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EDITORIAL

We are glad to introduce you the first issue of the year 2018 (vol. 11, no. 1). In this first issue, we present three articles from Anadolu University, Turkey, Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Czech Republic and IPMI International Business School, Indonesia. We are grateful that ERIES Journal constantly attracts researchers from diverse higher education institutions around the world. It is a commitment for the Editorial Board to keep improving the journal quality to become the leading journal in the education research in the Czech Republic.

In the first article "Do adult English language learners and their teachers have similar approaches to success?", authors Ayse Taskiran and Belgin Aydin investigated similarities and differences between adult language learners' and their teachers' attributions of perceived success and failure in learning English as a foreign language. The authors examined the perceived attributions within three dimensions: locus of causality, stability and controllability. The analysed sample consisted of 319 students and 81 teachers who responded to a self-administered questionnaire. In general, students and teachers reported more attributions for failure than for success. The most frequent attributions that both groups stated were effort, teacher, motivation and participation. What is more, the results reveal that majority of Turkish teachers perceive their students unsuccessful in learning foreign language. This perception might negatively affect their teaching, which directly leads to difficulties in students' learning.

The second article "Decisive factors of talent management implementation in Czech organisations", from Adéla Fajčíková, Hana Urbancová and Lenka Kučírková reminds that teaching and education are not necessarily connected only with schools. The article evaluates the influence of decisive factors on the implementation of activities relating to talent management, as well as how Czech organizations deal with this new trend. The authors collected data through questionnaire surveys in selected Czech organizations through the years 2014/2015 ($n = 389$), 2015/2016 ($n = 402$) and in 2016/2017 ($n = 207$). The results indicate that the chances to implement talent management are 2.726 higher for organizations operating in national or international markets compare to the organizations operating on a local or regional market. Further, the chances of the implementation are 1.752 times higher in organizations with more than 50 employees than in the smaller ones. Last but not least, organizations with a separate human resources department implement talent management activities 4.1 times more often compare to the other organizations.

The third article "The performance of SERVQUAL to measure service quality in private university", from Leonnard, the main factors of service quality that affect student satisfaction and loyalty were researched. The observations are based on the data from 319 students from London School of Public Relation in Jakarta. Structural equation modelling was employed to analyse the data through AMOS 24 statistical package. The results show that the main factors that influence students' satisfaction and loyalty are: *comfortable lecture rooms*, *non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lectures*, *quick complaint handlings*, *high administrative service* and *serving students friendly*. These observations can lead to quality improvements, which would consequently lead to higher students' loyalty.

We would also like to thank to all authors who have submitted their manuscripts to ERIES Journal, as well as to all reviewers and Editorial Board members who have contributed to this issue. We hope that all our readers will find the published articles interesting. Moreover, we also hope that ERIES Journal will contribute to the field of efficiency and responsibility in education as it has contributed during its first decade. Last but not least, the Editorial Board would like to wish you many research opportunities and successes for the whole upcoming year 2018.

Martin Flégl

Executive Editor

ERIES Journal

DO ADULT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND THEIR TEACHERS HAVE SIMILAR APPROACHES TO SUCCESS?

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Highlights

- *Effort, teacher, motivation, and participation in the class activities are the most frequent attribution of success for the teachers and the language learners*
- *Success in learning a language is attributed to more controllable and unstable factors*
- *Language teachers and learners have healthy attributional styles for achievement motivation*

Abstract

This study explores the similarities and differences between adult language learners' and their teachers' attributions of perceived success and failure in learning English as a foreign language in an intensive program. It examines attributions along with three dimensions: locus of causality, stability and controllability. 319 students and 81 teachers responded to a self-administered questionnaire and reported more attributions for failure than for success. The most frequent attributions both groups stated were effort, teacher, motivation, and participation. Causal dimensionality patterns of success and failure-oriented students did not show much differences. They both had significantly more controllable and unstable attributions. Teachers' dimensionality patterns did not differ from that of the students except for locus of control dimension. Causal dimensionality of both teachers and students seemed to be healthy attributional styles according to Weiner's attributional model of achievement motivation.

Keywords

Attribution, causal dimensions, foreign language learning, learners and teachers, success

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Introduction

Academic success in foreign language education embodies a complex nature dominated by perceptions of learners and teachers. What makes some learners more successful than the others is not merely associated with the quality of instruction or the materials, but with factors ascribed to perceived success and failure by learners and their teachers. Learning more about how learners make sense of their own learning and how teachers perceive their students' performance can shed light on effective teaching and learning. Educational psychologists have long been concerned about the individuals' beliefs about causes of their performance outcomes and how these beliefs shape their expectancies and future behavior (e.g. Killen, 1994; Watkins, 1985; Zeegers, 2004). It has been revealed that people attribute an infinite number of causes to their perceived successes and failures and that these personal contributions influence their subsequent actions. These attributions also create different affective and emotional reactions (Weiner, 1986; Williams, Burden and Al-Baharna, 2001). Particularly, attributions, which are defined as the interpretations of the causes of outcomes by individuals (Weiner, 1985), have been identified as the most significant factors influencing individual's persistence, expectancy of future success, motivation, and in return, academic achievement (Brophy, 1998; Pintrich and Schunk, 1996; Weiner, 2000).

Bernard Weiner, who has made the greatest contribution to attribution theory in achievement contexts, (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996) has developed three separate dimensions: locus of causality (internal vs. external), stability (stable vs. unstable), and controllability (controllable vs. uncontrollable) (Stipek, 1988). According to attribution theory, no matter what causes learners attribute their success or failure, all can be categorized along these three dimensions.

The theory also suggests that some causal attributional styles contribute to constructive achievement-related behavior (adaptive attributions) while some others lead to destructive achievement-related behavior (maladaptive attributions) (Stipek, 1988; Weiner, 1985). Attributing success to internal/stable/controllable factors is assumed to be healthy, whereas attributing failure to external/stable/uncontrollable factors is considered to be unhealthy.

Since causal dimensionality patterns play an important role in understanding the attributional styles (Dresel, Schober and Ziegler, 2005; Weiner, 1985, 1986), finding out learners' perceptions about the cause of their success and failure in learning another language is important in the motivation and academic achievement of the learners. Then, it would be possible to suggest various ways in order to alter any possible maladaptive attributions and strengthen the adaptive ones. Furthermore, mapping learners' perceptions with those of their teachers will also help to facilitate the effectiveness of language learning environment by identifying any mismatches and solving possible future problems.

Review of the Literature

There is a growing interest in attributions in the field of language learner motivation. A considerable number of studies have focused on student attributions (Gobel et al., 2011; Tulu, 2013; Williams et al., 2001; Williamset al., 2004) and concluded that high achievers attributing success to ability and low achievers attributing failure to lack of ability (O'sullivan and Howe, 1996). Findings revealed more attribution categories for success, most frequent ones being strategy use, ability, task, teacher, and interest (Williams et al., 2004). Family support, teacher support, exposure to the language were also listed as the causes of success, whereas inadequate teaching methods, lack of family and teacher support, and poor comprehension as the causes of failure (Gobel, et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2001).

Effort was cited to be the most frequent cause for both success and failure situations (Dong, Stupnisky and Berry, 2013; Williams et al., 2004). Research focusing on the relation between attributions and achievement (Pishghadam and Zabihi, 2011) cited that effort more than ability regarded as an important factor for higher scores in foreign language achievement while luck and mood did for low scores. A strong association between attributions, self-efficacy and test scores were identified showing significant differences between high and low achievers (Hsieh and Schallert, 2008).

Studies also revealed different findings regarding the relationships between attributions and other variables such as gender, proficiency, culture, and age (Hassaskhah and Vahabi, 2010; Little, 1985; McClure et. al., 2011; Tulu, 2013; Vispoel and Austin, 1995). While some studies focusing on gender found no differences between men and women and concluded that they both externalized failure and internalized success regardless of the context (Ciabuca and Lucian, 2014), others concluded that women, rather than men, attributed effort for success and lack of ability for failure (McClure et al., 2011). Similarly, Tulu (2013) found different attribution patterns of female and male EFL students, citing factors such as poor teaching practices, task difficulty and teacher's bad behaviour as a more important cause of failure for male students than for female students. A few studies revealed different attributional patterns for success and failure in different ethnic, religious and cultural groups (Gobel and Mori, 2007; McClure et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2001). For context variable, Thai and Malaysian students scored higher on internal/controllable success outcomes than Japanese students (Gobel et al., 2011). Urban and rural EFL students held different attribution ratings for success and failure with the urban group being more willing to attribute success to their own ability, effort, and study skills than the rural group (Gobel et al., 2013). Lu, Woodcock and Jiang (2014) found no significant differences in attribution patterns between students who learnt through autonomous learning and those who learnt through teacher-centred approach. Examining if attributions are age specific, Hassaskhah and Vahabi (2010) found that children more than adults and teens had higher scores in instability and controllability dimensions. Unlike teens who owed their failure to task difficulty, children ascribed failure to lack of effort.

Attribution studies mostly focused on the perception of students and ignored how teachers perceived their students' success or failure. As mentioned above, attributions have been identified as including both culture and individual specific natures. In countries where the language classroom is the only context in which the target language is used, trying to understand what is happening in these contexts and how the main stakeholders, learners and teachers perceive these gains are even more important.

Despite a large number of attribution studies around the world, not many studies focused on learners learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the Turkish context. Studies conducted in the Turkish context, similar to the others in the world, conclude effort, interest, teacher and ability as the most frequent attributions for success and effort, interest, class atmosphere and task difficulty attributions for failure (Erten and Burden, 2014; Şahinkarakaş, 2011). Yılmaz (2012) examined Turkish EFL students' and teachers' attributions in reading comprehension and investigated whether student attributions vary across gender, proficiency and teacher opinions. Results revealed significant differences between student and teacher opinions; teachers attributed success to effort or interest and students to feedback and teacher.

Taşkıran and Aydın's (2017) study explored language learners' attributions and causal dimensionality patterns. The study revealed that participants reported more causal attributions for failure than they did for success. Success-oriented students demonstrated significantly more internal, controllable, and relatively more stable attributional styles than failure-oriented students.

This study aims to explore attributions along with casual dimensions for perceived success and failure from the language learners' and their teachers' perspectives. This study set out to answer the following questions:

1. What are adult Turkish students' and their teachers' perceptions of success in learning a foreign language?
2. What do students and teachers attribute their success and failure to?
3. What are the causal dimensionality patterns of students and teachers in success and failure situations?

Materials and Methods

Participants

319 adult learners learning English as a foreign language in an intensive language program in Turkey participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 18 to 41. The language program they were enrolled at followed an integrated skills content-based curriculum for 24 hours each week. Teacher group composed of 81 teachers of English with varying experience years. All participants gave informed consent before answering the questionnaire.

Instrument

A questionnaire in which the participants were asked to state their attributions to their perceived achievements was used to collect the data of the study. As suggested in literature, dimensional styles vary across individuals and may not always match with the perceived dimensional properties of the researchers (Russell, 1982; Stipek, 1988; Weisz and Stipek, 1982; Vallerand and Richer, 1988). It is the underlying cognitive dimension that represents the individual's beliefs about the nature of the attribution that is believed to be the key to the motivating properties of attributions (Martinko, 1995). Therefore, the participants in this study were asked to decide on their individual dimensions of their attributions through Yes/No questions. The questionnaire consisted of two questions. The first question asked if they perceived themselves successful or not in the language learning process. The second question asked them to state causes of their perceived achievements. They were asked to list at least five causes. Next to each cause, there were three Yes/No questions that aimed to identify perceived dimensionality patterns (*locus of causality, stability, controllability*). The participants would mark Yes/No columns according to the perceptions of their causes' being internal or external, stable or unstable, controllable or uncontrollable. They were also provided with a sample in order to guide them in indicating the dimensionality patterns (see Appendix A).

Teacher participants answered the same questionnaire with a different instruction. They were instructed to fill in the questionnaire on the basis of their perceptions of their students' achievements. A sample was also provided to the teacher group. The data were collected during subjects' normal teaching hours.

Data Analysis Procedures

Constant Comparison Method (Glaser, 1992) was used for analyzing the data. In order to ensure inter-rater reliability, two researchers analyzed the data independently. First, the answers were divided into two groups categorizing success-oriented and failure-oriented groups. The frequencies of perception of success in both groups were analyzed with chi-square analysis by using crosstabs. The researchers numbered each questionnaire and each attribution. After individual labelling of the causes, researchers came together to compare their labels and to find out any mismatches in their analysis. The data were re-analyzed continually during the negotiations. The labels were assigned only when both researchers reached an agreement.

After all final labels were assigned, they were tabulated with frequency percentages for both success and failure situations. Frequency percentages of attributions for both success- and failure-oriented student and teacher groups were compared. Since each group might have different labels that cannot be compared with the others statistically, all comparisons were done descriptively. Then, a total number of marks for Yes/No questions for causal dimensionality was calculated. In order to analyze the possible differences of causal dimensionality patterns between success-oriented and failure-oriented student and teacher groups, chi-square analysis was conducted by using the total number of marks given for each dimension.

Results

Perception of Success

Results revealed higher perception of failure than success both for learners and their teachers. 43% of Turkish learners perceived themselves successful while 57% of them felt unsuccessful in learning a foreign language. Perception of failure among teachers was much higher than their students; while only 19% of the teachers found their learners successful, 81% of them considered them unsuccessful (see Table 1: Perception of success).

	Students		Teachers	
Perception	f	%	f	%
SO*	138	43	15	18
FO	181	**57****	66	**81**
Total	319	100	81	100

** SO=Success-oriented, FO=Failure-oriented*

*** Higher percentages are shown in boldface.*

Table 1: Perception of success

As can be assumed, this resulted in significant differences between students' and their teachers' perceptions of success (χ^2 =17.34, Df=1, p=0.000) (see Table 2: Differences in the perception of success between teacher and student groups).

Groups		Perception		Total
		Success	Failure	
Student	Count	138	181	319
	Expected Count	188.1	197.9	319.0
Teacher	Count	15	66	81
	Expected Count	31.9	49.1	81.0
Total	Count	153	247	400
	Expected Count	153.0	247.0	400.0
χ^2=17.34, Df=1, p=0.000				

Table 2: Differences in the perception of success between teacher and student groups

Attributions of Failure and Success

Language learners, like their teachers, seemed to have more to say about the causes of failure than success (see Table 3: Distribution of causes for success and failure between groups). Students stated 464 (41.9%) causes for their success and 644 (58.1%) causes for their failure in language learning.

	Students		Teachers	
Perception	f	%	f	%
SO*	464	41.9	58	19
FO	644	58.1	257	81.6
Total	1108	100	315	100

Table 3: Distribution of causes for success and failure between groups

These causes were categorized into 17 labels for success (see Figure 1: Most frequent attributions of success-oriented students) and 27 labels for failure situation (see Figure 2: Most frequent attributions of failure-oriented students). Adult learners believed that their effort (50%) was the main reason of their success; teacher factor (19%), school system (8%), participating in the lesson (5%) and using the target language in their daily life (5%) were among the other main causes stated by the students causing them to be successful language learners.

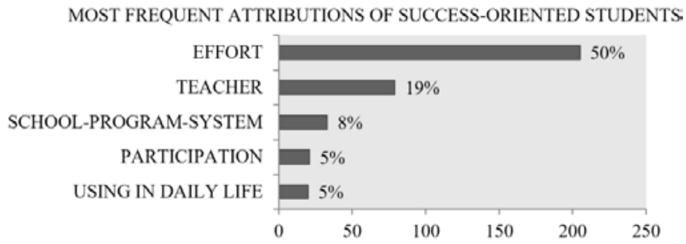

Figure 1: Most frequent attributions of success-oriented students

On the other hand, they perceived that the main reason of their failure was the school-program-system (36%). Lack of effort (21%), lack of ability (5%), lack of motivation (5%) and the teachers (3%) were identified among the other causes leading them to fail.

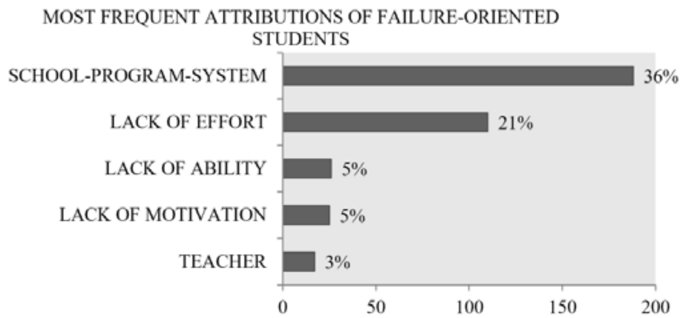

Figure 2: Most frequent attributions of failure-oriented students

Out of teacher attribution data, 58 (18.4%) causes for success and 257 (81.6%) causes for failure were identified. These causes were categorized in 11 labels for success situation (see Figure 3: Most frequent attributions of success-oriented teachers) and 36 labels for failure situation (see Figure 4: Most frequent attributions of failure-oriented teachers). As seen in Figure 3, just like their students, teachers believed that effort (24%) was the main source of success, which was followed by motivation (16%), teacher factor (12%), participation (12%), and school-program-system (10%).

Similar to learners' responses, teachers attributed more causes to failure than they did to success. Not showing enough effort (23%) was the real cause of the students' failure from the perception of their teachers. Not being motivated (12%) for learning the foreign language, the system of the program (11%), students' not being able to use learning strategies (8%) and their lack of awareness (7%) were listed as the other causes from the teachers' perspective.

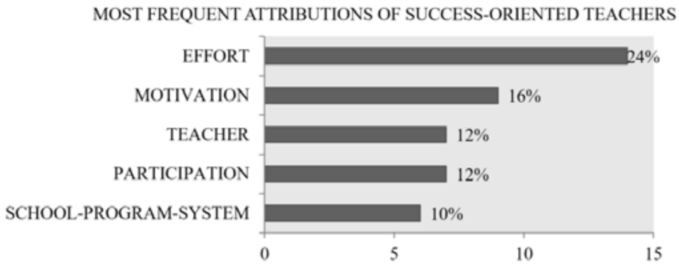

Figure 3: Most frequent attributions of success-oriented teachers

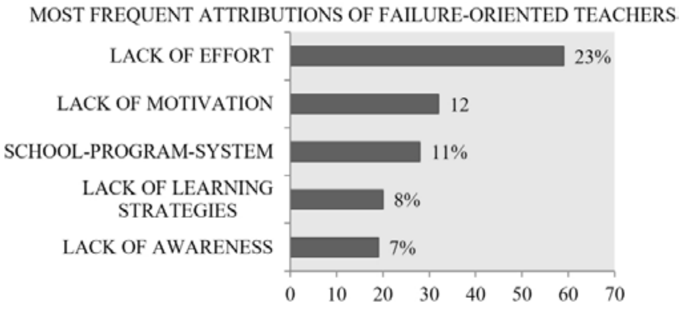

Figure 4: Most frequent attributions of failure-oriented teachers

Causal Dimensionality Patterns

Causal dimensionality analyses revealed variation in the total number of marks for each dimensional property. That is because some participants did not mark some of the property columns for some of their attributions (see Table 4: Causal dimensionality for the student and teacher groups).

Causal dimensionality results indicated that both success-oriented and failure-oriented students ascribed their successes more to unstable and controllable causes, and the results changed for the causes being internal for success-oriented and external for failure-oriented students. Both failure and success-oriented teachers' casual dimensionality results yield the same conclusion; causes leading their students' success or failure were internal, unstable, and controllable reasons.

	Students				Teachers			
	SO		FO		SO		FO	
Causal Dimensions	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Internal	302	**73.6**	232	48.2	44	**75.9**	166	**66.4**
External	108	26.4	249	**51.8**	14	24.1	84	33.6
Total Marks	410	100	481	100	58	100	250	100
Stable	147	35.6	117	24	15	28.3	37	15.1
Unstable	265	**64.4**	371	**76**	38	**71.7**	208	**84.9**
Total Marks	412	100	488	100	53	100	245	100
Controllable	350	**86**	391	**77.4**	46	**82.1**	190	**79.2**
Uncontrollable	45	14	114	22.6	10	17.9	50	20.8
Total Marks	407	100	505	100	56	100	240	100

Table 4: Causal dimensionality for the student and teacher groups

Causal dimensionality patterns between success and failure-oriented students revealed statistically significant results in terms of locus of causality, stability and controllability. Results revealed that both failure-oriented and success oriented groups had more unstable and controllable attributions. However, for locus of causality dimension, success group had more internal attributions, while failure group's locus of causality dispersed almost evenly (see Table 5: Causal dimensionality patterns between success- and failure-oriented students).

Teacher groups, on the other hand, revealed no significant ($p>.05$) difference in terms of locus of causality and controllability dimensions. Both groups had more internal and controllable attributional styles. However, although both groups thought the cause of success and failure were unstable, statistical differences were found in stability dimension ($p<.05$) with failure-oriented teachers having considerably more unstable dimensions (see Table 6: Comparison of causal dimensionality between failure- and success-oriented teachers).

Student Gr.	Locus of Causality			Stability			Controllability		
	Internal	External	Total	Stable	Unstable	Total	Control.	Uncontrol.	Total
SO Count	302	108	410	147	265	412	350	57	407
Expected count	245.7	164.3	410.0	120.9	291.1	412.0	330.7	76.3	407.0
FO Count	232	249	481	117	371	488	391	114	505
Expected count	288.3	192.7	481.0	143.1	344.9	488.0	410.3	94.7	505.0
Total Count	534	357	891	264	636	900	741	171	912
Expected count	534.0	357.0	891.0	264.0	636.0	900.0	741.0	171.0	912.0
Significance	χ^2=59.57, Df=1, p=0.000			χ^2=14.76, Df=1, p=0.000			χ^2=10.86, Df=1, p=0.001		

Table 5: Causal dimensionality patterns between success- and failure-oriented students

Student Gr.	Locus of Causality			Stability			Controllability		
	Internal	External	Total	Stable	Unstable	Total	Control.	Uncontrol.	Total
SO Count	44	14	58	15	38	53	46	10	56
Expected count	39.5	18.5	58	9.2	43.8	53	44.6	11.4	56
FO Count	166	84	250	37	208	245	190	50	240
Expected count	170.5	79.5	250	42.8	202.2	245	191.4	48.6	240
Total Count	210	98	308	52	246	298	236	60	296
Expected count	210	98	308	52	246	298	236.0	60	296
Significance	χ^2=1.94, Df=1, p=0.163			χ^2=5.27, Df=1, p=0.022			χ^2=.25, Df=1, p=0.618		

Table 6: Comparison of Causal Dimensionality between Failure- and Success-Oriented Teachers

When the results of the students were compared with those of their teachers, no significant difference ($p>.05$) was revealed between success-oriented students and teachers across dimensions with both group having considerably more internal, unstable and controllable attributions (see Table 7: Comparison of causal dimensionality between success-oriented teachers and students).

Student Gr.	Locus of Causality			Stability			Controllability		
	Internal	External	Total	Stable	Unstable	Total	Control.	Uncontrol.	Total
**SOS Count	302	108	410	147	265	412	350	57	407
Expected count	303.1	106.9	410	143.5	268.5	412	348.1	58.9	407
*SOT Count	44	14	58	15	38	53	46	10	56
Expected count	42.9	15.1	58	18.5	34.5	53	47.9	8.1	56
Total Count	346	122	468	162	303	465	396	67	463
Expected count	346	122	468	162	303	465	396	67	463
Significance	χ^2=.13, Df=1, p=0.720			χ^2=1.13, Df=1, p=0.289			χ^2=.59, Df=1, p=0.442		

**SOT=success-oriented teacher,*
***SOS=success-oriented students*

Table 7: Comparison of causal dimensionality between success-oriented teachers and students

The analyses of causal dimensionality patterns between failure-oriented student and teacher groups, however, revealed significant **differences ($p<.05$) in terms of locus of causality and stability dimensions. Teacher group tended to have more internal attributions for failure, whereas the student group scored almost the same for both internal and external attributions. Similarly, teacher group had considerably more unstable attributions when compared to student group. For controllability dimension no significant difference ($p>.05$)**

was observed between teacher and student groups with both groups having more controllable attributions (see Table 8: Comparison of causal dimensionality between failure-oriented teachers and students).

Student Gr.	Locus of Causality			Stability			Controllability		
	Internal	External	Total	Stable	Unstable	Total	Control.	Uncontrol.	Total
**FOS Count	232	249	481	117	371	488	391	114	505
Expected count	261.9	219.1	481	102.5	385.5	488	393.8	111.2	505
*FOT Count	166	84	250	37	208	245	190	50	240
Expected count	136.1	113.9	250	51.5	193.5	245	187.2	52.8	240
Total Count	398	333	731	154	579	733	581	164	745
Expected count	398	333	731	154	579	733	581	164	745
Significance	χ^2=21.89, Df=1, p=0.000			χ^2=7.74, Df=1, p=0.005			χ^2=.29, Df=1, p=0.592		

**FOT= failure-oriented teachers,*
***FOS= failure-oriented students*

Table 8: Comparison of causal dimensionality between failure-oriented teachers and students

Discussion

The aim of the study was to explore perceived success and failure of adult learners learning a foreign language and their teachers as well as to examine their attributions across causal dimensions. Findings indicated that perception of failure was more common for both learner and teacher groups. They both focused on failure more and perceived themselves and their students as unsuccessful language learners. That is, more than half of the adult Turkish students do not believe that they are successful in learning English; their teachers even much more strongly believe that the learners they are teaching are not successful. This is an important result that might have negative consequences in the learning process and their teachers' negative perceptions of their students' success might also affect their learners' perceptions of their own success.

Similarly, attributions stated for failure were more than those stated for success in both teacher and student groups, a finding supported by attribution theory; more why-questions are asked when failures are experienced (Weiner, 1979; Weiner, 2000). Both student and teacher groups attributed almost the same causes for success and failure situations with slight differences in percentages. This result contradicts with the findings of previous research (e.g. Killen, 1994; Zepke, Leach, Butler, 2014). For instance, in Zepke, Leach and Butler's study, which focuses on teacher and student perception about learner engagement, although teachers and students had some similar perceptions, they had more dissimilar perceptions about what engages students.

Effort attribution seems to be among the most frequent attributions in all groups, a finding that is in parallel with the findings of many attribution studies (Graham, 2004; McQuillan, 2000; Niles, 1984; Park and Kim, 1998; Watkins, 1985; Watkins and Regmi, 1993; Williams and Burden, 1999; Williams et al., 2001; Williams et al., 2004). Both teacher and student groups are aware that as long as they put enough effort, they will succeed. While effort appeared at the top of the list for both groups, the percentage of students' attribution almost doubled that of their teachers. Considering the positive correlation between effort and academic success (Pishghadam and Zabihi, 2011), an important implication of the study would be encouraging students to maintain their point of view through more conscious attention of their learning process.

Both students and teachers identified motivation and school-program-system as the other frequent attributions, but for the latter, attribution students scored two times higher than the teachers. While teachers also attributed their students' failure to not being aware of their learning process and not using language-learning strategies efficiently, students believed they did not have ability to learn a foreign language and blamed their teachers for their failures.

The most frequent attributions in this study that is effort, teacher, motivation, and participation are among common attributions cited in other studies (Killen, 1994; Mao, 2003; Pishghadam and Zabihi, 2011; Şahinkarakaş, 2011; Williams et al., 2005). However, although luck and task difficulty are accepted as common attributions in research (Graham, 1991; Graham, 2004; Tse, 2000; Weiner, 1979, 1984; Williams et al., 2004), in Turkish context students do not seem to include those in their attributions in this study. This finding suggests that Turkish students seem to feel they have more control over the causes of their outcomes, as they mainly focus on personal rather than impersonal attributions. Also, ability attribution has been mentioned in low frequencies, which contradicts with attribution research. Similarly, this may indicate that the students in Turkish context do not tend to lose their hope to be successful, as they do not consider the causes that cannot be changed such as faith or ability while reflecting on their outcomes.

Causal dimensionality analyses are also significant and present a clear picture of the causes' subjective meaning to individuals. Those underlying cognitive dimensions give more insights about the motivating properties of causes. Causal dimensionality patterns of success- and failure-oriented students did not show much difference, which contradicts with the findings of similar research on attributions (Chen, 2011; Dong, Stupnisky and Berry, 2013; He and Li, 2010; Hu, Shi and Zhou, 2009; Soric, 2009; Chen and Zhang, 2011). Moreover, those patterns were mostly promising as they fit into the healthy attributional styles. Both success and failure groups had significantly more controllable and unstable attributions. Failure group students still felt having control over their achievement outcomes, which is a promising finding in terms of expectation of future success. If it had been otherwise, they would be more likely to develop low self-esteem, poor motivation and consequently tendency to give up (Brophy, 1998; Lebedina-Manzoni, 2004; Waugh, 2002). In contrast to Chinese context (Lei, 2009), Turkish learners had significantly more internal and controllable attributions, which is accepted as an adaptive attributional style as it signals higher self-efficacy (Schunk and Gunn, 1986; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). However, success group students consider their achievements as unstable, which shows similarity with another study in Chinese context (Lu, Woodcock and Jiang (2014). This finding should be examined in more detail through individual interviews. There is no doubt that maintaining positive opinion of oneself is important for future expectation of success. Failure group, on the other hand, had slightly more external attributions, which is in parallel with some attribution research (Burden and Al-Baharna, 2001; Chen, 2011; Ushioda, 2001). However, as they tend to believe failure is caused by unstable and controllable factors, they may have positive attitude toward language learning and may develop higher expectancy for future success. This finding might help language teachers who can foster motivation in their classes even if their students are failure-oriented.

Causal dimensionality styles of success- and failure-oriented teachers do not show any difference as both groups have significantly more internal, unstable and controllable attributions. This also is a promising finding as failure group has as much adaptive attributional style as success group. Moreover, teachers' dimensionality patterns do not differ from that of the students except for locus of control dimension. Both teacher and student groups had more unstable and controllable attributions for success and failure. However, teachers ascribed their students' failure significantly more to internal reasons, while about half of the student group believed their failure was caused by external reasons. Teachers' dimensionality patterns are accepted as healthy attributional styles according to attribution theory. It is claimed that attributing failure to internal / unstable / controllable causes will promise better results for future performance (Weiner, 1985). One implication could be to find ways to transfer this adaptive point of view from teachers to students. As long as teachers assist their learners to look for the causes of their failure within themselves and take more responsibility of their own learning, students can put more effort on school tasks.

Conclusion

The results of this study reveal that majority of Turkish teachers perceive their students unsuccessful in learning a foreign language. Therefore, as one of the main implications, teachers should be informed about how their perceptions might affect their teaching and how their students might be affected by these negative perceptions. Explicit in-service training might focus on explaining the research results with the various ways of changing teachers' negative perceptions into positive ones. In order to help their students to change their negative perceptions, teachers should change their own perceptions of their students' success, and be encouraged to focus on setting short-term goals for learning and help their learners achieve these goals. Similarly, failure-oriented students can be informed about the negative effects of their orientations and their point of views can be changed away from negative to positive with the help of teachers' contributions. Both groups should be informed that these negative perceptions might cause academic failure which in turn leads to low self-esteem, poor motivation and tendency to give up (Lebedina-Manzoni, 2004; Waugh, 2002). They can be encouraged to understand that previous unpleasant experiences are unstable and they can change for the opposite with their effort.

Moreover, in order to create a mutual understanding on teaching-learning process, it is significant to know how each side describe achievement outcomes and inform each side about their attributions. Negotiations to alter the maladaptive attribution start with being aware of them.

This study allowed students to openly report their attributions and rate causal dimensions for each ascription. In this sense, this study can be regarded as being representative of both student and teacher groups' true attributional profiles. All in all, these findings are limited to an intensive language learning program context so similar studies in other higher education institutions in Turkish context can be conducted to gain more insights about the attribution styles of the learners and the teachers. This will shed light on the plans for teacher in-service training and motivational problems in foreign language learning process.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire for students

Dear Student,

Do you find yourself successful in English language learning process? What do **YOU** think are the reasons for this? Can you fill in the table below by looking at the sample table at the bottom?

Are you successful in English language learning process? YES □ NO □	Is this situation **caused by you**?		Do you think this situation **changes in time**?		Can you **control** this situation?	
CAUSES	**YES**	**NO**	**YES**	**NO**	**YES**	**NO**
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						

	Are you successful in English language learning process? YES □ NO □	Is this situation **caused by you**?		Do you think this situation **changes in time**?		Can you **control** this situation?	
SAMPLE	**CAUSES**	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
	I watch films with English subtitles	✓			✓	✓	
	I revise my notes regularly	✓			✓	✓	
	I have very good teachers		✓	✓			✓

DECISIVE FACTORS OF TALENT MANAGEMENT IMPLEMENTATION IN CZECH ORGANISATIONS

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Highlights

- *Chances to implement talent management are higher for organisations with a separate HR department*
- *Talent management is most often used in the areas of employees´ recruitment and development*

Abstract

The effort of every organisation is to have talented staff, and in the case that these employees are available in the organisation is to ensure they are motivated to stay in the organisation. The aim of the paper is to evaluate the influence of decisive factors on the implementation of activities relating to talent management and the approach of Czech organisations to this new trend as well. Data was obtained through questionnaire surveys in selected Czech organisations in 2014/2015 (n = 389), 2015/2016 (n = 402) and in 2016/2017 (n = 207). The results showed that the chances to implement talent management were significantly higher for organisations operating in national or international markets, organisations with more than 50 employees and organisations with a separate HR department, where this chance was even 4.1 times higher. Surveyed organisations use talent management the most often in the areas of employees´ recruitment, employees´ training and development, and their evaluation and remuneration.

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Introduction

The concept of talent management has received much attention from practitioners and academics in recent years (Collings, Scullion and Vaiman, 2015; McCracken, Currie, Harrison, 2016) as confirmed by a large number of scientific publications on this topic. Al Ariss, Cascio and Paauwe (2014) and Lewis and Heckman (2006), however, mention the fragmentation of views on this concept, as well as the lack of a theoretical framework and its inconsistent definition (Nijs et al., 2014). McDonnell et al. (2017) add that there is still considerable need and scope for more comprehensive and nuanced methodological approaches.

Farndale et al. (2014) view talent management as a strategic resource integration that includes proactive identification, development and strategic deployment of high-performance key employees with a high potential. Talent management is also understood as an important process through which it is possible to ensure for the organisation to have staff in the required quantity and quality and to be in accordance with current and future business priorities (Wellins, Smith and Erker, 2009). Armstrong and Stephen (2015) see talent management as a certain process, which ensures for the organisation to have highly qualified people for achieving their goals. This is done through streamlining the flow of talents in the organisation or through encouraging new talents and maintaining their inflow. This investment in staff is comprehended by Turner and Kalman (2015) as a business strategy since talented employees can be crucial for the success and long-term survival of the organisation. Tatoglu, Glaister and Demirbag (2016) agree with that, while pointing out that the talent management and activities connected with it should be seen primarily as a strategic response to changing market conditions faced by all organisations in the market. Among the most frequently mentioned changes is mainly aging of the work force, technological change, lack of talented workers and troubles with their attracting (Elegbe, 2010). Turner and Kalman (2015) agree that talent management nowadays is quite different from the talent management known in the twentieth century. This is due to a number of forces such as globalisation, demographic changes, market, sector of operating or changes in the structure of organisations. These and other aspects have had an influence on the development of approaches to talent management and the implementation of individual activities within the framework of this conception. Deloitte (2017) draws attention to the major changes that take place in the context of digital age and which force employers to adapt especially in the areas of attracting and recruiting talented employees, in their education and development or performance management, ranging from performance evaluation to rewarding.

As a result of these changes it can be concluded that the training and development of talented workers within the talent management is an important challenge for organisations in their way to success. The research by Deloitte (2017) identified talent management and talent acquisition as one of the three most important challenges for human resource management in upcoming years. This is also confirmed by Meyers and Woerkom (2014) and Iles, Chuai and Preece (2010), who underline the ability of talent management to gain the sustained competitive advantage through the identification, development and transfer of talented employees. Thanks to continuous learning and employees´ development, working potential is increased and it is beneficial to organisations, since the staff development is positively reflected in all organisational processes (Edgar, Geare, 2005). However, it is only one of the reasons why the human resource management with regard to training should be one of the main objectives of each organisation operating in the world nowadays. The possibility of education is in practice very often associated with a career growth and is often aimed at talented employees who have a high potential for an organisation (Wilden, Gudergan and Lings, 2010). However, in this way other employees, who may leave without using their potential, are often ignored. Swailes and Blackburn (2016) mention that employees not included in the talent pool feel less supported and have lower expectations of the organization's interest in them. An important task for organisations is therefore also a way of implementing talent management, when they should try to mitigate any adverse reactions.

Despite the fragmentation of the views of talent management, experts agree that the implementation of talent management has a positive impact on the functioning and competitiveness of organisations and that talent management is an integral aspect of improving organisational performance (McCracken, Currie, Harrison, 2016; Al Ariss, Cascio and Paauwe, 2014; Morris, Snell, Björkman, 2016; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014). Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler, and Staffelbach (2011) describe the impact of talent management on individual employees´ outcomes with higher satisfaction of the work done, improvement of skills and abilities, and a positive impact on employees´ engagement. However, they also point to the improving of financial and organisational performance compared to organisations that do not follow this trend.

Nevertheless, McCracken, Currie and Harrison (2016) point out that defining talent management and understanding the complexities of how it is implemented in practice has been problematic. A number of errors can be found in procedures of talent management, and organisations do not often have a comprehensive view and complex understanding of such concepts such as skills, abilities, key labour force or efficiency levels (Cheese, 2010).

The aim of this paper is to evaluate the impact of decisive factors on the implementation of talent management activities and also to evaluate the approach of Czech organisations to this new trend. The article is a follow-up to published results in Fajčíková, Urbancová and Kučírková (2017) published in the proceedings from the International Conference on Efficiency and Responsibility in Education 2017, and brings the results of further statistical testing on the data obtained by the questionnaire survey in 2015/2016 and the latest data from 2016/2017.

Materials and Methods

Theoretical resources related to staff training and development through talent management activities were obtained by the analysis of secondary sources. Primary data were obtained through a questionnaire survey, which covered the period from 10/2014 to 06/2015. The questionnaire survey was conducted in 389 organisations. It was a random selection of organisations from all regions and industries of the Czech Republic. A respondent was always a manager of human resources management in the organisation or an owner of the organisation (in the case of micro and small enterprises).

The electronic questionnaire was compiled of a closed or semi-open questions with several possible answers. The questions in the survey related to the activities of talent management in organisations. In total, 7 questions were asked, 4 of which were identifying. The research questions regarding the implementation of talent management activities were asked. To test the dependence between qualitative characteristics, 4 null hypotheses associated with the application of talent management activities as an appropriate method of development of employees in organisations were determined.

> $H0_1$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the market in which the organisation operates (local, regional, national, international).
> $H0_2$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the sector of the organisation (primary, secondary, tertiary).
> $H0_{3:}$ Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the area in which the organisation operates (private, public, state).
> $H0_{4:}$ Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the size of the organisation (number of employees).

For the evaluation results, descriptive statistic tools were used, namely absolute and relative frequencies, dependence tests (χ^2 test) and tests of strength dependence (Cramer's V). If the *p*-value was lower than $\alpha = 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected. The scale according to De Vause (2002) was used to interpret the strength of Cramer´s V dependence. To evaluate the outcomes SPSS 24 statistical software was used. For a more detailed assessment of qualitative characteristics, a sign scheme of deviations was used. It allowed to specify which sign combinations differ significantly from theoretical frequencies. Using sign scheme it is possible to determine which combination of signs affect the dependence of qualitative variables. For each box of a contingency table, an association table was formed and from it, χ^2 variable was expressed. The value of χ^2 variable affects the number of signs in single fields of the table:

- χ^2 is smaller than 3.84, then the field is without the indication.
- χ^2 is higher than 3.84 but smaller than 6.62, then the field is marked with one sign.
- χ^2 is higher than 6.62 but smaller than 10.83, then the field is marked with two signs.
- χ^2 is higher than 10.83, then the field is marked with three signs.

Intervals for a decision on the number of signs were determined according to respective critical values in the tables of χ^2 distribution at a significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, $\alpha = 0.01$, $\alpha = 0.001$. The decision about whether the sign will be positive or negative was influenced by comparing actual and theoretical frequencies of a contingency table. A positive sign has been assigned where an actual frequency is higher than a theoretical one, and a negative sign where an actual frequency is lower than a theoretical one. A calculation of the odds-ratio according to the following formula was carried out (Procházka, 2015):

$$OR = \frac{ad}{bc}, \qquad (1)$$

By means of this calculation it is possible to determine how many times the chance to carry out talent management activities is higher with selected dependent variables in a given sample of respondents.

The results of the questionnaire survey from 2014/2015 were published in Fajčíková, Urbancová and Kučírková (2017). These results are further compared with the results of the follow-up questionnaire survey in 2015/2016 as

well as with the latest results of an unfinished 2016/2017 investigation. Comparing the results over time makes possible to determine more precisely which factors affect the implementation of talent management in Czech organisations. A total of 402 organisations took part in the questionnaire survey between 10/2015 and 6/2016. The selection of respondents, the way of questioning and the questionnaire survey were the same as in the previous survey. For statistical testing, the same 4 null hypotheses saying that there is no dependence between chosen variables and the implementation of talent management were stipulated.
The structure of the respondents was as follows:

- Market (local 12.2%, regional 23.6%, national 26.4%, international 37.8%).
- Sector (primary 3.0%, secondary 26.9%, tertiary 70.1%).
- Area (private 70.6%, public 14.5%, state 14.9%).
- Size (1 - 9 employees 16.7%, 10 - 49 employees 24.4%, 50-249 employees 24.8%, 250 and more employees 34.1%).

For the period 10/2016 to 1/2017, 207 respondents were involved in the questionnaire survey. The survey is carried out again in the same way as in the previous years. However, 4 null hypotheses have been expanded to the fifth, which introduces another qualitative variable.

> $H0_5$: Implementation of talent management activities is not dependent on the existence of a separate human resources management department.

The structure of respondents is as follows:

- Market (local 12.6%, regional 14.5%, national 27.5%, international 45.4%).
- Sector (primary 3.9%, secondary 19.8%, tertiary 76.3%).
- Area (private 81.6%, public 18.4%, state 0%).
- Size (1 - 9 employees 21.3%, 10-49 employees 26.1%, 50-249 employees 23.2%, 250 and more employees 29.4%).

In this period, issues related to the human resources management areas, in which the addressed organisations use talent management, were added to the survey.

Results

Survey results 2014/2015

On the basis of testing dependencies between selected qualitative characteristics, 2 null hypotheses have been rejected:

- Implementation of talent management activities is dependent on the market of the organisation operation. The value of a test criterion χ^2 is 30.890 with 6 degrees of freedom (p-value = 0.000 Cramer's V = 0.199, low dependency).
- Implementation of talent management activities is dependent on the size of the organisation. The value of a test criterion χ^2 is 47.943 with 6 degrees of freedom (p-value = 0.000 Cramer's V = 0.248, low dependency).

Testing dependencies between qualitative characteristics showed a relatively weak dependence between the implementation of talent management activities and the market of the organisation operation and the size of the organisation. Using a sign scheme, it is possible to determine which combinations of characteristics affect this dependence most of all, as indicated in the Tab. 1 and Tab. 2.

The distribution of signs and of their number in the Tab. 1 shows that particularly international organisations implement talent management activities on the basis of the strategy and intuition. Furthermore, it can be said that local and regional organisations generally do not implement talent management activities. The biggest difference between actual and theoretical frequencies was found with organisations operating on the international market. For them, it is the least likely not to realise activities associated with the talent management.

Question		Market of Organisation Operation			
		local	regional	national	international
Do you implement talent management activities?	Yes, on the basis of the strategy	0 - -	6	14	25 ++
	Yes, on the basis of the intuition	17	22	37	55 ++
	No	47 ++	56 +	56	54 - - -

Table 1: Sign scheme of deviations – market of organisation operation, 2014-2015 (source: own calculation)

Question		Size of organisation (number of employees)			
		1 - 9	10 - 49	50 - 249	More than 250
Do you implement talent management activities?	Yes, on the basis of strategy	1 - -	5 - -	9	30 + + +
	Yes, on the basis of intuition	19	44	38	30
	No	51 + +	62	55	45 - -

Table 2: Sign scheme of deviations – size of organisation, 2014-2015 (source: own calculation)

From Tab. 2 it can be concluded that organisations up to 49 employees do not deal with the implementation of talent management activities on the basis of a given strategy. On the contrary, organisations with more than 250 employees usually carry out these activities on the basis of a stipulated talent management strategy. At the same time, it is possible to say that it is not common for very large organisations to completely ignore these activities.
From the above calculated sign scheme, it is evident that the implementation of talent management activities (whether based on a defined strategy or intuition) is primarily concerned by organisations in national or international markets, and at the same time large organisations that have more than 50 employees. For that reason, variables of organisations implementing talent management activities, operating on a national or international market and organisations with more than 50 employees whose absolute frequencies are shown in the Tab. 3 and 4, enabling to interpret the results of odds-ratio (1) were merged.

Question		National or international market		Total
		Yes	No	
Implementation of talent management activities	Yes	131 (a)	45 (b)	176
	No	110 (c)	103 (d)	213
Total		241	148	389

Table 3: Calculation of risks – market of organisation operation, 2014-2015 (source: own calculation)

The addressed sample of respondents showed that for organisations operating on a national or international market there was a 2.726 times higher chance that they would implement talent management activities than for organisations operating on a local or regional market.

Question		Size of organisation with more than 50 employees		Total
		Yes	No	
Implementation of talent management activities	Yes	107 (a)	69 (b)	176
	No	100 (c)	113 (d)	213
Total		207	182	389

Table 4: Calculation of risks – size of organisation, 2014-2015 (source: own calculation)

For organisations with more than 50 employees there is a 1.752 times higher chance that they will implement talent management activities than in organisations with fewer than 49 employees.

Results of surveys in 2015/2016 and 2016/2017

In 2015/2016, 402 organisations participated in the questionnaire survey. 200 of them (49.8%) implemented talent management activities. For the ongoing survey (2016/2017), 207 respondents were involved. Less than half respondents (45.4%) are involved in talent management activities. Tab. 5 and 6 show, which selected qualitative variables influence the implementation of talent management in individual years in addressed Czech organisations, and with what strength.

Qualitative characteristics	Dependency/ p-value	Cramer's V	The strength of dependency
Market	YES/ 0.000	0.251	low
Sector	NO/ 0.060	-	-
Area	NO/ 0.254	-	-
Size	YES/ 0.000	0.313	low

Table 5: Results of statistical testing of dependencies, 2015-2016 (source: own calculation)

Qualitative characteristics	Dependency/ p-value	Cramer's V	The strength of dependency
Market	YES/ 0.004	0.216	low
Sector	NO/ 0.151	-	-
Area	NO/ 0.146	-	-
Size	YES/ 0.003	0.220	low
HR department	YES/ 0.000	0.424	moderate

Table 6: Results of statistical testing of dependencies, 2016-2017 (source: own calculation)

Based on statistical testing, 2 null hypotheses were accepted in both surveys on the sector and the area of activity of the organisation. These results can also be compared with the results of the 2014/2015 survey described in detail above. Similarly, there was a relatively low dependency between the implementation of talent management and the size of the organisation and the market of organisation's operation.

Further, the qualitative variable (the existence of a separate HR department), which significantly influences the implementation of talent management in the addressed Czech organisations, was added. In the Tab. 7, there are determined by means of the sign scheme the combinations of the characters which affect this dependency most of all.

Question		Existence of HR department	
		Yes	No
Do you implement talent management activities?	Yes, on the basis of the strategy	33 +++	5 - - -
	Yes, on the basis of the intuition	27	29
	No	34 - - -	79 +++

Table 7: Sign scheme of deviations – existence of HR department, 2016-2017 (source: own calculation)

From the distribution of signs, it can be concluded that organisations that do not have a separate HR department do not usually deal with talent management. Conversely, the difference between expected and real frequencies has shown that HR managers are aware of the need to implement talent management as a part of the corporate strategy.

For the calculation of the odds-ratio (1), the answers of the respondents regarding the implementation of talent management were unified into the association table.

Question		Existence of HR department		Total
		Yes	No	
Implementation of talent management activities	Yes	60 (a)	34 (b)	94
	No	34 (c)	79 (d)	113
Total		94	113	207

Table 8: Calculation of risks – existence of HR department, 2016-2017 (source: own calculation)

The addressed sample of respondents showed that for organisations with a separate HR department, there was a 4.1 times higher chance that they would implement talent management activities than for organisations, which do not have such a HR department.

On the basis of the results, it can be summarised that the situation has not changed statistically during the examined period. It can be stated that:

1. $H0_1$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is dependent on the market in which the organisation operates (2014/2015: *p*-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.199; 2015/2016: *p*-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.251; 2016/2017: *p*-value=0.004, Cramer´s V=0.216; **low dependency**).
2. $H0_2$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the sector of the organisation.
3. $H0_3$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is not dependent on the area in which the organisation operates.
4. $H0_4$: Implementation of activities related to the talent management is dependent on the size of the organisation (2014/2015: *p*-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.248; 2015/2016: *p*-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.313; 2016/2017: *p*-value=0.003, Cramer´s V=0.220, **low dependency**).
5. $H0_5$: Implementation of activities related to talent management is dependent on the existence of a separate human resources department (2016/2017: *p*-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.424, **moderate dependency**).

In the ongoing survey, respondents are asked about human resource management in which they use talent management.

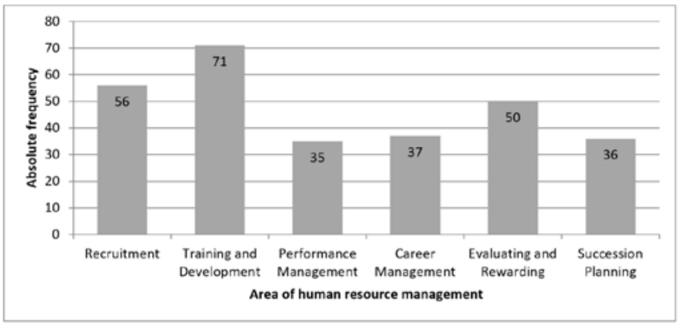

Figure 1: Areas of talent management use, 2016-2017 (source: own calculation)

It can be seen from Fig. 1 that the addressed organisations focus mainly on the area of employee training and development, recruitment, evaluation and remuneration. Three other areas are already represented in a lower number. However, it must be realised that each organisation's talented employees contribute more to meeting the organisation's strategy and economic goals, so it is appropriate for organisations to support talent management activities as much as possible. Due to the talent management implementation, the fluctuation costs and the recruitment costs of new employees are decreasing. The organisation becomes for talents a sought-after and attractive employer where they want to work. The planning of the succession of key positions is more effective in such an organisation.

Discussion

Talent Management in organisations represents the strategic concept in human resources management, which has come to its strength after the financial crisis and rapid changes in the global situation. Nowadays it is not possible to talk just about a domestic labour market as every employee is the part of a global labour market and competition is getting stronger. Approaches previously supported by organisations need to be upgraded and it is necessary to take into account the current situation on the labour market, demographic development and organisational requirements of organisations. PricewaterhouseCoopers (2012) published in the Survey of Global HR Challenges: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow the biggest challenges faced by today's organisations in the global environment. Organisations in Europe see a challenge, especially in the Change of Management (48%) Organisational Effectiveness (36%) and Staffing: Recruitment and availability of skilled local labour. Research, however, points to the challenge of the future, which will concern mainly the Leadership development. Research by Strack et al. (2014) published the Top 10 most important HR topics of the future with Talent Management and Leadership in the first place.

The results of the research confirmed that the surveyed Czech organisations were aware of the importance of current challenges and almost half of them were already implementing talent management activities. They are most often implemented in the areas of employee recruitment, training and employee development, and their subsequent evaluation and remuneration. According to Krishnan and Scullion (2016) there are still significant differences in the approach to human resource management, as well as to talent management in large national or international organisations and SME organisations. This is confirmed by the research regarding the dependence of the implementation of talent management activities on the size of the organisation and the field of its operation. Small organisations tend to focus on the administrative level of management and do not carry out talent management activities at all, or only those based on the intuition. Large international or national organisations implement these activities with a 2.726 times higher chance and with corresponding strategies. There is a 4 times higher chance that the organisation will be dedicated to talent management if it employs a human resource management specialist who would manage a separate department. Human resource managers are aware of the benefits of talent management activities implementation. They are generally promoted by organisations as a part of the overall strategy of the organisation. Based on our research and other current Czech surveys on this topic we can summarize that talent management is a priority of organisations nowadays which is also confirmed by Akkermans and Tims (2017); McCracken, Currie, Harrison (2016); Urbancová, Vnoučková, Smolová (2016) or Morongová, Urbancová (2014).

Regarding the current state of knowledge and the implementation of talent management principles in practice, with the Zircon (2012) research it was understood that most organisations associate the concept of talent with terms such as values, abilities, potential, and also ambitions and that a mere fifth of organisations which have the talent management strategy can communicate it openly. Also, the Farndale et al. (2014) recommend that for the successful functioning of talent management it is necessary to develop the strategy. As already pointed out, this strategy must be consistent with the corporate strategy. Consequently, it is possible to create and apply individual personnel activities, which are important for talent management.

Conclusion

The paper points out attention to key area in human resource management nowadays, the talent management in selected Czech organisations. Fulfilling the organisation's targets depend on the efforts of the organisation management, also on what importance they attach to talent growth and development and what talent programmes they create to be attractive for both existing and potential employees. These areas are influenced by tested characteristics (market, sector, operating area, size, HR department). Testing dependencies between qualitative characteristics showed that there was dependence between the implementation of talent management activities, the size of the organisation (low dependency) and the market in which the organisation operates (moderate dependency). These results were confirmed in every year carried surveys (2014 until 2017). Furthermore, testing did not show the dependence between the implementation of talent management activities and sectors or fields of organisation activities. In the last year of the survey, another possible factor influencing the implementation of talent management was added - the existence of a separate human resources department for which a moderate dependency was discovered (p-value=0.000, Cramer´s V=0.424). Using a sign scheme of deviations it was understood that the implementation of talent management activities based on the strategy and the intuition are dealt with mostly international organisations, and that local and regional organisations generally do not implement these activities. The sign scheme also showed that organisations of up to 49 employees rather do not deal with the implementation of talent management activities on the basis of a stipulated strategy. On the contrary, organisations with more than 250 employees usually carry out these activities on the basis of a stipulated strategy of the management. The differences between expected and real frequencies also confirmed that organisations with a separate human resources management department were implementing talent management activities as a part of the strategic goal. Surveyed organisations most often use talent management in the areas of employees´ recruitment, training and development, and their evaluation and remuneration. It can be summarized that talent management is considered a systematic approach to support acquiring and managing the right people for the right positions at the right time.

Furthermore, the responses of addressed organisations showed that the chance of implementation of talent management activities in organisations operating on a national or international market was 2.726 times higher than that of organisations on a local or regional market as well as 1.752 times higher in organisations with more than 50 employees than in smaller organisations. For organisations with a separate human resources department, this chance is even 4.1 times higher than for those that do not have it. A theoretical contribution of the paper is to compare the views of individual authors of the talent management issues in practice, and a practical contribution of the paper is to present the results of the continuing research in selected Czech organisations. The limit of the article can be seen in a relatively small sample of respondents (employees), nevertheless, the results can be applied generally to the sample of respondents – organisations operating in the Czech Republic. The limit of the questionnaire is in short extent of the questionnaire on the area of talent management (only 7 questions, 4 of which were identified).

The future research in the field of the talent management will be focused on single activities, which are primarily dealt by these organisations within the talent management, and how these activities differ from those in foreign organisations.

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THE PERFORMANCE OF SERVQUAL TO MEASURE SERVICE QUALITY IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITY

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Highlights

- *The relationship of service quality on satisfaction and loyalty in private university via structural equation modeling (SEM) approach*
- *Only tangible and reliability do significantly affect student satisfaction*
- *Satisfaction significantly affects student loyalty*
- *SERVQUAL is redundant as a model to measure the effect of service quality in educational service*

Abstract

The increasing number of educational services has caused a high competition in this industry. In Indonesia, the number of private universities is the highest compared to state universities and other forms of higher education institutions. Ability to predict factors that are important in providing educational services to achieve student satisfaction and make them loyal to the university is highly necessary. In this study, we investigated the main factors of service quality that affect student satisfaction and loyalty by collecting data from 319 students from London School of Public Relation in Jakarta. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to analyze the data through AMOS 24 statistical package. The findings indicated that the main factors influencing student satisfaction in private university are tangible and reliability consisting of: 1) comfortable lecture rooms, 2) adequate library facilities, 3) neat staff appearance, 4) non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lecturers, 5) high ability and knowledge provided by staffs and lecturers, and 6) appropriate academic services provided by the university. Student satisfaction with these factors would indirectly lead to loyalty to the university. Finally, service quality measurement through SERVQUAL was redundant as a model to measure the effect of service quality in educational service.

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Introduction

Increasing globalization in the education sector in recent years has led to a growing demand for higher education services (Lim, Yap, & Lee, 2011). The high demand for education services is also accompanied by the increasing of higher education service providers, particularly private universities (Naidu & Derani, 2016). Due to the selection system in state universities, private universities become alternative for prospective students who wish to continue their higher education (Rama, 2016). The number of private universities in Indonesia is very high at 3136 units compared to the state universities of only 122 units (Databoks, 2017). The high number of private universities will lead to higher business competition. According to (Chui & bin Ahmad, 2016), the high competition caused the number of private universities is unable to fulfill the sufficiency of the number of students so that they have to close their study program, while from the number of students, in 2014/2015, 4,156,483 students are enrolled in private universities (67.93%) and only as many as 1,962,250 (32.07%) of students enrolled in state universities (PDDIKTI, 2016), which means that private universities have a very high market potential when managed well compared to state universities.

The provision of high service quality is a fundamental strategy that service providers can afford to maintain and increase their number of students. High service quality will affect the financing, reputation, and popularity of private universities that can guarantee the number of prospective students applying for the next period. In addition, although major consumers of private universities are students, the quality of service they receive indirectly affects industry, parents, communities and governments in their views and decisions on private universities (Kitchroen, 2004). Research on service quality in educational service has been widely applied (Zammuto, Keaveney, & O'Connor, 1996; Abdullah, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c; Manaf, Ahmad, & Ahmed, 2013; Đonlagić & Fazlić, 2015; Chui & bin Ahmad, 2016; Naidu & Derani, 2016). Most of the studies employ the SERVQUAL and SERVPERF models. However, the application in Indonesia, especially in private universities is still limited. Previously, Susanti, Sule, & Sutisna (2015) and Hasbullah & Yusoff (2017) have conducted research on service quality in educational services in Indonesia. But their research does not specifically focus on private universities. Therefore, in this study, we investigated service quality in the private university in Indonesia. This study contributed by adding a new perspective on service quality predictors on higher educational services and identified which dimensions of service quality were the most influential on student satisfaction. Since, the number of private universities in Indonesia is overwhelming and there is a possibility of increasing the number in the future, then the results of this study are beneficial as a consideration for existing university managers, as well as input for upcoming private universities.

Literature

Service quality in educational services

Services on educational services have the same characteristics as services in other service sectors, as the existence of intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, perishability, and lack of ownership (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Gruber et al., 2010). Because of these similarities, according to Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka (2006), educational institutions need to apply market-oriented and profit-oriented principles to achieve competitive advantage and institutional sustainability. One of the basic principles applied to achieve both is to provide high service quality. The ability of service quality to meet the expectations of students will determine the level of student satisfaction, university costs and benefits, student switching behavior, and positive behavior such as word of mouth and repurchase intention (Crosby, 1979; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992; Rust & Zahorik, 1993; Stodnick & Rogers, 2008; Leonnard et al., 2015). In the measurement of service quality in educational services, perceived service quality is used to compare service expectation with perception of real service performance, as well as service quality measurement in other service sectors (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1990). When real performance exceeds the expectations of the students, there is positive disconfirmation that will result in satisfaction (Buttle, 1996). This satisfaction will determine the long-term competitive advantage and sustainability of the university.

SERVQUAL approach to measure service quality in educational services

According to Clewes (2003) and Marzo-Navarro, Pedraja-Iglesias, & Pilar Rivera-Torres, 2005), there is no agreement on the best model in measuring educational service quality. Each model used has its own advantages and disadvantages. In general, the most commonly used models for measuring service quality in educational services are SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988), SERVPERF (Abdullah, 2006b), and HEdPERF (Abdullah, 2006a). Of the three models, SERVQUAL is the most widely used model. According to Parasuraman et al. (1988), the core of this model is the ability to measure whether the real performance of services exceeds consumer expectations. To measure this, five dimensional measurements consisting of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy are used. Tangibles are related to the physical condition and availability of facilities and human resources. Reliability relates to the ability of service providers to provide services in accordance with what is promised. Responsiveness relate to the ability of service providers to provide the best service to consumers. Assurance deals with the knowledge and skills of service provider employees. Last, empathy deals with the personal attention provided by the service provider to the consumers. The use of SERVQUAL in educational services has been widely demonstrated in previous studies (Zammuto, Keaveney, & O'Connor, 1996; Browne et al., 1998; Oldfield & Baron, 2000; de Jager & Gbadamosi, 2013; Chui & bin Ahmad, 2016; Naidu & Derani, 2016). Based on the above analysis, the research hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

Research hypothesis 1 (H1):
Perception of tangible dimension has a positive relationship on overall service quality perceptions toward educational services

Research hypothesis 2 (H2):
Perception of reliability dimension has a positive relationship on overall service quality perceptions toward educational services

Research hypothesis 3 (H3):
Perception of responsiveness dimension has a positive relationship on overall service quality perceptions toward educational services

Research hypothesis 4 (H4):
Perception of assurance dimension has a positive relationship on overall service quality perceptions toward educational services

Research hypothesis 5 (H5):
Perception of empathy has a positive relationship on overall service quality perceptions toward educational services

The relationship between service quality and satisfaction

Previous studies have proven that high service quality in educational services has a significant effect on student satisfaction (Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992; de Jager & Gbadamosi, 2013; Leonnard et al., 2013; Mustaffa et al., 2016; Kasiri, Cheng, Sambasivan, & Sidin, 2017, Leonnard, 2017). Students' satisfaction is achieved when real performance of educational services exceeds student expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Student expectations are student expectations of the quality of services provided by educational services while performance is the real performance of the service quality provided by educational services (Kottler & Keller, 2003). According to (DeShields Jr, Kara, & Kaynak, 2005), the main predictors of student satisfaction with educational services are performance of faculty, staff and classes. Furthermore, according to (de Jager & Gbadamosi, 2013), predictors of student satisfaction with educational services are internationalization, marketing and support, access, staff and academic quality, accommodation, and facilities. Based on the above analysis, the research hypothesis to be tested is as follows:

Research hypothesis (H6):
Service quality has a positive relationship on student satisfaction.

Data and Methods

Reliability

SERVQUAL approach was adopted to measure educational service quality which consisted of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The student satisfaction was measured by the expectations and performance dimensions of the educational service (Kotler & Keller, 2003). Indicators of each dimension can be seen in Appendix A1. Furthermore, to measure the construct variables, a five-point likert scale was employed (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Data were collected from 319 students of London School of Public Relations in Jakarta. Data collection was carried out by employing stratified random sampling method. Finally, data analysis was carried out by employing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and software of AMOS 24 statistical package

Research Instrument

To test the reliability of the dimensions used to measure each construct, cronbach's alpha test was employed. The test results by using SPSS 20, indicated that all item values were > 0.600 and were reliable to measure each construct (Hair et al., 1998) (Table 1).

Constructs		Dimensions	Cronbach's Alpha
Tangibles	Q1	Neat staff appearance	0.765
	Q2	Adequate library facilities	
	Q3	Comfortable lecture rooms	
Reliability	Q4	High ability and knowledge provided by staffs and lecturers	0.822
	Q5	Non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lecturers	
	Q6	Appropriate academic services provided by the university	
Responsiveness	Q7	Fast response	0.811
	Q8	Accurate academic services	
	Q9	Quickly complain handlings	
Assurance	Q10	High quality service standards	0.750
	Q11	High-quality administrative services	
	Q12	High-quality academic services	
Empathy	Q13	Serving students friendly	0.728
	Q14	Provides information that is easy to understand	
Satisfaction	S1	Study facilities as expected	0.824
	S2	Quality of staff and lecturers as expected	
	S3	Environmental conditions and learning atmosphere as expected	
Loyalty	L1	I told the superiority of this university to others	0.857
	L2	I recommend this university to the public	
	L3	I will remain loyal to this university until my studies are completed as well as for my study in the future	

Table 1: Reliability test results (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

SEM Model and Solution Procedure

The first order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed first in the overall dataset through the maximum likelihood (ML) estimate. The first order CFA was employed to test the validity of a theoretical construct (Byrne & Gavin, 1996). The constraints employed were tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy (related to 14 dimensions). Afterwards, the CFA results were evaluated whether the undimensionality and reliability of each contract were confirmed. The fit indicators evaluated were RMSEA, CMIN / DF, RMR, GFI, NFI, IFI, and CFI. In addition, the evaluation of the feasibility of parameter estimation, standard error compatibility, significance of parameter estimation, and construct validity were also conducted. The structural relationships between variables are displayed in Figure 1. Hereafter, the structural equation modeling model (SEM) was performed by employing AMOS 24 software to notice the relationship between service quality dimensions (tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy) with satisfaction and loyalty (related to 20 dimensions). SEM is an appropriate analytical technique for testing the relationship between theoretical constructs and visualized through path diagrams (Hox & Bechger, 2007). The model validation, then evaluated through convergent, discriminant validity, and reliability.

Results and Discussions

The result of the fit analysis indicated that the RMSEA value was 0.08 (according to recommended rate level), CMIN/DF of 3.216 (valid), RMR of 0.049 (valid), GFI is 0.860 (moderate), NFI is 0.866 (moderate), IFI is 0.904 (valid), CFI is 0.903 (valid). Although there were some indicators that did not meet the criteria goodness of fit, overall the model has met the criteria of goodness of fit (Meesala & Paul, 2016). The relationship between each latent variable was displayed in Figure 1.

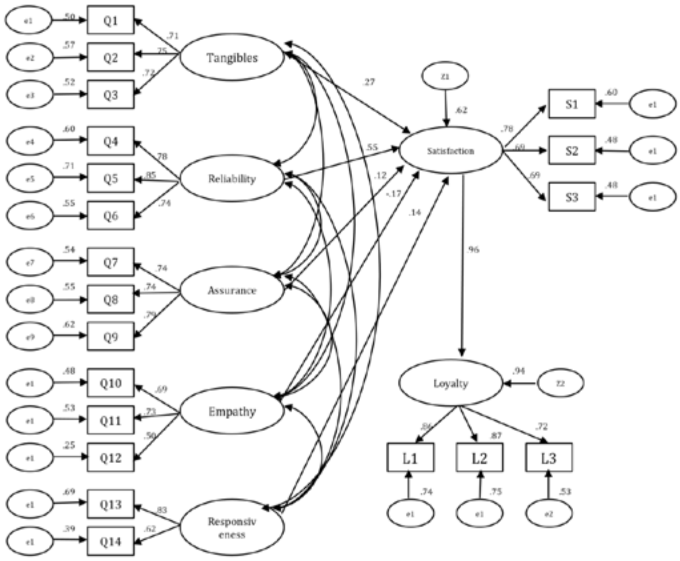

Figure 1: Path diagram (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

Service quality dimensions that positively affected student satisfaction were only tangible (0.283) and reliability (0.580) (alpha 5%). While the other three dimensions, namely responsiveness, assurance, and empathy were not proven to have significant effects (Table 2).

	Estimate	Standardized loadings	S.E.	C.R
Tangibles → Satisfaction	0.283	0.269**	0.129	2.197
Reliability → Satisfaction	0.580	0.552***	0.144	4.032
Responsiveness → Satisfaction	0.116	0.118	0.293	0.395
Assurance → Satisfaction	-0.278	-0.174	0.534	-0.521
Empathy → Satisfaction	0.173	0.141	0.129	1.346
Satisfaction → Loyalty	0.884	0.956	0.078	11.277

,,***Significant at alpha 10 %, 5 %, and 1 % respectively*
S.E: Standard Error
C.R: Critical Ratio

Table 2: Result of regression weights (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

The significant effect of tangible dimensions on student satisfaction supported previous studies (Hill & Epps, 2010; Manaf, Ahmad, & Ahmed, 2013; Hoque et al., 2013; El-Hilali, Al-Jaber, & Hussein, 2015). In educational services, facilities and physical environments had direct effects on student satisfaction. Similarly, the direct effect of service reliability supported the previous study by (Pathmini, 2016). The ability of private university to provide services in accordance with what the private university promised will increase student satisfaction. However, from the perspective of the direct effect of service quality on student satisfaction, the use of SERVQUAL to measure the quality of service in the field of educational services is considered redundant. This becomes very interesting considering most of the previous studies on educational services uses SERVQUAL approach to analyze the effect of service quality on student satisfaction (Zammuto, Keaveney, & O'Connor, 1996; Browne et al., 1998; de Jager & Gbadamosi, 2013; Chui & bin Ahmad, 2016; Naidu & Derani, 2016). From table 1, it was indicated that of the five dimensions, only two dimensions significantly affect student satisfaction. Reliability had a greater direct effect on satisfaction (0.552) than tangibles (0.269). Both dimensions had an indirect effect of 0.250 (tangibles) and 0.513 (reliability) of loyalty through a mediating variable of students' satisfaction. In addition, the total effects of tangibles and reliability on loyalty were 0.250 and 0.513 respectively (Table 3).

	Empathy	Assurance	Responsiveness	Reliability	Tangible	Satisfaction
Direct effects						
Satisfaction	0.173	-0.278	0.116	0.580	0.283	0.000
Loyalty	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.884
Indirect effects						
Satisfaction	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Loyalty	0.153	-0.246	0.102	0.513	0.250	0.000
Total effects						
Satisfaction	0.173	-0.278	0.116	0.580	0.283	0.000
Loyalty	0.153	-0.248	0.102	0.513	0.250	0.884

Table 3: Direct, Indirect, and Total effects (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

From table 4, the main dimension of tangibles was comfortable lecture room (0.776), while the main dimension of reliability was the non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lecturers (0.864). Furthermore, the main dimension of responsiveness was quickly complaint handlings (0.801), and the main dimension of assurance was a high administrative service (0.787). Finally, the main dimension of empathy was serving students friendly (0.812). All significant dimensions affect each variable with alpha 1% (Table 3). All values of standardized loadings were above 0.50, GFI = 0.927, AGFI = 0.886, RMR = 0.065, CMIN/DF = 2.427, RMSEA = 0.06, PCLOSE = 0.017 indicated the general model had met the goodness of fit.

	Estimate	Standardized loadings	S.E.	C.R
Q1 → Tangibles	0.960	0.733***	0.084	11.500
Q2 → Tangibles	0.922	0.747***	0.093	10.752
Q3 → Tangibles	1.000	0.776***		
Q4 → Reliability	1.122	0.793***	0.081	13.220
Q5 → Reliability	1.210	0.864***	0.081	14.333
Q6 → Reliability	1.000	0.742***		
Q7 → Responsiveness	0.957	0.749***	0.069	13.614
Q8 → Responsiveness	0.974	0.753***	0.068	13.927
Q9 → Responsiveness	1.000	0.801***		
Q10 → Assurance	1.241	0.764***	0.182	7.748
Q11 → Assurance	1.414	0.787***	0.187	8.094
Q12 → Assurance	1.000	0.626***		
Q13 → Empathy	1.224	0.812***	0.168	7.705
Q14 → Empathy	1.000	0.627***		

,,***Significant at alpha 10%, 5 %, and 1 % respectively*
S.E: Standard Error
C.R: Critical Ratio

Table 4: Results of service quality regression weights (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

The relationship between each latent variable of service quality was displayed in Figure 2.

Based on the empirical results, it is inferred that only two dimensions of SERVQUAL had an affect on student satisfaction (research hypothesis 3, 4, and 5 are rejected). This result is in accordance with Meesala & Paul (2016) which measures service quality in the hospital by using SERVQUAL (research hypothesis 6 is accepted). For managers of higher education institutions, the results of this study are useful in providing guidance on the main dimensions of service quality in educational services so that education managers can focus on those dimensions. In relation to the level of satisfaction, the physical state of the university facilities, the qualifications of staff and lecturers, quality and non-discriminatory services become the main constructs. The comfortable lecture room is the main dimension of physical facilities that the university needs to provide. This is because the lecture room is the main place for students to receive lectures. Less comfortable rooms, will indirectly affect the quality of absorbing lectures well. Furthermore, non-discriminatory treatment by staff and lecturers becomes the main dimension of the reliability of services provided by the private university. The services provided by the university should be provided without distinction of race, ethnicity, culture, national origin, social status or educational level. While for the researcher in the field of service management, the result of this research is useful in evaluating the reliability and performance of the use of SERVQUAL in the field of education services to predict student satisfaction. The use of other methods such as SERVPERF or HEdPERF is suggested to be able to more specifically analyze the factors of service quality predictors in higher education (Abdullah, 2006b).

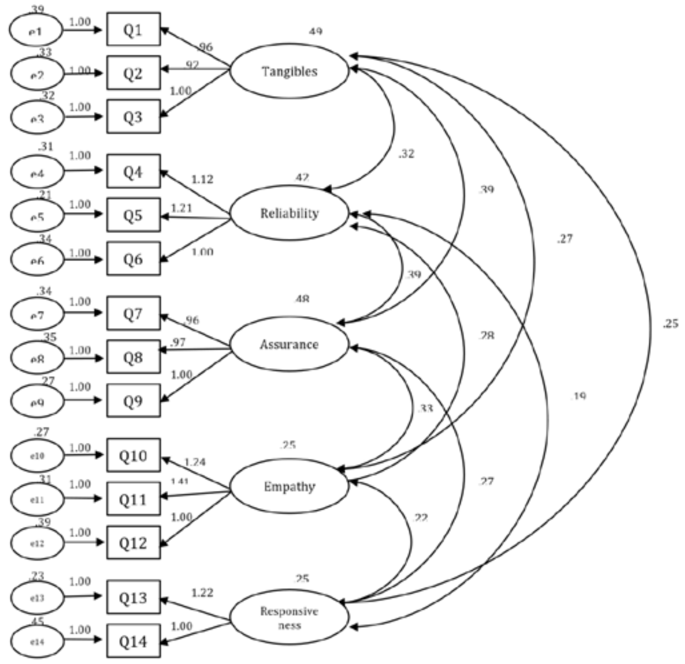

Figure 2: Path diagram of service quality (source: own calculation from AMOS 24 software)

Conclusion and Direction for Further Research

Some conclusions drawn from this research are:

- Factors affecting student satisfaction in the private university are tangible and reliability consisting of: 1) comfortable lecture rooms, 2) adequate library facilities, 3) neat staff appearance, 4) non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lecturers, 5) high ability and knowledge provided by staffs and lecturers, and 6) appropriate academic services provided by the university. Satisfaction significantly affects student loyalty.
- SERVQUAL is redundant as a model to measure the effect of service quality in educational service.
- However, this study has some limitations. First, the institutions that are the object of this research are private universities, so in the next research the SERVQUAL model needs to be applied to other educational institutions such as state universities, or at different levels of education such as senior or junior high school to get a more comprehensive conclusion on the relevance of the use this model is in the educational sector. In addition, the use of more relevant models is strongly recommended to measure the effect of service quality on satisfaction with educational services.

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Appendix A

Description of construct dimensions

Constructs		Dimensions
Tangibles	Q1	Neat staff appearance
	Q2	Adequate library facilities
	Q3	Comfortable lecture rooms
Reliability	Q4	High ability and knowledge provided by staffs and lecturers
	Q5	Non-discriminatory treatments provided by staff and lecturers
	Q6	Appropriate academic services provided by the university
Responsiveness	Q7	Fast response
	Q8	Accurate academic services
	Q9	Quickly complain handlings
Assurance	Q10	High quality service standards
	Q11	High-quality administrative services
	Q12	High-quality academic services
Empathy	Q13	Serving students friendly
	Q14	Provides information that is easy to understand
Satisfaction	S1	Study facilities as expected
	S2	Quality of staff and lecturers as expected
	S3	Environmental conditions and learning atmosphere as expected
Loyalty	L1	I told the superiority of this university to others
	L2	I recommend this university to the public
	L3	I will remain loyal to this university until my studies are completed as well as for my study in the future

Table A1: The dimensions of constructs (source: own calculation)