its competitors. (Eisenstein, 2013, p143) believes that the way of the world is the scientific method. However, this somehow leads to the reduction of our world, which is characterized by different capacities and diverse paths, to one best way. A straight line is the shortest distance between two points, but a curve, an L-shaped path, and a Zigzag are all viable options to connect the two points. In other words, using railways is one way to get to a destination from a certain point but it is not the only way, and perhaps not always the most efficient. The way in this context is an open choice to make the potential smart available, in order to reach our goals efficiently and effectively.

2. Concept of the Way

Division of labor, Babbage principle, Taylor's one best way, and Ford's repetitive mass production, despite of being powerful forces for increasing productivity and economic efficiency, however this was at the cost of human dignity, and the company's ability to innovate (Pruijt, 1997, p93, Swann, 2009, p182). Division of labor and one color for all contributed for two centuries to increase productivity, but it made all factories and companies identical without soul, identity, and special imprint. For these reasons, we can say that "the way" represents a pattern of corporate thinking outside the box and restoring the spirit of the company.

The way is the equivalent of all the outstanding characteristics of the company that make it different from other companies. The way in successful and leading companies, such as IBM and Toyota, is not a case of magic or superhero phenomenon. It is however, a live and effective product that extends over many years, during which companies pass through basic stages of the organizational life cycle, including various painful failures and happy successes. More importantly, there is this "collective distinct personality" of the company and what looks like a corporate DNA that generates a particular way to be different from the ways of other companies in doing business. In other words, a company that achieves outstanding successes in a competitive market for many years has its own way that reflects its own assumptions and values in business.

This simply means that the company's excellence and all critical survival and growth factors are attributed to the company's way being the distinct personality and soul of the company. The success of a company and the failure of another, despite they are both working according to the same management principles and business rules, can be seen

as the effect of an unknown factor (W) in realizing the corporate success. This unknown factor is in fact the company's way. Standardization of Taylorism, Fordism, McDonaldism and on the Internet Googlization, established companies of a single pattern, technology and culture in all their branches. They have succeeded due to the bigger size, the single recipe i.e. one juice for all. In contrast, other companies succeeded by diversity and their strong own way in business (see Table 1).

Table 1. Standardization and diversity (the way)

Standardization (one best way)	Diversity (the way)
Bureaucracy: tight hierarchy, solid regulations and rules, predetermined and enforceable procedures.	Organization's expertise is a significant driver to develop business model.
Taylorism: one best way.	Corporate DNA: there are no two organizations identical.
Fordism: standard form of mass production, technology and product repeat in the same method.	Inspiring corporate spirit instead of standard rules.
McDonaldization: one way with culture possesses the characteristics of a fast-food restaurant.	Unique synergy: organization is a unique combination of all its components.
Googlization: Googlized pattern of service leads to patterning our preferences and choices on Internet. It's a googlization meme (in Dawkin's concept).	Busidiversity is a similar to biodiversity.

In short, there are many meanings of the way; the most important can be identified in the following:

- It is equal to a corporate's particular, special thing, and unique characteristics.

- The organization DNA.

- A company's whole.

- The company's mental model of doing business.

- Diversity of companies versus standardization of industry.

- The company's collective distinct personality from other companies.

- The unique combination of the organization's resources and capabilities.

- The spirit or the soul of company.

- The dominant gens of the company.

This implies that there are multiple ways to achieve success in business, not one way (in Frederick Taylor's language, one best way). Figure 1 shows that the alpha way for success and excellence in one company can be achieved completely differently by the beta of another company.

3. Characteristics of a Corporate Way

Companies that developed their own "way", managed to survive for a longer time compared to companies that have not succeeded in developing their own way. The annual reports of organizations that excel in financial indicators include the investment, financial, and technological achievements, which do not differ much from one company to another. However, in organizations that are characterized by their own way, distinctive physical indicators with a distinguished company's vision, culture and values often accompany such reports. In this context, we can refer to a number of properties of the corporate way depending on the many cases of companies characterized by having a special way to do business.

3.1 The Ability to Find What Is Unique to the Organization's Experience

The majority of organizations operate according to the usual common ways and often on the basis of learning from others through copying and cloning. In contrast, very few of these organizations work on the basis of a "special thing", which they see in their own way and do not see in other companies. This special thing achieves the busi-diversity in a similar manner to the biodiversity.
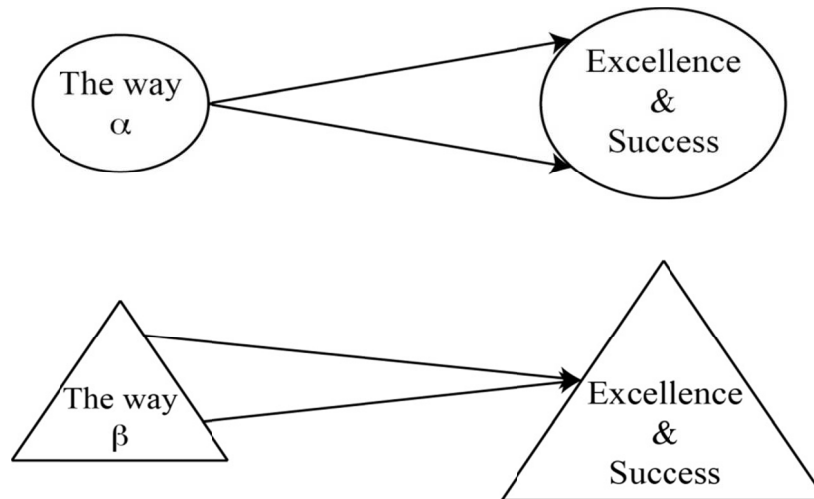
Figure 1. Different ways to excellence and success

3.2 Individual Connection of Workers to the "Special Thing"

The special thing cannot mean much if it remains an ideal of the organization's vision or a value of the leadership. It has to be turned into a mass vision in the organization in such a way that creates a connection between the workers and the special thing.

3.3 Human Significance

It is shown by numerous examples that the technological and financial capacities of an organization, as an organizational advantage, cannot maintain the superiority over competitors for a long time. This is mainly because such capacities can be developed or bought. The only sustainable competitive advantage is the one connected to human significance, and excellence of human interaction and synergy, which in contrast with technological and financial capacities, cannot be cloned.

3.4 Unique Synergy of the Organization Compared to Competitors

The company's capabilities, vision, field, and environment represent a unique combination that distinguishes the company from other companies operating in the same environment and field. Such distinct combination, through creative understanding and smart treatment, leads to the development of a unique synergy in the company. This synergy represents the best in inspiring the purpose and meaning, the most efficient use of resources, and achieving the highest results.

3.5 Intelligent Listening to the Field in Which the Organization Operates

It is the knowledge, focus, and understanding of the field in which the organization operates. In the Zen way, the truth is at your fingertips, and you have the ability to reach it (Pretiss, 2006, p13). This means that the "way" is within our ability to develop, and thus reach what it can achieve for us. For example, the most critical factor in working in areas of high altitudes is air, however in low altitudes it is humidity. This implies that the field cannot disclose its factors leading to superiority unless there is an intelligent listening and creative understanding of its characteristics. In the Walt Disney way, we find the uniqueness of the field in the dream (the desire of your heart), the magic kingdom (ultra fantasy world), everything starts with a mouse (the mouse represents life), and coloring outside the line emphasizes thinking outside the box.

4. Developing the Way

The development and evolution of a company's way cannot be achieved by copying others or strict adherence to business rules that are prevailing in an industry or environment. The starting point to such development is with the company sense of privacy and self-inner dimension that is the closest to the company's spirituality. Distinctive companies senses with a growing clarity, in time, that it has something to offer in a new distinct way compared to what others offer. In general, we can determine the factors required for the development of away in distinctive companies in the following:

i.   Vision: having a vision must be understood as the opposite to spontaneity, randomness and serendipity. According to (Hill and Jones, 2011, p30) vision is the desired future condition that the organization aims to achieve. Thus, an organization's vision drives the individual and the group, to do something new and to have an impact to accomplish what is called "strategic uniqueness".

ii. Passion: it is a strong desire, intense emotion, quaint aspiration toward what the organization wants to achieve. This passion feeds and strengthens the "way" of the organization, and it takes the form of a great energy in individuals who have the vision and are seeking to fulfill it with relentless determination and huge emotion that does not subside until it achieves what it seeks. In Walt Disney's way there is a dream that shines there in every idea and inspires workers to be at the level of the dream and to provide all what is necessary to achieve it.

iii. Ethics: The way does not work in vacuum, nor does it seek what cannot be accepted from the perspective of personal and organizational values. As a result, the directive "Be Ethical" is a long-term factor to keep the dream real and the passion true and renewed constantly because it derives its regeneration from right values and fair methods.

iv. Spirituality:

- It is the factor that gives a vision the reality of the ultimate purpose.
- It imparts certainty to passion that our intense emotions are going in the right direction.
- It gives ethics the highest value in sublimation to achieve additional dimensions of what is right.

v.   Distinctive combination: The way is formed over time as a combination of the organization's resources and capabilities such that it uniquely distinguishes the organization from other organizations. In psychology, there are no identical personalities, regardless of how many individuals compared to find congruence or symmetry, or even the substantial convergence (Burger, 2011, p3). This is due to the fact that each personality is also a distinct combination, and in spite of the identical environment inputs, individuals will always be different. This is because every individual is a different combination of the same environmental elements, which forms a different character. It is to be aware of (whole) and not the (parts). Suppose that we have a full matchbox (with 41 sticks), the sticks represent the parts and on throwing them into a surface they can form a certain combination that is (whole). No matter how many times we repeat the experiment, of throwing the same matchsticks, we will get a different combination each time. Figure 2 shows the matchsticks experiment, and the infinite number of possibilities of such experiment where each combination is a unique distinct combination, and that for such matchbox the minimum number of combinations equals to (41!). Where 41 factorial is:

$$41! = 33452526613163807108170062053440751665152000000000$$

$$41! = 3.34525266 \times 10^{49} \approx \infty$$

5. The "Way" as a Mental Model

A mental model is an individual's or a company's way to interact with individuals and objects and a perspective of the world. It is also the building block of knowledge, the principles, and the most stable rule in expressing the individual's self with other individuals, or the group's self in an organization with other organizations. Organizations that work on the basis of high competition and on-going threats develop its own way that is based on competition and conflict rather than cooperation. The transition of these organizations from competition to cooperation is always not easy and faces different obstacles. This is due to colliding with the way (the mental model) that the company adopted which shaped the company's principles, concepts, values, and traditions. Thus, changing its way (its mental model) will not happen for the sake of a new cooperation need that appeared due to some circumstances. In other words, "the way" is the corporate spirit and its culture that cannot be transferred, replicated, or globalized even in the globalization era.
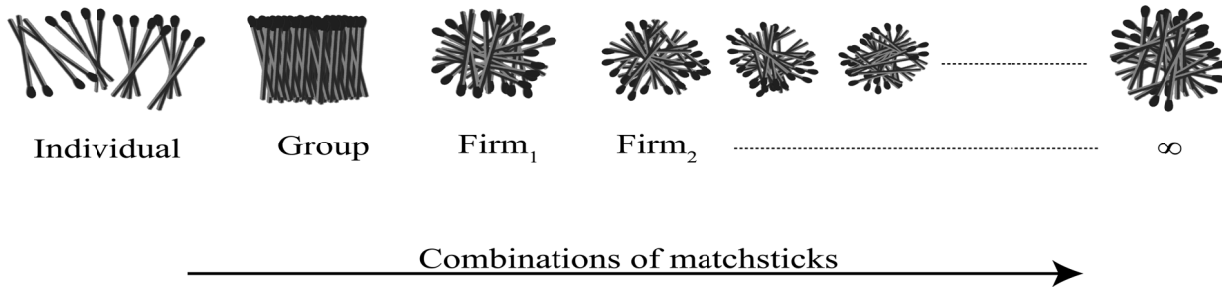
Combinations of matchsticks ⟶

Figure 2. Matchsticks and infinite combinations

Peter Singe (Singe, 1999) identified five characteristics of the learning organization these are: 1) systems thinking, 2) personal masterly, 3) mental models, 4) building a shared vision, and 5) team learning. The mental models represent a general frame of the company's culture and mindset. Organizations develop their own mental models during their organizational lifespans as a way to think and work in their environments. O'Brien (O'Brien, 2009, p26) emphasized that the scientific debate continues about whether human reasoning is based on mental models (as a distinct way in organization's thinking and work) versus formal rules of inference (as a scientific and rational method).

In this context, it is important to differentiate between the eastern (Asian) and the western understanding of the "way". For example, if the way in the western understanding represents the set of abstract rational rules, it is, in the eastern understanding, a way of life according to a totalitarian ethical frame that is based on the balance between the negative submission to the events and circumstances (negative submission and competence) and the absolute free well (effective competence) (Dallmayr, 2011, pp141-2). The west sees rationality as the only way and the scientific logic of thinking and problem solving. However, the east sees that one side of our problems is a result of this solid, cold, and single logic. Moreover, the east sees that there is more than one path to reach the truth just like in life where there is more than one way of thinking and working to develop and solve its problems.

In order to uncover the aspects in which the two understandings differ from each other, we note that I. Nonaka deeply revealed this in his discussion regarding (Honda) in what was later known as the "Honda Way". The Honda way unravels a unique vision that prevail Japanese companies in dealing with life, employees, and their abilities. Table 2 provides a comparison between the Honda way and the American way represented by General Motors (GM).

Table 2. The GE way versus the Honda way (Garvey, 2002, p101)

GE	Honda
People live to compete	People live to create and innovate
Winning means everything	Life should be a joyful experience
People are difficult to change	The potential of people is limitless
Everything is based on winning the competition	Everything is based on finding our own purpose. Why do we exist? What is the core concept of our work?
Knowledge production is based on comparison. Am I \Are we better than the others?	
External motivation	Knowledge production is based on self-reflection. Who am I \ who are we? Why do I\We want to do this?
Goal: to be number one	
Relation to knowledge: exploitation (using the existing knowledge).	Internal motivation
	Goal: to serve the customer
	Relation to knowledge: exploration (building constantly new knowledge).

6. The Dimensions of the Way in Distinguished Companies

A careful review of the distinguished companies clearly shows that such companies could not have achieved superior results in their business without having their own unique distinguished way to manage their resources, culture, and

employees. In other words, these companies have truly developed their own way that represents the best in managing their resources, abilities in their own circumstances and environments.

These distinguished companies are similar in that they all have their own unique way in doing business. This means that success has no single formula or recipe in all companies, and that the best company is the one that deduce its own combination, which conforms to its own circumstances and resources to achieve the best results possible. Table 3 presents a prompt overview of the dimensions in a set of different distinguished companies.

Table 3. The dimensions of the way in the different companies

The way	The way dimensions
The Zen Way **Prentiss, 2006** **Shunrya, 2010**	The human life means suffering, the purpose of human life is to be happy. The four "Noble Truths" represent the first stage of enlightenment is to be aware that you suffer. The four "Noble Truths" are: Essential of life is the suffering, the origin of suffering is attachment, the cessation of suffering is attainable, finding your particular path be happy.
The Toyota Way **Spear and Bowen, 1999, Liker, 2004**	Long-term philosophy, the right process will create a continuous process flow to bring problems to the surface, use "pull" systems to avoid overproduction, level out the workload, standardized tasks and processes are the foundation for continuous improvement and employee empowerment …etc.
The India Way **Singh, 2012**	Holistic engagement with employees, improvisation and adaptability, creative value propositions, broad mission and purpose
The GE Way **Magee, 2009**	Leadership is about confidence, confidently seize opportunity, strength in crisis, appearances can be deceiving, understand context, cultivate big ideas, invest in Innovation, use your eco-imagination, maintain core values… etc.
The Amazon.com Way **Saunders, 1999**	Live and breathe E-Commerce, fill the place with entrepreneurs, focus (continues to be the same), brand the site, get and keep customers by offering great value, develop unbeatable logistics, stay lean, practice techno-leverage, innovation and enlightened adaptation, grow with the best.
The Apple Way **Cruikshank, 2006**	Marvels and margins, find the future, take their breath away, guard the family jewels, keep your promises, build the cult, get it out there, keep your cool, flog the bad guys, fix your leaders, fix your plan.
The IBM Way **Rodgers, and Shook, 1986**	The business and its belief, leadership, creating a totally sales-oriented environment, building a super marketing organization, future-oriented marketing, solution minded selling, being responsive for the customers, service orientation, measurement and compensation, the entrepreneurial spirit.
The Bill Gates way **Dearlove, 1999**	Be in the right place in right time, fall in love with the technology, take no prisoners, hire very smart people, learn for survive, don't expect any thanks, assume the visionary position, cover all the bases, build a byte-sixed business, never, ever, and take your eye off the ball.
The Mary Kay Way **Ash, 2008**	Golden rule leadership, you build with people, the invisible sign (every person is special), praise people to success, the art of listening, be a follow-through person, enthusiasm moves mountains, the speed of the leader is the speed of the gang, people will support that which they help to create… etc.
The Pixar Way **Capodagli and Jackson, 2010**	Remember the magic of childhood, where did the creativity go? Hey, kids: let's put on a show, dream for infinity and beyond, a new way to play "follow the leader", collaboration in the sandbox, stand together against the bullies… etc.
The Annapolis Way **Johnson, and Harper, 2005**	On building combat leaders, taking oaths and making commitments, follow first, The crucible of character, create tri-level vision, inoculate for stress, shipmates first, success is in the drill, lead by example, IQ is not enough, the three D's of empowerment: decide, delegate, disappear.
The John Deere Way **Magee, 2005**	Embrace the culture, quality comes first, create change through innovation, always maintain integrity, commitment never quits, build a business as great as your products, put the brand to work (and protect it at all costs), all relationships must be win-win, grow on the strength of your roots, performance that endures.
The Obama way **Leanne, 2010**	First, win trust and confidence, communicate your vision effectively, leverage a strong reputation, make friends in unusual places, build and lead a winning team, move beyond high performance to all hands, use diversity as a source of strength … etc.,

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7. How Do Organizations Develop Their Own Way?

The way is a collective managerial innovation of the organization as it represents a unique combination of the human (leadership, professionals, and workers), financial, technological, and other intangible resources, the materials used, the external environment (private and public factors) that the company works and interacts with throughout its organizational life cycles. This innovation along with the unique vision of the leadership develops the sense of "the way" in thinking and working. Although organizations start their business without a definite guarantee of their success (existence and growth), there is also no definite guarantee that the organization can develop its own way. In reality, most organizations work without having their own unique way that differentiates them from other organizations (competitors or non-competitors). They all work depending on a vast set of concepts, principles, and rules prevalent in the business environment. The question here is why?. The answer to this question is simply that not all organizations are innovative and "the way" mentioned in this context is a pure managerial innovation in developing and extrapolating the unique combination in the company.

Organizations' attempts to develop their own "ways" as a best response to their resources, workers, and environment provide suitable expertise to help answering how organizations can develop their own way, while taking into consideration that there is no trusted ready-made recipe for success in this case, and that it is beneficial for guidance not for strict application. The way is not a specified programme or golden rules that can be applied in all circumstances and yield results in definite success. In fact it is the most successful way in any organization that cannot be adopted by other organizations, and such adoption can be the reason for definite failure due to the difference of resources, workers, and circumstances. The only thing that other organizations can do toward such successful way, is to understand the lessons learned from it for guidance and to benefit from it without falling into the trap of blind imitation

8. Discussion

Outstanding individuals have their way of managing themselves. (Drucker, 1999, p163) emphasizes that history's greatest achievers, such as Napoleon, da Vinci, Mozart, have always managed themselves, and to a large extent this unique "way" of management is what makes them great achievers. Similarly, distinguished companies have their own way of managing their resources, and priorities. Additionally, (Kanter, 2011, p7) mentioned that alongside economic or financial logic, there is an institutional logic (the company's own "way") that essentially contributes to guiding principles in research, analysis, education, policy, and managerial decision making.

The way, from distinguished companies perspective, represents a managerial innovation that is of no less importance and value to the company's success than technological innovation. They both aid in improving productivity, performance, and achieving a competitive advantage that allow the company to survive and grow in the market. A difference between the two however, is that technological innovation can often be copied and replicated, however, the way cannot. This is mainly due to "the way" being linked to how individuals work, their values, and their own preferences that is most compatible with their resources and work conditions.

Though, the way has its own issues which can play a negative role in the company, this means that "the way" is not free or without burdens. The following are the most relevant issues:

   a. "The way" and the single method: in a competitive business environment, the way can mean that the company is competing in one common way. In a fast paced environment, where competitors come up with different methods and work with different visions in correspondence to these changes, "the way" can become a constraint that limits the company's ability to quickly respond outside "the way" which is based on rules and dimensions that cannot be skipped without surpassing "the way".

   b. Management from the grave: a powerful founder, who develops his own way that leads to a company's success, may adopt different rules, and take many actions that allow "the way" to work even after the founder has disappeared. This is often acceptable in stable environments that do not involve fierce competition. However, with competition that involves intelligent competitors who are hard working on new competitive ways, the old way, which is governed by rigid rules, can mean inflexibility and inability of the company to work and respond to competitors' challenges.

   c. The mental model constraints: the way may seem in some special cases as a mental model of thinking and working that originates in both individuals and company's rules and behaviours. This may prevent the rules and principles of rational thinking from working in another way even though in some cases the other way can be more rational and efficient. (O'Brien, 2009, p96) emphasized that a mental model founds a problem that relates to whether reasoning is based on a mental model (as a common way of thinking and behaviour)

or on formal (logical) rules of inference. This means that the way, by strict adoption or habituation, may replace rational thinking in decision and action.

d. Although the variety of ways in companies and the variety of dimensions of these ways enrich business concepts and practices that can achieve success. However, it raises a serious problem of knowledge in business where a specific dimension can be part of the success factors in a company, while an opposite dimension can be part of the success factors of another.

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The Impact of Social Media on the Academic Development of School Students

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Abstract

Today, it is crucial to determine the impact of social media on the academic performance of students. Technology is booming rapidly from year to year, and the younger generations are the ones caught in this rapid change. Questionnaires were distributed through Facebook and E-mails, to find out whether students academic performance is impacted by social media or not. The findings demonstrate that there is no relationship between social media and academic performance; this is clearly projected in their overall grade average.

Keywords: social media, education, younger generation, academic development, Egypt

1. Introduction

Mike Moran, Jeff Seaman and Hester Tinti-Kane, for a long period of time believed that the term social media does not have a clear definition, however, when one platform emerged, that gave people an opportunity to be content creators, controllers and transparent users, to a great extent. Once this content is shared, it becomes a conversation, because all users who have accounts on social media platforms can interact with all posts (Moran, Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2011). Social Networking is "the act of engagement," while social media is the tool used to communicate with mass audience (Hartshorn, 2010). Social Media is the platform that give individuals the opportunity to interact, using two way communication; meaning, that anyone who has online accounts can share their opinions with other social media users.

There are two types of social media users; digital natives and digital immigrants. Digital natives are the ones who were born after 1980, they came to this world when the digital media existed. However, digital immigrants are the ones who were born before 1980 and adapted their lives to digital media (AntonSon and Christopher, 2014). Social media platforms vary from Web blogs, to micro-sharing platforms, to lifestreams to social networks and much more (AntonSon and Christopher, 2014).

The younger generation discussed in this research paper are school students between the ages of 12 to 19 years old. A few of the platforms they use are Facebook, YouTube, Google, and many others that will be discussed in the findings of this research. The younger generation are the individuals that will lead our world in the future, they must be well educated to be able to impact this world and make Egypt a better country on the road to success. Therefore, research must be conducted about the different things they are exposed to, that may effect them negatively or positively. This research aims to asses the frequency at which the students are social networking, and whether it has any effect on their academic performance. If there is an impact on their academic performance, in what way does it effect it. All these questions will be answered through this research paper.

Social media has been utilised in so many different ways through out the years. Egypt is known to be one of the heavy users of social media, specifically Facebook. It dominates 25% of the total MENA region, having almost 11 million users, even though the penetration rate is only about 13%. In the first six months of the year 2012, Egypt had an additional 1,608,420 users on Facebook, which is the highest number in the MENA region. Luke Richards stated that 46% of Egyptian social media users believe that social media has great influence in empowering them to change their country (Richards, 2012). According to Dr. Anthony Curtis, in 2014, there is about 1.28 billion Facebook users

and 255 million Twitter users, 55 million of the Facebook users and 3.7 million of the Twitter users are from the Arab world (Curtis, 2013).

This research aims at measuring the impact of social media on the younger generation's academic performance; therefore, this paper is structured in the following order: the literature review outlining previous research conducted on university students and high-school students outside of Egypt. Following with the research methodology and the results obtained from the distribution of the questionnaires; followed by the discussion that will answer the suggested hypotheses of the paper. The final part will be the conclusion and the limitations of this study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Social Media and Its Uses

Paul Kirschner and Aryn Karpinski define Facebook and other social network sites as an online directory that allows people to find their friends, family and colleagues through looking them up on social network sites (Kirschner and Karpinsk, 2010). Curtis states that teens all over the world are starting to lose interest in the use of Facebook and are using Snapchat, Twitter and Instagram (Curtis, 2013).

Victoria Rideout states that, among the younger generation, the time they spend on social media, what she calls 'entertainment media' is "more than twice the average amount of time spent in school each year." (Rideout, 2012, p. 5) She also adds that an American child spends on average seven and a half hours a day just for having fun on the media, not only that, but they multi-task, between all the different media they use. For example, they can be listening to music, sending a tweet and also posting on Facebook. Rideout says, that since social media is seven days a week, unlike school or having a full-time job, over the years the amount of time one could spend over the internet "has exploded" (Rideout, 2012, p. 5).

Abelardo Pardo believes that technology offers a platform for innovation, and allows its users to express their opinions about how they feel towards the information being published. He adds that, social media is also a platform that allows students to interact with one another, with their teachers and communities that share their same education. Pardo also states that these types of interaction are "an essential part of how humans learn." (Pardo, 2013, p. 45)

Kirschner and Karpinski, discuss Wim Veen's new term, "Homo Zappiens", which refers to the learners of the new generation, and the new way they use to learn. This new way is known as "meta-cognitive skills," meaning they learn on their own without the need for instructions, it is also called "discover-based learning." They also add that, the younger generation shares an unclear bond with technology since their birth, leading them to multi-task. They note that 46% of the younger generation who access the internet use it to help them with their school assignments (Kirschner and Karpinski, 2010).

June Ahn discusses in her research a theory called 'Signalling Theory', this theory refers to how individuals on social network sites present themselves, and develop their identities and build trust with others. She also adds that, by having many friends on the different platforms, this causes the individual to lose the trust of their friends because they start adding people they do not know, to show others how popular they are (Ahn, 2011b).

2.2 Social Media's Effect on Academic Performance

Kaveri Subrahmanyam and Patricia Greenfield state that using online communication has both negative and positive effects, because there are harmful ways in which the internet could be used. They also state that nowadays, schools are trying their best to control how students use digital media on school grounds (Subrahmanyam and Greenfield, 2008). In some schools, leaders believe that social media has a positive impact on the development of the students' education. In other schools, leaders have banned the access of social network sites, because they fear the students' interaction on them, although, they know the positive impact social media has on the students' education (Ahn, 2010). Ahn also states that the examples of the media platforms the younger generation use are: YouTube, to share and stream videos, and Facebook, to have a complete identity online, and a network of friends. Ahn says, researchers look at the profiles of the social media users as part of the process needed for the students to develop their identity (Ahn, 2010).

Gwenn Schurgin O'Keeffe and Kathleen Clarke-Pearson believe that there are negative impacts caused by social media, which include accessing inappropriate content and not "understanding online privacy." They also say that, there is online harassment and cyberbullying, which is mostly caused by risks of peer to peer engagement (O'Keeffe and Clarke-Pearson, 2011).

Rideout, has interviewed teachers, to find out their opinions regarding the effect entertainment media has on the students' academic performance; 71% of the teachers believe it has negatively impacted the students' attention span; 58% of teachers believe that social media has negatively impacted their writing skills, due to their regular use of

slang language and word abbreviations. The rest of the teachers believed it impacted both their face-to-face communication skills and their critical thinking skills (Rideout, 2012). She quotes a middle school math teacher who said, "The instant rewards of video games have made activities that require depth of commitment much harder for the kids." (Rideout, 2012, p. 8) Rideout adds that the positive impact caused by the students' use of the entertainment media according to the teachers she interviewed is their reading skills, it improved 46%, their math skills improved 54%, their writing skills improved 39% and their science skills improved 51%. More of the positive impacts caused by entertainment media in the opinion of 63% of the teachers is their ability to look-up information and find it, and another 34% of the teachers believe it improved their skills in "multi-tasking effectively" (Rideout, 2012).

According to O'Keeffe and Clarke-Pearson, in the American Academy of Pediatrics, there are a couple of benefits to social media use. They believe one of the most important benefits of social media is that it enhances how an individual understands himself by engaging with others, and becoming creative through blogging. This leads to better outcomes in their individual school work. Another important benefit according to O'Keeffe and Clarke-Pearson, is the fact that using social media gives students the opportunity to improve their learning, since they have the chance to share knowledge with one another and conduct group projects more efficiently (O'Keeffe and Clarke-Pearson, 2011).

Victor Lavy and Edith Sand's research was conducted in a Tel Aviv School to determine the effect of the types of friends on social media platforms of middle-school students. They divided the types of friends into categories. "Reciprocal friends" which are friends that have something in common with each other, such as academics and interests. A second group was the "non-reciprocal friends", those who turned down the "friendship offer" of another student. They found that students with reciprocal friends in their class had a significant positive effect on three of their test scores; Hebrew, Math and English. On the other hand, students that had no common friends showed that there was a negative effect on the same three test scores. This tells us that if students are in contact with friends who share the same interests, goals and education on social media, then they are more likely to help each other in performing well in their studies, due to motivation and other factors (Lavy, 2012).

A new term regarding education has been introduced by Jeff Cain and Katherine Chretien and this term is known as 'interprofessional education'. It means that, instead of each individual learning on his/her own, different individuals come together to share the piece of knowledge they have with others. This leads to improved outcomes as they learn from each others experiences. This was first introduced amongst the health departments (Cain and Chretien, 2013). Therefore, there is an opportunity to make use of it within the students. This can be achieved by utilising social media to create study groups on Facebook, Skype, Blogs or any medium that allows multi contact conversations and allowing them to share their assignments, asking their peers questions they don't understand.

According to Napoleon Egedegbe, the result that different researchers and scholars have reached regarding the impact of social media on the academic performance of students is that there is no impact (Egedegbe, 2013). On the other hand, Dr. Patient Rambe states that social media gives different drawbacks and opportunities that distinctively enable and disable possibilities of having face-to-face interaction, as it liberates them from this obligation to the availability of everything online. He also adds that Facebook as a learning environment has given the opportunity to have multiple representations of students voices and has created an "educative and aesthetic space." Taking into consideration the opposing side, Facebook's learning environment has caused limitations of individuals to realise their "self-interests" (Rambe, 2011).

Sanzhar Naizabekov concluded that social media causes procrastination as a result of its distracting nature. It would take an individual who uses social media much more time than it would take a focused individual to finish a task. Through procrastination emerges the second negative impact, which is lack of motivation, because using social media with studying develops negative attitude towards their individual work at school (Naizabekov, 2012).

3. Research Methods

This research aims to find the impact of social media on the academic performance of the younger generation in Egypt. Questionnaires were distributed through the social media platform, Facebook and emails, amongst a sample of students aged 12-19.

The sample consisted of 110 male and female students aged 12-19, which are in grades 7 to 12. They are from different socioeconomic classes and the types of school programs varied between IG, American, French, German and National. The research also has a mini-comparison between the students frequency of using the following social media platforms: Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Snapchat, Google, and Instagram. A Likert Scale was used where the respondents were asked to rate them from 1-6, according to the level they use the platform most; one being the most and six being the least.

The questionnaires consisted of questions regarding the number of hours they use social media per day and for what they use social media for. Other questions included the number of hours they study per day, whether they use social media to study or not, and if they do, how do they use it to study and which platforms they use.

The data obtained was analyzed in several ways, with grouping the students with similar answers together, then applying the cross tabulation method to measure the impact and effect of two things, first the frequency of the students usage of social media daily, against their overall grade average, and also the number of hours they spend daily on studying with the hours spent on social media.

4. Findings and Discussion

There was a total of 110 responses received. The demographics were 68% females and 32% males. The majority of the respondents were between 16 and 17 years old and they made up 72% of the respondents. The rest of the 28% were 14, 15, 18 and 19 years old. This means the majority were from grades 11 and 12, which are 85% of the respondents.

The respondents were asked to mention their overall grade range at school. 61% of the respondents were between the 90-100% grade range, 20% were of the 80-90% grade range and 9% were of the 70-80% grade range, leaving 10% of the grade range 70% and below.

When it came to looking at which platforms students use mostly, 41% mostly used Facebook and 32% used Google. The least platform that was used was SnapChat since 40% of the respondents voted for it the least. The other platforms were, Instagram 27% used most frequent. Twitter and YouTube, their level of usage was a three out of five, as observed by the scores on the Likert Scale used in the questionnaire

They were also asked to mention whether they use social media to study or not and how they use social media to study. 92% of the respondents use the internet to study. Others students stated clearly, that they use social media platforms with their math homework since they can Google equations. Therefore, most of them use social media in a positive way, which helps them do better at school.

The respondents were also asked to mention the number of hours they spend daily on social media and studying; the results were quite surprising. 50% of the respondents spend 1-3 hours studying a day and 33% spent that same amount of time on social media per day. From this it is clear that the respondents do not study more often than they browse social media, and the overall grade averages of the majority is quite high.

Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the number of hours the students spend daily on social media networks versus their overall grade range in school. Looking at the results, it is clear that the number of students within the grade range of 90%-100% are 67 in total, which is almost 61% of the total respondents. Looking deeper into the bar graph, it is clear that among the 67 students, the majority of them spend between one to three hours a day, three to six hours a day and more than six hours a day on social media. A minority of them spend less than an hour a day on social media. Moving on to the grade range of 80%-90%, there are a total of 22 students, which is about 20% of the respondents. They are also distributed throughout the four categories of number of hours spent daily on social media. The majority spend between one to three hours on social media, and the second half spend between three to six hours and more than six hours daily on social media.
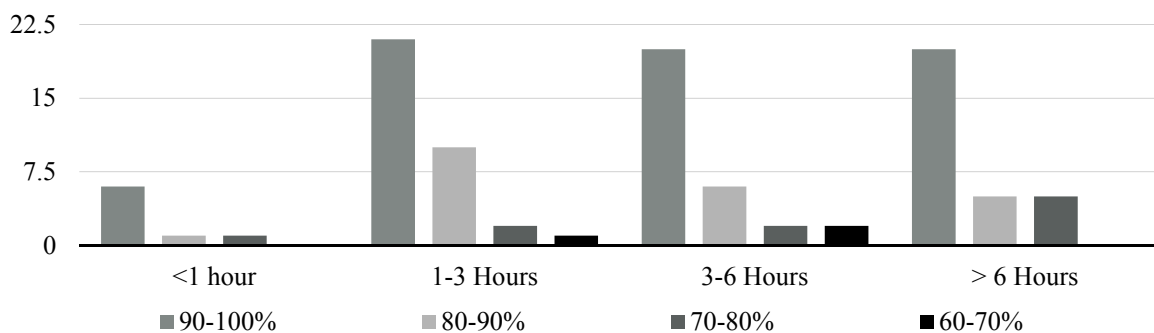

Figure 1. The number of hours spent daily on studying .vs. the overall grade range average

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A Chi Square analysis was conducted to find out whether the differences are significant or not between, the overall grade average, the frequency of using social media and studying daily. Assuming that the significant level is .05 or 5%, and for the first analysis our Null Hypothesis will be 'the frequency of using social media, impacts the students overall grade average in school'.

Table 1. Frequency of social media usage and the number overall grade average of the students

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1317.463[a]	24	.000
Likelihood Ratio	735.781	24	.000
N of Valid Cases	1109		

a. 26 cells (74.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

Table 1 illustrates the Chi Square analysis conducted, between the frequency of social media usage and their overall grade range average, take a look at the note written underneath the table, there is a violation since 74.3% have an expected count less than 5, and this percentage must not exceed 20%. So, the 'Likelihood Ratio' will be considered, which has a significant level of 0.000, which is less than 0.05, therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected.

Table 2. Frequency of social media usage and the number of hours studied per day

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1313.947[a]	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	740.285	16	.000
N of Valid Cases	1109		

a. 16 cells (64.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .06.

Table 2 is another Chi Square analysis conducted, between the use of social media and the number of hours spent daily on studying. The null hypothesis in this case is that 'the usage of social media, effects the number of ours the students study daily; looking at the Chi Square analysis, it is shown again, that, there is a violation regarding the expected count, so the 'Likelihood Ratio' will be considered, and the significant level is 0.000, therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected. The students use of social media does not affect the number of hours they study daily.

According to the above findings, it contradicts what Sanzhar Naizabekov has said, that social media causes procrastination as a result of its distracting nature (Naizabekov, 2012). In this research's case, there is no significant relationship between using social media and the students' academic performance. On the other hand, the results of this research, somehow agrees with the conclusion stated by Napoleon Egedegbe, that, there is no impact either positive or negative, by using social media, on the academic performance of students (Egedegbe, 2013).

5. Conclusion

June Ahn stated, "emerging studies find that youth spend a considerable portion of their daily life interacting through social media." (Ahn, 2011b, p. 1435) According to this study, it is a true statement given that the majority of the Egyptian students spend between one to more than six hours daily on social media platforms, such as Facebook and Google.

As noticed in the discussion, whether the students spend less than one hour on social media or more than six hours on social media, or even the average amount of time which is between one to three and three to six hours a day,

students still share the same grade range average. 61% of the respondents have the highest grade ranges which is 90%-100% and they varied between all four time ranges on social media per day. By this, it is safe to conclude that there is no negative impact from the use of social media on the academic performance of the school students, and it is proven by the Chi Square analysis, which resulted with no significant relationship or difference between both the frequency of using social media with the overall grade average; and with the number of hours spent daily on studying.

The objective of this research was to find out the type of impact that is caused by social media on the students' academic performance, why this impact is caused, and how. After conducting the research, it is clear that social media does not impact school students academic performance in any way because although they spend hours on social media, they still manage to find time to study, and achieve good grades.

6. Limitations

The first limitation of this research is the small range of respondents that were contacted to test the effects of social media on Egyptian youth. As a result of the small range, these generalisations cannot be made to the whole of Egypt. Another limitation of this study was that not much research has been done regarding the impact of social media on the academic performance of the young generation. It was difficult to find a starting point to build on as the majority of the studies conducted regarding the impact of social media was done either on university students' academic performance, or the effects it causes psychologically, and even these were not conducted in Egypt. A third limitation to this study was having a short-period of time to conduct the research. A result of this, is that the generalization of there being no relationship between the use of social media on the academic performance of school students, is not 100% accurate.

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Relationship between Strategic Performance Management and Employee Retention in Commercial Banks in Kenya

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between strategic performance management practices and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya. A survey design was used to gather the information needed to achieve the objectives. Qualitative and quantitative techniques were used. The study was carried out in commercial banks in Kenya which had operating Licenses from the Central bank of Kenya. Questionnaires were used to collect the data. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics mainly percentages and frequency distribution. Correlation and regression analysis were used to test the relationship between the variables. The study established that organizations used strategic performance management through clear action value plan, target setting, setting of the realistic budgets, forecasting, performance measurements and review and finally compensation based on performance. The strategic performance management influenced the employee retention. The study recommended that the management of all commercial banks should employ more strategic performance management practices with the view of enhancing employee retention.

Keywords: employee retention, human resource management, strategic performance management

1. Introduction

Organizations are open systems operating in turbulent environment (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). They can also be conceived of as complex networks of relationships between workers and managers of different grades within and between teams (Wright 2003). Globalization and its forces have also led to increased awareness and made customers to put pressure for better value products and services thus necessitating development of service quality strategies through the understanding of quality as perceived by the consumers of the services and products. The banking sector in Kenya is governed by the companies Act, the Banking Act, the central bank of Kenya act and the various guidelines issued by the central bank of Kenya (GOK). The central bank of Kenya which falls under the Ministry of finance docket is responsible for formulating and implementing monitoring policy and fostering the liquidity, solvency and proper functioning of the financial system. The banks have come together in Kenya under the Kenya bankers association which serves as a lobby for the banking sector interests. This forms a forum to address issues affecting the members (Central Bank report, 2008).

The commercial banks in Kenya have experienced increased competition for staff over the last few years resulting from increased innovations among the players and new entrants into the market (GOK). A circular from the central bank of Kenya highlights that due to the need for business continuity Management and to ensure that business operations are not adversely affected in the event of a major operational disruption, there is the minimum standards all supervised banking institutions must implement. Most banks in Kenya have embraced online community banking because of the developing interest in buying and selling goods online. Online banking such as Visa have given reason for the bank managers to rethink their strategies in taming the on line market. There has been a stiff competition in Kenyan banking industry in order to serve an informed generation. Most of the banks in Kenya have embraced their strategies in targeting Kenyans in the Diaspora because they are believed to send a lot of money to the banks in Kenya. The strengthening of the Kenyan economy for the last ten years due to the changes in governance has seen a major transformation in the banking industry. Commercial banks have been opened throughout the country to provide financial services.

According to Wright (2004), (HRM) practices are key agents in building and maintaining trust and they permeate an organization and shape the employment relationships. Employees interpret human resource practices and the trustworthiness of management as indicative of the personalized organization's commitment to them. Perception of an organization's fairness and trustworthiness can be shaped through human resource policies and practices .Within each organization the choices of strategies and policies offer statements of intent and the nature of their implementation and delivery provides tangible evidence of the extent to which management's intentions are genuine and can be trusted (Skinner 2004). Implementation of the various (HR) policies and the consistency of their implementation are important as they provide tangible evidence of the fairness of the organization Armstrong (2002). According to Tzafrir (2005) trust in senior management is more likely to be based on the outcomes of organizational decisions and less on their interpersonal attributes meaning that it is not just the outcomes of organizational decisions that are important but also the way the said decisions are communicated.

Porter (2007) highlighted that a set of high performing human resource practices such as recruitment, training, job design, participation, teamwork, work life balance and rewards were noted as important aspects in attainment of Job fit and this in the long term implies that people experience better fit with the job and the organization when more extensive human resource practices are in place. Storey (2000) says that after organizational entry, in the training, performance appraisal, recognition and reward stages of the Human resource cycle, organizations continue to manage fit levels. Training and development practices are used not only for enhancing skills and knowledge needed to perform well in the job but also for strengthening the desired values. Ashleigh (2007) noted that the safety of the training environment is crucial for team members to learn about each other and develop trust. The supportive environment also fosters positive feelings about working with other team members.

According to Dimba (2010), management of performance within organizations' is widely accepted as being crucial in the achievement of various significant outcomes related to organizational success, including the productivity and quality of employees, their commitment and job satisfaction and consequently forms a key component of human resource management strategy and practice. Performance appraisal is a system that assesses the quality and quantity of an employees work. According to (CIPD, 2005) human resource strategies reflect the philosophy of senior management with regard to the treatment of human resources and address the various activities related to their management, meaning that the HR function supports corporate goals by developing and implementing people management practices which engage employees and encourage them to direct their efforts towards the achievement of organizational goals. Dimba (2010) gives that strategic human resource management practices that best predict high performance are training and development and compensation practices coupled with motivation. Luthans (2005) noted that the strategic human resource management practices for competitive advantage are: information sharing, job design, programmes, job analysis methods, participation programmes, incentive based compensation, benefits, training, grievance, selection and staffing and performance appraisal.

Stavrou (2005) found that the best human resource management practices are: training, share options, profit sharing, group bonus, merit pay, joint HR management bundle, communication(on strategy, finance, change work organization) career, and wider jobs. Ulrich (2005) identified the need for the HR professionals to move away from traditional HR specialisms and create a range of new roles which focus on business outcomes and organisational performance. He identified the need for Human Resource professional to become business and strategic partners who are crucially involved with senior managers and line managers in strategy execution and value delivery and driving change together with being an employee champion and a functional expert. The discussion of strategic human resource management and human resource strategies emphasizes the role of the human resource practitioner as a business partner (CIPD 2005).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

According to Abeysekera (2007), employee turnover is a major challenge for organizations but companies implementing effective human resource management practices can reduce the rate of employee turnover and increase in competitiveness due to the fact that by retaining staff an organization is able to keep its key asset. It is important to critically examine the actions of competitors as it directly or indirectly affects the organization. There are many ways an organization can retain its employees and gain sustained advantage over their competitors among them being the development of comprehensive human resource practices (Narsimha, 2000). According to Hausknecht (2009) there is so much literature information on employee turnover which gives the factors that cause employees to leave an organization but less is known on what compels employees to stay in an organization.

As a result of globalization the whole world have become single markets where companies have crossed their country of origin and opened their operations in other countries and this has created a challenge for organizations in

terms of management of human resources (Tiwari 2012). Commercial banks in Kenya face many challenges in today's dynamic market place and in a global economy that has become increasingly competitive requiring development of products and services that can satisfy a more demanding customer base and building long term customer trust (Munyoki, 2010). According to Kiptugen (2003) in Kenya commercial Bank, proactive rather than reactive strategies form the basis of strategic planning. Mello (2005) highlights that successful organizations are increasingly realizing that of the number of factors contributing to performance and staff retention, Human resource is the most critical. Commercial banks in Kenya are in very stiff competition for customers and also for staff and these are coupled with the task of retaining the right talent (GOK).

According to Boxall (2003) the big question will which HR policies and practices are more likely to contribute to sustainable competitive advantage and in particular staff retention as organizations go through their life cycle. Purcell (2003) noted that there are two kinds of mature organisations that manage to survive industry development; the one that succeeds in dominating the direction of the industry change and the firm that manages to adopt to the direction of change. Various studies have been carried out on this area, for example Munyoki (2010) researched on the various human resource practices in Commercial banks in Kenya, Kiptugen (2003) carried a study on Human resource practices in commercial banks in Kenya a case study of Kenya commercial bank. Kamoche (2004) carried out a study on staff retention in public universities in Kenya. These studies covered the staff retention in Kenyan universities but did not cover the staff retention in commercial banks in Kenya. This study will investigate the link between the strategic employee recruitment practices and staff retention in Kenyan commercial banks.

1.2 Hypothesis

H$_O$ *There is no significant relationship between strategic performance management and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya.*

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The study used the Hertzberg Two Factor Theory to explain the effect of strategic human resource management and employee retention. According to Samuel (2009) an employee who is not motivated is likely to leave the organization. This theory implied that a satisfied employee is motivated from within to work harde and to remain in the organization. It looks at two classes of factors associated with employee motivation; Satifiers and dissatisfiers. Armstrong (2010) gives the satisfiers as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth. The disatisfiers are salary, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, status and security. According to Michael (2008), extrinsic factors such as good working environment, job security and intrinsic factors such as development and training have a major contribution to employee retention in organizations.

Hughes (2010) employees value both the internal and external factors in an organization to make a decision on whether to remain or leave the employment since they are doing so in exchange of their services to the organization. The above implies that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence the employee retention in an organization and so must always be put in to consideration as these factors are likely to influence retention. The theory fits into this study because there are factors both extrinsic and intrinsic which have been found to influence employee retention in the organization.

2.2 Strategic Performance Management

Performance appraisals are not uncommon to the banking industry. However, what counts as an appraisal or performance management varies a great deal in sophistication and organization. Here, the researcher seek to characterize 'performance management' as a type of Human Resource practice that can effectively help an organization to meet its retention objectives, in addition to other important business goals. As such, the researcher is referring to a process of employee performance evaluation that is closely tied to strategic objectives, that provides good feedback to employees and gives them a view of their longer-term progress within the company, and is potentially married to training and other development opportunities.

Performance appraisals inform a number of Human Resource decisions related to compensation, training, promotion, and even termination. However, as part of a human resources policy that values open communication and employee commitment, performance appraisals also allow objectives and values to be effectively communicated to employees and can ensure a steady stream of critical feedback about business processes (Dalton, & Mesch, 1990). When closely aligned with ongoing training and career development, performance management can be a successful retention tool. According to Hom (1995) performance management aligns the goals of individual members to those of the organization with which they are associated. It requires clearly articulated and well-communicated strategic goals for the organization as a whole.

As with other retention practices, employee perceptions about the performance appraisal system can have an important impact on their decision to stay with a company. Most importantly, effective performance management requires a system that is fair, and that employees trust as being fair, both in terms of procedure (for example, consistent and well-communicated evaluation criteria) and in terms of the potential benefits arising from such evaluations (for example, training, professional development). Indeed, fairness and openness about the evaluation process are of paramount importance when performance management is tied to specific rewards or advancement.

Price and Mueller (1981) developed a causal model for voluntary turnover. They proposed seven determinants that have an indirect impact on turnover through job satisfaction. Those determinants include: repetitive work, participating in job related decisions, being informed of job related issues, having close friends as co-workers, receiving good pay, being fairly compensated and having an opportunity to obtain a better job within the organization. Price and Mueller proposed that as job satisfaction increased, employee's showed a greater intent to stay with the organization.

Watson and Wyatt International found that HR practices and trust in management had the strongest impact on building commitment (Watson Wyatt, 1999). A study conducted from the social exchange theory perspective shows that organizations which exhibit a high level of commitment to their employees through HR practices, are rewarded with increased organizational effectiveness, employee involvement and commitment to the organization (Whitener, 2001). These high commitment HR practices include items such as selective staffing, developmental appraisal, competitive and equitable compensation, and comprehensive training and development activities (Whitener, 2001). Huselid (1995) found nearly one thousand firms, which invest in high performance HR management practices, including: comprehensive employee recruitment and selection procedures, incentive compensation and performance management systems, and extensive employee involvement and training. These practices were found to have both an economically and statistically significant impact on employee turnover and productivity (Huselid, 1995).

According to Willis (2000), direct compensation serves as the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and retaining talents. Parker and Wright (2000) also assert that there is an underlying assumption that money can influence behaviour hence a fair remuneration is understood to be the cornerstone of the contractual and implied agreement between employees and employers. As a result, some companies may even provide remuneration packages which are well above the market rate to attract and retain critical talents (Parker & Wright, 2000). Most managers believe that money is the prime retention factor and many employees cite better pay or higher compensation as the reason for leaving one employer for another (Mathis & Jackson, 2004). Khan (2010) argues that comprehensive compensation and rewards augmented by an effectual system of disbursement can play an effective role in attracting the best candidates, shaping employee behaviour and performance outcome, and facilitating retention of talents.

A number of studies have established that highly competitive wage systems promote employee commitment and thus result in the attraction and retention of a superior workforce (Becker & Huselid, 1999; Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005). Mathis and Jackson (2004) also argued that a balanced, fair and competitive compensation and reward system affect the retention of employees. This makes compensation and reward planning a vital dimension of effective HRM policies. Even though the reviewed literature have shown that the various performance management indicators like competitive wage, performance appraisal, training, the reward system among others have been found to influence employee retention in various organizations mainly in the developed countries, it would be interesting to find out the effect of strategic performance management in the commercial banks in Kenya.

2.3 Employee Retention

According to Abeysekera (2007), employee turnover is a major challenge for organizations but companies implementing effective human resource management practices can reduce the rate of employee turnover and increase in competitiveness due to the fact that by retaining staff an organization is able to keep its key asset. It is important to critically examine the actions of competitors as it directly or indirectly affects the organization. According to Kok (2003) there are sets of human resource practices which are influenced by the human resource profession and which are referred to as best practice and which if well implemented will ensure retention of staff. According to Chandler (2000), the main issue in human resource research is whether there is a set of policies and practice that represent a set of superior approach to managing people and which are associated with organizational performance and staff retention. There are various factors which affect human resource practices which include both internal and external factors and the same differs from one organization to another (Ozutku 2009). According to Narsimha (2000), there are many ways in which companies can gain a competitive edge or a lasting or sustained advantage over their competitors, among them the development of comprehensive human resource practices.

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To gain competitive advantage firms use different competitive strategies and these strategies are more productive when they are systematically linked with human resource management practices meaning that organizations can improve their environment by making efficient choices about human resource practices that consistently support the chosen strategy (Tiwari 2012). According to Capelli (2001), human resource practices enhance organizational performance and there is a clear link between human resource practices, workplace climate and employee retention. He found that those organizations which had implemented more progressive human resource practices and which reported a work place climate that strongly valued employee participation, empowerment and accountability tended to be better performing and hence competitive meaning employees will be happy continuing to work with them. With the high turnover in the commercial banks in Kenya, the study aimed at determining how the strategic performance management would influence employee retention.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This was a survey research design. A survey design was appropriate for this study because it allows collection of information for both independent and dependent variables using questionnaires (Orodho, 2003). This design allowed the researcher to combine both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. According to Kothari (2009) qualitative approaches provide verbal descriptions rather than numerical descriptions.

3.2 Population

The target population in this study was the forty four commercial banks in Kenya which had been given operational License by the Central bank of Kenya. The study population for this study was the heads of human resources in the individual commercial banks in Kenya. Due to manageability of the population, the researcher used census study in which all the elements participated in the study.

3.3 Data Collection

The research instrument was a questionnaire consisting of both open- ended and closed- ended type of questions. The closed ended questions were aimed at giving precise information hence minimizing bias. The open ended questions ensured that the respondents were given freedom to express themselves. The questionnaire in this study was divided into six sections with section one giving the identification of the respondent and the job title. The other sections had questions aimed at providing the information on the various areas of this study. Secondary data was collected through review of published literature such as the various bank publications, central bank of Kenya reports and publications and text books. The questionnaires were then delivered by the researcher with the help of the two research assistants to the respondents. The respondents were waited to fill the questionnaire and those who were not in a position to fill them were given a maximum of two weeks to fill them after which the questionnaires were collected.

3.4 Data Processing and Analysis

In this study data were analysed using Statistical package for social science (SPSS). All the questionnaires received were referenced and items in the questionnaire coded to make data entry easy. Descriptive statistics were estimated for the various variables. Frequency tables and graphs were made for all the variables. The data reliability was checked using the Cronbachs alpha index. Inferential data analysis was done using Pearson correlation coefficient, regression analysis (enter method) and multiple regression analysis (step wise method). The correlation was used to determine the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to establish the relationship between the various strategic human resource practices and employee retention. Hypothesis testing using p-value was done because it gave the strength of the decision. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) a significance level of 0.05 is recommended as it represents that results are at 95% confidence level. The statistical models to be used for analysis was multiple regression (enter method).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \epsilon$$

Where Y is the dependent variable employee retention

B_0 is the constant

B is the coefficient of X_1

X_1 is strategic performance management

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4. Findings

4.1 Reliability Test

The Cronbach's Alpha values for all the indicators before and after extraction with a factor loadings value of less than 0.4 is presented. Cronbach's Alpha results in the first column were computed using results of all the indicators and the Cronbach's Alpha results in the last column were computed after the reduction of indicators/factors with factor loadings of less than 0.4. The Table 3 presents that all the seven factors had Cronbach's alpha value of 0.967 and factor loading between 0.936 and 0.738. This rule out elimination of the strategic performance management factors as none of the factors had a loading of less than 0.40. The Cronbanch's alpha value remained 0.967 since all the factors were retained. The Cronbach's Alpha value of more than 0.7 implied that the gathered data was reliable and therefore could be used for generalization.

Table 1. Factor analysis and reliability of strategic performance management

Cronbach's Alpha before	Indicators	Factors loading	Cronbach's Alpha after
.967	The management carries out performance review of its actual performance, targets and forecast for timely and corrective action	.936	.967
	The organization practices regular forecasting to evaluate whether it is still on track	.901	
	The organization sets realistic budgets	.881	
	The organization gives incentive compensation to its employees for motivation	.873	
	The organization practices performance measurement	.796	
	The organization practices target setting for all its employees.	.792	
	The organization has a clear action value plan used to measure the performance	.738	

4.2 Strategic Performance Management

The respondents were asked to state the level of agreement with the statements regarding to strategic performance management. The findings in Table 2 show that majority of the respondents (72.5%) indicated that indeed the organization had clear action value plan used to measure the performance. As to whether the organizations practiced target setting for their employees, the study findings revealed that 67.5% of the respondents agreed that indeed the organizations practiced target setting for their employees. The findings show that 10% strongly agreed with the statement. The findings imply that most organizations practiced target setting for their employees. The study sought to determine whether the organizations set realistic targets with their employees. The findings of the study show that 72.5% of the respondents agreed that the organizations set realistic targets. The study sought to establish whether the organizations practiced regular forecasting to evaluate whether they were still on track. The findings show that 72.5% of the respondents agreed that the organizations practiced regular forecasting to evaluate their performance. On the practice of performance measurement by the organizations, the results show that 72.5% of the respondents agreed that the organizations practiced performance measurement. The results therefore mean that the organizations practiced the performance measurement to a large extent. The study sought to determine whether the management carried out performance review of its actual performance, targets and forecast for timely and corrective action. The results show that 77.5% of the respondents agreed that the managements carried out performance review of their actual performance, targets and forecast for timely and corrective action. Respondents were asked to state whether the organizations the gives incentive compensation to its employees for motivation. The results show that 75.0% of the respondents agreed that the organizations gives incentive compensation to its employees for motivation. The findings mean that the organizations motivate their employees through incentive compensations.

Table 2. Strategic performance management

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
The organization has a clear action value plan used to measure the performance	0.0	7.5	15.0	72.5	5.0	100.0
The organization practices target setting for all its employees.	5.0	5.0	12.5	67.5	10.0	100.0
The organization sets realistic budgets	5.0	10.0	5.0	72.5	7.5	100.0
The organization practices regular forecasting to evaluate whether it is still on track	7.5	7.5	7.5	72.5	5.0	100.0
The organization practices performance measurement	2.5	5.0	12.5	72.5	7.5	100.0
The management carries out performance review of its actual performance, targets and forecast for timely and corrective action	0.0	12.5	7.5	77.5	2.5	100.0
The organization gives incentive compensation to its employees for motivation	5.0	10.0	5.0	75.0	5.0	100.0

4.3 Employee Retention

The study sought to determine the employee retention in the organizations. The respondents were asked to state the rate of turnover in the organization was minimal. The results show that half of the respondents (50%) agreed that the rate of turnover in their respective organizations were low. The findings show that 12.5% of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. The study sought to determine whether the respondents had the intention of leaving the organizations. The findings of the study show that slightly more than half of the respondents (55%) had no intention of leaving the organizations. The findings also show that 30% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. As to whether their work gives satisfaction to the employees, the findings show that majority of the respondents (77.5%) agreed that within the organizations their work gave them satisfaction. The study sought to find out how long the respondents intended to stay in the organization. The findings of the study show that 42.5% agree that they saw future for themselves within this company. The findings show that 40.0% remained neutral as to whether they were seeing their future in the organization. The results mean that only a section of the respondents see future for themselves in the organization. On whether they were willing to work for the organization for the next five years, the results show that majority of the respondents (77.5%) agreed that they would be working for their organizations for the next five years. Respondents were asked to state whether if it were possible to start all over again, they would seek employment elsewhere. The findings show that half of the respondents (50%) indicated that indeed given chance they would seek job elsewhere if they were to start all over again. The respondents were asked to state whether they would take up a job given an attractive offer. The findings show that majority of the respondents (70%) agreed that they would take up the offer. The findings mean that the respondents would take up a better opportunity if they came across. The findings however show that 62.5% of the respondents agreed that the work they did was very important to them. The findings of the study that the employees would leave if they got better offer, agree with Mathis and Jackson (2004) and Khan (2010) who argued that most managers believe that money is the prime reason for leaving one employer for another.

Table 3. Employee retention

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
The rate of turnover in the organization is minimal	0.0	15.0	22.5	50.0	12.5	100.0
Have no intention of leaving the organization	2.5	12.5	30.0	47.5	7.5	100.0
Within this company my work gives me satisfaction.	2.5	5.0	12.5	77.5	2.5	100.0
I see a future for myself within this company.	5.0	12.5	40.0	42.5	0.0	100.0
If it were up to me, I will definitely be working for this company for the next five years.	2.5	5.0	12.5	77.5	2.5	100.0
If I could start over again, I would choose to work for another company.	5.0	10.0	35.0	45.0	5.0	100.0
If I received an attractive job offer from another company, I would take the job.	2.5	7.5	12.5	70.0	7.5	100.0
The work I'm doing is very important to me.	2.5	7.5	22.5	62.5	5.0	100.0
I love working for this company.	2.5	7.5	27.5	45.0	17.5	100.0

4.4 Whether Strategic Performance Management Influenced Employee Retention

The study sought to determine the extent to which the strategic performance management influenced employee retention. The findings in Figure 4.1 show that that 32.5% of the respondents indicated that the strategic performance management influenced the employee retention to a large extent. The findings further show that 25% of the respondents indicated that it influenced to a very large extent. From the findings of the study, it was evident that most organizations practiced forecasting to evaluate their position in the business. The findings agree with the views of Grigore, Bagu and Rada (2011) that organizations do regular forecasting to predict whether they are on track or whether correction and/or predictive action are needed to solve current or predicted problems. The findings that the organizations performed performance reviews for the employee agreed that Grigore, Bagu and Rada (2011) views that organizations should periodically review actual performance targets and forecasts to ensure that timely preventive and corrective action are taken. The findings of the study that the organization used incentive compensation to motivate its employees as a strategy for employee retention support the views of Willis (2000) and Parker and Wright (2000) who noted that compensation serves as the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and retaining talents. The fact that the organizations practiced strategic performance management where the employees are given incentive compensation for motivation for the retention of the employees, the fact that the organizations practiced target setting, setting of the realistic budgets is also supported by Walker (2001) that the employee retention was influenced by compensation and appreciation of the work performed, the provision of the challenging work, the chances to be promoted and the learning and good communication among others.
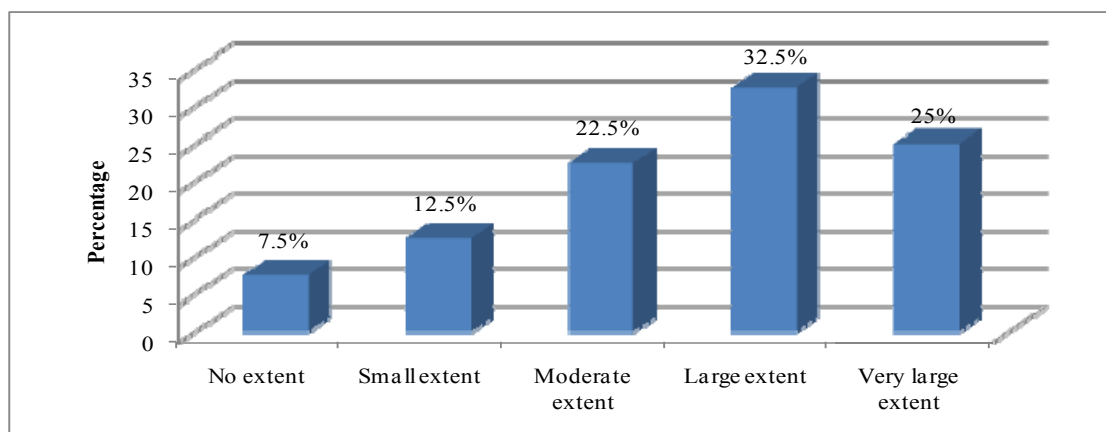

Figure 1. Whether strategic performance management influenced employee retention

4.5 Correlation Analysis

The study conducted correlation analysis to test the strength of association/relationship between the research variables. The findings of the study in Table 4 show that there is a positive relationship between strategic performance management and employee retention with a Pearson's Correlation Coefficient of r = 445 and at level of significance of 0.004, was statistically significant as the p-value is less than 0.05. The relationship can be described as not strong.

Table 4. Correlation analysis

		Strategic performance management	Employee retention
Strategic performance management	Pearson Correlation	1	.445
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.004
	Pearson Correlation	.445	1
Employee retention	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	

4.6 Regression Analysis

The researcher conducted a regression analysis to determine the significance relationship of strategic recruitment against the employee retention. The results in Table 5 show that the coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.482 which means that 48.2% of the variance in employee retention in the organization is explained by strategic performance management. This though positive is a weak representation and therefore means there are equally other factors which determine employee retention in the organization.

Table 5. Model summary for strategic performance management

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.694[a]	.482	.468	.660

a. Predictors: (Constant), Strategic performance management

The analysis of variance shows that the significance of the F is 0.00 which is less than 0.05. This implies that the regression model is statistically a significant predictor of the outcome variable.

Table 6. ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.364	1	15.364	35.305	.000[a]
	Residual	16.536	38	.435		
	Total	31.900	39			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Strategic performance management

b. Dependent Variable: Employee retention

The beta coefficients of strategic performance management verses the employee retention results in Table 7 showed that there was significant relationship between the strategic performance management and the employee retention was positive since the coefficient of strategic performance management is 0.591 which is significantly greater than zero. The t statistics (1.679) was also greater than zero. This demonstrated that the strategic performance management had a positive influence on the retention of employees in the organization. Since the significance value of 0.000 which is less than the p-value of 0.05, the study rejects the null hypothesis that *there is no significant relationship between strategic performance management and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya.* The null hypothesis that there is significant relationship between strategic performance management on employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya is therefore accepted.

Table 7. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.382	.363		3.803	.001
	Strategic performance management	.591	.099	.694	5.942	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee retention

5. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study the study concluded that the organizations used strategic performance management through clear action value plan, target setting, setting of the realistic budgets, forecasting, performance measurements and review and finally compensation based of performance. The strategic performance management influenced the employee retention. The study therefore concluded that the strategic human resource management influenced the employee retention.

6. Recommendations

The study recommended that the management of commercial banks should employ more strategic performance management such as setting targets, performance measurements performance review and giving incentive to employees the with the view of enhancing employee retention.

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Effect of Leadership Style on the Delivery of Quality Education in Public Technical and Vocational Education Institutions in Kenya

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of leadership style on the delivery of quality education in public technical and vocational education institutions in Kenya. The study adopted Survey research design while target population was 689 employees in the Ministry of Educations' Directorate of Technical Education, National Polytechnics and Technical Institutions. Simple random, stratified and purposive l sampling techniques were used to select 11 managers in Directorate of Technical Education, 15 administrators from National Polytechnics and other technical institutions, and 220 instructors from technical institutions. Data was collected using structured questionnaires and interview schedules. Data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 17.0. Descriptive and inferential statistics and content and analyses were used for specific data. Regression analysis was done to determine the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. The analysis was further amplified by subjecting selected results to graphical and tabular techniques. The study established that the leadership style influenced the success of the reforms process in the organizations as the process became more successful where the management involved other staff in the process but took the leadership role which will in turn enhanced the quality of the technical education. The study also established that the leadership style directly influenced the quality of education to a large extent. The study recommended that the management of the technical educational institutions should adopt leadership styles which could accommodate the views of every staff and involved everyone in the process but the management should show that way of reforms or change.

Keywords: delivery, leadership style, quality education

1. Introduction

Adaptation to change has become a common agenda for organizations of all types including health care, business, social, governmental, educational, and cultural. The later decades of the twentieth century will go down in history as an era of perpetual change. As such change has been an integral part of human development with knowledge and education at its core (Kennedy & Lee, 2008). Knowledge and curiosity have brought enormous change in the human situation and its physical and socio-economic environment. This is due to the increased values placed on education as a vital tool for development. According to Ojiambo (2009), education development would lead to accelerated economic growth, more wealth and income distribution, greater quality of opportunity, availability of skilled manpower, decline in population growth, long life, better health outcomes, low crimes rate ,national unity and political stability.

Since education systems the world over are responsible for knowledge generation and transfer in society, the struggle to regulate the cyclic and complex association between change and knowledge has been underway at different levels of the reforms with varying degrees of implementation success (Haris, 2009; Levin, 2009). The motives behind these regulations have always been pristine, especially in the presence of political expediency (Gunter, 2008; Hargeaves, 2005; Harris, 2011; Levin and Fullan, 2008; Levin, 2010), market ruthlessness (Cheng, 2010; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009; Hill, 2009) and even religious predispositions in some education systems (Kennedy & Lee, 2008).

According to a study by Margherita (2006), educational reforms in fourteen European countries (viz Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom) were intended to make more youth attend colleges. The study found that these policy changes resulted in one additional year in school in

some countries while in others it resulted in up to three additional years of schooling. In the United States of America (U.S.A), the reforms were aimed at producing graduates who will be competitive in the global market arena (Berube, 2004).

In Africa educational reforms were done for various reasons and with mixed levels of success. In South Africa the post-apartheid educational reforms were geared towards achieving equality because the government inherited one of the most unequal societies in the world (Bhikha, 2002). The reforms focused on three interventions namely: education finance reform, curriculum reform and teacher rationalization process (Bhikha, 2002). According to Jansen and Taylor (2003), the reforms achieved only little success due to what he terms as lack of wide systematic thinking, uncoordinated nature of the initiatives and the conflicting logic of the different initiatives. In Benin educational reforms were not implemented due to lack of budgetary support after United States Agency for International Development (USAID) withdrew its support and the national government was unable to finance the reforms alone (Bhikha, 2002). In Uganda, national politics often superseded educational reform goals and the local communities frequently received mixed signals regarding their involvement in their children's education (Moulton et al., 2002).

Educational change in Kenya dates back to the early years of post independent Kenya. After independence, the government appointed a committee of eminent Kenyans chaired by Prof. Ominde in 1964 and Gachukia, (2003) to collect views from the people and reform the education sector to be more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya. They recommended a system that will foster national unity; create human resources and development (Sessional Paper no. 1 2005).

The implementation of these reforms has however not achieved the desired outcome. Various factors have been found to influence the change process in organizations (Ochugudu and Ayatse, 2013). One of the factors found to influence the change process in the organizations is the leadership style. Leaders are usually saddled with the responsibilities of achieving the goals and objectives of the organization but the extent to which they can achieve these goals depend on the style of leadership adopted in line with the dynamics of the time. Strong leadership is the backbone of an organization. Leaders create the vision, support the strategies, and are the catalyst for developing the individual bench strength to move the organization forward. Yet leadership can be an elusive characteristic, and developing leaders to their full potential remains one of the greatest challenges for organizations today. This makes leadership question a serious issue for both researchers and managers alike. This study sought to determine whether the leadership style in the technical training institutions have influenced the quality of education through the change management.

The word 'leadership' has been used in various aspects of human endeavour such as politics, businesses, academics, social works, etc. with each of the environment having it own peculiarities and requiring different leadership style. Thus, the degree to which an individual exhibits leadership traits and succeed depends not only on his characteristics and personal abilities, but also on the characteristics of the situation and environment in which he finds himself. Leadership style in an organization is one of the factors that play significant role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals in the organization. It is the manner and approach of providing direction, motivating people and achieving objectives. Thus, Glantz (2002) emphasizes the need for a manager to find his leadership style.

Often, the style of leadership adopted by a leader to drive the organization towards its goal can be influence by his or her background, personal experience, inclination, ideology, culture and even orientation without necessarily being based on the dynamics of the situation. This, to a large extent has been the major factor for leadership failure. The import of leadership and organizational effectiveness is the fact that, if the leader succeeds as a result of the style adopted, the organization also succeeds and if he or she fails the organization also fails. It was therefore important to investigate the influence of the leadership style on the effectiveness of the technical training institutions.

The role of technical educational institutions in Kenya is furnishing skills required to improve productivity, raise income levels and improve access to employment opportunities (Nyerere, 2009). However, the levels of unemployment in the country have been souring every year. This has resulted to the reforms in the sectors such as the Technical, Industrial, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TIVET) Bill 2012 which among others aimed at making the sector shift from time bound curriculum-based training to flexible and competency-based training, from supply-led training to demand-driven training, expansion of the technical institutions to provide training to large numbers of young people who graduate annually from secondary and primary school systems and to harmonize the education training system for East African Countries (Owate, 2012).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Numerous reforms in the technical educational training institutions in Kenya have been launched with the view of addressing such challenges as relevance, educated unemployed, more demand for change in education to fit the industry, infrastructural inequities and dilapidated facilities and shortage of technical teachers (Chang'ach, 2013; Otiato, 2009). The number of students being absorbed in the technical institutions also has been found to be below the threshold (Harris, 2011). For instance, TIVET Act (2012) recommended streamlining curriculum to industrial needs, face-lifting physical facilities and expanding the institutions to accommodate more students. In line with the Act is the Vision 2030 through which Kenya expects to become a newly industrialised, middle-income country, providing high quality life for all its citizens by the year 2030. This will be through the production of produce goods and services of industrial nature that will be sold beyond her borders to generate real income for the country (Government of Kenya, 2007). It is the technical institutions which are expected to take the drivers seat by mass production of well qualified technologists and engineers. Yet the institutions are not producing people who will take the country to this Promised Land (Kenya National Commission of Human Rights, (KNCHR, 2012). Worse still, the remaining national polytechnics have been takeover of the existing technical institutions by the National Universities such as the Kenya Science Teachers College, Muranga College of Technology and Kenya and Mombasa Polytechniques. This has resulted into the dying of the vocational colleges which fed the manufacturing industries with skilled labour (Cheserek & Mugalavai, 2012). This begs the question as to the commitment of the government to the achievement of the industrialization goal and the fate of students who are not admitted to the universities (Varghese, 2013).

Failure in the implementation of the reforms in the education sector in general and technical education in particular has been attributed to lack of consultation of the stakeholders and resistance to change among others which are steered by the organization leaders (Obonyo, 2012). Reforms processes in the education sector are largely change management issues under the watch of the institutional leaders. Visionary leadership with innovative approach is a key to make this change happen successfully. Studies by Kaminski (2000), Senge (1999) and Moran and Brightman (2001) revealed that effective change management require constitution of proper organizational structure including the leadership among others. Kessler (2009), Van Sant (2008) and Tropenbos (2007) found out that the product of effective change management should be better problem solving in an institution that leads to improved quality service to customers. It was against the background of the importance of leadership style on the effectiveness of that this study sought to evaluate the change management capacity with regard to the leadership style on the quality of education in the technical institutions in Kenya.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Kotter's Eight-Step Model

Kotter, one of the most respected experts on the subject of change developed the Eight-Step change management Model.

The first step is to increase urgency for change, which means that management needs to convince employees that this change is necessary for the company to survive (Rose 2011). This also means having to communicate that the change is achievable without any detrimental effects on their jobs.

The next step is to build a team for the change, which has to be of some respected employees in the company. Building an effective team is based on trust and a common goal. When trust is present, you will usually be able to create teamwork (Kotter 1996).

The third step is to construct vision, which will show clear vision as to how the change will better the future of the company and their jobs. In a change process a good vision serves three important purposes; it clarifies the general direction for change and motivates people to take action in the right direction, even if the initial steps are painful. It helps coordinate the actions of different people, even thousands and thousands of individuals, in a remarkably fast and efficient way (Kotter 1996).

The fourth step is to communicate this vision. In order for the vision to work it must be fully understand by the employees, which means that it s necessary for the leaders of the change group to follow this vision. Nothing undermines the communication of a change vision more than behaviour on the part of key players that seems inconsistent with the vision (Kotter, 1996).

The fifth step is to empower the employees to execute the change. With the right structure, training, systems and supervisors to build on a well-communicated vision, increasing numbers of firms are finding they can tap enormous sources of power to improve organisational performance (Kotter, 1996).

The sixth step is the creation of short-term goals. By creating short-term goals, we assist the employees to accept the change by showing them progress. Rewards are very important at this stage too.

The seventh step is about persistence because we should influence more change even after the short-term goals are met or the original plan for change will cease and die.

The final step is to make the change permanent by moving and fitting it into the company's culture and practices, such as promotion (Chapman 2006).

The theory was applicable in this study because the researcher had theorized that lack of good leadership leads to erratic implementation of educational reforms (Cheserek and Mugalavai, 2012). The theory also concurred with the views of Tichy (1983) which held that competent policy makers are able to craft visions that earns an organization a competitive advantage. Leaders needed training on teamwork and communication skills to effectively manage change process in their institutions.

2.2 Leadership Style

Leadership and its role are the most concerning issue for the business and organizations now days. Leaders are individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals and who gain commitment from this group of members to established direction and who then motivate members to achieve the direction's outcomes (Conger, 1992). The term leadership can be viewed through multiple angles and concepts. Traditionally leadership is a set of feature owned by the leader or it is a social phenomenon that comes from relationship with groups.

These concepts can give different opinions about the definition of leadership. It is a continuous debate that whether the leadership comes from the personal qualities of a leader or a leader makes followership through what he does or believes (Grint 2004). Grint also highlight position problems with the leadership, which explores, is the leader a person in charge? With the true authority to decide or implement, or it is only a person in front who takes h/her directions for someone. Recent reviews take leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse 2004). Another view about leadership is that "leadership is like the Abominable Snowman, whose footprints are everywhere but who is nowhere to be seen" (Bennis and Nanus 1985).

Dunphy and Stace describe an organization leadership as a person who can promote change in an organization by its vision and strategy (Senior and Fleming 2006). In this era of rapidly changing business trends and increased customer demands, the role of leadership is more crucial now a days. The strategic leadership is eagerly needed for organizations, which is well capable to predict the essential alterations and changes, in advance and create required commitment and highly suitable atmosphere for worker and teams to understand and adopt these changes successfully. This action by leaders is decisive not only for the effectiveness of the organization but also for its very survival (Burke & Cooper, 2004).

Various leadership styles have been found to influence the change process in the organization. Most notable is the bureaucratic leadership style. Bureaucratic leadership style refers to the following of the predetermined rules and policies of organization (Kellerman, 2003). The leaders are not dynamic and they never change their behavior with the changing environment. Bureaucratic leadership is characterized by leaders that follow the rules precisely and use positional power to influence results. The characteristics of the bureaucratic style include: leaders impose strict and systematic discipline on the followers, and demand business-like conduct in the workplace. They are empowered via the office they hold (position power) and followers are promoted based on their ability to conform to the rules of the office. Subordinates are expected obey leaders because authority is bestowed upon the leader as part of their position in the company (Noer, 1997).

Bureaucratic leader, like authoritarian leader, tells people what to do and how to do. But the bases of all his orders are solely organizational policies, procedures and guidelines. Rules are absolute for bureaucratic leaders. He really works by job description and his job as a manager is more like a judge and he wouldn't accept any exception in rules even in special technical issues. This leader gives people little or no freedom (SeyedJavadin, 2007).

Bureaucratic leaders are also transactional as they impose strict discipline on subordinates and promotions are based on conformity to rules and performance results. Subordinates are expected to follow orders of the leader because of the authority that resides with his position (Kellerman, 2003). This type of leader is only beneficial in hazardous types of jobs where safety is paramount and standards are expected to be followed exactly to ensure accuracy. However, this leadership type may not be applicable in the technical institutions where reforms are being initiated and proper change management process is required. Sorensen and Yukongdi (2010) argued that bureaucracy affected the performance of the employees in an organization because it has significant impact on job satisfaction.

Participatory leadership plays an important role in growing inner capabilities and priorities the success of the organization (O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, Lapiz and Self, 2010).

Bainbridge (1996) argues that creation and design of change processes within an organization is most often a role of the participatory leaders within it. Change processes are the mandate of leaders engaged in the management of change. It is up to the participatory leaders to make these change initiatives tangible rather than abstract and to awaken enthusiasm and ownership of the proposed changes within the organizations.

For an effective change, the study revealed that charismatic leadership and trust in top management both are important. They are strongly correlated (positively) with change implementing behavior, monitoring of anticipators, management level, and department connection (Michaelis, Stegmaier & Sonntag, 2009). According to Noer (1997), the leader, as a person, is the most important tool for change. The leader's spirit, insight, wisdom, compassion, values, and learning skills are all important facets in the capabilities to lead others to embrace change and redesign. The leader who prompts change within a firm is often subject to approximate thought (Nadler & Nadler, 1998). It is the leadership's behavior that makes the change situations more effective (Higgs & Rowland, 2005).

2.3 Quality of Education

Liston (1999) defined quality of education as the total effect of the features of the process, or service on its performance, or the customer's or clients' perception of that performance. It is not just a feature of a finished product or service but involved a focus on internal processes and outputs, and included the reduction of waste and the improvement of productivity. This view of quality applied to education implied that quality cannot be measured by looking at the outputs which are the examination results. Rather it is the internal efficiency of the school system, which controls for wastages in form of school dropouts, repetition rates, or wastage ratios, is a more appropriate measure of the quality of education.

Liston (1999) further argued that quality was related more to the relevance and value of each institution's mission, purpose and objectives and the achievement of identified outcomes. Low capacity of change management in the sector would hamper the achievement of the identified educational objectives. Hoy, Bayne–Jardine and Wood (2000) said that quality was what was good for the school and its students.

Another way of looking at the quality of education is to use the effective schools view which advocates for the black box technique of measuring inputs and outputs (Namaswa, 2009). For a social service like education, this approach cannot be applied in total, as it overlooks certain immeasurable attributes of good education that cannot be read from mere pass rates. Hoy *et al.* (2000) referred to the 1998 Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the public's attitudes towards public schools' effectiveness. The percentage of students graduating from high school was rated highest at 82% while scores of students in standardized tests was ranked lowest at 50%. The public thus viewed quality more to do with the total effect schooling had on the individual rather than just examination results.

According to Ministry of Education (2008) all aspects of the school and its surrounding community, the rights of the whole child, and all children to survival, protection, development and participation are at the centre. This meant that the focus was on learning which strengthened the capacities of children to act progressively on their own through the acquisition of relevant knowledge, useful skills and appropriate attitudes; and which creates for children, and helps them create for themselves and others, places of safety, security and healthy interaction (Bernard, 1999). Many definitions of quality in education exist, testifying to the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept. The terms efficiency, effectiveness, equity and quality have often been used synonymously (Adams, 1993).

Curriculum has been defined as the foundation of the teaching-learning process that any quality education will depend on its relevance (Sahlberg, 2011). The development of programs of study, learning and teaching resources, lesson plans and assessment of students and even teacher education are all based on relevance of the curriculum (Levin, 2007).

According to De Coninck (2008), curriculum, more than ever before, is now viewed as being at the centre of daily life and the responsibility of society as a whole. Levin (2007) noted that curriculum documents were a very large part of the work done by ministries of education in creating curriculum content. However, over time, the above study stated that educational change is more complex, and as governments have attempted to make large-scale changes, curriculum change has become less of an activity in its own right and curriculum renewal has become part of a broader strategy for change in education to enhance its quality (Sahlberg, 2011).

The reforms in the education sector are aimed at improving the quality of education through improvement of the performance of the students through achievement of better grades. Studies have shown that academic performance which is achievement of good grades remains a crucial factor in determining who graduates from high school and

who proceeds to college (Perna, 2005; Silver, Saunders & Zarate, 2008). A number of studies, for example, have found that high school performance and postsecondary educational status is influenced by a student's academic trajectory beginning as early as elementary school which is influenced by the quality of education right from the beginning (Zarate & Gallimore, 2009).

3. Methodology

The study adopted a survey research design to evaluate the management capacity with respect to organizational structure on the quality of technical education in Kenya. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) surveys enable researchers to obtain data about practices, situations or views at one point in time through questionnaires and interviews. It is concerned with the questions as what, how and why of a phenomenon which was the concern for the study (Kothari, 2004). Surveys produce quantitative descriptions of some aspects of the study population of which the study sought to determine the effect of organizational structure on the quality of education.

The target population was all employees in the technical training institutions in Kenya and the management of the Ministry of Educations' Directorate of Technical Education. According to the Directorate's human resource department, there were 31 employees in the job groups M to S which is the management cadre. The study targeted all the 47 technical institutes under the TIVET sector in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labour and Human Resources Development. The study targeted the management and instructors of technical institutions. According to the Directorate of Technical Institutions (2012), there were 4,124 instructors in the public technical institutions in Kenya.

The researcher sampled 14 technical institutions from the total 47 which represented 30% of the target population which is in line with Mugenda and Mugenda's (2003) recommended 30% of the population. The researcher then sampled 242 respondents using both stratified random sampling and purposive sampling which is 37% of the population of the sampled technical institutions. The first strata were the managers of the Directorate of Technical Education. The second strata had the National Polytechnics while the third strata were the other 11 technical institutions.

The research Instruments comprised of structured questionnaires and interview schedules. The questionnaires were preferred as the most suitable instruments for the data collection because they allow researchers reach many respondents (or large samples) within limited time (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The purpose of the interviews was to explore experiences of the management in the change management process. The researcher self-administered the questionnaires to the respondents and conducted interviews with the assistance of trained research assistants.

Data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of computer software for data analysis (SPSS). Descriptive statistics consisted of computation of sums, means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. Qualitative data was analysed using content analysis. The study used regression analysis to establish how the organizational structure, affected the quality of technical education in Kenya. The model for the regression analysis was:

$$Y = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

Where:

Y	-	Quality of technical education
α_0	-	Is the constant
X_1	-	Leadership style
β_1	-	Coefficients
e	-	Error term

4. Findings

4.1 Leadership Style and Reforms

To ascertain the kind of leader the principals were, the instructors were asked to describe the principals. The results in Figure 1 show that according to 41.3% of the instructors the principals were involving. The findings show that 34.3% of the respondents described the principals as friendly. However, 24.4% of the respondents described their principals as authoritarian. This meant that most principals were accommodative and approachable except for a few which confirm the views of Hannah, Ball, Lorenzi, Ash, Eindbinder & McPhee (2005) who in their study noted that the employees perception of the leadership as supportive, concerned and committed to their welfare goes a long way in enhancing change process in the organization.
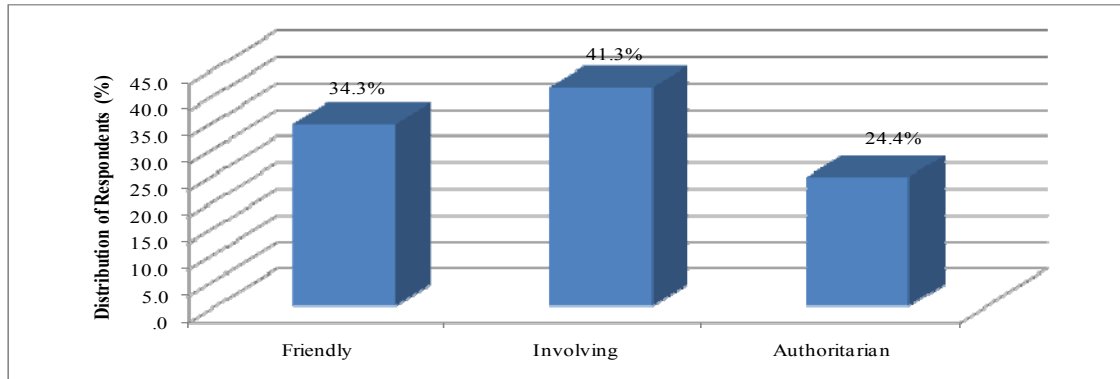
Figure 1. Instructors description of the principal

The study sought to establish from instructors whether the top management was involved in the change processes in the institutions. The results show that majority of the respondents (86%) indicated that indeed, the top management was involved in the change process in the institutions. Only 12% had a contrary opinion while two percent did not know. The findings mean that the top management was involved in the change process in the technical educational institutions. The findings therefore confirmed the views of Noer (1997) that the leaders are the most important tool for change.
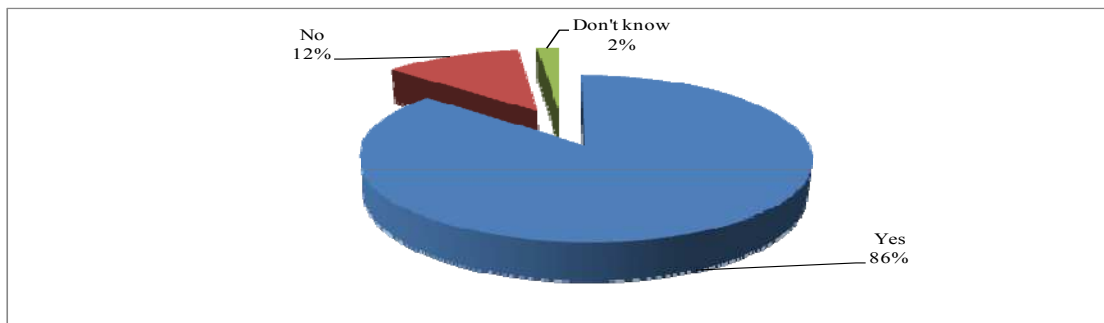
Figure 2. Whether top management was involved in change process

To ascertain the level of involvement of the top management in the implementation of the reforms, the instructors were asked to state the areas of involvement of the top management. The results showed that most of the top management (49.3%) were involved in the decision making and supervision (30.8%).

Asked to explain their answers, respondents stated that the management held consultative meetings with various stakeholders on the implementation of the reforms. The respondents also indicated that through restructuring, the top management put up teams which spearheaded the reforms processes in the institutions. They further explained that the management monitored closely how the reform process was progressing demanding regular reports from the implementing teams. These findings meant that the top management of the institutions were providing leadership in the implementation of the reforms as recommended by Bainbridge (1996) who argued that the creation and design of change processes within an organization is most often a role of the leaders within it.
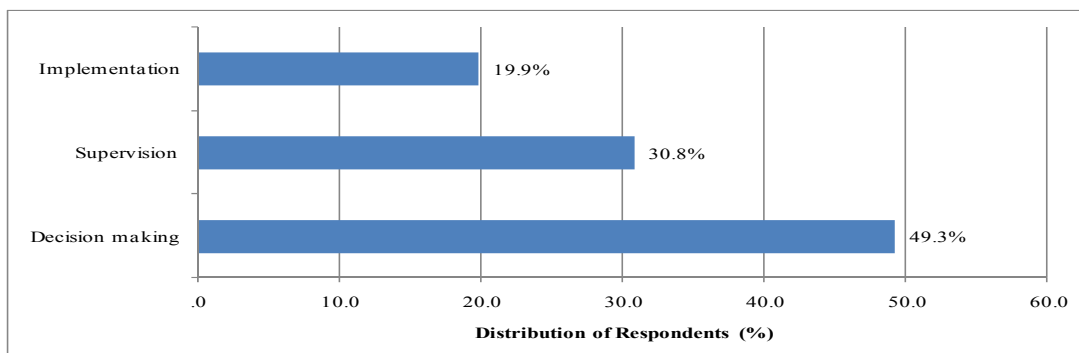

Figure 3. Areas of involvement in implementation of reforms by top management

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The instructors were asked to state the extent to which the leadership provided them with support in their assignments to ascertain whether there was a team effort in the change process as advocated by Kotter (2007) that leadership is a team effort of a variety of individual input. The results in Figure 4 showed that most of the instructors (42.8%) indicated that the leadership supported them in their assignments to a large extent while 12.9% of the respondents stated that they were assisted in their assignments. The findings meant that in most of the technical educational institutions, the leadership encouraged teamwork in the change process.
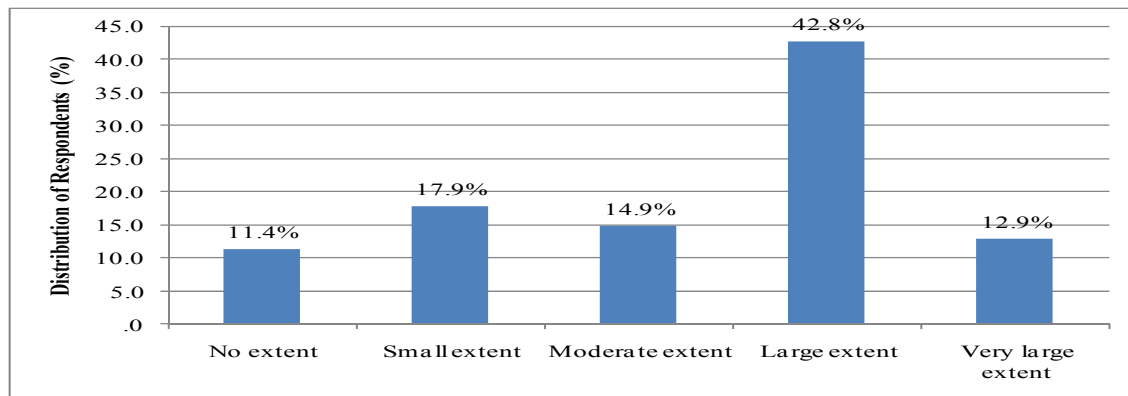
Figure 4. Extent leadership provide support to its staff

The instructors were asked to state the extent to which the institution leadership took lead of the change process. The findings in Figure 5 showed that most of the instructors (44.3%) stated that the leadership took lead of the change process to a large extent. The findings also showed that 24.4% of the respondents indicated that the leadership tool lead to a very large extent. The results therefore meant that the leadership of the institutions was in the front line of the change process in the institutions which are in support of the views by Bainbridge (1996) view that the leadership should take leadership by designing change process within the organization.
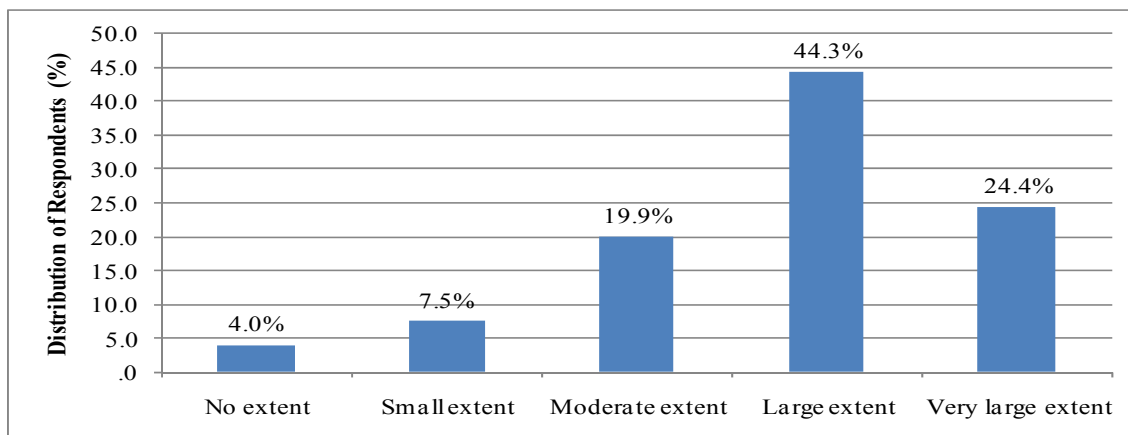

Figure 5. Whether leadership takes lead in the change process

The instructors were asked to state the level of agreement with the influence of leadership style on the change process in the technical educational institutions. This was on the scale of strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. The factors rated included principals' involvement, adherence to rules, principals giving instructions and freedom to staff. The findings in Table 1 show that 33.3% of the respondents agreed that the principals' were involved in the staff in decision making while the 38.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that the principals involved staff in decision making. The mean score value of 3.97 implied that generally the principals involved the other staff in decision making. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

As to whether the rules were followed strictly in the process of change, the findings show that 37.8% of the respondents agreed that the rules were followed strictly while 16.4% strongly agreed that the rules were strictly followed. The mean score of 3.47 meant that the respondents generally agreed that the rules were strictly followed. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

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On whether the principal gave orders on what or did not involve staff in the process or left the process to take its course, the findings show that most of the respondents (44.8%) disagreed with the statement that the principal does not involve staff but leave process to take course. The findings show that 22.9% of the respondents agreed that the principal does not involve staff but leave process to take course. The mean score of 2.47 mean that the respondents did not agree with the statement which implied that the principals gave direction of what needs to take place. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

As to whether the principal gave orders on what was to be done at every stage of change process, the findings show that most of the respondents (47.3%) remained neutral. However, 24.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that the principals give orders on what to be done at every stage of change process. The mean score of 3.52 meant that generally the respondents agreed that the principals gave orders on what to be done at every stage of the change process. The findings therefore mean that the principals were in charge of the change process. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

Table 1. Leadership and management

	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std. Dev
Principals involve staff in decision making	.0	12.9	15.4	33.3	38.3	3.97	1.029
Rules followed strictly in the process	2.0	19.9	23.9	37.8	16.4	3.47	1.049
Principal does not involve staff but leave process to take course	19.4	44.8	9.0	22.9	4.0	2.47	1.158
Principal gives orders on what is to be done at every stage of change process	2.0	8.5	47.3	17.9	24.4	3.52	1.006
Staff is free to do what they think is right	20.4	43.3	5.5	19.4	11.4	2.59	1.325
Average	**8.8**	**25.9**	**20.2**	**26.3**	**18.9**		

The study sought to determine from the instructors the extent to which the leadership had influenced the quality of education in the technical educational institutions. The findings in Figure 6 show that most of the respondents (44.8%) indicated that the leadership style to a large extent influenced the implementation of change in the institutions which in turn enhanced the quality of education in the institution. The result further show that 26.7% of the respondents indicated that leadership style to a very large extent influenced the implementation of change and hence the quality of education in the technical education institutions.

When asked to explain how the leadership had influenced the implementation of changes in the institutions, the respondents stated that the kind of leadership determined whether the employees would corporate during the implementation of the reforms. Three respondents also indicated that the leader who is in charge of the process will ensure that the reforms are implemented effectively thereby enhancing the quality of education in the institutions. Two instructors indicated that where the leader consulted with other staff or the leadership was inclusive, there was a collective responsibility in the change process and therefore enhanced the quality of education. The respondents further explained that the leadership style of the principal had negatively influenced the quality of education in the institutions as the employees had become resistant to the reforms and therefore the process of change in most cases did not succeed which in turn have led to the low quality of education. From these findings of the study, it became evident that the leadership style of the principals of the technical educational institutions in Kenya influenced the quality of education as they determined the success of the change process or its failure as argued by Bainbridge (1996) that the creation and design the success of change processes within an organization is most often a role of the leaders within it.
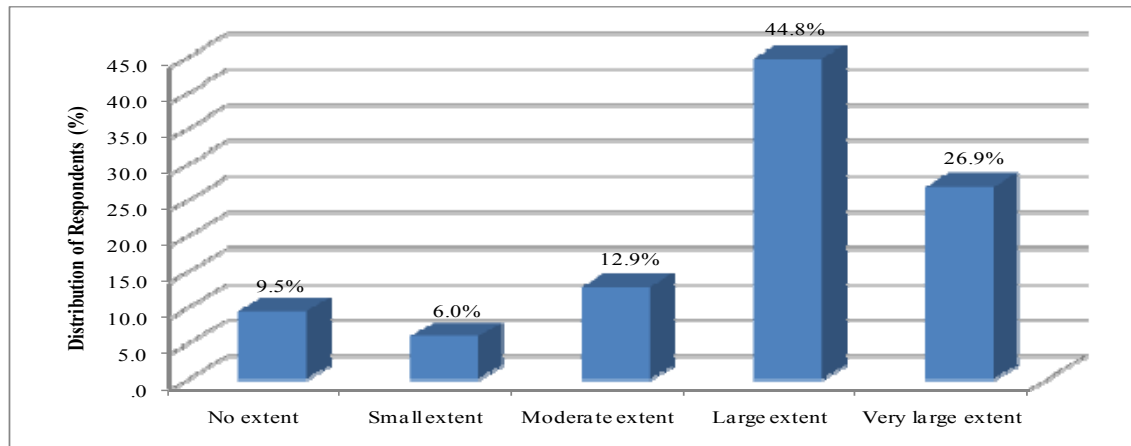
Figure 6. Extent leadership has influenced quality of education

4.2 Quality of Technical Education

The study sought to determine the quality of technical education. The institutional managers were therefore asked to state their level of agreement with the statements regarding the quality of technical education in their institutions. The study findings on table 2 showed that most of the institutional managers (45.5%) disagreed that the institutions produced competent graduates fit for the job market while 18.8% of them strongly agreed with this statement. The results show that on average, the institutional managers (45.5%) were neutral as to whether the graduates were competent and fit into the market or not (mean score, 2.82). The study findings show that most of the institutional managers (27.3%) disagreed that the graduates got absorbed into the job markets. This was confirmed by the mean score (2.45). The findings of the study also show that most of the institutional managers (36.4%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the number of enrolment in their institutions have been going up. 36.4% of the respondents agreed that there has been minimal drop out of students while 18.2% strongly agreed that there was minimal dropout of students. The findings showed that generally, the respondents agreed that the dropout of students was minimal. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1). The respondents explained that despite the success in producing many graduates into the job market, the employers had always complained that the graduates are half baked. The respondents also explained that the time allocated for attachment was too short for the graduates to integrate with the practical work.

Table 2. Quality of technical education

	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std. Dev
Institution produces competent graduates fit for the job market	9.1	45.5	18.2	18.2	9.1	2.82	.751
Graduates get absorbed into the job market	9.1	27.3	45.5	18.2	.0	2.45	.522
The number of enrolment has been going up	9.1	18.2	36.4	27.3	9.1	2.27	.647
There is minimal drop out of students	9.1	9.1	27.3	36.4	18.2	3.55	.688

4.3 Correlation Analysis

The study conducted correlation analysis to test the strength of association/relationship between the research variables. Correlation is the measure of the relationship or association between two continuous numeric variables. Correlation analysis results give a correlation coefficient which measures the linear association between two variables (Crossman, 2013). The results in Table 3 showed that the leadership style is positively related to quality of education with a Pearson Correlation Coefficient of 0.018 and a level of significance of 0.035 hence statistically significant as the p-value is less than 0.05. This relationship was however weak.

Table 3. Correlation

		Leadership style	Quality of education
Leadership style	Pearson Correlation	1	.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.035
Quality of education	Pearson Correlation	.018	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	

4.4 Regression Analysis

The study further carried out regression analysis to establish the statistical significance relationship between the independent variable, leadership style and the dependent variable, quality of technical education. According to Green and Salkind (2003) regression analysis is a statistics process of estimating the relationship between variables. It helps in generating equation that describes the statistical relationship between one or more predictor variables and the response variable. The regression analysis results were presented using regression model summary tables, analysis of variance (ANOVA) table and beta coefficient tables.

Regression analysis was further conducted to determine the relationship between the leadership style and the quality of education. Table 4 showed that the coefficient of determination is 0.64 therefore; about 64.0% of the variation in the quality of technical education is explained by the leadership style. This implied that there existed a strong positive relationship between the leadership style and the quality of education in technical educational institutions.

Table 4. Regression model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.800[a]	.640	.591	.208

The ANOVA results for regression coefficients in Table 5 showed that the significance of the F statistics is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. This implied that the independent variable (leadership style) explained the variation in the dependent variable (quality of education). Therefore the model was significant.

Table 5. ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.576	1	1.576	2.819	.095[a]
	Residual	111.260	199	.559		
	Total	112.836	200			

The beta coefficients of leadership style verses the quality of education in technical educational institutions results in Table 6 showed that there was significant relationship between the leadership styles and the quality of education was positive since the coefficient of organizational structure is 0.109 which is significantly greater than zero. The t statistics (1.679) was also greater than zero. This demonstrated that the leadership style had a positive influence on the quality education in technical educational institutions.

Table 6. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.507	.135		11.136	.000
	Leadership	.109	.065	.118	1.679	.095

Hypothesis

The hypothesis was tested using the Chi Square test where the researcher sought to determine whether there was any relationship between the leadership style and the quality of technical education represented as:

Ho: Leadership style has no significant influence on the quality of technical educational institutions in Kenya.

The results are presented on Table 7.

Table 7. Chi Square Test for leadership

	Leadership
Chi-Square	74.881[a]
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.000

Since *p*-value = 0.000 ≤ 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected. The study therefore concludes that the leadership style significantly influenced the quality of technical educational institutions.

5. Discussion

The factor analysis result on leadership style was 0.733 and the loading results were between 0.980 and 0.291. Using the leadership style indicators, the value of the Cronbach's Alpha was computed again and generated a value of 0.737. The study therefore deduced that eight out of eleven indicators of leadership style were reliable in assessing the effect of organizational structure in determining the success of reforms in technical educational institutions and hence the quality of technical education.

Descriptive results revealed that the leadership in the institutions was mostly described as involving by most of the instructors (41.3%). The findings also show that 34.3% of the instructors described the leadership as friendly. These findings confirmed the opinions Hannah et al (2005) that the employee perception of leadership concerning their welfare is important in enhancing change process in the organization.

The study established that according to majority of the respondents (86%) the top management was involved in the change process. The area of involvement was in decision making (49.3%). The study established that according to majority of the respondents (68.7%) indicated that the leadership in the institutions took the lead in the change process. These findings supported the views by O'Reilly et al (2010) that participatory leadership plays an important role in growing inner capabilities and priorities for the success of the organization.

The study results revealed that according to most respondents (mean score 3.47) the management strictly followed in the rules of the change process. The principals also gave orders on what is to be done at every stage of the change process according to most of the respondents (mean score 3.52). These findings agreed with Bainbridge (1996) that change process in the organization is the mandate of leaders engaged in the management of change. He argued that it is the responsibility of the leader to make the change initiative tangible.

The findings also revealed that majority of the instructors (71.4%) indicated that the leadership influenced the quality of technical education through supervision and provision of direction. These results support the views of Higgs and Rowland (2005) who noted that the leadership behaviour was very important in making the change situation more effective in the organization.

The Pearson Correlation analysis of leadership style results gave a correlation of 0.112 which demonstrated that leadership style had a positive correlation with the quality of education. Regression model of leadership skills versus the quality of technical education gave a coefficient of determination of R square of 0.640 at 0.05 significant level. The coefficient of determination indicates that 64% of the response of quality of education was explained by leadership style of the organization. This implied that there existed a strong relationship between leadership style and the quality of technical education in technical educational institutions in Kenya. The findings of the relationship between the leadership style and quality of technical education supported the views by Michaelis, et al (2009) that the effective change is strongly correlated (positive) with change implementing behaviour, monitoring of change process.

The study established that most of the institutional managers (45.5%) disagreed that the institutions produced competent graduates fit for the job market. The findings also revealed that 18.8% of the respondents agreed that institutions produced competent graduates fit for the job market. The findings showed that most of the respondents were non committal as to whether the graduates got absorbed into the job markets (mean score 2.45). The findings of the study show that 27.3% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that the number of enrolment in their institutions had been going up. However, it can be said that generally, respondents strongly agreed that there has been increase in the number of enrolments in the institutions (mean score, 4.27). The results showed that 36.4% of the respondents agreed that there had been minimal drop out of students while 18.2% strongly agreed that there was minimal dropout of students. The findings that the graduates are able to be absorbed into the job market supported the views of Perna (2005) and Silver, Saunders and Zarate (2008) that quality education is achieved when the students are able to graduate, and proceed to the next level. The aim of the technical institutions is to prepare the students to enter the job market.

The regression model of quality of education coefficient of determination R Square was 0.711 and R was 0.843 at 0.05 significant level. The coefficient of determination indicated that 71.1% of the variation in quality of education could be explained by organizational structure, leadership style and policy makers competence. The remaining 28.9% of the quality of technical education was explained by variable which were not included in the model.

6. Summary

According to 41.3% of instructors the leadership in the institutions as involving and friendly. It was established that 86% of the instructors stated the top management was involved in the change process where they took lead in the change process through decision making (49.3%) as was advocated by O'Reilly et al (2010) that participatory leadership plays an important role in growing inner capabilities and priorities for the success of the organization. The study results revealed that the principals gave orders on what was to be done at every stage of the change process (mean score 3.52). It was further revealed that majority of the instructors (71.4%) indicated that flexible leadership style positively influenced the quality of technical education through supervision and provision of direction.

The study established that most of the institutional managers stated that the institutions did not produce competent graduates fit for the job market. The findings showed that most of the respondents did not agreed that the graduates got absorbed into the job markets (mean score 2.45). The findings of the study show that 27.3% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that the number of enrolment in their institutions had been rising. Most of the respondents stated that there has been minimal drop out of students.

7. Conclusion

The leadership style influenced the success of the reforms process in the organizations as the process became more successful where the management involved other staff in the process but took the leadership role which will in turn enhanced the quality of the technical education.

8. Recommendations

The management of the technical educational institutions should adopt leadership styles which could accommodate the views of every staff and involved everyone in the process but the management should show that way of reforms or change.

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Integrated Tourism Sector in South-Eastern Asian (Mainland) Countries: A Pathway to Develop for Economic Betterment

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Abstract

In this twenty first century, the importance of tourism sector in national economy is considered as a vital component. Though the effects of tourism in different countries are not same, still most of the countries are in a competition to attract more and more tourist. For this reason the countries, regions are taking some innovative, constructive and so on policies to attract tourist. It is not only for the betterment of the direct related tourism services components, but also indirect industries, personnel, agencies and so on.

South-Eastern Asia, a well-known tourist region is doing great in terms of number of visitors, boost up their economies through direct and indirect tourism services, facing the employment challenges and so on. Even though the region has some specific goals to meet up the expectations regarding tourism events, but still it is not enough to face the current challenges as well as attract more tourists and visitors. In this case there could be a common integrated tourism zone or sector that will help the participating countries to fulfill their expectation in recent years. In this report we will try to find out to possible economic contribution by the travel and tourism industries while the integration take place among the participating countries. We will explain the implementing pathways of integration and maintaining the whole process. Besides we will also show the benefits of this integration and possible shortcomings either.

Keywords: tourism, integration, South-eastern Asia, economic development

1. Introduction

Tourism is considered one of the world's largest industries in terms of gross output. As the world's growing industry, tourism offers unparalleled opportunities for economic gain in many least developed countries. Developing countries are trying to attract more and more tourist while as developed countries are enjoying this facility of earning foreign currency which is contributing a big part of their national income.

The strong growth in tourism arrivals for Asia and the Pacific, particularly the sub regions of North-East Asia, South Asia and South-East Asia is one indicator of the increased significance of tourism for developing countries. Visitors worldwide have clearly recognized the attractiveness of tourism experiences in Asian and Pacific developing countries in terms of the rich cultural heritage and natural environment. Many officials in these countries have seen that tourism can be part of their development strategies, especially in economic terms. The south eastern countries most of them are developing have a great potential in this sector. Some of the countries are doing very good towards tourism industries possibilities, but still could be better if there are some further more necessary action could be taken. For the geographical reason besides some other factors cam make this industry very much profitable for the respected countries in this region. The govt. of the countries has taken number of steps to promote the tourism but still not sufficient to create a great demand of their glorious products of unique natural and scenic beauty, oldest archeological spots, very diversified cultural attractions and so on.

1.1 Research Objectives

The main objectives of the research are to resolve:

- How integrated tourism can boost up respected countries economy.

- What the positive effect of integrated tourism in the region and participating countries.

- Roadmap of implementing the integrated tourism sector.
- Maintenance of this integration.

The objective of the research was to find out the prevailing challenges and opportunities in the south-eastern Asian (mainland) region and contribution to the economic development. Tourism sector integration could be a possible way to meet the economics needs and demands while as development of these countries in the right direction. Our main objective is to focus on this regard, find out the possible way to integrate the tourism sector, implementing the idea, and also the consequences of the integration.

1.2 Scope of the Research

The scope of the search could be:

✓ Guideline for developing an integrated tourism sector in the south-east Asia.

✓ Pathways for implementing and maintaining the integration.

✓ Suggested economics contribution by the integration of the participating countries.

Tourism is not a traditional industrial sector, and is best understood as a range of responses to a particular consumer demand. The activity of tourism creates demand for a wide range of products and services purchased by tourists and travel companies, including a range of products supplied by other industrial sectors (e.g. food & beverage, building supplies, crafts and soft furnishings), which are not traditionally thought of as part of the tourism sector. The diversity of the industry and the high income elasticity in markets in the industrial and middle income countries make tourism an attractive option for many developing countries.

1.3 Methodology

In this report we have mostly used the secondary information sources. We have covered the topics related to the title from several books, journal, articles, and publications and so on. Some data we have used here were taken directly from the UN websites. (UNWTO). Some data we have used for some calculations. Besides we have personally talked with some close friends who already travelled these countries and region. I tried to explore their comments, experiences, excitements, attitudes and so on. They have already shared with me their personal point of view regarding their travel and tourism. What kinds of problem they faced, what kinds of opportunities they have discovered, what kinds of privilege they gain and so on.

Furthermore, we have some friends who are studying and working somehow related to these topics from the respective countries. They have shared their own point of view from their own experiences about their countries. They have described their opportunities, threats and so on. They have also recommended something that might be beneficial to their economic developments of the respective countries. We have also collected some secondary data from the official website of the respected countries and tourism industries. Some statistical information has been taken from these websites as well. All of cases we tried to keep the originality of the data and authenticity of the information.

1.4 Literature Review

There were some researches concerning tourism sectors integration. A book named 'Understanding and tourism impacts, in integrated approach" by C Michael Hall and Alan E Lew. (2008). Here they tried to show and analyze the impacts of tourism. They showed the impacts could be uni-dimensional (most of the cases), two way dimensional or multidimensional (rare). The term "cross-border integration" has multiple definitions, particularly in the context of studies on European integration (Anderson and Wever 2003; De Boe, Grasland and Healy 1999; Hansen and Serin 2007; Sohn, Reitel and Walther 2009). For cross-border regions, the integration process is fundamentally based on the existence of interactions between areas separated by an international boundary. These interactions are not limited to the economic sphere, but also concern other flows or transactions (migration, political relations, cultural exchanges, etc). Border regions are "areas whose economic and social life is directly and significantly affected by proximity to an international boundary" (Hansen, 1981). Some areas have great tourism potential. It is now somehow proved that borders have a strong effect on tourism in borderland areas. Besides Matznetter (1979) highlighted some of the connections between boundaries and tourism, and suggested a three-fold typology of spatial relationships between the two: where the boundary line is distant from tourist areas (a), where a tourist zone exists adjacent to the boundary on one side only (b), and tourist zones that extend across, or meet at the borders (c). The impacts on place, people, and environment even on economy also included the eco-tourism. Tourism collaboration and partnerships-policy practice and sustainability also has an impact on integration process. That measured by Bill Bramwell and Bernard lane (editor, 2007)

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2. The Tourism Sector in South-Eastern Asian Countries

Preliminary results released by the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA), UNWTO Affiliate Member, showed that international visitor arrivals into Asia/Pacific destinations1 grew by 4% year-on-year in May 2011, with the South Asia and Southeast Asia sub-regions recording particularly strong performances for the month. The first five months of 2011 showed South Asia attracted a 15% increase in visitor arrivals. Southeast Asia came second with 12%. Northeast Asia and the Pacific, on the other hand, only managed 3%. Across the whole of Asia/Pacific the average growth in international visitor arrivals was 5% for the first five months of 2011.

Southeast Asia recorded the largest arrivals gain of 16% during the month of May 2011, boosted by a 66% rebound in arrivals to Thailand, as well as by strong demand growth for Vietnam (+37%), Myanmar (+33%), Cambodia (+12%) and Singapore (+11%). International arrivals to South Asia also showed strong growth with a collective gain of 12% in May, maintaining the same pace of growth seen in 2010. All reporting destinations in this sub-region enjoyed an increase in foreign arrivals, led by Nepal (+47%), Sri Lanka (+39%), the Maldives (+11%) and India (+7%). Growth in arrivals to Northeast Asia, however, was a weak 0.6% for the month, highlighting the impact of sharply lower arrival numbers to Japan (–50%) and the decline in the number of Japanese visitors travelling to neighboring destinations. In addition to Japan, Chinese Taipei (–7%) and China (–1%) also recorded falling arrivals numbers for the month. Conversely, foreign arrivals growth for Hong Kong SAR (+15%), Macau SAR (+9%) and Korea (ROK) (+2%) remained positive during May 2011. Despite recent disasters and crises, South-East Asia managed to report positive annual average growth of 4.1 per cent during the period from 1996 to 2006. Cambodia and Lao People's Democratic Republic are two countries in the greater Mekong Sub region, which had strong results. For Cambodia, international tourism receipts had an average annual growth rate of 28.3 per cent and 10.8 per cent for Lao People's Democratic Republic during the ten-year period. More recently, international tourism receipts increase by 20.0 per cent between 2005 and 2006 for Cambodia. However, each of the two Mekong sub region countries accounted for less than one per cent share of international tourism receipts in Asia and the Pacific during 2005, while Cambodia's regional share was 0.6 per cent in 2006.

The tourism receipts in Asia and the Pacific made up 20.8 percent of all international tourism receipts in 2006 compared with arrivals of 19.8 percent, suggesting that the Asian and Pacific region does slightly better on receipts from international tourism than it does on international arrivals.

2.1 Importance of Travel and Tourism in National Economies
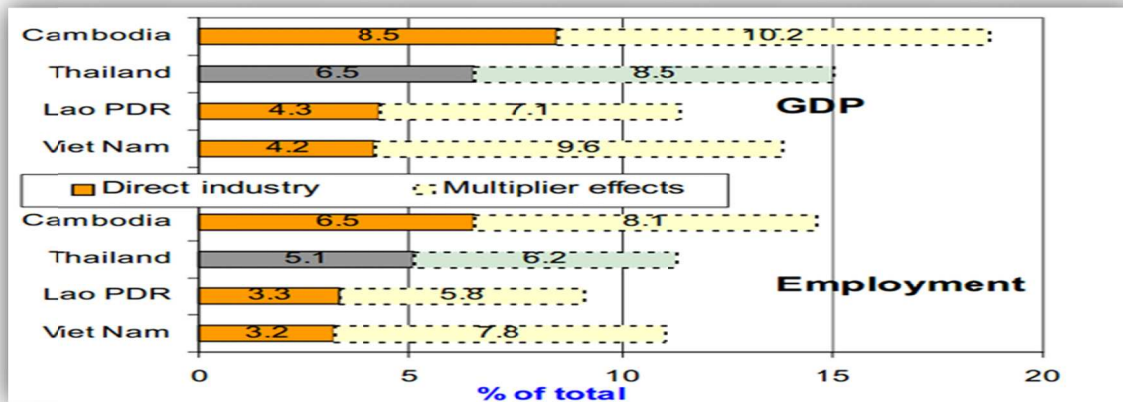
Sources: Economics and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific

From the above graph we can see the contribution of direct tourism industry to the economy (GDP) as well as with the multiplier effects. In Cambodia the direct industry contribution is 8.5 which is relatively high. If we add multiplier effects it reaches up to 10 %, which is really good. The situation is almost same in Vietnam with multiplier effects. Lao PDR is bit low but still in a satisfactory level. In case of Thailand the direct industry is near about 7 makes it up to 9% with inclusion of multiplier effects.

If we go for employment situation analysis the picture is almost same. Most of the countries are above 5% with the multiplier effects. So these countries where unemployment is a big problem, tourism is playing a vital role with no doubt. But the situation could be better with good care and timely plan.
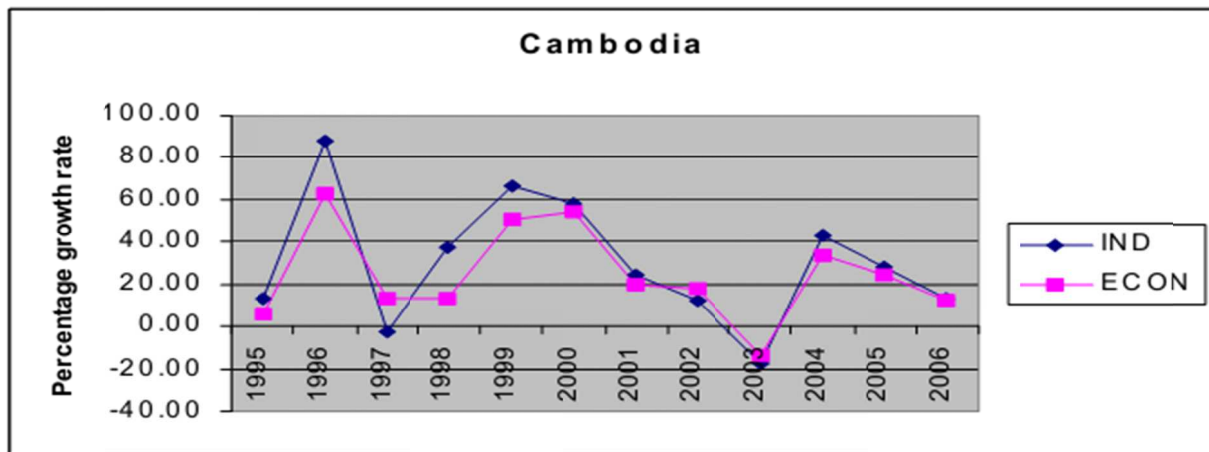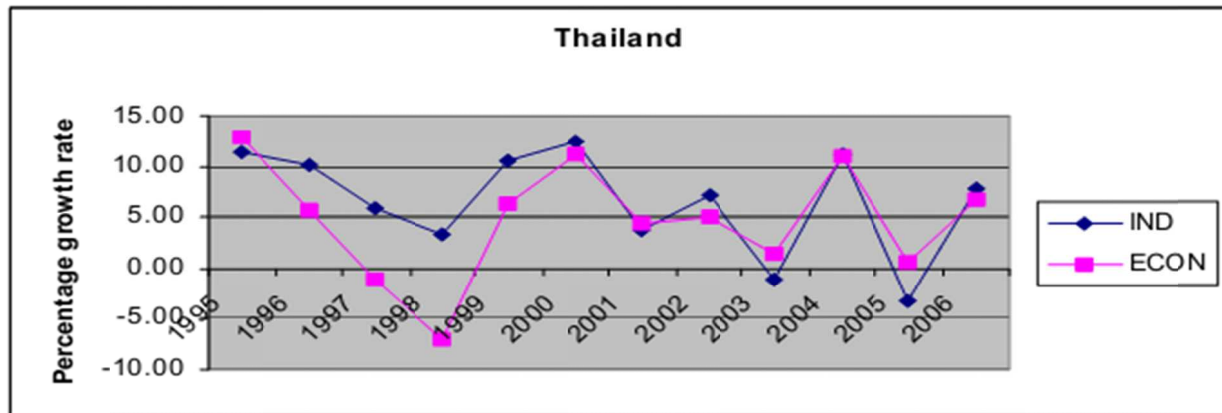

Graph 1. Percentage growth rate of tourism industries and tourism economy from (1995-2006) for Cambodia

From the above graph we can see the percentage growth rate of tourism industries and tourism economies for Cambodia for 12 years. The pink color is indicating the economy of the tourism sector while as the blue is for industries. Actually it was a mixed trend in the last decade. It went up for both of the indicator in 1996. Then sudden sharp fall down at 1997. Then rises up again and fall down again. The worst situation was 2003. It shows the negative growth. Again in 2004 it rises up dramatically but couldn't consistent for long time.
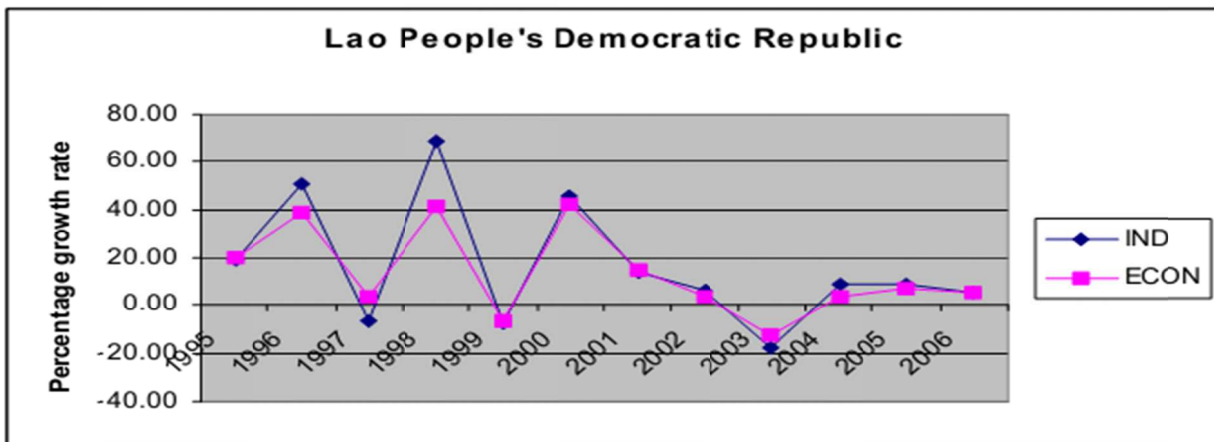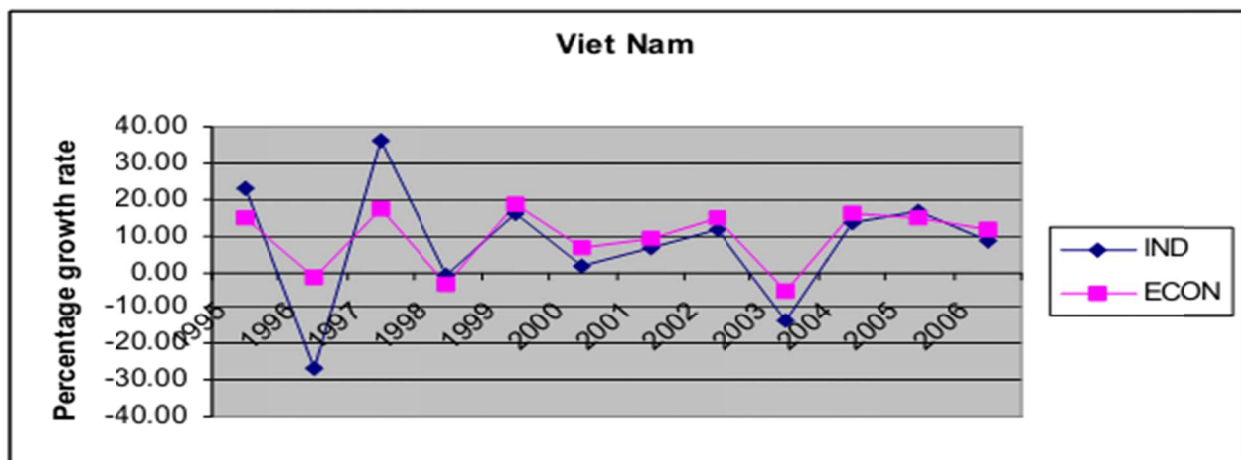

Graph 2. Percentage growth rate of tourism industries and tourism economy from (1995-2006) for LAOS

Here the color graphs are same as Cambodia. We can see the rise and fall of the trend. It goes up at 1995. Till 2004 it seems like two years same trends. Like two years goes up then go down for two years. It had a drastic fall down at 2003-2004. Then it rises up but couldn't consistence.

Graph 3. Percentage growth rate of tourism industries and tourism economy from (1995-2006) for Thailand

In this graph also the same color indication. From 1995 to 1999 the growth rate falls down so sharply. Then it rises up at 2000 and after that the growth rate was positive for few years. Suddenly it shows the negative growth rate and again positive at 2006.

Graph 4. Percentage growth rate of tourism industries and tourism economy from (1995-2006) for Vietnam

Same color indication as above. Surprisingly the big differences at growth rate between the tourism economy and industries in 1997 and 1998. Beside this, most of the years the growth rate was positive growth rate except in 2004.

3. Matrix Analysis for South-east Asia (Mainland)

Let's have a look at the SWOT matrix analysis regarding tourism sector in the region. Here I tried to connect the strength and opportunities at one side along with weakness and threats in another.

3.1 Strength-Opportunity Analysis(S-O)

This region is already a favorable tourist spot and destination for tourists and traveler for their own attributes. The scenic spots, cheap cost, low price and so on attract tourists to visit here. This is off course a potential region for tourism. If the respective government or responsible persons take some immediate effective step, that could be possible. Sub regional cooperation is an important element for tourism development along the Mekong River. In 1995, the Governments of Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand and Viet Nam signed the Agreement on the Cooperation for the Sustainable Development of the Mekong River Basin and identified tourism as one of the areas of cooperation.

Though this region is called the south-east Asia and there are some similarities between cultures, places and so on, but the dissimilarities are also too much that can easily attract the tourists. Now a day's more and more local or

regional people are interested to spend their holidays out of their own respective countries. So, if there are some specific projects for specific target group that will also increase the number of potential tourist. Short vacation or holidays can be a target time. Now a day's people want to get the different cultural taste and different lifestyles even for few days. This region can be ideal place for ecotourism. These days the ecotourism is getting more popular. An integrated policy can make this possible.

This is very true that, this region is very potential for tourism industry. The respective governments can earn huge revenue from these industries. Besides the foreign currency as more and more foreigners are interested for this region. Already the numbers of foreign travelers are increasing at a good rate which can lead a top destination for travelers for local, regional and international travelers. Still this region is comparatively cheap destination for travelers compare to European or other destinations. The basic needs for the travelers are not so expensive while the good entertainment is also possible in a medium expensive way. Various kinds of accommodations, foods, transportations, dressings, shopping etc. are still not very expensive which might lead favorable destinations for the potential travelers. Well, the responsible organizations are working for the development of tourism sector of this region. But still there are lots of potential places that could be a great scenic spots and attract more tourists. For the limitation of responsible organizations or governments, sometimes it is not so easy to cope up with the situations or handle the situations. So it might be ore easy or handle the situation if the countries co-operate with each other. That will of course for mutual benefit and their own too. Asia and the Pacific, currently the world´s second strongest region in terms of international tourist receipts, received a record number of tourist arrivals in 2011 (216 million international tourists – a 6% increase on 2010 figures). According to UNWTO projections, these numbers are expected to increase by a further 4-6% during 2012. Regionally, as well as globally, travel is a major industry which has the potential to generate millions of jobs, bring economic growth and diversification and promote regional development. As well as this, travel can be a strong contributor to poverty reduction and development in poorer parts of the world.

3.2 Weakness-Threat Analysis (W-T)

Although there is evidence that some tourism destinations have developed without conscious strategic and integrated planning, many of them have experienced unforeseen consequences which have led to their deterioration. Many reasons are offered for tourism planning, not least the advocacy that planning is the best way of extending the vital life-cycle of a destination by providing a means of anticipating changes, adjusting to the demands of change, and exploring new opportunities.

Organization structure and personnel system at central, provincial, district levels are not yet sufficient to meet the demand of qualitative standards. Mandate of the organizational machinery is not balanced with the growth in tourism. The knowledge and understanding of social public towards tourism is not deepened. Working style of each level are not oriented to new quality. No ownership and creative ideas. Most of staffs are waiting for orders. Inter-agency coordination between public and private is not harmonized and continuous. Each is on their own ways. Coordination among sectors concerned and local levels is not well done. Provisions and regulations are not sufficient and updated.

4. Integrated Tourism Pathways

Here is the proposed integrated tourism pathway for the South-East Asian countries. I have developed this flow chart on the basis is current legislation in the respective area. Also the real situation has been taken to consideration as well.
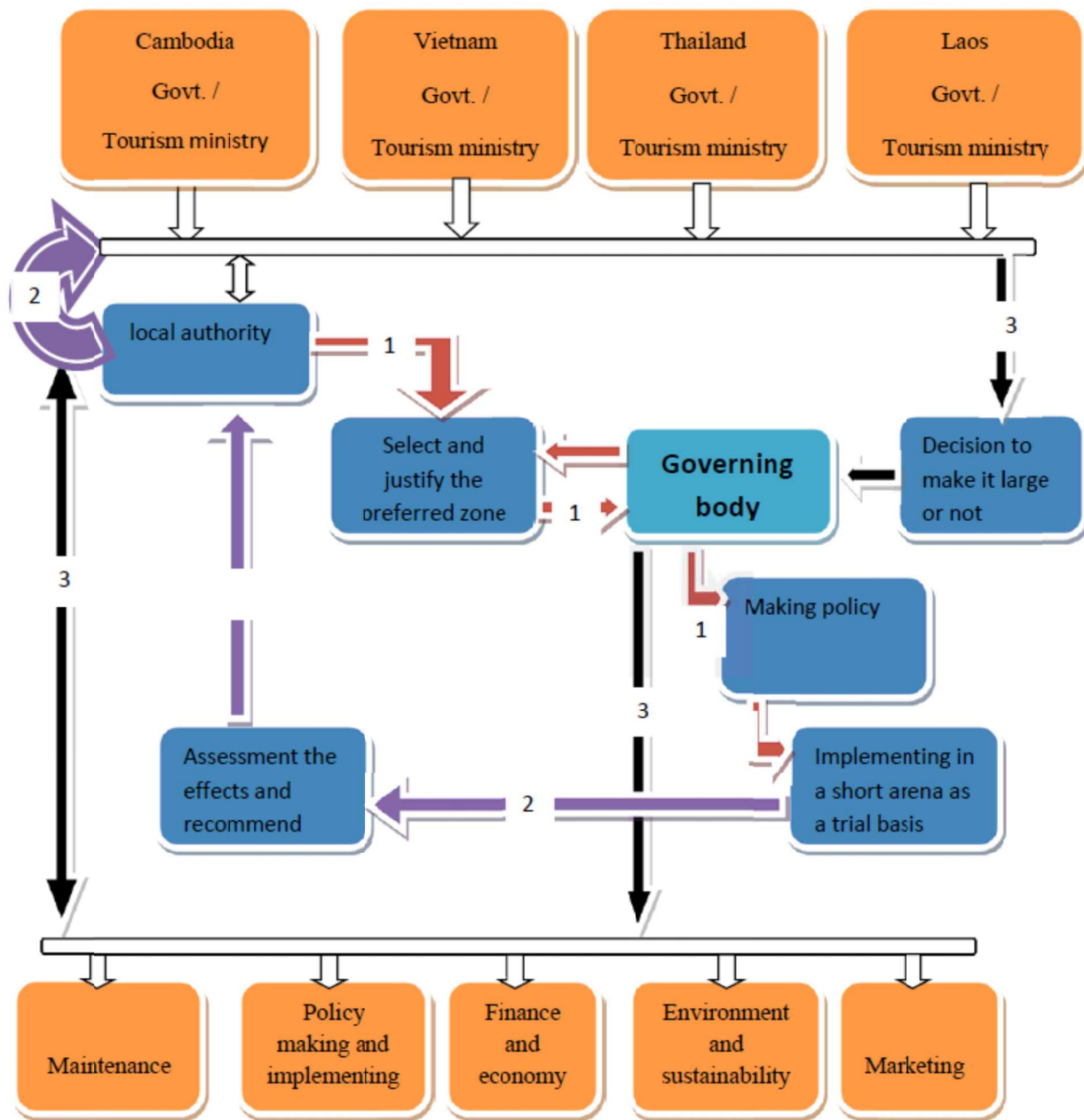
Flow chart

Here we can see the flow chart of the whole process that could be implementing in the integrated tourism sector in the region. In the top there is the govt. Of the countries or the tourism ministry who will control the local authority (LA) of these countries. The supreme power will be taken by the local authority by the recommendations of the LA. LA will select the preferred zone or area of the respected country. Then they will report to the governing body (GB) about the primary selection of the places. If the governing body (GB) accept it or have some recommendation they will report back to the local authority (LA) and local authority will report to the govt. or supreme power. After the place selection GB will make the policy and will implement in the selected areas. We can the steps that marked in the maroon color.

Step 2:

After implement in the short areas, GB will invite the LA to find out the effects or making the next decisions. LA will investigate the effects and will report to the GB. if everything goes well and all of the parties agreed to continue or make it larger the GB will implement the rules and regulation and will finance in the preferred zone . The SP will support the GB to invest or other financial helps. If all of the parties or countries don't agree to continue or make it large they can wait or watch the effects of the other countries. The step 2 is indicated by the color light blue.

Step 3:

When the decision has taken to make the project large, GB will open some other branch and they will work as an institution. There will be several departments under the supervision of the GB. Initially it could be maintenance, marketing, economy and finance, environment and sustainability, policy making and implementing. All of these departments have to report the GB monthly and annually basis. On the base of the report GB will make and report and send to local authority on every month. Local authority will prepare a annual report and submit to the supreme power (SP). If there is something wrong within any departments, they can take help from the GB.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

Tourism activity is becoming more competitive, more extensive, more complicated, and more demanding of host communities and their culture and environment. In order for the tourism enterprise in any destination area to respond positively to these challenges, it is necessary for tourism planning to be practiced in a fashion commensurate with the needs of the destination area and the nation. Integrating tourism planning into official planning – whether economic, social, welfare, environmental, infrastructure, or cultural – has been slow, and remains unusual. The ideal model would be a national/regional/local comprehensive planning system in which tourism is an integral component. This model is rare, which is not surprising, as the various component strategies within tourism are seldom integrated. The important aims at two levels are for the various interests, requirements and needs to be fused together into a composite, integrated strategic tourism plan for tourism to be planned with the intention of being fused into the social and economic life of a region and its communities.

Tourism planning has been beset by a number of new challenges. Among these new challenges could be a response to the threat of environmental deterioration along with recognition that tourism can be synergized with protected areas. The principles of sustainable development with Special interest tourism, Ecotourism, Conservation and resource protection, Destination identity and Public sector and private sector co-operation is also very important for such types of tourism integration. The danger could be that tourism will become over-planned. Rather than act as a constraint, the new approaches to tourism planning may be Foster new planning concepts and processes, be open-ended as well. The important characteristics of integrated tourism planning might be a good decision-making structure designed to link tourism with other sectors of economic and infrastructure development along with An approach which is strategic and goal-oriented rather than being re-active and preventative. Besides, A structure which can accommodate inputs and influences from the tourism industry, other sectors of government, and the affected community and A process which is purposive and deliberate, but which is also flexible to adjust to changing circumstances with A process which is guided by principles of good management is also considerable. It is important in designing a planning process to adopt a procedure that is understandable, defensible, where decisions can be traced and where the value judgments inherent in protected area planning are made explicit. Most of all, it is essential that all stakeholders are appropriately involved in the process. Making management decisions about tourism in protected areas is not easy; it involves not only protected area managers but also affected citizens, including the local public, visitors, private operators and scientists. An efficient transport infrastructure has been considered as a key component that directly influences the competitiveness of a country's travel and tourism industry. For countries in Asia and the Pacific, this includes an accessible, high-quality air traffic network, established tourism infrastructure, and a well-developed multi-modal ground transportation network. As suggested by WEF, the importance of various factors and variables that make up travel and tourism competitiveness is likely to vary depending on each country's stage of development. Determining the dynamics of building up infrastructure as well as the air and ground transport network in different development and geographical contexts could be based on systematically comparing economies in various stages of development, identifying specific key success factors and learning lessons that can be applied for particular groups of countries

5.1 Towards Collaborative Travel

The next decade and beyond will see a qualitative shift in the travel experience. The future of travel is likely to be shaped by technological innovations which reduce stress, uncertainty and chaos. At every step of the journey, travel

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will be enhanced by greater and more fluid interaction with other travelers and travel providers. But all this is only possible by new technologies and innovations which will underpin and enable this greater fluidity and interaction to become a reality.

5.2 The Experience of Being Elsewhere

Our experience of a place will increasingly be seen through the lens of other people who are simultaneously there with us or have been there previously. Travel will become more about depth rather than breadth of experience, as we come to realize that all places are layered according to their history and culture of who is there and who else has been there previously. Furthermore, as the boundary between travel for leisure and travel for work will blur, this collaborative experience of travel will impact on business travel as well. Continued emphasis on work-life balance and wellbeing at work may mean employers increasingly allow people to take time off either side of a business trip. The business traveler could, in other words, become the business tourist.

5.3 Information Exchange

Peer groups, the internet and experts will form an information eco-system which will be more collaborative than the one-to-one transactional relationships that predominate today. As technologies make it easier for people to tag and review all aspects of travel experience, travelers will be influenced by peer groups much more. Moreover, as data on payments is shared and integrated, it will leave a trail of digital breadcrumbs, tracing where we've been and what we've done. Travelers will be able to browse and learn from this layer of information, and for the travel provider, digital breadcrumbs are likely to become an important customer-profiling tool. There will also be an opportunity for travel providers to participate in the wider information eco-system. Helping users navigate their way through this will be one of the main ways travel providers; particularly travel agents can add value. Travel providers will have a big role to play in this new age of collaborative travel. However, they will need to shift focus from satisfying the needs and wants of the traveler as an individual, to providing the environment for networks and flows of travelers as a group to move and flourish.

5.4 Easy Visa Policy or Single Visa Policy

The participating countries could be come to an agreement that will let them make the visa policy much easier or even single visa policy for preferred zone. That will not only encourage the neighboring countries tourist but also the regional as well as international tourist to pay a visit in the preferred zone. Ultimately it will help to boost up the concerning countries. There are lots of international travelers avoid to travel some countries just because of visa complicacy.

5.5 Special Zone / Preferred Tourism Area

Special zone or preferred area should be making under the policy of the local government and the governing body. That will simplify the integration and will ease to control the whole process. It will also help to reduce the cost investment and marketing.

5.6 Special Transportation Route and System

Easy and convenient route can be built for transportation. At the same time the natural attraction could be a factor while thinking to make a new route or re-building the old route. Special transportation system should be formed at least within the zone. There are various kinds of transportation that could be facilitated the friendly and attractive offer for the travelers. Not only for the domestic or regional, international tourist facility should be intended in the transportation mega plan.

5.7 Single/Common Currency

There should a single currency in the preferred zone so that the visitor can get rid of the currency converting troubles. It will make their journey more comfortable and willing to spend more while travelling. Another alternative option could be availability of currency converting agencies or institutions in the respected areas.

5.8 Unique/Common Visa

Unique visa can be offered for the preferred zone. This visa could be for single or even multiple entrances in the respected areas. Many travelers are facing the problems for getting visas or finding the difficulties to get the adequate information regarding entry policy. Such kinds of drawbacks could be minimized by introducing the unique visa policy for the respected countries preferred area.

5.9 Common Tourist Guide Facility

Some of the tourists don't like to change the guides along the whole journey. So maybe there could be some trained tourist guide who can be with the team or even some individuals during the whole journey. These guides should be well trained up according to the respected countries history, political situation, culture and so on. This can helps the travelers to have a smooth and wonderful travel.

5.10 Improved Accommodation Facility

Well even there are some good hotels and residence places in these countries, but it still not enough. Since the plan for preferred zone is to attract more and more tourists, obviously there should have a nice accommodation for them. It should include several classes from lower to upper high.

5.11 Assurance of High Security

Security is a very important issue these days. All sort of people are concern of the security for their travelling concern. Last few decades the lack of security affected much for tourism industry. Govt. Of the respected country should support the governing body to ensure the security of the preferred place as well the whole region.

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Relationship between Strategic Recruitment and Employee Retention in Commercial Banks in Kenya

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between strategic employee recruitment practices and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya. A survey design was used to gather the information needed to achieve the objectives. Qualitative and quantitative techniques were used. The study was carried out in commercial banks in Kenya which had operating Licenses from the Central bank of Kenya. Questionnaires were used to collect the data. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics mainly percentages and frequency distribution. Correlation and regression analysis were used to test the relationship between the variables. The study established that the organizations practiced strategic recruitment such as the use of associations, psychometric tests, websites, targeting specific professionals, employing head hunting strategies, offer incentives, ranking of potential candidates and utilization of internet and other technologies which influenced the employee recruitment. The study concluded that the strategic employee recruitment influenced the employee retention. The study recommended that the management of all commercial banks should embrace strategic recruitment with the view of retaining their talents and thereby cutting the cost of recruitment and the loss of talents which are valuable to the organizations' competitiveness.

Keywords: employee retention human resource management strategic recruitment

1. Introduction

Organizations are open systems operating in turbulent environment (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). They can also be conceived of as complex networks of relationships between workers and managers of different grades within and between teams (Wright 2003). Globalization and its forces have also led to increased awareness and made customers to put pressure for better value products and services thus necessitating development of service quality strategies through the understanding of quality as perceived by the consumers of the services and products. The banking sector in Kenya is governed by the companies Act, the Banking Act, the central bank of Kenya act and the various guidelines issued by the central bank of Kenya (GOK). The central bank of Kenya which falls under the Ministry of finance docket is responsible for formulating and implementing monitoring policy and fostering the liquidity, solvency and proper functioning of the financial system. The banks have come together in Kenya under the Kenya bankers association which serves as a lobby for the banking sector interests. This forms a forum to address issues affecting the members (Central Bank report, 2008).

The commercial banks in Kenya have experienced increased competition for staff over the last few years resulting from increased innovations among the players and new entrants into the market (GOK). A circular from the central bank of Kenya highlights that due to the need for business continuity Management and to ensure that business operations are not adversely affected in the event of a major operational disruption, there is the minimum standards all supervised banking institutions must implement. Most banks in Kenya have embraced online community banking because of the developing interest in buying and selling goods online. Online banking such as Visa have given reason for the bank managers to rethink their strategies in taming the on line market. There has been a stiff competition in Kenyan banking industry in order to serve an informed generation. Most of the banks in Kenya have embraced their strategies in targeting Kenyans in the Diaspora because they are believed to send a lot of money to the banks in Kenya. The strengthening of the Kenyan economy for the last ten years due to the changes in governance has seen a major transformation in the banking industry. Commercial banks have been opened throughout the country to provide financial services.

According to Wright (2004), (HRM) practices are key agents in building and maintaining trust and they permeate an organization and shape the employment relationships. Employees interpret human resource practices and the trustworthiness of management as indicative of the personalized organization's commitment to them. Perception of an organization's fairness and trustworthiness can be shaped through human resource policies and practices .Within each organization the choices of strategies and policies offer statements of intent and the nature of their implementation and delivery provides tangible evidence of the extent to which management's intentions are genuine and can be trusted (Skinner 2004). Implementation of the various (HR) policies and the consistency of their implementation are important as they provide tangible evidence of the fairness of the organization Armstrong (2002). According to Tzafrir (2005) trust in senior management is more likely to be based on the outcomes of organizational decisions and less on their interpersonal attributes meaning that it is not just the outcomes of organizational decisions that are important but also the way the said decisions are communicated.

Porter (2007) highlighted that a set of high performing human resource practices such as recruitment, training, job design, participation, teamwork, work life balance and rewards were noted as important aspects in attainment of Job fit and this in the long term implies that people experience better fit with the job and the organization when more extensive human resource practices are in place. Storey (2000) says that after organizational entry, in the training, performance appraisal, recognition and reward stages of the Human resource cycle, organizations continue to manage fit levels. Training and development practices are used not only for enhancing skills and knowledge needed to perform well in the job but also for strengthening the desired values. Ashleigh (2007) noted that the safety of the training environment is crucial for team members to learn about each other and develop trust. The supportive environment also fosters positive feelings about working with other team members.

According to Dimba (2010), management of performance within organizations' is widely accepted as being crucial in the achievement of various significant outcomes related to organizational success, including the productivity and quality of employees, their commitment and job satisfaction and consequently forms a key component of human resource management strategy and practice. Performance appraisal is a system that assesses the quality and quantity of an employees work. According to (CIPD, 2005) human resource strategies reflect the philosophy of senior management with regard to the treatment of human resources and address the various activities related to their management, meaning that the HR function supports corporate goals by developing and implementing people management practices which engage employees and encourage them to direct their efforts towards the achievement of organizational goals. Dimba (2010) gives that strategic human resource management practices that best predict high performance are training and development and compensation practices coupled with motivation. Luthans (2005) noted that the strategic human resource management practices for competitive advantage are: information sharing, job design, programmes, job analysis methods, participation programmes, incentive based compensation, benefits, training, grievance, selection and staffing and performance appraisal.

Stavrou (2005) found that the best human resource management practices are: training, share options, profit sharing, group bonus, merit pay, joint HR management bundle, communication(on strategy, finance, change work organization) career, and wider jobs. Ulrich (2005) identified the need for the HR professionals to move away from traditional HR specialisms and create a range of new roles which focus on business outcomes and organisational performance. He identified the need for Human Resource professional to become business and strategic partners who are crucially involved with senior managers and line managers in strategy execution and value delivery and driving change together with being an employee champion and a functional expert. The discussion of strategic human resource management and human resource strategies emphasizes the role of the human resource practitioner as a business partner (CIPD 2005).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

According to Abeysekera (2007), employee turnover is a major challenge for organizations but companies implementing effective human resource management practices can reduce the rate of employee turnover and increase in competitiveness due to the fact that by retaining staff an organization it is able to retain its key asset. It is important to critically examine the actions of competitors as it directly or indirectly affects the organization. There are many ways an organization can retain its employees and gain sustained advantage over their competitors among them being the development of comprehensive human resource practices (Narsimha, 2000). According to Hausknecht (2009) there is so much literature information on employee turnover which gives the factors that cause employees to leave an organization but less is known on what compels employees to stay in an organization.

As a result of globalization the whole world have become single markets where companies have crossed their country of origin and opened their operations in other countries and this has created a challenge for organizations in terms of management of human resources (Tiwari 2012). Commercial banks in Kenya face many challenges in

today's dynamic market place and in a global economy that has become increasingly competitive requiring development of products and services that can satisfy a more demanding customer base and building long term customer trust (Munyoki, 2010). According to Kiptugen (2003) in Kenya commercial Bank, proactive rather than reactive strategies form the basis of strategic planning. Mello (2005) highlights that successful organizations are increasingly realizing that of the number of factors contributing to performance and staff retention , Human resource is the most critical. Commercial banks in Kenya are in very stiff competition for customers and also for staff and these are coupled with the task of retaining the right talent (GOK).

According to Boxall (2003), the big question will which HR policies and practices are more likely to contribute to sustainable competitive advantage and in particular staff retention as organizations go through their life cycle. Purcell (2003) noted that there are two kinds of mature organisations that manage to survive industry development; the one that succeeds in dominating the direction of the industry change and the firm that manages to adopt to the direction of change. Various studies have been carried out on this area, for example Munyoki (2010) researched on the various human resource practices in Commercial banks in Kenya, Kiptugen (2003) carried a study on Human resource practices in commercial banks in Kenya a case study of Kenya commercial bank. Kamoche (2004) carried out a study on staff retention in public universities in Kenya. These studies covered the staff retention in Kenyan universities but did not cover the staff retention in commercial banks in Kenya. This study will investigate the link between the strategic employee recruitment practices and staff retention in Kenyan commercial banks.

1.2 Hypothesis

H_0 *There is no significant relationship between strategic recruitment and employee retention in Kenyan commercial banks*

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This theory argues that the organisation should not try to achieve strategic fit with the external environment but aim to maximize its resources to create and dominate future opportunities porter (2008). This approach assumes that the core competencies in the organisation are unique; people are viewed as an investment and not a cost, learning knowledge sharing innovation and experimentation are encouraged and employees are involved in decision making. According to Porter (2008), the resource based approach argues for an exclusive form of 'fit' based on the theory that an organization's resources are the key sources of competitive advantage and this means that organization should not try to achieve strategy fit with the external environment but aim to maximize its resources to create and dominate future opportunities. This approach assumes that the core competencies in the organization are unique. People are viewed as an investment and not a cost, that learning, knowledge sharing, innovation and experimentation are encouraged and that employees are involved in decision making (Bingham 2008).

Armstrong (2008) argues that a resource based approach to strategic human management focuses on satisfying the human capital requirements of the organization. Purcell (2003) suggest that the values and human resource policies of an organization constitutes an important non-imitable resources and this is achieved by ensuring that;- the firm has higher quality people than its competitors, organization learning is encouraged, organization-specific values and a culture exist which bind the organization together (and) gives it focus, and the unique intellectual capital possessed by the business is developed and nurtured. The aim of a resource based approached is to improve resource capability achieving strategic fit between resources and opportunities and obtaining added value from the effective deployment of resources.

2.2 Strategic Employee Recruitment

Armstrong (2008) gives the overall aim of recruitment as to obtain at minimum cost the and quality of employees required to satisfy the human resource needs of the company and involves defining requirements (preparation of job description and specifications) and attracting candidates through reviewing and evaluating alternative sources of application inside and outside the company. Boxall (2000) gives a competency based approach to recruitment as that where competencies for a role are delivered and are used as the framework for the selection process. He says that a competency approach to recruitment as person-based rather than job-based. Wright (2004) points out that recruitment and selection are processes concerned with identifying, attracting and securing suitable people to meet and organizational human resource needs. Recruitment is concerned with identifying and attracting suitable candidates.

Porter (2008) says that recruitment and selection provides the conduit for staffing and resourcing the organization. An increasingly competitive and globalised business environment, coupled with need for quality and customer service has enhanced the importance of recruiting and selecting the right people. Boxall and Porcell (2000) highlights that in comparison with the physical tangible assets, an organization have will to determine its competitive advantage.

Sisson and Storey (2000) gives that recruitment and selection strategy should form part of a wider resourcing strategy linked to organizational goals. Scholes (2002) gives that recruitment and selection is a systematic process and that the psychometric approach to it is closely aligned with that or rational decision making where decision are made on the basis of some kind of assessment about the suitability of individuals who might fill a vacancy.

According to Porter (2008) recruitment and selection is a systematic process which involves the following steps: - HR planning, job analysis, job description, application form, advertisement, short listing, selection and finally decision making and offers. The methods of job analysis by Ahmad (2001) includes observation of the person doing the job, getting job holders to record their activities in work diaries, interviewing the job holders, questionnaires/checklists critical incidents and repertory grid techniques. CIPD (2005) notes that the most frequent response to employers to recruitment difficulties was recruiting people who have the potential to grow but don't currently have all that is required.

Employee retention stems from the employment process which comprise of employment processes (recruitment, selection & placement) predetermines the effectiveness of retention strategy. For employee retention to be successful, it has to be linked positively to the processes and practices of recruitment and the sources from which job candidates are recruited. Recruitment practice and empirical research suggests that employees may differ in their propensity to quit depending on the source from which they are recruited. Two rather different approaches to recruitment identified by Wanous (1975) as cited in Raub and Streit (2006) are the "traditional" approach which suggests that the ultimate goal of recruitment is to attract a maximum number of applicants to the recruiting organisation. In the traditional approach, providing incomplete or even biased information about the job and/ or the organisation may be an acceptable means for reaching this goal.

A review of the Human Resource literature seems to confirm that good retention is about more than what a company does once an employee has been hired and established within an organization. How companies recruit and how they provide orientation in the first days on the job can be of crucial importance to keeping workers over the longer term. Failure to effectively recruit and orient employees may impose significant separation and replacement costs down the road. Jackofsky, (1984) attributes 60% of undesirable turnover to bad hiring decisions on the part of the employer. "Bad hiring decisions" may cover a number of considerations, including overly hasty selection processes that fail to ensure that the job candidate really has the adequate skills and qualifications to do the job for which she or he is hired.

Good employee retention is in part a result of a good "fit" between a company's workplace culture, its way of doing business and the qualities that it espouses as valuable and the interests, character, and motivations of the individuals that exist within it. In terms of recruitment, companies should therefore put an emphasis on not only evaluating formal qualifications, job-relevant technical ability, etc., but also more general types of qualifications and dispositions on the part of the recruit.

If work in the company involves being part of a highly cohesive team, the company may want to recruit individuals who are interested in and capable of working in such an environment. Employees in some workplaces, particularly the smaller ones, do more than merely work together: they often share similar interests and have a very strong inter-personal rapport, and these in turn help to bind them together as a cohesive whole (Jackofsky, 1984). Indeed, the quality of interpersonal relations may contribute significantly to retention in its own right.

The other approach is the "realistic" approach which suggests that a "realistic job preview" whereby recruiters provide balanced and honest information about both the negative and positive aspects of the job and the organisation is undertaken. The traditional approach was criticised by researchers such as Raub and Streit (2006) who hypothesised that its benefits in terms of attracting a large number of candidates may be more than outweighed by its negative consequences for the selection and retention of those candidates.

According to Raub and Streit (2006), an unrealistic presentation of job-related information may lead to a "rude awakening" when newly hired employees discover the reality of the job. The larger the gap between what has been promised during recruitment and what the employees experience during their first weeks and months on the job, the higher the propensity to quit. The resultant effect is that the new appointees will be frustrated, dissatisfied, and unproductive and in the end they may quit rapidly.

Similarly, Lee (2006) proposes two mediators to recruitment theory as they affect turnover. These are the "realism" with which the candidate comes into the job and the job-fit, i.e. the extent to which the employee feels that the job accords with his/ her personality, ability and so on. Lee (2006) contends that if various recruitment sources can be found to have different realism and job-fit, and these in turn affect turnover, then retention strategies can be crafted around these recruitment techniques.

Griffeth, Hom, Fink, and Cohen (1997) explain that the recruitment source in which an employee enters a job may impact significantly upon work outcomes, including turnover. Broadly speaking, recruitment sources can be divided into two types, namely internal and external. According to Lee (2006), internal sources denote employees who are sourced from within the organisation while external sources provide employees who come from the outside. External sources include candidates sourced through advertisements in various media, public or private employment agencies, campus recruiting, internet applications, walk-ins, and head-hunted candidates. Internal sources include promotions or demotions (vertical moves), internal job postings (horizontal moves), employee personnel records, intranet advertisements and referrals. Empirical evidence (Lee, 2006) indicates that internal candidates are expected to provide better outcomes than external candidates. In the case of turnover, Lee (2006) proposes that internal candidates are less likely to quit (or will stay for longer period) than externally recruited employees.

Literature by Taylor (1993) as reported in Lee (2006) argues that a realistic approach is proposed to lead to better outcomes for four reasons: Firstly, applicants are better able to deal with the negative aspects of the job in a mental sense. The formation of realistic expectations means dissonance and the resultant dissatisfaction are not experienced. Secondly, candidates will have had time to formulate actual strategies for dealing with negative aspects of the job. Thirdly, the honesty inherent in revealing the less desirable aspects of the job may improve trust between employer and employee, leading to greater loyalty, commitment and retention. Finally, an element of realism enables candidates to decide for themselves whether the job meets their needs and requirements.

Thus, the realistic approach leads to self-deselection of unsuitable candidates out of the recruitment system, probably reducing costs due to early exit, dismissal and so on. Lee (2006) explains that it is generally considered desirable to inject a certain level of realism into the recruitment process. Some recruitment sources are inherently more conducive to realism, as the applicant is given different information depending on where she or he comes from. For example, internal candidates may have more information about the job merely by having had the opportunity to observe their colleagues performing the job. With such job related information at the disposal of job candidates, turnover would be reasonably reduced because prospective employees would have decided whether they want to accept the job or not during recruitment process.

Employee retention should be linked with an effective recruitment and selection process. HR practitioners and recruitment agencies, while recruiting job candidates for their organisations, should consider job previews as an integral part of the recruitment process. Job previews, when honestly conducted, have the potential of reducing early turnover of employees since such employees would have had firsthand knowledge of what the job entails and the conditions of service, particularly the base salary and other financial incentives during the job preview. Though realistic recruitment and job-fit approaches provide an important element for both job satisfaction and employee retention, they must be combined with other motivational variables to form a comprehensive retention strategy that can reduce high turnover rates effectively (Olorunjuwon, 2008).

It is equally important for the individual job candidate to have a fair chance at deciding whether the company is a good fit for him or her. Meyer et al (2003) have emphasized the importance of providing "realistic job previews" to potential employees. These previews provide potential new hires with more than just a cursory glance at a company's operations, providing the candidate with enough information to make a decision about whether it is the right workplace for him or her.

(Jackofsky, 1984) cite the example of a number of companies that simply relate the positives and negatives of the job and the organization in an objective, non-evaluative manner and let the candidate decide whether this is an opportunity that he or she wants to pursue. In the long run, getting real maximizes the fit between candidate and organization. This is not to downplay the importance of other traditional and non-traditional recruitment methods such as structured interviews, multiple and panel interviews, pre-employment testing, biographical data analysis, simulations and work samples. The company must have at its disposal the right tools to enable it to make reasonably accurate evaluations about the type of people it might hire; and there exist a great number of evaluation tools at the employer's disposal.

Many companies place great trust in candidates referred to them by members of their own firm, and some even support this process by awarding bonuses to employees who refer a candidate who eventually gets hired by the company Milman, (2003). While less formal in nature, employee referrals seem to accomplish both of the objectives just described. The employee who provides the referral is able to provide the candidate with a realistic preview of what it's like to work in the company based on personal experience and observation. Meanwhile, because they usually know the person they refer reasonably well, and would be hesitant to refer someone whose performance would reflect badly on them, employees can often provide critical information that resumés, job applications and interviews might not reveal. Including one's employees in helping to evaluate candidates may also be particularly effective with respect to retention

in workplaces where team-based work is the norm (Milman, (2003). Allowing employees to have a say in whoever they will be working with, and asking for their assistance in evaluating whether that person will be a good fit, may prove helpful in ensuring that the candidate not only has the requisite experience but will also be an effective member of the work team.

2.3 Employee Retention

According to Abeysekera (2007), employee turnover is a major challenge for organizations but companies implementing effective human resource management practices can reduce the rate of employee turnover and increase in competitiveness due to the fact that by retaining staff an organization is able to keep its key asset. It is important to critically examine the actions of competitors as it directly or indirectly affects the organization. According to Kok (2003) there are sets of human resource practices which are influenced by the human resource profession and which are referred to as best practice and which if well implemented will ensure retention of staff. According to Chandler (2000), the main issue in human resource research is whether there is a set of policies and practice that represent a set of superior approach to managing people and which are associated with organizational performance and staff retention. There are various factors which affect human resource practices which include both internal and external factors and the same differs from one organization to another (Ozutku 2009). According to Narsimha (2000), there are many ways in which companies can gain a competitive edge or a lasting or sustained advantage over their competitors, among them the development of comprehensive human resource practices.

To gain competitive advantage firms use different competitive strategies and these strategies are more productive when they are systematically linked with human resource management practices meaning that organizations can improve their environment by making efficient choices about human resource practices that consistently support the chosen strategy (Tiwari 2012). According to Capelli (2001), human resource practices enhance organizational performance and there is a clear link between human resource practices, workplace climate and employee retention. He found that those organizations which had implemented more progressive human resource practices and which reported a work place climate that strongly valued employee participation, empowerment and accountability tended to be better performing and hence competitive meaning employees will be happy continuing to work with them.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This was a survey research design. A survey design was appropriate for this study because it allows collection of information for both independent and dependent variables using questionnaires (Orodho, 2003). This design allowed the researcher to combine both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. According to Kothari (2009) qualitative approaches provide verbal descriptions rather than numerical descriptions.

3.2 Population

The target population in this study was the forty four commercial banks in Kenya which had been given operational License by the Central bank of Kenya. The study population for this study was the heads of human resources in the individual commercial banks in Kenya. Due to manageability of the population, the researcher used census study in which all the elements participated in the study.

3.3 Data Collection

The research instrument was a questionnaire consisting of both open- ended and closed- ended type of questions. The closed ended questions were aimed at giving precise information hence minimizing bias. The open ended questions ensured that the respondents were given freedom to express themselves. The questionnaire in this study was divided into six sections with section one giving the identification of the respondent and the job title. The other sections had questions aimed at providing the information on the various areas of this study. Secondary data was collected through review of published literature such as the various bank publications, central bank of Kenya reports and publications and text books. The questionnaires were then delivered by the researcher with the help of the two research assistants to the respondents. The respondents were waited to fill the questionnaire and those who were not in a position to fill them were given a maximum of two weeks to fill them after which the questionnaires were collected.

3.4 Data Processing and Analysis

In this study data were analysed using Statistical package for social science (SPSS). All the questionnaires received were referenced and items in the questionnaire coded to make data entry easy. Descriptive statistics were estimated for the various variables. Frequency tables and graphs were made for all the variables. The data reliability was checked using the Cronbachs alpha index. Inferential data analysis was done using Pearson correlation coefficient, regression analysis (enter method) and multiple regression analysis (step wise method). The correlation was used to

determine the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to establish the relationship between the various strategic human resource practices and employee retention. Hypothesis testing using p-value was done because it gave the strength of the decision. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) a significance level of 0.05 is recommended as it represents that results are at 95% confidence level. The statistical models to be used for analysis was multiple regression (enter method).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \epsilon$$

Where Y is the dependent variable employee retention

B_0 is the constant

B is the coefficient of X_1

X_1 is strategic recruitment

ϵ is the error term

4. Findings

4.1 Reliability Test

The Cronbach's Alpha values for all the indicators before and after extraction with a factor loadings value of less than 0.4 is presented. Cronbach's Alpha results in the first column were computed using results of all the indicators and the Cronbach's Alpha results in the last column were computed after the reduction of indicators/factors with factor loadings of less than 0.4. The findings of the study show that there were no indicators with less that 0.4 factor loading. All the factor loadings were above the 0.71 which was described by Hair et al. (1998) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) as excellent. The researcher therefore retained all the indicators of strategic recruitment as recommended by Hair, Tathan, Anderson and Black (1998) that factors with factor loadings of above 0.4 should be retained for further data analysis. Therefore the Cronbach's alpha result for all the strategic recruitment before and after factor loading remained the same (0.819). The value of the Cronbach's alpha which was above the 0.70 and this corroborated with Zinbarg (2005) that an alpha coefficient of 0.70 or higher indicates that the gathered data is reliable as it has a relatively high internal consistency and can be generalized to reflect opinions of majority of the respondents in the target population.

Table 1. Factor analysis and reliability of strategic recruitment

Cronbach's Alpha before	Indicators	Factors loading	Cronbach's Alpha after
.819	The organization utilizes psychometric testing	.935	.819
	The organization utilizes testing/examination to evaluate the potential of the target employees	.904	
	The organization offers incentives e.g. bonuses, special packages to attract potential candidates	.901	
	The organization utilizes internet and other technologies to attract potential candidates	.893	
	Organization employs head hunting strategies to attract potential candidates	.810	
	Management has been utilizing associations, universities, and professional bodies to source for its employees/talents	.793	
	Organization targets specific professionals to fill a specific need	.774	
	The organization does ranking of potential candidates according to job related requirements	.746	
	The organization utilizes websites to target large audience	.736	

4.2 Strategic Recruitment Practices

The study sought to determine strategic recruitment practices in the organizations. The findings in Table 2 show that most of the respondents (62.5%) agreed that the management had utilized associations, universities and professional bodies to source for its employees/talents. The findings also show that about 25% of the respondents remained neutral to the question. According to 62.5% of the respondents, the organization used psychometric testing in the recruitment of the staff. However, 15% of the respondents indicated that the organizations did not use psychometric testing for recruitment of its staff. Majority of the respondents (95%) indicated that their organization used websites to target large audience in its recruitments. The study findings also revealed that 87.5% of the respondents indicated that the organizations targeted specific professionals to fill specific needs as a strategic for recruiting talents to the organization. The results show that some 87.5% of the respondents indicated that the organization used head hunt strategies to attract potential candidates. As to whether the organization did the ranking of potential candidates according to job related requirements, most of the respondent (62.5%) did not agree nor disagree with the statement meaning they were not sure whether this happened or not. Only 25% of the respondents indicated that their organizations did the ranking of the candidates according to job related requirements. The respondents were asked to state whether the organizations used internet and other technologies to attract potential candidates. The results show that all the respondents indicated that the organizations used internet and other technologies to attract potential candidates.

Table 2. Strategic recruitment practices

	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Total
Management has been utilizing associations, universities, and professional bodies to source for its employees/talents	2.5	10	25	62.5	0	100
The organization utilizes psychometric testing	2.5	12.5	22.5	25	37.5	100
The organization utilizes websites to target large audience	0	2.5	2.5	70	25	100
Organization targets specific professionals to fill a specific need	0	0	12.5	75	12.5	100
Organization employs head hunting strategies to attract potential candidates	0	2.5	10	87.5	0	100
The organization utilizes testing/examination to evaluate the potential of the target employees	2.5	10	50	37.5	0	100
The organization offers incentives e.g. bonuses, special packages to attract potential candidates	0	0		62.5	37.5	100
The organization does ranking of potential candidates according to job related requirements	0	12.5	62.5	25	0	100
The organization utilizes internet and other technologies to attract potential candidates	0	0	0	75	25	100

4.3 Employee Retention

The study sought to determine the employee retention in the organizations. The respondents were asked to state the rate of turnover in the organization. The results show that half of the respondents (50%) agreed that the rate of turnover in their respective organizations were low. The findings show that 12.5% of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. The study sought to determine whether the respondents had the intention of leaving the organizations. The findings of the study show that slightly more than half of the respondents (55%) had no intention of leaving the organizations. The findings also show that 30% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. As to whether their work gives satisfaction to the employees, the findings show that majority of the respondents (77.5%) agreed that within the organizations their work gave them satisfaction. The study sought to find

out how long the respondents intended to stay in the organization. The findings of the study show that 42.5% agree that they saw future for themselves within this company. The findings show that 40.0% remained neutral as to whether they were seeing their future in the organization. The results mean that only a section of the respondents see future for themselves in the organization. On whether they were willing to work for the organization for the next five years, the results show that majority of the respondents (77.5%) agreed that they would be working for their organizations for the next five years. Respondents were asked to state whether if it were possible to start all over again, they would seek employment elsewhere. The findings show that half of the respondents (50%) indicated that indeed given chance they would seek job elsewhere if they were to start all over again. The respondents were asked to state whether they would take up a job given an attractive offer. The findings show that majority of the respondents (70%) agreed that they would take up the offer. The findings mean that the respondents would take up a better opportunity if they came across. The findings however show that 62.5% of the respondents agreed that the work they did was very important to them. The findings of the study that the employees would leave if they got better offer, agree with Mathis and Jackson (2004) and Khan (2010) who argued that most managers believe that money is the prime reason for leaving one employer for another.

Table 3. Employee retention

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
The rate of turnover in the organization is minimal	0	15	22.5	50	12.5	100
Have no intention of leaving the organization	2.5	12.5	30	47.5	7.5	100
Within this company my work gives me satisfaction.	2.5	5	12.5	77.5	2.5	100
I see a future for myself within this company.	5	12.5	40	42.5	0	100
If it were up to me, I will definitely be working for this company for the next five years.	2.5	5	12.5	77.5	2.5	100
If I could start over again, I would choose to work for another company.	5	10	35	45	5	100
If I received an attractive job offer from another company, I would take the job.	2.5	7.5	12.5	70	7.5	100
The work I'm doing is very important to me.	2.5	7.5	22.5	62.5	5	100
I love working for this company.	2.5	7.5	27.5	45	17.5	100

4.4 Whether Strategic Recruitment Practices Influenced Employee Retention

The sought to determine state the extent to which the strategic recruitment practices influenced employee retention in the organizations. The findings of the study in Figure 4.1 show that 30% of the respondents stated that the strategic recruitment practices influenced employee retention in the organization to a large extent. The findings also show that according to 23% of the respondents indicated that strategic recruitment practices influenced employee retention to a very large extent while 22% of the respondents indicated that it influenced to a moderate extent. The findings mean that the strategic recruitment influenced the employee retention.
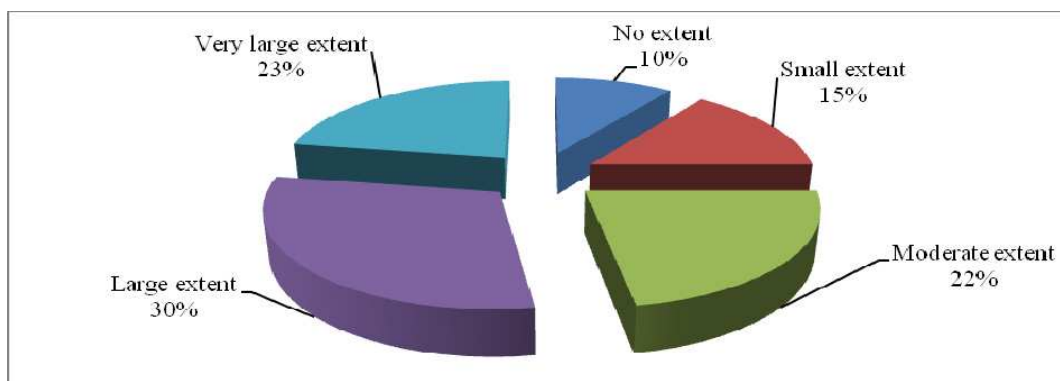

Figure 1. Whether strategic recruitment practices influenced employee retention

4.5 Correlation Analysis

The study conducted correlation analysis to test the strength of association/relationship between the research variables. The findings of the study presented in Table 4 show that strategic recruitment was positively related to the employee retention with a Pearson's Correlation Coefficient of r = 0.056 and at level of significance of 0.031, was statistically significant as the p-value is less than 0.05. This relationship was however very weak.

Table 4. Correlation analysis

		Strategic recruitment	Employee retention
Strategic recruitment	Pearson Correlation	1	0.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.031
Employee retention	Pearson Correlation	0.056	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.031	

4.6 Regression Analysis

The researcher conducted a regression analysis to determine the significance relationship of strategic recruitment against the employee retention. Table 5 shows that the coefficient of determination is 0.570; therefore, about 57.0% of the variation in the employee retention is explained by strategic recruitment. The regression equation appears to be relatively useful for making predictions since the value of R^2 is slightly more that half.

Table 5. Model summary for strategic recruitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.755[a]	.570	.558	.601

Table 6 presents the results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the strategic recruitment versus the employee retention. The ANOVA results for regression coefficients indicate that the significance of the F is 0.00 which is less than 0.05. This indicates that the regression model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable (i.e., it is a good fit for the data). There is therefore a significant relationship between strategic recruitment and the employee retention.

Table 6. ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	18.177	1	18.177	50.334	.000[a]
	Residual	13.723	38	.361		
	Total	31.900	39			

Predictors: (Constant), Strategic recruitment   Dependent Variable: Employee retention

The researcher sought to determine the beta coefficients of strategic recruitment verses the employee retention in the organization. Table 7 shows that there was positive relationship since the coefficient of strategic recruitment is 0.806 which is significantly greater than zero. The t statistics (7.095) was also greater than zero. This demonstrated that the strategic recruitment had a positive influence on the employee retention. With the significant coefficient value of 0.000 which is less than the p-value of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis that *there is no significant relationship between strategic recruitment and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya.* The researcher therefore accepts the alternative hypothesis that there exists a significant relationship between strategic recruitment and staff retention in commercial banks in Kenya.

Table 7. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.609	.412		1.478	.148
	Strategic recruitment	.806	.114	.755	7.095	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee retention

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5. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study the study concluded the by practicing strategic recruitment such as the use of use of associations, psychometric tests, websites, targeting specific professionals, employing head hunting strategies, offer incentives, ranking of potential candidates and utilization of internet and other technologies influenced the employee retention. The study therefore concluded that the strategic employee recruitment influenced the employee retention.

6. Recommendations

The study recommends that the management of all commercial banks should embrace strategic recruitment with the view of retaining their talents and thereby cutting the cost of recruitment and the loss of talents which are valuable to the organizations' competitiveness.

7. Limitations of the Study

The accuracy of findings was limited by the accuracy of statistical tools used for analysis. Some of the top management level employees could not be reached for any comment because of their busy schedules and also obtaining information from the Human Resources personnel was quite challenging because personnel information is not easily given out to employees.

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Effect of Organizational Structure on the Delivery of Quality Education in Public Technical and Vocational Education Institutions in Kenya

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of organizational structure on the delivery of quality education in public technical and vocational education institutions in Kenya. The study adopted Survey research design while target population was 689 employees in the Ministry of Educations' Directorate of Technical Education, National Polytechnics and Technical Institutions. Simple random, stratified and purposive l sampling techniques were used to select 11 managers in Directorate of Technical Education, 15 administrators from National Polytechnics and other technical institutions, and 220 instructors from technical institutions. Data was collected using structured questionnaires and interview schedules. Data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 17.0. Descriptive and inferential statistics and content and analyses were used for specific data. The analysis was further amplified by subjecting selected results to graphical and tabular techniques. The study established that the structure of the institutions was both inclusive and bureaucratic with a few being described as flexible. The management of the institutions was responsible for the implementation of the educational reforms. However, special groups were charged with responsibility of spearheading the change process. The organizational structure was directly linked with the quality of education as was demonstrated by the regression analysis. This relationship was however, not very strong. The study recommended that technical educational institutions should be structured to suite the particular reform process for effectiveness and achievement of desired results so as to enhance the quality of technical education

Keywords: delivery, organizational structure, quality education

1. Introduction

Change has been an integral part of human development with knowledge and education at its core (Kennedy & Lee, 2008; Jamila, 2012). The quest for knowledge and the desire to explore have brought enormous change in the human situation and its physical and socio-economic environment. This is due to the increased values placed on education as a vital tool for development. According to Ojiambo (2009), educational development would lead to accelerated economic growth, more wealth and income distribution, greater quality of opportunity, availability of skilled manpower, decline in population growth, long life, better health outcomes, low crimes rate, national unity and political stability.

Since education systems the world over are responsible for knowledge generation and transfer in society, the struggle to regulate the cyclic and complex association between change and knowledge has been underway at different levels of the reforms with varying degrees of implementation success (Haris, 2009; Levin, 2009). The motives behind these regulations have always been pristine, especially in the presence of political expediency (Gunter, 2008; Hargeaves, 2005; Harris, 2011; Levin and Fullan, 2008; Levin, 2010), market ruthlessness (Cheng, 2010; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009; Hill, 2009) and even religious predispositions in some education systems (Kennedy & Lee, 2008).

According to a study by Margherita (2006), educational reforms in fourteen European countries (viz Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom) were intended to make more youth attend colleges. The study found that these policy changes resulted in one additional year in school in some countries while in other it resulted in up to three additional years of schooling. In the United States of America (U.S.A), the reforms were aimed at producing graduates who will be competitive in the global market arena (Berube, 2004).

In Africa educational reforms were done for various reasons and with mixed levels of success. In South Africa the post-apartheid educational reforms were geared towards achieving equality because the government inherited one of the most unequal societies in the world (Bhikha, 2002). The reforms focused on three interventions namely: education finance reform, curriculum reform and teacher rationalization process (Bhikha, 2002). According to Jansen and Taylor (2003), the reforms achieved only little success due to what he terms as lack of wide systematic thinking, uncoordinated nature of the initiatives and the conflicting logic of the different initiatives. In Benin educational reforms were not implemented due to lack of budgetary support after United States Agency for International Development (USAID) withdrew its support and the national government was unable to finance the reforms alone (Bhikha, 2002). In Uganda, national politics often superseded educational reform goals and the local communities frequently received mixed signals regarding their involvement in their children's education (Moulton et al., 2002).

Educational change in Kenya dates back to the early years of post independent Kenya. After independence, the government appointed a committee of eminent Kenyans chaired by Prof. Ominde in 1964 and Gachukia, (2003) to collect views from the people and reform the education sector to be more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya. They recommended a system that will foster national unity; create human resources and development (Sessional Paper no. 1 2005).

The Mackay report of 1984 recommended the establishment of a second public university and retained the eight national goals of education and training articulated by Ominde report. These are; foster nationalism, patriotism and promote national unity; promote the socio-economic, technological and industrial skills for the country's development; promote individual development and self-fulfillment; promote sound moral and religious values; promote social equality and responsibility; promote respect for and development of Kenya's rich and varied cultures; promote international consciousness and foster positive attitudes towards other nations; and to promote positive attitudes towards good health and environmental protection.

The Koech report (2000) recommended integration of total quality in education and training. The recommendations of this report were not fully implemented due lack of adequate resources. The government managed only to rationalize the curriculum in line with national needs and international markets. A major policy intervention was the introduction of free primary education in January 2003 by the government. Thereafter a national education conference was organised in November 2003 and their recommendations led to the development of Sessional Paper number 1 of 2005 which forms the current education, training and research policy. The paper introduced some reforms including free day secondary education, (Kamunge report, 2008). Following the launch of Kenya Vision 2030 in 2007 and the promulgation of the new constitution in August 2010, it has become necessary to re-align the education sector to comply with the new developments.

The role of technical educational institutions in Kenya is furnishing skills required to improve productivity, raise income levels and improve access to employment opportunities (Nyerere, 2009). However, the levels of unemployment in the country have been souring every year. This has resulted to the reforms in the sectors such as the Technical, Industrial, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TIVET) Bill 2012 which among others aimed at making the sector shift from time bound curriculum-based training to flexible and competency-based training, from supply-led training to demand-driven training, expansion of the technical institutions to provide training to large numbers of young people who graduate annually from secondary and primary school systems and to harmonize the education training system for East African Countries (Owate, 2012).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Education in the technical institutions in Kenya has been faced with challenges of relevance, educated unemployed, more demand for change in education to fit the industry among others (Chang'ach, 2013). There also exists issues of infrastructural inequities and dilapidated facilities and shortage of technical teachers (Otiato, 2009). The number of students being absorbed in the technical institutions has been below the threshold despite the fact that the institutions are expected to absorb the remainder of students after the Universities have taken theirs (Harris, 2011).

The foregoing prompted the reforms in the technical educational training institutions in Kenya which were aimed at addressing these challenges. For instance, TIVET Act (2012) recommended streamlining curriculum to industrial needs, face-lifting physical facilities and expanding the institutions to accommodate more students. In line with the Act is the Vision 2030 through which Kenya expects to become a newly industrialised, middle-income country, providing high quality life for all its citizens by the year 2030. This will be through the production of produce goods and services of industrial nature that will be sold beyond her borders to generate real income for the country (Government of Kenya, 2007). It is the technical institutions which are expected to take the drivers seat by mass

production of well qualified technologists and engineers. Yet the institutions are not producing people who will take the country to this Promised Land (Kenya National Commission of Human Rights, (KNCHR, 2012).

Expansion of the Universities has necessitated the takeover of the existing technical institutions by the National Universities such as the Kenya Science Teachers College, Muranga College of Technology and Kenya and Mombasa Polytechniques. This has resulted into the dying of the vocational colleges which fed the manufacturing industries with skilled labour (Cheserek & Mugalavai, 2012). This begs the question as to the commitment of the government to the achievement of the industrialization goal and the fate of students who are not admitted to the universities (Varghese, 2013).

Failure in the implementation of the reforms in the education sector in general and technical education in particular has been attributed to lack of political goodwill, lack of consultation of the stakeholders and resistance to change among others (Obonyo, 2012). Reforms processes in the education sector are largely change management issues. Studies by Kaminski (2000), Senge (1999) and Moran and Brightman (2001) revealed that effective change management required constitution of proper organizational structure among others. Kessler (2009), Van Sant (2008) and Tropenbos (2007) found out that the product of effective change management should be better problem solving in an institution that leads to improved quality service to customers. It was against this background that this study sought to evaluate the change management capacity with regard to the organizational structure on the quality of education in the technical institutions in Kenya.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The Kurt Lewin (1951) Three-Step Change model which views behavior as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposing directions was used. According to the model, driving forces facilitate change because they push employees in the desired direction. Restraining forces hinder change because they push employees in the opposite direction. Therefore, these forces must be analyzed and Lewin's three-step model can help shift the balance in the direction of the planned change.

According to Lewin, the first step in the process of changing behavior is to unfreeze the existing situation or status quo which is considered the equilibrium state. Unfreezing is necessary to overcome the strains of individual resistance and group conformity. Unfreezing can be achieved by the use of three methods. First, increase the driving forces that direct behavior away from the existing situation or status quo. Second, decrease the restraining forces that negatively affect the movement from the existing equilibrium. Third, find a combination of the two methods listed above. Some activities that can assist in the unfreezing step include; motivating participants by preparing them for change, building trust and recognition for the need to change, and actively participating in recognizing problems and brainstorming solutions within a group (Robbins, 2003).

Lewin's second step in the process of changing behavior is movement. In this step, it is necessary to move the target system to a new level of equilibrium. Three actions that can assist in the movement step include; persuading employees to agree that the status quo is not beneficial to them and encouraging them to view the problem from a fresh perspective, work together on a quest for new, relevant information, and connect the views of the group to well-respected, powerful leaders that also support the change.

The third step of Lewin's three-step change model is refreezing. This step needs to take place after the change has been implemented in order for it to be sustained or "stick" over time. It is likely that the change will be short lived and the employees will revert to their old equilibrium (behaviors) if this step is not taken. It is the actual integration of the new values into the community values and traditions. The purpose of refreezing is to stabilize the new equilibrium resulting from the change by balancing both the driving and restraining forces. One action that can be used to implement Lewin's third step is to reinforce new patterns and institutionalize them through formal and informal mechanisms including policies and procedures (Robbins, 2003).

Lewin's model of change fitted the study because as motivation is important for the unfreezing state. Organization structure is important in unfreezing of the process because according to Chandler (1962), change management is dependent on the organizational dimension such as structure. This is explained in the model where firms decide on change strategy that puts in such structure, system, reward and process to support the strategy. Fair and consistent policies are useful ingredients in minimizing turbulent resistance to change experienced in Lewis' 2nd stage of change process (Tushman, Newman & Romanelli, 1997)

2.2 Organizational Structure

Among the issues pointed out by Hrebiniak (2006) as overreaching factors that impede change was the organizational structure. The study noted that managers were often trained to plan and not to execute strategies. The top managers are therefore always reluctant to "soil their hands" in the messy tasks of change implementation. This is because many of the areas of change are behavioral in nature and are therefore multifaceted and messy in nature and their execution always creates the need to manage change in complex organizational contexts (Kazmi, 2008).

For the successful reforms the responsiveness of the whole organization is critical for an organization to avoid the difficulties associated with this change (Al-Mashari & Zairi, 2000). Organizational structure plays an important role in helping management to achieve its objectives and follow the firm's strategy (Robbin & DeCenzo, 2005). Many studies have found a significant relationship between organization structures and enhanced performance (Enz, 2008; Tarigan, 2005). Burns and Stalker (1961) and Covin and Slevin (1990), for example, reported such a structure to be more appropriate than its mechanistic counterpart in an environment characterized by high rates of technological and market change. Maffei and Meredith (1995) recommended that organizations adopt a flexible structure to encourage greater staff participation, which, in turn, can improve problem identification and resolution and enhance performance and quality. Tarigan (2005) employed organizational structure as a moderating variable in analyzing the relationship between business strategies and performance. This study seeks to investigate the influence of organizational structure on the effectiveness of change in the technical institutions and its effect on the quality of education.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) is responsible for providing education to its citizens (Ministry of Education, 2008). Its tasks include distribution of learning resources, and implementation of education policies. Tertiary education, where technical institutions belong, falls under the Ministry. The ministry's mandate include: Science Technology Innovation (STI) Policy; research development, research authorization; and coordinating Technical Education (TE). The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) is responsible for educational research and development of the curriculum. It focused on providing quality, relevant and affordable educational and training programs in response to a changing social, economic and technological environment. The initiatives are met through continual research, evaluation, assessment and the monitoring processes (Kenya Institute of Education, 2009). The study sought to find out how the organizational structure influenced the reforms process in the education sector and technical institutions in particular and how this has affected the quality of technical education.

As the field of sustainability research matures, the value of implementing staff becomes more evident. Any organization can hire outside consultants to implement a strategy to achieve change to a certain extent and it has been done many times (Zeina, 2009). What is more challenging to an organization that remains a lingering question on researchers and business leaders' minds alike is how then to continue efficiently. It is one thing for a manager to set goals and a path for employees to follow in order to achieve the intended goals and another to work collaboratively to look at the system as a whole and learn how to improve the process from within to achieve the desired change (Senge *et al*, 2008). This study sought to determine how the organization was coordinated for effective change management.

3. Methodology

The study adopted a survey research design to evaluate the management capacity with respect to organizational structure on the quality of technical education in Kenya. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) surveys enable researchers to obtain data about practices, situations or views at one point in time through questionnaires and interviews. It is concerned with the questions as what, how and why of a phenomenon which was the concern for the study (Kothari, 2004). Surveys produce quantitative descriptions of some aspects of the study population of which the study sought to determine the effect of organizational structure on the quality of education.

The target population was all employees in the technical training institutions in Kenya and the management of the Ministry of Educations' Directorate of Technical Education. According to the Directorate's human resource department, there were 31 employees in the job groups M to S which is the management cadre. The study targeted all the 47 technical institutes under the TIVET sector in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labour and Human Resources Development. The study targeted the management and instructors of technical institutions. According to the Directorate of Technical Institutions (2012), there were 4,124 instructors in the public technical institutions in Kenya.

The researcher sampled 14 technical institutions from the total 47 which represented 30% of the target population which is in line with Mugenda and Mugenda's (2003) recommended 30% of the population. The researcher then sampled 242 respondents using both stratified random sampling and purposive sampling which is 37% of the population of the sampled technical institutions. The first strata were the managers of the Directorate of Technical Education. The second strata had the National Polytechnics while the third strata were the other 11 technical institutions.

The research Instruments comprised of structured questionnaires and interview schedules. The questionnaires were preferred as the most suitable instruments for the data collection because they allow researchers reach many respondents (or large samples) within limited time (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The purpose of the interviews was to explore experiences of the management in the change management process. The researcher self-administered the questionnaires to the respondents and conducted interviews with the assistance of trained research assistants.

Data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of computer software for data analysis (SPSS). Descriptive statistics consisted of computation of sums, means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. Qualitative data was analysed using content analysis. The study used regression analysis to establish how the organizational structure, affected the quality of technical education in Kenya. The model for the regression analysis was:

$$Y = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

Where:

Y	-	Quality of technical education
α_0	-	Is the constant
X_1	-	Organizational structure
β_1	-	Coefficients
e	-	Error term

4. Findings

4.1 Employee Demographic Data

Employees' data about demographic questions was evaluated by using frequency and percentage analyses.

The results in Figure 1 show that 40.7% of the instructors were aged between 31 and 40 years while 37.3% were aged between 41 and 50 years. The study findings further show that 36.4% of the managers were aged between 41 and 50 years and over 50 years. It emerged that 27.3% of the managers were aged between 31 and 40 years. For the policy makers, the results show that majority (66.7%) were aged between 41 and 50 years while only 20% were aged between 31 and 40 years and the rest (13.3%) were aged over 50 years. The study findings mean that while the age of the instructors was distributed in all the age categories with concentration between 30 and 49 years, there were no institutional managers aged 30 years and below but equal distribution in other categories whiles the same was for the policy makers with concentration between 41 and 50 years.
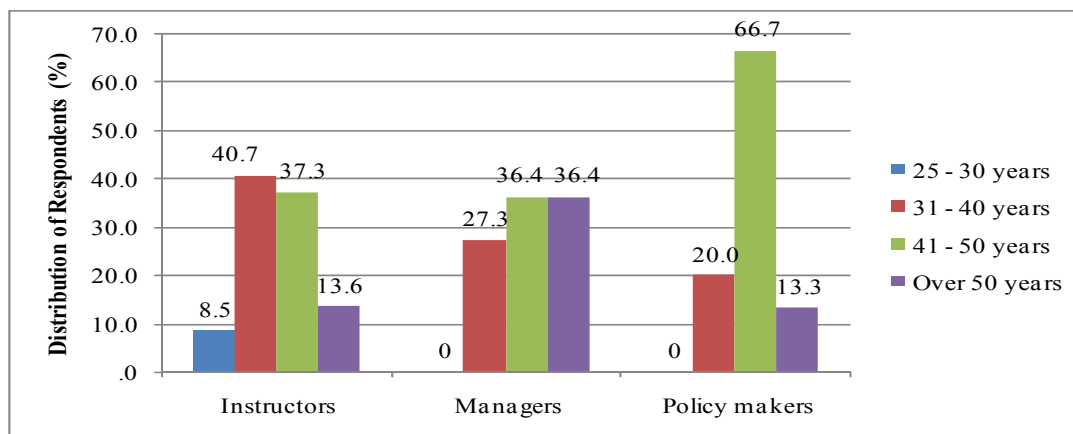

Figure 1. Distribution by age

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The distribution of the respondents by designation presented in Figure 2 show that most of the respondents (42.4%) were lecturers. The results further revealed that 28.8% of the respondents were tutors implying that the instructors were the majority of the respondents.
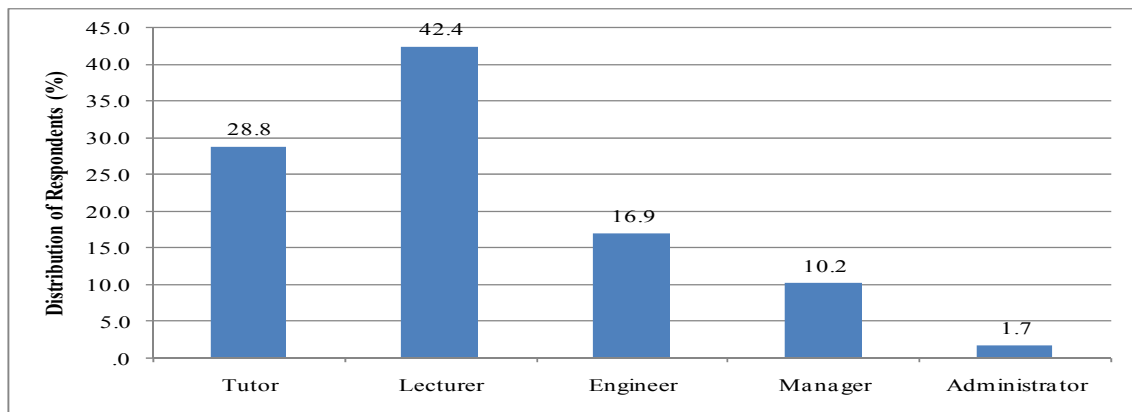

Figure 2. Distribution of respondents by designation

The findings in Figure 3 show that most of the instructors (52.5%) were graduates while 44.1% had post graduate education. On the other hand, majority of the managers (63.6%) had post graduate level of education while 36.4% were graduates. The study findings also revealed that majority of the policy makers (80%) had post graduate qualifications. It implied that most of the respondents were qualified to understand the nature of the problem of the study.
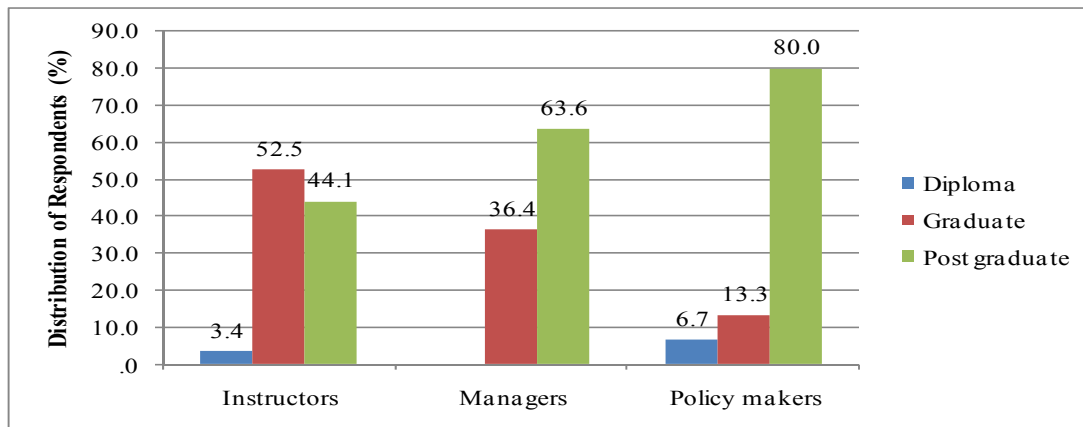

Figure 3. Education level of respondents

The results in Figure 4 revealed that most of the instructors (42.4%) had been in their organizations for less than five years while 30.5% of them had been there for between 5 and 10 years. The findings also revealed that majority of the institutional managers (63.6%) had been in their organizations for between 5 and 10 years, 27.3% for less than five years while 9.1% for between 11 and 19 years. The findings further revealed that 40% of the policy makers had been in their organizations for less than five years, 33.3% between 5 and 10 years and 20% over 15 years. These findings were in line with assertion by Braxton (2008) that respondents with a higher working experience assist in providing reliable data on the study problem since they had technical experience on the problem being investigated. The findings of the study implied that 50% of the respondents had worked in their respective organizations for long and thus understood the technical issues on change management capacity and its effect on the delivery of quality of the education in technical and vocational institutions in Kenya.
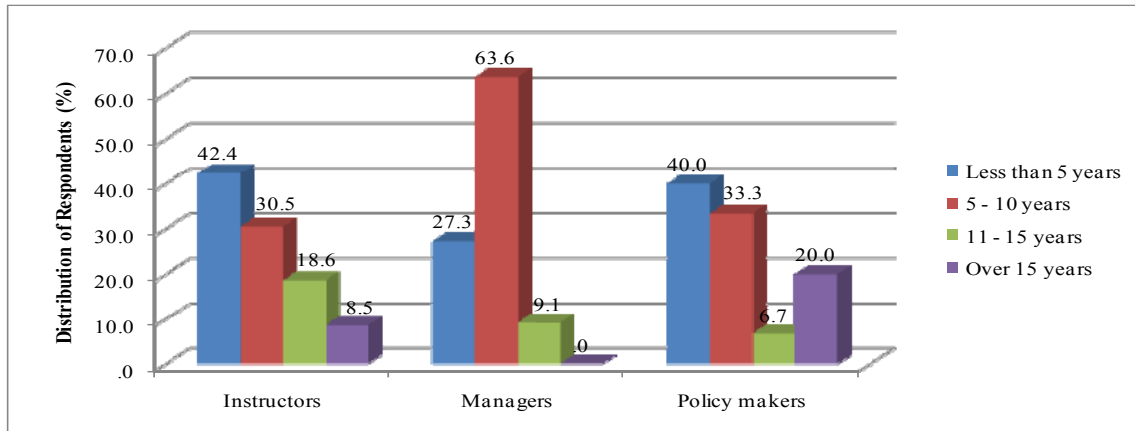
Figure 4. Working experience of the respondents

4.2 Whether Organizational Structure Influenced the Quality of Technical Educational Institutions

In this section the study sought to determine whether the organizational structure influenced the quality of technical educational institutions.

The study sought to determine the type of structures adopted by the institutions. The results in Figure 5 revealed that 38.8% of the respondents described the organizational structure as flexible while 37.2% described it as rigid. The findings further indicated that most of the institutional managers described the organizational culture as bureaucratic. The results revealed that 27.3% of the respondents described suitable organization structures as matrix and functional. These findings implied that while the instructors feel that the organizations are accommodative, the managers of the institutions perceived the structure by following a laid down procedure.
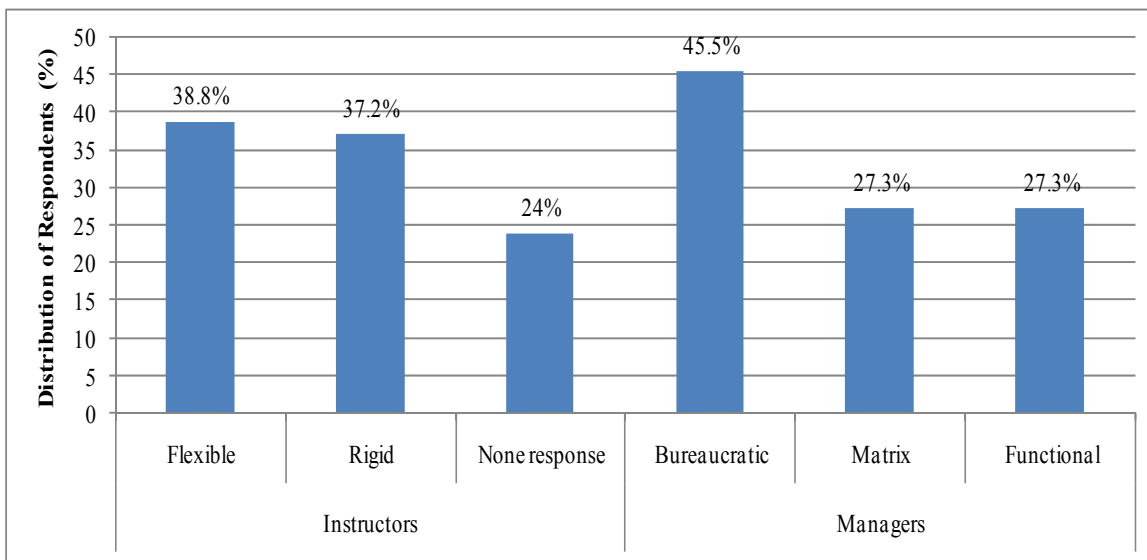

Figure 5. Type of structure adopted by the institutions

The study sought to establish from the institutional managers whether the organization charged a particular group with the change process during the reforms process. According to table 1, most respondents (54.5%), followed by 27.3% agreed to a large extent and very large extent respectively that the organization charged a particular group with the change process. This implied that a particular group was charged with the responsibility of change process during the reforms, thus confirming the findings of Moran and Bringtman (2001). Asked to justify their responses, the institutional managers explained that every time there was change in the organization the management charged a particular group headed by management to spearhead the change process.

Table 1. Organization charge a particular group with change process

Response	Frequency	Percent
No extent	0	0.0
Small extent	0	0.0
Moderate extent	2	18.2
Large extent	6	54.5
Very large extent	3	27.3
Total	**11**	**100**

As to whether the Institutions planned for the implementation of educational reforms, the findings in Table 2 revealed that most Technical Institution managers (81.8%) agreed that they indeed planned for the implementation of the educational reforms, a finding which appeared to support the study by Moran and Bringhtman (2001) on how to lead organizational change, organizational structure was very important for effective change management in the organization. The study noted that the change process required that right structure is put into place as every change requires unique approach for successful execution. On the other hand, only 18.2% did not.

Table 2. Plan for the implementation of educational reforms

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	9	81.8
No	2	18.2
Total	**11**	**100.0**

The institutional managers were asked to list some of the plans that were put in place for the implementation of reforms in the institutions. This was on a scale of 1-5 'strongly disagree' (1); 'disagree' (2); 'neutral' (3); 'agree' (4) and; 'strongly agree' (5). The key factors rated by the respondents were mobilization of resources, selection of team, and training of change and consultation of stakeholders. The results on Table 3 above showed that most of the Technical Institution managers (54.5%) strongly agreed that the institutions mobilized resources while 36.4% agreed that they planned for mobilization of resources. The high mean score of 4.45 shows that generally the respondents strongly agreed that mobilization of resources was part of the plans in place for the implementation of reforms. There were no variations in responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

The findings show that 45.5% of the Technical Institution managers strongly agreed that the organization had plans for selecting teams to spearhead the reforms process. The same proportion of the managers agreed that plans were in place for the selection of the reforms team. The mean score of 4.27 showed that generally the respondents strongly agreed that the institution management plan the selection of team to spearhead the reforms process. There were no variations in responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

The study findings further revealed that the Technical Institution managers who agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that institutions planned for the training of staff on change were equal, each at 45.5%. The mean score of 4.36 meant that respondents strongly agreed that the management planned for the training of staff. There were no variations in responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

Furhtermore, most of the Technical Institution managers (54.5%) agreed that the institutions planed consultation with the stakeholders while 36.4% strongly agreed with the statement that the institution planned for consultation with stakeholders. The findings mean score of 4.18 meant that respondents strongly agreed that the management planned consultation with stakeholders. There were no variations in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

Table 3. Type of plans for implementation of reforms in place

	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std. Dev
Mobilization of resources	0	0	9.1	36.4	54.5	4.45	0.688
Selecting the team to spearhead the process	0	9.1	0	45.5	45.5	4.27	0.905
Training of staff on change	0	0	9.1	45.5	45.5	4.36	0.674
Consultation with stakeholders	0	9.1	0	54.5	36.4	4.18	0.874
Average	**0**	**4.6**	**4.6**	**45.5**	**45.5**		

The study sought to determine the extent to which the institutional managers were inclusive in the management of the change process by involving other staff. According to figure 6 above, most of the Technical Institution managers (54.5%) indicated that to a large extent the institution management gave other staff the opportunity to participate in the change process. Further, 27.3% of them indicated that the management to a very large extent offered other staff the opportunity to participate in the change process. These findings implied that the management were to a large extent inclusive enough to allow other staff to participate in the change process which supported the views of Kotter (2007) regarding participation of everyone in the change process.
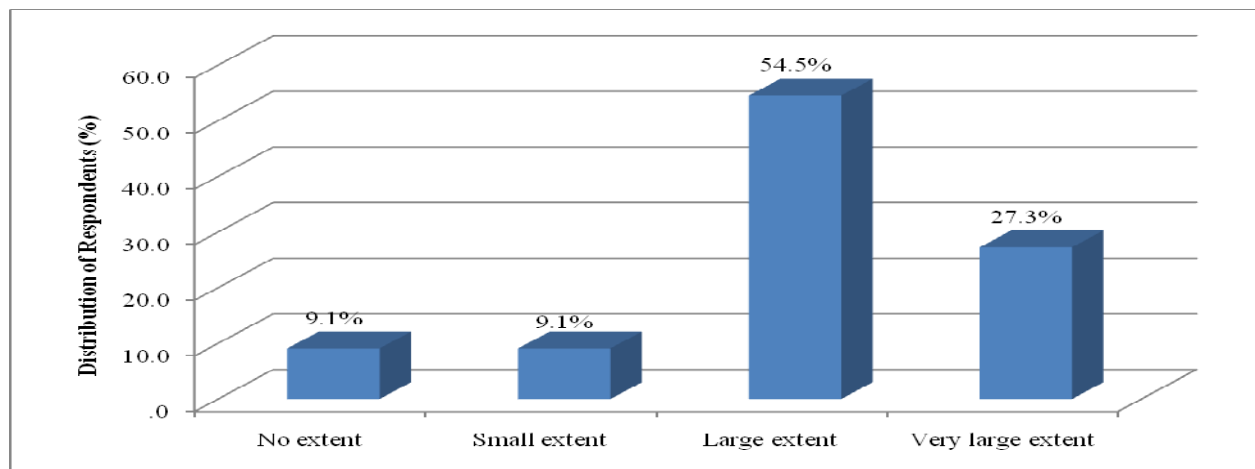

Figure 6. Whether other staff were given opportunity to participate in change process

The study sought to establish from the institution managers the person responsible for the change process in the organization. According to Figure 7, most institution managers (55%) felt that a special team assembled to oversee the change process was responsible for the change process while 36% indicated that the management was responsible for the change process in the institutions. These findings meant that the change steering team was responsible for the change process in most of the institutions. In other organizations, the managers were responsible for the change process (36%).
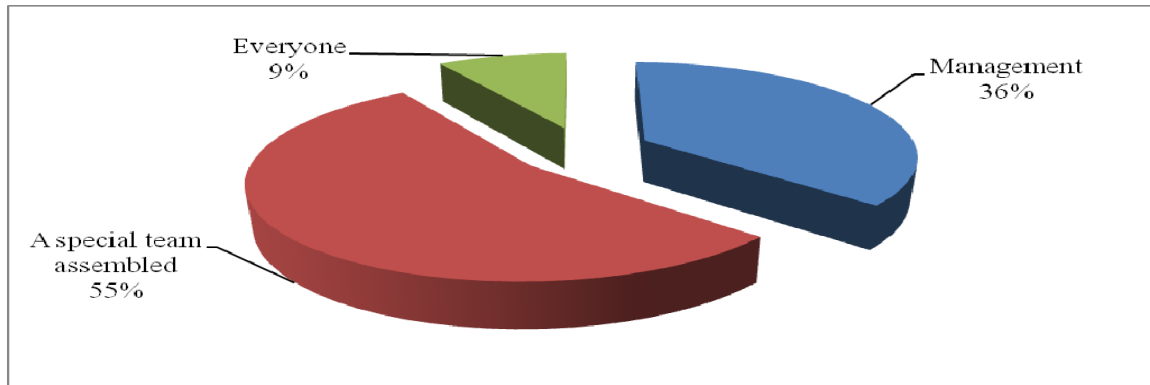
Figure 7. In-charge of change process in the organization

As to whether there was coordination in the reforms process within the institutions, the results revealed that according to most of the institution managers (54.5%) there was, to large extent, coordination in the reforms process between the management and the staff, while 18.2% responded to a very large extent on the same. The findings therefore meant that there was coordination between the management and the instructors in the reforms process as advocated by Al-Mashari and Zairi (2000) that the success of reforms required proper coordination between the management and the staff.
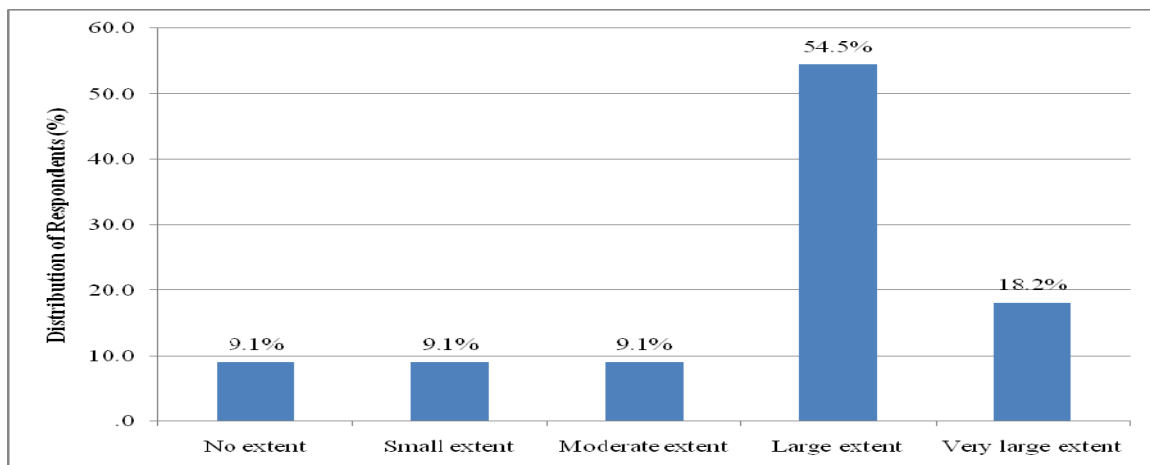

Figure 8. Whether co-ordination in reforms process between management and instructors exist

The institution managers were asked to state whether the management was flexible in incorporating the views of other staff in the implementation of reforms in the organization. According to figure 9 above, majority of the managers (82%) indicated that indeed the management was flexible in incorporating the views of other staff in the implementation of reforms in the organization, while only 18% responded in the contrary. The findings meant that the management exercised inclusiveness in the reforms process as every person's views were welcomed.

Asked to justify their 'Yes' responses, the managers explained that the management embraced diverse opinions for proper implementation of the reforms in the organization. Two out of the eleven (18.2%) institution managers stated that they usually considered the views of the instructors as paramount in the change process for the successful implementation of the reforms. However, according to two other respondents, the implementation of the reforms was the duty of the management as the other staffs were only to take instructions from the management on what to do. They went further to argue that allowing for divergent views caused confusion and lead to failure of the process. These findings supported the views by Maffei and Meredith (1995) that for greater outcome of the reforms process, organizations should adopt a flexible structure to encourage greater staff participation in the reforms process. Figure 5 below illustrates the findings.
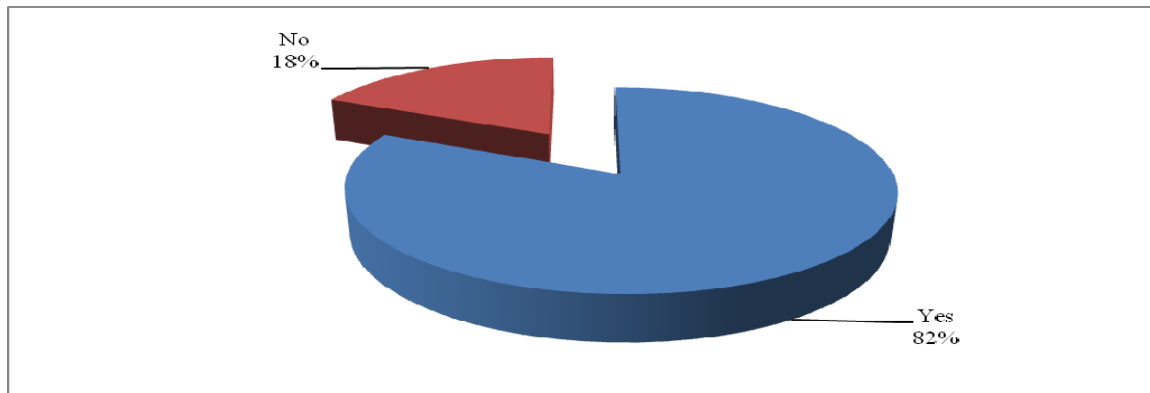
Figure 9. Management flexible in accepting the views of other staff

The study sought to determine the extent to which the organizational structure had influenced the management of the reforms process in the technical education institutions. The instructors were asked to state the extent to which they agreed with the statements regarding the influence of organizational structure and the management of the reforms process. This was on the scale of strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). The factors tested were responsibility of management, team to oversee reforms, involvement of management, treatment of employees, and the quality of training. The results in Table 4 showed that majority of the instructors (63.7%) strongly agreed that the management were responsible for the management of the changes in the institutions while 23.4% agreed. Those neutral constituted only 10% while none disagreed. The findings mean according to majority of the respondents, the management was responsible for the change process in the institutions. The findings also showed a high mean score implying that on average the respondents strongly agreed that the management was responsible for the change in the institutions. There were no variances in the responses (standard deviations ≤ 1).

The findings show that 39.3% of the instructors agreed that always there was a team in place to oversee the new reforms while 28.9% strongly agreed. The findings meant that the institutions assembled teams to oversee the reform processes whenever there were proposed reforms to be effected. These findings confirmed earlier findings by the management that the organizations had special group charged with implementation of reforms. There were no variances in the responses (standard deviation ≤ 1).

The results showed that 31.8% of the respondents agreed that the organization management was accommodative while 12.9% strongly agreed. The findings also show that the mean score of 3.51 meant that the respondents generally agreed that the organization management was accommodative. These findings confirmed those of the management who indicated that they gave the other staff opportunity to participate in the reforms process. There were no variances in the responses (standard deviation ≤ 1).

As to whether all the employees were treated equally in the implementation of reforms, 29.9% disagreed with the statements that all the employees were treated equally in the implementation of reforms. On the other hand, those who agreed and strongly agreed with the statement were equal, each at 15.9%. Even though the mean score was 3.15, the score was not as high. This implied that slightly more than half of the respondents agreed that all the employees were treated equally when it came to the implementation of the reforms. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation ≥ 1).

On whether the quality of the training was attributed to flexibility in the organizational structure, 38.8% and 19.9% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the quality training was attributed to flexible organization structure. Hence, with a mean score of 3.90, the respondents generally agreed that the quality of training was attributed to the flexible organization structure.

Table 4. Effect of organizational structure on management of reform process

	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std. Dev
Management is responsible for the management of the changes in the institution.	0	3.0	10.0	23.4	63.7	4.48	.794
Always a team in place to oversee the new reforms.	1.5	9.0	21.4	39.3	28.9	3.85	.989
Organization management is accommodative.	1.0	4.5	49.8	31.8	12.9	3.51	.813
All employees treated equally in implementation of reforms.	1.0	29.9	37.8	15.4	15.9	3.15	1.054
Quality of training attributed to flexible organization structure.	2.0	3.5	35.8	19.9	38.8	3.90	1.030
Average	**1.1**	**10.0**	**30.9**	**26.0**	**32.0**		

The institutional managers were asked to state the extent to which the organizational structure had influenced the success of the reforms process which led to enhanced quality of education. The findings in Figure 10 revealed that majority of the institutional managers (63.6%) indicated that the organization structure influenced the reforms in the institutions to a large extent while 18.2% of the respondents indicated that the structure influenced the reforms process to a very large extent. The findings mean that the organization structure influenced the reforms process in the organizations to a very large extent.

The institutional managers were asked to state how the organizational structure had influenced the quality of education in the institutions. The respondents explained that the structure should be in such a way that it will enhance the implementation of change. They stated that change process or reforms process at all time require restructuring. The restructuring process aligned the organization for the adoption of the reforms.
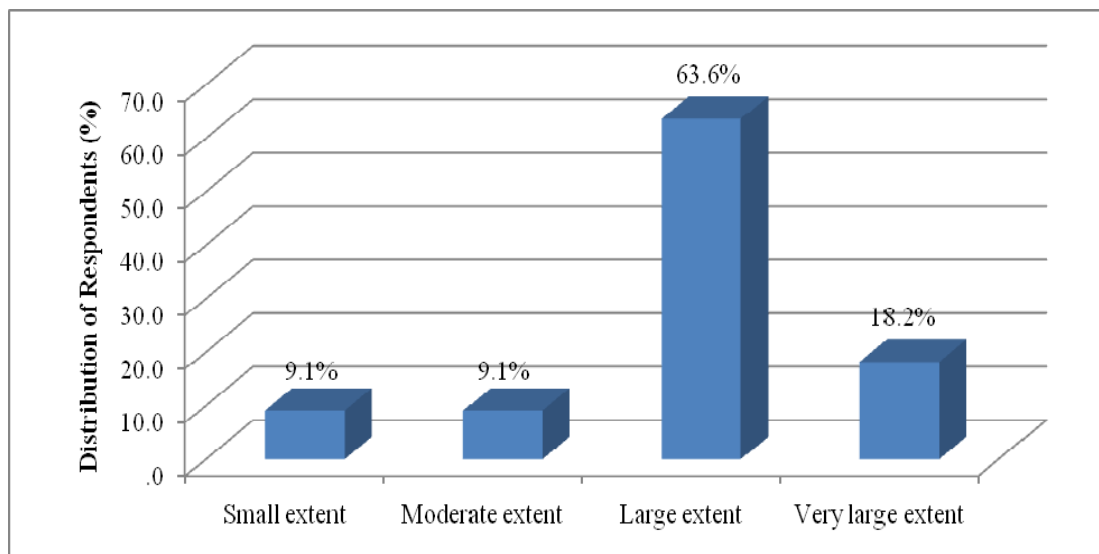

Figure 10. Whether organizational structure influenced reforms process

4.3 Quality of Technical Education

The study sought to determine the quality of technical education. The institutional managers were therefore asked to state their level of agreement with the statements regarding the quality of technical education in their institutions. The study findings on Table 5 above showed that most of the institutional managers (45.5%) disagreed that the institutions produced competent graduates fit for the job market while 18.8% of them strongly agreed with this statement. The results show that on average, the institutional managers (45.5%) were neutral as to whether the graduates were competent and fit into the market or not (mean score, 2.82). The study findings show that most of the institutional managers (27.3%) disagreed that the graduates got absorbed into the job markets. This was confirmed by the mean score (2.45). The findings of the study also show that most of the institutional managers (36.4%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the number of enrolment in their institutions have been going up. 36.4% of the respondents agreed that there has been minimal drop out of students while 18.2% strongly agreed that there was minimal dropout of students. The findings showed that generally, the respondents agreed that the dropout of students was minimal. There were variances in the responses (standard deviation $\geq$ 1). The respondents explained that despite the success in producing many graduates into the job market, the employers had always complained that the graduates are half baked. The respondents also explained that the time allocated for attachment was too short for the graduates to integrate with the practical work.

Table 5. Quality of technical education

	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std. Dev
Institution produces competent graduates fit for the job market	9.1	45.5	18.2	18.2	9.1	2.82	.751
Graduates get absorbed into the job market	9.1	27.3	45.5	18.2	.0	2.45	.522
The number of enrolment has been going up	9.1	18.2	36.4	27.3	9.1	2.27	.647
There is minimal drop out of students	9.1	9.1	27.3	36.4	18.2	3.55	.688

4.4 Correlation Analysis

The study conducted correlation analysis to test the strength of association/relationship between the research variables. Correlation is the measure of the relationship or association between two continuous numeric variables. Correlation analysis results give a correlation coefficient which measures the linear association between two variables (Crossman, 2013). The results in Table 6 showed that the quality of education is positively related to organizational structure with a Pearson Correlation Coefficient of 0.463 and a level of significance of 0.000 hence statistically significant as the p-value is less than 0.05. This relationship was however not very strong but moderate.

Table 6. Correlation

		Organizational structure	Quality of education
Organizational structure	Pearson Correlation	1	.463[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Quality of education	Pearson Correlation	.463[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

4.5 Regression Analysis

The study further carried out regression analysis to establish the statistical significance relationship between the independent variable, organizational structure and the dependent variable, quality of technical education. According to Green and Salkind (2003) regression analysis is a statistics process of estimating the relationship between variables. It helps in generating equation that describes the statistical relationship between one or more predictor variables and the response variable. The regression analysis results were presented using regression model summary tables, analysis of variance (ANOVA) table and beta coefficient tables.

Table 7 show that the coefficient of determination is 0.903; therefore, about 90.3% of the variation in the quality of technical education is explained by organizational structure. The regression equation appears to be very useful for making predictions since the value of R^2 is close to 1.

Table 7. Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.950[a]	.903	.866	.119

Table 8 presents the results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the organizational structure versus the quality of technical education. The ANOVA results for regression coefficients indicate that the significance of the F is 0.00 which is less than 0.05. This indicates that, overall, the regression model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable (i.e., it is a good fit for the data). There is therefore a significant relationship between organizational structure and the quality of education.

Table 8. ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	24.209	1	24.209	54.359	.000[a]
	Residual	88.627	199	.445		
	Total	112.836	200			

The study further determined the beta coefficients of organizational structure verses the quality of education in technical educational institutions. Table 9 thus presents the significant relationship between organizational structure and the quality of education was positive since the coefficient of organizational structure is 0.490 which is significantly greater than zero. The t statistics (7.373) was also greater than zero. This demonstrated that the organizational structure had a positive influence on the quality education in technical educational institutions.

Table 9. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.888	.122		7.285	.000
	Organizational structure	.490	.066	.463	7.373	.000

5. Discussion

The reliability test produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.731. The study therefore deduced that the organizational structure indicators were reliable in assessing the effect of organizational structure on the quality of technical education.

The descriptive results demonstrated that organizational structure was one variable which influenced the change process in the technical educational and was therefore had a direct influence on the quality of technical education in Kenya as was evident when 81.8% of the institutional managers indicated that they charged particular groups with the reforms process. The results also showed that majority of the respondents (81.9%) stated that there were plans in the institutions for the implementation of educational reforms. These plans included the mobilization of resources (mean score 4.45), selection of teams to spearhead the reforms process (mean score 4.27), plans for the training of staff (mean score 4.36) and plans for consultation with stakeholders (mean score 4.18). The study established that the majority of the management of the technical educational institutions (81.8%) were inclusive enough to include other staff to participate in the reforms process. The change processes in the institution are mainly headed by a special team assembled for this purpose according to 55% of the respondents. The findings that the management sought to include everyone in the change processes were in agreement with the views of Al-Mashri and Zairi (2000) that the success of the reform processes was the responsibility of the whole organization and not just an individual so as to avoid difficulties associated with the change.

The study findings revealed that the organization coordinated reforms processes between the management and instructors as was indicated by majority of the respondents (73%). The study established that in majority of the technical educational institutions (82%), the management was flexible enough to seek the views of other staff during

the implementation of reforms. These findings were in tandem with the views of Maffae and Meredith (1995) that organizations should adopt flexible structures to encourage greater staff participation, which according to them would improve the problem identification and resolution and enhance performance and quality.

The study established that generally, according to majority of the institutional managers (81.9%), the organizational structure influenced the management of the reforms process in the technical institutions. These findings supported the views of Hrebiniak (2006) that the overreaching issues that impede change in the organization was the organizational structure. This implied that the organizational structure determined the success of the reforms process of which Hrebiniak (2006) explained that the change process were behavioral in nature and therefore the way the organization was structured for the implementation of any reform was very important.

The Pearson Correlation analysis of organizational structure results gave a correlation of 0.463 which demonstrated that organizational structure positively influenced the quality of technical education. Regression model of organizational structure versus the quality of technical education gave a coefficient of determination of R square of 0.903 at 0.05 significant levels. This implied that 90.3% of the quality of technical education is explained by organizational structure. Therefore, there exists a positive relationship between organizational structure and the quality of education in the technical educational institutions in Kenya. The findings also support the views of Enz (2008) and Tarigan (2005) that there exists a significant relationship between organizational structure and the organization performance. The findings therefore meant that organizational structure is a strong predictor of the quality of education.

6. Summary of Findings

The study established that according to majority of the institution managers (81.8%), organizational structure influenced the change process in the organization and therefore had a direct influence on the quality of technical education in Kenya. It further showed that according to majority of the respondents (81.9%), the organizations had plans for the implementation of educational reforms which included mobilization of resources (mean score 4.45), selection of teams to spearhead the reforms process (mean score 4.27), training of staff (mean score 4.36) and consultation with stakeholders (mean score 4.18) plans. The study established that majority of the management of the technical educational institutions (81.8%) allowed other staff to participate in the reforms process.

The findings revealed that 73% of the institutional managers, the reforms processes in the organization were coordinated between the management and instructors. Majority of the institution managers (82%) stated the management sought the views of other staff during the implementation of reforms which shares in the views of Maffae and Meredith (1995) that organizations should adopt flexible structures to encourage greater staff participation for enhanced performance and quality. According to majority of the institutional managers (81.9%), the organizational structure influenced the management of the reforms process in the technical institutions.

7. Conclusion

From the findings of the study, the researcher concluded that the institutions were structured to suit the reforms that were initiated through assigning special groups to spearhead the change process and putting plans in place for the effective implementation of the reforms. This positively influenced the quality of technical education.

8. Recommendations

Technical educational institutions should be structured to suite the particular reform process for effectiveness and achievement of desired results so as to enhance the quality of technical education.

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