About

INSIGHT Journal is an international, open access, refereed, online, academic research journal established by Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Johor, Malaysia. It is indexed in MyJurnal MCC.

INSIGHT Journal focuses on social science and humanities research. The main aim of INSIGHT Journal is to provide an intellectual forum for the publication and dissemination of original work that contributes to the understanding of the main and related disciplines of the following areas: Accounting, Business Management, Law, Information Management, Administrative Science and Policy Studies, Language Studies, Islamic Studies (ACIS) and Education.

Dr. Ahmad Fawwaz Mohd Nasarudin
Assistant Professor
International Islamic University Malaysia

Dr. Surachman Surjaatmadja
Indonesia Banking School
Jakarta Indonesia

Dr. Mahyarni SE, MM
Lecturer of Mangement in Economic Faculty
Universitas Islam Negeri Sultan Syarif Kasim
Riau, Indonesia

Dr. Angeline Ranjethamoney Vijayarajoo
Lecturer
Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Negeri
Sembilan, Malaysia

Dr. Eley Suzana Kasim
Lecturer
Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Negeri
Sembilan, Malaysia

Dr Aida Hazlin Ismail
Senior Lecturer
Universiti Teknologi Mara
Kampus Puncak Alam Selangor

Zulaiha Ahmad
Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perlis
Malaysia

Tuan Sarifah Aini Syed Ahmad
Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Negeri
Sembilan, Malaysia

Associate Professor Dr. Norsuhaily Abu Bakar
Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin Terengganu
Malaysia

Dr. Zainuddin, Ibrahim
Universiti Teknologi MARA
Malaysia

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Creative Writings in Preparing Undergraduate Pharmacy Theses

Ibtisam Abdul Wahab [1] and Hannis Fadzillah Mohsin [2]

**[1]Associate Professor, Department of Pharmacology & Chemistry,
Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam,
Selangor Darul Ehsan**
ibtisam@puncakalam.uitm.edu.my

**[2] Senior Lecturer, Department of Pharmacology & Chemistry,
Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam,
Selangor Darul Ehsan**
hannis@puncakalam.uitm.edu.my

Abstract

Creative writing in preparing undergraduate pharmacy theses is necessary when students assimilate their knowledge in retail pharmacy by transcribing their experiences and understandings of the herbal products, after the attachment training. It is firstly anticipated that most herbal consumers are not mindful to the botanical designations of those species. Therefore, the students need to describe natural sources with the local descriptions. In their proposals, the literature would cover the scientific explorations of that native plantarum. Then, the students would be able to relay the information to the public, after extensive readings in Semester Five. Fortunately, some foreign plant samples are not difficult to be investigated, due to their accessibility in the outlets. Nevertheless, the challenges are more concentrated on the modern therapeutic applications of those herbs, as compared to their utility in traditional practices. In Semester Six, the undergraduates' examinations would involve the laborious analysis of the extracts, since the ingredients are the active compounds, biosynthesized in plants. The thesis would include the write-up of their communication with the community, regarding the feedback of the current affairs in nutraceutical and pharmaceutical industries. Finally, the students' creativity could be enhanced, when they are required to refer to various resources, in addition to the scientific journals and chemical databases. This includes referring to the holy text while studying the prophetic herbs and custom medicines. In summary, it is believed that creative writings and appraisals are essential in the teaching and learning process and are significant in the career development of the future pharmacists.

Keywords: creative, pharmacy, research, undergraduate, thesis

1. Introduction

The pharmacy undergraduates are offered research subjects in their third year of the curriculum, via two research courses. The first course is for the students to present a literature search and propose a suitable method for their topic and research samples. In the next course, the students will be asked to execute the methodologies, with the guidance from their lecturers/supervisors. An introduction to agropharmacy is also given in this course. This area could incorporate both agricultural and medicinal knowledge that encompass the information on quality herbal plantation and harvesting of natural resources for retails and pharmaceutical purposes. The Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, also holds several activities to introduce agro and community pharmacy to the students. These activities include the following: -

    a) a visit to the Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI) research station at Kuala Linggi, which cultivate lemon myrtle (*Backhousis citriodora*)

for the extraction process to produce the essential oil. Such a visit could also be co-organised for pharmacognosy lessons in Semester Five.
   b) an educational trip to the horticultural exhibition (e.g. Malaysia Agriculture, Horticulture & Agrotourism Exhibition or MAHA).
   c) an individual visit to agrotourism site, e.g. Lavender Garden at Tringkap, Cameron Highlands, Pahang.
   d) a review on the utilisation of the medicinal plant among Malay practitioners, e.g. the traditional midwives in the North of Peninsular Malaysia.
   e) a yearly attachment to the community pharmacies nationwide (in Semester Five), among other academic purposes, to observe the marketable goods which include halal herbal ingredients.
   f) an introduction to the scientific methodologies, such as liquid chromatography, to investigate the chemical constituents of the herbal extracts.
   g) an annual industrial attachment at the traditional massage oil manufacturer (in Semester Six), which utilise natural sources such as the fragrant screw pines (*Pandanus* species).

2. The Research Courses

The research courses should possess specific aims, in order for the lecturers and students to gain the benefits from the teaching and learning processes (Albon, 2014). By the end of these courses, the students are able to;
   1) discuss the research questions in their study.
   2) understand the research objectives and the research hypotheses.
   3) understand the methodology or the research outline.
   4) choose a suitable statistical technique, if applicable.
   5) construct the thesis structure.
   6) improve language, writing, presentation and communication skills.
   7) develop ideas and propose formal research.

Several hypotheses are made in order to anticipate the key points for the organization of the research course. The hypotheses would include the following.

Hypothesis 1:   Lecturers could play a major role as research supervisors.
Hypothesis 2:   The herbal plants could be introduced by reviewing the literature and performing the research.
Hypothesis 3:   Lecturers and students could increase the knowledge by the research courses.
Hypothesis 4:   Community and industrial training could educate future pharmacists.
Hypothesis 5:   The accomplishment of undergraduate research projects could be linked to the knowledge from the pharmacy attachments.

The research courses are designed by the resource persons or coordinators of the course. This person is commonly the lecturer who is able to propose the plan to the academic board members, as shown in Figure 1.

Semester	Third Year of PH240 Bachelor of Pharmacy (Hons.) program														Break														
	Sep – Jan Academic Semester														Break	Mac – June Academic Semester													
Weeks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Literature search	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
Visits and Community Attachment							✓	✓							✓									✓	✓				
Research Proposal Presentation												✓	✓																
Laboratory Work																✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓						
Data Analysis																		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				
Thesis Writing																				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Thesis Defence																												✓	✓

Figure 1 The research course plan for UiTM pharmacy undergraduates.

This plan is important in order to provide a time-based plan with regards to the students' tasks during their research work. Their responsibilities include performing the literature review (Boland et al., 2014) on the specific medicinal plant, followed by the sample extraction and the utilization of laboratory instruments for the respective extracts. During the semester break, or while doing their industrial training the students may perform a survey or conduct interviews e.g. the utilization of *Pandanus* among the traditional practitioner or the midwives at the north of Peninsular Malaysia. The scientific data need to be analysed before the thesis is presented. The thesis will be evaluated by the lecturer or the research supervisor, having similar pharmacy discipline.

2.1 Outlining the Research Course with Focus on Herbal Projects

Pharmaceutical chemistry research discipline would involve the investigation of medicinal (Morral, 2015) and herbal plant (Harrold & McFalls, 2010). The incorporation of traditional and complementary practices with current knowledge on herbs is made possible through the research course. For example, in the selection of herbal samples, both Ayurvedic and research perspectives (Katiyar, 2019) were explored through literature search and critical readings. The initial step is the offering of a list of potential herbal topics to a group of students in their fourth semester, especially those who are interested in the chemistry subjects e.g. during dedicated mentor-mentee gatherings. The herbal samples would include local and western herbs, which might be available from retail outlets. In the beginning of their fifth semester, the students can suggest their research materials, either from their supervisor's list or their own personal interest. The students are allowed to bring natural plants from home or organize their own sample collections, due to the availability of samples e.g. keriang and sungkai (*Syzygium* and *Peronema* species, respectively). The making of the research proposal might also include the pharmaceutical or nutraceutical products which are based on chosen herbs e.g. roselle or *Hibiscus sabdariffa*. The integration of community practice with writing a research proposal and thesis making is also practicable through the research course. The understanding of the drug source could be enhanced among the students (Harrold, 1998; Alsharif et al., 1999). For example, specific traditional herbs like the star anise pods, contain *trans*-anethole, which is a precursor for an antiviral drug. At this point, herbal monographs (Malaysian Herbal Monograph Committee, 2013; Mazura, 2016) could be introduced, where the topics of cinnamon and *Vitex* were chosen.

Next is the research laboratory period, which is the crucial time for the students to apply the chemistry concepts e.g. the acid-base reactions, the polarity of the compounds and solvents.

The outline for the research course, with a special focus on the herbal projects, would consist of plant sample extraction. The importance of solvent polarity in determining the types of extractable natural products is given. For example, alcoholic extraction would provide phenolic-rich fraction. On the other hand, hexanoic extraction could offer lipid-soluble components such as the plants' steroidal constituents.

The purification of natural compounds is taught during the chromatography lessons. The structural elucidation of the isolated compounds is achieved via spectroscopic methods. The introduction to instrumentation, e.g. automated high-performance liquid chromatography for the chromatographic profiling was made. For example, the secondary metabolites from *Pandanus* extracts were detected during the final year project. In addition, high field Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR 500 MHz) spectroscopy is utilized in the course of structural elucidation of the natural compounds and its regioisomers from *Curcuma* extracts (Ashraf et al. 2017). The research course is also able to instil care to animals with the inclusion of knowledge in veterinary science. For example, the research on plant sample, used as catnips. The outline for the research course could include both the proposal and thesis defence. There are opportunities for the students to present their research outcomes (Nozula et al., 2017; Samsul et al., 2018).

2.2 The Theses Writings

Creative writing in preparing undergraduate pharmacy theses could be needed when the students assimilate their knowledge in retail pharmacy by writing their experience and understanding of the nutritional and herbal products, while in community attachment (Jarvis et al., 2004). The botanical names of the medicinal plants are not common to the public; therefore, the students would have to be able to describe the herbs with their local descriptions. For example, the local plants such as the roselle, pomegranate, chaste tree and curcumin, were chosen for the topics of study. Meanwhile, the Western herbs, for instance, the lavender, oregano, and black cumin were selected for further investigations (Table 1).

The literature review covered the scientific explorations of the native plants, for example, the *Hibiscus*, *Punica*, *Vitex* and *Curcuma* species. The students would be able to relay the information to the public. The foreign samples were also not difficult to be studied, since rooibos tea, *Lavandula*, *Origanum*, *Rosmarinus* and *Nigella* were locally available in the retail outlets. Nevertheless, the challenges are more concentrated on the therapeutic application of those herbs, as compared to their uses in traditional practices. Their main examinations would be the analysis of those plants since the ingredients are the active chemical compounds, synthesized naturally by the plants (Joubert & de Beer, 2011). There is a section of the thesis writing, where the students have to communicate with the community in order to gain more information about the current affairs. Their creativity would be enhanced, when they need to refer to other references, in addition to the scientific journals (Loukas et al., 2010). For instance, they would be able to refer to the Holy Quran ('Ali, 1999; Yusof, 2017), when studying the pomegranate and the olives, both are the examples of prophetic medicines.

Table 1: Selected herbal plants and their commercial products.

Local herbs	Products	Western herbs	Products
Aloe (*Aloe vera*)	Aloe gel and shampoo	Black cumin (*Nigella sativa*)	Seeds and oil capsules
Chaste tree or lemuni (*Vitex trifolia*)	*Vitex* menstrual pills	Juniper (*Juniperus* species)	Juniper oil
Cinnamon (*Cinnamomum* species)	Cinnamon sticks for aromatherapy and herbal tea	Lavender (*Lavandula angustifolia*)	Lavender oil and soap
Curcumin (*Curcuma longa*)	*Curcuma* tablets	Olive (*Olea* species)	Olive oil
Garlic (*Allium* species)	Garlic tablet and oil capsules	Oregano (*Origanum* species)	Oregano oil
Pomegranate (*Punica granatum*)	Pomegranate juice	Rooibos (*Aspalathus linearis*)	Red tea
Roselle (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*)	Roselle toothpaste, juice and pickles	Rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*)	Rosemary oil
Mint (*Mentha* species)	Mint gum, toothpaste, and mouth rinse	Saffron (*Crocus* species)	Saffron filament, tea and oil

3. Discussions

The students are concerned about the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), as the measurement for their performance. The "problem-solving skills and scientific thinking" are two of the attributes for generating the "spider web" matrix in displaying the iCGPA (Integrated Cumulative Grade Point Average), which is currently not compulsory in Malaysian public universities. The offering of these research and practical courses could help the students in achieving appropriate CGPA (Mohd Zahari et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the undergraduates normally do not have any hint about a project, let alone write a research proposal. This is due to their lack of knowledge and experience. Therefore, the lecturers should act as the research supervisors to guide the students searching for creative ideas independently (Sims & Swenson, 2001), proposing theories and presenting the evidence though scientific applications.

The students are also required to enhance their communication skills, increase their self-esteem and boost their own confidence. Simultaneously, the research course could also satisfy the lecturers' individual aspiration. This is due to the fact that the idea or research topic was firstly thought by the lecturers themselves, before it was offered to the learners. Therefore, this matter could become such a personal issue, and soon, could develop into a complicated and private matter between the lecturers and the students. On the other hand, there could be an incidence of students having the fear of the lecturers' assessment, which could affect their CGPA. In such situations, the students put their efforts into the research courses, to satisfy their lecturers and/or supervisors. Therefore, the lecturers are prone to award relatively higher scores for the thesis writings. The opinions from other laboratory mates are also considered influential, should the data collection be made in groupings. The students' point of view may not be valid and thus, rejected by the lecturers. However, as the situation is encountered, communication is continuously improved. Such interactions could include applying free

WhatsApp messaging, electronic mails, sending short messaging via network services, individual coaching, group discussions and presentation rehearsals (Sharma et al. 2004; Cetinkaya, 2017).

4. Conclusions

This paper describes the practices in teaching and supervising the Bachelor of Pharmacy undergraduates for their pharmaceutical chemistry related projects and thesis writing. In the course outline, supervisions include guiding the pharmacists in designing a research proposal and performing the laboratory techniques. The students are introduced to the fundamental of scientific methodologies and systematic, intellectual thinking, via the research courses. These courses would initiate basic and rational thinking, in addition encouraging the students to ponder on things such as natural products or plants, besides their normal and personal daily routine.

The research course could also provide important analytical methods for students to write their research articles. When conducting the research, time limit is normally used by the students. This is due to various demands and schedules from other courses. They are also required to be at the teaching hospitals for their clinical subjects. The pharmacy undergraduates in Semester Five are involved in proposal writings. When they reach Semester Six, they will need to realize their proposals by performing certain experimental procedures, write and defend the thesis. After the completion of the research course, the students will be asked to submit the hardbound versions of their research work in Semester Seven. After the research modules, the students are encouraged to join industrial training. This program is arranged before their clinical and hospital training, in their final year of the pharmacy syllabus. The training sites would include pharmaceutical manufacturers and traditional herbal makers. These locations would possess the standard procedures for producing medicinal, nutraceutical, health and food products, tablets and capsules. Finally, it is hoped that these educational activities would encourage high quality, mature and professional pharmacists.

Acknowledgments

References

'Ali, A. Y. (1999). The Meaning of the Holy Qur'an, Tenth Edition, Amana Corporation, USA.

Albon, S. P. (2014). Role and status of the basic pharmaceutical sciences in pharmacy education: A case study of the UBC BSc (Pharm) program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of British Columbia. Retrieved from http://circle.ubc.ca/handle/2429/46356, 13th February 2019.

Alsharif, N. Z., Destache, C. J. & Roche. V. F. (1999). Teaching Medicinal Chemistry to Meet Outcome Objectives for Pharmacy Students. Am J of Pharm Educ., 63: 34 - 40.

Ashraf, K. & Sultan, S. (2017). A comprehensive review on Curcuma longa Linn.: Phytochemical, pharmacological, and molecular study. International Journal of Green Pharmacy, 11 (4) (Suppl), S671 - S685.

Boland, A., Cherry, G. & Dickson, R. (2014). Doing a Systematic Review: A Student's Guide, SAGE, UK.

Cetinkaya, L. (2017). The Impact of Whatsapp Use on Success in Education Process, International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 18(7), 59 – 74.

Harrold, M. W. (1998). The importance of functional group chemistry in the drug selection process: a case study. Am J Pharm Educ., 62: 213 - 218.

Harrold, M. W. & McFalls, M. A. (2010). A Pharmacy Practice Laboratory Exercise to Apply Biochemistry Concepts. Am J Pharm Educ., 74(8), Article 144.

Jarvis, C., James, V. L., Giles, J., & Turner, C. J. (2004). Nutrition and Nurturing: A Service-Learning Nutrition Pharmacy Course. American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 68 (2), Article 43.

Joubert, E. & de Beer, D. (2011). Rooibos (Aspalathus linearis) beyond the farm gate: From herbal tea to potential phytopharmaceutical, South African Journal of Botany, 77(4), 869-886.

Katiyar, C. K. (2019). Ayurvedic Pharmaceutics, Manufacturing Processes and Novel Drug Delivery Systems in Ayurveda. In: Rastogi S. (eds) Translational Ayurveda, Springer, Singapore.

Loukas, M., Saad, Y., Tubbs, R. S., Shoja, M. M. (2010). The heart and cardiovascular system in the Qur'an and Hadeeth. Int J Cardiol., 140(1), 19-23.

Malaysian Herbal Monograph (2013), Volume 3, Malaysian Herbal Monograph Committee (Editor), Publisher: Forest Research Institute Malaysia.

Mazura, M. P. (2016). Medicinal Forest Species in FRIM, Volume 1, Forest Research Institute Malaysia, Kepong, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia.

Mohd Zahari, M. S., Hanafiah, M. H. & Hemdi, M. A. (2017). ICGPA as an Integrated Grading System: A Qualitative Study. The New Educational Review, 49(3), 167-175.

Morral, J., Culshaw, M., Morral, K., Conway, B., Adams, S. & Adams, A. (2015). Linking a Pharmaceutical Chemistry Workshop to Pharmacy Practice. Sci Pharm., 83: 125–142.

Nozula, M. F., Mohsin, H. F. & Abdul Wahab, I. (2017). Research on Punica Granatum Linn., Journal of Advanced Research in Materials Science, 30 (1), 1-9.

Samsul, F. N., Abdul Wahab, I. & Mohsin, H. F. (2018). Detecting Fatty Acid Methyl Ester in Sterculiaceae, Malaysian Journal of Analytical Sciences, 22(2): 358 – 364.

Sharma, R., Verma, U., Kapoor, B. & Chopra, V. S. (2004). Novel Teaching Approaches in Pharmacology, 6(3), 172 – 173.

Sims, S. L. & Swenson, M. M. (2001). Preparing Teachers and Students for Narrative Learning. Journal of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (JoSoTL), 1(2), 1 – 14.

Yusof, K. S. (2017). 'Ibrah Juz 'Amma, page 172 – 179, Muassis Resources, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia.

5Ps: Governance and Performance Measurement Framework for Social Enterprises in Creating Social Values to Society

Saunah Zainon[1], Soo Kum Yoke[2], Isma Ishak[3]

[1]Associate Professor, Faculty of Accountancy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Segamat Campus, Johore
sauna509@uitm.edu.my

[2]Associate Professor, Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Rembau Campus, Negeri Sembilan
sooku607@uitm.edu.my

[3]Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Information Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Segamat Campus, Johore
ismai242@uitm.edu.my

Abstract

The trend of Social Enterprise (SE) operations has been on the rise globally. Achieving momentum for social values to societies although may be challenging, has been seen as necessary in businesses especially in addressing social issues such as unemployment and environmental problems. SEs are run by social entrepreneurs who combine the spirit of entrepreneurship and community to build social capital towards community improvement. As such, social capital navigates the use of the concept of SEs. It is this social relationship that glues societies together and enables them to get along with one another. The elements of trust, civic spirit, solidarity and readiness drive social capital to move SEs to build and maintain communities. What is important to note is the fact that, even though the numbers in studying SEs are growing, less attention is being paid to the governance and performance measurement of SEs particularly in Malaysia. Thus, this paper aims to propose a governance and performance measurement framework for SEs in creating social values to society. With the governance and performance measurement framework, social enterprises could be moulded to improve the quality of life of poor and disadvantaged people, in line with the government's New Economic Model (NEM), that includes poverty eradication. Hence, this would be useful to interested parties to establish any form of SEs. In addition, relevant governmental agencies would be able to regulate and monitor the establishments of SEs in the context of governance.

Keywords: framework, governance, performance measurement, social enterprise

1. Introduction

In recent years, there is a sprout of social entrepreneurship operations that are somewhat independent of financial support from the government. This lack of dependency and financial support from the government is due to the current tight situation where non-profit organisations (NPOs) are forced to transform themselves from being purely philanthropic in nature to that of social entrepreneurship. This has led to the establishment of new enterprises defined as *"integrated"* or *"hybrid"* that blur the boundaries between the profit and non-profit enterprises (Harris, 2012). This emergence has also led to a new dimension of a third sector in industries. SEs can be considered as a form of organisation that differs from traditional for-profit and

NPOs (Grieco et al., 2014; Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2013). The phenomenon of social entrepreneurships fall within the third sector as it engages in economic activities to pursue social objectives. The nature of SEs has raised the question of what their real motives are and how they are assessed in terms of whether they have achieved their objectives while contributing to society.

The upsurge awareness in recent decades of the potential contribution of SE activities in the economy and society are ignited by the growing number of social oriented ventures around the world. These enterprises differ in their scope of activities, operations and their background or formation. Numerous studies that focus on the social bottom line have been conducted but hardly any have been found on how to frame the performance measurements of these growing SEs especially in the context of governance. This has led to the motivation of this paper in providing a fresh take on SEs. Consequently, this paper proposes a governance and performance measurement framework for SEs.

2.   Early Development of Social Enterprise in Eastern Asia

Socio-economic changes in the late 1990s have led to the emergence of SEs in East Asian countries (Defourny & Kim, 2011). This has led to the growth of organisations taking part in finding solutions to social problems. New policies and programmes to cater to public welfare needs were implemented. However, due to different social missions and needs, the mode of survival for each SE varied. Each SE had to cater to a specific category to meet specific social needs. The implementation involved researchers, government officers and third sector organisations. Table 1 illustrates the model of typology for the emergence of SEs in Eastern Asia.

Table 1: Typology of Emerging Social Enterprise Models in Eastern Asia

Models	Typology of Emerging SEs Models
• **Trading NPOs**	• NPOs looking for other sources of income or seeking to achieve financial sustainability through the delivery of social services (other than work integration).
• **Work Integration Social Enterprise**	• Provision of (stable or temporary) job opportunities with training and/or employment services.
• **Non-Profit Co-Operative**	• Collective self-employment and innovative responses to unmet needs based on co-operative tradition.
• **NPO-FPO Partnership**	• Involvement of private companies (or company foundations) to support NPOs or joint initiatives with a social mission.
• **Community Development Enterprise**	• Multi-stakeholder partnerships (NPO, FPO and public) promoting participatory local development.

Note: Defourny & Kim (2011, p.102) Emerging Models of Social Enterprise in Eastern Asia

The models are grouped into five (5) broad models which have their own dynamics and characteristics from Trading NPOs to Community Development Enterprises. With the presence of a good framework in strategy, governance and performance measures, it would be possible to deploy these models effectively.

3. The 5Ps of Social Enterprise Governance and Performance Measurement System

Assessing SE governance and non-financial (subjective/intangible/social) performance are fundamentally challenging in contrast to just assessing financial (objective /tangible) performance. To overcome these challenges, Terpening and Li (2014) recommended that social businesses adopt a complete social business governance (SBG) system which consists of 4 Ps – (i) people; (ii) policies, (iii) process and, (iv) practices. Adopting the 4Ps principles recommended by Terpening and Li (2014), this paper further includes 1P – "performance" to align with the development of the governance and performance measurement framework for SEs in creating social values to society. The first two pillars i.e. people and policies, focus on decision making, and the other three pillars i.e. process, practices and performance relates to execution and measurement of good governance practices.

a. **PEOPLE** are the most fundamental element for SEs governance and performance measurement system. For an effective governance system, leaders and the board of trustees are responsible to make strategic decisions and policies.
b. **POLICIES** codify decisions and agreements for managing roles of SEs.
c. **PROCESSES** are the steps, procedures and guidelines in support of the policy execution.
d. **PRACTICES** support the SE system by means of automation, education that execution of SE operations.
e. **PERFORMANCE** consists of both financial and non-financial performances which integrate with one another to achieve the mission and objectives of the SEs.

Figure 1 illustrates the 5P's of SEs governance and performance measurement framework system.

1. PEOPLE	2. POLICY	3. PROCESS	4. PRACTICES	5. PERFORMANCE
CODIFY AGREEMENTS	GET ALIGNED AND ORGANISED WITH KEY LEADERS	EXECUTION	FINANCIAL AND NON-FINANCIAL	MANAGE EXECUTION
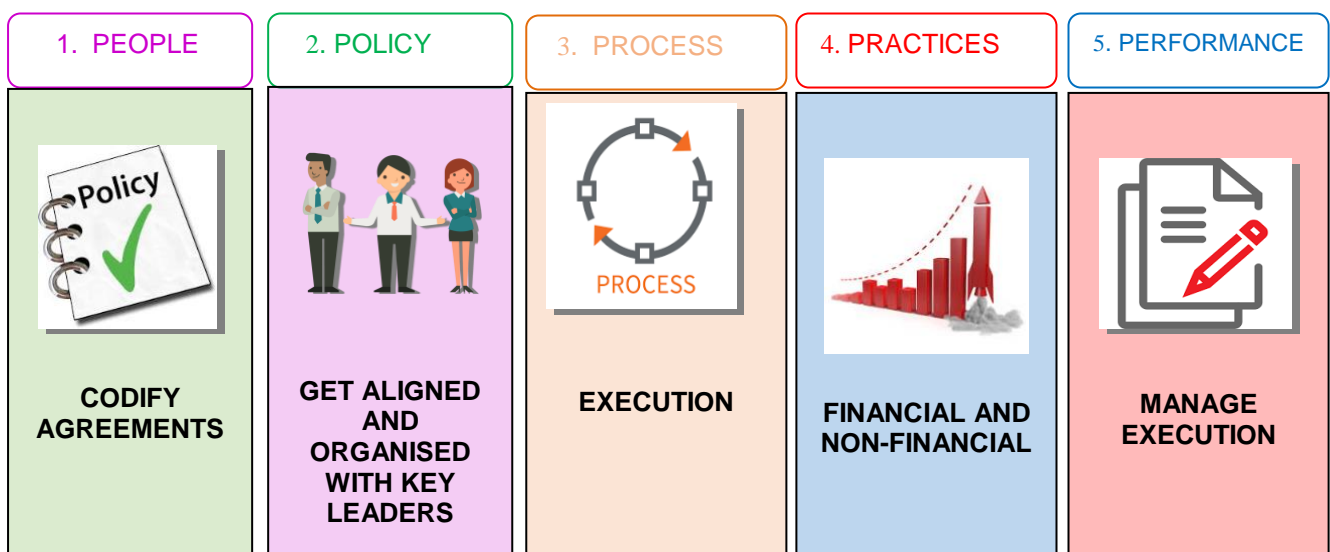
Figure 1. The 5Ps Framework for Governance and Performance Measurement

4.   Governance

Governance can be defined as *"the relationship among various participants in determining the direction and performance of corporations"* (Monks & Minow, 1995, p.181). Mason et al., (2007) defined governance as a set of relationship between a company's management, it's board, it's shareholders and other stakeholders that functions based on the company's objectives, attainment of those objectives and the monitoring of the company's performances towards those objectives.   In the aftermath of the Enron scandal, governance became a pillar to support the organisation's performance. The mechanism included governing board, monitoring system and signalling mechanisms such as reporting and code of conduct. In order to assess the performance of SEs, governance ensured that organisations comply with policies and regulations to safeguard the organisational missions. Yu (2013) asserts that one of the aspects that is lacking in literature of SEs is the fundamental role of governance which could lead to improvements in the efficiency and effectiveness of SEs. Thus far, it has been found that there is lack of governance that perfectly fit SE operations (Schoning et al., 2012). Literatures have generally been found to describe the development of SEs but they lack inputs on how SEs should manage fiduciary responsibilities to achieve accountability through transparency of governance. An effective board can help SEs achieve their goal but awareness on setting up a board structure and board compostition needs to be addressed.

The various forms and sectors of SEs may affect the governing dynamics and practices in the organisations. Low (2006) explains that the non-profit form of ownership will more likely fit a multi-stakeholder model of governance in which the primary role of the governing board is to represent the interest of various constituencies and groups. In line with this, Yu (2013) described the governance structure in China under three major categories as in Figure 2 which is:

a.   Government-supervised SEs, which are often registered as non-profit organisations and operate under close government supervision.
b.   Shareholder-controlled SEs, which are registered as Commercial companies and controlled by shareholders and managers, free from direct state influence.
c.   Member-regulated SEs, which is Farmers' Specialized Cooperatives, pursues a type of self-regulation of members and is not subject to close supervision by governmental agencies.
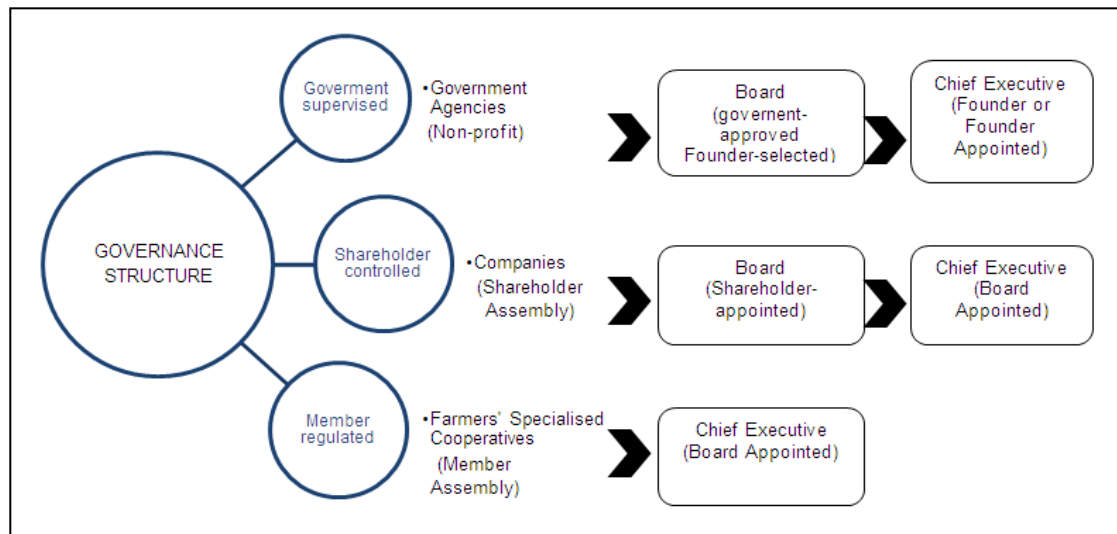
Figure 2. Typologies of governance structure of SE

The specific features of this governance structure will be clearer through the involvement of four groups of stakeholders namely:

a. Shareholders/founders;
b. Government agencies;
c. Members; and
d. Beneficiaries

A case study by Yu (2013) shows the result of the composition of the board. Among the 23 SEs in China, 22 of the SEs (95 percent) assigned board seats to shareholders or founders. Bertotti et al. (2014) pointed out that the development draws towards a neo-institutional approach which focuses on the concept of legitimacy and the role of cultural values and attitudes in determining the choice and behaviour of board members and management in the Northeast of England. Table 2 summarises the five models of governance elaborated by Cornforth (2001) in support of a conceptual framework.

Table 2: A Comparison of Theoretical Perspectives on Organisational Governance

Theory	Interest	Board Members	Board Role	Model
Agency theory	Owners' and managers have different interests	'Owner/mandators' representatives	Conformance: -safeguard 'owners' interests -oversee management -check compliance	Compliance model
Stewardship theory	'Owners' and managers share interests	'Experts'	Improve performance: - add value to top decisions/strategy - partner/support management	Partnership model
Stakeholder theory	Stakeholders have different interests	Stakeholder representatives	Political: -balancing stakeholder needs - make policy -control management	Stakeholder model
Resource	Stakeholders	Chosen for	Boundary spanning:	Co-optation

dependency theory	and organisation have different interests	influence with key stakeholders	- secure resources -stakeholder relations -external perspective	model
Managerial hegemony theory	'Owners' and managers have different interests	'Owners' representatives	Symbolic: - ratify decisions - give legitimacy (managers have real power)	'Rubber stamp' model

Source: Cornforth (2001, pp.9) Understanding the Governance of Non-Profit Organisations: Multiple Perspectives and Paradoxes

Table 2 compares these five theories in relation to the interest, board member, board roles and model of governance. The agency theory is the most acceptable theory being practiced in businesses where owners and managers have different interests to fulfil but which shareholders' interest is the priority. The stewardship theory explains that both manager and owner share the same interest in improving company performance. Under the stakeholder theory, different interest needs to be considered due to multiple stakeholders. It can be achieved through management control and policies.

The resource dependency theory is adopted when multiple stakeholders have different interest relating to the environment for resources. At this point, board members may have external link to other organisations to reduce uncertainty of resources and information. Lastly, managerial hegemony theory is where the owner and manager have different interests. Even though shareholders legally own the organisation but effective controlling power is held by the board of trustees who function as the company's decision makers.

The organisation has to balance between financial responsibilities and social impact while coordinating with multiple stakeholders and beneficiaries. Governance is the key for SEs to both oversee compliance with policies and regulations. It is also a safeguard for the organisational mission while meeting the demands of various stakeholders. The existence of the board members in SE institutions may help to ensure the success of the goals.

It is important to match the needs of primary stakeholders while engaging in the governance process which enables managers to be transparent and accountable. The governance system adopted has to be adaptable to ensure that those in charge can legitimise their activities and ensure legitimacy (Mason, Kirkbride & Bride, 2007). Consequently, the outcome of an effective and ethical governance system is the achievement of legitimacy. Legitimacy may assist in the measuring of the appropriateness with which an SE is governed. The process of governance must be repeated over time and continuous meetings with stakeholders' needs to be done in order to maintain legitimacy.

5.   Performance Measurement

In general, performance measurement provides information to managers on the value creation processes within the organisation. Internally, managers may rely on the information projected to assess current performances. Externally, performance measurements act as a benchmark tool for comparisons among organisations and as indicators for future performances. The performance measurement system designation may reflect the key strategies imperatives and objectives of the organisations (Moore, 1999).

The needs of relevant and reliable information for both internal and external stakeholders have made measuring performance a priority in assessing the achievement of organisations (Luke et al., 2013). This type of information is used to assess both past performance and future planning. A good performance measurement tool helps organisations in identify problems and key areas. It assists in developing strategic objective and making efficient decisions to achieve the objectives (Parenson, 2011).

Bagnoli and Megali (2011) state the indicators for social effectiveness are composed of human resource, characteristics of supplier, fair, stakeholder's representativeness, productivity, user satisfaction, community benefit due to integration and environmental sensitivity. The indicators may give respond to the performance measurement and can help in determining the extent to which stakeholders' requirements are met.

Several methods for measuring SE's performance exist in relation to the different views to choose the best methods. Performance measurement in SEs frequently relates to financial and economic performance, social effectiveness and institutional legitimacy (Luke et al., 2013; Bagnoli & Megali, 2011) instead of impact value chain (inputs, activities, outputs and outcomes) (Achleitner et al., 2011; Parenson, 2011; Ebrahim & Rangan, 2010). Since social enterprises are hybrid in nature, these organisations are accountable for both the financial and non-financial performances of the organisation (Ebrahim et al., 2014). This is to ensure that the objectives of both performances function complementarily of each other and not otherwise.

5.1   Financial Performance

Generally an organisation uses its financial performance to determine its financial stability. Organisations usually use multiple measures such as accounting measures for financial performance and this includes sales, profits, and returns on investments and market measures that will provide an overall view of the organisation's performance. Table 3 below are definitions of financial performance based on previous literatures.

Table 3: Financial Performance Definitions

Bil	Authors	Financial Performance Definitions
1.	Cameron, 1986	Financial performance measurement, as an important component of assessing overall effectiveness.
2.	Moore, 1999	Functions to measure and evaluate firm's and executives' performances to provide a standard for comparison of a firm's performance across firms and industries.
3.	Uyar, 2010	Financial measures represent information and analyses that uses monetary equivalents
4.	Epstein & Buhovac, 2007	Financial measurement provide important information on: (a) the efficiency of spending valuable resources, (b) costs incurred, (c) growth in revenues, and (d) how financially successful the organization's various programs are.
5.	Ebrahim et al., 2014	Financial measures established standardised definitions and methods of assessment, allowing for comparability over time and with other enterprises.

Financial measures have traditionally been the biggest information used by upper level management in their tentative. Accounting profits, revenues, market values, and other return

measures are included in the multiple measures. Financial measures reflect the assets and cash flows at various levels of an organisation and can be said as a valuable measurement tool.

The main differences in adopting accounting measures to measure an organisation's performance instead of economic measures are the use of the historical financial records such as profits, revenues, or account receivables. This can reflect timing differences, adjustments for accounting methods, or measurement errors (Moore, 1999) while economic measurements focus on the shareholders' returns. In this case and due to the lack of literatures from the view of SEs, it has been compared to NPOs. Table 4 shows the performance measures adopted by NPOs as their proxy for financial performance measures as indicated by Epstein and Buhovac (2009).

Table 4: Nonprofit Financial Performance Measures

Category	Financial Performance Measures
Administrative efficiency	• Administrative expenses divided by total expenses • Percentage of revenues spent on administrative expenses
Program efficiency	• Program support or charitable commitment (percentage of total expenses spent directly for the charitable purpose) • Program expenses divided by total expenses • Growth of program expenses • Current spending factor (total expenses divided by total revenues) • Program output index (number of units of actual physical output divided by total program expenses) • Productivity rate (outputs divided by inputs)
Fundraising efficiency	• Percentage of donations left after subtracting the cost of getting them • Percentage of revenues spent on fundraising expenses • Fundraising expenses divided by total expenses • Donor dependency (operational surplus subtracted from donations, divided by donations)
Other financial performance measures	• Revenue growth • Working capital ratio (working capital divided by total expenses)

Most of the financial performance measurements above have been used in measuring and evaluating performances of NPOs. Unfortunately, many of the measurements are not suitable to be used for comparison across organisations due to the differences in missions, strategies, structures and systems. Financial performance measurements are important not only for managers but also for all the multiple stakeholders of SEs.

5.2 Non-Financial Performance

Assessing non-financial performances is different from assessing financial performances. Financial performance uses a well-established method of assessment and standardise definitions which can be viewed for comparability over time or can be assessed among other organisations' financial performance (Ebrahim et al., 2014) whereas non-financial performance are measured rather subjectively due to the diverse nature of SEs.

During the last two decades, researchers from management accounting fields have become interested in improving the design of performance measurement and evaluation systems. They have also found interest in understanding the fundamentals in which non-financial performance can contribute to financial performance (Fernandez, 2002).   The most conventional models of performance measurement for SEs are social returns on investments (SROI), social enterprise balanced scorecards (SEBC) and social impact for local economies (SIMPLEs) (Yang et al., 2014). The good performance of an organisation usually relates to how the governance of that organisation is conducted. The function of governance is to govern the management and operations of an organisation to ensure that the objectives and goals of the organisation are met. Hence, the next section of this paper will elaborate on the governance and performance measurement framework of SEs.

6.   Governance and Performance Measurement Framework for SEs

The preceding discussion in this paper frames the schism between governance and performance measurements based on its significance. SE governance and performance measures are important areas of interest to multiple stakeholders in accomplishing their mission and objectives.   It is the strategy for SEs to reach their potential investment in terms of social sccoplishments. In general terms, strategy defines what will be done and when it is to be done, how governance operates and by whom. SEs' performance measures (including mission and objectives) explains the why and act as a compass that guides the links between strategy, governance and performance meures (Figure 3). There must be strategy to govern, and to govern without strategy will lead to failure.
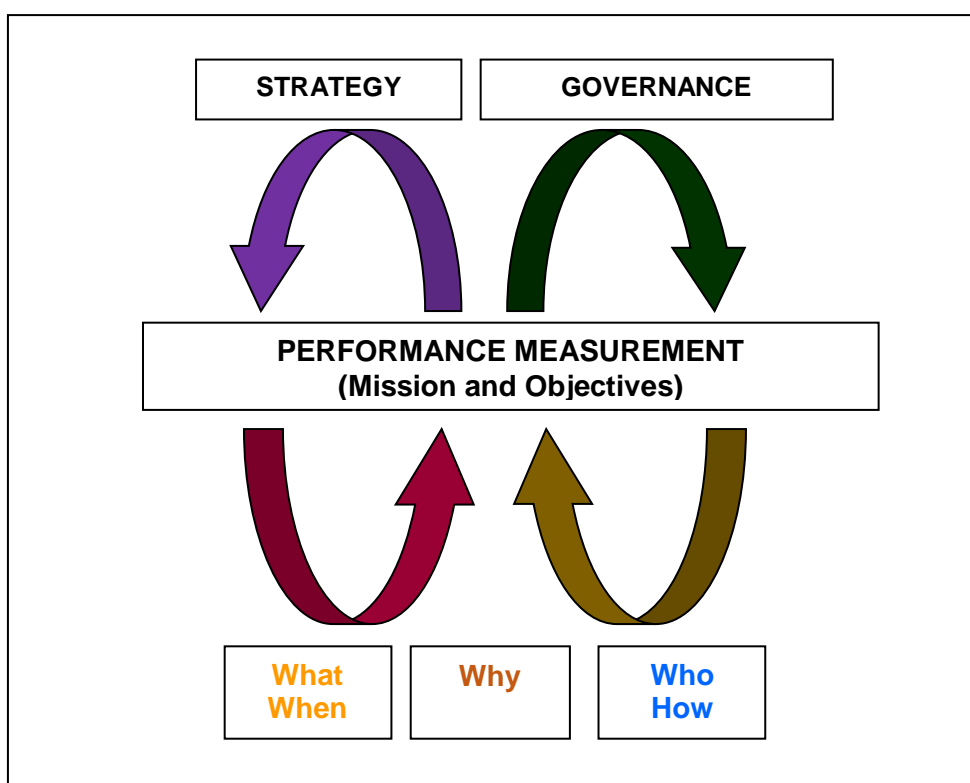
Figure 3. The Framework for Governance and Performance Measures

7.   Conclusions

The aim of this paper as mentioned in the onset was to propose a governance and performance measurement framework for SEs in the endeavour to create social values to society. At present, numerous literatures in the area of SEs have been found but in the area of governance and performance, it has been found to be lacking. This paper in its endeavour to propose a governance and performance measurement framework has listed out the importance of governance in SEs and why performance measurements are equally significant to any organisation. Point to reference of the literature discussed, performance of SEs can have a snowball effect on the organisation's long term performance as it is deemed an asset that can ignite the company's overall performance. The key to this, as discussed in this paper lies in proper governance (Mason, 2010). The governance framework proposed in this paper is taken from literatures stated in this paper. Based on this proposed framework, it has been found that creating a governance and performance measurement framework is conducive for all sectors including governmental sectors, NPOs and for-profit organisations as well as SEs. Future breakthroughs could be interesting to research and study in this area to test the effectiveness of the framework and provide further improvements to elevate SE performance in creating social values to society.

References

Abdu, A., & Johansson, E. (2009). Social entrepreneurship - A case study of SIFE Umeå University, Umeå School of Business**,** 1-66.

Achleitne, A.-K., Heinecke, A., Noble, A., Schöning, M., & Spiess-Knafl, W. (2011). Social investment manual: An introduction for social entrepreneurs, 68.

Anheier, H. K. (2005). Nonprofit organizations theory, *Management, Policy,* Taylor and Francis e-Library (pp. 456).

Bagnoli, L., & Megali, C. (2011). Measuring performance in social enterprises. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 40*(1), 149-165.

Barraket, J., & Nick, C. (2010) Mapping social enterprise in Australia: Conceptual debates and their operational implications. *Third Sector Review*, *16*(2). pp. 11-28.

Beer, H., Gamble, E., & Moroz, P. (2012). Increasing the Impact of Social Enterprise: The Search for A Performance Measurement Regime. Paper presented at the USASBE.

Bertotti, M., Han, Y., Netuveli, G., Sheridan, K., & Renton, A. (2014). Governance in South Korean social enterprises. *Social Enterprise Journal, 10*(1), 38-52.

Cameron, K. S. (1986). Effectiveness as paradox: Consensus and conflict in conceptions of organizational effectiveness. *Management Science, 32*(5), 539-553.

Carter, T. S., & Man, T. L. M. (2008). Canadian registered charities: Business activities and social enterprise: Thinking outside the box. Paper presented at the National Centre on Philanthropy and the Law Annual Conference.

Clarke, T. (2005). Accounting for Enron: Shareholder value and stakeholder interests. *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, *13*(5), 598-612.

Clifford, J., Markey, K., and N. Malpani. (2013). Measuring social impact in social enterprise: The state of thought and practice in the UK. London. E3M.

Cornforth, C. (2001). Understanding the governance of non-profit organizations: Multiple perspectives and paradoxes. Paper presented at the 30th Annual ARNOVA Conference, 29 November - 1 December, Miami.

Dainelli, F., Manetti, G., & Sibilio, B. (2013). Web-based accountability practices in non-profit organizations: The case of National Museums. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *24*(3), 649-665.

Dees, J. G. (2001). Enterprising nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review,* 13.

Defourny, J., & Kim, S.Y. (2011). Emerging models of social enterprise in Eastern Asia: A cross country analysis, *Social Enterprise Journal*, *7*(1), 86 – 111.

Defourny, J, Kuan, Y.Y, Bidet, Et, & Eum,H.K, (2011). Social enterprise in South Korea: history and diversity. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *7*(1), 69-85.

Defourny, J., & Nyssens, M. (2008). Social enterprise in Europe: Recent trends and developments. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *4*(3), 202-228.
Dictionary, O. E. (2013). Oxford English Dictionary.

Ebrahim, A. (2003). Making sense of accountability: Conceptual perspectives for Northern and Southern nonprofit. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 14*(2), 191-212.

Ebrahim, A., Battilna J. & Mair J., (2014). The governance of social enterprises: Mission drift and accountability challenges in hybrid organizations, *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *34*, 81-100.

Ebrahim, A., & Rangan, K., (2010). The limits of nonprofit impact: A contingency framework for measuring social performance. Working Paper.

Emerson, J. and Twersky, F. (1996). New social entrepreneurs: The Success, challenge, and lessons of non-profit enterprise creation, Roberts Foundation, San Francisco, CA.

Epstein, M. J., & Buhovac, J. A. (2007). Management accounting guideline: The reporting of organizational risks for internal and external decision making. Mississauga: *The Society of Management Accountants of Canada*, New York: The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants.

Gandy, J. D. (2012). The relationship between social entrepreneurship and organizational effectiveness. Doctor of Philosophy, Dallas Baptist University, United States.

Gawell, M. (2014). Social entrepreneurship and the negotiation of emerging social enterprise markets. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 27*(3), 251-266.

Grieco, C., Michelini, L., & Iasevoli, G. (2014). Measuring value creation in social enterprises: A cluster analysis of social impact assessment models. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 1*(21), 1-22.

Harris, M. (2012). Nonprofits and business toward a subfield of nonprofit studies. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 892-902.

Helm, S. (2007). Social entrepreneurship: Defining the nonprofit behavior and creating an instrument for measurement. Doctor of Philosophy, University of Missouri-Kansas City, United States.

Ho, A.P. and Chan, K.-T. (2010). The social impact of work-integration social enterprises in Hong Kong. *International Social Work*, *53*(1), 33-45.

Huybrechts, B., and Nicholls, A. (2013). The role of legitimacy in social enterprise-corporate collaboration. *Social Enterprise Journal, 9*(2), 130-146.

Jetmar, M., (2013). Social entrepreneurship: Challenge not only for developing countries but also for the EU. CBU International Conference on Integration and Innovation in Science and Education, April 7-14, Prague, Czech Republic, 41-49.

Kala, K. (2008). The social origins of the Estonion non-profit sector. *Trames, 12*(4), 441-449.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2001). Transforming the balanced scorecard from performance measurement to strategic management: Part II. *Accounting Horizons, 15*(2), 147–160.

Kuan, Y. and Wang, S. (2010), Taiwanese social enterprises: Characteristics development trends and effects. Paper presented at the International Conference on Social Enterprises in Eastern Asia: Dynamics and Variations. Taipei, 14-16 June.

Laratta, R., Nakagawa, S. and Sakurai, M. (2011). Japanese social enterprises: Major contemporary issues and key challenges. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *7*(1), 51-69.

Larner, J., & Mason, C. (2014). Beyond box-ticking: A study of stakeholder involvement in social enterprise governance. *Corporate Governance*, *14*(2), 181-196.

Lee, R. (2009), The emergence of social enterprises in China: The quest for space and legitimacy. Paper presented at the 2nd EMES International Conference on Social Enterprise, University of Trento, Trento, 1-4 July.

Lehner, O. M. (2011). The phenomenon of social enterprise in Austria: A triangulated descriptive study. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship, 2(*1), 53–78.

Li, S., & Wong, T. (2007). Social enterprise policies of the United Kingdom, Spain and Hong Kong. Research and Library Services Division. Legislative Council Secretariat.

Low, C. (2006). A framework for the governance of social enterprise. *International Journal of Social Economics, 33*, 376-385.

Luke, B., Barraket, J., & Eversole, R. (2013). Measurement as legitimacy versus legitimacy of measures: Performance evaluation of social enterprise. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management, 10*(3/4), 234-258.

Lyne, I. (2012). Social enterprise and social entrepreneurship as models of sustainability for local NGO's: Learning from Cambodia. *International Journal of Management Research, 2*(1), 1-6.

Mair, J. and Noboa, E. (2003). Social entrepreneurship: How ontentions to create a social enterprise get formed, Working Paper WP No 521, IESE Business School- Universitad de Navarra.

Mason, C. (2010). Some challenges in social enterprise governance. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *6*(2), 1-6.

Mason, C., Kirkbride, J., & Bryde, D. (2007). From stakeholders to institutions: The changing face of social enterprise governance theory. *Management Decision*, *45*(2), 284-301.

McLoughlin, J., Kaminski, J., Sodagar, B., Khan, S., Harris, R., Arnaudo, G., & Mc Brearty, S. (2009). A strategic approach to social impact measurement of social enterprises: The SIMPLE methodology. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *5*(2), 154-178.

Manwaring, S., & Valentine, A. (2012). Social enterprise in Canada guide to the leading 500 lawyers in Canada, Thomson Reuters, 6.

Monks, R. A., & Minow, N. (1995). Corporate governance. 5th ed. Wiley & Sons.

Morse, R. and Dudley, D. (2002), Civic entrepreneurs and collective leadership, PA Times, August 3.

Moore, J., Stinson, L., & Welniak, E. (1999). Income reporting in surveys: Cognitive issues and measurement error. In *Cognition and Survey Research,* M. Sirken, D.J. Herrmann, S.Schechter, and R.Tourangeau, eds. New York: Wiley and Sons.

Muth, M., & Donaldson, L. (1998). Stewardship theory and board structure: A contingency approach. *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 6*(1), 5-28.

Parenson, T. (2011). Social impact evaluation in social enterprises in Estonia: Need, readiness and practices. University of Tartu, Estonia.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1996). Social origins of civil society: Explaining the nonprofit sector cross-nationally. The Johns Hopkins University Institute for Policy Studies.

Schöning, M., Noble, A., Heinecke, A., Achleitner, A.-K., & Mayer, J. (2012). The governance of social enterprises managing your organization for success. Paper presented at the World Economic Forum.

Shin, C. (2018). How social entrepreneurs affect performance of social enterprises in Korea: The mediating effect of innovativeness. *Sustainability. 10*, 2643; doi:10.3390/su10082643.

Somers, A. B. (2005). Shaping the balanced scorecard for use in UK social enterprises. *Social Enterprise Journal, 1*(1), 43-56.

Spear, R., Cornforth, C., & Aiken, M. (2009). The governance challenges of social enterprises: Evidence from a UK empirical study. *Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics, 80*(2), 247-273.

Talbot, C., Tregilga, P. & Harrison, K. (2002), Social enterprise in Australia: An introductory Handbook, Adelaide City Mission, Adelaide.

Tanimoto, K. (2008). A conceptual framework of social entrepreneurship and social innovation cluster: A preliminary study. *Hitotsubashi Journal of Commerce and Management, 42*, 16.

Terpening,, E. & Li, C. (2014). A best practices report social business governance: A framework to execute social business strategy. *Altimeter Group*, November 13.

The Guardian. (2013). Secret social entrepreneur: Why defining social enterprise is important. retrieved Oct. 13, 2014 from http://www.theguardian.com/social-enterprise-network/2013/apr/09/secret-social-entrepreneur-social-enterprise-definition.

The Star. (2013). Malaysia may increase funding to NGOs, *Social Enterprises*, retrieved May 8, 2014 from http://www.thestar.com.my/business/business-news/2013/09/19/govt-may-increase-funding-to-ngos-social-enterprises.aspx

Uyar, A. (2010). Development of non-financial measures as contemporary performance measuremet tools, *World of Accounting Finance*, *12*(1), 209-238.

Weerawardena, J., & Mort, G. S. (2006). Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 21-35.

Wexler, R. A. (2006). Social enterprise: A legal context. *Tax Analysis, 54,* 12.

Yang, C. L., Huang, R.-H., & Lee, Y.-C. (2014). Building a performance assessment model for social enterprises-views on social value creation. *Science Journal of Business and Management, 2*(1), 9.

Yusof, M.Z., Ibrahim, I.A. & Hamid, M. A., (2013). Who is the social entrepreneur? Easy question, difficult answer. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship, 5*(1),1-23.

Yu, X. (2011), Social enterprise in China: Driving forces, development patterns and legal framework. *Social Enterprise Journal, 7*(1), 9-33.

Yu, X. (2013). The governance of social enterprises in China. *Social Enterprise Journal. 9*(3), 225-246. doi: 10.1108/sej-08-2012-0034.

Zahra, S. A., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaumc, D. O., & Shulmand, J. M. (2009). A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing, 24.* 519-532.

Zakaria, F. (2011). Social enterprise in Malaysia: The UMK experience.

Zainol, F., Daud, F.A.W., Abdullah, Z. & Yaacob, M. R. (2014). Overcoming poverty through social entrepreneurship: A conceptual paper. *International Business Research, 7*(7), 183-188.

Job satisfaction and Employees Turnover: A Case of Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan

Mahboob Ullah

Preston University, Islamabad, Pakistan
mahboobmails@gmail.com

Abstract

The present study is to determine the influence of Job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions in the Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan. Job satisfaction was measured with remuneration, job security and supervisor role. The data were collected from 315 employees working in Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan. The reliability of the data was confirmed through Cronbach' alpha. The hypotheses were examined through regression analysis in SPSS. The findings revealed that job satisfaction has a negative and significant impact on employees' turnover intentions. Additionally, the individual aspect of job satisfaction and turnover intentions was tested. It was found that remuneration, job security and supervisor role have a negative and significant impact on employees' intentions to quit. The study has contributed theoretically through a new conceptual model with unique combination. Practically this study would be useful for the management to find ways to retain skillful employees and sustain competitive advantage.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Job Security, Remuneration, Supervisor Role, Turnover Intentions, Higher Educational Institutions, Afghanistan

1.0 Introduction

Since higher education is the basic requirement of the society, it is very necessary to investigate the variables that are closely associated with the effectiveness of higher educational institutions such as leadership, faculty motivation, commitment and loyalty. Supervisory role is very imperative for organization as the employees interact with line supervisor in which some may prosper others get fall (Sosik, 2005).

Staff turnover from the authors point of view seem to be a problem for Higher Educational Institutions as evidenced by repeated advertisements in newspaper soliciting applicants. Employees' turnover is one of the major issues organizations are facing. Turnover intention can be defined as an individual's shift in organizational membership, covering a wide range of reappointments and substitutions (Rondeau & Wagar, 2016). When an employee leaves the organization where he is working it is called turnover (Bougheas, Davidson, Upward & Wright, 2015). A person leaves his job either voluntary or involuntary (Price, 1977; quoted by Lee, Lee & Bernstein, 2013) and these terms should be distinguished as there is a difference between leaving organization willingly or involuntary. Plenty of research claimed that turnover is costly for organization in shape of recruitment and replacement costs (Rebollo- Sanz, 2012). Additionally, the time required for new comer for training and socialization, lower production, and lower performance until the new comer gains some experience (Ghandi, Hejazi & Ghandi 2017)

and according to, Ahn, (2015) the rising rate of turnover in organization may damage the image.

Job satisfaction on the other hand defined by Tett and Meyer (1993) as the person's emotional attachment to a certain job as a whole or to particular facets in his job. Whereas, for Chatzuglou et al, (2011) job satisfaction is the extent to which an employee is happy or unhappy in his job. Employees' job satisfaction is considered to be very important variable in management literature. Nazim (2012) stated that dissatisfied workers create problems rather than solving them. For instance, they may not be dedicated, motivated and determined towards their job that may lead to lower performance. It is therefore rightly assessed that dissatisfied workers if remained in the organization may cause damage to the organization in shape of theft, poor service, destructive rumours and sabotage of equipment (Spector, 1997). Alongside this, dissatisfaction lead to high turnover intentions that further lead to actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000).

Employees' job satisfaction is considered to be one of the most important work related attitude and its impact on employees' turnover intentions is an interesting topic for many scholars (Atef, Leithy & Kalyoubi, 2017). When employees feel happy at work, a sense of commitment develops that leads employee intention to stay in the organization (Ntisa, 2015). Wright and Bonnet (2007) argued that satisfied worker are more productive, willing to continue with organization and more loyal. Hence, job satisfaction is closely related to employees' turnover intentions such as Barak et al, (2001) recommend job satisfaction one of the primary variables that affect turnover intentions. Various scholars had worked on the association of job satisfaction and turnover intentions in different context, such as; Ahn, 2015; Atef, Leithy &Kalyoubi, 2017; Ghandi, Hejazi & Ghandi 2017; Rebollo- Sanz, 2012. However, the effort related to link job satisfaction with turnover intention in Afghanistan context in general and specifically, in Higher Educational Institutions is almost none. Hence, the current study is an effort to fill that gap.

2.0 Problem Statement

In an every organization and Higher Educational Institutions, performance, quality, and success depends on skilled, loyal, committed and satisfied staff, as well as the supervisor or coordinator of the institute (Chughtai, 2016; Khan et al., 2013). Without highly-qualified exchange relation of manager and staff, the quality of an organization is very hard to be enhanced.

There are a number of researchers who analyzed job satisfaction and employees turnover (West & Bocarnea, 2008; Lisbijanto & Budiyanto, 2014; Aderson, 2005; Mehta & Pillay, 2011) in developed and under-developing economies. However, literature related to job satisfaction and employees' turnover is very limited literature particularly in the Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan. Furthermore, there are always problems regarding the job satisfaction and employees turnover in Higher Educational Institutions. These complaints may be about non-cooperative administration attitude; lack of training and development program; work load; poor communication and; lack of management style and remuneration system (Adeniji, 2011).

To overcome all these problems and issues, it is vital to know the perception of Higher Educational Institutions employees' regarding job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Therefore, this study was conducted on full - time employees of Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan to establish the association of job satisfaction with employees' turnover. The researcher of the present study believes that job satisfaction is an important

mechanism to enhance employees' loyalty and organizational performance and minimize employees' turnover. In this study, job satisfaction will be measured as Remuneration, Job Security and Leadership Style.

3.0 Literature Review

Employees are considered highly valued for the success of organization. Their level of happiness and satisfaction leads to their job related attitude such as; employer and employee long lasting relationship, job related performance and turnover behavior. This portion of the study presented discussion on job satisfaction, its antecedents and employees' turnover intentions.

3.1 Satisfaction

Feeling derived from the achievement of the desires and hopes is known as satisfaction (Allen & Allen, 2004). Similarly, business has the same concept of satisfaction by getting the desired goals and objective. When customers purchase a product and that fulfils his/her hopes that customer is a satisfied customer and might be a potential loyal customer in future. Customer satisfaction is very imperative for successful business, however employees' satisfaction on the other hand is equally important for organization for successfully attainment of business vision and mission (Banker et al, 2000). Employees' satisfaction is very important, however for service oriented firms, it is very critical for then to keep highly satisfied employees. In such firm customers' directly interact with employees and employees attitude and behavior is very important for making customers' satisfied that eventually lead to loyalty (Johnson, 1996).

3.2 Employees' Job Satisfaction

It is factual that employee satisfaction is an innermost concern in business. It comprises of factors such as; basic factors and excitement factors. Basic factors represent the minimum factors that cause dissatisfaction, whereas excitement factors make employees delighted and enhance performance. Christina (Chi & Gursoy, 2009). Similarly, Dessler (1978) defined job satisfaction, as the degree of needs satisfaction that is derived from and or experienced on the job. Author further upholds that the ability of employees in an organization aspirations, feeling happy doing their job with the hope that their needs will be achieved.

Likewise, Bowen, Radhakrishna and Keyser (1994) defined job satisfaction as the difference between the employees' expectation of a job reward and the actual rewards they receive. Robin further argued that highly productive employees are highly satisfied. Satisfied employee feel good about his job, and work for a longer with same organization (Ajzen, 2011). Job satisfaction build optimistic work related behaviour and reduces turnover intentions (Anitha 2011).

Employees are influenced mainly by internal factors within their own company. Employees' internal satisfaction is considered to be one of the primary factor while recruiting and retaining talented people (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1993). Further Berry argued that employees' satisfaction should also be given importance as "customer's satisfaction. Consequently, it is very imperative to satisfy internal customer (employee) to keep external customer delighted Dumitrescu and Apostu (2009). Similarly, Aziri (2011) defined job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental

circumstances that cause any person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job. Author further relates job satisfaction to Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory. Herzberg's motivation- hygiene theory adopted as a base theory for the current study.

3.3 Herzberg's Motivation- Hygiene Theory

Two factor theory (motivation-hygiene) presented by Federick Herzberg in 1959. The theory is based on 200 engineers and accountant in the USA to measure their feelings towards their working environment. Herzberg classified two set of factors to measure the employees' attitude and performance (Robbins & Aydede, 2009). Motivation factor will lead to employees' job satisfaction while hygiene factor will reduce employees' dissatisfaction level. Intrinsic factors comprise of the basic needs of the employees and if employees' are satisfied with intrinsic factors they are more productive and perform better (Robbins & Aydede, 2009). Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are interdependent, as extrinsic factors may reduce employees' dissatisfaction level, however, if intrinsic factors are missing it might lead to dissatisfaction. The researcher for the current study has taken Herzber's two factor theory as a base to measure employees' satisfaction. The extrinsic factors of the two factor theory will measure the "Pay and Job security" determinants of employees job satisfaction, while the leadership style aspect of job satisfaction is related to the intrinsic factor of Herzberg's two factor theory.

Figure 1*: Two Factor Theory Herzberg

3.4 Determinants of Jos Satisfaction

According to Kabir and Pervin (2011), there are numerous factors that affect employees' job satisfaction such as; pay; promotion; job security; leadership style; working condition and co-workers role. However, Santhapparaj and Alam (2005) proposed pay, supervisor role and job security the most influential aspects of employees' job satisfaction. Various scholars had measured job satisfaction on pay, promotion, working condition, co-workers (Kabir & Pervin 2011; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Jones 2000 & Suh; Bowers & Martin, 2007) however, limited work has been done on the consideration of leadership style in employees job satisfaction. Hence, the current study will measure employees' job satisfaction level by evaluating their pay, job security and leadership style.

3.5 Remuneration

Remuneration is the amount paid by an organization to its employees against his/her services and according to Aziri (2011) it is one of the most important variable to measure employees' job satisfaction level. Similarly, Kamal and Hanif (2009) argued that most of the employees' consider job satisfaction as their pay level. Likewise Robbins and Aydede (2009) claimed that organization can retain employees by providing competitive package. Employees have their families and perform better if their salary is fulfilling their family requirements. Whereas, Shah (2012) claimed that employees that are paid well are highly satisfied. As discussed above, remuneration is likely one of the primary factors that lead to job satisfaction. However, salary is not the only factor to consider it in measuring job satisfaction (Danish, et al, 2015). According to Maslow's needs theory, employees are looking for higher needs to be satisfied one lower level needs are fulfilled. Therefore, the other relevant attributes that lead to job satisfaction need to be discussed.

3.6 Job Security

Job security is defined as the assurance in an employee's job continuity due to the general economic condition in the country (Sherman, et al., 2012). Job security, often measured using the perceived risk of job loss in the near future, is a significant determinant of job satisfaction (Artz & Kaya, 2014). Similarly, Clark (2001) found job security one of the most cited aspect of job satisfaction while conducting his study on British Household Panel. Blanchflower and Oswald (1999) found the negative impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction. Numerous scholars had worked on job security as the determinant of job satisfaction in western context. However, very limited literature is available on such studies in the Afghanistan context. This is one of the important attributes of job satisfaction that helps in survey by asking how much one is feeling secure at his current job.

Similarly, job security is also important in the context of employees' turnover intentions. Employees tent to be remained with the company if they feel more secure regarding their jobs (Artz & Kaya, 2014). Likewise, Campbell et al, (2007) found a strong association of employees' job insecurity with employees' turnover intentions. Survey conducted by KPMG, (2010) documented that more than 75% of the participants consider job security their top priority when searching for a new job. It is therefore very imperative to measure job satisfaction through job security as its attribute.

3.7 Supervisor Role

Supervisors play very important role in providing a pleasant working environment and employees' effectiveness (Sadiya, 2015). Moreover, author argued that supervisors' role is very imperative in making employees' committed, motivated and satisfied. Similarly, Mathieu & Babiak (2015) confirmed a positive impact of supervisor leadership on employees' well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. A study by Robinson, and Greenberg (1998) proposed that if the supervisor is fair, competent and sincere towards his job then his subordinates will also be satisfied, committed and motivated. The preceding research indicates a strong role of supervisor in measuring employees' job satisfaction. Bell (2007) documented that affective supervisor is required for the improvement and enhancement of organization and its employees. Supervisor assign duties, provide training and guidance to employees and delivers feedback to the employer (Tepper, 2007) and if ineffective in performing such duties that leads to employees' dissatisfaction (Chung, 2013). Keeping in view the importance of supervisor role, it is taken as one of the aspects of job satisfaction for the current study.

3.8 Turnover Intentions

Turnover intention can be defined as an individual's shift in organizational membership, covering a wide range of reappointments and substitutions (Rondeau & Wagar 2016). When an employee leaves the organization where he is working is called turnover (Bougheas, Davidson, Upward & Wright, 2015). A person leaves his job either voluntary or involuntary (Price, 1977; quoted by Lee, Lee & Bernstein, 2013) and these terms should be distinguished as there is a difference between leaving organization willingly or involuntary. Plenty of research claimed that turnover is costly for organization in shape of recruitment and replacement costs (Rebollo- Sanz, 2012). Moreover, training and socialization of new employees, lower production, and lower performance until the new comer gains some experience (Ghandi, Hejazi & Ghandi 2017) and according to Ahn (2015) the rising rate of turnover in organization may damage the image.

Human force stability is a strong source of competitive advantage and for that reason employees' turnover intention is a very important topic among researchers. According to Rondeau and Wagar (2016), turnover is the shift of individual's services from the organization. Similarly, Lee and Lee (2011) defined turnover intentions as the individual' voluntary decision of quitting existing job for other opportunities. Turnover intentions can be the voluntary decision of the employees or can be forced. Whether it is voluntary or forced, it has some repercussion on organization overall performance (Mello, 2011).

Smith (2009) itemised twelve major motives for employees to leave from their positions. Those were rude behavior, work-life imbalance, inability to meet expectations, employee misalignment, feeling undervalued, lack of coaching and feedback, lack of decision making ability, inadequate skills, organization's instability, stagnation, lack of growth opportunities and lack of appreciation. Likewise, A'yuninnisa and Saptoto (2015) advocated that employees' turnover intentions are highly correlated with his pay level. Whereas, Attiq and Bhatti (2014) proposed cash incentives one of the important factor against employees' turnover intentions. Mosely (2016) on the other hand recommended recognition as one of the important factors in reducing turnover intentions. Son (2014) and Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell and Allen (2007) specified the role of leader/supervisor the most important factor against turnover intentions. Similarly, Haas (2010), endorsed that effective leadership can reduce employees' turnover intentions.

3.9 Causes of Turnover Intentions

Nyaga (2015) discussed various causes of employees' turnover intentions such as; lack of training; lack of motivation; lack of career development; and working environment. The subsequent para elaborated all such factors.

3.10 Lack of Employees' Motivation.

Employees' motivation is very crucial for the enhancement of any organization and one of the biggest challenges for the managers (Armstrong, 2003). Numerous scholars have proposed various motivational techniques such as job rotation; job enrichment; Hierarchy of needs. Paul (2004) contended that job rotation is one of the best approaches to keep employees motivated and reduces turnover intentions. Murphy, (2009) discussed that futile performance appraisal system, rewarding of non-deserving employees leads to employees' dissatisfaction and turnover intentions. Maureen (2004) suggested that better motivational strategies enhances employees' motivational level and reduces employees' intentions of quitting job.

3.11 Lack of Training and Development.

Paul, (2004) stated that training and development is a function of human resource management concerned with organizational activity aimed at bettering the performance of individuals and groups in organizational settings. Training is very important particularly for new employees. Newly hired employees if not trained are mostly perform low. Trevor and Nyberg (2008) stated that employees turnover intentions reduces if they are provided better working condition and well equipped to perform their jobs. Spencer (2001) added to it that employer may retain employees by providing training relevant to their tasks.

3.12 Lack of Career Development.

Confer to the US Department of Labor (2009) 64% of American left their job because they were not appreciated for their efforts. In another study by Prakash and Gupta (2008) 70% of American quitted their jobs due to lack of appreciation and career growth. Similarly, Robert (2007) claimed that employees can best be retained by appreciated them and paying them based on their skill. Author further suggested that if employees realize their career is not growing and they are not appreciating mostly leave organizations.

3.13 Work Environment.

Working environment includes equipment, machinery, computer technology, adequate lighting, work space, ergonomically-correct seating (Nyaga, 2015). Moureen (2004) argued that working environment is one of main causes of employees' intentions towards quitting jobs. Whereas Homer (2007) contended that providing better working has a positive impact on employees' job satisfaction that further leads to employees' retentions.

3.14 Empirical literature

The preceding discussion was based on various theories presented by numerous scholar. Now the researcher has put some light on the empirical literature regarding job satisfaction and its antecedents in the subsequent paras. An empirical evidence presented by Akhter et al (2016) by conducting a research on job satisfaction, remuneration and turnover intentions. Their study was based on private colleges of Pakistan. Their finding revealed that turnover is negatively correlated with employees' job satisfaction and remuneration. However, their study was limited to private colleges and they have taken remuneration as independent variable, whereas it is one of the aspects of job satisfaction for the current study.
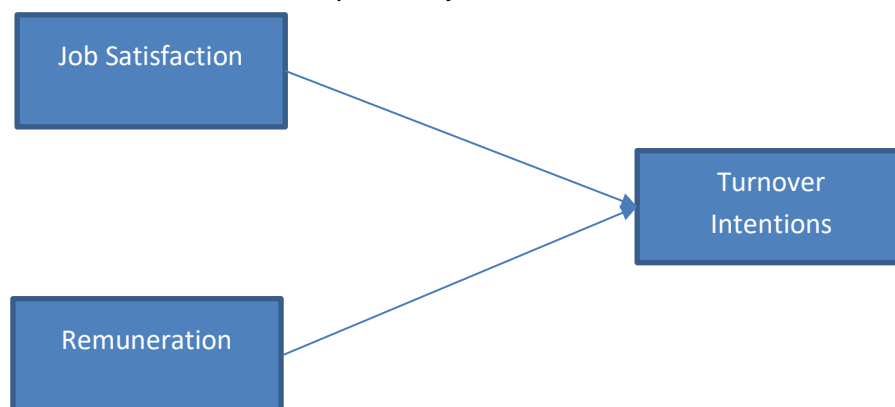
Figure 2: Shows the Conceptual Model of Akhter et al (2016)

Similarly, Mathieu et al, (2015) evaluated supervisor behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. They found the role of supervisor affect turnover intentions through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They had taken supervisor behavior as independent variable, job satisfaction and organizational commitment as mediators and employees' turnover intentions as a dependent variables. Whereas the researcher for the current study has consider supervisor role as one of the attributes of job satisfaction.
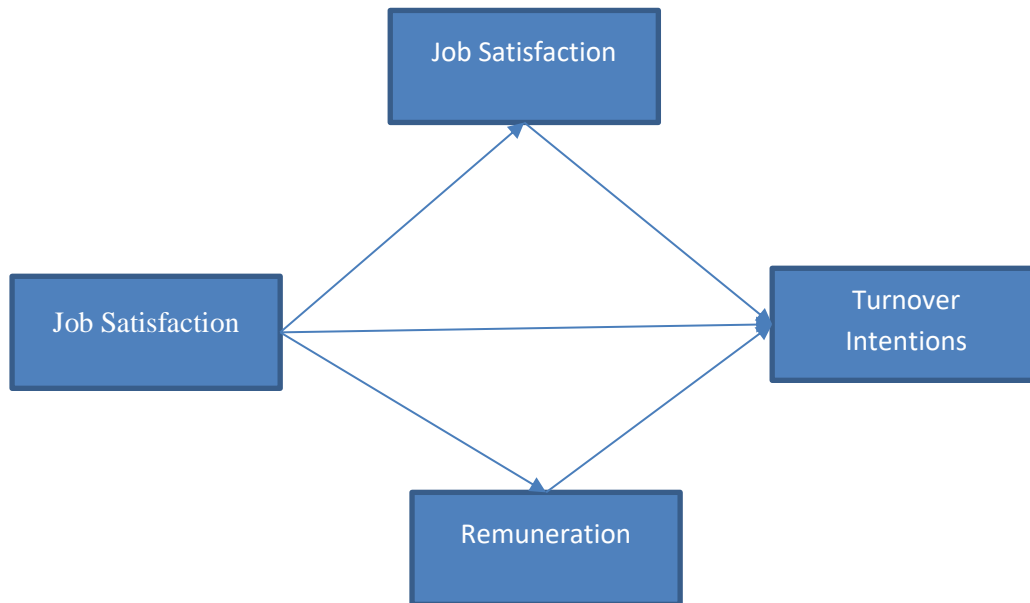
Figure 3: Shows the Conceptual Model of Mathieu, et al (2015)

Consequently, Artz and Kaya, (2015) worked on employees' job security on job satisfaction in US economic contractions versus expansions. Their result revealed that increasing job security leads to job satisfaction and reduces intentions of leaving. However, they measured such impact in economic contractions and expansions period and taken job security as an independent variable. Whereas job security is taken as one of the determinants of employees job satisfaction for the current study.

Figure 4: Shows the Conceptual Framework of Artz and Kaya (2015)

Likewise, Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) empirically tested the association of employees' job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions in both production and service sector industries. They found a positive and significant association of job satisfaction with organizational commitment and significant negative association with employees' turnover intentions. However, they measured job satisfaction on pay, promotion, work itself which are different from the current study.
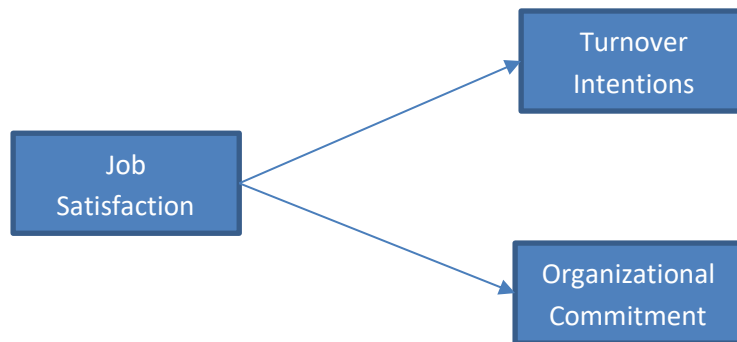
Figure 5: Shows the Conceptual Framework of Aydogdu & Asikgil (2011)

3.15 Job Satisfaction and Employees' Turnover Intentions

Numerous theories suggest that job dissatisfaction is one of the primary factors that leads to employees' behaviour to quit (Flirth et al 2004; Saifuddin, Hongkraclent & Sermril 2008). The Mobley model (Lee, TW, 1988) proposed that employees experiences seven sequential stages between job dissatisfaction and quitting the job. According to Mobley model, job dissatisfaction initially encourage employees to think about quitting that further leads to the search of alternatives and the cost associated with switchover. After the evaluation of the current job and the new alternative employees normally lead to quitting the job if the new job is better and switching cost is suitable.

The current study has selected three attributes of job satisfaction that is; remuneration, job security and supervisor role in Afghanistan context. Turnover intentions could be measured through job satisfaction (Lambert et al, 2001) and job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions is negatively associated (Feng, et al, 2010). Similarly, Atak (2011), documented that low level of job satisfaction lead to high level of turnover intentions. The above literature suggest a negative association of job satisfaction and employees turnover intentions. Hence, the first hypothesis of the current study is:

H1: Job satisfaction has a negative and significant impact on employees' turnover intentions.

3.16 Pay/Remuneration and Employees' Turnover Intentions

Pay is one of the primary attributes of job satisfaction and has a greater effect on employees' turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000). Confer to equity theory, pay satisfaction is normally perceived passed on comparison (Singh & Loncar, 2010). Employees while compare their efforts with their salary and if it is according to the skill employees tend to be happy and their intentions of quitting are lower (Milkovich & Newman, 2008).

Ologunde (2005) found a significantly negative impact on employees' turnover intentions. According to Kamal and Hanif (2009) employees normally perceive pay as job satisfaction. If they are satisfied with their pay their intention of quitting job is low. Likewise, Suminto (2014) deliberated that employees' retention is directly associated with their salary, whereas Ali (2009) intended that pay is the basic element of job satisfaction and has an inverse association with employees intentions of quitting job. The above discussed literature leads to the sub- hypothesis of the current study.

H1a; The remuneration aspect of job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions are negatively associated.

3.17 Job Security and Employees' Turnover Intentions

Just like pay satisfaction, job security is also one of the important aspects of job satisfaction (Lee, et al, 2006). The stress of losing a job leads to higher turnover intentions and turnover (Sverke et al, 2002). Employees they are uncertain regarding their job retention are normally search for alternative jobs (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). De Witte, 2005, intended that higher the job insecurity in the employees lead to higher rate of turnover. In other words job security is inversely associated with employees' intention to quit. The more employees are certain regarding their job, the less they think of quitting job. Hence, concluded the second sub-hypothesis for the current study which is;

H1b: There is negative and significant impact of the job security attribute on employees' turnover intentions.

3.18 Role of Supervisor and Employees' Turnover Intentions

As discussed earlier, Supervisors play very important role in providing a pleasant working environment and employees' effectiveness (Sadiya, 2015). It is refers, to the perception of employees to which extend their supervisor contribute, care and value them, and work for their well-being. Employees they are happy from their supervisor tend to be loyal and committed with organization (Chen et al, 2002) and loyal and committed employees stay with their organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002). It shows that employees intentions to leave organization increases if they are not happy from their supervisor and vice versa, hence suggested the third sub-hypothesis of the study;
H1c: Employees' turnover intentions and the role of supervisor are inversely associated.

3.2 Conceptual Framework
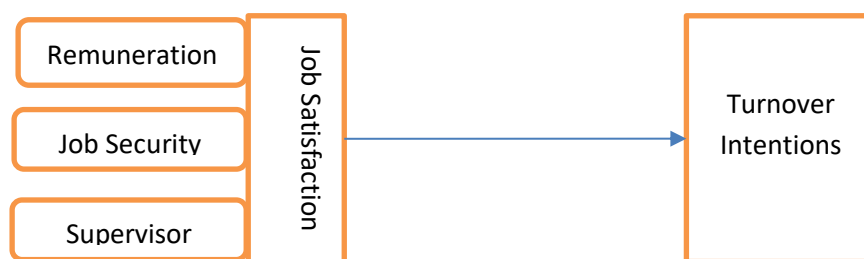
Figure 6: Shows the conceptual framework of the study

3.3 Operational Definitions

Job satisfaction. It is defined as the degree of needs satisfaction that is derived from and or experienced on the job. Author further upholds that the ability of employees in an organization aspirations, feeling happy doing their job with the hope that their needs will be achieved (Dessler, 1978).

Remuneration. It is the amount paid by an organization to its employees against his/her services (Aziri, 2011).

Job security. It is defined as "the assurance in an employee's job continuity due to the general economic condition in the country" (Sherman et al., 2012).

Supervisor. It is defined as "a person who supervises workers or the work done by others" (Sadiya, 2015)

Turnover intention. It can be defined as "an individual's shift in organizational membership, covering a wide range of reappointments and substitutions (Rondeau & Wagar, 2016).

4.0 HYPOTHESES

The primary objective of the study is to verify the impact of job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions in Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan. For this purpose the following hypotheses are designed keeping in view the preceding literature.

H1: Job satisfaction has a negative and significant impact on employees' turnover intentions.

H1a: The remuneration aspect of job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions are negatively associated.

H1b: There is negative and significant impact of the job security attribute on employees' turnover intentions.

H1c: Employees' turnover intentions and the role of supervisor are inversely associated.

5.0 Research Question

The primary purpose of the current study is to prevail the perception of the employees' job satisfaction level and turnover intentions. Thus, the present study aims to answer the following research question:

How does job satisfaction influences employees' turnover intentions in higher educational institutions located in Afghanistan?

6.0 The Objective

The objective of this research will be to identify the factors that affect job satisfaction and turnover in the higher educational institutions of Afghanistan. Specifically, the study seeks to examine the relative effects of demographic and environmental factors on job satisfaction and turnover among the employees of this sector.

7.0 Significance

In the current competitive economy, human resources in an organization are calculated as the key assets. The study will help to create knowledge and information for academicians and other researchers on the impact of job satisfaction and employee turnover association in order to mitigate staff turnover.

8.0 Methodology

The present study is testifying the previously available theories in the higher educational institutions in Afghanistan. Hence, a deductive approach is adopted and therefore quantitative technique will be followed to collect empirical data for testing the hypotheses designed for the current study.

8.1 Population and Sample Size

The aim of the study is to analyze the perception of the employees' of the higher educational institutions operating in Nangarhar Province, Afghanistan. There are seven higher educational institutions operating in Nangarhar. The author has deployed all these institutions in this research. Data collected through non-probability convenience sampling and a total of 400 questionnaires were distributed.

8.2 Data collection Procedures

Adopted questionnaires were distributed among the employees of the seven higher educational institutions in Nangarhar. The data were collected after a few days of circulation. It took around a month and it was the hard part. Mostly the respondents were reluctant to share their perception.

8.3 Instrumentation

The primary data were collected for testing the impact of job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions. A set of questionnaires used to collect primary data and were adopted from previous studies Shimazu et al, 2004; Babakas et al., 2009). Job satisfaction was measured through remuneration, supervisor role and job security. The instrument of job satisfaction was adopted from Shimazu et al, (2004) with slight modification made for aligning it to the Higher Educational Institutions context and it consist of 18 items (6-Remuneration, 6-Supervisor Role and 6-Job Security). Similarly, employees' turnover intentions were measured through a scale that consists of 6 items and adopted from Babakas et al (2009).

9.0 Findings and Analysis

9.1 Frequency Distribution of the Demographics

The primary data collection was adopted to get the perception of employees regarding job satisfaction and their intentions to quit. Questionnaire was the source of primary data collection for the present study. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part was comprised of the demographics such as, age, gender, education, experience and the position held in Higher Educational Institutions. The responses show that the majority of the respondents were of age 18-25 as it suggests 33% of all the respondents followed by ages ranged from 33-40 and 41-50 respectively. The data show that mostly the respondents were male and were 77.6 percent of the respondents. Females were few in numbers as compare to the males. Experience wise the data was divided into five block as shown in table no 3. The data show that the majority of the respondents 25.3 % have less than 3 years of experience. Very few, around 10% of the respondents have Master degree. The main reason is that Afghanistan has recently started post-graduation program such as MBA, MSc LLM etc.

9.2 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability

As discussed earlier, the second part of the questionnaire consists of the variables used for analysis for the current study. A total of 315 questionnaires were returned from respondents that gives 83% return rate. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the variable, that is the mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum and the reliability of the data via Cronbach's alpha. The alpha value greater than 0.7 suggests a reliable instrument. Cronbach's alpha value for all the variable are well above the threshold mark, hence suggests a reliable instrument.

Table No. 6: Descriptive Statistics and Reliability

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D	Alpha
Remun	415	9.00	30.00	19.14	3.99	.79
JobSec	415	6.00	28.00	18.99	3.63	.81
SupRole	415	10.00	30.00	22.37	5.38	.80
JobSat	415	45.00	82.00	60.51	8.25	.82
TurnInt	415	6.00	28.00	15.85	4.15	.83
Valid N	415					

Note: Remun= Remuneration, JobSec= Job Satisfaction, SupRole=Supervisor Role, TurnInt=Turnover Intentions

Pearson Correlation

	Remun	JobSec	SupRole	TurnInt
Remun	1	0.44	0.52	-0.31
JobSec	0.44	1	0.69	-0.34
SupRole	0.52	0.69	1	-0.43
TurnInt	-0.31	-0.34	-0.43	1

Note: Remun= Remuneration, JobSec= Job Satisfaction, SupRole=Supervisor Role, TurnInt=Turnover Intentions and all the values are significant at p<0.05

9.3 Hypotheses

The researcher performed regression analysis to test the propositions of the present study. The empirical findings revealed that there is a negative and significant impact of job satisfaction on employees' intentions to quit. The value of standardised beta found -0.214 significant at p<0.001 confirmed a negative influence of job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions.

Similarly the multiple regression performed to test the impact of the attributes of job satisfaction such as, remuneration, job security and supervisor role on employees' turnover intentions. Findings revealed that remuneration, job security and supervisor role is negatively and significantly associated with employees' turnover intentions (see table no. 9)

Table No. 9: Result of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	R-Square	F Value	Beta	T Value	Results
H1	0.46	19.8***	-0.214***	-4.46	supported
H1a	0.228	40.47***	-0.086**	-1.96	Supported
H1b	0.228	40.47***	-0.176***	-4.04	Supported
H1c	0.228	40.47***	-0.545**	-10.17	Supported

Note: **=P<0.05, ***=P<0.001

10.0 Discussion

The hypotheses were designed in the lights of previous studies and were tested through linear and multiple regression in SPSS. The first hypothesis was to investigate the impact of job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions. Empirical findings supported the proposition. The findings of the said hypothesis support the results of the previous studies such as Akhter et, al (2016) Mathieu et al, (2015), Artz and Kaya (2015).

Likewise the impact of the attributes of job satisfaction was also examined. The results from the empirical findings confirmed the proposition of the study by showing a negative and significant impact of remuneration, job security and supervisor role on employees' turnover intentions. The findings supported the results of previous studies such as; Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011), Saifuddin, Hongkraclent and Sermril (2008) and Suminto (2014).

10.1 Implication of the Study

This study contributed theoretically by adding more variable and it also propose a new conceptual model. Additionally the present study contributed to the field by verifying the various attributes of job satisfaction and its impact in Afghanistan context. The current study added theoretically by adding literature related to job satisfaction, job security, remuneration, supervisor role and turnover intentions.

Likewise, the findings of the present study has tremendous repercussion for the management of the Higher Educational Institutions by providing suggestion how retaining valuable employees. The management will get useful information out of this study regarding retaining employees' by providing better packages, an effective leadership and job security.

10.2 Limitation and Future Research Recommendation

The present study has some limitations and can provide a base for future research. Firstly, the study is limited to only two variables that are job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions. Employees' turnover intentions may be affected by other variables as well such as; working condition, organization culture, and organizational citizenship behavior. However, it was not possible for the author to investigate all the variables in one study, hence provide a good opportunity for scholars to take this study further from this point.

Moreover, this study has considered only three aspects of job satisfaction, such as remuneration, job security and supervisor role. However, job security has various attributes and can be tested in future for better results. The current the study only examined the direct effect of job satisfaction on employees' turnover intentions. However, future studies may focus on the indirect impact by adding mediators and moderators.

11.0 Conclusion

The aim of the study was to investigate the prevailing level of job satisfaction of the employees working in Higher Educational Institutions in Afghanistan. Moreover, the study was designed to analyse the satisfaction level on employees' intentions to quit their jobs. Primary data was collected via adopted questionnaire and analyzed via SPSS. The empirical findings supported the proposed hypotheses of the study. The results confirmed that job satisfaction has a negative and significant impact on employees' intentions to quit.

References

Ahn, T. (2015). Locus of control and job turnover. *Economic Inquiry*, *53*(2), 1350-1365.

Ajzen, I. (2011). Job satisfaction, effort, and performance: A reasoned action perspective.

Allen, D. R., & Allen, D. R. (2004). *Customer satisfaction research management: A comprehensive guide to integrating customer loyalty and satisfaction metrics in the management of complex organizations*. Asq Press.

Anitha, R. (2011). A study on job satisfaction of paper mill employees with special reference to Udumalpet and PalaniTaluk. *Journal of management and science*, *1*(1), 36-47.

Armstrong-Stassen, M., & Schlosser, F. (2008). Benefits of a supportive development climate for older workers. *Journal of managerial psychology*, *23*(4), 419-437.

Artz, B., & Kaya, I. (2014). The impact of job security on job satisfaction in economic contractions versus expansions. *Applied Economics*, *46*(24), 2873-2890.

A'yuninnisa, R. N., & Saptoto, R. (2015). The effects of pay satisfaction and affective commitment on turnover intention. *International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology*, *4*(2), 57-70.

Aziri, B. (2011). JOB SATISFACTION: A LITERATURE REVIEW. *Management Research & Practice*, *3*(4).

Babakus, E., Yavas, U., & Ashill, N. J. (2009). The role of customer orientation as a moderator of the job demand–burnout–performance relationship: A surface-level trait perspective. *Journal of Retailing*, *85*(4), 480-492.

Banker, R. D., Potter, G., & Srinivasan, D. (2000). An empirical investigation of an incentive plan that includes nonfinancial performance measures. *The accounting review*, *75*(1), 65-92.

Bell, N. D. (2007). Humor comprehension: Lessons learned from cross-cultural communication. *Humor–International Journal of Humor Research*, *20*(4), 367-387.

Blanchflower, D. G., & Oswald, A. J. (1999). Well-being, insecurity and the decline of American job satisfaction. *NBER working paper*, *7487*.

Bougheas, S., Davidson, C., Upward, R., & Wright, P. (2015). *Structural adjustment, job turnover and career progression* (No. 14). Action IS1104" The EU in the new complex geography of economic systems: models, tools and policy evaluation".

Bowen, C. F., Radhakrishna, R., & Keyser, R. (1994). Job satisfaction and commitment of 4-H agents. *Journal of Extension*, *32*(1), 1-22.

Bowers, M. R., & Martin, C. L. (2007). Trading places redux: employees as customers, customers as employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *21*(2), 88-98.

Campbell, David, Alan Carruth, Andrew Dickerson, and Francis Green. "Job insecurity and wages." *The Economic Journal* 117, no. 518 (2007): 544-566.

Chi, C. G., & Gursoy, D. (2009). Employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, and financial performance: An empirical examination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(2), 245-253.

Chung, E. C. (2013). The relationship of training and organizational commitment in One Korean organization.

Clark, A. E. (2001). What really matters in a job? Hedonic measurement using quit data. *Labour economics*, *8*(2), 223-242.

Danish, R. Q., Shahid, A. U., Aslam, N., & Ali, A. (2015). The impact of pay satisfaction and job stress on job satisfaction in Pakistani firms of Gujranwala District. *American Journal of Economics, Finance and Management*, *1*(3), 207-210.

Dessler, G. (1978). Personal Management modern Concept and Techniques.

Dumitrescu, L., & Apostu, C. (2009). Marketing and service quality. *Expert*.

Ghandi, P., Hejazi, E., & Ghandi, N. (2017). A Study on the Relationship between Resilience and Turnover Intention: With an Emphasis on the Mediating Roles of Job Satisfaction and Job Stress. *Bulletin de La Société Royale Des Sciences de Liège*, *86*, 189-200.

Haas, M. R. (2010). The double-edged swords of autonomy and external knowledge: Analyzing team effectiveness in a multinational organization. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(5), 989-1008.

Herzberg, F. M., & Mausner, B. (1959). B., & Snyderman, B.(1959). *The motivation to work*, *2*.

Johnson, J. W. (1996). Linking employee perceptions of service climate to customer satisfaction. *Personnel psychology*, *49*(4), 831-851.

Jones, M. A., & Suh, J. (2000). Transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction: an empirical analysis. *Journal of services Marketing*, *14*(2), 147-159.

Kamal, Y., & Hanif, F. (2009). Pay and job satisfaction: A comparative analysis of different Pakistani commercial banks.

KPMG (2010): Recent study reveals job security more important than pay and benefits for university students. http://stacybrandall.wordpress.com.2010/04/06/april/-2010-recent.

Lee, K. J., & Lee, E. (2011). The relationship of emotional labor, empowerment, job burnout and turnover intention of clinical nurses. *Korean Journal of Occupational Health Nursing*, *20*(2), 130-142.

Lee, Y., Lee, M., & Bernstein, K. (2013). Effect of workplace bullying and job stress on turnover intention in hospital nurses. *Journal of Korean Academy of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing*, *22*(2), 77-87.

Maertz, C. P., Griffeth, R. W., Campbell, N. S., & Allen, D. G. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *28*(8), 1059-1075.

Mathieu, C., & Babiak, P. (2015). Tell me who you are, I'll tell you how you lead: Beyond the Full-Range Leadership Model, the role of corporate psychopathy on employee attitudes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *87*, 8-12.

Mello, J. A (2011) Strategic Human Resource Management , 3 rd Ed, OH: South -western Cengage Learning,

Mohammad Atiq and Afshan Bhatti (Feb. 2014). The impact of incentives on Employees turnover at Pakistan International Container Terminal Limited ("PICT") with respect to the different age brackets. IOSR Journal of Business and Management (IOSR-JBM), 16(1), 53-60

Mosely, Rebecca J. "Understanding the College Choice Process of Students Enrolled in an Early College High School." PhD diss., Bowling Green State University, 2016.

Nyaga, D. K., & Gakobo, J. (2017). Effect of quality management practices on organizational performance of savings and credit co-operatives in Kirinyaga County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Human Resource and Business Administration*, *2*(4), 306-328.

Osborne, Jason & Elaine Waters (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 8(2). Available online: http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=8&n=2

Parvin, M. M., & Kabir, M. N. (2011). Factors affecting employee job satisfaction of pharmaceutical sector. *Australian journal of business and management research*, *1*(9), 113.

Prakash, Y., & Gupta, M. (2008). Exploring the relationship between organisation structure and perceived innovation in the manufacturing sector of India. *Singapore Management Review*, *30*(1), 55.

Rebollo-Sanz, Y. (2012). Unemployment insurance and job turnover in Spain. *Labour Economics*, *19*(3), 403-426.

Robbins, P., & Aydede, M. (2009). A short primer on situated cognition. *The Cambridge handbook of situated cognition*, 3-10.

Robinson, S. L., & Greenberg, J. (1998). Employees behaving badly: Dimensions, determinants and dilemmas in the study of workplace deviance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior (1986-1998)*, 1.

Rondeau, K. V., & Wagar, T. H. (2016). Human resource management practices and nursing turnover. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, *6*(10), 101.

Sadia, S. (2015). Attitude measurement of employees on the training and development process of BARC Bank Limited.

Santhapparaj, A. S., & Alam, S. S. (2005). Job satisfaction among academic staff in private universities in Malaysia. *Journal of social sciences*, *1*(2), 72-76.

Shah, M. A. (2012). CORPORATE GOVERNANCE DISCLOSURE PRACTICES: A CASE STUDY OF J&K BANK LTD. *THE COMMUNICATIONS*, *10*(1), 20.

Sherman, G. D., Lee, J. J., Cuddy, A. J., Renshon, J., Oveis, C., Gross, J. J., & Lerner, J. S. (2012). Leadership is associated with lower levels of stress. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *109*(44), 17903-17907.

Shimazu, A., Shimazu, M., & Odahara, T. (2004). Job control and social support as coping resources in job satisfaction. *Psychological Reports*, *94*(2), 449-456.

Smith, D. P. (2009). 'Student geographies', urban restructuring, and the expansion of higher education.

Spencer, L. M. (2001). The economic value of emotional intelligence competencies and EIC-based HR programs. *Te Emotionally Intelligent Workplace: How to Select for, Measure, and Improve Emotional Intelligence in Individuals, Groups, and Organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass*, *45*, 82.

Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of management*, *33*(3), 261-289.

Trevor, C. O., & Nyberg, A. J. (2008). Keeping your headcount when all about you are losing theirs: Downsizing, voluntary turnover rates, and the moderating role of HR practices. *Academy of Management Journal*, *51*(2), 259-276.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the academy of Marketing Science*, *21*(1), 1-12.

Water Resource Management: Quest for Sustainability

Raja Adzrin Raja Ahmad[1], Noor Hidayah Ab Aziz[2] and Norhidayah Abdullah[3]

**[1]Associate Professor, Faculty of Accountancy, Universiti Teknologi MARA,
Segamat Campus, Johore**
rahay823@uitm.edu.my

**[2]Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Accountancy, Universiti Teknologi MARA,
Segamat Campus, Johore**
noorh469@uitm.edu.my

**[3]Senior Lecturer, Faculty of of Accountancy, Universiti Teknologi MARA,
Segamat Campus, Johore**
norhi498@uitm.edu.my

Abstract

The fact that nearly two thirds of the earth's surface is covered by water succinctly demonstrates the importance of water for life. Similarly, water also makes up a significant fraction of the human body. Given the rapid pace of economic development and urbanisation, water resource management has become a very critical issue. The United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) has identified water scarcity as one of the major environmental issues that requires urgent attention as it reflects the fragility of the current state of the world. The effect of water scarcity is becoming more apparent in today's world. Additionally, high demand for water due to the rapid population and economic growth has created a huge challenge for the water services industry. Hence, efficient and effective water management system is an important milestone to ensure sustainability. In the 8th Malaysia Plan (2001 – 2005), the focus was mainly on the stability of water industry whereby the privatization and corporatization of state water authorities were the main agenda. In the 9th Malaysia Plan (2006 – 2010), the consolidation of the water service industry was put under the light. During this plan period, the development of water infrastructure was intensified. Moving towards efficiency in operations and management was the main focus for the 10th Malaysia Plan (2011 – 2015). During this period, the efforts were on strengthening and integrating the water supply and sewerage services. Taking a step further, the 11th Malaysia Plan (2016 – 2020) marks an important milestone as the focus is on movement towards establishing resilient and sustainable water services. With industrialization competing for diminishing water, proactive actions and mutual cooperation from various parties are of urgent need to ensure water sustainability. Importantly, in tandem with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, efficient and sustainable water resource management would be the catalyst for social well-being and ensure environmental and economic sustainability.

Keywords: Water resource management, water demand

1. The Precious Drop

The fact that nearly two thirds of the earth's surface is covered by water succinctly demonstrates the importance of water for life. Water is the most valuable resource that is essential for immeasurable number of purposes. Most organisms can survive longer without food but would struggle to survive for more than a few days without water (Aznar-Sánchez, Velasco-Muñoz, Belmonte-Ureña & Manzano-Agugliaro, 2019). Similarly, water also makes up a significant fraction of the human body. Human organs contain different amount of water to help facilitate the internal processes such as digestion and food absorption. According to Forbes et al. (1953), the lung of an adult contains about 77% water, the brain and spinal cord contain 75% water, the liver contains 72% water and the kidney contains 71% water. This highlights the importance of water to our bodies.

Given the rapid pace of economic development and urbanization, water resource management has become a very critical issue. The United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) has identified water scarcity as one of the major environmental issues that require urgent attention as it reflects the fragility of the current state of the world. The effect of water scarcity is becoming more apparent in today's world. This is evidenced by the dramatic droughts in many parts of the world and the degradation of aquatic ecosystems.

Crucially, planet earth is facing tremendous challenges which are largely attributed by the human desire to embrace advancement and development at an astonishing rate. The clear consensus by the environmentalists and scientists and now even the businessmen and politicians is that the temperatures in the atmosphere are rising, the sea levels are escalating, related droughts and floods are threatening, and the problem of water scarcity is growing. A preponderance of evidence shows that worldwide water scarcity poses a very serious threat to all aspects of life, economy, society and the environment (Hussein, 2018; Jones & Vliet, 2018; Nouri, Stokvis, Galindo, Blatchford & Hoekstra, 2019).

2. Water Resource Management

High demand for water due to the rapid population and economic growth has created a huge challenge for the water services industry. Managing water endowment and supply alone does not guarantee a sustainable water supply. Hence, efficient and effective water management system is an important milestone to ensure sustainability. Water resource management includes managing water endowment and supply, improving operational and usage efficiency, and wastewater management (Gao et al., 2019). Specifically, it involves planning, developing and managing the optimum use of water resources in terms of quantity and quality to ensure ecological balance for economic and development activities (de Wet & Odume, 2019).

Addressing the water issue and restructuring of the water services have long been extensively discussed by the government. In the 8th Malaysia Plan (2001 – 2005), the focus was on the stability of water industry whereby the privatization and corporatization of state water authorities was the main agenda. Water sector reform was initiated with the intention to improve the water resource management and to ensure adequate and safe water for all.

In the 9th Malaysia Plan (2006 – 2010), the consolidation of the water service industry was put under the light. In 2008, the government began a major restructuring exercise of the water supply sector by centralizing the water management of the state government. This was done by establishing the National Water Services Commission (*Suruhanjaya Perkhidmatan Air Negara* - SPAN) and enforcing the Water Services Industry Act (WSIA),

2006. The establishment of SPAN has created a positive impact on the efficiency of water supply operators.

Moving towards efficiency in operations and management was the main focus for the 10th Malaysia Plan (2011 – 2015). During this period, the government focuses on developing a sustainable water resource management strategy to ensure water security and protecting rivers from pollution.

To address the water resource management strategy, the government initiated National Water Resource Policy that was launched in 2012 that reflected the Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) concept. IWRM is an approach to integrate and coordinate policies, management procedures and programmes for water-related issues to maximize economic and social welfare. It seeks to reconcile the demand for water with the supply of water to improve water resource management in an effective and practical way.

Rivers and streams play a very important part of the water cycle since more than 90 per cent of Malaysia's water supply come from these two sources. Hence, tackling river pollution issue is critical to ensure the well-being of the people.

Taking a step further, the 11th Malaysia Plan (2016 – 2020) marks an important milestone as the focus is on movement towards establishing a resilient and sustainable water services. Adequate, safe and affordable water services in the long run have been recognized as an important agenda. In the 11th Malaysia Plan, Strategic Thrust No. 4: Pursuing green growth for sustainability and resilience, 17% of terrestrial and inland water are gazetted as protected areas. This is to ensure that the natural resources for present and future generations are conserved.

Figure 1: Focus of the Malaysia Plan: Water and Sustainability

Looking at the whole spectrum of effort placed by the government on water issues, it reflects the commitment given to ensure better economic development and sustainability. Undeniably, increase in the population, urbanization, changing aspirations and competing needs and demand for water pose great challenges to the government. As the water consumption is set to rise with the increase in population, innovative and carefully designed

policy models that suit the needs of Malaysia should explicitly be addressed to achieve a complete sustainable management.

3. Issues and Challenges

3.1 Water pollution

Water pollution is a serious problem in Malaysia as the rate is increasing at an alarming rate. It occurs when there is a presence of toxic substances and biological agent in groundwater that exceeds what is naturally found in the water. It may get dissolved in the water bodies such as lakes, streams, rivers and oceans or lying suspended in the water. Thus, it can pose a threat to human health and environment because the substances interfere with the beneficial use of water and adversely affect the natural functioning of the ecosystems.

In addition, illegal logging and deforestation especially in the catchment areas is threatening as it can result in falling water levels at dams and could jeopardise people's livelihoods and distort rainfall patterns. Hence, development and environmental preservation must go hand in hand to create an inclusive and sustainable developed country with intense efforts to conserve water resources.

3.2 Increasing water demand

As the demand for water due to population growth and economic development increases, the availability of fresh water in many regions is likely to decrease. Climate change is compounding the problem due to greater water scarcity relative to demand. This places greater pressure on the water supply system and could lead to water crisis. In addition, higher per capita water consumption in domestic and industrial water sector could worsen this situation. Based on World Health Organisation (WHO), it is recommended that a person needs 165 litres of water per day to meet their basic needs. In Malaysia, the average domestic consumption per capita per day for 2015 and 2016 was 209 litres, higher by 27% than the recommended usage. Hence, integrated and holistic policy directions and strategic plans with regard to water demand management need to be intensified to ensure long term balance between available water resources and water demand.
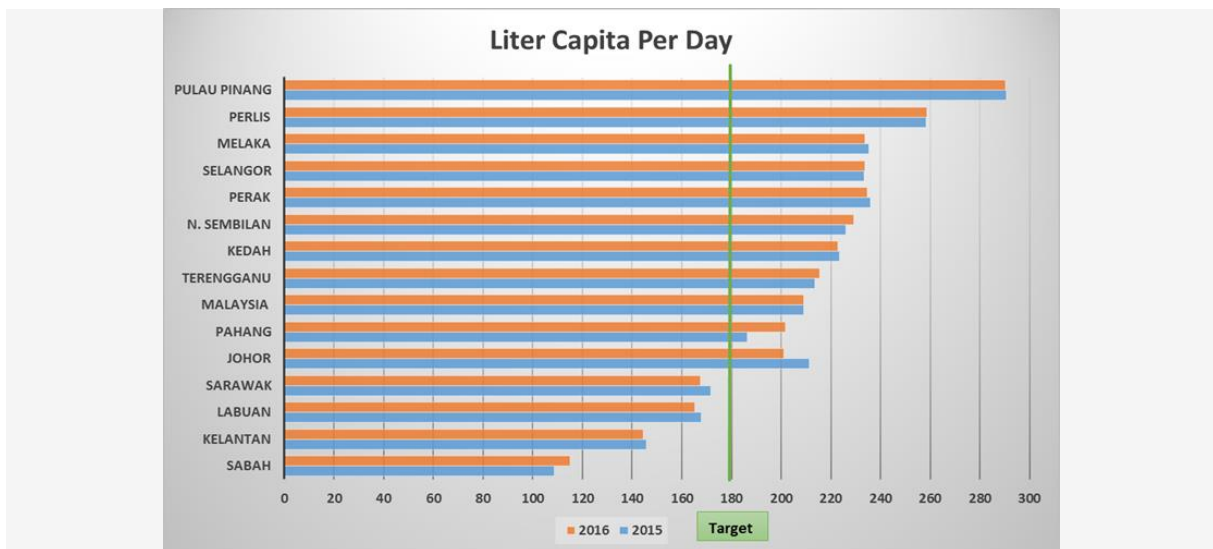
Figure 2: Domestic Consumption Per Capital Per Day 2015-2016
Source: National Water Services Commission (SPAN)
http://www.span.gov.my/index.php/en/statistic/water-statistic/domestic-consumption-2017

3.3 Water demand management

The 11th Malaysia Plan places a great emphasis on a shift from water-supply to water-demand management. Water demand management aims at making the best use of available water by reducing the loss in quantity and quality of water as it flows from source through to disposal. In other words, it refers to the measures taken to reduce the demand for water. Applying the 3R (reduce, reuse, recycle) approach to water management, it promotes efficient and equitable distribution of water use and increases water productivity (Fong & Ma, 2018). Hence, wastewater is used for non-domestic purposes such as landscape irrigation and some industrial purposes (such as sanitary flushing) to reduce dependency on fresh water. It is estimated that the total potential water saving from the implementation of water demand management in 2020 is about 12,371 mld (4,511 mcm). New housing, commercial and industrial estates shall be fitted with efficient appliances such as rain water harvesting and storm water systems to promote water productivity.

In addition, water demand management also includes rules and regulations to promote efficiency and mitigate wastage of water. It also includes communications, education and public awareness programs as platforms in disseminating information to the public and encourage changes in consumer behaviour on water usage.

	Sector	Component/ subsector		Peninsular		Sabah		Sarawak		Total Malaysia		Notes
				mld	mcm	mld	mcm	mld	mcm	mld	mcm	
A	Water Supply	NRW		2,336	852	678	247	140	51	3,154	1,150	
		Consumption		2,337	852	208	76	267	97	2,812	1,025	
			Total (A)	4,673	1,704	886	323	407	148	5,996	2,176	
B	Agriculture	Paddy Irrigation	Total (B)	2,405	877					2,405	877	Exclude the four new Granaries that are still at early operational stages
		(8 Matured Granaries)										
			Total (A+B)	7,078	2,581	886	323	407	148	8,371	3,053	
C	Sewerage	Recycling	Total (C)	4,000	1,459	?	?	?	?	7,879	2,873	Based on 50% of estimated consumption at 180 l/cap/d
D	Total Potential Savings		Total (A+B+C)	11,078	4,040	886	323	407	148	12,371	4,511	
E	Total Projected Water Demand (2020)			37,436	13,664	3,715	1,356	5,923	2,162	47,074	17,182	NWRS 2012
F	% Savings			30	30	24	24	7	7	26	26	

Figure 3: Total Potential Water Saving in 2020
Source: Strategies to Enhance Water Demand Management pg. xviii
http://www.youblisher.com/p/1444050-Strategies-to-Enhance-Water-Demand-Management-in-Malaysia/

3.4 Clean water and sanitation

In September 2015, all members of the United Nations General Assembly agreed to the 2030 Agenda (Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development). The 2030 Agenda recognizes 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 global targets, relating to development outcomes and means of implementation, for the period of 2015–2030. Amongst all SDGs, SDG 6 is established to ensure the availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all. The concept of integrated water resources management (IWRM) is embedded in the 2030 Agenda and it requires governments to consider how water resources link to different parts of society and how decisions in one sector could affect water users in other sectors.

SDG 6 includes eight global targets. They cover the entire water cycle including: provision of drinking water (target 6.1), sanitation and hygiene services (6.2), treatment and reuse of wastewater and ambient water quality (6.3), water-use efficiency and scarcity (6.4), IWRM including through trans-boundary cooperation (6.5), protecting and restoring water-related ecosystems (6.6), international cooperation and capacity-building (6.a) and participation in water and sanitation management (6.b).

Target 6.1: Provision of drinking water

This target seeks to secure safe and affordable drinking water for all. In order to achieve target 6.1, countries must extend and progressively improve the quality of service to people who lack basic water service and to people who lack water accessibility to their premises. This extends to household, schools, healthcare facilities and other kind of premises.

Target 6.2: Sanitation and hygiene services

To achieve this target, countries are to ensure that everyone has access to a basic toilet and to put in place systems for safe management. Moreover, it also highlights the importance of hygiene and special attention to the needs of women and girls. Hand washing with soap and water is widely recognized as a top priority for reducing disease transmission.

Target 6.3: Treatment and reuse of wastewater and ambient water quality

This target highlights the importance to improve water quality, wastewater treatment and safe reuse. Recycling, reusing and recovering what is normally seen as waste can alleviate water stress and provide many social, economic and environmental benefits.

Target 6.4: Water-use efficiency and scarcity

To achieve target 6.4, it is important for countries to increase water-use efficiency and ensure freshwater supplies. They can be executed by utilizing the available, natural and financial resources to continue increasing water supplies.

Target 6.5: Concept of integrated water resources management (IWRM)

Countries must put in practice the implementation of IWRM as it is embedded in 2030 Agenda in achieving SDG 6. Currently, the global average degree of implementation of IWRM was 48 per cent (medium-low), but there were great variations among countries. Only 25 per cent of countries in the three lower human development index (HDI) groups reached the medium-low classification. Cooperation between countries is a way to implementing IWRM. However, countries reported barriers to reaching agreement. These included lack of political will and power asymmetries; fragmented national, legal, institutional and administrative frameworks; lack of financial, human and technical capacity; and poor data availability, especially in relation to trans-boundary aquifers and their boundaries.

Target 6.6: Protecting and restoring water-related ecosystems

Today, the demand for fresh water is increasing. Water-related ecosystems underpin other SDGs, and yet they also depend on them, particularly those relating to food and energy production, biodiversity, and land and sea ecosystems.

Target 6.a: International cooperation and capacity-building

To achieve this target, countries need to expand international cooperation and capacity-building in order to achieve SDG 6. This helps to increase financial funding to support agricultural water as this sector is increasing by years.

Target 6.b: Participation in water and sanitation management

Support towards stakeholder participation is vital to achieve Target 6.b. Effective and sustainable water management depends on the participation of a range of stakeholders, including local communities. A clearer set of indicators is needed that includes the quality of participation, such as nature, effectiveness and value. However, monitoring participation was limited prior to approval of SDGs, and the monitoring framework for this target is still under development.

4. Quest for Sustainability

In Malaysia, a proactive action has been placed by the government to address water issue by placing it at the central concern for national policies. The 8th Malaysia plan marked the important milestone in the journey towards developing a long term strategic plan for water resource management. Concerted effort to reform the water sector was initiated in 2004 to ensure adequate supply of clean water to the public and industry.

With industrialization competing for diminishing water, visionary effort and mutual cooperation from various parties are of urgent need to ensure water sustainability. Importantly, in tandem with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, efficient and sustainable water resource management would be the catalyst for social well-being and ensure environmental and economic sustainability.

In addition to these measures, the government has also initiated The National Green Technology Master Plan 2017-2030 that provides a framework to place Malaysia as a high income nation by 2020 and to position Malaysia as a Green Technology hub by 2030. This initiative focuses on five key areas; energy, transports, building, waste and water sectors. As for the water sectors, it is expected that the implementation of Green Technology Master Plan would reflect operational efficiency and provide long term dynamics of capacity building for water management. This is to ensure that people have access to clean, safe, reliable and affordable water to facilitate economic growth and social development. Ideally, this would create an environment to facilitate prosperous and sustainable future.

Acknowledgements

References

Aznar-Sánchez, J. A., Velasco-Muñoz, J. F., Belmonte-Ureña, L. J., & Manzano-Agugliaro, F. (2019). The worldwide research trends on water ecosystem services. *Ecological Indicators*, *99*, 310–323. http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2018.12.045

De Wet, C., & Odume, O. N. (2019). Developing a systemic-relational approach to environmental ethics in water resource management. *Environmental Science & Policy*, *93*, 139–145. http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2018.12.030

Fong, K., & Ma, Z. (2018). Does non-revenue water affect Malaysia's water services industry productivity? *Utilities Policy*, *54*(September), 125–131. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jup.2018.04.006

Forbes, R. M., Cooper, A. R., & Mitchell, H. H. (1953). The composition of the adult human body as determined by chemical analysis. *J Biol Chem*, *203*(1), 359–366.

Gao, J., Li, C., Zhao, P., Zhang, H., Mao, G., & Wang, Y. (2019). Insights into water-energy cobenefits and trade-offs in water resource management. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *213*, 1188–1203. http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.12.126

Hussein, H. (2018). Lifting the veil : Unpacking the discourse of water scarcity in Jordan.

Environmental Science and Policy, *89*(September), 385–392. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2018.09.007

Jones, E., & Vliet, M. T. H. Van. (2018). Science of the Total Environment Drought impacts on river salinity in the southern US : Implications for water scarcity. *Science of the Total Environment*, *644*, 844–853. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.06.373

Nouri, H., Stokvis, B., Galindo, A., Blatchford, M., & Hoekstra, A. Y. (2019). Science of the Total Environment Water scarcity alleviation through water footprint reduction in agriculture : The effect of soil mulching and drip irrigation. *Science of the Total Environment*, *653*, 241–252. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.311

United Nations (2018). Sustainable Development Goal 6 Synthesis Report 2018 on Water and Sanitation. New York.

Compliment Responses by Iban ESL Learners

Christine Jacqueline Runggol

**Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies (APB),
University Teknologi Mara, Sarawak Campus,
Samarahan, Sarawak, Malaysia**
crunggol@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The speech act of complimenting and how speakers give and respond to compliments have been much researched. This study attempts to investigate one major source of pragmatic misunderstanding among learners of English in Malaysia, specifically the different responses to compliments produced by a sample of Iban speakers of English in Sarawak. It also aims to classify response types according to pre-existing taxonomy and discuss any significant issues and implications for the teaching of English. The study was timely in the sense that there is currently a lack of data regarding the production of the speech act of complimenting and its elicited responses among the Iban community when they interact in English. The method used for this study was a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The study revealed that the respondents generally accept the compliments given when complimented in both English and Iban. By accepting and giving positive elaboration, it can be said that the respondents are influenced culturally by the English language to a certain degree. The results of this study have provided some implications for the teaching of English as a second language in Malaysia. In order to produce students who are competent in the language, teachers must not only concentrate on the grammatical aspect of language teaching. Instead, they must also produce students who are aware of certain pragmatic rules of the L2 speech community in order to avoid communication breakdown.

Keywords: Compliment responses, Pragmatics, Iban speakers of English, TESL

1. Introduction

Studies on the speech act of complimenting so far have not dealt with the types of compliment responses produced by native speakers of other unstudied speech communities such as the Ibans of Sarawak. The Ibans form the largest percentage of Sarawak's population, numbering over 600,000 some 30% of its population (Department of Statistics, Malaysia, 2010). They are the original inhabitants of the Borneo Island. Like the Malays, the Ibans are of Proto-Malay descent and their origins can be traced back to Yunnan, China (Culture and Society, 2011). Many Iban have moved to the cities for job purposes. However, some of them still live in traditional longhouses found along the Rajang and Lupar rivers. Due to modernisation and assistance from the Government, their longhouses are now equipped with modern facilities including electricity and water supply (Kedit, 1980). The Ibans today are becoming increasingly urbanized while retaining most of their traditional heritage and culture. Hence, when learning English, the traditional cultural values of the Iban might become influenced by Western values. Against this background, this study sets out to explore common compliment response types used by this particular speech community when they interact in English. For instance, there is an issue concerning whether they would be able to produce compliment

responses in English other than the typical 'thank you' response which was taught to them after many years of being exposed to English. On the other hand, are their responses influenced by their traditional culture whereby they may downplay or reject compliments in order to appear modest and polite?

In addition to that, non-native speakers who are not aware of the rules of complimenting practiced by native speakers may be caught in a difficult situation. A reason for this is because speakers who are not aware of the way different cultures respond to various speech acts may be seen as impolite and thoughtless (Al Issa, 2003). This happens when their responses are misinterpreted. However, the fact of the matter is, their responses are sincere. Iban speakers may have difficulty in expressing what they really mean. Hence, the speech act of complementing is potentially difficult for Iban speakers as their responses would reflect their personality. For example, by denying a compliment, they may want to appear humble and modest. By studying compliment patterns among Iban speakers, language teachers would be able to make non-native speakers aware of other strategies which native speakers employ when they respond to compliments in the target language.

1.1 Objectives of Study

This study aims to provide quantitative analysis of compliment response types used by Iban speakers when they interact in English and Iban. Secondly, it aims to identify if pragmatic transfer occurs when Iban speakers respond to compliments in Iban and English.

1.2 Significance of the study

This study is undertaken to address a need for information on the usage of the speech act of complimenting and focuses on Iban speakers learning English. So far, studies of this sort have never been carried out. Therefore, by investigating the types of compliment responses produced by native speakers of other unstudied speech communities such as the Ibans in Sarawak, others, especially those in the education sector will be able to gain valuable insights.

Other than that, this study will also contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the field of pragmatics as well as the teaching of English as a second language in Malaysia. This study will attempt to indicate areas which may help teachers to be aware of the conversational strategies employed by these students when they accept compliments in English. Should there be areas which need to be improved; this study will help teachers to understand the problems faced by these students.

1.3 Scope of the study

The scope of the study will only focus on the speech act of complimenting among a selected sample of Iban ESL learners from an institution of higher learning in Samarahan due to time and financial constraints. For the purpose of this study, a purposive sample of Iban undergraduates of the Diploma in Tourism Management from the Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management was selected.

2. Literature Review

2.1 General Background of the Iban People and Their Language

The Iban people or formerly known as the Sea Dayaks are the largest ethnic group in Sarawak with a population of 713,421 in 2010 (Sibon, 2012). Traditionally, the Ibans live in longhouses in different parts of Sarawak. However, due to modernisation, some of them have migrated to various cities in and out of Malaysia. Most would return to their respective longhouses during the Gawai Dayak Festival, which marks the end of the harvest season.

A longhouse is literally a long house which consists of several individual family units living together under the same roof (Jawan, 2001). Each longhouse is headed by a 'tuai rumah' or headman. The 'tuai rumah' holds various responsibilities for example; looks after the welfare of those under his care, acts as a judge, solving any disputes among members of his community and also an intermediator between the Government and his community to name a few (Metom, 2001).

The Ibans are confined to 'adat' which also means "*rules of logic*" (Sandin, 1980: xi). The term itself covers not only "*customary laws*" but also the way in which one conducts himself in society. A person with good 'adat' refers to someone who is well-mannered, verbally polite and courteous. Someone who possesses these qualities is thought to have good 'adat' and that will further reflect on his upbringing. Those who dishonour 'adat' will be fined (Metom, 2001).

The Iban language is used by 30% of the whole Sarawak population (Metom, 2001). It is not a difficult language to master and that is why it is common to see various races in Sarawak converse in Iban when they meet an Iban acquaintance. A plausible reason for this is because of the close similarity it has with the Malay language, which is Malaysia's national language. Asmah Omar (1981) points out that these similarities can be seen in some of their structural and lexical patterns. Other than that, according to a study done by Sutlive and Sutlive (1994), about 60 percent of Iban and Malay words are cognates.

2.2 The Speech Act of Compliment and Its Functions

A compliment is defined as "...a speech act which explicitly and implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for some 'good' (possession, characteristic, skills, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer" (Holmes, 1988, p. 485, cited in Han, 1992, p. 18). Based on this definition, it can be said that compliments are flattering remarks or admiring comments used to praise someone for their traits, skills and their belongings among others.

Compliments are used for a variety of reasons. The main function of compliments is to foster good relationships between the speaker and the addressee (Bruti, 2006). Having nice things to say about someone's effort in looking presentable or for achieving something will definitely make them feel appreciated. Here it may also function as a conversation starter as in the case of native English speakers (Thomas, 1995,). By elaborating on what is being complimented, the speaker and addressee will keep the conversation going, thus, further enhancing their social bond.

Another function of compliments would include the fact that they are used to reinforce good behaviour as in the classroom (Wolfson, 1983, cited in Han, 1992). For instance, by complimenting students' good conduct, it is believed that they would be at their best behaviour in class. At times, compliments help to reduce criticism and may be followed by 'but' or 'though' and a criticism (Han, 1992). For example, "You scored higher this time but I feel that you can do better than this."

As mentioned earlier, compliments are not only used as a conversation starter but also for sarcasm (Wolfson, 1983, cited in Han, 1992). For example the sentence "You sound as good as Mariah Carey – when she's in pain that is", allows the speaker to convey a subtle message to the addressee, which is perhaps, asking her to stop singing for she sounds horrible.
In conclusion, the many functions of the speech act of complimenting allow speakers to achieve various goals. Not only does it acts as a tool to further enhance social relationships among interlocutors and a conversation starter, it also helps to reinforce good behaviour, soften criticisms and also allows the speaker to be indirect, hence the use of sarcasm.

2.3 Previous Studies

There are various studies on patterns of compliment responses among non-native speakers of English. The following are some of the most prominent. Various studies on the speech act of compliment have so far focussed on cross-cultural differences between ESL learners during social interactions with native speakers of the target language (Cedar, 2006; Cheng, 2011; Chiang & Pochtrager, 1993; Daikuhara, 1986; Han, 1992; Normala Othman, 2011; Yu, 2011;), and the pedagogical implications for the teaching of English to non-native speakers (Billmyer, 1990; Golato, 2002).

Billmyer (1990) proposed that learners of the target language must be given formal instruction of social rules of language use. This is to enable them to communicate appropriately with native speakers of the target language. In her study, she compared the differences in compliment data gained from recorded conversations between tutored and untutored groups of Japanese students. Likewise, Golato (2002) was also concerned with the need to produce L2 speakers who are pragmatically competent users of the target language to avoid communication problems. Hence, Golato suggested that foreign or second language teaching must include L1 pragmatics in the classroom.

Similarly, Daikuhara (1986) also studied the speech behaviour of Japanese students. In her study, it is revealed that among others, the Japanese do not praise their family members in public and many have downplayed their compliment responses so as to appear humble. As for studies of compliment responses among the Chinese, Yu (2011) discovered that non-native speakers of English like Chinese speakers do not offer compliments easily due to their culture. It was reported that among the Chinese, compliments were seen as a channel to express admiration and nothing else, for example, a conversation starter. Hence, Yu proposed that language and culture cannot be separated. In order for non-native speakers (L2 speakers) to be more competent users of the target language, they need to be more aware and tolerant of the cross-cultural differences. This means that non-native speakers transfer their L1 knowledge of communicative strategies into L2. If this persists, then pragmatic failure is unavoidable.

Similar to Yu (2011) and Cheng (2011), Chiang & Pochtrager (1993) also studied how Chinese speakers respond to compliments. It was revealed by Cheng (2011) that Chinese speakers find difficulty in responding to compliments that touch on aspects of personality (thoughtfulness). When complimented on this aspect, her subjects responded by giving non-verbal responses like giggling. Some were found to ignore the compliment completely. This shows that these Chinese speakers do not feel comfortable when complimented on certain topics.

Chiang & Pochtrager (1993) also revealed that Chinese speakers responded negatively to compliments. They also introduced a taxonomy of compliment responses which can be used to categorise types of compliment responses in other studies.
Speaking on the impact of culture on compliment response types, both Cedar (2006) and Han (1992) discovered that not knowing the sociocultural rules of the language being used may cause pragmatic failure. As a result, miscommunication or communication breakdown will occur. Cedar (2006) further reinforces the need to raise students' awareness of cultural similarities and differences between compliment patterns in both Thai and English culture. Han (1992) on the other hand, discovers that Korean females are most likely to disagree with the compliments given to them when they are engaged in Korean interactions without any forms of 'thank you' or 'thanks' being uttered. However, the opposite will happen when they are engaged in English interactions.

Still on the impact of cross-cultural variation, Al Falasi (2007) studied the occurrence of pragmatic transfer in the patterns of compliment responses produced by Arabic learners of English. He discovered that female Emarati learners do not produce target-like compliments due to the transfer of L1 expressions into L2. For example, when they were complimented, the usual response was "*I'm ashamed*". Native speakers of L1 find this response peculiar. Normally, such an expression is used when an offence is done. To these Arabic speakers, their response is perfectly appropriate as a way to show politeness. In the Arab culture, compliments given by a man are normally ignored.

As for studies on compliment responses among Malaysian speakers, Normala Othman (2011) discovered that her subjects, Malay speakers, generally accept compliments given to them. This scenario is similar to native speakers who accept compliments. She concludes that Malay speakers in her study have adopted the native speakers' way of responding to compliments. According to her, this is due to the effects of modernisation as well as advancement in communication technology whereby the English language continues to dominate.

2.4 Pragmatic Transfer

Kasper (1992) defines pragmatic transfer or sociocultural transfer as *"...the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information*" (p. 209). In short, pragmatic transfer happens when L1 speakers transfer the rule of speaking in their native language into the target language. This transfer can be both negative and positive, hence the term 'negative transfer' and 'positive transfer'.

'Negative transfer' occurs when L1 interferes with L2 learning while 'positive transfer' occurs when non-native speakers are able to transfer what they already know in their L1 into their L2. 'Negative transfer' will result in communication breakdown when people of different cultural background are not aware of the cultural differences (Thomas, 1995). An example from Richards and Sukwiwat (1993, cited in Franch, 1998) will help to illustrate this. It is reported that a Japanese will say 'I'm sorry' instead of 'thank you' as a way to express appreciation when presented with a gift from a native speaker of English. In this particular scenario, the native speaker may find the response inappropriate as the Japanese is apologising for no apparent reason.

'Positive transfer' on the other hand, occurs when non-native speakers transfer the L1 rules of speaking into the L2. It is reported by Weizman (1993, cited in Franch, 1998), that speakers whose L1 are German and Danish used hints when performing the speech act of requesting, similar to native speakers of Hebrew and English. This is useful for learners as it helps to facilitate learning the L2 (Franch, 1998).

In conclusion, this section reviews a range of previous studies that have investigated the use of compliment responses among native and non-native speakers. Some of these studies investigate not only patterns of compliment responses but also the impact of culture on compliment response types and also the pedagogical implications for the teaching of English. All these studies have shown that not knowing sociolinguistic rules of the target language will result in pragmatic failure.

3. Methodology

In this research, the data collection was done through an open-ended questionnaire in the form of a discourse completion task (DCT). Two versions of the DCT in each language (English – Appendix A; Iban – Appendix B) were used in order to compare and contrast the responses yielded.

This method of data collection was chosen not only because it has been used widely in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics (Wouk, 2006) but also because it enables the researcher to collect a large quality of data in a short time (Bergqvist, 2009; Al-Issa, 2003; Maros, 2006).Furthermore, Wouk (2006) adds that one of the main advantages to using DCT data is that it allows "*cross-situation*" analyses due to the "*controlled nature of the study*". In other words, many different situational variables can be accounted for by looking at different situations and aspects of a person, such as possessions and appearance. For example, in this study, through the use of the DCT, 8 different situations had been selected in order to elicit responses to compliments given. These situations represent 4 major variables (appearance, possessions, ability and traits) that relate to areas in which compliments are typically given.

Great care was taken so as to ensure that the 'situations' in the DCTs were representative of the types of compliments that are familiar to the respondents. For each category, equal numbers of situations were set (2 situations each) according to the aspects mentioned above. In addition to that, the speaker-addressee relationship (social distance and social status) was also taken into account in order to see if there were any differences in the way compliments were responded to. For example the interlocutors in Situations 1, 2, 5, and 8 were those who

are older and socially distant (e.g. a Professor). The English version of the DCT was translated into Iban by the researcher who is a native speaker of Iban.

3.1 Research Procedure

After the DCT was finalised based on the pilot study feedback, the respondents were asked to complete the English DCT first and after a randomly selected interval of three days, then only were they given the Iban DCT. The interval was used to avoid any Iban-English translation effects.

Upon receiving the questionnaire, the 29 participants were asked to read all the written situations carefully. Then, they had to write their responses according to how they would produce them in real situations. They were told to respond to all the items given in not more than 5 minutes. Discussion with peers was not allowed. This was done so that they would not be able to 'create' responses which were unnatural. By imposing a time restriction, more natural responses would result. The numbers of participants and situations yielded a total of 232 productions of compliment responses (8 situations multiplied by 29 respondents).

3.2 Respondents of the Study

For the purpose of this study, a purposive sample of Iban undergraduates from the Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management at a national university in Samarahan, Sarawak, was selected. Criteria for the sample were as follows: the respondents were at Diploma level (only Part 1, 2, and 3), the respondents were Iban speakers (Iban as mother-tongue at home) and were undergraduates of the Diploma in Tourism Management.

These students were chosen because in their final year of study they will be required to do a ten-week practical attachment at various agencies involved in the tourism industry (UiTM Faculty of Hotel Management, 2012). Hence, it would be interesting to note if they are any significant patterns in the way they respond to compliments when dealing with tourists of different nationalities. One of the programme outcomes of this course is to produce graduates who are able to communicate effectively with people from different walks of life. As they will be dealing with foreign tourists during their ten week practical attachment and in their future working life, thus any forms of communication breakdown due to pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1995) should be identified. Compliments are one area in which such pragmatic failure and misunderstanding can easily happen.

3.3 Data Analysis

The responses to the questionnaire were then analysed according to Chiang and Pochtrager's (1993) categories of compliment responses which are given below along with definitions and examples.

No.	Category	Definition	Examples
1.	Acceptance	Ritual "thank you", agreement with no further elaboration	Thank you I think so, too I'm glad you like it

2.	Positive Elaboration	Account, history, positive comment, efforts, return of compliment	I bought this at Macy's. Red is my favourite colour. I worked very hard on the project. I like yours, too.
3.	Neutral Elaboration	Seeking conformation or shift of credit	Really? Do you think so? My assistant selected them.
4.	Negative Elaboration	Downgrading, duty or responsibility, need for improvement	The house is a bit too small for us. I still need a lot of improvement. It's my responsibility.
5.	Denial	No or negative opinion	No, not at all.
			No, my baby is ugly.

(taken from Chiang & Pochtrager, p.8)

After the data was analysed, the collected data was coded and entered onto Microsoft Excel spread sheets and analysed using percentages and frequencies. The results were then transferred into charts and graphs.

4. Findings

In Figure A, there exists evidence of positive pragmatic transfer from the English language (L2) to the Iban language (L1). Firstly, it can be said that the Iban speakers have 'transferred' L2 pragmatic knowledge into their native language. As shown in the graph, the total number of responses in the 'Acceptance' category is 138 responses. Out of these 138 responses in this category, 54 are made when they give compliments in Iban.
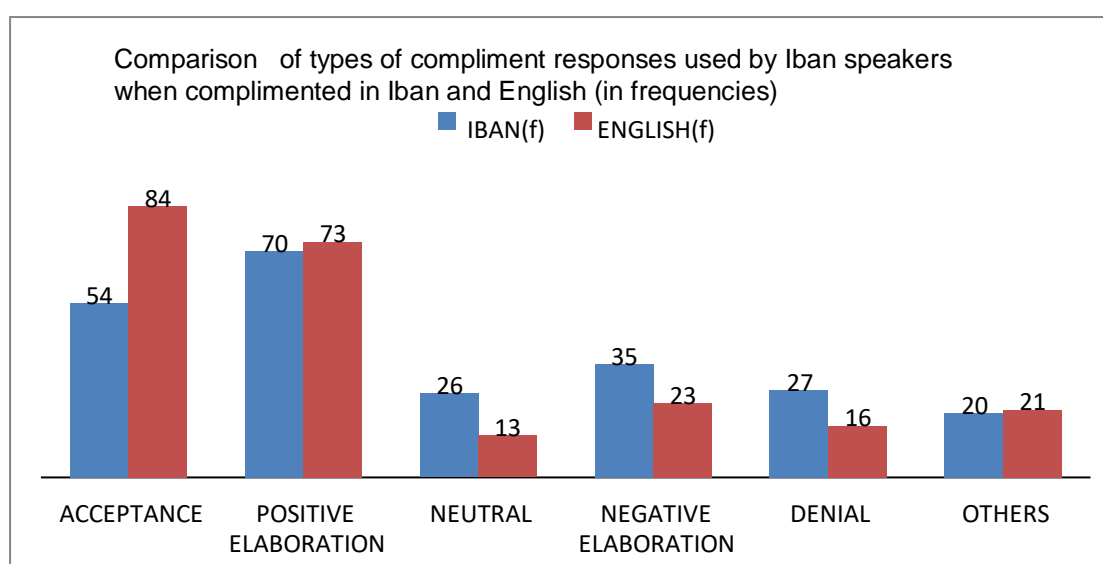

Figure A: Comparison of types of compliment responses used by Iban speakers when complimented in Iban and English (in frequencies)

As mentioned earlier, in the Iban language, there is no word to express appreciation or gratitude (Metom, 2001). Hence, by saying 'terima kasih' (one of the many shared cognates with the Malay language which means 'thank you') in response to receiving a compliment, it can be concluded that they have incorporated L2 pragmatic knowledge into the native language. It should also be pointed out that even though the number of responses in the 'Acceptance' category is still higher with 84 responses (when complimented in English), there exists a hint that positive pragmalinguistic transfer occurs.

Secondly, the data also reveals some interesting findings on the way Iban speakers respond to compliments when complimented in English. In such a case, native speakers may find their responses inappropriate and rude (Thomas, 1995). The examples below are taken from the responses to Situation 6 of the DCT in English:
> *Do I not look good before this?*
> *It must be your eyes!*
> *Hmmm...Is that so? Maybe it's just you*

However, English native speakers may view these responses differently[1]. To a native speaker, the responses above may sound impolite with hints of sarcasm and rudeness. As a result, the responses above may also threaten the hearer's positive face.

Pragmatic failure will occur as the way two different cultures interpret certain linguistic actions differently (Al Issa, 2003; Kasper, 1992). As mentioned earlier, the results of this findings show that when complimented, most Iban speakers would accept the compliment ('Acceptance' and 'Positive Elaboration'). However when they reject the compliments ('Negative Elaboration' and 'Denial'), evidence of negative pragmatic transfer can be observed.
Below are some examples of negative pragmatic transfer worth highlighting in the use of negative elaboration when Iban speakers respond to compliments in English.

> Example 1 (Situation 8)
> Lecturer : Wow! That's one impressive looking gadget!
> You   : *It's nothing compared to yours, Madam.*

> Example 2 (Situation 1)
> Mom's friend : Your mom told me that you are studying medicine. You must
>   be very clever.
> You   : *I study medicine but I'm not very clever, Aunty.*

In the examples above, when the Iban speakers are complimented in English, some demonstrate their humility by downgrading the compliments received. In the Iban culture, one must be humble at all times and self-praise is avoided[2]. This is similar to the Malay and Chinese culture whereby compliments must be rejected (Normala Othman, 2011). Hence when these Iban speakers respond to compliments from native speakers in the manner illustrated above, they might be misunderstood. This is because in the Western culture, compliments are mostly accepted (Billmyer, 1992; Cheng, 2011).

---

[1] According to Associate Professor Dr. Simon Botley of the Academy of Language Studies, UiTM Sarawak. 18 February 2012, personal communication.

[2] A point corroborated by Tuai Rumah John Dullah, an Iban village head-man of Rumah John Dullah, Sekuau, Sarawak. 24th January, 2012. Personal communication.

Overall, the study has produced some valuable and interesting findings, from the viewpoint of cross-cultural pragmatics. Firstly, it is revealed that the Iban speakers in this study used several different types of compliment responses proposed by Chiang & Pochtrager (1993, cited in Cedar, 2006) when responding to compliments given in Iban and English. However, another element has been added to the categories given and it is characterised as 'Others' (Appendix C) as some of the responses yielded were unlike those mentioned by Chiang & Pochtrager (1993).

In addition to that, on the whole, it is also found that Iban speakers accept rather than reject compliments directed at them. Also this depends on speaker-addressee relationship. At the same time, this study shows that there exists evidence of both positive and negative pragmatic transfer.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the study indicated the following. Firstly, it was revealed that when they responded to compliments in English on the DCTs, more than half of the respondents (67.7%), said that they would accept the compliments. This was mostly done by reporting that they would end the conversation with a simple utterance of 'thank you'. The same pattern can be seen with their responses to being complimented in Iban whereby more than half (55.5%) were classified under the 'Acceptance' category.

Similarly, when they had to imagine their response in their native tongue, most of them would rather do so by further commenting on what was complimented by giving positive elaboration. Most of the time, Iban speakers do not reject or respond negatively when being complimented in both languages. Instead, they accepted the compliments by giving more positive elaboration on what was being complimented or, injected hints of 'humour' so as to enhance rapport between interlocutors. This is especially so when they were complimented in their native tongue; a total of 6 responses of this nature ('responding in a humorous manner') were found when they were told to report their response to a compliment in English and 10 were found in their reported responses in Iban. This shows that negative pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2 occurs due to the "*social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action*" (Rose and Kasper, 2001, p.2). For example, by saying "*Aku empu ya, nyak ia lawa dipeda*" (translation: *It's mine, that's why it looks good*"), may sound rude to a native speaker but is perfectly appropriate to an Iban.

Secondly, when exposed to being complimented in English, some of the respondents (36.2%) said they would accept the compliments by saying 'thank you'. This suggested that acculturation as proposed by Spolsky (1989) was taking place. There is a strong possibility, based on the researcher's personal teaching practice, that the respondents had been influenced by what was taught to them while learning English in school. For example, they would have been taught that when one is complimented, the 'correct' response in English would be simply 'thank you'.

5.1 Pedagogical implications

The results of this study have provided some implications for the teaching of English as a second language in Malaysia. In order to produce students who are competent in the

language, teachers must not only concentrate on the grammatical aspect of language teaching. Instead, they must also produce students who are aware of certain sociolinguistic and pragmatic rules of the L2 speech community in order to avoid communication breakdown. In Malaysia, the way English is taught in both primary and secondary schools has always focussed on forms and functions, and as a result, it is highly grammar based (Maros, 2006). Students are taught to memorise typical features of English response patterns. For example, the appropriate response to a compliment is always 'thank you' and no other. Others may argue that there is nothing wrong with that response. However, our students need to be made aware that the speech act of compliments serves not one but many different functions. For example, students need to be told that compliments also function as a conversation starter. According to Cheng (2011) and Han (1992), native speakers often use compliments as a conversation starter. Therefore, if our students were to respond by saying 'thank you' every time they are complimented, then they might put a stop to the conversation progressing. This may threaten the interlocutor's 'positive face', as indicated by Brown & Levinson (1987 cited in Thomas, 1995). As a result, the interlocutor may be in an uncomfortable position thus delimiting further interaction between the two. Language teachers should therefore teach language and culture hand in hand (Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin,2005; Golato, 2002; Yu, 2011).

At the same time, it should be made clear that this study is not proposing that students be assimilated into the target culture or forget their cultural identity. Kasper (1992) stresses that language teachers should make their students aware of the differences in the sociolinguistic rules of the L2 speech community so that they will not be judged inappropriately by them (speakers of the target language). For example, Dash (2004) points out that while teaching cultural pragmatics to students, language teachers or instructors need to do so carefully as some students are sensitive when it comes to their culture. For example, teachers must never put their students down by telling them that the culture of the L2 native speakers is superior to theirs.

The findings of this study also reveal to us that teachers as well as syllabus designers need to create opportunities for our students to observe and experience real social interactions so that they will become more socio-pragmatically competent in the L2. Teachers must not rely on textbooks, as some dialogues in these textbooks are very superficial, as well as being artificial (Golato, 2002; Wannaruk, 2008; Pablos-Ortega, 2011).

Instead, it would be a better strategy to allow students to watch authentic video clips in the target language and ask them to note the similarities and differences in compliment responses patterns. This is especially useful for students, as it would not only help them be more aware of the culture of the L2 speakers but also the different strategies to employ when responding to compliments given by native speakers.

5.2 Limitations of the study

It should be noted that this research is a small-scale exploratory study which provided insights into how the act of complementing is responded to among a selected group of Iban speakers of English. As the scope of the present study is narrow, the findings of this study cannot be used to make valid generalisations. A broader sample is needed to achieve that.

A second limitation is this study's lack of inferential statistics. Due to the limited sample size, it was not feasible to carry out any valid comparisons or correlations, such as between genders or age groups. As a result, the study was entirely descriptive in nature, and the results were quantitative. Future research with a larger and more differentiated sample with a wider range of independent variables will help to address this.

5.3 Recommendations for future research

For the purpose of future research, certain changes would have to be made. Firstly, in order to generalise the findings, there is a need to include a wider range of Iban respondents in the future. In addition to that, future studies should also identify factors that may lead to pragmatic failure within the speech act of compliment among these Iban speakers. Moreover, other than using DCTs, data can be collected from a corpus of natural spoken language. This can be done by audio-recording spoken exchanges as they occur.

5.4 Conclusion

To sum up, this study offers some useful insights. There is evidence that the sample of Iban speakers of English under analysis accepted the compliments given and they sometimes continued the conversation by elaborating their responses based on the aspect being complimented. By accepting and giving positive elaboration, it can be argued that the respondents are influenced culturally by the English language to a certain degree.

APPENDIX A: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK (ENGLISH)

Read the situations below carefully. Then, write your response as to how you would produce it in real situations. Please write down the first thing that comes into your mind. All responses will be kept confidential.

Situation 1
Your mom's friend is at your house.
Mom's friend   : Your mom told me that you are studying medicine. You must be very
        clever.
You   : _____

Situation 2
You were sitting comfortably on a chair while waiting for your turn to see a doctor. Suddenly, you saw a pregnant lady standing next to you. You decided to offer her your seat.

Pregnant lady   : You are very considerate! There aren't many like you nowadays.

You   : _____

Situation 3
You have decided to cook dinner for your younger brother. You cooked your famous 'Tom Yam Soup'.

Younger brother   : This soup tastes better than mom's!
You   : _____

Situation 4
You are in the dean's list. Your best friend was thrilled when you told him about it.
Best friend   : Congratulations! You deserve it!
You   : _____

Situation 5
You met your lecturer and he commented on your new haircut.
Professor   : I like your new haircut!
You   : _____

Situation 6
You met a former classmate at a restaurant. He commented on your appearance.

Former classmate   : You are looking good these days!
You   : _____

Situation 7
Your friend commented on your new phone.
Friend   : Wow! I love your new handphone!
You   : _____

<u>Situation 8</u>
Your lecturer commented on your new lap top.

Lecturer   : Wow! That's one impressive looking
          gadget!

          :

You   _____

Thank you very much for your time

APPENDIX B: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK (IBAN)

Baca pekara ba baruh tu enggau silik. Udah nyak, tulis saut ti engkeman lalu bakani chara nuan nyaut dalam 33anya ti bendar. Tulis utai ti keterubah dalam runding nuan. Semua saut ti udah di tanyak deka dipelalai.

Pekara 1
Bakih Indai nuan bisi ba rumah nuan.
Bakih Indai   : Indai nuan madah, nuan belajar nyadi lutur. Mesti nuan tok pintar.
Nuan   : _____

Pekara 2
Nuan benung duduk ba bangku, nganti maya betemu ngau lutur. Enda disangka, bisi siko indu mgandung bediri semak alai nuan duduk. Nuan pan meri palan duduk nuan ke iya. Indu ngandung : Mentas amat nuan tok! Nadai maioh orang baka nuan rebak ke maia ari tok.

Nuan   : _____

Pekara 3
Nuan ka nyumai sup tomyam ke menyadi laki nuan kena makai lemai.

Menyadi laki   : Sup sumai nuan nyamai agi ari ngi Indai!
Nuan   : _____

Pekara 4
Nuan udah dalam senarai nama ke deka Dean (Dean's list). Bakih nuan gaga amat ninga rita nya maia nuan madah ngagai iya.
Bakih rapat nuan   : Meri pengaga ati ngagai nuan! Sigi patut gak nuan bulih!
Nuan   : _____

Pekara 5
Nuan betemu enggau pengajar lelaki universiti nuan. Ya muji kempat buk baru nuan.
Profesor   : Manah kempat buk nuan. Rindu ku medak!

Nuan   :_____

Pekara 6
Nuan betemu bakih sekula nuan suba. Iya (laki) muji penyigat/pemajik nuan. Bakih sekula nuan suba: Sigat /Bajik nuan diatu ne!

Nuan   : _____

Pekara 7
Bakih nuan muji talipaun binching nuan ti baru.
Bakih   : Apuu! Manah amat talipaun baru nuan. Rindu ku medak!

Nuan   _____

Pekara 8
Pengajar nuan muji 'lap top' baru nuan.
Pengajar   : Waah! Manah endar gak perengka nuan nya!

 Nuan   _____
Terima kasih

APPENDIX C: COMPLIMENT RESPONSES UNDER THE CATEGORY OF ' OTHERS'
(DATA FROM ENGLISH DCT) COMPLIMENT RESPONSES FUNCTION

COMPLIMENT RESPONSES	FUNCTION
Well, if you want one, you must buy one quickly. (Situation 7)	OFFERING ADVICE / RECOMMENDATION
Everyone should deserve it. Just put some effort on it. (Situation 4)	
Actually you deserve it too if you make an effort on it . (Situation 4)	
We need to change our appearance nowadays. (Situation 6)	
One should take care of one's looks. (Situation 6)	
You must watch your food. (Situation 6)	
You should get one.(Situation 7)	
Then learn how to cook! (Situation 3)	
Just eat it and be quiet, will you? (Situation 3)	
Try drinking lots of water. (Situation 6)	
Maybe it's just you (Situation 6)	RESPONDING IN A HUMOROUS MANNER
You should have one you know. Just kidding! (Situation 5)	
You must be joking! (Situation 6)	
Do I not look good before this? (Situation 6)	
Is it? It must be your eyes! (Situation 6)	
Don't fall in love with it. It's mine... (Situation 7)	
Do you want the same handphone as me? (Situation 7)	QUESTIONS BACK
So, do you want me to cook this for you everyday? (Situation 3)	
Would you like to have the same style like me, Sir? (Situation 5)	
I am sorry but this is the only thing I can prepare for you (Situation 3)	APOLOGISING
Owwhh..You make me feel shy. (Situation 5)	SHOWING EMBARASSMENT

References

Al Falasi, H. (2007). Just say "thank you": A study of compliment responses. *Linguistics Journal.* 2(1), 28-45.

Al Issa, A. (2003). Sociocultural transfer in l2 speech behaviours: evidence and motivating factors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations.* 27, 581601.

Asmah Omar, (1981). *The Iban language of Sarawak: A grammatical description.* Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Griffin, R. (2005). L2 pragmatic awareness: Evidence from the ESL classroom. *System.* 33, 401-415.

Bergqvist, T. (2009). Complement responses among native and non-native English speakers : Evidence of pragmatic transfer from Swedish into English. Retrieved October 11, 2011 from *su.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:291576/FULLTEXT01*

Billmyer, K. (1990). I really like your lifestyle: ESL learners learning how to compliment. Retrieved 20 October 2011 from http://www.wpel.net/ v6/v6n2Billmyer1.pdf

Bruti, S. (2006). Cross-cultural pragmatics: The translation of implicit compliments in subtitles. *The Journal of Specialised Translation.* 6, 185-197.

Cedar, P. (2006). Thai and American responses to compliments in English. Retrieved

15 October 2011 from http://www.linguistics-journal.com/June2006_pc.php

Cheng, D. (2011). New insights on compliment responses: A comparison between native English speakers and Chinese L2 speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics.* 43, 2204-2214

Chiang, B. And Pochtrager, F. (1993). A pilot study of compliment responses of American-born English speakers and Chinese-born English speakers. (ERIC_NO: ED356649).

"Culture and Society" (2011). Retrieved 1 November 2011 from http://203.115.194.78/msiaknow/ people/iban.asp?s=culture

Daikuhara, M. (1986). A study of compliments from a cross-cultural perspective: Japanese vs. American English. Retrieved 20 October 2011 from http://www.wpel.net/v2/v2n2Daikuhara.pdf

Dash, P. (2004). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure: A definition analysis with implications for classroom teaching. Retrieved 27 April 2010 from http://www.asian_efl_journal.com/sept_04_phd.php

Department of Statistics, Malaysia (2010). Retrieved 1 November 2011 from http://www.sarawak.gov.my/en/about-sarawak/demographics

Franch, P.B. (1998). On Pragmatic Transfer. Studies in English Language and Linguistics. 5-20.

Golato, A. (2002). German compliment responses. Journal of Pragmatics. 34, 547-571.

Han, C.H. (1992). A comparative study of compliment responses: Korean females in Korean interactions and in English interactions. Retrieved 18 November 2011 from http://www.wpel.net/v8/v8n2_han.pdf

Jawan, J. (2001). Randau ruai: looking ahead for community consensus. *Jurnal Pusat Penataran Ilmu & Bahasa (MANU)*. Vol. 6 – 43-55

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic Transfer. *Second Language Research*. 8, 203-231

Kedit, P. (1980). *Modenization among the Iban of Sarawak*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Pustaka dan Bahasa.

Maros, M. (2006). Apologies in English by adult Malay speakers: patterns and competence. Retrieved 19 October 2011 from http://www.educ.utas.edu.au/users/tle/journal/articles/2006/19-2.htm

Metom, L. (2001). The cultural life of the Iban: An overview. *Jurnal Pusat Penataran Ilmu & Bahasa (MANU)*. 6, 75-87.

Normala Othman. (2011). Pragmatic and cultural considerations of compliment responses among Malaysian-Malay speakers. *Asiatic*, 5(1), 86-103.

Pablos-Ortega, C. (2011). *Journal of Pragmatics*. 43, 411-433.

Rose, K. & Kasper, G. (2001). *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sibon, P. (2012, April 12). Chinese population drops. *The Borneo Post*.

Spolsky, B. (1989). *Conditions for second language learning: Introduction to a general theory*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Sutlive, V. & Sutlive, K. (1994). *Handy reference dictionary of Iban and English*. Kuching: Tun Jugah Foundation.

Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning In Interaction*. London: Longman.

Yu, M.C. (2011). Learning how to read situations and know what is the right thing to say or do in an L2: a study of socio-cultural competence and language transfer. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 43, 1127-1147.

Wannaruk, A. (2008). Pragmatic transfer in Thai refusal. *RELC Journal*. 39, 318-337.

Wouk, F. (2006). The language of apologizing in Lombok, Indonesia. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 38, 1457-1486.

INSIGHT JOURNAL
Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Johor

Job Performance of Lecturers in a Centre of Foundation Studies

Nurhamizah Ishak[1] Leele Susana Jamian[2]

**[1]Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA Melaka,
Jasin Campus, 77300 Merlimau, Melaka, Malaysia.**
hamizahishak@uitm.edu.my

**[2]Lecturer, Faculty of Education, Universiti Teknologi MARA Selangor,
Puncak Alam Campus, 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.**
leele@uitm.edu.my

Abstract

This study looks at the levels of job performance among the lecturers in a centre of foundation studies owned by a public university in Selangor. Questionnaires that consist of close-ended items and open-ended items were used to collect data on the sample. Due to its quite small population size, total population sampling method is applied. Out of 140 lecturers, only 86 completed the questionnaires. The findings revealed that the sample have high overall job performance level. They also scored high job performance level in the two main dimensions that were measured such as task performance and contextual performance. Besides, there was a significant difference between job performance and departments of the sample. As for the implications of this study, it contributes to the corpus of knowledge in the area of job performance in local context and provides empirical data to assist Ministry of Higher Education in conducting strategic planning to enhance job performance amongst lecturers in institutions of higher educations (IHE).

Keywords: Job performance, lecturers, higher education institutions.

1. Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the rapid transformation amongst various organisations regardless of the public or private ones in order to ensure their relevant existence. It was instigated by various changes in today's world market especially in terms of globalisation, K-workers and K-economic matters. Hence, competent workers are highly needed by these organisations to tackle the shifts and contend with the current global circumstances. However, many employees are struggling in their work-related problems such as excessive stress, less creativity and job satisfaction which caused the decrease in productivity and job performance which eventually lessened the organisational competitive edge against their competitors. Management scholar such as Briskin (1996) also highlighted the constant arduous situation in the working environment when he says that "…the work places of today are highly stressful, in part because we don't distinguish between the call for ever-higher performance and the injunction to work people to near their melting point" (147).

Amongst the organizations that underwent similar changes and are currently facing severe competition are institutions of higher education (IHE) such as universities, college universities and colleges due to numerous work responsibility and performances. The primary goal of IHE is to produce human capital with the first class mentality as well as to fulfil the needs of various industry be it the public or private sector. In other words, universities are assigned with the task to ensure that their graduates are equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to be successful in both their professional and personal lives (Syahrina Hayati, 2011). To achieve these aspirations, the workforces in IHE especially the lecturers have significant

roles to be played. Realising the gap in terms of the previous practices and the expectations of better job performance amongst the lecturers in present-day challenging and fast-paced higher education industry, our government has conducted numerous initiatives on the development of quality lecturers for higher education institutions (IHE). One of the initiatives is the establishment of The Higher Education Leadership Academy or Akademi Kepimpinan Pendidikan Tinggi (AKEPT) that aims to provide continuous professional development for the lecturers.

According to Bright (2012), many lecturers are expected to work at anytime and anywhere whenever the students' need arises. Consequently, lecturers tend to do far more than they are required and some do more than they can physically manage. This is further supported by Azman Yao, Yeo, Kong and Ju (2010) that stated lecturers are demanded to work lengthy hours with inadequate resources and rewards. Besides that, the increasing workload typically occurred while numerous on-going tasks need to be done within a limited time frame. This eventually caused the lecturers to rush doing all but without probably doing them well. Moreover, Abdulganiyu (2015) stated that those lecturers that are exhausted, frazzled, and demoralised by their workload, are not likely to be effective or creative while accomplishing their work; hence resulting to poor job performance. This is evidenced through recent instances such as the research publication manipulation by lecturers and the controversial presentation slides of a public research university lecturer about the Sikh community in the Islamic and Asian Civilisation (TITAS) subject (Danial, 2016).

Currently, there is a minimal number of researches conducted pertaining to job performance in Malaysia context especially amongst lecturers. Hence, this research intends to identify and examine the level of job performance among lecturers of a centre of foundation studies owned by a public university in Selangor.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Concept of Job Performance

According to Cania (2014), "human performance is a result of the actions that have been set to achieve goals based on certain standards". In terms of job performance, it generally refers to how well someone performs at his or her work. To date, various definitions of job performance exist in the literature due to its abstractness and assortment of job performance ideal heralded by different researchers. Rothamann and Coetzer (2003) defined job performance as a multidimensional concept about how efficient a person is in completing tasks by utilising existing skills, available initiatives and accessible resources at his/her surroundings. Bernardin and Russell (2013) stated that "job performance is the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioural episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time". In other words, job performance is viewed as "an individual output in terms of quality and quantity expected from every employee in a particular job" (Motowildlo, 2003).

Meanwhile, Bohlander, Snell and Sherman (2001) considered job performance as the ability of the individual employees in realising their respective work goals, fulfilling expectations as well as attaining job targets and accomplishing a standard that are set by their organisations. As for Viswesvaran and Ones (2010), they reckoned job performance as scalable actions, behaviour and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organisational goals. In the context of this study, job performance definition by Gahlan and Singh (2014) was employed in which job performance is deemed as the degree to which an individual executes his career roles with reference to certain specified standards set by the organisation. This means lecturer's job performance that is measured in the current

study reflected the aptitude of the lecturers in executing all the tasks, roles and responsibilities within their job specification.

2.2 Approaches in Job Performance Research

There are two research approaches in investigating job performance which are behavioural-based research or outcome based research (Campbell, McHenry & Wise, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager 1993; Kanfer, 1990; Roe, 1999). The behavioural-based job performance researches focused on what an individual does in the work situation comprised of their job tasks and duties as well as how they accomplish them (Allen, Bryant & Vardaman, 2010). For example, assembling parts of a car engine, selling personal computers, teaching basic reading skills to elementary school children, or performing heart surgery.

The outcome-based job performance research focused on the consequence or result of the individual's behaviour (Ladley, Wilkinson & Young, 2015). For example, numbers of engines assembled, pupils' reading proficiency, sales figures, or number of successful heart operations (Sonnentag, Volmer & Spychala, 2008).

In many situations, the behavioural and outcome aspects of performance are related empirically, yet they do not overlap completely. For example, a teacher delivers a perfect reading lesson (behavioural aspect of performance), but two of his/her pupils are still unable to acquire the reading skills taught because of their intellectual deficits (outcome aspect of performance) (Sonnentag, Volemer & Spychala, 2008). Another example is a sales employee in the telecommunication business shows mediocre performance in the direct interaction with potential clients (behavioural aspect of performance), but able to achieve high sales figure for mobile phones (outcome aspect of performance) because of a general high demand for mobile phones (Sonnentag, Volmer & Spychala, 2008).

In the context of current study, it is classified under behavioural-based research as the researcher only focuses on the accomplishment of the tasks and duties performed by the lecturer not the outcomes.

2.3 Task and Contextual Performance

For the purpose of this study, Job Performance Model (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) was chosen as the main theory to guide the investigation of job performance variable. The rationale behind the use of the theory was due to its inclusive manner in the conceptualisation of job performance that encompasses both task and contextual performance at the workplace. The following figure is the Job Performance Model (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).
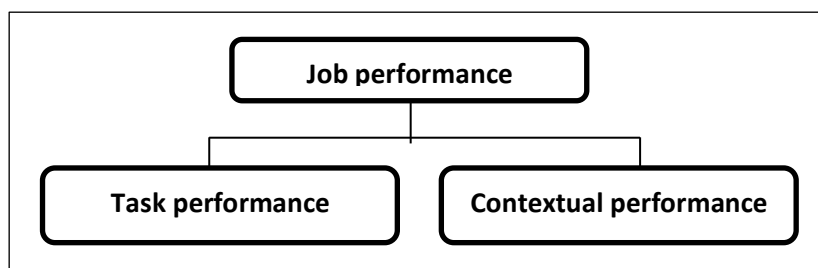
Figure 2.1: Job Performance Model

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) indicated that performance comprised of two components which are task performance and contextual performance. Both components contributed

independently to overall performance (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Task or in-role performance refers to the proficiency and skills in job-specific tasks that differentiates one job from another (Sonnentag, Volmer & Spychala, 2008). It encompasses patterns of repetitive behaviours that are being applied in producing goods and during conducting services or activities that contribute to the smooth operation of the core business in an organisation. In other words, it includes employees' direct contribution to organisational technical core via activities that are included within formal job descriptions (Daryoush, 2013). These activities are dependent on knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees to be performed successfully.

Meanwhile, contextual or citizenship performance refers to the proficiency in activities directed at maintaining the interpersonal and psychological environment of an organisation which enables the technical or task core to operate smoothly (Werner, 2000; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In other words, it refers to individual efforts that aid in strengthening organizational effectiveness (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Volunteering for extra work, persisting with enthusiasm, helping and cooperating with others, following rules and procedures, and supporting or defending the organization are examples of contextual performance behaviours (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999).

Next, the following are the three basic assumptions associated in the differentiation between tasks and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999): (1) activities relevant for task performance vary between jobs whereas contextual performance activities are relatively similar across jobs; (2) task performance is related to ability, whereas contextual performance is related to personality and motivation; (3) task performance is more prescribed and constitutes in-role behaviour, whereas contextual performance is more discretionary and constitutes extra-role behaviour.

2.4 Significance of Individual Performance

Organisations need highly performing individuals in order to meet their goals, to deliver the products and services they specialise in, and finally to achieve competitive advantage. This is because organizational successfulness is usually measured based on the organisational performance which is largely depending on the performance of every single employee in the organisation (Pushpakumari, 2008).

Mucchal (2014) stated that "accomplishing tasks and performing at a high level can be a source of satisfaction, with feelings of mastery and pride for an individual". In addition, more effective and high performing employees tend to be awarded with various benefits and financial rewards. Meanwhile, low performance and failure to fulfil certain organisational goals might trigger dissatisfaction, disappointment and self-blaming. Furthermore, performance is regarded as a preeminent requirement for future career advance. Although there might be exceptions, high performers tend to get promoted more easily, have higher annual salary increment rate and higher year-end bonus within an organisation as well as generally have wider and better career prospects than low performers (VanScotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000).

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design

Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2011) described research design as an overall planning of systematic application of data collection methods and data analysis techniques employed by researchers to answer the intended research questions. The present study attempted to investigate job performance level among lecturers of a centre of foundation studies owned a public university in Selangor. In relation to this, quantitative research design is used while conducting this study.

3.2 Population and sample

Due to its quite small population size, total population sampling technique was applied in this study. Total population sampling should be used when the population size is relatively small and the population shares uncommon characteristics. Hence, all 140 lecturers who currently serving in the centre of foundation studies were selected as the sample size of this study. Nevertheless, after two weeks of data collection process, only 86 out of 140 lecturers responded to the questionnaires. These lecturers served in six different departments: Science, Engineering, Education, Law, Islamic Studies and Language Studies.

3.3 Instrumentation

Questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect data in this study. It comprised of close-ended and open-ended items. The questionnaire was divided into two sections: Sections A and B. Cronbach coefficient alpha of the questionnaire is 0.81 which indicates that its reliability as very strong.

Section A : Demographic Data

Section A focused on the demographic data of the lecturers. It consisted of five items regarding gender, academic qualification, department and length of service. The respondents were required to tick the demographic information in the relevant boxes provided.

Section B: Job Performance

Section B focused on job performance variable. The close-ended items in this section were adapted from Job Performance Scale by Williams and Anderson (1991). The original instrument consisted of 21 items concerning job performance. However, after the items were extensively revised, rephrased and restructured in terms of sentence structure and vocabulary as well as upon the items underwent pilot test; this section consisted of 19 items only. The reason for the reduced number of items was because two items were found to have vague meanings and both items scored low reliability during the pilot test. Thus, they were discarded in order to retain the high reliability of the job performance items.

Besides that, two open-ended items were also included in this section: i) Given the scale of 1 to 6, how do you rate your overall job performance? and ii) Please provide reasons for above ratings. The inclusion of these open-ended items is to probe further on the respondents' justification of their own job performance rating.

3.4 Data collection procedure

The researcher first asked the permission from the Director of the Centre of Foundation Studies to administer the instruments. Upon receiving the permission, the researcher distributed 140 sets of the questionnaires to the respondents by hand. Later, the researchers

briefed the respondents about the instructions and items in the questionnaire as well as assured them about the confidentiality of the data gathered. They were also asked to answer the questionnaire within a period of two weeks. The rationale behind the two weeks deadline was due to the consideration that the respondents were busy juggling their teaching, research and other academic or service related tasks from time to time. Plus, sometimes they were not in the centre as certain lecturers were assigned with teaching duties in other faculties and campuses. Hence, to ensure that all respondents have plenty of time to answer the questionnaire, two weeks deadline was deemed reasonable. The response rate was 61.4% as only 86 completed questionnaires out of 140 distributed questionnaires were successfully received by the researcher at the end of the two weeks deadline.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

The completed questionnaires were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS version 22). Thus, in order to assist the interpretation of quantitative data, the findings on the interval six-point Likert scale of the job performance was collapsed into high and low job performance. Figure 1 displays the summary of the categories.
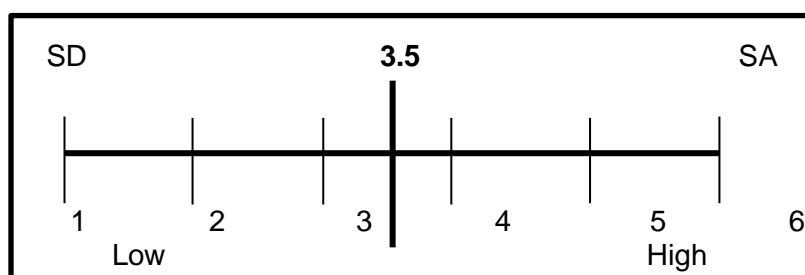
*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Slightly disagree, 4= Slightly agree,
5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly agree

Figure 3.1: The six-point Likert scale of the job performance

The data which were rated as "1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree" with the mean score of 1.00 to 3.49 were regarded as low job performance, while data which were rated as "4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree and 6 = Strongly Agree" with the mean score of 3.50 to 6.00 were categorised as high job performance.

Next, independent sample t-test and One-way Anova test were also employed. Independent sample t-test is a method used in determining if there is a significant difference in the means between two independent groups or related groups (Singh, Puzziawati & Teoh, 2009). Meanwhile, One-way Anova test is a method used in determining if there is a significant difference in the comparisons of means among three or more independent groups in the sample (Singh, Puzziawati & Teoh, 2009). In the context of this study, these tests were conducted to find out whether there were significant differences between job performance of the respondents with their demographic profile that consists of gender, academic qualifications, department and length of service.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Quantitative findings of job performance

RQ 1: What is the mean score of job performance amongst the lecturers?

Table 4.1: Overall mean score of job performance

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Level
Job performance	86	5.42	.259	High

*1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Somewhat agree, 5 =Agree, 6= Strongly agree

Table 4.1 illustrates the overall mean score of job performance amongst the lecturers. In general, the findings (M=5.42, SD=.259) revealed that the respondents agreed that they had high job performance level. These findings are further supported by similar findings amongst local public secondary school teachers (Noraini, Norashikin & Lily Suriani, 2015), employees of tertiary and vocational education sector in Sri Lanka (Hettiararchichi & Jayaratna, 2014), as well as university academic and administrative personnel in international setting (Moosa, Sadradin & Adel, 2014; Tolentino, 2013).

Table 4.2: Mean score of job performance according to its dimensions

Dimensions	N	Mean	SD	Level
Dimension 1: Task Performance	86	5.51	.411	High
Dimension 2: Contextual Performance	86	5.32	.215	High
Overall Total Mean Score	86	5.42	.259	High

*1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Somewhat agree, 5 =Agree, 6= Strongly agree

As seen in Table 4.2, the respondents generally agreed that they had high job performance in both dimensions: task performance and contextual performance. The mean scores ranged from 5.32 to 5.51. Most respondents also rated themselves as having higher job performance in task performance dimension (M=5.51, SD=.411) compared to contextual performance dimension (M=5.32, SD=.215). This is probably because they are aware that their tasks performance are officially monitored by higher-ups from time to time and are especially crucial for their promotion (Molefe, 2010).

Furthermore, Rajkaran & Mammen (2014) mentioned tasks performance is also taken into consideration during the setting of the employees' next individual Key Performance Indicator (KPI). In view of this, the lecturers might feel obligated to perform them well. As for contextual performance, it indicates the demonstration of employees' good behaviours that helps smooth the operation of the organisations (Biggio & Cortese, 2013). In other words, these behaviours are part of the climate of the organisation. Despite the employees are not monitored by the superiors for their execution of these behaviours, they were expected to display these behaviours from time to time (Biggio & Cortese, 2013).

Table 4.3: Mean score of Job Performance for Dimension 1: Task performance

Section B: Items In regards to my job performance,	N	Mean	SD
B5 I handle my workload based on deadline order	86	5.63	.532
B3 I fulfil tasks that are expected of me	86	5.60	.492
B2 I fulfil responsibilities as specified in the job specification	86	5.58	.496
B4 I demonstrate competency in all aspects related to my job	86	5.51	.609
B7 I carry out all ad hoc tasks that are handed over to me	86	5.43	.660
B6 I achieve all the KPI (s) specified by faculty/university	86	5.42	.563
B1 I complete assigned duties on time	86	5.41	.607
Total Mean Score	86	5.51	.411

*1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Somewhat agree, 5 =Agree, 6= Strongly agree

Table 4.3 presents the mean scores of job performance for individual items under task performance dimension. Generally, among the seven items, the mean scores were high and ranged from 5.41 to 5.63. Item B5 (M=5.63, SD=.532) was rated the highest mean score, indicating that respondents agreed that they handle the workload based on deadline order. Graham (2015) stated that lecturers are often burdened with a wide range of workloads besides also accountable for multiple stakeholders such as students, parents, top management, board of trustees and society. Consequently, they might feel conflicted on which task to be prioritised first. Hence, the best solution for lecturers is to accomplish them based on the deadline dates.

This was followed by items B3 (M=5.60, SD=.492) and B2 (M=5.58, SD=.496) as the second and third highest respectively, indicating that respondents agreed that they fulfilled tasks that are expected of them and they fulfil responsibilities as stated in job specifications. Meanwhile, the lowest mean score was found to be item B1 (M=5.41, SD=.607) indicating that respondents agreed that they complete assigned duties on time. As certain lecturers in this study have teaching workload in other campuses and are sent to attend certain courses from time to time, the assigned duties such as restocking food and beverages in the pantry and collecting money from the colleagues to organise Family Day might be delayed.

Table 4.4: Mean scores of Job Performance for Dimension 2: Contextual performance

Section B: Items In regards to my job performance,	N	Mean	SD
B8 come to work on time	86	5.76	.432
B16 adhere formal/written rules in the organisation	86	5.70	.462
B15 take note others' feedback on my work	86	5.67	.471
B10 contribute ideas during work meetings	86	5.57	.498
B9 give advance notice when I am unable to come to work	86	5.56	.565
B18 adjust myself to various changes at work from time to time	86	5.34	.606
B19 cope with difficulties at work rationally	86	5.20	.505
B12 pass along important work-related information to my colleagues	86	5.15	.563
B17 adhere informal/unwritten rules in the organisation	86	5.00	.632
B13 listen to my colleagues' work-related problems	86	4.98	.405
B11 help new employees adapt with the organisation	86	4.97	.603
B14 assist my colleagues who have heavy workload voluntarily	86	4.91	.662

Total Mean Score	86	5.32	.215

*1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Somewhat agree, 5 =Agree, 6= Strongly agree

Table 4.4 shows the mean scores of contextual performance dimension. Generally, among the twelve items, the mean scores ranged from 4.91 to 5.76. Item B8 (M=5.76, SD=.432) got the highest mean score, implying that respondents come to work on time. Their attendance was recorded by punch card which stated their arrival time. Hence, it is unavoidable that their late arrival to work will be noticed by the administrative staff and top management (Alahmad, 2010). This was followed by items B16 (M=5.70, SD=.462) and B15 (M=5.67, SD=.471) as the second and third highest respectively, implying that respondents adhere to formal/written rules in the organisation and take note of others' feedbacks on their work. Meanwhile, item B14 (M=4.91, SD=.662) was the lowest mean score implying that not many respondents assisted their colleagues who have heavy workload voluntarily. This is probably because all lecturers have their own heavy workload. Hence, with too much workload in their plate, they could not spare time helping their colleagues accomplishing their tasks (Graham, 2015).

Qualitative findings of Job Performance

Qualitative data gathered from open-ended items further validate the quantitative data findings as most of the respondents agreed that they have high job performance. This can be observed from the evidence stated by the respondents through open-ended items of the questionnaire: i) Given the scale of 1 to 6, how do you rate your overall job performance? and ii) Please provide reasons for above ratings.

Most respondents who rated '5' and '6' for their overall job performance claimed that they already put their best efforts in accomplishing their workload. This can be observed when respondent number 11 stated that,
    "I comply with most of my duties wholeheartedly".

Meanwhile, respondents number 46, 23 and 70 added,
    "I completed all tasks given to me on time/ by deadline".

Respondent number 47 also shared similar notion,
    "I will take responsibility in any tasks that are given to me".

Furthermore, respondent number 74 mentioned that,
    "I always give my best efforts when it comes to work because I care for my students".

Next, respondent number 77 mentioned that,
    "Although, I am not an organised person but I know how to delegate my workload. Therefore, despite procrastinating while doing my work, I'll make sure that I get all tasks done before the deadline".

Respondent number 52 also added,
    "When I am able to accomplish my job and complete all the task given/assigned to me, I feel that my job performance is at a high level. "

Other than that, it was found that most of the respondents are aware and willing to improve their job performance from time to time. Respondent number 82 stated,
    "I am always prepared to improve when it comes to work".

Respondent number 5 shared similar notion,

"I always give my best in what I do, but as a new lecturer I need to learn a lot".

Respondent number 80 also added,

"My yearly assessment by my superiors has always been in the upper percentile e. g 85-95%. I feel that I can improve my job performance and show better performance in the future".

Finally, respondent number 52 remarked,

"I am confident and satisfied with my current performance but I believe there is still room for improvement".

All in all, the above qualitative findings indicated that most respondents agreed that they have high job performance. This is in line with the quantitative findings of this variable that were gathered from the close-ended items.

4.2 Significant difference between job performance and demographic variables

RQ 2: Are there any significant differences in mean scores (frequency) of job performance pertaining to demographic variables namely: i. gender, ii. academic qualifications, iii. department, and iv. length of service?

Inferential statistics was formulated in order to present research question 2. Independent sample t-test and One-way ANOVA test were employed in order to interpret the significance of the difference among means.

4.2.1 Job performance and gender

Table 4.5: Independent sample t-test result on job performance and gender

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Job performance	Male	30	5.44	.444	-1.138	84	.258
	Female	56	5.54	.391			

Table 4.5 shows that the mean score of job performance obtained by female lecturers (M=5.54, SD=.391) was higher than the male lecturers' (M=5.44, SD=.444). To determine whether the mean scores are significantly different, an independent sample t-test was conducted. The result revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean scores of job performance between female and male lecturers [t (84) =-1.138, p=.258]. This means that despite female lecturers have higher mean score in job performance compared to male lecturers, these scores were not significantly different. Thus, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The findings contrasted with Muhammad Amjad and Muhammad Imran's (2014) findings that found significant difference in terms of job performance between male and female university lecturers.

4.2.2 Job performance and academic qualifications

Table 4.6: Independent sample t-test result for job performance and academic qualifications

	Qualifications	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Job performance	PhD	19	5.66	.341	1.952	84	.059
	Master	67	5.47	.422			

Table 4.6 shows that mean score of job performance obtained by lecturers who possessed Ph.D (M=5.66, SD=.341) was higher than lecturers who possessed Master degree (M=5.47, SD=.422). To determine whether the mean scores are significantly different, an independent sample t-test was conducted. The result revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean scores of job performance between lecturers who possessed Ph.D and lecturers who possessed Master degree [t (84)=1.952, p=.059]. This means that despite lecturers who possessed Ph.D have higher mean score in job performance compared to lecturers who possessed Master degree, these scores were not significantly different. Thus, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected. The findings contrasted with Muhammad Amjad and Muhammad Imran's (2014) findings that found significant difference of job performance with academic qualifications of university lecturers.

4.2.3 Job performance and departments

Table 4.7: Independent sample t-test results for job performance and departments

	Department	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Job performance	Science	34	5.37	.398	-2.597	84	.011
	Non-science	53	5.60	.397			

Table 4.7 shows that mean score of job performance obtained by non-science lecturers (M=5.60, SD=.397) was higher than science lecturers (M=5.37, SD=.398). To determine whether the mean scores are significantly different, an independent sample t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean scores of job performance between science and non-science lecturers [t(84)=-2.597, p=.011]. This means that these scores were significantly different. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. The findings corroborate with the findings by Singh & Jain's (2015) that found significant difference in job performance between lecturers of management and engineering department.

4.2.4 Job performance and length of service

Table 4.8: Mean scores of job performance according to length of service

Length of service (years)	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error
1-5	50	5.52	.433	.061
6-10	22	5.45	.442	.094
11-15	3	5.57	.000	.000
16-20	5	5.65	.192	.086
21-25	3	5.43	.495	.286
26-30	3	5.52	.330	.190
Total	86	5.51	4.11	.044

Table 4.8 shows that the mean score of job performance obtained by lecturers who have worked for 16 to 20 years old (M=5.65, SD=.192) was the highest amongst the mean scores of job performance obtained from the lecturers of various lengths of service; whereas, the mean score of job performance obtained by lecturers who have worked for 21 to 25 years old (M=5.43, SD=.495) was the lowest.

Table 4.9: ANOVA results for job performance and length of service

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.216	5	.043	.244	.942
Within Groups	14.130	80	.177		
Total	14.346				

To determine whether the mean scores are significantly different, a One-way ANOVA test was conducted. Table 4.9 revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean scores of job performance amongst various length of service [F (5,80)=.244, p=.942]. Hence, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. This result contrasted with Muhammad Amjad and Muhammad Imran's (2014) findings that found significant difference in job performance with length of service of university lecturers.

5. Conclusion

The findings of the study revealed that lecturers in the Centre of Foundation Studies had high overall job performance level as well as high job performance level in all three main dimensions that consist of task performance and contextual performance. The respondents also scored higher job performance in task performance dimension compared to contextual performance dimension. In addition, it was found that there was significant difference between job performance and departments among the sample.

Nevertheless, the sample of this study is confined to lecturers of a centre of foundation studies only. Thus, the findings cannot be generalised to a wider population. It is recommended for future researchers to conduct studies using similar variable which is job performance with larger population and with various organisations. Instead of stand-alone job performance study, they might also include other variables such as job satisfaction and job autonomy together with job performance variable to perform correlational studies.

Finally, there are several implications that could arise from the findings of the study. Firstly, the findings of the study contributed to the existing corpus of knowledge in the area of job performance in local context. Secondly, the findings also provide some empirical data that could support the Ministry of Higher Education and administrators of higher education institutions to delve into strategic planning regarding initiatives in enhancing high job performance level among lecturers.

References:

Abdulganiyu Adebayo Tijani. (2015). Lecturers' occupational stress and productivity in Kwara state owned tertiary institutions in Nigeria. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, Arts and Sciences*, 2 (4), 55-60.

Alahmad, A. (2010). To be ethical or not to be: An international code of ethics for leadership. *Journal of Diversity Management*, *5*(1), 31.

Allen, D. G., Bryant, P. C., & Vardaman, J. M. (2010). Retaining talent: Replacing misconceptions with evidence-based strategies. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(2), 48-64.

Azman Ismail, Yao, A., Yeo, E., Kong L.K. & Ju S.Y. (2010). Occupational stress features, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: An empirical study in private institutions of higher learning. *Scientific e-journal of Management Science*, 16 (5), 5-33.

Bernardin, H. J., & Russell, J. E. A. (2013). Human resource management: An experiential approach (6th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Biggio, G., & Cortese, C. G. (2013). Well-being in the workplace through interaction between individual characteristics and organizational context. I*nternational Journal Of Qualitative Studies On Health And Well-Being*, 8, 27-36.

Bohlander, G. W., Snell, S. & Sherman, A.W. (2001). *Managing Human Resources. Personnel Management.* California: Southwestern College Publication.

Borman, W.C., Motowidlo, S.J., 1993. Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In: Schmitt, N., Borman, W.C. (Eds.), *Personnel Selection in Organizations* (pp. 71–98). New York: Jossey-Bass.

Bright, S. (2012). eLearning lecturer workload: Working smarter or working harder? Retrieved fromhttp://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/ bitstream/handle/10289/6729/ASCILITE%202012%20Concise%20paper%20final.pdf? sequence=1

Briskin, A. (1996). *The stirring of soul in the workplace*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Burton, K. (2012). *A study of motivation: How to get your employees moving.* Retrieved from https://spea.indiana.edu/doc/undergraduate/ugrd_thesis2012_mgmt_burton.pdf

Campbell, J. P., McHenry, J. J., & Wise, L. L. (1990). Modeling job performance in a population of jobs. *Personnel Psychology*, 43(2), 313-575.

Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). A theory of performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel Selection in Organizations* (pp. 35-70). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Cania, L. (2014). The impact of strategic human resource management on organizational performance. *Economia. Seria Management,* 17(2), 373-383.

Cape, P. & Philips. L. (2015). *Questionnaire length and fatigue effects: The latest thinking and practical solutions*. Retrieved from https://www.surveysampling.com/ site/assets/files/1586/questionnaire-length-and-fatiigue-effects-the-latest-thinking-and-practical-solutions.pdf

Danial Rahman (2016). Malaysia's higher education mid-year report. *The Star.* Retrieved from http://www.thestar.com.my/opinion/online-exclusive/whats-your status/2016/06/23/malaysia-higher-education-2016/

Daryoush, Y., Abu Daud Silong, Zohara Omar & Jamilah Othman. (2013). Improving Job performance: Workplace learning is the first step. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 1(1), 100-108.

Gahlan, V. S., & Singh, K. (2014). The effect of role overload and role ambiguity on job performance of IT professionals in India. *IUP Journal of Management Research*, *13*(3), 37-44.

Graham, A. T. (2015). Academic staff performance and workload in higher education in the UK: The conceptual dichotomy. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, *39*(5), 665-679.

Hettiararchchi, H. A. H., & Jayarathna, S. M. D. Y. (2014). *The effect of employee work related attitudes on employee job performance: A study of tertiary and vocational education sector in Sri Lanka*. Retrieved from http://repository.kln.ac.lk/handle/123456789/12003

Kanfer, R. (1990). Motivation theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. D. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp.75–170). Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ladley, D., Wilkinson, I., & Young, L. (2015). The impact of individual versus group rewards on work group performance and cooperation: A computational social science approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 68(11), 2412-2425.

Molefe, G. N. (2010). Performance measurement dimensions for lecturers at selected universities: An international perspective. *South American Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(1), 1-13.

Moosa Moazzezi, Sadradin Sattari, & Adel Zahed Bablan (2014). Relationship between organizational justice and job performance of Payamenoor University employees in Arabia Province. *Singaporean Journal of Business Economics, and Management Studies*, *2*(6), 57-64.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Schmit, M. J. (1999). Performance assessment in unique jobs. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The Changing Nature of Performance* (pp. 56-86). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Muchhal, D. S. (2014). HR Practices and Job Performance. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. 19(4), 55-61.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2003). Job performance. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol.12, pp. 39-53). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Mucchal, D.S. (2014). HR practices and job performance. *IOSR Journal of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 19(4-1), 55-61.

Muhammad Amjad & Muhammad Imran (2014). Gender preference and job performance: a case study of Universities of Peshawar District (KPK) Pakistan. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6, (31).

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2008). Long work hours: A social identity perspective on meta-analysis data. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(7), 853-880.

Noraini Rusbadrol, Norashikin Mahmud & Lily Suriani Mohd Arif (2015). Association between personality traits and job performance among secondary school teachers. *International Academic Research Journal of Social Science*, 1(2), 1-6.

Pushpakumari, M. D. (2008). *The Impact of Job Satisfaction on Job Performance: An Empirical Analysis*. Retrieved from http://202.11.2.113/SEBM/ronso/ no9_1/08_PUSHPAKUMARI.pdf

Rajkaran, S., & Mammen, K. J. (2014). Identifying key performance indicators for academic departments in a comprehensive university through a consensus-based approach. *Journal of Sociology Society and Anthrophology*, 5(3), 283-294.

Roe, R. A. (1999). Work performance: A multiple regulation perspective. In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (Eds), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 14, pp. 231–335). Chichester, England: Wiley.

Rothmann, S., & Coetzer, E. P. (2003). The big five personality dimensions and job performance. *South American Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(1), 100-109.

Rowley, J. (2015). The experience of being a lecturer in further and higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 39 (5).

Roziana Shaari, Siti Aisyah Abdul Rahman & Azizah Rajab (2014). Self-efficacy as a determined factor for knowledge sharing awareness. *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 5(1), 39-46.

Singh, P., Puzziawati Abdul Ghani, & Teoh, S. (2009). *Quantitative data analysis for novice researchers.* Kuala Lumpur: Primera Publishing.

Singh, I. & Jain, M. (2015). Impact of stress on job performance among faculty members in private universities of Punjab. *Scholarly Research Journal for Interdisciplinary Studies*, 3 (12), 1235-1248.

Sonnentag, S., Volmer, J., & Spychala, A. (2008). Job performance. *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Behavior*, 1, 427-447.

Syahrina Hayati Md Jani, Siti Asiah Md Shahid, Thomas, M., & Francis. P. (2015). The predictors of lecturers' teaching effectiveness for public and private universities in Malaysia. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 5(4), 384-392.

Van Scotter, J.R., Motowidlo, S.J., & Cross, T.C. (2000). Effects of task and contextual performance on systematic rewards. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85 (4), 526–535

Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (2010). Employee selection in times of change. International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 25, 169-226.

Werner, J.M., 2000. Implications of organizational contextual behaviour and contextual performance for human resource management. Human Resource Management Review, 10 (1), 3–24.

The Foreign Policy of China towards Afghanistan

Noor Ahmad Sahar
Assistant Professor, Faculty of Public Administration and Policy
Nangarhar University, Afghanistan
noorahmadsahar@gmail.com

Raihanullah Rahimi
Assistant professor
Faculty of Public Administration and policy
Nangarhar University, Afghanistan
raihan.rahimi@yahoo.com

Abstract

Foreign Policy is the use of political influence in order to induce other states to exercise their law-making power in a manner desired by the states concerned: it is an interaction between forces originating outside the country's borders and those working within them. The policy pursued by People's Republic of China in order to achieve its national/international interests by maintaining relations with other states at international level is regarded as Chinese Foreign policy. The diplomatic relationship between Afghanistan and China started in 1955 when the first diplomat of Afghanistan, Abdul Samad, was posted to Peking. Historically, the two neighbouring countries were involved in trade relations with one another via Xin Jiang and Wakhan Corridor. This paper covers the role of China in the peace building and reconstruction of Afghanistan since 2001 as well as the foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan in the era of Xi Jinping and onwards as the complete paradigm shift of Chinese foreign policy in his era. In this paper, the foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan in different dimensions i.e.; trade, politics, defence etc. will be analysed. The discussion will revolve around the contemporary socio-economic, political and strategic relations between these states.

Keywords: Afghanistan, China, Foreign Policy

1. Introduction

Foreign policy of a country describes the behaviour of one country towards other countries in international system. Foreign policy documents the ways the federal government of an independent country keep relationship with other countries according to the international system to accomplish numerous goals and objectives. Foreign policy is the key element in the process by which a state translates its broadly conceived goals and interests into a concrete course of actions to attain these objectives and preserve interests (Sutter, 2007).
Afghanistan and China, being neighbouring states, has maintained diplomatic relations with one another since 1955. After the invasion of Afghanistan by former Soviet Union in 1979, the relationships between Afghanistan and China faded and reached their worst point. Their relations improved significantly in the 21st century. China has always maintained a supportive and neutral policy towards Afghanistan. It has never interfered in the internal matters of Afghanistan.

In the last 2 to 3 years, particularly during Xi Jinping's presidency, we can see a major increase in the direct diplomacy and high level visits between the two countries. In the last few days of Hamid Karzai in office and the first official visit to Beijing of newly elected President Ashraf Ghani are the indicators that the two countries are trying their best to be as friendly as possible towards each other. Although China has always raised concerns over insurgency in

Afghanistan which seems like never ending, it has some major interests in Afghanistan as Afghanistan has a lot of potentials in terms of natural and human resources as well as a prime strategic position in the region. China is an emerging economic and super power in international arena and its concerns of engaging itself in such the complex and controversial issue of insurgency is legitimate because remaining completely unconcerned over this issue will cause a problem for regional security and stability which is very necessary for the growth of China these days. [1]

1.1 Objectives

The fundamental objectives of this study are to identify:
- the foreign strategy of China for Afghanistan
- the role of China in the reconstruction and development of Afghanistan

1.2 Methodology

The ultimate focus of the research is to evaluate the Chinese foreign policy towards Afghanistan in different dimensions i.e. social, political, economic, defence etc. China's investment in Afghanistan will be discussed in the light of some statistical data. This research paper discusses the various factors that can make Afghanistan a strategic and economic partner of China. Therefore, the type of research would be analytical, statistical and descriptive.

The type of data used for the research paper is secondary as different books and research articles were consulted. Organizational homepages were also consulted and it has been made sure that only authentic sources were being consulted.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

The foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan in the recent years can be seen through the lens of Liberalism. Kant, being the major proponent of Liberalism, emphasizes on the ways through which peace and cooperation could be achieved. Under the presidency of Xi Jinping, one can observe that China is investing in Afghanistan and is assuming the responsibility as a regional power in taking greater and more dynamic role in the long delayed peace process in Afghanistan. This is despite the fact that it has always stayed away from regions and nations at war. [2]

Afghan-China Relations – An Overview
Historical Relations - Before Year 659
During the entire history of relationship between Afghanistan and China, it consisted mostly of tea and fruit trades via caravans through Wakhan Corridor and Xinjing on their borders. Before the year 659, Buddhist monks from the location (existing Afghanistan) were involved in the Silk Road transmission of Buddhism to Han dynasty, China. The territory of Han dynasty of Western areas bordered the Kushan Kingdom (An, 2012).

---

[1] http://foreignpolicy.com/2015/04/08/china-afghanistans-new-hope/
[2] http://www.nytimes.com/2016/01/25/world/asia/china-considers-larger-role-in-afghanistan-peace-process.html?_r=0

Modern Relations - After 1955

The border between Afghanistan and China consists of 92.45 kilometers. The diplomatic relations between Afghanistan and China was established on 20th January 1955, when the first ambassador of Afghanistan, Abdul Samad was posted to China. In January 1957, Premier Zhou and Vice Premier He Long came to Afghanistan and met with Zahir Shah (king of Afghanistan), and Mohammad Daud Khan (Prime Minister) and other top leaders of Afghanistan. This was the first ever visit of Chinese leaders to Afghanistan in the Sino-Afghan relationship. This visit raised the joint understanding between Afghanistan and China and grounded a concrete foundation for boosting the friendly relationship between these countries (Daveed, 2014).

Mohammad Daud Khan visited China in October 1957 after receiving an invitation from the Chinese government. He held meetings with the top leaders of China regarding mutual understanding and friendly trade relationship (Derven, 2000). The mutual relations were developed through the passage of time. Afghanistan and China signed the boundary treaty in Beijing in November 22, 1963. This agreement eliminated the territorial dispute between Afghanistan and China over the Wakhan - Afghan controlled, the border between Xingiang Uyghur Automous- China and Badakhshan province-Afghanistan.

But the relations were badly affected in December 27, 1979 when Soviet troops were deployed in Afghanistan and the government of China refused to recognize Soviet-supported Karmal government. The separation of Sino-Soviet strained the Afghan-China relations and resulted in gory border disputes and mutual backing for enemies. During the rule of Kings, the relations between both countries remained neutral. In 1978, the seize of power by the pro-Soviet Afghanistan Communists positively harmonized the relations between neighbouring countries again.

Post Relations - 2001

The relation between Afghanistan and China improved in 2001 after the fall of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. In 2001, China sent a team from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to Afghanistan to attend the interim administration foundation ceremony and to relay a congratulatory message to newly selected President Hamid Karzai (James, 2013). The president of Afghanistan- Hamid Karzai, visited China in January 2002 and met his counterpart, President Jiang Zemin and other high officials. China donated USD one million in cash and thirty million yuan of emergent materials. Besides this, the government of China declared that it will provide USD150 million for the reconstruction of Afghanistan (Routledge, 2016). The Foreign Minister of China visited Afghanistan in May 2002 and met with the president, the chairman-interim administration and his counterpart. Both countries signed a contract regarding technical and economic cooperation with the provision of USD30 million to aid Afghanistan (Opacin, 2014).

The Afghan Foreign Minister visited China in November and exchanged with them a provision of USD one million of material aid to Afghanistan. China along with five other Afghan neighbouring countries signed a declaration in Kabul endorsing its assurance to venerate the sovereignty and regional integrity of Afghanistan to support its peace and reconstruction process. The president of Afghanistan- Hamid Karzai visited China in February 2003 twice and then the vicepresident of Afghanistan- Newmatullah Sharhrani visited China to talk with his counterpart, Zeng Qinghong, and other high authorities and signed an agreement of USD15 million for economic and technical cooperation (Joshu. K., 2018).

Three Dynamics of Foreign Policy of China's towards Afghanistan:
The foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan can be seen in three different dynamics:
1) Security, being the first and most important one.
2) Commercial and economic interests.
3) Public Diplomacy.

1.4 Security:

Security, as mentioned earlier, is one of the most important factors for China to make its foreign policy towards Afghanistan.

1.4.1   Chinese Approach towards Afghanistan in Terms of Security Threats:

Reuters (2018) documented that National security and state survival are the most important factors for any country, so China's main interest in Afghanistan is its security. These two countriess are neighbours and share a border line of about 92.45 kilometers. Afghanistan is regarded as a hub for extremists and terrorists, while on Chinese side, its Xin Jiang province,is highly susceptible to separatist and extremist movements. China has concerns over the spread of extremism and separatism via Afghanistan to its north western territories of Xin Jiang because the radical factions in Afghanistan have sympathies for the Uighur Muslim minorities in Xin Jiang who are not allowed to practice their religion openly (Starriditor, 2012).

The situation in Xin Jiang is becoming highly complex and has become one of the major parts of national security strategy of China. A dualistic approach is required to solve this security threat. On one hand, it has to control and combat separatist and extremist movements in the region, while on the other hand, it has to isolate external terrorism and terrorism from reaching there via Afghanistan by sealing off the narrow Wakhan corridor and by not participating in internal affairs of Afghanistan. [3]

1.4.2   Chinese Efforts to Maintain Stability and Peace in Afghanistan:

In the recent years, we can see that Beijing has started establishing "security relations" with Kabul slowly and gradually since the election of Ashraf Ghani in 2014. The chief of army staff of China announced in February 2016 of roughly $70 million donation to help the government of Afghanistan with their struggle against terrorism. At the beginning of July, the first lot of military equipment by Chinese Army was received by Afghan forces.

China is participating in multifaceted and regional struggles to approach Afghanistan's issues, extending from dealing with security and formal capabilities to improving border control, combating networks of criminal, and antiterrorism. One such case is of Heart of Asia process which started in 2011 and involves various states including China. The sole purpose of this is to provide Afghanistan with fewer problems around its surroundings and a better internal situation.

Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO), a regional alliance and organization aiming to promote peace, stability and cooperation on economy, politics, defence and security, of which China is an important part, has given Afghanistan a status of a member state in the start of 2016 (Stanzel,, 2016). China has until now contributed in the development assistance, investment projects, and in its more recent and less typical contribution to peace talks between the Afghan government and the Taliban. China has increased its contributions to Afghanistan's development significantly in the last two to three years: it provided roughly $240 million in

---

[3] http://www.e-ir.info/2012/12/19/afghanistan-chinas-new-frontier/

development assistance and aid between 2001 and 2013, and around $80 million in 2014 alone. [4]

2. Commercial and Economic Interests:

The second wave is commercial and economic interests of China in Afghanistan which can be seen shaping the foreign policy of China in recent years. Afghanistan's ironic inorganic resources propose opportunities for the public and private corporations of China to invest in it (Xiangyu, & Chunyan, 2012).

2.1 China's Approach towards Afghanistan in Trade, Economy and Investment:
Huasheng,, (2015) argued that although China is reluctant to make any huge investments in Afghanistan, its changing attitude can be easily seen in the past few years particularly after the election of Ashraf Ghani as the prime minister of Afghanistan. One can easily observe the growing Chinese interest in Afghanistan not just because of its highly significant strategic position but also because of its human and mineral resources. According to a US report, there are untouched resources of about $1 trillion in Afghanistan. Once China starts exploring and exploiting them, it can fully use their mineral wealth.

2.1.1 Two Important Investment Projects by China:
Coherent with the investment priorities of China, Chinese SOE's (State owned Enterprises) are working in the mining and energy sectors of Afghanistan. The two main investment projects by Chinese companies in Afghanistan are:
- The Project of Aynak copper mine in the Kabul's Southeast (2008) in which two Chinese SOE's, MCC and Jiangxi Copper Cooperation (JCCL) are supposed to invest about $3 billion and are jointly developing this mine.[5]
- The "China National Petroleum Company' which is developing the Amu Darya Oil Fields in Northern region of Afghanistan.

These three companies have planned to invest about $5 billion in Afghanistan through China's Exim Bank and China Development Bank.

2.1.2 Infrastructural Developments and Penetration of Chinese companies in Domestic Market of Afghanistan:
China, in the few recent years, has become more involved in infrastructure development across Afghanistan by constructing a network of railways. China Railway Construction Corporation is involved in these railway constructions and is most likely to expand this network across the country in the coming years. [6]

2.1.3 Economic Aids:
In the past few years, the economic support of China for Afghanistan have boosted expressively. Between the time period 2001- 2013, China provided Afghanistan with an economic aid of about $240 million. But in the year 2014, this economic aid by China to Afghanistan increased and it reached $80 million. And in the coming five years, it could increase even more. [7]

---

[4] https://cpianalysis.org/2016/09/05/chinas-interests-in-afghanistan/
[5] https://cpianalysis.org/2016/09/05/chinas-interests-in-afghanistan/
[6] Chinese Foreign relations with weak peripheral states by Jefferey Reeves.
[7] http://carnegieendowment.org/2015/03/08/what-is-behind-china-s-growing-attention-to-afghanistan-pub-59286

2.1.4 One Belt One Road Initiative

Under the inventiveness of One Belt One Road (OBOR), the revitalization of old silk routes, China can integrate Afghanistan in it and make Afghanistan improves its economy.[8] China's Silk Road Economic Belt strategy comprises the building of railways and roads to link the Middle East, Central Asia and South Asia. Afghanistan is situated at the axle of geography of these regions, and any strife there would most likely result in insecurity, making it difficult for the plan to succeed (Downs, 2012). If Afghanistan touches a particular level of security and affluence with a growing population, it might become a manufacturing and export destination for the producers of China hunting for new markets and economical labour. China also desires to utilize Afghanistan as a transit route for oil inventing in Iran.

2.1.5 Implications of Chinese Investment in Afghanistan:

China is keenly interested in security in Afghanistan but has followed diverse plans to attain security. The investment of China in Afghanistan could affect the initiation of region either as a global economic player or as a continuously examined anxiety spot. [9]

3. Public Diplomacy

China requires a stable and peaceful Afghanistan towards which it can extend and advance its economic policies. China has never ever interfered in the internal domestic matters of Afghanistan, but from the mid 2000's, we can see that China is trying to ensure stability in Afghanistan and is showing responsibility and commitment towards this cause (Xiangyu, 2011).

China wants and aims to extend its soft power i.e. negotiations, dialogues, mediation etc. in a country which is suffering from war conditions and civil unrest. It wants to use soft power instead of hard power in case of Afghanistan. They have always opted for dialogues and cooperations in their policy towards Afghanistan. China has always tried to keep its hands off any controversial issues because it does not want to be professed as outfitting to Western interests. It never participated in War on Terror by sending its troops in Afghanistan with ISAF forces of UN.

Tanner, (2010) described that the formation of the Confucius Institute at Kabul University as part of a cultural exchange agreement in 2008 as a sign of China's policy of multilevel rendezvous. It is a very critical phase in outspreading the soft power of China as part of its inclusive Afghan strategy.

4. Strategy of China in Afghanistan

The foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan stem from the declaration of Deng Xiaoping in 1992 that they must have a low profile and concentrate on national development. According to Shambaugh (2013), China must bite time, conceal brightness and not become leaders but it needs to do something. The expert on China documented that Afghanistan has been struggling on application of this strategy; what must China do and how must it keep its profile low?

Husaheng, (2009) documented that China is playing a vibrant role in maintaining a low profile in Afghanistan and its preliminary stake in Xinjiang's security. This has consisted supporting efforts related to reconstruction in Afghanistan but without indulging to attach supply direction via Pakistan with the Northern Distributing Network of NATO. Zhao Huasheng (2014) stated

---

[8] http://mantraya.org/economic-impact-of-obor-on-afghanistan/

[9] 2013-12, China's interests in Afghanistan: current projects and future prospects, James, Brian C. Monterey, California: Naval Postgraduate School.

that China seeks peace and stability in Afghanistan through resolving issues with the Taliban and it is strongly against war inside Afghanistan. The greater negative analysis of China seeks pressure by the United States for more Chinese participation as a mean of moving risk for China.

Xiangyu, and Chunyan, (2012) mentioned that experts describe that China is looking for chances to extend hands on energy and mine resources in Afghanistan, which could give a significant link for business and development of infrastructure in South Asia and Central Asia and the entire stake of China in these regions. The entire objective of China is enhancing its complete national power and economic condition in Asia (Rozman, 2010). China has been contributing its role in reconstruction and development of Afghanistan since 2001 by means of financial aids and physical assistance for Afghanistan. However, the government of China does not wish to be a part of war in Afghanistan and has been keeping a low profile as the key aim of China is to boost its economy not to be part of any war (An, 2012)

5. Conclusion

It is vibrant from aforementioned discussion that the foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan has undergone a complete change in the recent few years. China has started acknowledging the fact that for a secure China, it has to protect its borders and for protecting its borders, it has to contribute a significant role in the establishment and the keeping of peace in the entire Afghanistan. It has come to realize how strategically, and economically important Afghanistan could be. It has accepted the geo strategic importance of Afghanistan and has been trying to engage in negotiations with Afghan government officials to achieve their national interests at different levels.

5.1 Contribution of the Study

According to the authors' knowledge, this is the first ever study in Afghanistan that examine the foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan. Besides this, the various views of the Chines experts regarding this policy for Afghanistan and China are also discussed.

5.2 Future Recommendations

The present study covers most of the aspects of foreign policy of China towards Afghanistan, but future studies may be conducted on:
- Afghanistan Foreign Policy towards China
- Comparison between the foreign policies of both countries and its impact
- Comparison between the policies of both countries and recommended suggestions what to add in
- the Foreign policy of Afghanistan in order to boost its ties with China and other neighbouring countries.

References

An, Z., (2012). Zhonguo yu Afuhan guanxi shi yanjiu lue" [A Review of the History of Relationship between China and Afghanistan], *Gaoxiao Sheke Dongtai* [Social Science Perspectives in Higher Education], no. (Anhui University and Renmin University, Beijing).

Daveed (2014). China's Post-2014 Role in Afghanistan, Gartenstein-Ross, Daniel Trombly & Nathaniel Barr, Foundation For Defense Of Democracies, Washington DC, October 2014.

Derven H. J. Van (2000). Warfare in Chinese History. BRILL. pp. 122–ISBN 90-04-11774-1.

Downs, E., (2012). China Buys into Afghanistan, SAIS Review, Vol XXXII no.2, Summer-Fall

Huasheng, Z., (2015). What is behind Chinese growing attention to Afghanistan?, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

International Boundary Study Afghanistan (2015). China Boundary, China: A History. Hackett Publishing. pp. 167.

James, Brian C. (2013) China's Interests in Afghanistan: Current projects and future prospects, Monterey, California: Naval Postgraduate School.

Kucera, Joshu. (2018) "Report: China Building Military Base on Afghan-Tajik Border". EurasiaNet.

Opacin, N., (2014), China's Role in Afghanistan: A Capitalist Peace Approach, Anchor Academic Publishing.

Reuters (2018). "Afghan troops to train in China, ambassador says". The Straits Times.

Routledge, (2016). Chinese Foreign Relations with Weak Peripheral States: Asymmetrical Economic Power and Insecurity, by Jeffery Reeves. London and New York: Pages 91-106.

Rozman, G., (2010) *Chinese Strategic Thought toward Asia* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 5.

Shambaugh, (204). Shambaugh finds no evidence that Deng ever made this statement. 18–19

Stanzel, A., (2016). China's interests in Afghanistan, , China Policy Institute.

Sutter, G.R., (2007). Chinese Foreign Relations: Power and Policy since the Cold War, Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.

Starriditor S. F., (2012). Xinjiang: China's Muslim Borderland(illustrated ed.). M.E. Sharpe. p. 157. ISBN 0-7656-1318-2. Retrieved May 22, 2012.

Starr S. F., (2004). Xinjiang: China's Muslim Borderland (illustrated ed.). M.E. Sharpe. p. 158. ISBN 0-7656-1318-2. Retrieved May 22, 2012.

Tanner, M.H., (2009). China: A History. Hackett Publishing. pp. 167.

Tanner, M. H., (2010). China: A History: Volume 1: From Neolithic cultures through the Great Qing Empire 10,000 BCE–1799 CE. Hackett Publishing Company. pp. 167

Xiangyu, Z., and Chunyan Z, (2012) He Jie (PLA Foreign Languages Institute, Henan) "Zhongguo yu Afuhan youqi hezuo tanxi" [An Analysis of China's Oil and Gas Cooperation with Afghanistan], *Zhongguo Shiyou Daxue Xuebao (Sheke Kexue Ban)* [Journal of China Petroleum University (Social Sciences Edition)] 28, no. 6: 9.

Xiangyu, Z., (2011). Afghanistan and Regional Security: Implications for China, Policy Perspectives, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 65-72, Published by Pluto Journals.

Analyzing the Role of Quality Governance in Green Initiatives and the Impact towards the Organisational Performance

Zuhairah Hasan[1], Noor Azman Ali[2]

[1]Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Business Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA
Melaka, Malaysia
zuhairah612@uitm.edu.my

[2]Associate Professor, Faculty of Economics and Management,
University Putra Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia
nazman@upm.edu.my

Abstract

This article presents an analysis of quality governance as an intervening role between the green initiatives implemented by the ISO 14001 EMS firms in Malaysia and the performance of the organisations. Previous research points at the importance of green marketing is expanding and many companies are embracing new strategies. The study aims to investigate the impact of green initiatives on the organisational performance and the quality governance as a moderating factor between the green initiatives and the organisational performance. The current research will include green product, green price, green promotion, green distribution, top management, shared vision and financial resources as a green initiative. A total of 150 responses was collected using simple random sampling technique. This study employs partial least square-structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) as the main statistical technique. The findings reveal that green product, green pricing, top management, shared vision and financial resources significantly positively affects organizational performance. Management implications for the implementation of green initiatives and marketing are discussed.

Keywords: Green initiatives, Quality governance, Organisational performance, ISO EMS 14001

1. Introduction

This paper addresses the issue on green initiatives, practices of ISO 14001 Environmental Management System certified firms in Malaysia. Due to the challenges of global environmental problems, consumers become concerned about environmental protection; hence the industry's responses and emerges as a green business by practising green philosophies. Many businesses have begun to evolve their production and marketing strategy towards a greener practice. Therefore, the need to study the quality governance aspects is to highlight the importance of this role in ensuring the success of the green initiatives for better performance. Quality governance performed as routine monitoring of the progress and performance of green initiatives. The higher rate of success will encourage other firms to adopt the most effective way to gain the benefits. Hence, a study to test the intervening factor of quality governance by focusing on green initiatives implemented by ISO 14001 EMS Malaysian certified firms is deemed necessary. Recent developments in green industries, particularly in Malaysia have heightened the need for effective green initiatives. This study will include green product, green pricing, green promotion, green distribution, top management, shared vision and financial resources as part of the green initiative.

There has been limited literature on green initiatives thus far and studies on the quality governance have never been performed in the green context. Therefore, to fill the gap in the literature, this research is designed to analyse the potential role of quality governance on green initiatives implemented by ISO 14001 EMS Malaysian certified firms and organisational performance. In this line, Psomas, Fotopoulos and Kafetzopoulos (2011) stated that the firms can enhance their performance by implementing the ISO 14001 EMS. Lack of information on environmental management system, unsure of the benefits they can expect to obtain are among the reasons found in the literature. This issue has also been supported by Pena, Garrido and López (2014) reported that among the difficulties in implementing ISO 14001 EMS are, implementation and certification cost, do not know the benefit, excessive implementation time and lack of commitment from the top management and subordinates. This issue postulates that governance of green initiatives is important to ensure the success of the implementation in order to achieve organisational objectives.

Furthermore, this study posits that firms' resources as important factors in adopting green initiatives. Resources based-view theory by Hart (1995) emphasises that the firms' resources will result in a more efficient process and/or product or services and improve organisational performance. The resources based-view theory has a wide-ranging collection of relevant resources that can affect the success of a firm. This theory defines firm as a broad collection of resources possessing a heterogenous resources. The firms with sufficient resources can easily establish dynamic capabilities for responding to changes (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000). Therefore, this theory best fits to the current study. The main contribution of this work includes the different streams in the literature which are green marketing and strategic management. By integrating both areas, the model is expected to create synergistic effects on organisational performance. The next sections will review more relevant literature, highlight on the research gap and the research framework and hypotheses are then developed. The current research is based on the framework proposed in Figure 1.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Quality governance

According to United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2003) governance is defined as a process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented. UNESCAP also identified eight characteristics of good governance, which includes participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law. The current researches focused on accountability, participation and transparency as part of the quality governance role.

A study on the quality governance also found in extant literature which defined quality governance as the process whereby organisations make important decisions in the quality initiative implementation. Mukhtar and Ali (2011) reported that the quality governance also includes controlling and monitoring the systems implemented to ensure the quality objectives is achieved. Zuhairah and Noor Azman (2017) also suggested for a firm to achieve competitive advantage, quality initiatives should be constantly monitored. This implies that quality governance is needed to ensure the success of quality initiatives for better performance.

Therefore, the concept of quality governance is considered with respect to quality management as a framework for monitoring and controlling management practices to ensure

the success of the quality initiatives implementation in terms on enhancing performance. The concept of governance has been found in different context and has different meanings. Thus, it is important to highlight and focus the concept of quality governance in this study. The concept of governance are related to corporate governance (Grove, Patelli, Victoravich and Xu, 2011; Campbell and Hushagen, 2002), public governance (Siddiquee and Noor Azman, 2008), global governance (Radin, 2007), and quality governance (Lennan and Ngoma, 2004).

2.2 Green initiatives

Government initiatives and regulations have been resounded by firms to continuously developed a marketing strategies to encourage the purchase of eco-friendly products (Nguyen, Phan, Cao and Nguyen, 2017). The outstanding growth of new green industries indicated the encouraging attention by the marketers. Green marketing refers to the activities undertaken by firms that are concerned about the environment problems through diminish the impact on the environment during the process of planning and implementations of products or services, price, place, promotion (Chamorro & Banegil, 2006). On the other hand, the green products are also known as user friendly products which include energy efficient, green innovation and safe to the environment (Pillai & Patil, 2012; Chen, Lai and Wen, 2006; Kianpour and Jusoh, 2014). Green pricing concerns on pricing practices that include both economic and environmental costs of production and marketing, while providing value to the customers (Martin & Schouten, 2012). A study by Leonidou, Katsikeas and Morgan (2013) has proven that green pricing is directly and positively related to the firms' return on assets. Green promotion refers to communications designed to inform stakeholders about the firms' efforts commitment towards environmental efforts such as advertising (Peattie & Martin Belz, 2010). Green place/ distribution involves efficient management logistics and the entire supply chain to reduce its impact on the environment. A study by Leonidou, Katsikeas and Morgan (2013)revealed that managers are aware that greening their marketing programmes can bring benefits to the firm's future performance. Juwaheer, Pudaruth and Noyaux (2012) recommended that effective green marketing strategies should be further developed on green branding, packaging, labelling and advertising to create demand for the green products. Chamorro and Banegil (2006) stated that the objective of the green initiatives is to decrease the impact on the natural environment during the process of planning of products or services, price, place and promotion and Mourad and Ahmed (2012) pointed out that the goal for green marketing is to gain profitability.

2.3 Organisational performance

Empirical studies on the performance measurement are mostly concerned with financial, operational and non-financial performances. To suit with the nature of green initiatives, the organisational performance will include environmental performance, marketing performance and economic performance. Marketing performance is related to the ability of manufacturing plant to reduce air emission, disposable wastes and the ability to decrease consumption of hazardous (Zhu, Sarkis & Lai, 2008). Economic performance is related to the manufacturing plants' ability to reduce costs associated with purchased materials, energy consumption, waste treatment and financial returns (Zhu, Sarkis & Lai, 2008). Economic performance is generally the most important driver for companies to adopt green practices (Zailani et al., 2012). Ahmed, Ahmed and Najmi (2018) reported that green practices have positive impact on firm's economic and green performance, while marketing performance also acts as an important driver as it measures the effectiveness of marketing functions to meet customers' requirements (Gonzales & Gonzales, 2005). Therefore, the structural relationship between variables is further illustrated in Figure 1.
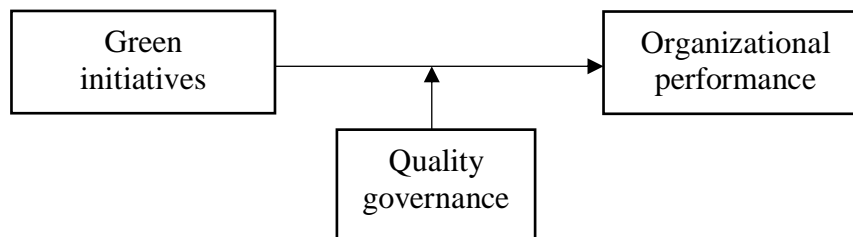
Figure 1: Research Framework

3. Methodology

This study will employ Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as a statistical analysis. The structural equation modelling (SEM) was considered as a more comprehensive and flexible approach to research design and data analysis than any other statistical model. This analysis technique can determine the hypothesised relationship through path analysis and structural equation modelling. The current study is a cross sectional study, using description and hypothesis testing, and the type of investigation is a causal relationship, using questionnaires and in-depth interviews from a few selected ISO 14001 EMS certified firms in Malaysia.

3.1 Sampling plan

The targeted population of the study includes manufacturing sectors located in Malaysia and that have already certified with ISO 14001 EMS, available in the Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers (FMM) directories 2013. The reason for selecting this sector is, ISO 14001 certified firms were selected because they were expected to have embarked on the adoption of green initiatives. The unit analysis of the study is the firm. This study seeks information on green initiatives pursued by the firms; hence the target respondents must be knowledgeable in respective areas.

3.2 Empirical findings

This study has performed a detail analysis concerning data preparation such as assessment of missing values, outlier's detection and normality. Upon cleaning the data, there were no missing values and no outliers were detected both in multivariate and univariate technique of assessing outliers. After dealing with the outliers, the result of the assessment of normality were all good. Furthermore, common method variance was not an issue for this study to further the data analysis and descriptive statistics of the respondents and all the constructs were outlined. Consequently, after all the preliminary assessment were met, this study then proceeds with the discussion of measurement model analysis which included the assessment of construct reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. All the requirements of the measurement model analysis were satisfied and the following analysis (structural model analysis) were carried out. This section also discusses the analysis of the measurement model in examining the correlation between construct and items. To carry out the PLS-SEM analysis, the first consideration is to assess the measurement model which is also referred to as outer

model (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Henseler et al., 2014). This consists evaluating the individual item's reliability, convergent validity, internal consistency and discriminant validity for all reflective constructs (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt , 2014; Klarner, Sarstedt, Hoeck, & Ringle, 2013).

As suggested by Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2017), factor loadings, CR and AVE are used to assess convergent validity. The assessment of convergent validity. The factor loading of each indicator except for PDT1 (0.691), PDT5 (0.676), PRC3 (0.651), TRANS1 (0.702), PTC1 (0.627), ENVP1 (0.683), ENVP2 (0.694), ENVP3 (0.656), ENVP5 (0.613) have not achieved the recommended value of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017). According to Hair et al. (2017), indicator loading between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for deletion only if the deletion will lead to an increase in CR and AVE (p. 122). In this study, indicators loading below the threshold value is retained because it complements the CR and AVE, thus convergent validity has been achieved for each of the construct. Moreover, all the ten constructs composite reliability ranges between 0.877 to 0.959 indicating that the items measuring the construct possesses high internal consistency. Similar to this, the average variance extracted (AVE) is higher than the threshold value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2017; Ramayah, Cheah, Chuah, Memon & Ting, 2016). This study concludes that convergent validity has been established.

The assessment of discriminant validity both the Fornell and Larcker (1981) and heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) based on the multitrait-multimethod matrix suggested by Henseler et al., (2015). The assessment of discriminant validity using Fornell and Larcker criterion is used to test discriminant validity. The square root of AVE of each construct is larger than the correlation estimates of the factors. This indicates that all the constructs are distinct from one another based on Fornell and Larcker criterion. However, according to Henseler et al. (2015), Fornell-Larcker criterion have an unacceptably low sensitivity, which means that they are largely unable to detect a lack of discriminant validity. Therefore, this study also assessed the discriminant validity using HTMT as proposed by Henseler et al. (2015) as a solution to issue on the former method. Henseler et al. (2015) suggest 0.85 and 0.90 as useful starting points. All the values fulfil the criterion of $HTMT_{.90}$ (Gold, Malhotra & Segars, 2001) and $HTMT_{.85}$ (Kline, 2011). This indicates that discriminant validity has been establish. In addition to this, the result of HTMT inference also shows that the confidence intervals does not show a value of 1 on any of the constructs which also confirms discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015).

The structural model analysis presented in Table 2; followed Hair et al. (2017) five step procedure which shows satisfactory findings. The results of the collinearity assessment proved that all the constructs do not have collinearity issues. Path coefficient analysis indicated that five out of eight hypotheses were supported and significant at 95% (i.e. H1, H2, H5, H6, H7). The assessment of co-efficient determination (R^2) shows that the exogenous (independent) variables can explain is 46.9% of the variance in the dependent variable. Besides, each of the constructs had small effect sizes on dependent variables variable. The result of the assessment of predictive relevance (Q^2) yielded a value more than 0 indicating that the independent variables had a predictive relevance over the dependent variable.

Lastly, Table 3 presents the assessment of moderating effect. The result from the bootstrapping using interaction effect technique suggested that there is no moderating effect on the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable, hence, H8-H14 is not supported. The result of this study showed that quality governance does not moderate the relationship between green initiatives and organisational performance. In the next section, the summary of the findings and discussions on the results will be presented to justify the findings.

Table 1: Assessment of Measurement Model

Construct	Items	Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE	Convergent Validity (AVE > 0.5)
Green Product	PDT1	0.691	0.877	0.59	YES
	PDT2	0.824			
	PDT3	0.833			
	PDT4	0.802			
	PDT5	0.676			
Green Pricing	PRC1	0.794	0.901	0.649	YES
	PRC2	0.851			
	PRC3	0.651			
	PRC4	0.876			
	PRC5	0.835			
Green Promotion	PROM1	0.903	0.953	0.801	YES
	PROM2	0.916			
	PROM3	0.892			
	PROM4	0.882			
	PROM5	0.88			
Green Distribution	DIS1	0.737	0.926	0.716	YES
	DIS2	0.847			
	DIS3	0.901			
	DIS4	0.893			
	DIS5	0.842			
Top Management	TOP1	0.792	0.936	0.787	YES
	TOP2	0.904			
	TOP3	0.953			
	TOP4	0.893			
Shared Vision	MV1	0.868	0.944	0.808	YES
	MV2	0.932			
	MV3	0.888			
	MV4	0.907			
Financial Resources	PR1	0.864	0.934	0.78	YES
	PR2	0.891			
	PR3	0.918			
	PR4	0.859			

Table 2: Assessment of Structural Model

Hypothesis	Relationship	Direct Effect (β)	Standard Error	T - Statistics	Decision	R²	F²	Q²
H1	Green Product -> OP	0.16	0.084	1.896	Supported	0.469	0.031	0.235
H2	Green Pricing -> OP	0.297	0.093	3.187	Supported		0.089	
H3	Green Promotion -> OP	0.012	0.113	0.106	Not Supported			
H4	Green Distribution -> OP	-0.072	0.097	0.741	Not Supported		0.005	
H5	Top Management -> OP	0.201	0.111	1.817	Supported		0.039	
H6	Shared Vision -> OP	0.229	0.083	2.778	Supported		0.063	
H7	Financial Resources -> OP	0.302	0.095	3.18	Supported		0.094	

Table 3: Assessment of Moderating Effect of Quality Governance

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	Standard Error	T - Statistics	95% Confidence Interval of the Indirect Effect	
H8	Quality Governance*Green Product -> Organizational Performance	0.162	0.099	1.644	-0.329	-0.002
H9	Quality Governance*Green Pricing -> Organizational Performance	-0.027	0.119	0.230	-0.224	0.159
H10	Quality Governance*Green Promotion -> Organizational Performance	0.130	0.110	1.181	-0.033	0.333
H11	Quality Governance*Green Distribution -> Organizational Performance	-0.206	0.100	2.049	0.036	0.357
H12	Quality Governance*Top Management -> Organizational Performance	-0.161	0.105	1.531	-0.330	-0.018
H13	Quality Governance* Shared Vision -> Organizational Performance	-0.053	0.101	0.530	-0.228	0.103
H14	Quality Governance*Financial Resources -> Organizational Performance	-0.172	0.095	1.801	-0.331	-0.026

4. Results and Discussions

This study aims to investigate the role of quality governance as a moderator between green initiatives and the organisational performance. The research questions and research objectives derived from the problem are highlighted in this study. To answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of this study, 14 hypotheses were developed, and they were tested using structural equation modelling.

The first objective of this study was to examine the influence of green initiatives and organizational performance. As proposed from the literature, green initiatives consist of green product, green price, green promotion, green distribution, top management, shared vision and marketing resources. Therefore, there are 7 hypotheses were tested to answer the first research objective (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7). The results of the structural model showed that only five out of seven hypotheses were significantly positively supported, namely green product, green pricing, top management, shared vision and marketing resources. However, predictors such as green promotion and green distribution is found to be not significantly related. This show that the relevant hypotheses H1, H2, H5, H6, and H7 were supported, while the other hypotheses H3 and H4 were not supported. This indicated that not all the green initiatives have significant positive effects on organisational performance.

Hypothesis [H1] states that there is a significant relationship between green product and organizational performance. The results of this study confirmed that green product was found to positively influence organisational performance. Table 1 shows green product was found to influence organisational performance whereby this element has significantly and positively related (β = .160, p < 0.05), thus H1 are supported. The result is similar with the previous study stated that the green product innovation performance had significant and positive relationship with firm performance (Lin, Tan & Geng, 2013). The researchers supported that the firm will able to improve their market position, affirm brand name, and attract new customers when they have a good product innovation performance (Lin,Tan & Geng, 2013). Therefore, the green product may help the firm in order to achieve business targets (Lin,Tan & Geng, 2013). Table 2 also shows green pricing was found to influence organisational performance whereby this element has significantly and positively related (β = .297, p < 0.05), thus [H2] are supported. The result was similar with previous studies whereby green pricing have significant and positive relationship with firm's performance (Eneizan, Abd & Bustaman, 2015). The researchers added that green pricing practices are considered in both economic and environmental costs of production and marketing and at the same time the firm must simultaneously providing value for customers and a fair profit for business (Eneizan, Prof & Bustaman, 2015). Table 2 also shows top management was found to influence organisational performance whereby this element has significantly and positively related (β = .201, p < 0.05), thus [H5] are supported. The result was similar with the previous study which stated that top management have significant and positive relationship on firm's performance (Kutan, 2016). Therefore, it is clearly stated that top management plays significant role to increase the performance of firms. This is proven with the question of 'Our top management team is committed to environmental preservation' whereby the researcher assume that it is important to select the right leaders to make the right decisions and guide all the workers to obtain company's goals successfully. Table 2 also shows shared vision was found to influence organisational performance whereby this element has significantly and positively related (β = .229, p < 0.05), thus [H6] are supported. The result was similar with the previous study whereby mission and vision statement is positively and significantly related with firm's sustainable performance (Akeem & Edwin, 2016). Previous studies discovered that the mission and vision statements have become the guideline for the company. A clear shared

vision among the subordinates is important as it will provide direction in their strategic planning. Table 4 shows financial resources was found to influence organisational performance whereby this element has significantly and positively related (β = .302, p < 0.05), thus [H7] are supported. The result is similar with the previous studies which stated that the financial resources had positively related on firm's sustainable performance (Adomako & Danso, 2014).

The remaining predictors in this research is found not significantly related which are green promotion and green distribution. Table 2 shows that green promotion is found to be not significantly related to the organisational performance due to (β = .0.12, p > 0.05), thus [H3] are not supported. The result was similar with previous study which stated that green promotion positively and significantly related to the firm's performance (Eneizan et al., 2015). Table 2 also shows that green distribution is found to be not significantly related to the organizational performance due to (β = -.072, p > 0.05), thus [H4] are not supported. The result was similar with previous study whereby green distribution have positive and significant relationship with firm's performance (Eneizan, Prof & Bustaman, 2015).

The main objective of the current research is to examine the quality governance as a moderating construct between green initiatives and organisational performance. For the assessment of the moderating effect of a construct, it is required to for a study to develop an interaction effect between the moderator and the predicting variables and examine its effects on the endogenous variable.

In this study, there are seven interaction effects were tested to achieved research objective (H8, H9, H10, H11, H12, H13, H14). The results of the assessment model showed the analysis on the moderating effect of quality governance on the relationship between the independent variables (green initiatives) and organisational performance indicated that, quality governance does not moderate the relationship between (green product, green pricing, green promotion, shared vision, top management and financial resources and organizational performance. Results show that quality governance weakens the relationship between (green distribution and financial resources) and organisational performance.

Meanwhile, Table 3 shows the result of the moderating effect assessment. First, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Green Product -> Organisational Performance (β = 0.162, t-value = 1.644) suggests that Quality Governance does not moderate the relationship between green product and organizational performance, thus H8 is not supported. Second, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Green Pricing -> Organisational Performance (β = -0.027, t-value = 0.230) suggests that Quality Governance does not moderate the relationship between green pricing and organizational performance, thus H9 is not supported. Third, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Green Promotion -> Organizational Performance (β = 0.130, t-value = 1.181) suggests that Quality Governance does not moderate the relationship between green promotion and organisational performance, thus H10 is not supported. Fourth, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Green Distribution -> Organisational Performance (β = -0.026, t-value = 2.049) suggests that although the t-statistics is significant, however, the beta value of the moderation is negative indicating that quality governance weaken the relationship between green distribution and organisational performance, thus H11 is not supported. Firth, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Top Management -> Organisational Performance (β = -0.161, t-value = 1.531) suggests that Quality Governance does not moderate the relationship between top management and organisational performance, thus H12 is not supported. Sixth, the interaction

effect results of Quality Governance*Shared Vision -> Organisational Performance (β = -0.053, t-value = 0.530) suggests that Quality Governance does not moderate the relationship between shared vision and organisational performance, thus H13 is not supported. Seventh, the interaction effect results of Quality Governance*Financial Resources -> Organisational Performance (β = -0.172, t-value = 1.801) suggests that although the t-statistics is significant, however, the beta value of the moderation is negative indicating that quality governance weakens the relationship between financial resources and organisational performance, thus H14 is not supported.

In this study, the analysis revealed that quality governance does not moderate the relationship of the predicting variables (green product, green price, green promotion, green distribution, top management, shared vision and financial resources) with the organizational performance. In addition to that, quality governance also weakens the relationship between two predicting variables (financial resources and green distribution) with organisational performance.

In the previous study, dimensions of quality governance which consist of accountability, transparency and participation were proven as the important factors that contribute to the performance improvement (Halachmi, 2002). However, this study found that quality governance does not moderate the relationship between green initiatives and organizational performance. Although, the result is not consistent with the previous study, the role of quality governance is still relevant and should be considered.

In the context of green initiatives implemented by the ISO 14001 certified firms in Malaysia, the systematic approach facilitated by the Environmental Management System includes organisational structure, planning, activities, responsibilities, practices, procedures, process and resources for developing, implementing, reviewing and maintaining the environmental policy. It can be justified that, the role of quality governance to advocate, monitoring and controlling the quality management practice and maintaining the implementation is almost comparable the management tools of ISO 14001 EMS. The ISO 14004 (guideline regarding principles, systems and supporting techniques) and ISO 14000 standards that comprise environmental auditing, environmental performance evaluation, environmental labelling, and life-cycle assessment. Well-executed and implemented ISO 14001 EMS will provide organisations with the capability to measure and monitor the environmental aspects of its operations. Although quality governance does not moderate the relationship between green marketing strategies and organisational performance, it can be concluded that the quality governance is still a crucial element.

5. Contributions of the Study

Through this research, several implications can be drawn. Theoretically, this study contributed to the existing body of knowledge concerning green initiatives and quality governance in the context of green industry. Firstly, this research extends the resource-based view theory. The issues have been hardly explored in previous researches and this study provides a new understanding of the significance of quality governance in quality initiative implementation to achieve organisational objectives in performance enhancement. The originality of this study lies in the new aspect of quality governance as intervening role as a study on the quality governance never been performed on ISO 14001 EMS. The finding of this study is expected

to add knowledge about the importance of quality governance in ensuring the success of the strategy implementation.

This study is expected to disclose the green initiatives as an important factor required to implement the ISO 14001 EMS. Thus, it can advance the manager's understanding of the effectiveness of green initiatives and the impacts on the organisational performance. It is apparent that an enhanced knowledge will facilitate and expedite in green initiatives among marketers seriously, as identifying the best green marketing strategy will enhance the marketer's marketing program. Therefore, the best strategy and the results of the outcome developed in this study, may be utilised by other marketers to enhance the organisational performance. For future research, population and sample selection for future research could be conducted by separating the manufacturing and service industries. This would be more meaningful in terms of comparing the results across different types of industries.

6. Conclusion

Using an integrated theoretical framework, this research has examined the factors that influence the performance of the organisation for implementing green initiatives in their business practices. The factors consist of green initiatives, quality governance and organizational performance. This study has provided an evidence that the issue of quality governance is still relevant and should be considered, except that in this study, the management tool of ISO 14001 EMS embedded in the organisation is being implemented effectively throughout the organisation. The systematic approach of the quality system is highly depending on the commitment and co-operation from all levels and functions within the organisation. The ISO 40000 is designed to focus on the environmental management structure that governs the operation process. ISO 14000 series are the ISO 14001 standards that comprise environmental auditing, environmental performance evaluation, environmental labelling. Based on the published standard in ISO 14001, it is clearly stated that ISO 14001 addresses not only the environmental aspects of an organisation's processes, but also those of its products and services. Thus, quality governance in the is context does not strengthen the relationship between green marketing strategies and organisational performance. This study contributes new insights to the body of knowledge as well as practitioners as the efforts of the firms towards the environment and sustainability. Nevertheless, this research helps to advance the understanding of quality governance. To achieve the industrialised nation by the year 2020, Malaysia must maintain the environmental problems specifically related to the industrial pollution and emission. Malaysia has realised that environmental conservation is paramount to achieve future sustainable development.

Acknowledgement

References

Adomako, S., & Danso, A. (2014). Financial Literacy and Firm performance : The and resource flexibility. *Journal of Management & Organizational Studies*, *3* (4).

Ahmed, W., Ahmed, W., & Najmi, A. (2018). Developing and analyzing framework for understanding the effects of GSCM on green and economic performance: Perspective of a developing country. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, *29*(4), 740–758. http://doi.org/10.1108/MEQ-11-2017-0140

Akeem, A., & Edwin, M. (2016). Vision and Mission in Organization : Myth or Heuristic Device ? *The International Journal of Business and Management*, *4* (3), 127–134.

Cambell, P., & Hushagen, J. (2002). The Governance of intergovernmental oragnisations. *Corporate Governance, 2* (1), 21-26.

http://doi.org/10.1108/14720700210418689

Chamorro, A., & Bañegil, T. M. (2006). Green Marketing Philosophy : A Study of Spanish Firms with Ecolabels. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, *13*, 11–24. http://doi.org/10.1002/csr

Chan, E.S.W. (2013). Gap analysis of green hotel marketing. International Journal of Contemporary Hospital Management, 25 (7)

Chen, Y., Lai, S., & Wen, C. (2006). The Influence of Green Innovation Performance on Corporate Advantage in Taiwan. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *67*, 331–339. http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9025-5

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Martin, J. A. (2000). Dynamic capabilities: What are they ? *Strategic Management Journal*, *21*, 1105–1121.

Eneizan, B. M., Prof, A., Abd, K., & Bustaman, S. A. (2015). Effects of green marketing strategy 4ps on firm performance. *International Journal of Applied Research*, *1*(12), 821–824.

Gold, A., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. (2001). Knowledge management: An Organizational Capabilities Perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18* (1), 185–214.

Grove, H., Patelli, L., Victoravich, L. M., & Xu, P. T. (2011). Corporate Governance and Performance in the Wake of the Financial Crisis : Evidence from US Commercial Banks, *19* (5), 418-436. http://doi.org/10.1111

Halachmi A., (2002) "Performance measurement and government productivity", Work Study, Vol. 51 Issue: 2, pp.63-73, https://doi.org/10.1108/00438020210418782

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)* (2nd ed.). USA: SAGE Publication.

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)* (Vol. 46). USA: SAGE Publication. http://doi.org/10.1016

Hair jr, j. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM* (5th ed.). USA: SAGA Publication Incorporated.

Henseler, J., Dijkstra, T. K., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., Diamantopoulos, A., Straub, D. W., Calantone, R. J. (2014). Common beliefs and reality about PLS: Comments on Ronkko and Evermann (2013). *Organizational Research Methods*, *17* (2), 182–209. http://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114526928

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*(1), 115–135. http://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Juwaheer, T. D., Pudaruth, S., & Noyaux, M. M. E. (2012). Analysing the impact of green marketing strategies on consumer purchasing patterns in Mauritius. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *8* (1), 36–59. http://doi.org/10.1108/20425961211221615

Kianpour, K., & Jusoh, A. (2014). Environmentally friendly as a new dimension of product quality Accordingly , this research tries to answer the following question : Does environmentally friendly have enough potential to be one of products. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, *31* (5), 547–565. http://doi.org/10.1108/IJQRM-06-2012-0079

Klarner, P., Sarstedt, M., Hoeck, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2013). Disentangling the effects of team competences, team adaptability, and client communication on the performance of management consulting teams. *Long Range Planning*, *46* (3), 258–286. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.03.001

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling. Structural Equation Modeling* (Vol. 156). New York: The Guilford Press. http://doi.org/10.1038/156278a0

Kutan, A. M. (2016). Are Top Managers Important for Firms' Performance and Idiosyncratic Risk ? Evidence from Sharia-Compliant Firms, 1–23.

Lennan, A. M., & Ngoma, W. Y. (2004). Quality governance for sustainable development? *Progress in Development Studies*, *4*, 279–292. http://doi.org/10.1191/1464993404ps091oa

Leonidou, C. N., Katsikeas, C. S., & Morgan, N. A. (2013). "Greening" the marketing mix: do firms do it and does it pay off? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *41*, 151–170. http://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-012-0317-2

Lin, R., Tan, K., & Geng, Y. (2013). Market demand , green product innovation , and fi rm performance : evidence from Vietnam motorcycle industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *40*, 101–107. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.01.001

Mourad, M., & Ahmed, Y. S. E. (2012). Perception of green brand in an emerging innovative market. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, *15* (4), 2012. http://doi.org/10.1108/14601061211272402

Mukhtar, R., & Ali, N. A. (2011). Quality governance of human aspects of quality initiatives in the public service sector. *Current Issues of Business and Law*, *Vol. 6*(No. 1), 111–128. http://doi.org/10.5200/1822-9530.2011.06

Nguyen, T. N., Phan, T. T. H., Cao, T. K., & Nguyen, H. V. (2017). Green purchase behavior: mitigating barriers in developing countries. *Strategic Direction*, *33* (8), 4–6. http://doi.org/10.1108/SD-04-2017-0064

Peattie, K., & Martin Belz, F. (2010). *Sustainability Marketing – An Innovative Conception of Marketing*. *Marketing Review*.

Pellegrini, G., & Farinello, F. (2009). Organic consumers and new lifestyles. An Italian country survey on consumption patterns. *British Food Journal*, *111* (9), 948–974. http://doi.org/10.1108/00070700910992862

Peña, M. L. M., Garrido, E. D., & López, J. M. S. (2014). Analysis of benefits and difficulties associated with firms' Environmental Management Systems: the case of the Spanish automotive industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 1–11. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.01.085

Pillai, B. S., & Patil, K. P. (2012). Green marketing. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, *3*(7), 64–75.

Psomas, E. L., Fotopoulos, C. V, & Kafetzopoulos, D. P. (2011). Motives , difficulties and benefits in implementing the ISO 14001 Environmental Management System. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, *22* (4), 502–521. http://doi.org/10.1108/14777831111136090

Radin, B. A. (2007). Performance Measurement and Global Governance: The Experience of the World Bank. *Global Insights*, *13*, 25–33.

Ramayah, T., Cheah, J.-H., Chuah, F., Ali Memon, M., & Ting, H. (2016). *Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) using Smart PLS 3.0*. Malaysia: Pearson Malaysia Sdn. Bhd.

Siddiquee, N. A. (2008). Service delivery innovations and governance : the Malaysian experience. *Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy*, *Vol. 2* (No. 3), 194–213. http://doi.org/10.1108/17506160810902194

UNESCAP. (2003). What is good governance? Retrieved November 21, 2010, from http://www. unescap.org/pdd/prs/ProjectActivities/Ongoing/gg/governance.asp

Zhu, Q., Sarkis, J., & Lai, K. (2008). Confirmation of a measurement model for green supply chain management practices implementation. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *111*, 261–273. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2006.11.029

Zuhairah H., & Noor Azman, A. (2017). Modelling The Relationship Between Green Marketing Strategies And Performance Outcomes For Business Sustainability. In *Governance and Sustainability on Global Business Economics*.

Insights of ESL Students' Peer Review in Writing Class

Norasyikin Abdul Malik[1], Nur Fatima Wahida Mohd Nasir[2], Nurul Ain Hasni[3], and Nurhidha Irawaty Kasmaruddin[4]

[1]Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perak, Seri Iskandar Campus, 32610 Bandar Seri Iskandar, Perak, Malaysia
noras967@perak.uitm.edu.my

[2]Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perak, Seri Iskandar Campus, 32610 Bandar Seri Iskandar, Perak, Malaysia
nurfa269@perak.uitm.edu.my

[3]Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perak, Seri Iskandar Campus, 32610 Bandar Seri Iskandar, Perak, Malaysia
nurul719@perak.uitm.edu.my

[4]Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perak, Seri Iskandar Campus, 32610 Bandar Seri Iskandar, Perak, Malaysia
nurhi9087@perak.uitm.edu.my

Abstract

The practice of peer review as a method of evaluation is believed to be helpful in learning and is favoured especially by educators in higher education settings. Constraints resulting from examination-oriented subjects and the large number of students in each class limit the educators' ability to give personal feedback to each student, forcing them to opt for peer review as an alternative for evaluation. Thus, this study aims to better learn the students' views on the implementation of peer review in their writing class and also to recognise the strengths and weaknesses according to the perspectives raised by these students. Four interview questions were crafted to investigate the students' views on peer review activity in writing class. Semi-structured interviews were carried out, recorded, transcribed and analysed. Textual data, audio recordings and interviews from 18 individuals from the third semester of diploma students revealed that peer review activity made them to be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of their essays. However, some of them viewed peer review as a platform to critic or being criticised, rather than as a learning tool. The findings also revealed that despite the positive feedback of peer review to their writings, they preferred the lecturer's feedback more. A majority of these students suggested that lecturer's feedback is still important other than having the peer review activity for the class as a source of writing feedback.

Keywords: University students, Attitude, Peer assessment, Peer review, Writing, Essay, Second language learners.

1. Introduction

In teaching English as a second language, writing has become one of the main components to test the learner's ability and skill in the language apart from reading, grammar, speaking and listening. Compared to reading, speaking or listening, writing is perceived as more difficult as when writing the learners are not only tested on their language proficiency but also on their cognitive systems in synthesizing the memory and thinking. This demands metacognitive skills rather than just testing one's language ability (Kellog, 2008). As writing has been recognised as the key component in determining learner's success in a language and challenging

language task among language learners, many strategies have been developed by the educators to help the learners to excel in the language skill. One of the ways to help the learners to be better writers is by giving feedback on their writing (Paulus, 1999; Chandler, 2003; Kavitha & Rozita, 2014). From there, the learners can know what flaws that they have in the writing and how to improve it. Nevertheless, it is not easy for educators to give writing reviews or feedbacks individually for every student that they have. Because of this huge number of students per class, the nature of learning has turned from teacher-centred learning to independent learning which allows the students to have "a better sense of control for their own learning" (Richards & Renandya, 2002: 335), and become self-sufficient learners who are less dependent on their teachers (Penaflorida, 2002). Thus, this study aims to better learn the students' views on the implementation of peer review in their writing class and also to recognise the perspectives raised by these students. Are there more positive impacts or vice versa? This study focuses on data from semi structured interview and from the findings, it can be concluded that despite the positive feedback of peer review to their essays, they prefer the lecturer's feedback more. A majority of these students suggested that lecturer's feedback is still important other than having the peer review activity for the class as a source of writing feedback. This study contributes to existing feedback research by investigating student perceptions of peer review on their writing exercises. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

(i)   What are the strengths and weaknesses of peer review in writing class?
(ii)   What do students prefer in getting feedbacks for their writing?

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Practicality of Peer Review in Writing Class

Many researchers find peer review as a beneficial pedagogical activity in enhancing the learners' understanding of writing components and eventually improving their writings. A study done by Hui (2006) on 18 students who underwent 4-hour in-class demonstration and a 1-hour after-class reviewer-teacher conference revealed that with wide-ranging exercise inside and outside of class, peer review can give a significant effect to the EFL students' revision types and quality of texts. This is due to a significant number of reviewers' comments in the peer review exercises and the number of revisions with enhanced quality was significantly higher than that before peer review exercises. Trena's (1999) study on 11 ESL student essays analysis also discovered that the changes that the students made from the peer review and teacher's feedback were more meaningful than those revisions they made on their own. It is also discovered that the students' overall essays were also improved after writing multiple drafts based on the feedbacks from peers and teachers. Apart from that, Hanrahan and Issacs (2001) believe that peer review provides the students a platform where they can observe the teachers' role and learn the nature of assessment. Hence, when students make reviews of their classmates' essays analytically, they can notice on the strengths and weaknesses of their peers' essays (Kasper, 1998). From the activity, these students progressively are able to determine the do's and the don'ts in writing essays and subsequently making them to be more conscious of the similar errors that they make in their own writings and notice the important elements and rules of fluent and clear writing (Kasper, 1998). Other than that, an independent learning environment through peer and self-review techniques is claimed to help students in developing a sense of autonomy as they have a control in their own learning (Clifford, 1999). Rollinson (2005) also added that peer review functions on a more casual and understandable

level than the review provided by the teachers. The traditional one-way-teacher-student-interaction is transformed to interactive and collaborative manner. Hence, due to these considerable benefits of peer review to ESL learners, this teaching and learning method cannot be neglected as a choice to language educators namely English language educators as it helps to ease the educators' burden in improving the learners' essay writings.

2.2 Drawbacks of Peer Review in Writing Class

Apart from the benefits highlighted on the usage of peer review as one of the learning activities in writing class, there are some findings that raise the complexities and challenges of applying this method of learning. Connor and Asenavage's (1994) study revealed that many revisions were made but few of these resulted from direct peer group response. The changes in the students' essays were mainly more text-based changes. Few changes were mostly on surface changes. This raises questions regarding the process of the peer group formation and types of modelling used in the study. A study done by Guardado and Ling (2007) on 22 ESL students' experiences of online peer feedback revealed that generally the students felt they had little confidence in giving comments to their peers. Some of them "shied away from the demand to express and clarify meaning", thus making the online peer feedback as ineffective as many comments were not addressed. Physical class discussion and teacher's guidance were suggested to maximize the efficacy of online peer feedback. Another study done by Liu and Carless (2006) discovered that students have doubts on their classmates' expertise as compared to their teachers in checking their works. Various studies also demonstrate students have a lack of self-confidence when reviewing their peers' work (Sullivan, Hithcock & Dunnington, 1999). These evidences lead to the existence of complexity in implementing peer review in writing class. This complexity leads to validity issues on peer review. Falchikov and Goldfinch (2000) pointed out the validity and reliability issues regarding peer review and stressed on the significance of a well-organized criterion or guideline when executing peer review in class. Some learners paid the most attention to almost all aspects of their writing, some paid more attention on form, and some paid more attention on content (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1991). It is found that learners' responses on peer review activity differ greatly based on different types of feedback received for different purposes (Li, 2016). Thus, the effects may vary as each individual may interpret or respond the same errors differently.

2.3 Preference of Feedback: Peer's or Lecturer's

Research has found that both teachers and learners believed that teacher's feedback on student writing has a vital part in writing instruction and an enormous influence on student's writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014; Goldestin, 2004; Leki, 1990). Arafat (2011) discovered that both learners and teachers of English showed an inclination for teacher's feedback than peer review. Radecki and Swales (1988) also found that the majority of learners preferred their teacher's feedback than that of their peer's. Most of them assumed it was the teacher's job to identify and amend the errors. Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) found that learners were inclined to receive feedbacks on content, rhetorical soundness and also language accurateness. These types of feedbacks could hardly be given by their peers, hence, their preferences are inclined towards the teacher's feedback. Additionally, the learners' inclination for more comprehensive, detailed and clear feedback is parallel with the finding in Elwood and Bode's (2014) study. Li (2016) found that students believed that the teacher's corrections on their grammatical errors encourage them to avoid repeating the same errors in the future.

3. Methodology

Many research on identifying learners' and educators' view on peer review are done through surveys by using questionnaires. As this quantitative based research seeks the answers for the 'what' questions (Black, 1994), this study provides a deeper understanding which answers the 'why' questions as this qualitative-based research provides "a holistic perspective which preserves the complexities of human behaviour" (Strong, 1992). Data is collected through interviews, and observation is gathered and analysed to get a deeper insight of L2 learners' perspectives and their wariness on peer review implementation in writing class.

3.1 Sample

The students who were chosen for the interviews were 18 diploma students from two different English language classes in UiTM Perak. The students were all Malay and Bumiputera (Sabah and Sarawak) native speakers who learned English as a second language and had been studying English formally at school for over 11 years. The sample was from semester three students who were taking "Integrated Language Skills: Writing (ELC231)" which focuses mainly in essay writing and article review apart from reading comprehension. The focus of the class was on writing: the article review and expository essay. The majority of the participants were studying for Diploma in Quantity Surveying and Building Surveys. Male students constituted 7 of the total sample, and the remaining 11 were female students. This uneven distribution is due to the sampling procedure and uneven number of male and female students in both classes.

3.2 The Intervention

The class met four hours every week. In-class activities included instruction on the knowledge about the components and features of topical and argumentative essays, writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, writing an outline, using hooks), writing exercises for individual and group work, peer response on classmate's and other classes' essay, presentation of peer group analysis in group and general oral teacher feedback activities. Even though peer review comprises various types of activities, the study focuses on peer review in writing class specifically on essay writing. After the students learnt the components in writing, they were taught to do self-review and peer-review of their own writing and their friends' writing. The flow of the activity is explained in the chart below.
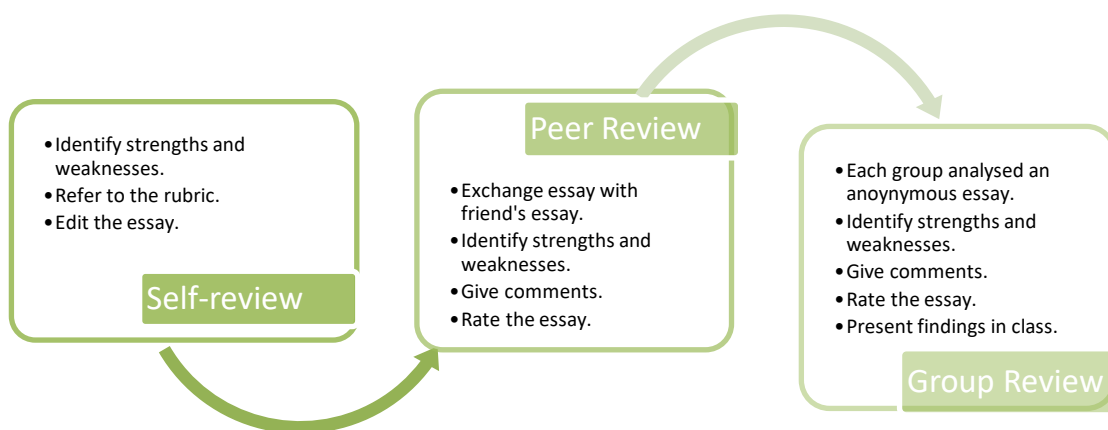
Figure 1: Peer Review Activity
Source: Developed for this study

3.3 Data Collection

After the students have done the three stages of essay reviewing process, they were chosen randomly based on their essay marks. Their final essay task was to classify the essays into the Best, the Intermediate and the Weak categories. From there, two students from each category in each class were chosen randomly for an interview session. To understand what university students, think about the use of peer review in improving their writing skills, four interview questions were developed.
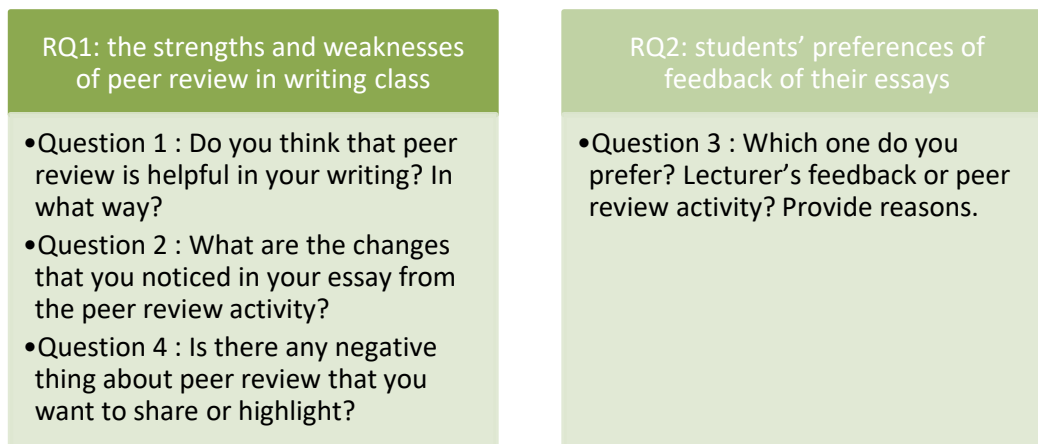
The administration of the interviews was carried out after the students had received their final feedback from their classmates and completed their final essay task. The interviews were conducted in English with translated questions. The interviewees were allowed to answer the questions in Malay language, as the medium of communication is not the main concern. The semi-structured interviews were recorded by using an audio recorder and field notes were also taken.

3.4 Data Analysis

Thematic coding method was used to analyse the raw data from the interviews. Thematic coding is one of the common methods in analysing qualitative data. It involves recording or identifying passages of text or images that are linked by a communal code, category, or idea which allows researchers to catalogue the text into themes and hence establish a "framework of thematic ideas about it" (Gibbs, 2007). Before the analysis was done, the audio tracks were

transcribed. Then, the transcriptions were scrutinized to see similar occurrences or frequencies guided by the interview questions and research questions. These frequencies were then being coded and categorized. There are several steps involved in the coding process. Creswell (2008) stated that there is no definite procedure in coding a certain data. Nevertheless, Tesch (1990) and Creswell (2009) recommend these steps. The coding steps can be seen clearly in Figure 2.
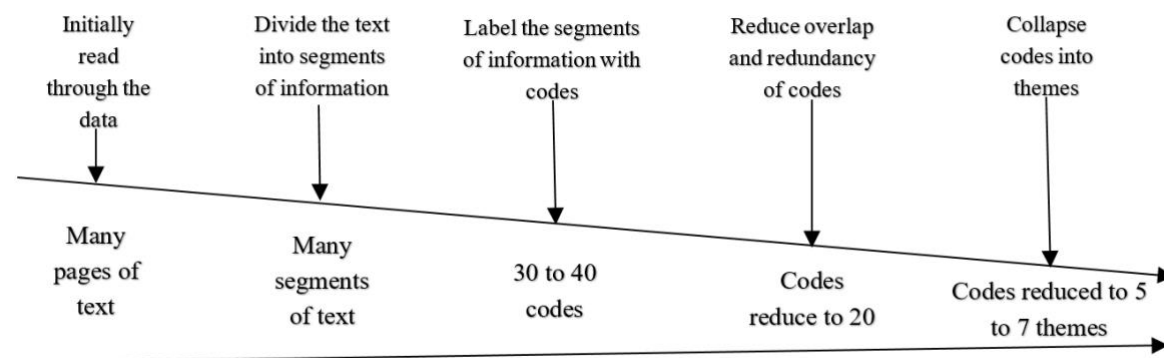

Figure 2: A Visual Model of the Coding Process (Cresswell, 2008)
Source: Creswell (2009)

These codes were listed, and redundant codes were aggregated together before they were categorized through several themes. The themes were then generated by looking at the similar occurrences of responses given by the participants.

4. Findings

The overall findings and data analysis is presented based on research questions. For each research question, relevant conclusions were coded and categorized according to the similar occurrences of the participants' responses. These themes were developed based on the thematic analysis method.

4.1 RQ1: What Are the Strengths and Weaknesses of Peer Review in Writing Class?

Research question 1 (one) seeks to investigate the students' thoughts about peer review; whether peer review activity had any strengths or weaknesses. Based on the interview session, results show that majority of the students thought peer review to have more strengths than weaknesses. Reasoning for students' comments on the strengths and weaknesses were then categorized into different themes which was developed based on the thematic analysis method. Eight themes were developed under strengths: (i) able to identify the significant elements of writing and essay structure in general, (ii) able to compare the similar errors/mistakes that students make, (iii) facilitate students in improving essay content (iv) able to identify the errors/mistakes that other students make, (v) able to improve grammar, vocabulary or the English language in general, (vi) facilitate students on the awareness of irrelevant ideas or supporting details, (vii) facilitate students in writing faster, and (viii) able to feel less tense. While another five themes were developed under weaknesses: (i) concerns on feelings of shyness, shame or humiliation among students, (ii) concerns on irrelevant and less helpful comments/reviews, (iii) concerns on low-quality reviews from peers, (iv) concerns on stressful feedbacks, and (v) concerns of confidentiality matters. Based on the results, it can be concluded that among all of the themes developed, the most popular themes under

strengths were (i) able to identify the significant elements of writing and essay structure in general, and (ii) able to compare the similar errors/mistakes that students make, with a total number of 11 similar comments for each theme, while the most popular theme under weaknesses was (i) concerns on feelings of shyness, shame or humiliation among students with a total number of six similar comments. The results of students' feedback and comments are shown according to their sequence as presented below.

4.1.1   Strengths

i.   Able to identify the significant elements of writing and essay structures in general

There were 11 students who claimed that peer review activity helped them to identify the significant elements of writing and essay structures as taught by their lecturer. Students 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14 and 17 agreed that when they reviewed their friends' essays, they could see what their friends include in their essays.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 1: We can see that person's main idea, topic sentence, and also his explanation and after that we can see how he does his example."	Student 1 stated that he could see the main idea, topic sentence, the elaboration and the examples clearly, thus he would manage to follow the same way in his writings too.
"Student 2: analyse in detail of the essay, so when reading it, we can see, ok this is the bad essay, ok this is the good essay and it helps students to do more better in essay."	Students 2, 5, 7, 8 and 14 claimed that their friends' essays helped them in writing essay generally. For instance, student 2 mentioned that peer review helps him to distinguish between well-written essays with the bad ones, hence it helps him to write a better essay.
"Student 13: Like.. have to conclude every..ermm.. passage.. mm the paragraph.. then, ermm..must have topic sentence and all that.."	Meanwhile, students 9, 12 and 13 stated that when reviewing the others' essays, they were able to know the crucial elements that should be included in an essay so they won't lose marks.

From this finding, it can be seen that these students realized that when reviewing others' writings, they are more aware of the essay structure (Kasper,1998), as they needed to look for the important elements of the essay (e.g. thesis statement, topic sentence, transition signals, concluding sentence, etc.) when reviewing their friends' essays. They might be less conscious of this essay structure before doing the peer review activity.

ii. Able to compare the similar errors/mistakes that students make

11 students claimed that peer review enabled them to compare similar errors that their friends' made with their own mistakes.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 10: I think it's good because I can see the similarities, the problem that he do has similar in my writing. So, I can see the wrong.. The errors. Based from the errors. I can improve my writing."	For instance, students 3, 10, 12, 17 and 18 stated that when they identified their friend's errors in the essay, they also noticed the same errors in their essays. The excerpt is taken from the transcription.
"Student 6: We can compare our friends' essays that are okay and our other friends' essays that are not okay. We can know what problem that is not okay and how we can make it okay just like the others' essays that are okay."	Student 6 said, when reviewing other's writing, it allows her to compare the well-written essays with the poorly written ones, hence helping her to realize on how to improve the latter to make it better.

It seems like when they did the peer review, it was also like a reflection of their writings too. This is parallel with Kasper's (1998) claim on students' awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of their friends' essays in which enables them to progressively determine the do's and the don'ts in writing essays and subsequently making them to be more conscious of the similar errors that they make in their own writings. Thus, based from the errors, they would not repeat the same mistake and thus, improving their essays.

Other than that, student 4 believed that he could see his mistakes from other person's point of view, as he himself might not realize them if he reviews his own writings. Students 7, 9, 11 and 13 believed that they could improve their essays when reading their friends' comments on their essays as the comments do give a certain impact to them. It makes them realized where they did wrong and how to correct the mistakes. Student 11 stated that the errors that have been detected are made as a guideline for him not to do the same mistakes again in the future.

iii. Facilitate students in improving essay content

Seven students believed that peer review helped them to improve their essay content. By reading their peers' essays, they were able to see a different way of developing the main ideas as not thought by them before.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 7: There are many ideas that I get, when know, see, my friends like.. my friends' ideas are	For instance, student 7 stated that by reading essays from different peers, he was able to know various ways in explaining the same ideas.

like this my other friends use a different kind of ideas"	
"Student 4: topic sentence and then we learn how to put more supporting details to support more about the topic on what we want to talk about in the paragraph."	Student 4 claimed that she could write longer by adding more relevant supporting details in her essay after reading her peers' essays.
"Student 10: I think it's improved because from the previous writing, I missed a lot of content that must have in the writing."	Students 5, 10, 15, 16 and 18 agreed that they could write longer essay with more elaboration after doing the peer review activity. For an illustration, student 10 said that he could write better essay after peer review activity as he realized that he missed a lot of possible elaborations or supporting details in the previous essay when reading how his peers explained the same ideas in their essays.

This finding reveals that reviewing others' essays helps students to improve their essay content without depending on too much help from the lecturer (Penaflorida, 2002). This shows that the students are able to learn independently as they can control their own learning (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

iv.   Able to identify the errors/mistakes that other students make

Four students realized that when they did the peer review activity, they could recognise the mistakes that their friends did and know how to make the essay better.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 11: Actually for me, it is helpful because for me we can know where the person did wrongly and then we can improve his weaknesses."	Students 1, 11, and 17 stated that they learnt on how to write essay better when they were able to detect the errors in their friends' essays and correct them.

Student 16 said when she was able to detect the errors in others' writings, she also realized the mistakes that shouldn't be done in writing essay, hence making her to be more conscious when producing her own essay. Hence, the students can produce better work after doing the peer review (Kasper, 1998).

v. Able to improve grammar, vocabulary or the English language in general

Four students claimed that when they were reviewing their friends' writings, they were also able to improve their grammar and enhance their vocabulary.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 17: Read people's comment on our essay. Because when we read it, we know. What is wrong right? Grammar error.. sentence position. So from there we can correct our own essay."	Students 17 and 18 claimed that when they read their friends' comments of their essays, they could see a better way of explaining certain ideas rather than what they usually do.
"Student 14: I can see that my essay do improve. The first essay that I wrote, I got a C+. and then the second one I got A. So, I do think it's like improving in my grammar, vocabulary and structural writing."	Student 14 stated that she could see improvements in all of her essays throughout the peer review activity.
"Student 4: example if someone is really good in English it's also a way to help others to improve more on their essay."	Apart from that, student 4 stated that reading other's essay enables him to produce a better essay. This probably due to the accurate sentence structure and the right choice of words in explaining certain ideas of the essays among the competent students.

From the findings, it can be seen that the students' overall essays can be improved after writing multiple drafts based on feedbacks given by their peers (Trena, 1999). This finding confirms what Hui (2006) and Trena (1999) had found out on significant effects of peer review on students' writing quality after peer review exercises compared to the writings before the activity. In short, peer review helps some students to improve the quality of their language in their writings as they could see variations of sentence structures and choice of words used by their peers in their essays.

vi. Facilitate students on the awareness of irrelevant ideas or supporting details

Students 3, 16 and 17 echoed the same notion that peer review facilitates their awareness of irrelevant ideas or supporting details either in their peers' writings.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 16: I think it change my writing because it make help me to.. what.. like.. help.. like when we want to do.. if there is irrelevant idea we can toss it out."	Due to this, as claimed by student 16, peer review has helped her in editing her own writings by detecting the irrelevant ideas and taking them out of the essay.

If students are able to detect irrelevant ideas in their essay, they can avoid themselves of losing marks for having essay content that is out of topic. This shows that these students are

able to determine the do's and the don'ts in writing essays and thus are more conscious of the errors in the writings (Kasper, 1998).

vii. Facilitate students in writing faster

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 18: After I doing peer review.. I can do the essay faster and can do essay more word than before. Idea come to me fast. I can doing essay just like that."	One student noted that after the peer review activity, she could finish writing her essay faster compared to before.

As claimed, she could think of the ideas of her essay easily. This endorses Hui's (2006) finding that peer review can give a significant effect to students' revision types and quality of texts.

viii. Able to feel less tense

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 9: I think it's helpful when I review other people's work. Because I don't feel tense whenever I'm doing it."	There was only one student who believed that peer review made him to be less tensed.

As claimed by student 9, reviewing other's work may not be as intimidating as being reviewed by others for the reviews from the peers are more casual and understandable than the teachers' (Rollinson, 2005).

4.1.2 Weaknesses

i. Concerns on feelings of shyness, shame or humiliation among students

Six students agreed that the peer review activity triggers the feelings of shyness and humiliation among them.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 9: If the students do the peer evaluation I think that it brings shame to the students."	Student 1 reasoned out that some of them were afraid that their friends would notice the errors made in their essays due to low self-confidence in their ability in writing essay. Students 2, 6 and 9 agreed that due to this low self-esteem, they embarrassed of the errors identified by their peers.

	Student 11 however felt that, when his own friend reviewed his essay, there's a tendency that the person was sabotaging him to humiliate him in front of the other classmates.
"Student 11: Because our own friends check it.. Maybe he wants to sabotage us. Want to humiliate us in front of people.. haa.. for me it's like that.. But for me the review is actually gives many benefits to us."	Student 14 echoed the same concern as she said that when their peers who are about the same age reviewed the essay, it is as if they were made fun of.
"Student 14: In my opinion, err.. aaa.. okay la. Okay.. for certain. For me it's okay. For me personally is okay. But for some of my classmates.. err.. they feel like.. aa.. what do you call that.. people are making fun of them when people who are at the same age other than lecturer themselves give comments."	

As Liu and Carless (2006) discovered that students have doubts on their classmates' expertise, this makes some of the students were not convinced with their peers' review and they trust the lecturer's feedback more.

ii. *Concerns on irrelevant and less helpful comments/reviews*

Four students felt that some of the reviews made by their peers were inappropriate in a sense of irrelevant to the errors made. Students 13, 14 and 15 agreed that some of their peers' comments were irrelevant and not helpful, thus making them to be useless in improving their essays.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 14: For instance.. there is.. err.. err.. some of them are like arguing with the colours of err… the spelling of the words colours. Some wrote O, and the other wrote U. So, small matters like that they highlight it more. So, it really important other than the writing itself."	As an illustration, student 14 gave an example of irrelevant comment which she believed is not helpful.
"Student 17: but when friends are critic our essay.. they tend.. aa.. how to say this.. They wrote more.. like kinder words or sentences because we're friends. He wrote it nicely."	Another instance of less helpful reviews is on dishonest comments given in the peer review. For an instance, student 17 believed that some of the comments were dishonest as some of the

	peers seemed to sugar coat their reviews so they would not hurt their peers' feelings.
Student 14: I think it's better for my lecturer to give comments and err.. to give their opinion rather than my classmates because some of my classmates maybe lost.. (chuckled).. in like giving comments and err.. sometimes there are comments that are useless.. (chuckled)	Student 14 suggested that it is better to leave the reviewing task to the lecturer as the peers' reviews are useless.

From the findings, it can be seen that certain kind of review as illustrated by student 14 makes the peer review to be less effective in helping the students to improve their writings. Thus, making the actual errors being ignored and can't be corrected as they are not highlighted by their peers. Some learners paid the most attention to almost all aspects of their writing, some paid more attention on form, and some paid more attention on content (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1991). Despite the differences of aspects in reviewing, some students may not feel the review is relevant or useful in improving their work.

To conclude, a clear guideline in reviewing is crucial to avoid any validity and reliability issues being raised (Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000). Hence, by making sure the quality of the reviews made is standardized, the reviews are going to be helpful for the receivers in improving the quality of the writings made.

iii.   Concerns on low-quality reviews from peers

Three students agreed that some of the reviews received from their peers were not good enough as they lack knowledge either in reviewing or the language. Students 5, 7 and 13 expressed their lack of confidence on their peers' reviews. They believed their peers did not even know what they were doing when checking the essays.

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 5: The weakness... maybe the person who is checking. Maybe the person gives less comments.. Because he doesn't know what is he checking."	Student 5 indicated that lack of comments given for his essay reflected that the person reviewing did not know what to be reviewed.
"Student 13: Tak.. Tak.. Tak rasa.. Tak confident yang benda tu betul. Sebab kita pun kurang jugak."	Students 7 and 13 admitted that they felt that way on their peers' ability because they themselves were also not confident with their ability to review other's essay.

This finding echoes with Sullivan et al. (1999) that students have a lack of self-confidence when reviewing their peers' work. Furthermore, student 7 believed that the lecturer knows better in detecting errors compared to himself and his peers. This reflects the inability of some incompetent students who could not detect errors in their peers' writings especially on grammatical errors.

iv.   **Concerns on stressful feedbacks**

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 9: Because I tend to feel stress whenever I hear comments because I keep on regretting the mistake that I made. I think it's better I'm doing the review."	There was one student who claimed that he would feel stressed whenever he heard comments from his friends in the peer review activity as the comments made him resented the errors made. However, he would not mind to review others' works.

Even though there was only one student who felt this way, it still signifies that some students might feel intimidated of reading or receiving comments on their writing work. This shows that the students have doubts on their classmates' expertise as compared to their teachers in checking their works (Liu & Carless, 2006).

v.   **Concerns of confidentiality matters**

Students' Responses	Findings
"Student 9: There's one negativity I can see because I think the essay should be between the lecturers and students."	One student felt that the written work should only be read or viewed by the lecturer and not anyone else. She further explained that the review activity should only be between the lecturer and the students.

As Radecki and Swales (1988) found that the majority of learners preferred their teacher's feedback than their peer's, and assumed it was the teacher's job to identify and amend the errors, they could not accept their work being reviewed by their peers. Thus, if the lecturer wants to conduct peer review activity in class, the students should be briefed so that no confidentiality matter occurs.

4.2 RQ2: Who Do Students Prefer Most in Receiving Feedbacks for Their Essays?

Lastly is research question 2 (two) which investigates on students' preferences in receiving feedbacks and comments for their essay writing. For this research question, results on students' comments were divided into three classes namely; lecturer, peers and both, where each of the classes were then categorized into different themes. Based on the findings, it can be seen that from the total number of 18 students, 50% (9) of them which is also the highest percentage voted for Lecturer's Feedback. The least percentage with only 6% (1) voted for Peers' Feedback. Meanwhile, eight students preferred to have both lecturers' and peers' feedbacks for their essay writing. Nevertheless, there is not much difference of percentage between the Lecturer's Feedback and the percentage of Both Feedbacks as 44% (8) of the students preferred to have feedbacks from both lecturer and their peers. This insignificant difference explains that lecturer's feedback is still favoured by the students even the peer review activity does help them in improving their essay writing. This can be clearly seen in Figure 3.
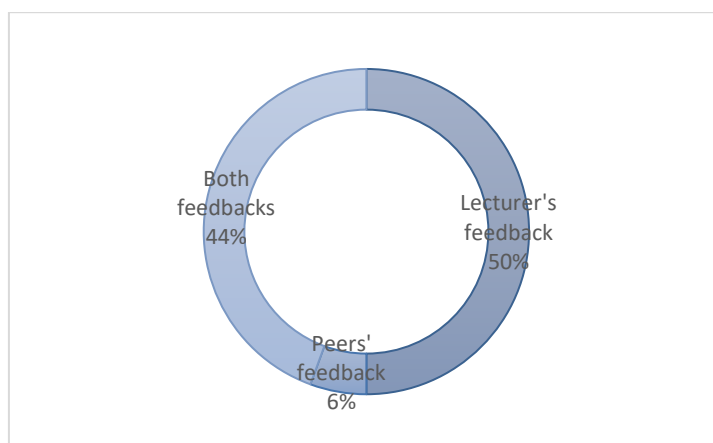
Figure 3: Students' Preferences on Essay Writing Feedback
Source: Developed for this study

4.2.1 Lecturer's Feedback

Based on the findings, it can be seen that from the total number of 18 students, 50% (9) of them which is also the highest percentage voted for Lecturer's Feedback. Data were analysed and three themes were developed from the respondents who opted for Lecturer's Feedback which are (i) have more knowledge/experience and credibility as a lecturer, (ii) provide detailed/better explanations and comments as well as (iii) direct feedback from lecturers to students.

i. Have more knowledge/experience and credibility as a lecturer

One of their reasons was that the perception students had on lecturers' credibility which is reflected through the amount of knowledge and experience lecturers have in teaching essay writing.

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 5: If that's the case, of course lecturer...because if friends, they dont know that much compared to lecturer...a lot of comments can be given by the lecturer in the writing.	For example, student 5 compared between students' knowledge and lecturer's knowledge in giving comments, while student 6 commented that lecturers would see better in what was lacking in the essays.

This resembles with findings from the past researches that found both teachers and learners believed that teacher's feedback on student writing has a vital part in writing instruction and an enormous influence on student's writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014; Goldestin, 2004; Leki, 1990). As apparent as it is, it can be concluded that students in this 21st century still need and want lecturers to be their main provider for education as they depend much on lecturers' credibility.

ii. Provide detailed/better explanations and comments

Other reasons students gave was that lecturers provided more detailed or better explanation and comments than peer review. Again, there is a sense of comparison between students' feedback and lecturers' feedback where students thought that their friends' comments were

less reliable compared to the lecturers. For example, student 15 commented that as a peer-reviewer herself, she didn't really know what was lacking. Another example can be seen from student 14's response.

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 14: I think it's better for my lecturer to give comments and err.. to give their own comments rather than my classmates because some of my classmates maybe lost.. (chuckled).. in like giving comments and err.. sometimes there are comments that cannot be reliable..(chuckled).	Student 14 clearly expressed her lack of confidence towards her classmates being unreliable in terms of giving feedback.

Student 14's comment on the factor of reliability could also be regarded as one of the weaknesses of peer-review as comments and feedback from students depend much on their seriousness as well as ability of checking their friends' work. Since most students have doubts on their classmates' expertise as compared to their lecturer's in checking their works (Liu & Carless, 2006), it is believed that lecturer is known to be the best person who is able to guide the writing process effectively.

iii.   Direct feedback from lecturer to students
Once again, students show the trust and confidence they have for lecturers.

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 15: I prefer teacher's comment because it is direct encounter teacher and me to comment my essay, to improve my writing.	Student 15 stated that direct feedback from lecturers will provide better help in improving his essay writing skills.

This strongly explains that lecturers are still seen as a reliable source for students to count on. They are clearly inclined for more comprehensive, detailed and clear feedback rather than that od their peer's. This reaffirms other research such as Elwood and Bode (2014).

4.2.2   Peer's Feedback

Under the Peers' Feedback category, one theme was developed which is (i) become more aware in avoidance of errors and repentance of mistakes. According to the findings, there was only one student who chose to have only peer review as the feedback for his writing. It is the least percentage with 6% compared to lecturer's feedback and both lecturer's and peer's feedback which have a bigger portion of the pie.

i.   Become more aware in avoidance of errors and repentance of mistakes

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 7: Example like ahhhh like…what is that….from peer review, we can see other peoples' mistakes. Meaning to say, we can see the common mistakes that students always make. Because we reviewed question by question. If we review only on ours, means we	Student 7 claimed that peer review certainly helps him to be in charge of his own learning and make him more aware of the common mistakes.

only get to see the mistakes that we make not others.	
Student 7: "Because the one that lecturer marked, because when I received it, I was so lazy to look at it again. Because I could see there were so many red markings.."	He further added that he did not benefit from the comments made by the lecturer on his essay as he rarely read it. Student 7 might felt intimidated or demotivated of the markings made on his essay. Hence, he believed peer review activity helped him to learn on how to improve his essay better.

He also agreed that the strengths and weaknesses of their peers' essay would be more noticeable if peer feedback is carried out analytically, subsequently making them to be more conscious of the similar errors that they make in their own writings and notice the important elements and rules of fluent and clear writing (Kasper, 1998).

4.2.3   Both Feedbacks

Two themes were discovered under Both Lecturer's and Peers' Feedback which are (i) different views and opinions from both parties and also (ii) reviewing through imitation from the lecturer's review. The themes were generated from 44% of the 18 respondents in the semi-structured interviews.

i.   Different views and opinions from both parties

A great deal of preferences from both peers and lecturers signifies a vital role of these feedbacks which contribute to an enormous influence on student's writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014, p. 237; Goldestin, 2004; Leki, 1990, p. 58).

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 4: like if the lecturer gives comments about the essay, so that's okay,..I know I need to improve on thi.., but when there is a peer review, we can also see from other student's point of view. Like, "Oh okay, if we write something you also need to put this and that into our review". So, both of the.. from like lecturer and from students, I like to see la.	Student 4 showed an inclination for both instructors and peers' feedbacks which offer her benefits compared to receiving feedback solely from one side.

Thus, this allows them to have greater extension of improvement which paves way to a much clear and concise writing.

ii. Reviewing through imitation from the lecturer's review

Students' Responses	Findings
Student 16: For me, when I analyse and then the teacher can tell what is wrong with the essay and I can improve my writing by applying the same technique.	Student 16 reiterated the same notion that both feedbacks are equally important as the students can imitate the same reviewing techniques used by the lecturers when they are reviewing their peers' work.

The comments from the lecturer's markings could guide the students in their review of the others' writings. This echoes with the notion that peer review provides the students a platform where they can observe the teachers' role and learn the process of evaluating one's work (Hanrahan & Issacs, 2001).

5. Limitation

The findings from the study are only from 18 respondents, thus data from a bigger sample should be analysed so generalization can be made. Apart from that, the study was done among the Malay students in UiTM Seri Iskandar; hence, future research should cover the other races from other universities. The whole findings are just retrieved from the students as no interview was made to the lecturer. Thus, the responses from the lecturer should be collected for future study and subsequently gives a better insight to the implementation of peer review in writing class. Finally, majority of respondents believed that lecturer's feedback is more helpful than their peers' feedback, while the rest preferred peer review. However, there is no evidence that their work has improved solely by either one of these feedbacks. Hence, future research should be done by including the analysis of the students' work before and after peer review implementation.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to explore the students' insight on the strengths and weaknesses of peer review in writing classes and the students' preferences between peers' and lecturer's feedbacks for their essay. The analysis from the students' responses revealed that majority of students echoed the same idea that peer review aids them in achieving a relatively good piece of writing. Eight themes of strengths were extracted as compared to only five themes of weaknesses. These students echoed the same notion that when reviewing others' writings, they were more conscious of the important elements of an essay, aware of the strengths and weaknesses of their friends' essays in which enables them to progressively determine the do's and the don'ts in writing essays and subsequently making them to be more conscious of the similar errors that they make in their own writings (Kasper, 1998). Due to this, there were significant effects of peer review on their writing quality after doing the peer review exercises compared to before the activity (Hui, 2006 & Trena, 1999).

Despite the perks, several students claimed that peer review activity triggers the feelings of shyness and humiliation among them. They also believed that some students have a lack of self-confidence when reviewing their peers' work (Sullivan et al., 1999), thus producing low quality reviews which are less helpful. From the analysis as well the students' preferences over their lecturer or peers' feedback can be identified. A majority of the students agreed that lecturers are still seen as a reliable source for students to count on which they are clearly

inclined for more comprehensive, detailed and clear feedback rather than peers (Elwood & Bode, 2014). As the sample of this study comprises only 18 participants and as the study is qualitative in nature, no generalization can be made for the study sample was not a large one. Hence, future study can be conducted with a large and different sample which can provide enough data so generalization can be made. Moreover, perhaps future study can be done by taking the perspective of a lecturer so that the feedbacks from both parties can be drawn to fill in the gap in the knowledge.

Despite this drawback, it can be argued that the findings of this study have shed some light on students' perceptions of peer review in writing class. Therefore, language educators are encouraged to assimilate classroom discussions on error correction, feedback and writing in their classes to help the students to learn how feedback can positively affect their writing. It can also be escalated to the teaching of other language skills or foreign language classroom as it provides students a platform where they can understand the nature of assessment and evaluation (Hanrahan & Issacs, 2001) and consequently improves their own work.

References

Arafat, H. (2011). A Study of Students and Teachers' Preferences and Attitudes towards Correction of Classroom Written Errors in Saudi EFL Context. English Language Teaching. Volume 4, No. 3; September 2011, Pages 128-141

Black N. (1994). Why we need qualitative research. Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health. Volume 48, Issue 5, October 1994, Pages 425–426.

Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. Journal of Second Language Writing. Volume 12, Issue 3, August 2003, Pages 267-296

Cohen, A. (1987). Student processing of feedback on their compositions. In A. Wenden, & J.

Rubin (Eds.), Learner strategies in language learning (pp. 57-69). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Connor, U. & Asenavage, K. (1994). Peer response groups in ESL writing classes: How much impact on revision?. Journal of Second Language Writing. Volume 3, Issue 3, September 1994, Pages 257-276. Elsevier Inc. https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(94)90019-1

Creswell, J.W. (2008). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research. (3rd). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Elwood, J. A., & Bode, J. (2014). Student preferences vis-à-vis teacher feedback in university EFL writing classes in Japan. System, 42, 333-343. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.12.023

Falchikov, N. and Goldfinch, J. (2000). 'Student peer assessment in higher education: A meta-analysis comparing peer and teacher marks', Review of Educational Research 70, 287–322.

Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. TESOL Quarterly, 29(1), 33-53. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3587804

Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2014). Teaching L2 composition: Purpose, process, and practice (3rd). New York: Routledge.

Gibbs, G. R., (2007). 4 Thematic coding and categorizing. Analyzing Qualitative Data. London: SAGE Publications, Ltd

Guardado, M. & Ling, S. (2007). ESL students' experiences of online peer feedback. Computers and Composition 24 (2007), Pages 443–461. Elsevier Inc.

Hanrahan, S.J. and Issacs, G. (2001). 'Assessing self- and peer-assessment: The students' views', Higher Education Research & Development 20, 53–70.

Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1996). Some Input on Input: Two Analyses of Student Response to Expert Feedback in L2. The Modern Language Journal, 80(3), 287-308. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1996.tb01612.x

Hui, T.M. (2006). The effects of trained peer review on EFL students' revision types and writing quality. Journal of Second Language Writing. Volume 15, Issue 2, June 2006, Pages 118-141. Elsevier Inc. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2006.01.003

Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of written teacher feedback on individual writers. Journal of Second Language Writing, 7(3), 255-286. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90017-0

Kasper, L.F. (1998). "ESL writing and the principles of non-judgmental awareness: Rationaleand implementations". TETCY 25: 58-66, available from: http://lkasper.tripod.com/esl.pdf

Kavitha, S. & Rozita, D. (2014). Students' Perspectives on the Use of Peer Feedback in an English as a Second Language Writing Class. Journal of Interdisciplinary Research in Education. Vol. 4, Issue 1, pp. 27-40

Kellogg, R.T. (2008). Training writing skills: A cognitive developmental perspective. Journal of writing research, 1(1), 1-26

Leki, I. (1990). Coaching from the margins: issues in written response. In. B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 57-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524551.008

Leki, I. (1991). The preferences of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. Foreign Language Annals, 24(3), 203-218. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1991.tb00464.x

Li, Z. (2016). Written Teacher Feedback: Student Perceptions, Teacher Perceptions, and Actual Teacher Performance. English Language Teaching; Vol. 9, No. 8. Canadian Center of Science and Education

Liu, N.-F. & Carless, D. (2006). Peer feedback: The learning element of peer assessment. Teaching in Higher Education, 11(3), 279–290.

Paulus, T. M. (1999). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on student writing. Journal of

Second Language Writing. Volume 8, Issue 3, September 1999, Pages 265-289

Penaflorida, A.H. (2002). "Non-traditional forms of assessment and response to student writing:A step toward learner autonomy", in J.C. Richards and W.A. Renandya (eds.), Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University press, 344-53.

Radecki, P., & Swales, J. (1988). ESL student reaction to written comments on their written work. System, 16, 355-365. deepblue.lib.umich.edu/bitstream /2027.42/27547/1/0000591.pdf

Richards, J.C., & Renandya, W.A. (2002). "Assessment", in J.C. Richards and W.A. Renandya (eds.), Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice.Cambridge:Cambridge University Press, 335-37.

Rollinson, P. (2005). "Using peer feedback in the ESL writing class", in ELT Journal, 59,1:23-30.

Strong P. (1992). The case for qualitative research. International Journal of Pharmacy

Practice, 1:185-6.

Sullivan, M.E, Hitchcock, M.A., and Dunnington, G.L. (1999). 'Peer and self assessment during problem-based tutorials', The American Journal of Surgery 177, 266– 269.

Tesch, R. (1990). Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Trena, M.P. (1999). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on student writing. Journal of Second Language Writing. Volume 8, Issue 3, September 1999, Pages 265-289. Elsevier Inc. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80117-9

Awareness of Autism among Parents

Jaida Najihah Jamidin[1], Nur Irdina Izzati Zafarulhisham[2], Nur Solehah Abd Majid[3] and Nur Syuhaida Daud[4]

[1]Fakulti Sains Komputer dan Matematik, Universiti Teknologi Mara Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kampus Seremban
Seremban, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia
jaida5698@uitm.edu.my

[2] Fakulti Sains Komputer dan Matematik, Universiti Teknologi Mara Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kampus Seremban
Seremban, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia
irdinadyno@gmail.com

[3] Fakulti Sains Komputer dan Matematik, Universiti Teknologi Mara Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kampus Seremban
Seremban, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia
nursolehahmajid@gmail.com

[4] Fakulti Sains Komputer dan Matematik, Universiti Teknologi Mara Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kampus Seremban
Seremban, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia
syuhaida1127@gmail.com

Abstract

Autism is a complex neurobehavioral condition that includes impairments in social interaction, developmental language and communication skills combined with rigid and repetitive behaviours. The aims of this study are to identify the awareness level of Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) among parents that have a child with or without autism, and to investigate the relationship between the determinants (knowledge, role of government and community living) with the awareness of autism among parents by using ordinal regression analysis. The study reveals that a majority of parents have a medium level of awareness about autism. While the rest, have an equal percentage which is 20% respectively for high and low level of awareness about autism. From this study, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between knowledge and government role with the level of awareness of autism among parents.

Keywords: Autism, parents' awareness, ordinal regression analysis

1. Introduction

Each birth is a miracle. Babies who are born healthy and normal can bring joyous and happiness to the parents and the rest of the family. However, birth have unexpected risks and processes. Some baby can be exposed to autism. Autism is a complex neurobehavioral condition that includes impairments in social interaction, developmental language and communication skills combined with rigid, repetitive behaviours. Because of the range of symptoms, this condition is now called Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). It covers a large spectrum of symptoms, skills and levels of impairment. Children with autism have trouble

communicating. They have trouble understanding what other people think and feel. This makes it very hard for them to express themselves either with words or through gestures, facial expressions and touch (Smitha Bhandari, 2017).

A child with ASD who is very sensitive, and as such may be greatly troubled by sounds, touches, smells or sights that seem normal to others. Children who are autistic may have repetitive, stereotyped body movements such as rocking, pacing and hand flapping. They may have unusual responses to people, attachments to objects, resistance to change in their routines, or aggressive or self-injurious behaviours. At times they may seem not to notice people, objects or activities in their surroundings. Some children with autism may also develop seizures. And in some cases, those seizures may not occur until adolescence. People with autism show uneven skill development. They may have problems in certain areas, especially the ability to communicate and relate to others. However, they may have unusual developed skills in other areas such as drawing, creating music, solving math problems or memorizing facts.

The case of autism in Malaysia is one of the fastest growing disorders. Autism is a development brain disorder found in children and it is still not getting appropriate attention. There are still a lot of gaps in the minds of Malaysians towards understanding autism. At present, the public and parents still have limited information, knowledge and experience to deal with people who have autism. Some parents out there lack information or are not aware whether they have children with autism or not. However, detecting autism features can be difficult as most non-autistic children sometimes exhibit the same behaviours. Therefore, to detect it, parents need to have an extra effort to understand autism. This it is not only to parents but also to everyone else too.

Several researches have been done over the past few decades by applying various techniques. However, there was not much research being done in analysing the awareness on autism among parents in Malaysia. Therefore, this study is carried out to explore the level of awareness of autism among parents as well as to uncover the knowledge of autism, role of government and community living which are believed to have an effect to the awareness of autism among parents.

2. Literature Review

All the variables comprise both dependent and independent variables. These variables were studied from the previous research to support and give information towards the researchers' current study. Besides that, these variables were also studied whether it will affect the awareness of autism before the researchers conduct the real study.

According to Shamsudin and Abdul Rahman (2014), it was found that about 70% of people are familiar with the word of autism but not all can describe the word autism, the physical appearance of autistic children, the characteristics of autistic children and others, they only know the word autism. The misconception is that some of them think that autistic people are similar to hyperactive people. It shows that the citizens are still not aware of autism, and the misconception of autism makes a huge problem in our daily life. Hence, there are three determinants to assess the level of autism awareness among parents which are knowledge, role of government and community living.

The first determinant is knowledge. Knowledge is a fact, information and the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. It also means knowing about or being familiar with something; in relation to this study, it is about autism. Some researchers (George & Sakeer,

2015) have done a program to know the level of awareness of autism among parents. They give the questionnaire to the parents before and after the program to look at the impact of the program to the parents. Before the program was done, only 19% of them have heard of autism but after the program 99% of them understand and are aware of it. After the program, about 100% of parents agree with the statement that autism is associated with mental retardation. 99% of parents also agree that autism is a genetic disorder and a neurodevelopmental disorder (George & Sakeer, 2015). This shows that there is a relationship between the knowledge of autism and the awareness on autism.

A government is the political direction and control exercised over the actions of the members, citizens, or inhabitants of communities, societies and states. Local authority should provide proper facilities for children with autism. For example, they shouls have more public schools that take autistic students, as well as schools that specialize in care of autism students. According to Eseigbe et al., (2015) there is a limited availability of health services and facilities for neurodevelopmental disorders in Africa. Besides that, the enumerated challenges in the continent can be exacerbated by poor awareness, weak health systems and lack of any institutionalized social support system. Special issues have been identified as confronting management of autism in Nigeria similar to the challenges indicated by the participants, which also include negative attitudinal disposition towards autism. Hence, this shows that there is a rejection of children with autism in special education schools, and lack of facilities, early diagnosis and educational services for autism in health care delivery system.

Community living means being able to live where and with whom you choose, and have a relationship between friends, family and others by (Autism Speaks, t.t). Some parents, they feel ashamed and scared to introduce their autism children to the society. Besides, there are also parents who think it is too early to introduce their autism children to the community (Autism Speaks). They will keep these autism children at home without getting any interaction with the community and the worse situation is that they cannot get a suitable education for them. Either they like it or not, these autism children will have to face the community out there in the future. By exposing these autism children to the community, they can learn how to protect themselves from any dangers. Since more of the young adults live with their parents or guardians, they are less likely to live independently compared to the other peers with disabilities (Ewing, 2013). Therefore, parents play an important role to let and to teach their autistic children to interact with the community so that they can survive on their own.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data Source

For this study, the target population was all residents at five residential areas in Senawang, Negeri Sembilan. The sample of this research was 306 of the population of the five residential areas which were 1622. These 306 samples were taken and the questionnaires were given by referring to the table of required sample size on that particular population (Krejcie & Morgan, 2013).

3.2 Theoretical Framework

This study consists of one dependent variable which is the awareness of autism and three independent variables. The independent variables included are the knowledge of autism, role of government and community living. The variable knowledge of autism is included in the research because it will reveal how the knowledge about autism would affect the level of awareness. This is because knowledge about autism might sometimes lead to the level of awareness on autism. It actually depends on what the respondents know about autism. The researchers also decide to query on the role of government into consideration because the researchers want to know whether the respondents know the role of government towards autistic people. If they know what government has done for autistic people, it can be said that they are actually aware of what autism is. Lastly, the researchers also include community living as the last independent variable to check whether it will affect the level of awareness or not. Some parents feel ashamed of having an autistic child. The researchers want to provide knowledge to the society that autistic children also have their own specialty that has a benefit to others. Autistic people also want to live their lives as ordinary people. Community living can help the researchers to achieve an objective of this study. The theoretical framework for this study is shown below:
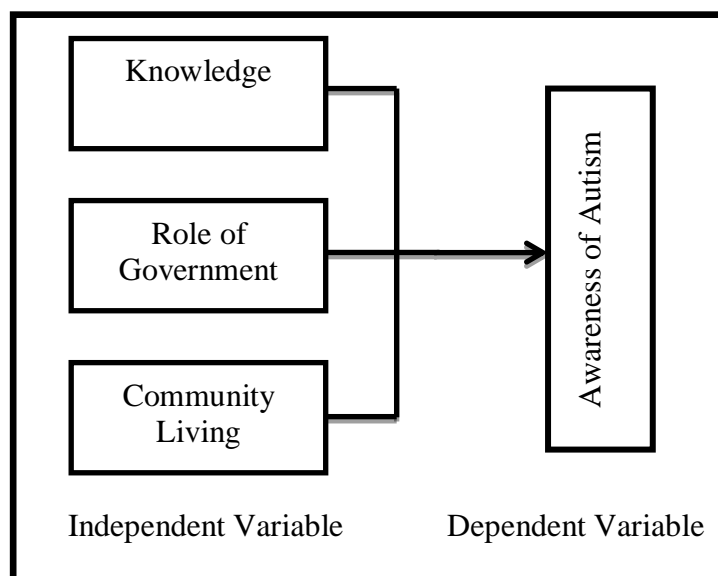

Figure 1: Determinants of Level of Awareness of Autism

3.2 Data Analysis Technique

This research used ordinal logistic regression analysis to determine whether all determinants give a significant effect to the awareness of autism among parents. This technique was used instead of linear regression analysis because of the level of measurement in dependent variable is ordinal. Therefore, the ordinal logistic regression is suitable for this research. There are five assumptions to be fulfilled in ordinal logistic regression technique which are; the dependent variable is measured on an ordinal level, one or more of the independent variables are continuous, ordinal or categorical, no multicollinearity exists, and each of the independent variable has an identical effect at each cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable.

The ordinal logistic regression model is:

$$P(Y_i) = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + X_{1i}\beta_1 + X_{2i}\beta_2 + X_{3i}\beta_3)}{1 + \left[\exp(\beta_0 + X_{1i}\beta_1 + X_{2i}\beta_2 + X_{3i}\beta_3)\right]}, j = 1,2,...,M-1 \tag{1}$$

where;

P	=	The probability of successes of each level of dependent variable
$\exp$	=	The base of natural logarithms
β_0	=	The constant of the equation
$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$	=	The coefficient of the independent variable
Y_i	=	The dependent variable
X_{1i}, X_{2i}, X_{3i}	=	The independent variables

In this research, p-value of Wald statistical test was used to determine the significant determinants in affecting the level of autism awareness. All p-values were rounded by three decimal places and all statistical tests and confidence interval were performed at significance level 0.05.

Last but not least is the use of Cox and Snell R^2 and Nagelkerke R^2. The use of this method is to provide an indication of the amount of variation in the response variable explained by the model. The value of this R^2 must be positive and less than 1.

4. Findings

4.1 Demographic Profiles

Table 1: Respondents' Demographic Profile

CHARACTERISTIC	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE (%)
Gender		
Male	98	32
Female	208	68
Education Level		
Primary school	9	3
Secondary school	128	42
Diploma	84	27
Degree	72	24
Master/ PHD	13	4
Occupation		
Employed	253	83
Unemployed	53	17
Type of Occupation		
Government Sector	83	27
Private Sector Own	126	41
Business	58	19
None	39	13
Household Income		
< RM800	19	6
RM801 – RM1500	52	17
RM1501 – RM3500	130	43
RM3501 – RM5000	52	17
>RM5001	53	17
Number of Children		
1-2	145	47
3-4	125	41
5-6	33	11
>6	3	1
Autism children		
Yes	8	3
No	298	97
Level of Awareness		
Low	60	20
Medium	184	60
High	62	20

It can be concluded that most of the respondents (97%) do not have autistic children, while the remaining 3% of the respondents have autistic children. The researchers also found out that most of the respondents have a medium level of awareness of autism with 184

respondents. This is followed by high and low level of awareness of autism with 62 and 60 respondents respectively.

4.2 Ordinal Logistic Regression

In order to make analysis of ordinal logistic regression, the assumptions of ordinal logistic regression must be fulfilled first. All the five assumptions to be fulfilled in ordinal logistic regression technique which are the dependent variable is measured on an ordinal level, one or more of the independent variables are either continuous, ordinal or categorical, no multicollinearity exist, and each of the independent variable has an identical effect at each cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable have been fulfilled before the analysis was done.

According to the methodology described, there were three selected variables to evaluate the awareness of autism. The coefficient, standard error, Wald statistics and p-value for each variable are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Model Coefficient

Variables	Estimate Coefficient	Standard Error	Wald Statistics	P-value
Level of awareness (Low)	4.978	1.335	13.905	0.000
Level of awareness (Medium)	7.941	1.393	32.475	0.000
Knowledge	0.261	0.071	13.641	0.000
Role of government	0.141	0.141	6.592	0.010
Community living	0.131	0.131	2.727	0.099

Based on this Table 2, the p-value for knowledge and role of government is less than significance level which is 0.05. Therefore, only knowledge and role of government have significant effect to the high level of awareness among parents.

Table 3: Cox and Snell R^2 and Nagelkerke R^2 Model.

Model	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
Full Model	0.401	0.472

Based on the result obtained above, thefull model shows that the Cox & Snell R^2 is 0.401 and Nagelkerke R^2 is 0.472. Hence, it can be concluded that both R^2 value indicate that the total variation of the level of awareness of autism is about 40.1% and 47.2% respectively, explained by all the variables which are knowledge, role of government and community living in the model.

5. Conclusion

From the findings of this research, it shows that more than half of the sample in Senawang, Negeri Sembilan has medium awareness about autism The factors that influence their awareness are knowledge and role of government since the p-value of each variable is less than 5% significance level. As a recommendation, this awareness must be spread to every citizen because according to The National Autism Society Malaysia (NASOM), approximately 9000 children in Malaysia are born with autism every year. Therefore, parents, healthcare providers, educational services and government should double their work in order to develop facilities and programs to spread this awareness.

References

Autism Speaks. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.autismspeaks.org/family- services/tool-kits/transition-tool-kit/community-living

Eseigbe, E. E., Nuhu, F. T., Sheikh, T. L., Eseigbe, P., Sanni, K. A., & Olisah, V. O. (2015). Knowledge of Childhood Autism and Challenges of Management among Medical Doctors in Kaduna State, Northwest Nigeria. *Autism Res Treat, 2015*, 892301. doi: 10.1155/2015/892301

Ewing, R. (2013, September 4). Retrieved from Autism Spectrum Young Adult Transition Studies: http://drexel.edu/now/archive/2013/September/Autism- Spectrum-Young-Adult-Transition-Studies/

George, L., & Sakeer, S. (2015 September). Awareness about Autism among Parents.

International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR), 1525-1530.

Krejcie, & Morgan. (2006). *Sample Size Table*. Retrieved Disember 4, 2017, from http://research-advisors.com/tools/SampleSize.htm

Shamsudin, S. M., & Abdul Rahman, S. S. (June 2014). Awareness, Knowledge And Attitude Of People Towards Children With Autism. 322-332.

Smitha Bhandari. (2017, January 08). *WebMD, LLC*. Retrieved from WebMD Site: https://www.webmd.com/brain/autism/understanding-autism-basics#1

Empowering Learning Motivation and Experience Through Cross-Age Tutoring Community Service Project: Khind Education Hub to Community

Noriah Ismail[1], Carolyn Soo Kum Yoke[2], Haryati Ahmad[3], Deepak Singh Ratan Singh[4], Wan Nor Hafidzah Wan Mohd[5], Norazam Arbin[6], Suhaidi Elias[7], Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri[8]

[1]Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
noriah135@uitm.edu.my

[2] Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies,
UiTM Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kampus Rembau, Malaysia
sooku607@uitm.edu.my

[3]Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
harya395@uitm.edu.my

[4] Lecturer, Academy of Language Studies,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
deepa205@uitm.edu.my

[5] Lecturer, Faculty of Computer and Mathematical Sciences,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
wanno995@uitm.edu.my

[6] Lecturer, Faculty of Computer and Mathematical Sciences,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
noraz574@uitm.edu.my

[7] Lecturer, Faculty of Business and Management,
UiTM Cawangan Johor, Kampus Segamat, Malaysia
suhaidi27@uitm.edu.my

[8] Lecturer, Faculty of Languages and Communication,
Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris, Perak, Malaysia
safinas@fbk.upsi.edu.my

Abstract

This study investigates the perception of ninety primary school students from Sekolah Kebangsaan Kampung Tengah, Segamat, Johor (SK Kampung Tengah) who were involved in a cross-age tutoring community service EDU HUB Project sponsored by KHIND STARFISH Foundation and organized by University Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Cawangan Johor, Malaysia. The project also involved 30 UiTM Cawangan Johor students who acted as the tutors, and six lecturers who were the advisors for the project. The project was carried out for eight weeks in which the Standard Four and Five students from SK Kampung Tengah were provided with special learning modules which focused on providing learning tips and motivation particularly in learning the English Language, Bahasa Melayu, Mathematics and Science. Two sets of questionnaires were deployed among the tutees prior to and after the project was conducted to analyse their perception of the project and the impact it has made on students' learning

confidence and experience. The findings revealed that the tutees enjoyed being involved in the project as it enhances their confidence, learning interest as well as motivation.

Keywords: Cross-age Tutoring, Learning Confidence, Learning Motivation, Community Service

1. Introduction

One of the main objectives of community service projects is to involve students in authentic activities that can develop their social behaviours including better communication skills, learning motivation, learning confidence and interest (Noriah Ismail et al., 2009; Noriah Ismail et al., 2011) as well as enhance their English speaking skills (Noriah Ismail et al., 2014). Astin and Sax (2001) who assessed the impact of community service on academic outcomes, which included language communication, social studies, social behaviour and motivation, found that community service participation provides positive effects on all the outcome measures. Although there are many studies and cited benefits of community service (Gillies, 2013; Giangreco, Broer, & Suter, 2011; Godsey, Schuster, Shearer Lingo, Collins, & Kleinert, 2008; Noriah Ismail et al., 2015), very few have been conducted on the impacts of cross-age tutoring as a community service project among suburban school students. Therefore, the current study would contribute to this particular field of knowledge. For their academic development, students are exposed with authentic learning experiences in which the academic content is taught in a real-life, real-world context. From the exposure, students will gain invaluable practical experience in their related fields which give them the opportunities to prepare, lead and reflect upon their service experiences. The key role of educators is to facilitate learning by creating opportunities for students to understand and analyse their service experiences in the context of their coursework. In addition, students develop their moral and civic values which in turn commit them to a lifelong interest towards voluntary work.

This study analyses the perception of ninety primary school students from SK Kampung Tengah, Segamat, Johor (SK Kampung Tengah) who were involved in a cross-age tutoring community service EDU HUB Project sponsored by KHIND STARFISH Foundation and organized by University Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Cawangan Johor, Malaysia. The study also looks at the impact the project has made on the students' learning confidence. Overall, extensive research in the area of community service related to cross-age tutoring is still few and far between, particularly in the suburban Malaysian context. Therefore, the study hopes to gain further insights into this particular area.

2. Literature Review

Several studies have been conducted on the impact of students' involvement in community service which reported that the students who participated in the programs benefited in several ways. For instance, a study by Eyler and Giles (2000) suggests that students involved in community service are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to increase their level of involvement in the community which helps to enhance their communication and learning skills. In addition, students who are actively involved in community service are able to be inquisitive and are able to enhance their critical thinking skills (Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias@Alias & Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri, 2006; Noriah Ismail et al., 2007; Noriah Ismail & Suhaidi Elias, 2007a). Therefore, community service projects provide students with an opportunity to learn beyond the boundary of the traditional classrooms and give them ample chances to increase their learning skills (Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias & Rafiaah Abu, 2007; Noriah Ismail, Normah Ismail & Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri, 2009; Noriah Ismail et. al; 2015).

In addition, in a study carried out by the Higher Education Research Institute USA, it was discovered that positive impacts of community service on learning include academic performance (GPA, writing skills, critical thinking skills), values (commitment to activism and

racial understanding), self-efficacy, leadership and interpersonal skills, choice of service career and plans to participate in service after college (Astin et al., 2000). Moreover, community service participation showed significant positive effects on academic outcomes, especially writing. These positive effects of service increase the likelihood of the students to further develop their interest in future service programmes. A team of researchers from Ohio University conducted a research on the learning outcomes of Service-Learning. 113 students enrolled in one of the five courses that were grounded with Service-Learning pedagogy. The five courses were interpersonal communication course in Conference Planning, a technical writing course in English, a human resource course in Business Management, a teacher education course, and hearing and speech course in Educational Psychology.

In order to explore students' affective and cognitive responses to these experiences, the research team designed a pre and post-test based on standard measures of attitudes towards the service and perceptions of specific and general learning outcomes. The students claimed to have been able to develop their analytic thinking which increased their ability to understand and ability to apply their knowledge to real problems. More significantly, they gained better awareness of societal problems around them as well as the need to participate in the community in order to contribute to it. In short, not only do they increase their analytical thinking which in turn enhances their academic skills but they also develop their potential to be more responsible members of the community (Musonda Kapatomoyo, 2005).

Students' participation in service learning can create positive learning experiences and can help them to comprehend their course content at the university level. A study by Mc Mahon (1998) used qualitative data for gaining insight into pre-service teachers' experiences and perceptions related to their involvement in community service. The subjects were undergraduate students enrolled in two sections of an early childhood course. Each student volunteered to work a minimum of 10 hours for an organization that served children. The students reflected their experiences by keeping dialogue journals and participating in two reflection sessions. At the end of the semester, students contemplated involvement in community service by responding to a set of open-ended questions in the form of a narrative reaction paper. Reaction papers were individually analysed by two researchers in order to identify the students': (1) overall attitude, (2) learning that occurred, and (3) impact on university life. The result of the study suggests that service in the community can be a valuable learning experience for pre-service teachers. The majority of the participants felt that despite the difficulties, the volunteer hours were valuable learning experience. Also, they reported increased knowledge in regard to themselves, the children they served as well as the community.

A study carried out by Noriah and Rafiaah (2006) analysed student facilitators' perceptions on the benefits of community service especially in regard to the students' communication apprehension. The subjects were asked to respond to a set of questionnaires (PRCA-24) developed by Mc.Croskey (1984) which assessed their communication apprehension level prior to and after their involvement in the community service project organized by their university. The subjects were also asked to respond to another set of questionnaires in order to analyse their perceptions of the project as a whole. The study found that the students view their involvement in community service as beneficial. In addition to a significant reduction in their ESL communication apprehension level, the students also found that their level of interest and motivation to serve the community has increased. Noriah et al. (2015) looked at how a group of 30 UiTM ESL tertiary level students' involvement in the university's community service project as ESL mentors and tutors for younger students has helped them to be more motivated to improve their own English speaking performance as well as their attitude towards community service volunteerism.

Noriah et al. (2006) conducted a study which assessed the impact of community service on tertiary students' ESL speaking performance. The study was in the form of pre and post-test research in which a group of student facilitators from UiTM Cawangan Johor were pre-tested on their speaking skills. The samples were evaluated based on Malaysian University English Test (MUET) speaking components. The subjects were then involved in the university's community service project on cross-age tutoring that required them to provide English lessons for some selected primary school students. After the project, the subjects were asked to sit for a post-test. The results revealed a significant improvement in terms of the student facilitators' task fulfilment, communicative ability as well as their overall speaking performance.

One of the reasons cross-age tutoring works may be that tutors and tutees speak a more similar language than do adult teachers and students. According to Hedin (1987), the tutees who are being taught by a peer or someone closer in age to them feel freer to express opinions, ask questions and risk untested solutions. The interaction between instructor and pupils is more balanced and livelier; this then stimulates the tutors to communicate well with the tutees. Therefore, involving university students in a community service project such as one which provides a cross-age tutoring service to some primary school students is a good move which can bring some positive outcomes not just to the tutees (the primary school students) but to the tutors (the university students) involved as well, especially in terms of their communication skills and learning motivation as well as interest (Noriah Ismail & Zaira Mohd Nor, 2006; Noriah Ismail et al., 2006; Noriah Ismail et al., 2015).

3. The Research

The study analyses the impact of a cross-age tutoring community service project on the learning experience and confidence level of ninety primary school students from SK Kampung Tengah Segamat, Johor. The community service program was sponsored by KHIND STARFISH Foundation and organized by University Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Cawangan Johor.

The programme also involved thirty UiTM students who acted as the tutors and six lecturers who were the advisors for the project. The programme was carried out for eight consecutive weeks in which the Standard Four and Five students from SK Kampung Tengah were provided with four special learning modules which focused on providing learning tips and motivation particularly in learning English Language, Bahasa Melayu, Mathematics and Science.

The learning methods used in the modules include inquiry-based method learning and autonomous learning which stress on students' inquisitive, creative and autonomous learning. The programme was held for one and a half hours for each session which started at 2:00 to 3:30 P.M for two days in a week.

Two sets of questionnaires were deployed among the tutees prior to and after the project was conducted to analyse their perception of the project and the impact it has made on students' learning confidence and experience. The data were analysed quantitatively using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 25. The findings revealed that the tutees found the program to be very beneficial to them. They claimed to enjoy being involved in the project as it enhances their learning confidence, interest as well as motivation.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Impact on Learning

Analysis of the data revealed that the Cross-Age Tutoring Edu-Hub programme has positive impacts on the SK Kampung Tengah students. Based on the first set of the two questionnaires that were deployed on the pupils, in which sixty nine respondents were asked to determine the implication of the cross-age community service project towards their confidence in learning which motivates them to learn new skills, the McNemar pre-test and post-test analysis in Table 1 shows that there is a statistically significant difference in the proportion of confidence level for learning which enhances their motivation to learn, as evident in the result from the pre- and post-program, p = .024.

Table 1: Confidence in Learning

Test Statistics[a]

	Before & After
N of Valid Cases	69
Exact Sig. (2-sided)	.024[b]

a. McNemar Test
b. Binomial distribution used.

4.2 Positive Perceptions of the Programme

In addition, the students perceived the Cross-age Tutoring Community Service Project to be very beneficial for them, and they attended and joined the activities in the program voluntarily. The students claimed that the learning activities provided in the modules were enjoyable and they were able to learn new skills. In addition, the students also perceived that the innovative teaching method and techniques being used were helping them to understand the lessons, and overall they were interested and motivated to learn and would love to join similar programmes in the future.
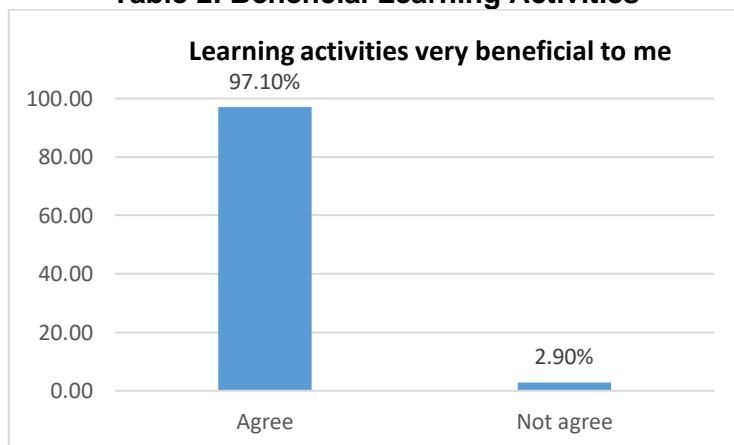
Table 2: Beneficial Learning Activities

Table 2 illustrates a total of 97.10 percent of students agreed that the implementation of this programme benefits many students, especially in understanding concepts and methods. As an example, in the Science module, there were activities that required them to carry out experiments to build a building structure model and at the same time, they could learn about the concept and the requirements to build a strong and stable structure.

Table 3: Program Attendance

I attend this program voluntarily

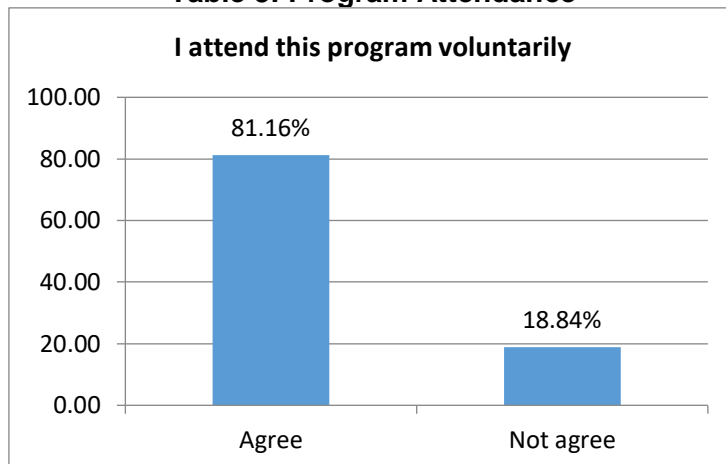Agree: 81.16%
Not agree: 18.84%

Table 3 shows that the majority of the students (81.16%) attended the program voluntarily. Despite the students' packed schedule (as the programme was held during school days and in between their other school activity - an Islamic religion programme at 4:00 P.M), they still enthusiastically volunteered to participate in it. This indicates that primary school students are interested in education-based programmes outside the classroom and are always looking for opportunities for one.

Table 4: Enjoyable Programme

I enjoyed doing activities in this program

Agree: 88.41%
Not agree: 11.59%
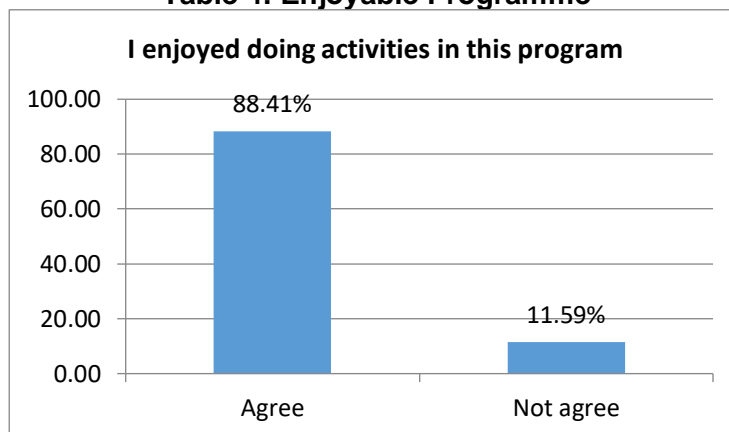
As shown in Table 4, 84 percent of the participants also enjoyed the activities planned for them. This is because there were four interesting learning modules being used which were Bahasa Melayu, English, Science and Mathematics, that were developed specifically for the students who were in standard four and five, based on primary school curriculum. Among the activities used include vocabulary-based songs, picture paintings, mind mapping and so on. The aim of the learning modules was to enhance primary school students' learning interest, motivation and confidence.

Table 5: Time Allocation

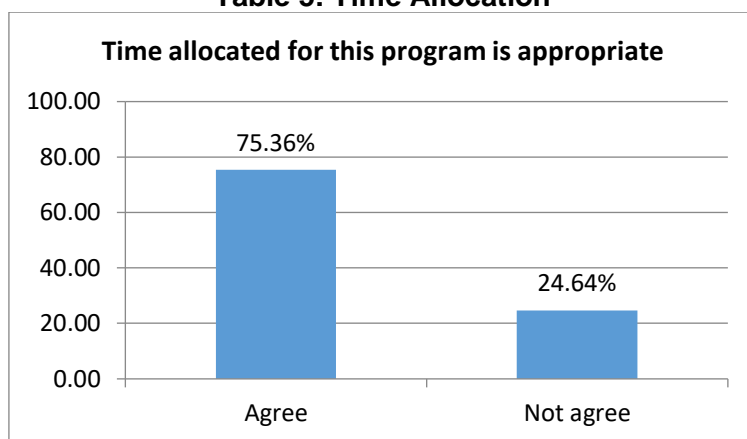**Time allocated for this program is appropriate**

Table 5 illustrates that a total of 75.36 percent of students stated that the time spent on the programme was appropriate, i.e. from 2:00 P.M. until 3:30 P.M. This was because as the students needed to attend a religious programme at 3.30 P.M, the waiting time was filled with the beneficial learning activities from this EDU Hub Programme.

Table 6: Time to Complete the Activities

**I have enough time to complete the given activities**
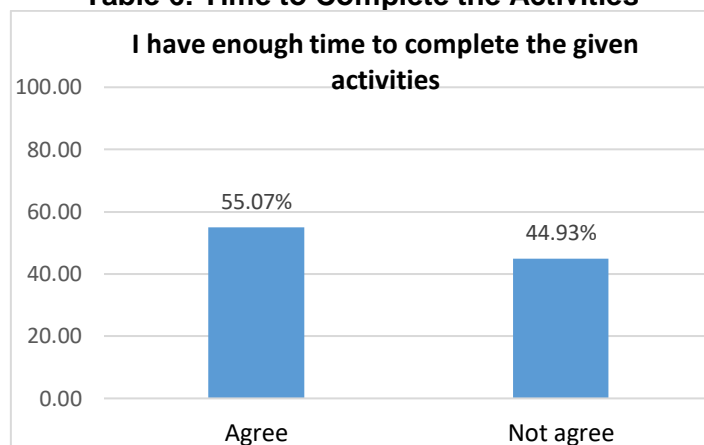
More than half of the students who attended the program stated that they had enough time to complete the activities given with a percentage of 55.07 percent as illustrated in Table 6. This shows that most of them were confident in completing all the learning activities as planned.

Table 7: Opportunity to Learn New Things
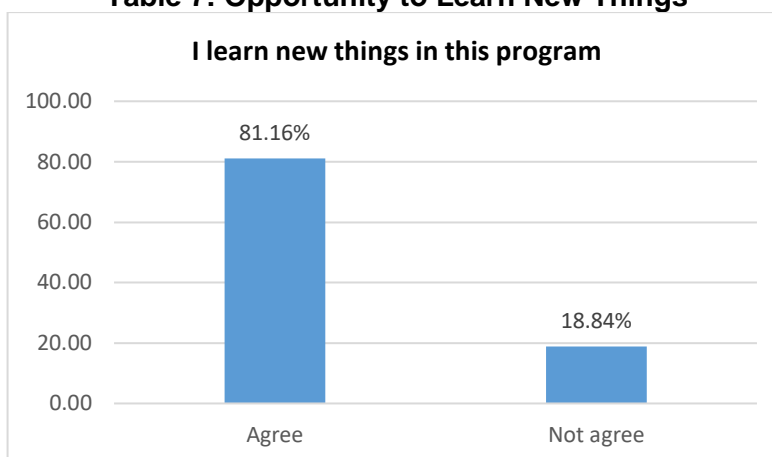
The development of modules used in this programme clearly provides a more interesting and different way of learning than how things are taught in the classroom. Table 7 indicates that a total of 81.16 percent of students said they learned new things through this programme. It was because even though the modules were based on the syllabus, they provided new learning techniques such as learning via inquiry techniques. It also shows that the implementation of activities in the program does not interfere with the syllabus and methods in the classroom, yet provides new opportunities for students to explore and experience different learning styles.

Table 8: Tutors' Teaching Method
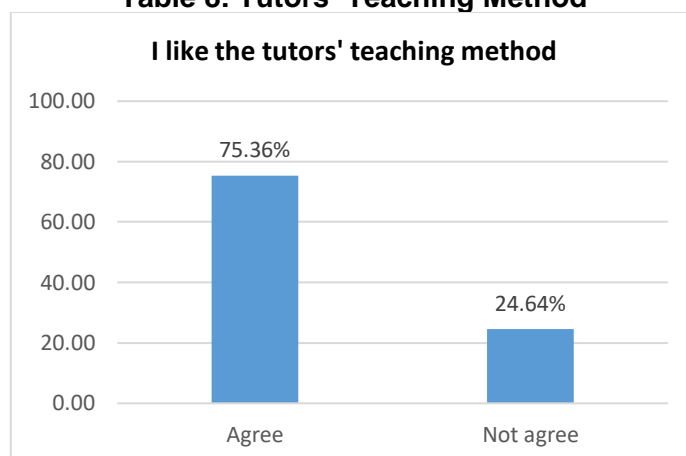
The teaching methods applied by the tutors also help to attract students to perform in all activities. As summarized in Table 8, a total of 75.36 percent of students liked the teaching method, where the tutors gave them clear instructions and guides, and encouraged the students to be inquisitive and creative such as allowing them to ask questions and encouraging them to show their creativity in learning through paintings, singing and other fun activities. The technique of learning through inquiry also taught them to be more independent and able to think creatively and critically especially in solving problems.

Table 9: Tutors Motivate and Give Attention

Tutors keep motivate and give attention to me during activities

72.46%

27.54%

Agree | Not agree
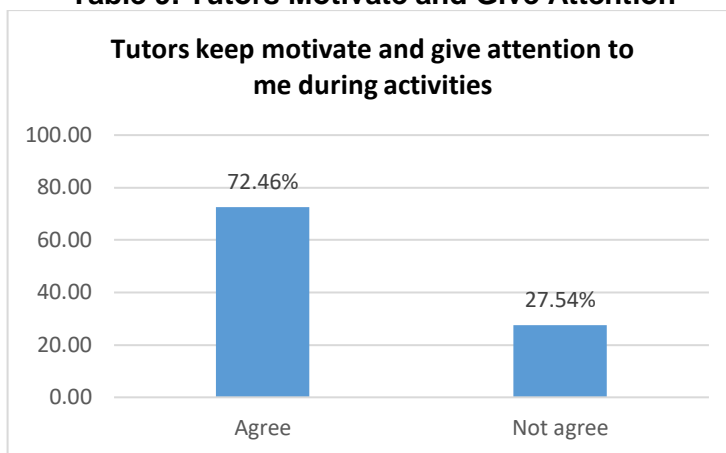
To be able to gain the students' attention during class, especially one in the afternoon, tutors are required to be truly involved and committed in their teaching. Therefore, as shown in Table 9, a total of 72.46 per cent of the students stated that the tutors always showed their enthusiasm and paid attention to the students during the activities. This has a positive effect on the students and contributed to their motivation and interest to learn as the tutors were always ready to assist them in learning.

Table 10: Able to Understand the Lessons

I understand what tutors are teaching

68.12%

31.88%

Agree | Not agree
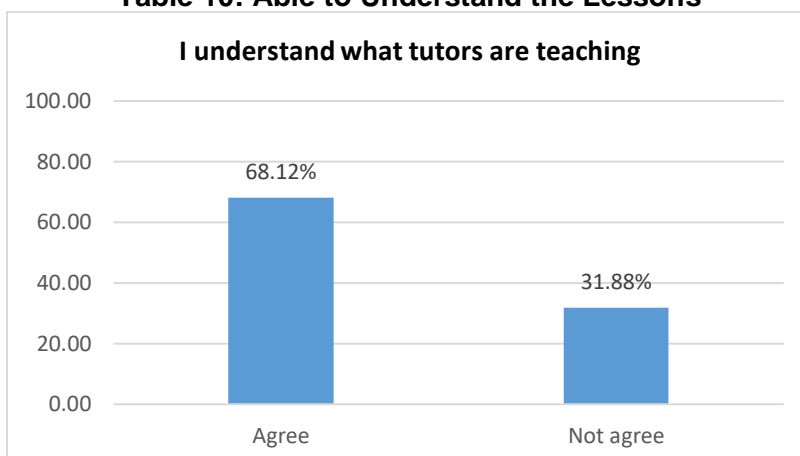
A total of 68.16 percent of students understood what the tutors had taught as indicated in Table 10. In this programme, the students were divided into four classes, and each class was taught by different tutors for each four subjects. From the survey, it is evident that the students were able to understand the lessons being taught by the tutors.

Table 11: Interested to Join Similar Programmes in Future
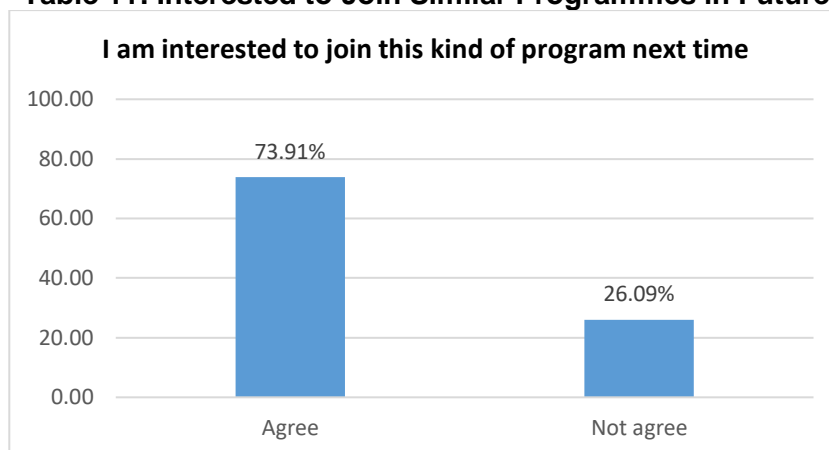
The implementation of such programmes was particularly interesting to the students where 73.91 percent of students said they would be interested to participate in similar programmes in the future if there is any opportunity. Hence, it is evident from this study that being involved in such a community service project does benefit primary school students as they not only enjoy the learning process but they are also able to improve themselves in many ways, particularly in their learning skills and confidence which make them feel good about themselves and become more motivated to be involved in future community service projects.

5. Conclusion

From the findings, the students perceived the Cross-age Tutoring Community Service Project to be very beneficial for them. One of the significant findings is that the programme helps the students to enhance their confidence in learning and increase their learning interest and motivation. These findings are similar to the studies carried out by Astin and Sax (2001) as well as Gillies (2013) on cross-age tutoring community service which indicates enhanced learning motivation and interest for the tutees. In addition, this study found that the students involved claimed the learning activities provided in the modules were enjoyable and they were able to learn new skills. These findings support earlier similar studies which found that cross-age tutoring as well as community service involvement benefits students as they provide students with an opportunity to learn beyond the bounds of the traditional classrooms and give them ample chance to increase their learning skills (Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias & Rafiaah Abu, 2007; Noriah Ismail, Normah Ismail & Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri, 2009; Noriah Ismail et. al; 2015). Furthermore, in this study, the students also perceived that the innovative teaching method and techniques being used helped them to understand the lessons, and overall, they were interested and motivated to learn and would love to join similar programs in the future.

References

Astin, A. & Vogelgesang, L. (2001). *How Service Learning Affects Students*: *An Executive Summary*. U.S.A: Higher Education Research Inst. Inc.

Astin, A & Sax, L. (2001). How Undergraduates are affected by Service Participation. *Journal of Student Development*, 39, 251-263.

Deepak Singh Ratan Singh, Noriah Ismail & Intan safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri. (2012). A Study on The Relationship between Learners' Informal Exposure to English and Their Achievement in the Malaysia University English Test MUET. *English Language Journal. 5*(1): 94-112

Eyler, J. & Giles, D. (2000). *Where's the Learning in Service Learning*? San Francisco   C A: Inc.

Hedin, D. (1987). Students as Teachers: A Tool for Improving School." *Social Policy.* 17, 42-47.

Gillies, A. (2013). The cross-age tutoring experience for students with and without disabilities. International *Research in Early Childhood Education.* 4 (1): 105-126.

Greenwood, C.R.; Dcarta, J. J.; and Hall, v. (2003).The Use of Peer-Tutoring strategies in Classroom Management and Educational Instruction. *School Psychology Review.* 17, 258-275.

Noriah Ismail & Rafiaah Abu. (2006). Cross-Age Tutoring: How Do ESL Student Facilitators Benefit? *15th MELTA International Conference 2006.*

Noriah Ismail & Zaira Mohd Nor. (2006). Facilitating For Self-improvement: The Voice of Student Tutors. *The Science and Art of Language in Teaching International Conference. 20-22 November 2006.* Pulau Pinamg Malaysia.

Noriah Ismail, Kamalanathan Ramakrishnan, Zaira Md.Nor & Intan Safinas Ariff Albakri. (2006). *Enhancing English speaking performance of student facilitators through cross-age tutoring: A community service project. The Sixth Malaysia International Conference on English Language Teaching (MICELT)*. Universiti Putra Malaysia. Hotel Equatorial Melaka. May 8-10 May, 2006.

Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias@Alias & Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri. (2006). Inquiry-based learning: A new approach to classroom learning. *English Language Journal, 2*(1), 13-22.

Noriah Ismail & Suhaidi Elias. (2007a). Making A Difference: Serve To Learn. *Academic Journal of Social Studies*. 7(1): 1-14.

Noriah Ismail & Suhaidi Elias. (2007b). Enhancing Tertiary Students' Diversity And Academic Achievements Through Service Learning. *Academic Journal of Social Studies. 6*(1):17

Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias & Rafiaah Abu (2007). Implementing Inquiry-Based Learning: An Innovative Method for Proactive Students. *12th International Conference on Education*. Universiti Brunei Darussalam, 21-24 May 2007.

Noriah Ismail, Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri, Suhaidi Elias@Alias & Rajentharan Subbiah. (2011). The Benefits of ESL Community Service Project for ESL Student Tutors. *English Language Journal, 4*:67-74.

Noriah Ismail, Suhaidi Elias & Deepak Singh Rattan Singh (2015). Empowering ESL Student Tutors' ESL Learning motivation and Speaking Performance through Community Service Project. *Proceeding of The 9th Annual International Technology, Education and Development Conference, INTED 2015,* Madrid, March 2–4. pg: 1977-1981.

Rekrut, M.D. (1992). Teaching To Learn: Cross-Age Tutoring to Enhance Strategy Acquisition. San Francisco, CA.

Banking Fragility and Financial Crisis: Evidence from Southeast Asia

Norashikin Ismail[1], Mohamad Azwan Md Isa[2], Nurul Farhana Mazlan[3], Nor Hadaliza Abd Rahman[4]

[1]Senior Lecturer of Finance
Faculty of Business and Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Johor Branch,
Segamat Campus, Johor, Malaysia
noras479@uitm.edu.my

[2]Senior Lecturer of Finance
Faculty of Business and Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Johor Branch,
Segamat Campus, Johor, Malaysia
moham821@uitm.edu.my

[3]Lecturer of Finance
Faculty of Business and Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Johor Branch,
Pasir Gudang Campus, Johor, Malaysia
nurul504@uitm.edu.my

[4]Lecturer of Finance
Faculty of Business and Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Johor Branch,
Segamat Campus, Johor, Malaysia
hadaliza@uitm.edu.my

Abstract

Throughout the 17 years of study period, the Southeast Asian countries were faced with three forms of financial crises namely Asian financial crisis, subprime crisis and currency crisis. Previous literatures have evidenced that banking fragility has been closely associated with financial crisis. Hence, this paper aims to construct the banking sector fragility index (BSFI) during the different forms of crises. Three Southeast Asian countries were selected based on their common economic fundamentals and top three largest gross domestic product (GDP) per capita i.e. Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia which were studied from the year 2000 to 2016. The results indicate the Indonesian and Thailand banking sectors were seriously fragile after the Asian financial crisis (1997-1999). However, the fragility of banking sectors for these countries including Malaysia had diminished during the sub-prime crisis (2008-2009). Worst scenario repeated for the Indonesian banking sector when the currency crisis emerged in early 2014. Similarly, Malaysian banking sector confronted the worst level of fragility for the country following the depreciation of Malaysian ringgit against the US dollar at the end of 2014 to early 2015. This study shows that the three countries' banking sectors have responded differently to the three forms of financial crises.

Keywords: BSFI, Banking fragility and financial crisis, Southeast Asia

1. Introduction

The middle of 1997 was a starting date of the Asian financial crisis. It was a sequence of currency devaluations started in Thailand as the government was unable to keep the currency peg, the Baht to the U.S. dollar (USD). This Baht crash spread vigorously to other nearby countries like Malaysia, Indonesia and Philippines. The situation negatively affected those countries' stock market, import revenues, government control and banking system. Banking system was the most affected during the crisis. The breakdown in interbank markets made the major central banks inject large liquidity capital and pursue tightened monetary stance to minimize the currency disorder. At the same time, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank offered monetary supports and conditions to rescue the regional banking system from total downfall. So, Thailand, Indonesia and Philippines adopted the IMF protective measures to ensure their currency stability. The IMF intervention and strict monitoring had slowed the regional economic slump. By year 1999, the countries' currency situation slowly recuperated.

After ten years, the 2008 sub-prime crisis occurred. Asian economies had experienced a secular rise in debt levels relative to their national income. As reported in the BBVA research report (2014), bank loan to GDP ratios had risen most rapidly across Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia. More importantly, most Asian economies faced high credit growth during 2011. This included Vietnam (34%) and Indonesia (30%), while Philippines experienced a late pick up in year 2014 with an average of 32%. Also, the operating environment for Asian banks had become increasingly tougher owing to spikes in global financial market volatility, sharp depreciation in domestic currencies and significant rise in interest rates over the period of 2014-2015 and protracted slowdown in consumption and investment demand.

Banking fragility has been defined as vulnerability to financial crisis that eventually leads to serious breakdown in market functioning such as disruption in financial intermediation, credit crunch or lack of financing for new investments and consumption activities (Allen & Gale, 2000). The financial crises are more likely to occur in less concentrated banking systems due to the absence of powerful providers of financial products that could reap benefits from the high profits (Allen and Gale, 2004).

With regards to this, it is crucial to conduct a study on banking fragility for Southeast Asian countries such as Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia. Thus far, it was found that no studies have been conducted on the banking sector fragility index (BSFI) in the Southeast Asian region. Therefore, this study aims to develop BSFI for Southeast Asia specifically Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia. The proposed index will identify the different levels of fragility across the different banking crises that occur in these countries.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows: Section 2 presents literature review on banking fragility and financial crisis. Section 3 explains the construct of measuring BSFI. Section 4 discusses the level of banking fragility across three countries during the financial crises. Finally, section 5 draws some conclusions and recommendations.

2. Literature Review

The 2008-2009 subprime crises had led to banking crises that resulted in damage and instability of financial institutions such as Lehman Brothers in the United States (U.S.). Kicking off with asset bubble in the U.S., the subprime crisis drove the mortgage crash and ultimately crushed the housing and banking calamity. According to Krugman (2009), the main impact of banking crisis instigated among investment and merchant banks, which was then outspread to commercial banks.

There have been a notable number of studies focused on early warnings of banking crises. Among them are Guarin, Gonzalez, Skandalis and Sanchez (2014), Lozano and Guarin (2014), Degryse, Elahi and Penas (2013), Demirguc-Kunt and Detragiache (1998) and Gonzalez-Hermaosilo and Billings (1997). Nevertheless, there were limited number of studies found on banking crises and financial fragility in Asia Pacific. In this regard, it is vital to conduct a study on banking fragility specifically on Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia, the Southeast Asian's top three largest economies by GDP per capita for 2018, which were most affected by the financial crisis.

Degryse et al. (2013) stated that a region's banking system characteristics play a significant role in explaining regional banking system fragility. They found that higher liquidity and larger capitalization are among the banking system characteristics that contributed to reduce regional banking system fragility. Seemingly, bank liquidity can be seriously affected by financial crisis as the time when assets are rendered less than their nominal value and causing losses (Choon, Hooi, Murthi, Yi & Shven, 2013). Meanwhile, Vodová (2011 & 2013), and Bunda and Desquilbet (2008) reported a negative correlation between financial crisis and bank liquidity.

Hanggraeni (2018) revealed that more competition could lower bank fragility or instability in the Indonesian banking industry during normal times. However, the competition-fragility connection does not hold during a financial crisis, where she indicated that market power has influenced in minimizing bank fragility during financial crisis. Therefore, she concluded that the effects of competition on bank fragility depend on the economic state. Hanggraeni's finding is consistent with Nguyen and Le (2015) and Fernández and Garza-García (2015), who asserted that escalating bank competition helps to improve the banking system stability in Vietnam and Mexico respectively. Nonetheless, the Vietnam commercial banking system experienced instability and increased NPLs due to rising competition during the financial crisis. Meanwhile, greater bank competition intensified overall bank portfolio risks in Mexico. Nevertheless, the advantages on the overall stability compensated for the growth in bank portfolio risks due to the fairly low amounts of NPLs in the Mexican banking sector.

On the contrary, De-Ramon, Francis and Straughan (2018) remarked that on average, competition reduces stability, but its impact differs across banks depending on their fundamental financial condition. They evidenced that escalating competition motivates financially fragile banks to minimize costs, reduce portfolio risk and expand capital ratios, thus vitalizing their stability through increases in their profitability and capital. On the other hand, competition discourages healthier banks to enhance capital ratios, thus diminishing their stability. They added that competition weakens market power and lowers bank values. This stimulates banks to undertake more risk to boost returns, hence lowering bank stability. Sosa-Padilla (2018) explained that sovereign default (of government debt) contributes to banking crisis. The default does not merely cause depletion in banks' assets value, but also prompt a credit crunch, where banks have to limit their lending to high-yielding private sectors and at a higher financing cost. In the wake of the banking crisis throughout the default period, it consequently results in huge fall in GDP output specifically as in the case of Argentina during 2001-2002.

Rauch (2015) studied stability of the U.S. dual banking system over the period 2005-2008 taking into consideration the 2007-2008 global financial crisis. As measured by the CAMEL score methodology, national banks have diminished their fragility after the surging of the financial crisis as compared to state banks, where national banks rigorously restricted their liquidity creation and amount of loan growth to protect against feasible liquidity crunches and limiting the risk of losses in future. The study remarked that public statements and publicly

available information from the regulatory agencies failed to foresee the full scope of financial crisis in reducing the banks fragility.

Hatipoglu and Peksen (2018) concluded that economic restrictions could contribute to a larger probability of systematic banking crises by worsening the target economies' macroeconomic circumstances and restraining their access to international capital. Their findings also indicated that financial restrictions are more damaging to the stability of banking systems than trade restrictions.

Vives (2018) cautioned the governments and regulators that the growth of shadow banking and unsupervised banking activity could render prevalent impacts on banking instability and systemic risk. The possible implications from the emergence of fintech and bigtech firms such as Amazon and Google must be taken into account notably by the banking system. He suggested that well-designed regulation might relieve the competition-financial stability trade-off that arises due to regulatory deficiency or failure. Gibson, Hall and Tavlas (2018) pointed out banking system vulnerability to external distress, where the greater vulnerability would cause greater impact out of the distress. The banking vulnerability was soaring preceding the eruption of global financial crisis such as the UK, German and France with banks susceptible to highly risky assets. The level of impact was most notably high and varied in Greece, Italy and Spain which had been connected with the euro area sovereign debt crisis since 2008.

Mirzaei (2019) revealed that the financial crisis had adverse impact on 31 UAE banks, where the banks lost significant level of market power during the crisis particularly among less capitalized and less efficient banks. Surprisingly, the banks with large market share also felt the impact of the crisis. He added that financial crisis terribly shrank banks' performance in developed or emerging markets. Meanwhile, Pak (2017) proved that banks' stability in Kazakhstan has worsened since the 2008 global financial crisis due to forceful lending activities and relying heavily on short term large-scale funding. Other factors such as considerable bank size and commitment in securities' investments also contribute to the slumping banks' stability for the periods following the crisis. He suggested that more diverse funding arrangements in short term could have improved the banks' stability besides the essential for equity capitalization in intensifying the Kazakhstani banking system and financial sustainability in long term.

Degl'Innocenti, Grant, Šević and Tzeremes (2018) proposed that the capacity to enhance banks' stability together with financial centres' stability in a highly competitive environment acts as a protective measure against the global financial crisis's negative impacts. Higher stability materializes the improvements in innovation and technological change particularly for large banks. In addition, they noted that the most efficient banking systems are located in Western-Central Europe, Northern Europe and Asia. Anginer, Demirguc-Kunt and Mare (2018) studied the relationship between banks' capital and countries' institutional environment alongside the effects of both factors on the fragility of publicly traded banks in 61 countries. The countries, which render superior public-private supervision and great extent of information availability, recorded lower effect of capital on their banks' fragility. On the contrary, the capital shows larger effect on minimizing the banks' fragility for smaller and less developed countries. This is due to inefficient monitoring on the financial institutions and lower amount of information available to the public in those countries.

3. Data Sources and Mathematical Modelling

The measurement of fragility level in Southeast Asia starts by identifying risk factors associated with banking sector. The risk factors which consist of liquidity, exchange and credit risk are the main components in constructing Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI) for Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand. The sample includes monthly data extracted from individual balance sheet, income statement and ownership structure data reporting in Bankscope Database and website of Central Bank of Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand. The data commenced from year 2000 to 2016.

Table 1: Construct of BSFI

Economic risks	Proxy	Data source
Liquidity risk (Massive bank runs)	Bank real total deposit (DEP)	1. Bankscope Database
Exchange rate risk	Foreign liabilities (FL)	2. Central Bank of Malaysia, Bank of Indonesia and Bank of Thailand websites
Credit risk (Rising NPL)	Bank Claims on Private Sector (CPS)	

Table 1 shows the selection of variables used to construct BSFI. Monthly data for DEP, FL and CPS are collected and then BSFI is transformed into annualized term. Kibritcioglu (2003) has developed BSFI on his study of fragility in Mexico. This study replicates the BSFI developed by him with some modification on sample size and study period. BSFI is derived from economic risks, which is associated with banking sectors. The index developed is useful to measure the levels of fragility and risk-taking within Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand. Table 1 presents the risk components of BSFI. The calculation considered an average of standardize value of annual changes in CPS, DEP and FL, where μ and σ stand for the arithmetic average and standard deviation of these variables respectively. (Refer to Equations 1, 2, 3 and 4).

$$BSFI_t = \frac{\left(\frac{CPS_t - \mu_{cps}}{\sigma_{cps}}\right) + \left(\frac{DEP_t - \mu_{dep}}{\sigma_{dep}}\right) + \left(\frac{FL_t - \mu_{fl}}{\sigma_{fl}}\right)}{3} \qquad \textit{Equation 1}$$

$$CPS_t = \left[\left(\frac{TCPS_t - TCPS_{t-1}}{TCPS_{t-1}}\right)\right] \qquad \textit{Equation 2}$$

$$DEP_t = \left[\left(\frac{TDEP_t - TDEP_{t-1}}{TDEP_{t-1}}\right)\right] \qquad \textit{Equation 3}$$

$$FL_t = \left[\left(\frac{TFL_t - TFL_{t-1}}{TFL_{t-1}}\right)\right] \qquad \textit{Equation 4}$$

The index introduces the trend of fragility as explained by five different phases. In Figure 1, the trend starts with upward trend in phase I, where the value is above zero and indicates that the situation is free from unfavourable signs. However, the chances of the banking sector being fragile in the long run begin to increase. During phase II, rising panic leads the value drop and consistently decreasing as downward trend is now replacing the upward trend. The value starts to drop below zero during phase III and approaching borderline crisis and medium fragile.

The momentum of the trend continues vulnerable and experience highly fragile with the probability of crisis had occurred during phase IV. Last stage which is phase V represents recovery stage. The crisis is over and the value of index will be very close and equal to zero.
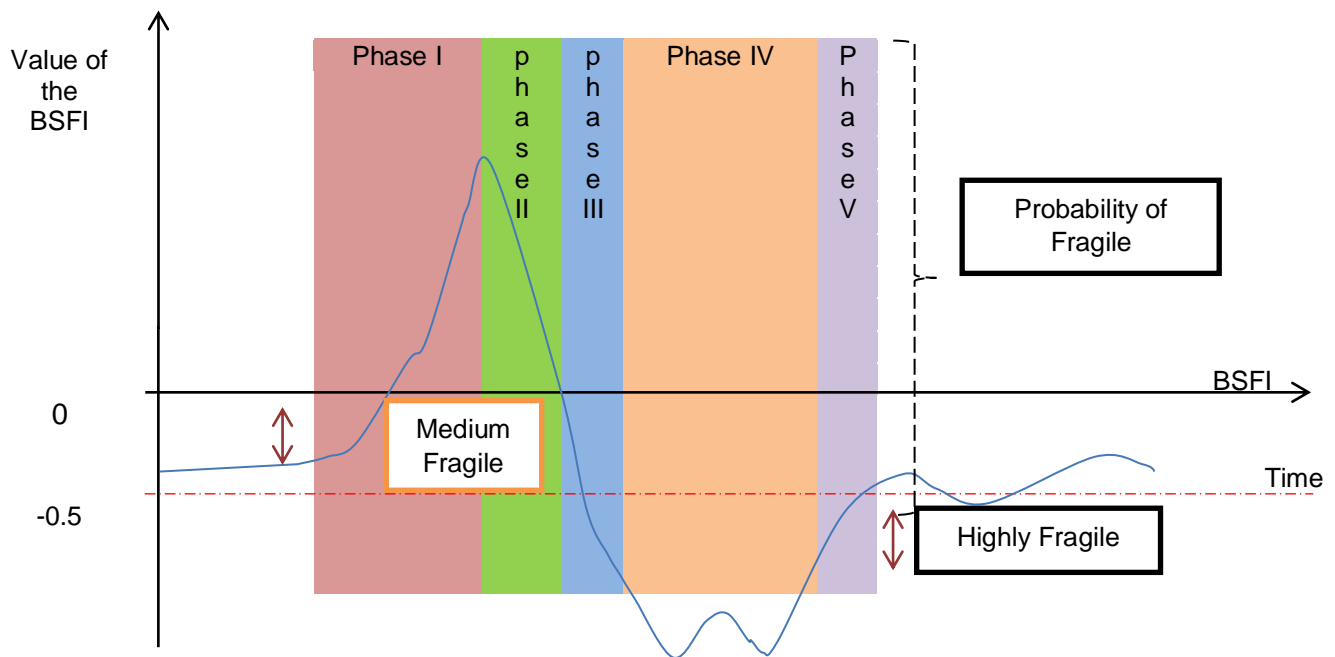
Figure 1: Time Path of the BSFI and Five Phases of a Hypothetical Banking Crisis

Figure 1 illustrates the different levels of fragility based on the value of BSFI. There are five phases of BSFI.

4. Empirical Analysis and Discussion

This section presents the result of banking sector BSFI for Southeast Asia specifically Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia. The construct of BSFI was adopted from Kibritcioglu (2003) with some modifications. Essentially, the development of BSFI for each country and financial crisis is addressed.

4.1 Measurement of Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI)

We start the analysis by calculating BSFI of individual countries (Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia) for each year. Over the period from 2000 to 2016, there were three major financial crises namely Asian financial crisis (early 2000), global financial or subprime crisis (2008 -2009) and currency crisis (2014-2015). Apparently, the impact of Asian crisis (1997 - 1999) to the banking sector of these countries was really bad when BSFI was the highest in 2001 with -3.82 and -3.42 for Indonesia and Thailand respectively (Figure 2). During this Asian crisis, Thailand government became unable to maintain its currency peg to dollar. This scenario spread to Indonesia as well as South Korea. Eventually, it forced some of the affected governments to construct social protection policies. For instance, Indonesia and Thailand were rescued by International Monetary Fund (IMF) with conditions attached.
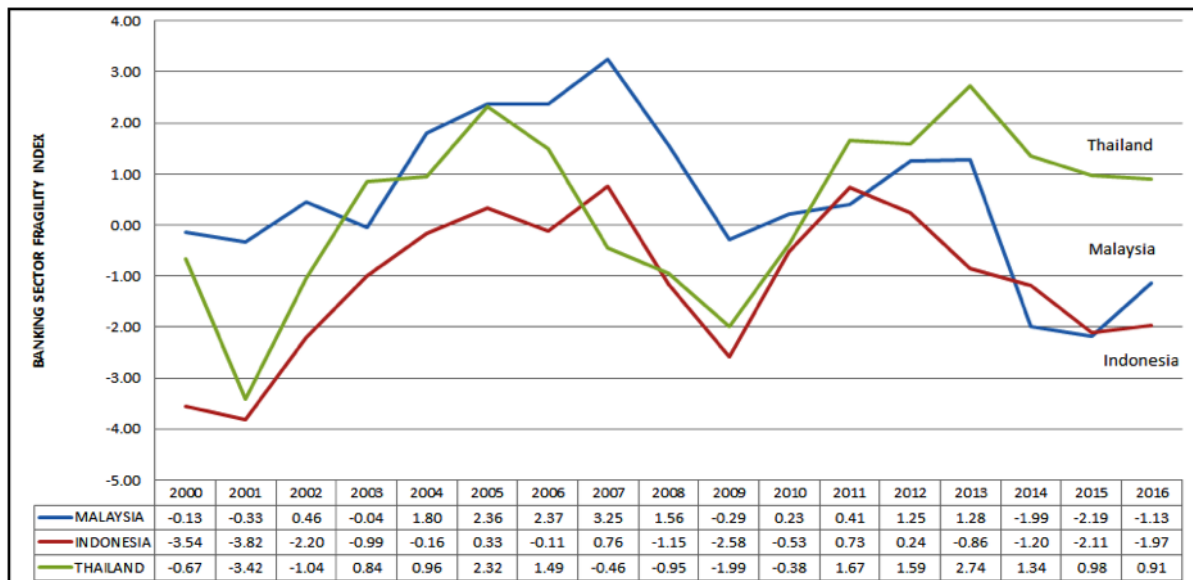
Figure 2: Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI) for Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand

Surprisingly, the subprime crisis did not much affected as compared to Asian crisis for Southeast Asia. Figure 2 shows that subprime crisis was associated with higher BSFI of -2.58 and -1.99 for Indonesia and Thailand respectively in year 2009. As for Malaysia, the banking sector was moderate and less fragile to subprime crisis when the BSFI was -0.29. It reveals that banking fragility of these countries was less connected to subprime crisis that occurred in early 2008. A consequence for economy was a deterioration of exports to developed countries during 2008-2009 and these Southeast Asia experienced a fall in real gross domestic product (Rasiha, Cheong & Doner, 2014).

Unfortunately, the appreciation of US dollar which started in early 2014 caused currency crisis for Asia particularly in Malaysia and Indonesia. Clearly, Malaysia achieved the BSFI of -1.99 while Indonesia -1.20 in year 2014. In addition, the issue of currency crisis pushed the BSFI to be -2.19 and -2.11 in Malaysia and Indonesia respectively for year 2015. In contrast, Thailand was not affected by currency crisis when the BSFI was positive and stable for the last three years. Our findings are consistent with Degryse, Elahi and Penas (2013) and Frankel and Rose (1996).
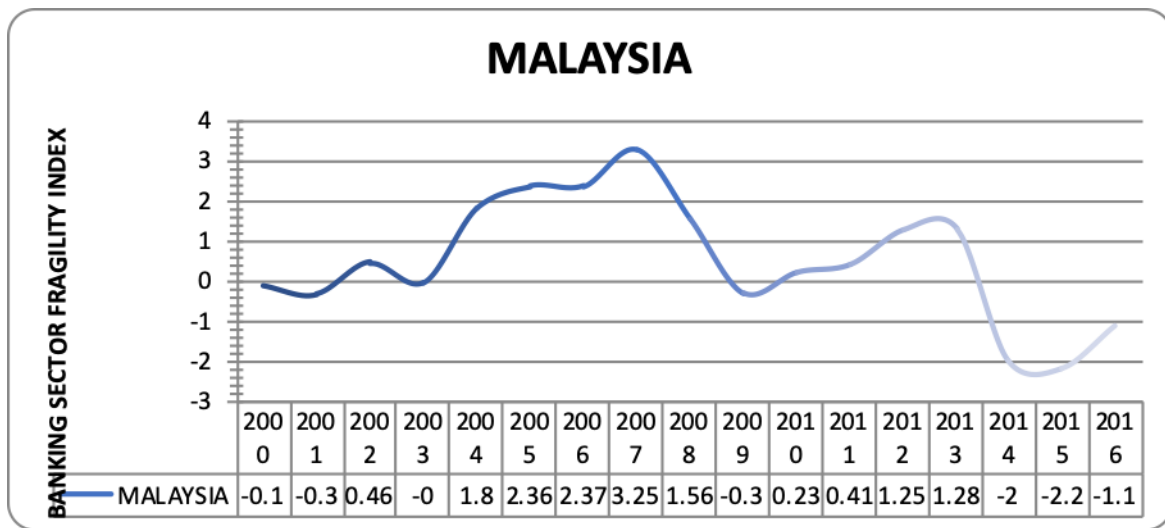
Figure 3: Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI) for Malaysia

Referring to Figure 3, the Malaysian banking sector was loosely fragile following the Asian financial crisis with the BSFI recorded at -0.13 and -0.33 in early 2000. A recovery stage began in year 2002 with BSFI of 0.457 but experienced a slight fragile in 2003. Subsequently, the banking fragility had significantly improved for the next four years with the BSFI ranged from 1.7982 to 1.561 in year 2004 and 2008 respectively. This scenario happened because Malaysian government has used monetary and fiscal policies to stimulate economic recovery and the sector's willingness to take excessive risk.

In addition, the subprime crisis in late 2007 had led the BSFI to deteriorate. Based on Figure 3, the BSFI dropped from 3.25 to 1.561 in year 2008. Southeast Asia market economies were victim of this global crisis that began in 2008 (Rasiha et al., 2014). A negative scenario with a drop of the BSFI had continued until 2009 before it showed a marginal positive trend between 2009 and 2013. In the late of 2013, a second wave of banking fragility occurred in Malaysia in the wake of currency crisis. It reveals that the BSFI increased from -1.99 to -2.19 over the period from 2014 to 2015. Eventually, the BSFI improved to -1.13 in year 2016. Tremendous exchange rate depreciation against the US dollar had affected Malaysian banking fragility. This disruptive scenario is referred to currency crash as stated by Frankel and Saravelos (2012) who found real exchange over valuation to be leading indicators of subprime crisis. The fact is Malaysian banking fragility was mostly connected to currency crisis.
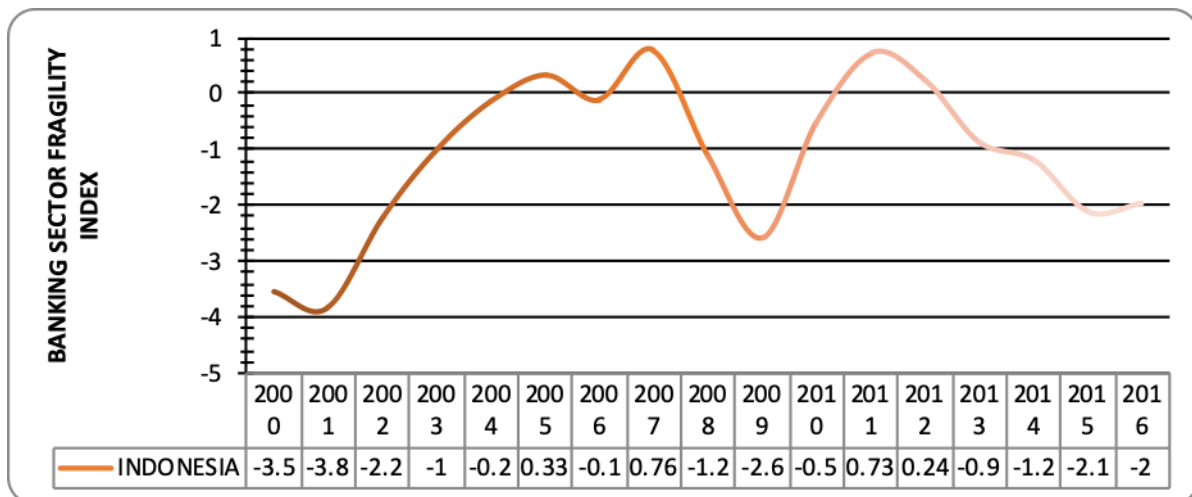
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
INDONESIA	-3.5	-3.8	-2.2	-1	-0.2	0.33	-0.1	0.76	-1.2	-2.6	-0.5	0.73	0.24	-0.9	-1.2	-2.1	-2

Figure 4: Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI) for Indonesia

Figure 4 illustrates the movement of BSFI in Indonesia. The graph shows the BSFI was highly volatile and peaked in 2001, 2009 and 2015. The Indonesian banking sector was seriously affected by Asian financial crisis, where the BSFI was reported to be -3.5 and -3.8 in early 2001. This was because Indonesia was faced with massive exposure to debt service problems. The Southeast Asian economies suffered a critical debt service problem with high non-performing loans (NPLs) of Indonesian banking sector at 48.6%. From 2001 onwards, the banking sector became better and less fragile until 2004. During this period, the BSFI was within a range of -2.2 to -0.2. In 2005, the banking sector improved and it was classified as not fragile before slightly becoming fragile in 2006 and recovering in 2007.

The country's banking sector was again severely crashed by subprime crisis over the period of 2008 and 2009, which the BSFI had fallen from -1.15 to -2.58. In early 2010, the situation began to recover and indicated uptrend until end of 2011. Nevertheless, the banking fragility had just moderated for a short period before it stumbled for a few years repeatedly. The Indonesian banking sector was also affected by currency crisis as the BSFI pullback downward in 2013. Figure 4 reveals the BSFI had increased from -0.86 to -2.11 in the years 2013 to 2015. Still, the BSFI was reported continuously to show the sign of fragility until 2016. In summary, Indonesian banking fragility was relevant in three financial crises happened during the sample period.
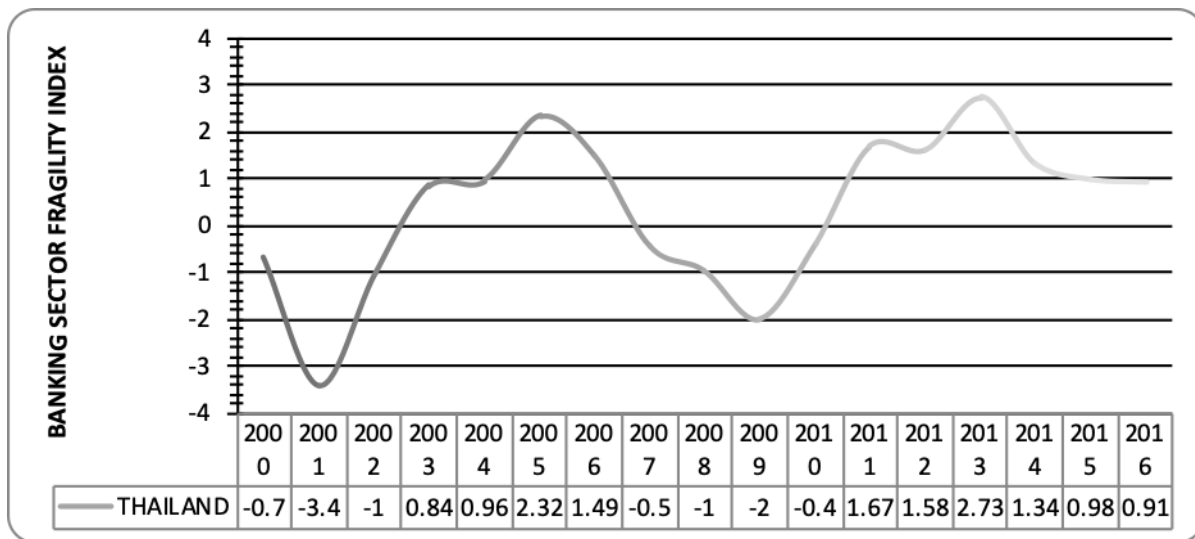
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
THAILAND	-0.7	-3.4	-1	0.84	0.96	2.32	1.49	-0.5	-1	-2	-0.4	1.67	1.58	2.73	1.34	0.98	0.91

Figure 5: Banking Sector Fragility Index (BSFI) for Thailand

Figure 5 shows the trend of BSFI)in Thailand. The BSFI was at the highest level in 2001 and 2009. Similarly, Thailand had been disrupted by Asian financial crisis. Figure 5 illustrates the BSFI had continued to increase from -0.67 to -3.42 in the years 2000 to 2001.This indicates the banking sector in Thailand seemed to be in the stage of high risk as the BSFI continued to increase. While, starting in 2002, the direction of the BSFI was augmented significantly above zero and improved from 0.844 in 2003 to 2.324 in 2005 as depicted in Figure 5. However, the BSFI dropped badly from 1.492 in 2006 to -1.99 in 2009. This reveals that banking fragility was associated with subprime contagion that hit US in late 2007. Thailand banking sector was considered as taking excessive risk during Asian financial crisis as compared to subprime crisis.

On the contrary, the Thailand banking sector performed better and less fragile in 2010 as the BSFI was only -0.38. It appeared that BSFI had been augmented to 2.7361 in 2013. Improvements in banking fragility had started from 2011 onwards as its BSFI shows positive value. Surprisingly, Thailand was one of the Southeast Asian countries that was not seriously affected by currency crisis in late 2013. The resilience of the Thailand banking sector continued until 2016 though the BSFI that showed a downward trend from 1.34 in 2014 to 0.913 in 2016. Apparently, Thailand banking fragility was only connected to Asian financial crisis as well as subprime crisis.

5. Conclusions

The three Southeast Asian countries had been affected by the financial crises for the past 16 years. This study aims to evaluate the level of banking fragility by constructing banking sector fragility index (BSFI) of these Southeast Asian countries. The construct of BSFI is similar to Kibritcioglu (2003) but with some modifications. This BSFI could assist the banking sectors to prepare for the cycle of fragility. The findings found that all the banking sectors in Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand were found to be fragile in the early 2000s due to the impact of Asian financial crisis. During subprime crisis, the fragility of Malaysian banking sector had lessened as compared to Thailand and Indonesia. The emergence of currency crisis was associated to the banking fragility of Malaysia and Indonesia. Essentially, currency crisis and Asian financial crisis had influenced the banking fragility in Southeast Asia. The banking sectors must come up with contingency plans and effective strategies in confronting unpredictable financial crisis or otherwise they have to face consequence of fragility that adversely affects overall financial performance. The government must come up with effective

monetary and fiscal policies that could boost and strengthen the country's banking sector. Further research could be undertaken involving other emerging economies from other parts of the world to gauge full scenario of banking sectors' fragility.

Acknowledgments

References

Allen, F. and Gale, D. (2000). Bubble and crises, *Economic Journal,110*, pp. 236-255.

Allen, F. and Gale, D. (2000). Financial contagion, *The Journal of Political Economy*, 108, pp. 1–33.

Allen, F. and Gale, D. (2004). Competition and financial Stability, *Journal of Money, Credit and Banking*, 36, pp. 453.

Anginer, D., Demirguc-Kunt, A., Mare, D.S. (2018). Bank capital, institutional environment and systemic stability, *Journal of Financial Stability*, 37, pp. 97-106.

Bunda, I. and Desquilbet, J.B. (2008). The bank liquidity smile across exchange rate regimes, *International Economic Journal*, *22* (3), pp. 361-386.

Choon, L. K., Hooi, L. Y., Murthi, L., Yi, T. S., and Shven, T. Y. (2013). The determinants influencing liquidity of Malaysia commercial banks, and its implication for relevant bodies: Evidence from 15 Malaysian commercial Banks. 〈http://eprints.utar.edu.my.

De-Ramon, S. J. A., Francis, W. B. and Straughan, M. (2018). Bank competition and stability in the United Kingdom, *Staff Working Paper No. 748*, Bank of England.

Degl'Innocenti, M., Grant, K., Šević, A., and Tzeremes, N. G. (2018). Financial stability, competitiveness and banks' innovation capacity: Evidence from the global financial crisis, *International Review of Financial Analysis*, 59, pp. 35-46.

Degryse H., Elahi, M. A. and Penas M. F. (2013). Determinants of banking system fragility: A regional perspective, European Central Bank (ECB) *Working Paper*.

Demirguc-Kunt, A. and Detragiache, E. (1998), The determinants of banking crises: Evidence from developing and developed countries, *IMF Staff Papers*, 45, 81-109.

Fernández, R. O., and Garza-García, J. G. (2015). The relationship between bank competition and financial Stability: A case study of the Mexican banking industry, *Ensayos Journal of Economics, 34* (1), pp. 103-120.

Frankel, J. and Rose, A. (1996). Currency crashes in emerging markets: An empirical treatment, *Journal of International Economics,* 41 (3/4), pp. 351-366.

Frankel, J. and Saravelos, G. (2012). Can leading indicators assess country vulnerability? Evidence from the 2008-2009 global financial crisis, *Journal of International Economics,* 41 (3/4), pp. 351-366.

Gibson, H.D., Hall, S.G., and Tavlas, G.S. (2018). Measuring systemic vulnerability in European banking system, *Journal of Financial Stability*, 36, pp. 279-292.

Gonzalez-Hermosilo, B. and Billings, R. (1997). Determinants of banking system fragility: A case study of Mexico*, IMF Econ Review,* 44, pp. 295-314.

Guarin, A., Gonzalez, A. Skandalis, D. and Sanchez, D. (2014). An early warning model for predicting credit booms using macroeconomic aggregates, *Ensayos Sobre Politica Economica*, 32 (73), pp. 77-86.

Hanggraeni, D. (2018). Competition, bank fragility, and financial crisis, *banks and bank systems*, 13 (1), pp. 22-36.

Hatipoglu, E. and Peksen, D. (2018). Economic sanctions and banking crises in target economies, *Journal Defence and Peace Economics*, 29 (2), pp. 171-189.

Kibritcioglu, A. (2003). Monitoring banking sector fragility, *The Arab Bank Review, 5* (2), pp. 51-66.

Krugman, P. (2009). The return of depression economics and the crisis of 2008, New York: Norton.

Lozano, I. and Guarin, A. (2014). Banking fragility in Columbia: An empirical analysis based on balance sheet, *Banco de la Republica de Colombia,* 32, pp. 48-63.

Mirzaei, A. (2019). Market power among UAE banks: The 2008 financial crisis and its impact, *The quarterly review of economics and finance*, 71, pp. 56-66.

Nguyen, T. L. and Le, A. H. 2018. Bank competition and financial stability: Empirical evidence in Vietnam, *International Econometric Conference of Vietnam (ECONVN): Econometrics for Financial Applications*, pp 584-596.

Pak, O. (2017). Business drivers of bank stability in Kazakhstan, *Review of Integrative Business and Economics Research*, 7, pp. 11-15.

Rasiah, R, Cheong,K.C. and Doner R. (2014). Southeast asia and the Asian and global financial crises, *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 44 (4), pp.572-580, 〈http://dx.doi.org//10.1080/00472336.2014.933062.

Rauch, C. (2015). Bank fragility and the financial crisis: Evidence from the U.S. dual banking system, *International Banking in the New Era: Post-Crisis Challenges and Opportunities*, pp. 33-86.

Sosa-Padilla, C. (2018). Sovereign defaults and banking crises, *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 99, pp. 88-105.

Vives, X. (2018). Competition and stability in modern banking: A post-crisis perspective, *EARIE maastricht meeting*, IESE Business School.

Vodova, P. (2013). Determinants of commercial bank liquidity in Hungary. *Finansowy Kwartalnik Internetowy e-Finanse*, 9 (4), pp. 64-71.

Vodova, P. (2011). Liquidity of Czech commercial banks and its determinants. *International Journal of Mathematical Models and Methods in Applied Sciences*, 5 (6), pp. 1060-1067.

Influence of Servant Leadership on Job Satisfaction : A Study of Land and Survey Department

Kuldip Singh

Faculty of Administrative Science and Policy Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA(UiTM), Malaysia
kuldip@sarawak.uitm.edu.my

ABSTRACT

Servant leadership has been found to bring positive benefits to an organization and its employees. This study examines the influence of servant leadership on job satisfaction in the Land and Survey Department (LSD). In this study, the structured questionnaire survey was carried out. Eighty two (82) questionnaires collected and were analyzed accordingly to test the various hypotheses. The measurement items were rated with 5-point Likert. Goodness of measures were performed with SPP software and all items measured were found to be reliable and valid. The results indicate that servant leadership is positively correlated with job satisfaction. In addition, all dimensions of service leadership are also significantly correlated with job satisfaction. The study also found no significance difference in job satisfaction based on demographic factors. These results imply that servant leadership in the public sectors is highly correlated with job satisfaction and that demographic factors do not make a difference in the level of job satisfaction in the selected organization. This study provides insights on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the public sector. The findings of this study may help public sector to better understand servant leadership and its effect on job satisfaction.

Keywords: Servant leadership, Job satisfaction, Public sector, Leadership

1. INTRODUCTION

Today's world is more turbulent, chaotic, and challenging than ever before (Kanter, 1995). Organizational changes are becoming a major component of everyday organizational life. The competitive edge of companies no longer relied on its product, but in its people (Ulrich, 2002). People are the lifeblood of organizations, and they represent the most potent and valuable resources of organizations (Gunnigle, Heraty & Morley, 1971). Organizations are faced with new challenges to develop great leaderships which can help these organizations sustain its human resources competitive advantage. The new leadership focused more on service and stewardship rather than remaining a system of controls and procedures. The servant leadership concept is based on the philosophy of "servant leadership," a term coined by Robert K Greenleaf; "It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first," Greenleaf wrote. "Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead." *Servant Leadership moves beyond the theoretical and demonstrates how organizations*

achieve and sustain their competitive advantage through service leadership. It argues that leadership is essentially an act of service; that the more responsible the leadership position, the greater the responsibility to serve.

Sauter (1996) defines healthy workplaces as any organization that "maximizes the integration of worker goals for well-being and company objectives for profitability and productivity". The staff of an organization are important to the welfare of the organization. When staff members are not satisfied in their job, their performance, attitudes, staff relations, and commitment to the organization have the potential to suffer. Leadership is an action performed among and with people Barna (1997). When employees are dissatisfied at work, they would be less committed and would become emotionally or mentally withdrawn from the organization (Shirbagi, 2007). The researcher's purpose for this study is to determine if any relationship existed between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the public sector.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Servant Leadership

Leadership is a skill used to influence followers in an organization to work enthusiastically toward goals specifically identified for the common good (Barrow, 1977). Frick (2004) has mentioned that the term servant leadership was first coined in a 1970 by Robert K. Greenleaf. The theory of servant leader emerged when Greenleaf (1997) defined the role of the leader as servant. The leader is responsible to serve others by being a seeker of the needs, wants and wishes of those to be served before aspiring to lead (Bugenhagen, 2006). Once they know how to support those they serve, the leader's obligation is to lift up those being served and while being served these followers may indicate to meet the needs of others through their own servant leader behavior.

Becoming a servant leader begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve and focus on the followers, whereby the followers get more attention and concern compared to the organization (Patterson, 2003). The central idea of servant leadership theory is that the servant-leader is first a servant. The servant leader's primary objective is to serve and meet the needs of others, which optimally should be the prime motivation for leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Servant Leadership becomes a guiding philosophy in an increasing number of companies such as Toro Company, Synovus Financial Corporation, ServiceMaster Company, the Men's Wearhouse, Southwest Airlines, and TDIndustries (Spears, 2004). According to Spears (2010), since the time Robert Greenleaf birthed the paradoxical servant leadership term, many thinkers are writing and speaking about servant leadership. Servant leadership can be viewed as an emerging leadership paradigm for the 21st century (Spears, 2010).

Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Handeson (2008) develop a servant leadership instrument which consisted of 7 dimension such as: emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skill, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first and behaving ethically. The servant leadership is comprised of seven components or dimensions:

- Emotional healing, which involves the degree to which the leader cares about followers' personal problems and well-being. It includes recognizing others' problems and being willing to take the time to address them. Servant leaders who exhibit emotional healing make themselves available to others, stand by them and provide

them with support. Studies suggest that negative feelings have adverse effects on job performance and satisfaction (McConville & Cooper, 2003).

- Creating value for the community, which captures the leader's involvement in helping the community surrounding the organization as well as encouraging followers to be active in the community. They are involved in local activities and encourage followers to also volunteer in community services. Creating value for the community is one way for leaders to link the purposes and goals of an organization with the broader purposes of the community.

- Conceptual skills, reflecting the leader's competency in solving work problems and understanding the organization's goals. This capacity allows servant leaders to think multifaceted problems, to know if something is going wrong, and to address problems creatively in accordance with the overall goals of the organization.

- Empowering, assessing the degree to which the leader entrusts followers with responsibility, autonomy, and decision-making influence. Empowerment builds followers' confidence in their own capacities to think and act on their own because they are given the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way they feel is best. Breau & Réaume (2014) determined that empowering behaviours are compelling predictors of job satisfaction, Amundsen & Martinsen (2014) described relational-oriented behaviors on empowering and its positive influence on job satisfaction.

- Helping subordinates grow and succeed, capturing the extent to which the leader helps followers reach their full potential and succeed in their careers. Servant leaders make followers' career development a priority, including mentoring followers and providing them with support. At its core, helping followers grow and succeed is about aiding these individuals to become self-actualized, reaching their fullest human potential. Studies have shown that relationship-oriented leadership, particularly the behaviors of sharing, supporting and developing, are associated with job satisfaction (Wong et al., 2013)

- Putting subordinates first, assessing the degree to which the leader prioritizes meeting the needs of followers before tending to his or her own needs. It means using actions and words that clearly demonstrate to followers that their concern is a priority, including placing followers' interests and success ahead of those of the leader. It may mean a leader breaks from his or her own tasks to assist followers with theirs. (Terosky & Reitan (2016).

- Behaving ethically, which includes being honest, trustworthy, and serving as a model of integrity. It is holding to strong ethical standards, including being open, honest, and fair with followers. Servant leaders do not compromise their ethical principles in order to achieve success. Vitell & Davis (1990a) examined empirically the relationship between ethics and job satisfaction for 61 Management Information System (MIS) professionals. Their results indicated that MIS professionals were more satisfied with the various measured dimensions of their job (pay, promotions, co-workers, supervisors, the work itself) when top management stresses ethical behavior.

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a broad concept that affects both the employees' well-being and organizational health. One of the most popular definitions of job satisfaction belongs to Edwin Locke (1976) which says that job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from one's job or job experiences" (Lock, 1976). According to Armstrong (2006) job satisfaction depends on attitude and feelings of an individual toward his work. Vrooms (1964) definition, on the other hand, focuses on the role of the employee in his workplace. According to the definition, job satisfaction describes workers' affective orientation regarding the current job role that he is occupying (Aziri, 2011). Another very popular definition of job satisfaction belongs to Spector (1997) who describes it as the way in which people feel about their job and its diverse facets (Aziri, 2011).

Numerous studies have been conducted to examine if a relationship exists between servant leadership and job satisfaction. These studies show similar findings and most of them are consistent regarding the fact that there is a strong relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The link between leadership style and job satisfaction has been well-established (Hu et al., 2010). This has been attributed to leaders who have the ability to empower their employees, which in turn leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2011).

These psychologically empowering behaviors are mirrored in the servant leadership literature, showing the positive links between servant leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). In relation to the servant leadership job satisfaction literature, the link to increasing job satisfaction draws upon the competencies and characteristics shown by the servant leader (e.g. Cerit, 2009; Ding et al., 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011). As behaviours shown by servant leaders such as open communication, empowerment and respect for employees have previously been linked to higher levels of job satisfaction (Ma & MacMillian, 1999), the presence of a servant leader in an organisation should in theory increase job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009) These studies have tended to focus on the direct relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (e.g. Cerit, 2009; Ding et al., 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011),

Research among employees of telephone companies showed that servant leadership is positively and significantly linked to employees' satisfaction from the job (Sepahvand, Pirzad, & Rastipour, 2015). Furthermore, a study that explored the relationship between servant leadership and core self-evaluation and job satisfaction, showed that servant leadership predicts both core self-evaluation and job satisfaction and that core self-evaluation also predicts job satisfaction among working adults in white collar jobs in three U.S. companies (Tischler, Giambatista, McKeage, & McCormick, 2016). According to Ding and co-workers servant leadership is linked to employee satisfaction which plays mediating role between servant leadership and employee loyalty (Ding, Lu, Song, & Lu, 2012).).

Laub (1999) indicated the more an employee perceived servant leadership characteristics were being implemented by the leader in the workplace, the greater the degree of individual job satisfaction. Research is limited in determining a correlation between servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction. The research studies which have been performed have supported a correlation between servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Drury, 2004; Washington, 2007). Research found that servant leadership behaviors have positive relationship with job satisfaction (Caffey, 2012; Amadeo, 2008). Similarly, Miears(2004) investigated that servant leadership style is one of the main leadership styles

which has considerable influence upon teachers' job satisfaction. Various researchers (like Girard, 2000; Laub 1999; Thompson, 2003; Hebert, 2003, Miears, 2004; Irving, 2005) had investigated the relationship between servant leadership behavior and job satisfaction. Lashbrook (1997) stated that leadership style plays a vital role in influencing employees' job satisfaction.

3. Methodology

This study aims to explore the relationship between service leadership and job satisfaction. A survey design was used to reach the research objectives. The specific design was the cross sectional design, where a sample is drawn from a population at a particular point in time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). About 82 employees returned back the questionnaire giving a response rate of 82 %. Servant leadership was measured using a scale developed by Liden .et.al (2008). Job satisfaction was measured using an instrument called Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss et.al (1967)). Results of the instrument's Cronbach Alpha measurement show that the score of reliability is above .80 which indicates an acceptable level. This is summarized in Table 1 below.

3.1 Research Framework

This study defined service leadership as independent variables and defined job satisfaction as a dependent variable to explore the influence of independent variables on the dependent variable. The research framework is as shown in Figure 1.This study proposed the following hypotheses with regard to servant leadership, demographic variables and job satisfaction based on the research purpose and framework

H1:   There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction

H2   There is a significant relationship between servant leadership dimensions (emotional healing, creating value for community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates, putting subordinates first and behaving ethically) and job satisfaction

H3:   There exists a significant difference in job satisfaction across the various demographic variables (gender, marital status, job category, educational level, length of service, and age)
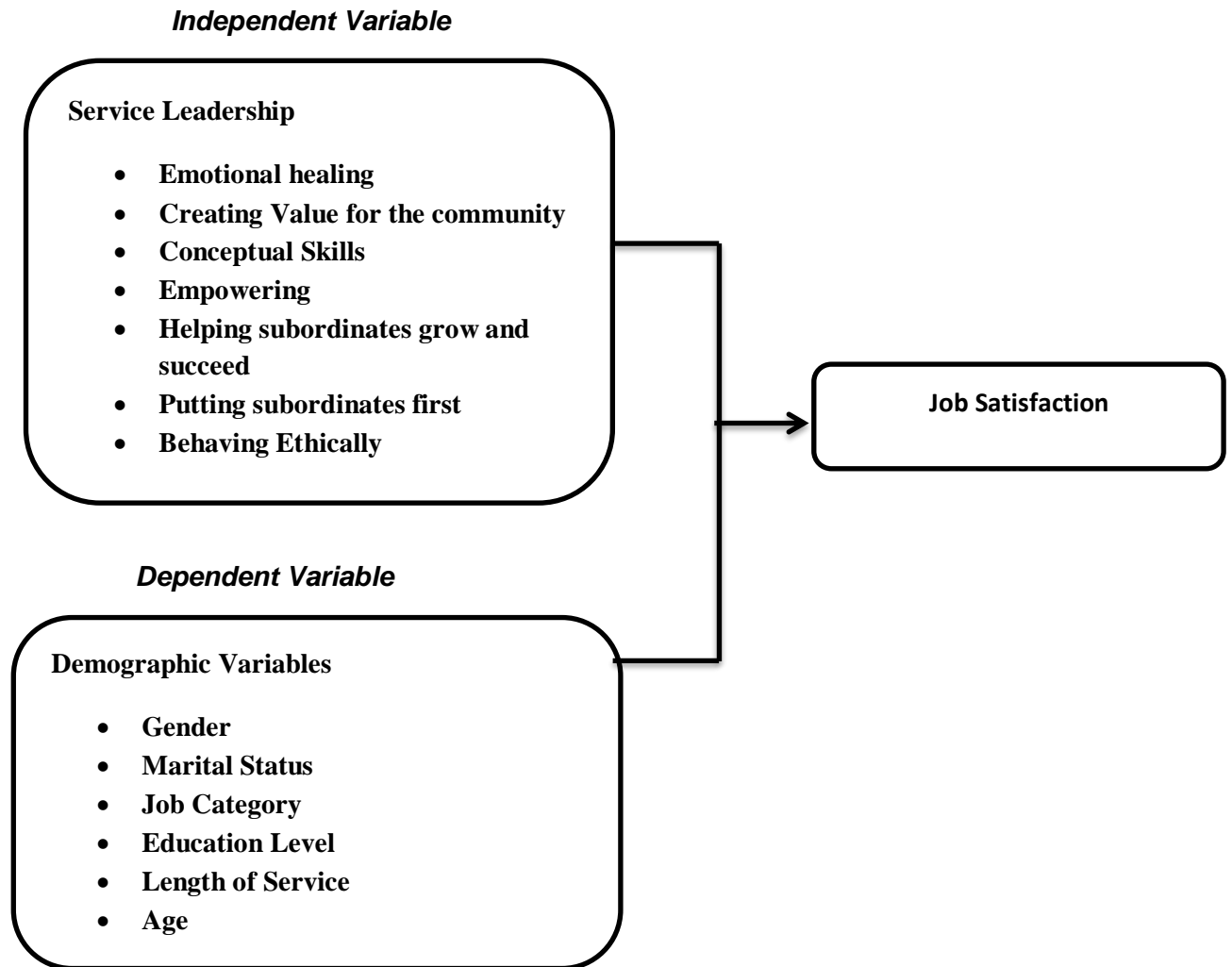
Independent Variable

Service Leadership

- **Emotional healing**
- **Creating Value for the community**
- **Conceptual Skills**
- **Empowering**
- **Helping subordinates grow and succeed**
- **Putting subordinates first**
- **Behaving Ethically**

Job Satisfaction

Dependent Variable

Demographic Variables

- **Gender**
- **Marital Status**
- **Job Category**
- **Education Level**
- **Length of Service**
- **Age**

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

The majority of the respondents were female (68.3 percent) and aged between 31 to 50 years old (65.8 percent) and mostly were married (65.4 percent). The majority of the respondents were Malay (32.1 percent) followed by Bidayuh (25.9 percent). About 55.24 percent of the sample had either Diploma or SPM qualification. As for the length of service 52.6 percent had served for 7 to 15 years. About 68.4 percent of the respondents were from the Support Group 1. This is summarized in Table 2.

Table 1: Reliability Analysis, Mean and Standard Deviation Scores (N=82)

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	S. D.
Servant Leadership	28	.939	3.70	.568
Job Satisfaction	20	.883	3.84	.439

Table 2: Respondent's Profile (N=82)

Profile	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Gender		
Male	26	31.7
Female	56	68.3
Age		
Below 30 years old	21	25.6
31- 40 years old	32	39.0
41-50 years old	22	26.8
51-60 years old	8	9.7
Race		
Malay	26	32.1
Iban	21	16.0
Bidayuh	16	25.9
Chinese	13	19.8
Others	5	6.2
Marital status		
Single	28	34.6
Married	55	65.4
Education's level		24.4
SPM	20	12.8
STPM	10	30.8
Diploma	25	18.3
Degree	15	8.5
Others	7	
Length of services		
1- 6 years		23.1
6 -10 years	19	20.7
10- 5 years	17	30.4
More than 15 years	25	23.1
	19	
Job Category		12.7
Management &	10	68.4
Professional Group	54	19.0
Support Group 1	15	
Support Group 2		

4. The Results

Based on Table 1, the mean score for both service leadership (mean 3.70) and job satisfaction (mean 3, 84) is high (Best & Kahn, 2003). In addition, the study found a strong positive relationship between service leadership and job satisfaction (r = 0.613; p< 0.01). This indicates that service leadership is associated with higher job satisfaction. H1 is accepted. In addition, all dimensions of servant leadership had positive relationships with job satisfaction: Emotionally healing (r = .473, p<0.01), creating value for community (r=.606, p< 0.01), conceptual skills (r=.571, p<.0.01), empowering (r=.454, p<.0.01), helping subordinates (r=.4535 p<.0.01), putting subordinates first (r= .451, p< 0.01) and behaving ethically (r= .550, p<.0.01). Thus H2 is accepted. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 4 on the other hand, shows no significance difference in job satisfaction and selected demographic variables such as gender, marital status, job category, educational level, and age (p<0.05) except for length of service. Thus H3 is rejected. However, there is significant difference in job satisfaction and length of service (p <0.05) in which 1 to 6 years and over 15 years length of service have significantly different mean job satisfaction levels.

Table 3: Correlation between Service Leadership Dimensions and Job Satisfaction

Variables	Job Satisfaction (r value)
Servant Leadership	.613**
• Emotionally healing	.473**
• Creating value for community	.606**
• Conceptual skills	.571**
• Empowering	.454**
• Helping subordinates	.435**
• Putting subordinates first	.451**
• Behaving ethically	.550*
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level	

Table 4: T-test: Job Satisfaction: Gender and Marital status

Variable	Characteristics	mean	T -value	Df	Sig.
Gender	Male Female	3.78 3.86	.825	80	.412
Marital Status	Single Married	3.91 3.79	1.163	80	.248

Table 5: One Way Anova: Job category, Educational level, Length of Service, Age and Job Satisfaction

Variable	Characteristics	Mean	F-value	Df	Sig.
Job Category	Professional & Management Group Support Group 1 Support Group 2	3.90 3.84 3.76	.258	79	.855
Educational level	SPM SPTM Diploma Degree Others	3.71 4.01 3.91 3.76 3,86	1.142	76	.343
Length of service	1-6 years 6-10 years 10-15 years Over 15 years	4.07 3,92 3.75 3.64	3.999	78	0.011`
Age	Below 30 years old 31-40 years old 41-50 years old 51-60 years old	4.01 3.86 3.71 3.67	2.197	78	.095

5. Discussion

Our findings provide support that positive relationships exists between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in Land Survey Department (LSD). The majority of the staff perceive that the level of servant leadership is quite high and job satisfaction as high. In terms of correlation, high level of servant leadership is related to higher levels of job satisfaction amongst the staff. This study supports previous findings by Laub, (1999); Miears, (2004) and Thompson, (2002) who reported a positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. It is evident that servant leadership who put employees first and empower them can have a positive impact on their job satisfaction which will further motivate them to improve their work performance and hence contribute to the achievement of organizational goals.

The practice of Servant leadership which emphasize empowering employees and ethical behavior in the public sector will boost the public service delivery since employees are the drivers of excellent service in an organization Another interesting finding is that the study found no significant differences in job satisfaction across the demographic variables except length of service .This is not consistent with other studies that found significant differences in job satisfaction based on demographic variables (Tabatabaei, Ghaneh & Shokri, 2011) and Bukers (2010). But was consistent with findings by Shafie Abadi & Khalajasadi (2010) which indicated that there was not any relationship between job satisfaction of workers in respect of sex, educational level, age and marital status. As for length of service, it is was consistent with the findings by Long (2007) who reported that job satisfaction was higher in workers with 1-5 years of work experience in comparison with who had more than 20 years.

The study presents two major implications: theoretical contribution and practical contribution. In terms of theoretical contribution, the results of this study confirm that servant leadership and job satisfaction are highly correlated and hence contribute to research on servant

leadership and job satisfaction in the public sector. In terms of practical contributions, the findings of this study can be used as a guideline by public agencies to promote servant leadership in their workplace and use it to increase its staff's level of job satisfaction.

6. Conclusion

This study confirmed that servant leadership influences job satisfaction. The correlation test revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study also found all dimensions of servant leadership as having a positive relationship with job satisfaction. This study further suggests that servant leadership will strongly enhance and promote higher levels of job satisfaction amongst public sector employees. In addition, only one demographic variable namely length of service significantly influences job satisfaction in the selected public agency.

This study acknowledges several limitations. First, a cross-sectional research design was used to gather data at one point within the period of study. This may not capture the developmental issues and/or causal connections between variables of interest. Second, the survey questionnaires relied heavily on the respondents' self-responses that were selected based on random sampling technique. Finally, the samples were taken from one public agency namely land and survey department in Kuching via survey questionnaires. These limitations may decrease the ability of generalizing the results to other public agencies in Malaysia. It is suggested that future research look at other variables such as employee loyalty, employee motivation and organizational commitment that may moderate or mediates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

References

Amadeo, C. A. (2008). *Correlational study of servant leadership and registered nurses job satisfaction in acute health-care settings* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from Proquest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3350849).

Amundsen, S., & Martinsen, Ø. L. (2014). Empowering leadership: Construct clarification, conceptualization, and validation of a new scale. *Leadership Quarterly*, 25(3), 487-511. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.009.

Anderson, K. P. (2005). *A correlation analysis of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a religious educational organization.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix, AZ.

Armstrong, M. (2006). A Handbook of Human resource Management Practice, Tenth Edition, Kogan Page Publishing, London.

Aziri B. (2011) Job satisfaction: a Literature Review, *Management Research and Practice* Vol.3 Issue 4 (2011), 77-86.

B. Lashbrook, William. (1997). Business Performance, Employee Satisfaction, and Leadership Practices. *Performance Improvement*. 36. 29 - 33. 10.1002/pfi.4140360508.

Barrow, J. C. (1977). The variables of leadership: A review and conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 2, 233–251.

Barna, George (2001). *"The Power of Team Leadership".* Colorado Springs: Waterbrook Press.

Best, J, W, & Khan, J.V (2003). Research in Education (9th ed) Boston: Pearson Education.

Buker, H. & Dolu O. (2010). Police job satisfaction in Turkey: Effects of demographic, organizational and jurisdictional factors. *International Journal of Comparatives and Applied Criminal Justice* . ol. 34, No. 1.

Breau, M., & Réaume, A. (2014). The relationship between empowerment and work environment on job satisfaction, intent to leave and quality of care among ICU nurses. Dynamics, 25(3), 16–24. Retrieved from http://www.caccn.ca/en/files/CACCN-25-3-2014.pdf#page=16

Cerit, Y. (2009). The effects of servant leadership behaviours of school principals on teachers' job satisfaction., *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 37*(5), 600-623.

Ding, D., Lu, H., Song, Y., & Lu, Q. (2012). Relationship of servant leadership and employee loyalty: The mediating role of employee satisfaction. *I-Business, 4*(3), 208-215.

Drury, S. (2004). *Employee perceptions of servant leadership: Comparisons of level with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.

Frick, D. M. (2004). *Robert K. Greenleaf: A life of servant leadership.* United State: Berrett-

Koehler Publishers.

Girard, S. H. (2000). Servant Leadership Qualities Exhibited by Illinois Public School District Superintendents, *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 61(5), 9973347.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: a journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness.* New York: Poulist Press.

Gunnigle, P., Heraty, P. & Morley, M. (1971). *Personal and Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice in Ireland.* Ireland: MacMillan Press Ltd.

H. K. S. Laschinger, J. Finegan, J. Shamian & P. Wilk, "A Longitudinal Analysis of the Impact of Workplace Empowerment on Work Satisfaction," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 25, No. 4, 2004, pp. 527-545.

Hebert, S.C. (2003). The Relationship of perceived Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction from the Follower 's Perspective. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 64(11): 3112981.

Hu, Y.-J., Yang, Y.-F., & Islam, M. (2010). Leadership behavior, satisfaction, and the balanced Score card approach, *International Journal of Commerce & Management, 20*(4), 339-356.

Irving, J. A. (2005). Servant Leadership and the Effectiveness of Team. *Dissertation Abstracts*

International, 66(4), 3173207.

Kanter, R.M. (1995). *Mastering Change. Learning Organizations*: *Developing Cultures For Tomorrow's Workplace*. Portland: Productivity Press.

Laub, J. A. (1999). Assessing the servant organization: Development of the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) Instrument, *Dissertation Abstracts International, 60*(2), 1-30.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Developmentof a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(2), 161-177.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Long L. John (2007). Factors influencing job satisfaction of extension agents in the Mississippi State University extension Service. *Proceedings of the 2007 AAAE Research Conference*, Vol.34.

Ma, X., & MacMillian, R. B. (1999). Inlfuences of workplace conditions on teachers' job satisfaction. *The Journal of Education Research, 93*(1), 39-47.

McConville, P. & Cooper, P. (2003). Emotions in work and achievement. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 173, 211-244.

Mehta, S., & Pillay, R. (2011). Revisiting servant leadership: An empirical study in Indian context. *Journal of Contemporary Management Research, 5*(2), 24-41.

Miears, L. D. (2004). *Servant leadership and job satisfaction: A correlational study in Texas Education Agency region X Public Schools.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Patterson, K. (2003). *Servant leadership: A theoretical model*. Retrieved March 20, 2009from http://www.regent.edu/acad/cls/2003ServantLeadershipRoundtable

Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attribute: developing a practical model,*Leadership & Organizational Development Journal, 23,* 145-157.

Sendjaya, S., Sarros, J. C., & Santora, J. C. (2008). Defining and measuring servant leadership behaviour in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies, 45*(2), 402-424.

Sepahvand, Reza Pirzad, Ali & Rastipour, Maryam. (2015). Exploring Servant Leadership Effects on Employees Satisfaction from Work. International Journal of Asian Social Science. 5. 45-51. 10.18488/journal.1/2015.5.1/1.1.45.51.

Shafie Abadi, A., & Khalajasadi, Sh. (2010). The survey of relationship between job satisfaction and mental health in university employees. *Journal of Industrial-Organizational Psychology News*, Vol. 1. No. 2, Tehran, Iran

Shirbagi, Naser (June, 2007). "Exploring Organizational Commitment and Leadership Frames within Indian and Iranian Higher Education Institutions." *Bulletin of Education Research* 29, (1), 17-32.

Spears, Larry C. (2010). "Character and Servant Leadership: Ten Characteristics of Effective, Caring Leaders." *The Journal of Virtues & Leadership,* 1, (1), 25-30.

Spector, P.E. (1997). Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes and consequences,Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage Publications, Inc.

Tabatabaei, Sh. Ghaneh, S., & Shokri A. (2011). The relationship of job satisfaction and occupational health with selected demographic variables among employees in one of the industrial companies in Iran. First Proceedings of Articles National Conference of Health, Safety and Environment, Tehran, Iran.

Terosky, Aimee & C. Reitano, Maria. (2016). Putting Followers First: The Role of Servant Leadership in Cases of Urban, Public School Principals. *Journal of School Leadership.* 26. 192-222. 10.1177/105268461602600201.

Thompson, C. H. (2003). The Public School Superintendent and Servant Leadership. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 66(9), 3190501.

Thompson, R. S. (2002). The perception of servant leadership characteristics and job satisfaction in a church-related college. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 64*(08), 2738. (UMI No. 310313).

Tischler, L., Giambatista, R., McKeage, R., & McCormick, D. (2016). Servant leadership and its relationships with core self-evaluation and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership*, 9(1), 1-20. Retrieved from http://scholar.valpo.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1148&context=jvbl

Ulrich, D. (2002, April). "Human Resources Has to Create Real Business Value." *Management Today*, 12-8.

Van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The servant leadership survey: Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *Journal of Business Psychology, 26*(3), 249-267.

Vroom, V.H. (1964). Work and motivation, John Wiley and Sons, New York,

Vitell, Scott & L. Davis, D. (1990). The Relationship between Ethics and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics.* 9. 489-494. 10.1007/BF00382842

Washington, R. R. (2007). *Empirical relationships among servant, transformational, and transactional leadership: Similarities, differences, and correlations with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Auburn University, Auburn, AL.

Wong, C. A., & Laschinger, H. K. (2013). Authentic leadership, performance, and job satisfaction: The mediating role of empowerment. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 69(4), 947-959. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2012.06089.x.