

Pertanika Journal of SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

VOL. 28 (4) DEC. 2020



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Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

About the Journal

Overview

Pertanika Journal of Social Science & Humanities is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia. It is an open-access online scientific journal. It publishes original scientific outputs. It neither accepts nor commissions third party content.

Recognised internationally as the leading peer-reviewed interdisciplinary journal devoted to thepublication of original papers, it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improve quality in issues pertaining to social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

JSSH is a **quarterly** (*March, June, September* and *December*) periodical that considers for publication original articles as per its scope. The journal publishes in **English and Bahasa Malaysia** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality.

The Journal is available world-wide.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the social sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include Social Sciences—accounting, anthropology, archaeology and history, architecture and habitat, consumer and family economics, economics, education, finance, geography, law, management studies, media and communication studies, political sciences and public policy, population studies, psychology, sociology, technology management, tourism; Humanities arts and culture, dance, historical and civilisation studies, language and linguistics, literature, music, philosophy, religious studies, sports.

History

Pertanika was founded in 1978. A decision was made in 1992 to streamline *Pertanika* into 3 journals as Pertanika Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science, Pertanika Journal of Science & Technology, and Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

Currently, as an interdisciplinary Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, the revamped journal focuses on research in social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly within the Asia Pacific region.

Vision

To publish journals of international repute.

Mission

Our goal is to bring the highest quality research to the widest possible audience.

Quality

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions can expect to receive a decision within 120 days. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 180 days. We are working towards decreasing the processing time with the help of our editors and the reviewers.

Abstracting and indexing of Pertanika

Pertanika is over 42 years old; this accumulated knowledge and experience has resulted in Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities being abstracted and indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), Clarivate Web of Science [ESCI], EBSCO, DOAJ, Agricola, ASEAN CITATION INDEX, ISC, Microsoft Academic, Google Scholar, National Agricultural Science (NAL), and MyCite.

Citing journal articles

The abbreviation for *Pertanika* Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Publication policy

Pertanika policy prohibits an author from submitting the same manuscript for concurrent consideration by two or more publications. It prohibits as well publication of any manuscript that has already been published either in whole or substantial part elsewhere. It also does not permit publication of manuscript that has been published in full in proceedings.

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The Pertanika Journals and Universiti Putra Malaysia take seriously the responsibility of all of its journal publications to reflect the highest in publication ethics. Thus all journals and journal editors are expected to abide by the Journal's codes of ethics. Refer to Pertanika's **Code of Ethics** for full details, or visit the Journal's web link at <u>http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code_of_ethics.php</u>

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The author must ensure that when a manuscript is submitted to Pertanika, the manuscript must be an original work. The author should check the manuscript for any possible plagiarism using any program such as Turn-It-In or any other software before submitting the manuscripts to the *Pertanika* Editorial Office, Journal Division.

All submitted manuscripts must be in the journal's acceptable **similarity index range:** ≤ **20%** – PASS; > **20%** – REJECT

International Standard Serial Number (ISSN)

An ISSN is an 8-digit code used to identify periodicals such as journals of all kinds and on all media–print and electronic. All Pertanika journals have ISSN as well as an e-ISSN.

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Lag time

A decision on acceptance or rejection of a manuscript is reached in 120 days (average). The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 180 days.

Authorship

Authors are not permitted to add or remove any names from the authorship provided at the time of initial submission without the consent of the Journal's Chief Executive Editor.

Manuscript preparation

Most scientific papers are prepared according to a format called IMRAD. The term represents the first letters of the words *Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, And Discussion*. IMRAD is simply a more 'defined' version of the "IBC" [Introduction, Body, Conclusion] format used for all academic writing. IMRAD indicates a pattern or format rather than a complete list of headings or components of research papers; the missing parts of a paper are: Title, Authors, Keywords, Abstract, Conclusions, References, and Acknowledgement. Additionally, some papers include Appendices.

Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

The Introduction explains the scope and objective of the study in the light of current knowledge on the subject; the Materials and Methods describes how the study was conducted; the Results section reports what was found in the study; and the Discussion section explains meaning and significance of the results and provides suggestions for future directions of research. The manuscript must be prepared according to the journal's Instruction to Authors http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/Resources/regular_issues/Regular_Issues_Instructions_to_Authors.pdf

Editorial process

Authors are notified with an acknowledgement containing a *Manuscript ID* on receipt of a manuscript, and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Pertanika follows a **double-blind peer-review** process. Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are usually sent to reviewers. Authors are encouraged to suggest names of at least 3 potential reviewers at the time of submission of their manuscript to Pertanika, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions.

Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within 120 days from the receipt of manuscript. Publication of solicited manuscripts is not guaranteed. In most cases, manuscripts are accepted conditionally, pending an author's revision of the material.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that may identify authorship of the paper should be placed only on page 2 as described in the first-4-page format in *Pertanika*'s **Instruction to Authors**

The Journal's peer-review

In the peer review process, 2 or 3 referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts. At least 2 referee reports are required to help make a decision.

Peer reviewers are experts chosen by journal editors to provide written assessment of the **strengths** and **weaknesses** of written research, with the aim of improving the reporting of research and identifying the most appropriate and highest quality material for the journal.

Operating and review process

What happens to a manuscript once it is submitted to *Pertanika*? Typically, there are 7 steps to the editorial review process:

 The Journal's Chief Executive Editor (CEE) and the Editorial Board Members examine the paper to determine whether it is appropriate for the journal and should be reviewed. If not appropriate, the manuscript is rejected outright and the author is informed.

The Chief Executive Editor sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to 2 to 3 reviewers. They are specialists in the subject matter of the article. The Chief Executive Editor requests that they complete the review within 3 weeks.

 Comments to authors are about the appropriateness and adequacy of the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review, method, results and discussion, and conclusions. Reviewers often include suggestions for strengthening of the manuscript. Comments to the editor are in the nature of the significance of the work and its potential contribution to the research field.

The CEE, in consultation with the Editor-in-Chief (EiC), examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invites the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript. The CEE may seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the CEE and EiC, who reserve the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript is accepted with almost no revision. Almost without exception, reviewers' comments (to the author) are forwarded to the author. If a revision is indicated, the editor provides guidelines for attending to the reviewers' suggestions and perhaps additional advice about revising the manuscript.

- 4. The authors decide whether and how to address the reviewers' comments and criticisms and the editor's concerns. The authors return a revised version of the paper to the Chief Executive Editor along with specific information describing how they have addressed' the concerns of the reviewers and the editor, usually in a tabular form. The authors may also submit a rebuttal if there is a need especially when the authors disagree with certain comments provided by reviewers.
- 5. The Chief Executive Editor sends the revised manuscript out for re-review. Typically, at least 1 of the original reviewers will be asked to examine the article.
- 6. When the reviewers have completed their work, the Editor-in-Chief examines their comments and decides whether the manuscript is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected. If the decision is to accept, the Chief Executive Editor is notified.
- 7. The Chief Executive Editor reserves the final right to accept or reject any material for publication, if the processing of a particular manuscript is deemed not to be in compliance with the S.O.P. of *Pertanika*. An acceptance notification is sent to all the authors.

The editorial office ensures that the manuscript adheres to the correct style (in-text citations, the reference list, and tables are typical areas of concern, clarity, and grammar). The authors are asked to respond to any minor queries by the editorial office. Following these corrections, page proofs are mailed to the corresponding authors for their final approval. At this point, **only essential changes are accepted.** Finally, the manuscript appears in the pages of the journal and is posted on-line.

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Foreword

Welcome to the 4th 2020 issue of the Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (PJSSH)!

PJSSH is an open-access journal for studies in Social Sciences and Humanities published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press. It is independently owned and managed by the university for the benefit of the world-wide scientific community.

This issue contains 50 articles; 1 review article, 1 case study, 1 concept paper and the rest are regular articles. The authors of these articles come from different countries namely Brunei Darussalam, China, Colombia, India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Nigeria, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Taiwan and Thailand.

Articles submitted for this issue cover various scopes of Social Sciences and Humanities including: arts and culture; consumer and family economics; education; finance; historical and civilisation studies; language and linguistics; law; literature; management studies; media and communication studies; political sciences and public policy; psychology; religious studies; sociology; technology management and tourism.

A regular article titled "Exploring Patients' Experience on Hospital Merger: Have they benefited from Cluster Hospital Initiative in Malaysia?" sought to understand the effect of Cluster Hospital Initiative (CHI) in Malaysia towards patients. This study demonstrated that the expected benefits brought on by CHI appeared to be well-received by the patients. The detailed information of this article is presented on page 2645.

A selected article from the scope of political science and public policy, titled "Scandal and Malay Politics: A Question of Dignity Against Anwar Ibrahim and Azmin Ali" argued that moral or sex scandals were most effective to defeat a Malay politician in Malaysia. The study shows that after the same tactic is used over the decades, it appears that voters are reaching a saturation point, especially among middle-class Malays. The efforts by politicians to mobilise the people based on this religious-centric view on dignity has not shown much results in recent years. Details of this study are available on page 2807.

Juan Zhang and John Walsh dissected the relationship between three factors for historic and cultural tourists, in their article entitled "Tourist Experience, Tourist Motivation and Destination Loyalty for Historic and Cultural Tourists". The study shows that tourists' experience influenced destination loyalty positively, and tourist motivation mediated the effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty significantly. Besides that, it is worthwhile for historic cultural destinations to make significant investments in their destinations. Further details of the study can be found on page 3277.

We anticipate that you will find the evidence presented in this issue to be intriguing, thought-provoking and useful in reaching new milestones in your own research. Please recommend the journal to your colleagues and students to make this endeavour meaningful.

All the papers published in this edition underwent Pertanika's stringent peer-review process involving a minimum of two reviewers comprising internal as well as external referees. This is to ensure that the quality of the papers justifies the high ranking of the journal, which is renowned as a heavily-cited journal not only by authors and researchers in Malaysia but by those in other countries around the world as well.

In the last 12 months, of all the manuscripts peer-reviewed, 38% were accepted. This seems to be the trend in PJSSH.

A special thanks to all the Editorial Board Members of PJSSH (2018-2020) for serving Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities for the past two years in ensuring Pertanika plays a vital role in shaping the minds of researchers, enriching their lives, and encouraging them to continue their quest for new knowledge. Also, we welcome the new Editorial Board Members on board. We hope that their involvement and contributions towards Pertanika would not only improve its quality but also support the development efforts in making it an international journal of good standing.

PJSSH is currently accepting manuscripts for upcoming issues based on original qualitative or quantitative research that opens new areas of inquiry and investigation.

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Chief Executive Editor Dato' Dr. Abu Bakar Salleh executive_editor.pertanika@upm.edu.my



SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

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Review Article Concept Analysis of Caring Personality for Nursing: A Review

Kuntarti¹, Yeni Rustina^{2*}, Jahja Umar³ and Dewi Irawati⁴

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ABSTRACT

Caring as a human trait means that a nurse should have a caring personality. As a personality, caring will be an enduring characteristic and behavior; so, a caring nurse always shows caring behavior throughout his or her lifetime. Although experts have studied and applied the concept of caring, studies on the concept of a caring personality are rare. The purpose of this article is to conceptualize the meaning and significance of a caring personality among nurses providing nursing care. To achieve this, we used the Walker and Avant concept analysis approach. The attributes of a caring personality include (1) altruism, (2) emotional intelligence, (3) emotional stability, (4) personal integrity, and (5) optimism. The antecedents of these attributes are biological bases, characteristic adaptation, and learning organization. Nurses with caring personalities will have an impact on professional caring personality. This study concludes that a caring personality in a nurse is an essential foundation for the provision of professional care and satisfaction of patients in nursing care and that the nurse must have a caring personality, in order to provide high-quality, humanized healthcare.

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INTRODUCTION

Nursing care is the core of healthcare services, and caring is a core value of the nursing profession. Nurses must have a good understanding of the caring concept as a value in nursing care (Drumm & Chase, 2010; Landers et al., 2014). Many researchers and nursing theorists have explored the concept of caring. Until the end of the 20th century, caring was still a complex phenomenon to understand, and there was no general agreement about its relationship with nursing. Caring is an ambiguous concept in nursing literature, although some attempts have been made to capture its meaning (Landers et al., 2014). As a core value of the nursing profession, caring should be a fundamental behavior and characteristic of a nurse.

Behaviors of a nurse that demonstrate caring should ideally form part of a nurse's personality. As a personality, caring behavior endures as an everyday behavior and, ultimately, becomes a culture. For this reason, this study seeks to explore caring as a personality; specifically, a caring personality. This analysis forms part of a broader research study that aims to respond to the experiences and perceptions of patients and the public that something is missing in health care. The study explores a caring personality as a characteristic that nurses ought to have. The purpose of this article is to conceptualize the meaning and significance of a caring personality in nurses providing nursing care and determine whether it is possible to measure a caring personality.

Background

Nurses are health workers who are significant contributors to the perception of quality in health services, especially in hospitals. From the many indicators of hospital service quality, a substantial amount is related to the quality of nursing performance, such as the incidence of injection site infections, nosocomial infections, surgical site infections, and patient satisfaction (Buchanan et al., 2015; Edvardsson et al., 2017). The quality of nursing care provided to patients reflects the quality of nurses' performance. Nurse performance includes nurses' relationships with patients and co-workers, professional capabilities, the potential for growth and development, attitudes toward hospitals in which they are stationed, and personal qualifications (Ilyas, 2012). However, caring underlies nurses' performance during the provision of core nursing care.

Caring is a central concept in nursing that distinguishes nursing from other health services. This concept becomes the philosophical foundation for nurses in their provision of nursing care. The American Nurses Association (ANA; 2002) states that nursing is a significant, highly valuable health profession due to its specialized knowledge, skills, and care, aimed at improving the health status of individuals, families, and communities (Christensen & Turner, 2008). Caring and knowledge are the core of nursing, as caring nurses provide patients with meaningful experiences (American Organization of Nurse Executives [AONE], 2005). For this reason, caring should be a fundamental behavior and characteristic of a nurse.

Until now, nurses' behavior during nursing care provision has been considered suboptimal—and even still lackingby users of health services. Many study findings have shown that poorly performing (Ratanto et al., 2013), less caring nurses (Ardiana et al., 2010; Manurung & Hutasoit, 2013; Ratanto et al., 2013), do not pay attention to patients' needs and that 90% of patients reported being uncomfortable with talking to nurses (Suryawati et al., 2006). Hospital patients have reported dissatisfaction because of nurses with poor communication, ignorance, insecurity, and difficulty obtaining information from nurses (Suryawati et al., 2006). Patients have also described nurses displaying ineffective communication, lack of a sincere attitude at work, less care, and poor technical abilities, such as taking blood repeatedly (Muhidin et al., 2010).

Nurses' caring behavior should be nurtured as early as when receiving nursing education. Finfgeld-Connett (2007) suggested that professional maturity among nurses and a moral foundation were precursors to the caring process. Professional maturity, a trait that nursing students must cultivate, includes a knowledge base, coping skills, and competence. The systematic growth in awareness regarding behavior that must be displayed by nurses is first nurtured at the beginning of one's education, and further, by the academic and work environment. Gaining knowledge of the changes and developments in professional maturity, including competencies associated with being a nurse, must be a formative and summative pursuit (Duffy, 2013).

Many researchers and nursing theorists have explored the concept of caring. Until the end of the 20th century, caring was still a complex phenomenon to understand, and there was no general agreement about its relationship with nursing. Therefore, it is natural that Alligood (2014) classified theories about caring under the philosophy of nursing. Jean Watson is one of the theorists who is consistent with developing themes of caring from as a nursing philosophy to as a conceptual model. The results of her ideas and work on the transpersonal caring theory are called a philosophy, blueprint, ethics, paradigm, worldview, treatise, conceptual model, framework, and theory (Watson, 2006 as cited in Alligood, 2014).

Some perspectives on the nature of caring have been put forth. In literature, it is difficult to distinguish between the terms, caring, care, and nursing care. In Smith et al. (2013), Morse et al. (1990) identified five categories from 35 authors' definition of caring and the main characteristics of their perspectives. The five categories of caring were caring as a human trait, as a moral imperative or ideal, as affect, as an interpersonal relationship, and as a therapeutic relationship. Besides these, two identified outcomes of caring were the subjective experience of the patient and the physical response. One of these perspectives posited caring is an innate human trait.

Caring as a human trait means that a nurse should have a caring personality. Because caring is essential for nursing, the term, caring personality, refers to the essential traits that every caregiver, especially every nurse, should have. As a personality, caring is an enduring characteristic and behavior that encompasses an individual's uniqueness, including dominant traits, interests, values, self-concept, drives, abilities, and emotional patterns in responding to each situation ("Personality", n.d.-a). It is a specific personality for the nursing profession—the nursing personality. A caring personality is a pre-requisite for becoming a professional nurse who shows caring behavior in daily life, and ultimately becomes a caring culture in nursing.

As alluded to above, caring nature is a principle of a nursing personality. Study by Eley et al. (2012) recommended the incorporation of a caring nature into recruitment and retention strategies. Nursing candidates who are motivated to care for others display a caring personality. However, the authors have found minimal literature that uses the term, *caring personality*, both in nursing and psychology literature, despite personality psychology is a branch of psychology. Therefore, the authors set out to analyze the concept of a caring personality and to refine its description and use.

METHODS

In this article, the authors intend to analyze the concept of a caring personality based on a literature review. This report begins with the elaboration of phenomena underlying the selection of caring personality concepts, then proceeds to concept analysis, using the steps of concept analysis proposed by Wilson (1963) in Walker and Avant (2011).

Walker and Avant (2011) used an iterative concept analysis approach. This concept analysis used eight-steps method to analyze the concept of a caring personality, entailing the following: 1) select concept, 2) determine the purpose, 3) identify uses, 4) define attributes, 5) identify the model case, 6) describe related and contrary cases, 7) identify antecedents and consequences, and 8) define empirical referents. In the literature review, we used standard electronic databases search for relevant literature. The search used were CINAHL, ScienceDirect, Scopus, MEDLINE, and reference lists of related journal articles published from 2000 to 2018. In our literature search, we used the terms "caring personality", "caring", AND "personality", "nurse", and "nursing student". The inclusion criteria for selected references were those on attributes of caring and caring behavior, which included the conceptualization of these as traits, habits, and affect.

RESULTS

Identify Uses of the Concept

After steps 1 and 2, entailing the selection of a concept and determining its purpose, the definition of the concept followed. Authors have defined caring differently in their work. The definition of caring as a concept in many existing nursing theories will be used as the defining attributes of a caring personality. Likewise, the definition of personality will be used to determine irrelevant attributes, to distinguish the concept of a caring personality from other caring concepts. These are the aims of concept analysis (Walker & Avant, 2011).

Definition of Caring. The definition of caring in nursing is broader than that of language. In the English language, caring

comes from primary *care* + *ing*, which can be in the form of a noun, verb, or adjective. In this article, the authors use caring as an adjective. As an adjective, caring according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English means feeling or showing concern for or kindness to others; concern for the wellbeing of others; and is synonymous or almost synonymous with "compassionate", "concerned," "good-hearted", "humane", "mind", "sympathetic", "altruistic", "charitable", "generous", and so on ("Caring", n.d.-a). Caring, according to Merriam-Webster Dictionary, is thinking about what other people need or want and trying to help them; the synonyms, kind (good), and sympathetic (sympathetic) involve looking after other people (Caring, n.d.-b). The authors did not find the word "caring" in the American Psychological Association (APA) dictionary. The translation of "caring" into the Indonesian language is peduli. The meaning of "caring" in the Indonesian language is simple, but its meaning as a term in nursing is broader than it.

In nursing, caring is a human personality trait (human trait) that must be possessed by a nurse who will form an attitude (affect), that will become a moral foundation (moral imperative), and engage in interaction with others (interpersonal interaction) and therapeutic intervention (Smith et al., 2013). The results of nursing care obtained from caring nurses are subjective experiences and physical responses of patients in the interest of patients achieving or maintaining their health or dying peacefully (Lee et al., 2017; Pajnkihar et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2013). There are varying, established definitions of "caring" in existing theories. Mayeroff (1971) defines caring as "a process that develops over time, resulting in a deepening and transformation of a relationship; major ingredient: 1) knowing, 2) alternating rhythms 3) patience, 4) honesty, 5) trust, 6) humility, 7) hope." (Mayeroff, 1971, as cited in Smith et al., 2013, p. 5).

Caring also means,

attending, physically, mentally, and emotionally to the needs of another and giving a commitment to the nurturance, growth, and healing of that other; being there for someone, being known to be available, checking the situation out from time to time, and being ready to respond if asked. (Davies, 1995, pp. 18-19).

Alder (2002, pp. 242-243) defined caring as "involving action or inaction; an attitude and a commitment; a practice, a process, and an ethic; a combination of honesty and patience; trust; respect; humility; courage; one's experience of others; encouragement; and devotion."

Caring also means

a set nurturing activity focused on caring for the sick, was assigned or ascribed as a role in all society healers; these activities has been imbued with qualities of protection, nurturance, and altruism; associated with putting a person in the best condition for nature to act; sensitivity to the person's experience, tender attendance to the needs of suffering person, and to nursing as a spiritual practice affirm the primal connection between nursing and caring (Smith et al., 2013, p. 1).

Definition of Personality. According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, personality is the quality or state of being a person; personal existence; the complex characteristics that distinguish an individual or a nation or group; a set of distinctive traits and characteristics; the distinction or excellence of personal and social traits ("Personality", n.d.-c). The Longman Dictionary defines personality as someone's character, especially how they behave towards other people and the qualities that make someone interesting or enjoyable to be with ("Personality", n.d.-b). In psychology, according to the American Psychological Association (APA) Dictionary, personality refers to "the enduring configuration of characteristics and behavior that comprises an individual's unique adjustment to life, including major traits, interests, drives, values, selfconcept, abilities, and emotional patterns" ("Personality", n.d.-a).

Based on each of the definitions of caring and personality, the authors identified suitable and irrelevant attributes of a caring personality (Table 1). These would make up an elaborate definition of a caring personality. A caring personality is a collection of traits and abilities of a person, which includes five characteristics consisting of altruism, emotional intelligence, emotional stability, self-integrity, and optimism.

Following analysis, the authors tried to synthesize and simplify the attributes of a caring personality. Based on the personality psychology approach, the authors simplified the attributes of a caring personality to five domains. These were altruism, emotional intelligence, emotional stability, personal integrity, and optimism (Table 2). Some of the attributes in Table 1 are not included in those shown in Table 2 as the latter entails general and commonly used terms.

Antecedents and Consequences

The step entailing the definition of attributes necessitates identification of the antecedents and consequences of the concept, to clarify the defining attributes (Walker & Avant, 2011). Antecedents include events or incidents that must take place before the concepts occur. Consequences occur after the concepts and may help identify the outcomes of the concept. The framework of relationships between antecedent, attributes, and outcomes as consequences of a caring personality is described in Figure 1.

A caring personality will develop based on biological bases and an individual's characteristic adaptation and learning organization. In the personality system, according to McCrae and Costa's Five-Factor Theory (FFT), genes, hormones, and brain structures are the biological bases influencing basic inclinations of personality. McCrae and Costa had not elaborated on this statement. Eysenck's theory of

Characteristics/ attributes	The first author (year)
Altruism	Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013), Cossette et al. (2006), and Staub and Vollhardt (2008)
Kindness, ethical, conscience	Roach (2002) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013); Duffy (2013), and Yektatalab et al. (2012)
Concern, care, respect	Roach (2002), Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Compassion	Roach (2002), Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013), and Duffy (2013)
Optimism	Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Discipline	Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Sensitive	Roach (2002), Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013), Alligood (2014), and Finfgeld-Connett (2007)
Emphatic	Gay (1999), Gilson and Moyer (2000), Morse et al. (2006), Scribante et al. (1995), and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013), Staub and Vollhardt (2008), and Svenaeus (2014)
Emotional intelligence	Swanson (1999), and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al., (2013), Hutchinson and Hurley (2012), and Svenaeus (2014)
Patient	Roach (2002), Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Genuine	Watson (1985) in Smith et al. (2013)
Self-confident	Roach (2002), Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Trust	Roach (2002) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Openness, receiving positive and negative expressions	Swanson (1999) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Commitment	Roach (2002) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Competent	Roach (2002) and Watson (1985) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Responsible	Gay (1999) and Swanson (1999) as cited in Smith et al. (2013)
Respectful, modest	Duffy (2013)
Calm	Leininger as cited in Alligood (2014)

Table 1Characteristics of a caring nurse

Table 2

The five trait domains of a caring personality

Attributes	Traits
Attention	Altruism
Conscience	
Compassion	
Concern	
Love and nurture	
Care	
Emphatic	
Helpful	

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Table 2 (continue)

Attributes	Traits
Sensitivity	Emotional intelligence
Respect	
Emotion management	
Adaptability	
Self-control	Emotional stability
Calm	
Tolerance	
Logic	
Resilience	
Not easily suspicious	
Consistent moral values	Personal integrity
Responsible	
Honest	
Fight for the truth	
Positive thinking	Optimism
Positive outlook	
Enthusiastic	

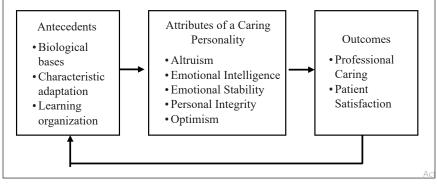


Figure 1. Model of caring personality development in nursing

personality, psychoticism, extraversion, and neuroticism depicts the limbic system's arousal as a proximal antecedent and DNA as a distal antecedent, with DNA as a genetic personality determinant and limbic system arousal as biological intermediaries for the development of personality (Feist et al., 2018). Studies have been conducted on the relationships between brain structures and compassion, empathy, and other human behaviors. Trait emphatic concern that motivates altruism activates brain regions in the ventral tegmental area, caudate, and subgenual anterior cingulate (FeldmanHall et al., 2015). The loving-kindness training

would increase activity in the compassionate brain, such as the medial orbitofrontal cortex (mOFC), the putamen, the middle insula, and the ventral tegmental area (Klimecki et al., 2012). The compassion training increased altruistic behavior was associated with activation in brain regions, including the inferior parietal cortex, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, and the nucleus accumbens (Weng et al., 2013). Empathy and compassion activate a different area in brain regions (Kuntarti & Rustina, 2018).

Other than an innate personality or basic tendencies, the caring personality may develop as an acquired personality. It means that the caring personality develops as people adapt to their environment, and can be influenced by external influences while the person interacts with their environment. External influences can change individuals' behavior through the learning process. If well organized, the learning process would be useful in changing behavior through learning organization. Learning organization starts from the family context, school, college/university, to the work environment.

Nurses with a caring personality have an impact on professional care and patient satisfaction. As a profession, nurses must provide professional nursing care to patients. Nurses with caring personalities, who learn about the science of caring and professionalism, will provide professional care. These nurses' care towards patients would result in patient satisfaction.

Presentation of Cases

Model Case. In concept analysis, a model case is a description of a situation, an experience, or an event that would constitute a perfect sample of a nurse with a caring personality. The model case includes all of the defining attributes of a caring personality in nursing. In a caring personality example, the following case states its model case:

I knew Rufaidah, the nurse who cared for me; she always greets and asks every patient she meets with a smile, gently, and warmly. She understood me and could sympathize with me about my problem. When other patients need her, she immediately comes to help (altruism), but still makes me feel like her priority. She always looks happy and is energetic (optimism), but does not overdo it and seems to enjoy life. I enjoyed talking to her. Sometimes without me complaining, she knows and can anticipate how I am feeling (emotional intelligence). When there are patients who speak rudely and act annoying, she remains calm and patient in dealing with it, and can still manage their emotions (emotional stability). She honestly answered that she did not know if she could not answer my question and did not hesitate to apologize if she was wrong or unsuccessful in the actions that she took when caring for me (personal integrity).

She always encouraged me to be sure of my recovery. Her stories and comforting words toward me show that she is a positive thinker and always takes lessons from her failures because she is sure that everything that happens, even if wrong, is for the best (optimism).

Borderline Case. A borderline case is one that contains some, but not all, of the identified defining attributes. These cases are inconsistent in some way, and help us clarify our thinking about critical attributes of the concept of interest (Walker & Avant, 2011). The following is an example of a borderline case for a caring personality:

Camelia is my friend, who is a nurse. I often see her looking warmly and being patient with the patients in her care (altruism), but often, she looks sullen and talks rather loudly to the patient when the patient asks many questions especially when I know that she has a personal problem (emotional intelligence). One day she seemed happy to serve her patients, but on others, she often lost her temper with her patients. When focusing on serving one patient, she seemed unhappy if others interrupted her. She looks happy and excited, but sometimes expresses it excessively and disturbs others' peace. I like talking to her, but I have to be able to read her mood so that she can give me comforting advice.

Sometimes she is not sensitive to what is not conveyed by others, and even though their non-verbal behavior seems to suggest that they need her help (emotional stability).

Contrary Case. A contrary case is one that does not contain any of the critical or defining attributes described in the analysis. These cases are clear examples of the opposite of the concept and will help us see how the concept being analyzed differs from contrary cases (Walker & Avant, 2011). The following is an example of a contrary case of the caring personality concept:

Doni is a novice nurse in the adult medical ward. He did not want to be a nurse. He likes the informatics technology major, but his parents chose a nursing major, and he could not refuse. When he works in the ward, he prefers to be alone, rarely greeting others first. He just did routine nursing interventions. *He is rarely seen smiling and has a* flat affect. If his patients told their pain or discomfort, he only told his patient to be patient, then he reported to the doctor and wrote in nursing documentation (not have altruism). The ward manager often warns him to be more caring for his patients, but he got angry. Because of his attitudes, he has no close friends because almost all of his friends avoid interacting with him (not have emotional intelligence). Sometimes, he wrote the nursing

intervention that he did not do it (not have personal integrity).

Empirical Referents. The final step of concept analysis is to determine referents for critical attributes. This has proven extremely useful in instrument development, thus contributing to both the content and construct validity of any new instrument (Walker & Avant, 2011). Many instruments are measuring caring concepts, especially caring behaviors (Watson, 2009). Moreover, many instruments are measuring general personalities, such as the DISC personality, Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R), Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), and the mini International Personal Item Pool (mini-IPIP). There are also tools measuring specific traits that also form part of attributes of the caring personality, such as the Altruistic Personality Scale measuring altruism, the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire measuring emotional intelligence, the Emotional Stability Test, and the Optimism-Pessimism Scale. There are also many tools for measuring patient satisfaction. However, there were no specific, identified empirical referents for the concept of a caring personality, as found in the literature review, nor were there specific tools evaluating a caring personality.

DISCUSSION

Attributes of a Caring Personality

Based on the analysis of the concepts, the definition of a caring personality is a

collection of a person's traits and abilities that includes five traits: altruism, emotional intelligence, emotional stability, personal integrity, and optimism. Nurses and other professionals who provide human-oriented services must possess these traits. The following section discusses these five characteristics and their relation to the nursing profession.

The first trait is altruism. Altruism is the behavior of helping strangers (Morishima et al., 2012). This behavior is exhibited by those who are not selfish and would voluntarily act for the benefit of others, even if it entails self-sacrifice. The characteristics of altruism are attention, conscience, compassion, concern, love, nurture, care, empathy, and helpfulness. It is common to help those whom one knows, such as family members, friends, or neighbors, because the closeness and recognition between them will encourage him to help that person. However, only those who have the traits imbued in altruism would willingly help others who are not known to them. As stated by Hung et al. (2016) and Gol (2018), nurses who have personal character altruism will do things for others without expecting any benefit or recognition in return. The main criterion of people characterized by altruism is the intention to help (Pavenkov et al., 2015). This trait must be possessed by those involved in professions related to humans, including nurses.

When providing services, nurses are almost always in contact with others who are not known to them. Following the code of ethics of nursing, nurses must provide services to all those in need of nursing services. Thus, they must not and cannot choose to only provide services to people they know (Indonesian National Nurses Association, 2016; International Council of Nurses, 2012). Nurses have to provide the best service at par with nursing standards, regardless of who their patients are. Only altruistic nurses can provide the best nursing services, exceed patients' expectations, and have an impact on healing and patient satisfaction. Nurses who exhibit altruism will help their patients achieve quicker recovery because they are concerned for that person, irrespective of the rewards that will be obtained (Alavi et al., 2017; Swank et al., 2013).

Nurses who provide nursing care based on the characteristics of altruism will increase patients' healing and provide higher patient satisfaction. The attention that comes from their conscience encourages nurses to be sensitive to the needs of their patients. Compassion, love, and nurture motivate nurses to provide the best care to the patient (Gol, 2018; Pavenkov et al., 2015). Empathy for the pain and suffering felt and experienced by patients encourages nurses to try to reduce and eliminate these negative feelings. These traits are shown in how they help patients to the best of their abilities, in the same way, they would help people they know (Kuntarti et al., 2018). This helping behavior is done voluntarily, even though entailing the sacrifice of time and energy. When combined with their competence and existing nursing standards, the nursing care given by nurses who have an altruistic nature will increase the patient's recovery and provide better satisfaction to both patients and their families. Therefore, altruism is the most commonly reported motivation by people that have chosen nursing as their profession (Alavi et al., 2017; Gol, 2018). Watson (2008) placed the value of altruism as the first among ten factors in the philosophy of nursing practice.

The second trait is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence means a person's ability to process information about emotions and use them in reasoning to understand and manage the emotions of themselves and others. These abilities include being sensitive to one's feelings and that of others, respecting others, managing emotions, and adapting to the environment (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2009; Mullakanda & Dissanayake, 2015; Smith et al., 2013). A nurse must possess emotional intelligence.

When dealing with patients, nurses must use emotional intelligence. Before dealing with patients, they need to recognize themselves and be sensitive to their feelings and emotions. Often, nurses have to deal with patient behavior that drains their emotions. Recognizing their own emotions helps nurses manage their emotions better when faced with patients. Mayer et al. (2003) identified four skills in emotional intelligence, namely emotional awareness (own and others), emotional management (own and others), emotional understanding, and emotional facilitation. Nurses' sensitivity to patients' feelings will encourage them to use their ability to manage their own emotions when dealing with the emotional status of patients, which have most likely been disrupted due to the patients' physical problems, especially when nurses care for people with mental health problems.

Emotional intelligence includes the ability of nurses to adapt to their environment. Nurses are always associated with humans who experience a variety of emotions at work (Landa & Zafra, 2010). In addition to patients and their families, nurses also interact with peers, superiors, and other health team members. Emotional intelligence, when interacting with others, is called interpersonal intelligence (Morrison, 2007). Emotional intelligence includes the ability of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is the ability to self-manage because of selfawareness, while interpersonal intelligence is the ability to manage relationships with others because of social awareness (Mayer et al., 2003; Morrison, 2007).

In addition to emotional intelligence, nurses must also possess emotional stability. Emotional stability focuses on nurses' ability to control emotions when reacting to various situations. Its attributes are self-control, calmness, tolerance, logic, resilience, and not being easily suspicious. Emotional stability means the level of emotional reactions that must be predictable and consistent, not quickly changing depending on feelings and moods. The nurses must control their emotions in various situations. Thus, they can solve the patient's problems with several nursing strategies (Raghubir, 2018; Watson, 2008).

Nurses use various methods for maintaining emotional stability. Mullakanda and Dissayanake (2015) found that nurses used 'ignore' or emotion gap, control, sharing, internalization, bare, and emotional shifts. The nurse will ignore by not taking things seriously. The way to control emotions is by self-controlling. Sharing is talking to somebody, such as friends, spouses, parents, or superiors. Internalising is done by taking it as part of the job or life and not being stress about it. Bare is waiting for a while or keeping quiet to settle down. The emotional shift can be done by listening to music, watching television or movies, or sleeping. Nurses who can maintain emotional stability show it through their gestures and facial expressions while interacting with patients and their families, doctors, other health teams, peers, and supervisors (Meyer et al., 2004). These nurses will look calm and can hide negative emotions with proper stress management skills (Morrison, 2007).

The next trait that a nurse must have is personal integrity. Personal integrity is a level of consistency with moral values, responsibility, honesty, and willingness to fight for the truth (Ridge, 2015). The level of consistency in moral values can be seen from those who have never violated the rules. Gostick and Telford (2006) mentioned that people with high integrity were careful not to underestimate the small essential things were always responsible, displayed the right things when others were 'grey,' showed that they could be trusted, always kept their promises, exhibited care, kindness, honesty, and humility, and acted as if they were always being watched. Nurses with integrity will always try to do these things.

The fifth trait that nurses must also have is optimism. Optimism is a positive attitude towards the future in the form of the belief that good things will happen in the future and that one's desires will surely be achieved. Optimism is characterized by positive thinking, seeing the positive in every event that occurs (positive outlook), and enthusiasm. Lufthans et al. (2008) stated that the optimism aspect of positive psychology was the same as hope, wisdom, resilience, and durability. Optimism people have a mood and hope that the future will be either material or social and hope by others. With this attitude, the nurse can turn a patient's negative expression into one of confidence and hope to achieve a better state of health for the patient (Watson, 2008).

The Antecedents of a Caring Personality

The five traits discussed above are attributes of a caring personality that will develop based on three factors, including biological bases, an individual's characteristic adaptation, and a learning organization. Biological bases consist of genes, brain structures, and hormones (McCrae & Costa, 2006). Feist et al. (2018) stated that some evidence that genes contributed to identical factors among people in various parts of the world, maintaining their personality over time, and determining differences in personality. For most complex traits examined, many such loci have been mapped, but the vast majority of the specific genes remain identified (Chakravarti et al., 2013). Related to attributes of caring personality, Van der Linden et al. (2018) found that there was a strong genetic correlation between the General Factor of Personality and trait emotional intelligence. Mann et al. (2017) also found that sensation seeking and impulsive traits accounted for more significant portions of genetic variance in antisocial behavior (ASB) than other personality traits. ASB is versus prosocial behavior that developed by trait altruism. Genetic factors also play an essential role in the associations between personality and life satisfaction (Roysamb et al., 2018).

Several other biological mechanisms affect personality, namely neurophysiological brain. McCrae and Costa (2006) stated that traumatic brain injury related to changes in personality. Related to traits in caring personality, Tusche et al. (2016) gave term the charitable brain for a circuit of brain regions that participated in altruistic behavior. This study found that empathy, perspective-taking, and attention shifts differentially predicted altruistic behavior. For many years, human neuroscientific research interest investigates neural mechanisms underlying emotions and social cognition, the plasticity of social emotions such as empathy and compassion using functional Magnetic Resonance Image (fMRI) (Klimecki, 2015; Klimecki et al., 2012; Klimecki & Singer, 2015).

Besides genes and neurophysiological brain, hormones are the biological bases associated with personality. Barraza et al. (2011) found that oxytocin infusion increased charitable donations that were a uniquely human form of indirect helping. Oxytocin also has a profound effect on the brain directly related to social behavior, including empathy, compassion, and related emotional, cognitive, and behavioral states (Singer & Bolz, 2013).

The biological bases of traits are internal factors that grow and mature as one's lifespan development, so do the personality traits as innate or given personality (McCrae & Costa, 2006). As a given personality, McCrae and Costa (2006) also found that personality traits might predict that only 10-16% of behavior, as Mischel, in 1968, argued that personality traits accounted for only about 5-10% of individual differences in actual behavior. Therefore, traits that endure for long periods and predict longterm patterns of behavior is extraordinary. In the context, a caring personality, five traits in a caring personality may predict nurses' caring behavior.

Interaction between individuals and their environment will change an innate personality to an acquired personality by characteristic adaptation and learning process. An innate personality may be somewhat stable over the lifetime, but an acquired personality is not (Feist et al., 2018). McCrae and Costa (2006) stated this as plasticity postulate of characteristic adaptation. Based on this postulate, a caring personality can be developed and be shaped by one's environment through the learning process.

External influences can change individuals' behavior through the learning process. Although traits only contribute about 10-16% to predict behavior (McCrae & Costa, 2006), caring behavior can be developed and be enhanced by contributing individuals. Besides their parents, the contributing individuals in developing caring behavior of nursing students are the peer group, lecturers, senior students, nurses, and their patients (Kuntarti et al., 2018). If well organized, the learning process will be useful in changing behavior through learning organization.

Learning organization starts from the family context, school, college/university, to the work environment. For example, the nursing education institution plays a vital role in changing nursing students' behavior to attain competence in caring, thus leading to a caring culture (Duffy, 2013). As nursing students, they must have professional caring competence cultivated by taught, learned, trained, and enhanced in academic and clinical education (Finfgeld-Connett, 2007; Kuntarti et al., 2018).

Outcomes of a Caring Personality

Nurses with a caring personality and professional caring competence have an impact on professional care and patient satisfaction. As a profession, nurses must provide professional nursing care to patients. Nurses with caring personalities, who learn about the science of caring and professionalism, will provide professional caring (Duffy, 2013; Smith et al., 2013). The professional caring will give positive change, empowerment, an increased sense of wellbeing and health (O'Connell et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2013). These nurses' care towards patients would result in patient satisfaction (Duffy, 2013; Finfgeld-Connett, 2007). Not only impact to patients, the caring professional and patient satisfaction will also impact on developing and enhancing a caring personality to a caring behavior.

CONCLUSION

The process of conceptual analysis was undertaken to conceptualize the meaning and significance of a caring personality among nurses delivering nursing care. This process provided information regarding the attributes, antecedents, and consequences of a caring personality. In conclusion, the attributes of a caring personality include (1) altruism, (2) emotional intelligence, (3) emotional stability, (4) personal integrity, and (5) optimism. The antecedents of these attributes were identified as biological bases, characteristic adaptation, and learning organization. A caring nurse will impact professional caring and patient satisfaction. A caring personality in a nurse is an essential foundation for the provision of professional care and the satisfaction of patients in nursing care. This analysis reinforces the notion that nurses must have a caring personality to provide high-quality, humanized healthcare.

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Academic Stress, Coping and Social Cultural Adaptation of Psychological Well Being among Indonesian Postgraduate Students

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ABSTRACT

This article explores the various dimensions of academic stress factors, coping, and socialcultural adaptation on psychological well-being of 150 Indonesian postgraduate students. The study implemented a correlational research design whereby a conceptual model was produced, which correlated both the dependent and independent variables. Data analysis was performed using SPSS and SmartPLS (Partial Least Squares). The scientific novelty includes the conceptualization of academic stress, coping, social-cultural adaptation, and psychological well-being among Indonesian postgraduate students; thus, results may differ from previous findings, while contributing an in-depth knowledge in this area. The preliminary analysis results indicate that the Cronbach Alpha (CA) and Composite Reliability (CR) of the four first-order reflective dimensions, namely academic stress, coping, social-cultural adaptation and psychological well-being, met the quality standard of reliability (CR) and convergent validity (AVE). Therefore, all constructs are reliable and valid. Consequently, it can be concluded that academic stress, coping, and social-cultural adaptation have a significant influence on the psychological well-being of Indonesian postgraduate-students.

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INTRODUCTION

Equation Modeling

Colleges or universities are considered institutions that cause stress on both undergraduate and postgraduate students (Friedlander et al., 2010; Taha et al., 2017) due to its unique and demanding environment

Keywords: Academic stress, coping, psychological well-being, social cultural adaptation, Structural

that often requires students to balance their various roles and responsibilities. This notion is consistent in some studies, which indicated that 90% of university students experienced significant stress (Kadapatti & Vijayalaxmi, 2012; Taha et al., 2017; Thurber & Walton, 2012). College students experience high stress due to academic commitment (Sansgiry & Sail, 2006), social and family relationships (Desmita, 2009), finances (Andrews & Wilding, 2004), daily complexity, lack of time management (Harikiran et al., 2012), time demands, and new responsibilities (Aselton, 2012; Jdaitawi, 2015). Uncontrolled stress that exceeds a certain level will create various problems in individuals (Romas & Sharma, 2004), such as prolonged anxiety and excessive depression.

In the last few years, studies have reported that there is a relationship between academic stress and university students (Friedlander et al., 2010; Thurber & Walton, 2012; Yusoff et al., 2010). Hamid and Rhouse (2005) distinguished between the university and its students, stating that university students were stressful when undergoing academic life. For example, the burden of duties given by lecturers, depressing college conditions, personal adjustment problems with friends and the environment, conflicts, and competition in academic achievement are among the causes of stress. These findings were also supported by Yeh and Inose (2003). They stated that adapting to new situations and environments was not easy for students, especially if the socio-cultural difference between foreign and home countries was immense. This problem may intensify the stress level of students studying abroad or those studying at a considerable distance from home.

For instance, it was identified that as many as 55.8% of Indonesian students experienced overwhelming academic stress, and most of the respondents who suffer from academic stress were females (Suwartika et al., 2014). This finding is supported by Masdar et al. (2016), who discovered that more female students (41.0%) were affected by academic stress compared to male students (28.8%). Stress will have a negative impact on individuals if they fail to manage it wisely as it can influence the individual's thoughts and behavior (Greer & Brown, 2011).

Students' response towards stress varies (Safaria, 2006) and may lead to many adverse outcomes if it is not managed appropriately (Greer & Brown, 2011). In recent developments, some researchers mentioned that an individual would tend to employ coping strategies when faced with stressful situations; and the strategies could either be positive or negative (Greer & Brown, 2011; Hoggard et al., 2012; Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Rice & Van Arsdale, 2010; Somerfield & McCrae, 2000). A theory popularized by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggests that there are two types of coping strategies, problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. When the coping strategy is employed successfully by individuals, it leads to better physical and psychological well-being (Dzokoto et al., 2007; Natovova & Chylova, 2014; Selian & Hamid, 2016).

Traditionally, stress is the most vital factor associated with students' psychological well-being as it can determine and predict academic achievement (Dzokoto et al., 2007). It is evident in numerous studies that students who wish to have better results in relationships need to have a high level of well-being (Borrello, 2005; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). This is because individuals with high psychological well-being are able to control their stress well (e.g., able to organize their schedule efficiently, despite the hectic class activities), experience a high level of self-esteem (a healthy body to handle all class activities), emotionally intelligent, and capable of producing highquality work (Diehl & Hay, 2011; Myhren et al., 2013; Natovova & Chylova, 2014; Sagone & De Caroli, 2014). Therefore, this paper aims to shed new light on the effect of the dimensions of academic stress, coping, and social-cultural adaptation on the psychological well-being of Indonesian postgraduate students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Three theoretical frameworks were implemented in this study: 1) the transactional model of stress and coping (TMSC) by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), 2) the socialcultural adaptation (SCAS) by Searle and Ward (1990), and 3) the psychological well being (PWB) developed by Carol Ryff (1989). Meanwhile, there were four main variables in this study, three of them were independent variables (academic stress, coping, and socio-cultural adaptation), and the fourth was the dependent variable (psychological well-being).

The academic stress (ASS) in this study consisted of three sub-constructs, namely physical stress (SF), psychosocial stress (SPK), and psychological stress (SPS). The second variable, coping or COPE, consisted of three sub-constructs, namely problemfocused coping (PFC), emotion-focused coping (EFC), and coping responses (LCR), which is less useful. The third variable, socio-cultural adaptation (SCAS), is divided into five sub-constructs, namely making friends (AKB), participating in social gatherings (APS), using transportation (AMP), communicating with national hosts (AKW), and shopping (ABB). The last variable, psychological well-being (PWB), consisted of six sub-constructs, namely autonomy (KPA), environmental mastery (KPS), personal growth (KPP), positive relations with others (KPH), self-acceptance (KPK), and purpose in life (KPT). Figure 1 shows the priori model of the proposed research model of this study.

The theoretical model of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), or also known as the Transactional Stress Model theory, explains the process of coping with stress. The TSMC process is complex, and it is relevant and applicable as a theoretical framework for the current research, as it conceptualizes and illustrates how stressful (academic stress) situations experienced by university students serve as a contributing factor to the psychological well-being of students. By employing PFC and EFC to handle stress, it can relatively improve a person's wellbeing, who, in this context, is Indonesian postgraduate students. Likewise, with the Sri Nurhayati Selian, Fonny Dameaty Hutagalung and Noor Aishah Rosli

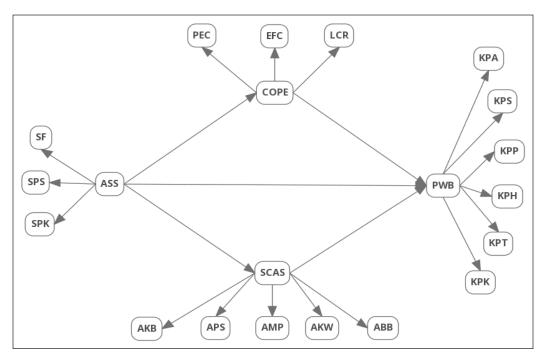


Figure 1. The psychological wellbeing model by applying SEM Approach

theory of socio-cultural adaptation (SCAS), university students who can adapt to their environment while facing academic stress will be able to improve their psychological well-being.

METHODS

Data findings of this study were obtained from a pilot study, which served as part of the original research data. The study utilized the survey questionnaire distributed online (via Indonesian postgraduate student mailing list), and the sample determination of this study was a simple random sampling technique. The next section presents a brief description of the research design, population and sample size, research instruments, and data analysis.

Research Design

This quantitative research was based on the form of research questions focusing on the correlation between variables. Creswell (2012) explained that correlation studies described and measured the level of relationship between two or more variables.

Population and Sample Size

The population in this study was Indonesian students whose studies were sponsored by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP). The recipients were studying at Masters and Doctoral level, aged between 23 and 47 years. Based on information obtained from the LPDP database, the student population registered with the LPDP mailing list consisted of 10,070 students (data updated on April 30, 2018). With regard to the G-Power method, its four predictors require 129 respondents; thus, 150 students were engaged for the current preliminary study (Faul et al., 2009).

Research Instruments

The instrument utilized in this study was in the form of questionnaires developed by previous researchers and was deemed relevant to the purpose of this study. A total of four questionnaires were employed, which are as follows:

The Academic Stress Scale (ASS). The Academic Stress Scale (ASS), developed by James Kohn and Gregory Frazer in 1986, was used to collect data for this study. The ASS was designed to measure the source of student academic stress, which consists of 35 items on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging between (1) Not at all stressful, (2) Rarely stressful, (3) Sometimes stressful, (4) Fairly stressful, and (5) Extremely stressful. The higher score obtained indicates, the higher academic stress experienced by respondents. Previous studies (Burnett & Fanshawe, 1997; Kohn & Frazer, 1986) noted good internal reliability for the whole scale ($\alpha =$ 0.92) and for each sub-scale and factor (α = 0.73 - 0.84).

The Coping Orientations to Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE). The Coping Orientations to Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE) was founded by Carver et al. (1989). COPE has 60 question items that measure the value of coping. Respondents were asked to choose an answer based on their experience in coping, using a 4-point Likert scale, which is (1) I usually don't do this at all, (2) I usually do this a little bit, (3) I usually do this a medium amount, and (4) I usually do this a lot. The questionnaire aims to gauge respondents' responses to what they generally do and feel when they were experiencing stressful events. COPE was proven to be reliable as the alpha values were on a certain range between 0.73 to 0.86 (see Litman, 2006; Mitchell, 2016).

Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS). Searle and Ward developed the Socio-Cultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS) in 1990. The SCAS was designed to measure the cognitive and behavioral dimensions of individual social and cultural adaptation. The scale consists of 41 items, which range from 1 (no difficulty) to 5 (extreme difficulty). Lower scores indicate that respondents have less difficulty and stronger socio-cultural adaptation; on the other hand, high scores indicate that respondents have high difficulties and weak socio-cultural adaptation. Previous studies reported that SCAS had a Cronbach's alpha value of .91 (Klemens & Bikos, 2009) and .88 for the research by Wilson et al. (2013).

Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (**RPWB**). This study employed the Ryff's scale for the measurement of psychological well-being. Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (RPWB) is a survey instrument developed by Carol Ryff in 1989, and it has 42 question items. This scale uses six response options on a Likert scale, namely: (1) Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Quite disagree, (4) Quite agree, (5) Agree, and (6) Strongly agree. The higher score obtained indicates the respondents' higher psychological well-being. This Ryff scale measure had been tested by several Western researchers, such as studies with a Cronbach's alpha of .80 (Abbott et al., 2006; Springer & Hauser, 2006; Van Dierendonck, 2004). Meanwhile, in Asian studies (such as in Malaysia), the 42 items obtained Cronbach's alpha values of .75 (Omar, 2009), .70 (Wan Othman, 2014) and .82 (Hashim & Wan Othman, 2015).

Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data collected, Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) and Smart PLS 3 (Partial Least Squares) software were applied. It was mentioned by Hair et al. (2011) that if the research goal is exploratory, the researcher should use PLS-SEM; thus, the data were analyzed according to the analytical procedures suggested by Hair et al. (2017b).

RESULTS

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The researcher analyzed data from the pilot study for both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). During the pilot study, a total of 300 usable sample responses was obtained, in which 150 samples (n=150) were retained for EFA purposes. In this study, EFA was conducted using the principal axis factoring method with varimax rotation. EFA was performed to drop items with low factor loadings. Most of the literature suggested that a cut-off point equal or above 0.40 is fair. For example, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), Comrey and Lee (1992) suggested that the cut-off point of 0.32 (poor), 0.45 (fair), 0.55 (good), 0.63 (very good), and 0.70 (excellent). In this study, factor loadings less than 0.40 were excluded from further analysis of the confirmatory factor analysis. With regard to having a stringent EFA test and meeting the research objective to determine the items for each factor in the three dimensions (e.g., Physical Stress [SF], Psychological Stress [SPS] and Psychosocial Stress [SPK]), the Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) extraction with Varimax rotation method were adopted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The PAF with varimax rotation is used for the extraction of the factor dimensions from the SF dimension of 7 items and 14 items for the SPS and SPK, respectively.

Table 1 reports the factor loadings for the academic stress scale. Items are removed if the factor loadings are less than 0.40 (Hair et al., 1998). By using a fixed number of factors, 3 for ASS, a total 53.85% variance was extracted to determine the number of factors to be retained. Williams et al. (2010) and Stevens (2002) postulated that items with a factor loading of at least 0.40 were acceptable. The suitability of data was supported by the significance of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (p<0.05) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index of at least a cut-off point of 0.60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on the construct of academic stress scale (ASS), the data achieved the KMO (0.912) and Bartlett's thresholds (p=0.000). Thus, the sample was adequate and acceptable for EFA.

Table 1 Academic Stress Scale (ASS)

Items	F1	F2	F3
SF3	0.609		
SF4	0.582		
SF6	0.756		
SF7	0.639		
SF8	0.809		
SF9	0.609		
SF10	0.639		
SPS1		0.587	
SPS2		0.640	
SPS3		0.730	
SPS4		0.666	
SPS5		0.672	
SPS6		0.626	
SPS7		0.713	
SPS8		0.796	
SPS11			
SPK2			0.625
SPK3			0.698
SPK4			0.530
SPK5			0.600
SPK7			0.544
SPK8			0.512
Eigenvalue	12.57	4.08	2.34
Variance	22.85%	20.03%	10.96%
Items deleted	SF1, SF2, SF5	SPS9, SPS10, SPS12, SPS13, SPS14, SPS15, SPS16	SPK1, SPK6, SPK9

The EFA performed on COPE indicated that the three factors explained 47.77% of the total variance based on a fixed number of factors of 3. Table 2 shows that factor loading for items of Problem-Focused Coping (PFC) was ≥ 0.40 ; thus, no items were deleted. Items with factor loading ≥ 0.40 are acceptable (Stevens, 2002). Factor loadings less than 0.40 was removed from Emotion-Focused Coping (EFC) and Coping responses are less useful (LCR) respectively. Subsequently, to assess the factorability of the data, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) and the KMO

Table 2

Coping Orientations to Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE)

Items	F1	F2	F3
PFC_1	0.798		
PFC_2	0.824		
PFC_3	0.604		
PFC_4	0.429		
PFC_5	0.658		
EFC_1		0.551	
EFC_2		0.779	
EFC_3		0.646	
EFC_4		0.526	
LCR_1			0.622
LCR_3			0.512
LCR_4			0.868
LCR_5			0.592
Eigenvalue	4.82	2.19	1.65
Variance	26.63%	11.18%	9.95%
Items deleted	Item not deleted	EFC_5	LCR_2

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Total variance: 53.85%, KMO: 0.912, Bartlett test of Sphericity, Chi-square= 3207.841, Df= 595, Sig = 0.000. *Note:* Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Total variance: 47.77%, KMO: 0.795, Bartlett test of Sphericity, Chi-square= 943.162, Df= 105, Sig = 0.000. measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) were employed. The factor analysis was considered appropriate, given that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant at 1% for the factor of coping orientation to problems experienced inventory. Moreover, the KMO indices were 0.795 for COPE dataset, which exceeded the minimum cut-off point of 0.60; hence, indicating the sampling was adequate and acceptable.

Table 3 shows that all five factors under the socio-cultural adaptation scale (SCAS) explained 54.85% of the total variance with a fixed number of factors

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
AKB1	0.617				
AKB3	0.528				
AKB4	0.815				
AKB7	0.641				
AKB8	0.524				
AKB10	0.674				
APS1		0.569			
APS7		0.665			
APS11		0.709			
APS12		0.821			
APS13		0.818			
APS14		0.790			
APS15		0.625			
APS16		0.631			
AMP1			0.584		
AMP2			0613		
AMP3			0.489		
AKW1				0.783	
AKW2				0.573	
AKW3				0.591	
AKW5				0.506	
AKW8				0.711	
AKW9				0.674	
ABB1					0.570
ABB3					0.605
Eigenvalue	14.92	2.61	2.25	1.76	1.63
Variance	15.96%	11.06%	10.26%	9.52%	8.05%
Items deleted	AKB2, AKB5, AKB6, AKB9	APS2, APS3, APS4, APS5, APS6, APS8, APS9, APS10	Item not deleted	AKW4, AKW6, AKW7	ABB2

Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS)

Table 3

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Total variance: 54.85%, KMO: 0.889, Bartlett test of Sphericity, Chi-square= 3975.294, Df= 820, Sig = 0.000.

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of 5. Making friends (AKB) ranked first, explaining 15.96% of the total variance. This was followed by participating in social gatherings (APS), using transportation (AMP), communicating with the national host (AKW), and shopping (ABB), which explained 11.06%, 10.26%, 9.52%, and 8.05% of the total variance, respectively. In order to assess the data EFA, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and KMO measure of sampling adequacy was employed (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The factor analysis was considered appropriate, given that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at p<0.05. Furthermore, the KMO index of 0.889 for the SCAS dataset, surpassing the minimum value of 0.60, which indicated that the sampling was adequate and acceptable. The Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) with varimax rotation is used for the extraction of the factor dimensions from the AKB and APS dimensions of 14 items, and 11 items for the AMP, AKW, and ABB, respectively. Table 3 shows that items of Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS) were retained for factor loading ≥ 0.40 , while less than 0.40 were deleted. Stevens (2002) suggested that items with factor loading ≥ 0.40 were acceptable.

For the Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB), EFA was used to remove items that had low factor loadings, or below 0.40. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) proposed that the cut-offs point of 0.45 was fair. The Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) extraction with a Varimax rotation method was employed. The PAF with varimax rotation is used for the extraction of the factor autonomy (KPA), environmental mastery (KPS), and personal growth (KPP) with 13 items, and 10 items for the positive relations with others (KPH), purpose in life (KPT) and self-acceptance (KPK), respectively. Table 4 reported that a total of 74.86% variance was extracted using a fixed number of factors of 6 for PWB. Williams et al. (2010) postulated that items with a factor loading of at least 0.40 are acceptable. The data suitability was supported by the significance of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (p<0.05) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index of at least a cut-off point of 0.60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on the Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB), the data achieved the KMO index of 0.814 and Bartlett's thresholds (p=0.000). Thus, the sample was adequate and acceptable for EFA.

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
KPA1	0.663					
KPA3	0.523					
KPA4	0.568					
KPA5	0.611					
KPA6	0.552					

Table 4		
Psychological	Well-Being Scale	(PWB)

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Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
KPS2		0.691				
KPS3		0.503				
KPS5		0.462				
KPS6		0.598				
KPP2		0.616				
KPP3			0.538			
KPP4			0.543			
KPP7			0.548			
KPH2				0.522		
KPH3				0.689		
KPH5				0.793		
KPH6				0.628		
KPT2					0.525	
КРТ3					0.544	
KPT5					0.470	
KPK1						0.580
KPK3						0.555
KPK5						0.625
KPK6					0.618	
Eigenvalue	9.25	7.18	2.37	1.90	1.82	1.62
Variance	17.20%	15.46%	14.67%	12.46%	9.42%	8.03%
Items deleted	KPA2, KPA7	KPS1, KPS4,	KPP1, KPP5,	KPH1,	KPT1,	KPK2,
		KPS7	KPP6	KPH4,	KPT4,	KPK4,
				KPH7	KPT6, KPK7	KPK7

Table 4	(continue)
---------	------------

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Total variance: 74.86%, KMO: 0.814, Bartlett test of Sphericity, Chi-square= 2462.944, Df= 861, Sig = 0.000.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

After conducting the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the retained items were further assessed to confirm the construct reliability and validity with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The use of PLS-SEM techniques in analyzing data is deemed to be more suitable as the numbers of latent variables in the study are more than 6 and/ or the numbers of items exceed 50. A model having more than 6 latent variables and/or 50 items is regarded as a complex model, in which variance-based SEM (PLS-SEM) is compatible with analyzing the data compared to covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) method (Hair et al., 2017b; Hair et al., 2011). Thus, PLS-SEM technique was applied to conduct the CFA through which constructs' reliability and validity were assessed.

Following the PLS-SEM method, constructs' reliability and convergent validity were evaluated using composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's alpha (CA),

factor loading, and average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2017a; Hair et al., 2019). There are four higher-order constructs available in the research model, namely academic stress (ASS), COPE, socio-cultural adaptation (SCAS), and psychological well-being (PWB), which were measured with multiple dimensions. Given the nature of measurement theory of each construct, ASS, COPE, SCAS, and PWB are regarded as higher-order constructs measured by multiple first-order latent variables (Sarstedt et al., 2014). All the measures theories in the theoretical framework are conceptualized as firstorder reflective and second-order reflective model. In the PLS-SEM techniques, higher order constructs with reflective measures were evaluated based on the measurement metrics, such as composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's alpha (CA), factor loading, and average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2017a; Hair et al., 2019). According to these guidelines, constructs' reliability and validity were assessed using pilot study data. During the pilot study, a total sample of 300 usable responses was obtained of which 125 samples (n=150) were used for conforming the constructs' reliability and validity (CFA), while the rest of the sample (n=150) was used for EFA purpose.

Measurement models of the theoretical framework were analyzed with SmartPLS3.2.8 following the suggested algorithm criteria (Hair et al., 2017a). ASS construct was assessed for reliability and convergent validity. Results were indicated in Table 5. The CA and CR of the three first-order reflective dimensions, namely SF, SPK, and SPS, were above the threshold level of >0.70. Due to the criticism on CA in measuring the reliability of latent variables, CR is highly suggested as a statistical metric to evaluate the reliability of latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). A CR score of >0.70 indicates a satisfactory level of reliability, whereas >0.60 is also accepted if the study is exploratory in nature. CR scores of the three first-order reflective constructs were above the cut-off values of 0.60 (i.e., SF = 0.895, SPK = 0.817, SPS = 0.924), indicating a satisfactory level. As CR is calculated based on factor loadings, CR is required to be re-calculated once repeated indicator approach is adopted in the second order reflective construct (Hair et al., 2018). Hence, using CR calculator, the resulted score of ASS was also above 0.60 (ASS = 0.872), which exhibits a satisfactory level of constructs reliability. Convergent validity was also assessed using factor loading and average variance extracted (AVE). In general, the recommended value of factor loading is >0.70; however, an item with a factor loading of >0.40 can be retained if the AVE meets the cut-off value of >0.50 (Hair et al., 2017a; Hair et al., 2014). Results in Table 5 indicate that the first order constructs SF (AVE = 0.551), and SPS (0.576) exceed the cut-off value of >0.50; thus, none of the items was discarded. The resulted AVE of SPK (AVE = 0.433) is below 0.50. Therefore, the item SPK7 (loading = 0.468) is considered to be deleted (Hair et al., 2017a; Hair et al., 2014). After analyzing the measurement

model with the final study, the researcher will take necessary action if the items are required to be deleted. Again, the factor loading (>0.40) and AVE (>0.70) of ASS are all above the cut-off values. Therefore, the reliability and convergent validity of both first order and second order reflective constructs are considered satisfactory based on the pilot study.

Socio-cultural adaptation (SCAS) fulfilled its reliability and validity criteria. As indicated in Table 6, the satisfactory reliability of all the five first order reflective constructs of SCAS is achieved as CR scores are above 0.60. Also, the convergent validity of ABB (AVE = 0.718), AMP (AVE = 0.587), and APS (AVE = 0.628) exceed the cut-off value of >0.50. At present, the convergent validity of AKB (AVE = 0.462) and AKW (AVE = 0.470) does not meet the standard value; however, with the probably deleted item, the AVE exceeds the benchmark. Overall, the SCAS scale meets the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.912) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.676), which indicate that SCAS is a reliable and valid construct.

COPE has also fulfilled the satisfactory criteria for its reliability and validity. As indicated in Table 7, the satisfactory reliability of all the three first-order reflective constructs (i.e., EFC, LCR, and PEC) is achieved as CR scores are above 0.60. Among these three dimensions, the convergent validity of LCR (AVE = 0.543) and PEC (AVE = 0.569) exceed the cut-off value of >0.50. The AVE of EFC (AVE = 0.435) is currently a bit lower than 0.50, however, with the probably deleted item, the AVE exceeds the benchmark. Overall, the second-order reflective measure of COPE meets the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.870) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.697), which indicate a reliable and valid construct.

Finally, the reliability and validity of psychological well-being (PWB) were assessed with the quality criteria. As indicated in Table 8, the satisfactory reliability of all the six first-order reflective constructs of PWB is achieved as CR scores are above 0.60. Along with the convergent validity of KPH (AVE = 0.505) and KPT (AVE = 0.531), they exceeded the cut-off value of >0.50. The other four first-order constructs, namely KPA (AVE = 0.479), KPK (AVE = 0.490), KPP (AVE = 0.450), and KPS (AVE = 0.480) did not meet the standard value of above 0.50; however, with the probably deleted item, the AVE of these four constructs exceeded the benchmark. Overall, the PWB scale met the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.904) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.612), which indicate that PWB is a reliable and valid construct.

Discriminant validity of the study variables was also assessed based on Fornell-Lacker Criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) correlation values (Henseler et al., 2015). Based on the Fornell-Lacker Criterion, all the four constructs fulfil the requirement of discriminant validity as AVE scores were higher than the other correlation values in Table 9 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et

Livet and an	Cocond	Itome/	Lactor	Befo	Before deleting item	em	Itom if	Afte	After deleting item	tem
constructs	order	dimensions	loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	deleted	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
SF		SF10	0.761	0.862	0.895	0.551	N/A			
		SF3	0.698							
		SF4	0.636							
		SF6	0.801							
		SF7	0.766							
		SF8	0.831							
		SF9	0.683							
SPK		SPK2	0.680	0.733	0.817	0.433	SPK7	.737	0.825	0.491
		SPK3	0.798							
		SPK4	0.753							
		SPK5	0.607							
		SPK7	0.468							
		SPK8	0.589							
SPS		SPS1	0.739	0.908	0.924	0.576	N/A			
		SPS11	0.788							
		SPS2	0.745							
		SPS3	0.753							
		SPS4	0.796							
		SPS5	0.762							
		SPS6	0.718							
		SPS7	0.750							
		SPS8	0.774							
	Academic	SF	0.717	ı	0.872	0.696	N/A			
	Stress	SPK	0.893							
	(CCF)	SdS	0.881							

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Table 5 Reliability and convergent validity of academic stress (ASS)

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First-	Second-	Items/	Factor	Before d	Before deleting item		Item if	After d	After deleting item	
order constructs	order	dimensions	loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	deleted	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
ABB		ABB1	0.776	0.622	0.835	0.718				
821		ADD3	212.0	C 1 C	200.0	010	17714		0.040	
AKB		AKBI	0.222	0.763	0.830	0.462	AKBI	C0/.0	0.842	/10.0
		AKB10	0./06							
		AKB3	0.707							
		AKB4	0.616							
		AKB7	0.733							
		AKB8	0.762							
AKW		AKW1	0.724	0.773	0.841	0.470	AKW5	0.764	0.841	0.516
		AKW2	0.653							
		AKW3	0.711							
		AKW5	0.611							
		AKW8	0.690							
		AKW9	0.716							
AMP		AMP1	0.712	0.652	0.810	0.587				
		AMP2	0.776							
		AMP3	0.808							
APS		APS1	0.453	0.909	0.929	0.628				
		APS11	0.781							
		APS12	0.881							
		APS13	0.875							
		APS14	0.873							
		APS15	0.802							
		APS16	0.797							
		APS7	0.793							
	Socio-	ABB	0.648	•	0.912	0.676				
	cultural	AKB	0.914							
	Adaptanon (SCA.S)	AKW	0.859							
	(minor)	AMP	0.768							
		VOV	1001							

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 Table 6

 Reliability and convergent validity of socio-cultural adaptation (SCAS)

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	C	T	T = 44 = 1	Befo	Before deleting item	em	J:1	Afte	After deleting item	em
FILSU-OFGER CONStructs	order	ttems/ dimensions	r actor loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	deleted	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
EFC		EFC_1	0.693	0.457	0.704	0.435	EFC4	0.638	0.806	0.583
		EFC_2	0.827							
		EFC_3	0.757							
		EFC_4	0.040							
LCR		LCR_1	0.716	0.718	0.825	0.543				
		LCR_3	0.831							
		LCR_4	0.778							
		LCR_5	0.604							
PFC		PFC_1	0.851	0.805	0.867	0.569				
		PFC_2	0.856							
		PFC_3	0.753							
		PFC_4	0.592							
		PFC_5	0.688							
	Coping	EFC	0.900	1	0.87	0.697				
		LCR	0.632							
		PFC	0.939							

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Table 7

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	Second-order	Items/	Factor	Befor	Before deleting item	tem	Item if	Afte	After deleting item	m
constructs		dimensions	loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	deleted	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
KPA		KPA1	0.604	0.730	0.820	0.479	KPA1	.701	0.815	0.527
		KPA3	0.701							
		KPA4	0.709							
		KPA5	0.629							
		KPA6	0.801							
HdN		KPH2	0.743	0.661	0.792	0.505				
		KPH3	0.795							
		KPH5	0.367							
		KPH6	0.838							
KPK		KPK1	0.414	0.644	0.785	0.490	KPK1	0.679	0.824	0.610
		KPK3	0.728							
		KPK5	0.831							
		KPK6	0.753							
KPP		KPP2	0.516	0.598	0.762	0.450	KPP2	0.567	0.774	0.536
		KPP3	0.794							
		KPP4	0.651							
		KPP7	0.693							
KPS		KPS2	0.808	0.644	0.787	0.485	KPS5	0.621	0.799	0.571
		KPS3	0.649							
		KPS5	0.549							
		KPS6	0.751							

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FIrst-order	Second-order	Items/	Factor	Befor	Before deleting item	tem	Item if	ΨU	After deleting item	tem
constructs		dimensions	loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE		Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
KPT		KPT2	0.619	.583	0.771	0.531				
		KPT3	0.791							
		KPT5	0.764							
	Psychological	KPA	0.754	1	0.904	0.612				
	wellbeing	КРН	0.808							
	(FWB)	KPK	0.825							
		KPP	0.758							
		SdX	0.849							
		KPT	0.689							
Second-					Second-	-b				
order reflective	ASS	COPE	PWB	SCAS	order reflective	tive	ASS	COPE	PWB	SCAS
constructs					constructs	ructs				
ASS	0.834				ASS					
COPE	0.066	0.835			COPE	6	0.289			
PWB	-0.290	0.159	0.782		PWB		0.385	0.552		
SCAS	0.293	-0.184	-0.447	0.822	SADS		034	0 336	0.518	

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al., 2011). Besides, Table 10 indicates the HTMT ration, as suggested by (Henseler et al., 2015). According to HTMT criterion, a construct co-relation value should be below 0.90 (Gold et al., 2001). Results show that all the constructs correlation values are lower than the threshold level, indicating a satisfactory level of discriminant validity between the constructs (Henseler et al., 2015).

Based on the CFA results, the adapted scale in the research ensures reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity in measuring the four studied variables, namely ASS, SCAS, COPE, and PWB (Hair et al., 2017a; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). At this stage, items that were considered to have lower convergent validity scores, based on the results of the pilot study would be removed from the actual research. Overall, the reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of both the first order and second order constructs can be considered satisfactory.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to identify the effect of academic stress, coping, and sociocultural adaptation on the psychological well-being of Indonesian students. The result revealed that academic stress, coping, and socio-cultural adaptation had a significant impact on the psychological well-being of Indonesian students. Moreover, the findings support the notion that the students in this study were facing academic stress related to the final grade, excessive homework, term papers, examinations, studying for exams, waiting for graded tests, pop quizzes, forgotten assignments, incomplete assignments, unclear assignments, announced quizzes, missing classes, unclear course objectives, attending wrong class, late dismissals of class, and arriving late for class. These data can be categorized into psychological stress (Kohn & Frazer, 1986). Psychosocial stress, on the other hand, consists of speaking in class, fast-paced lectures, unprepared to respond to questions, incorrect answers in class, learning new skills, non-native language lectures, boring classes, note-taking in class, and evaluating classmates' work (Kohn & Frazer, 1986).

Indonesian students' coping in this study was characterized by problem-focused coping (PFC) and emotion-focused coping (EFC) strategies, whereby the problemfocused coping is classified as active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint and instrumental social support. However, emotion-focused coping is more to emotional social support consisting of positive reinterpretation and growth, acceptance, denial and religious coping. These coping are considered to be a positive oriented approach or a positive reinforcement style and in line with a lower level of stress (Gibbons, 2010; Jones & Johnston, 1997; Shikai et al., 2009). Furthermore, another interesting discovery of this research was the three skills employed by Indonesian students to adapt to the social and cultural context of this study. These skills include being good at making new friends, active in social gatherings, and having communication skill with the host country. It was determined that being good at making new friends is considered being competent in dealing with someone uncomfortable or aggressive. On the other hand, being active in social gatherings refer to individuals attendance at social events or gatherings. Meanwhile, being able to communicate with the host country is ideal as it provides an opportunity to interact with people from different ethnic groups so that that information can be exchanged while gauging significant knowledge in sociocultural matters.

Finally, this study also revealed that three dimensions were contributing to the psychological well-being of the students. The first dimension incorporates selfdetermination, independence, and freedom from norms, or commonly referred to as autonomy. The second dimension is a positive attitude toward oneself and past life or referred to as self-acceptance, and the final dimension is a living goal and belief that one's life is meaningful, or in other words, having a purpose in life.

CONCLUSIONS

Considerable insights were obtained from examining the psychological well-being of postgraduate Indonesians students aged ranging from 23 to 47 years old, specifically those who were sponsored by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education program, particularly in terms of their adaption towards academic stress, coping and social-cultural adaptation. In order to gauge relevant information relating to the research, participants were instructed to answer four different types of Likert-based questionnaires (ASS, COPE, SCAS, RPWB) via online. This is to allow participants to provide their response towards stressful situation easily.

In short, the evidence from this study suggests that CA and CR of the three first order reflective dimensions, namely SF, SPK, and SPS, were above the threshold level of >0.70. CR scores of the three first order reflective constructs were above the cut-off values of >0.60 (i.e., SF = 0.895, SPK = 0.817, SPS = 0.924), indicating a satisfactory level. Therefore, the SCAS scale meets the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.912) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.676), signifying that SCAS is a reliable and valid construct. Next, the second order reflective measure of COPE met the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.870) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.697), demonstrating that the construct is reliable and valid. Finally, the PWB scale met the quality standard of reliability (CR = 0.904) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.612), suggesting that PWB is a reliable and valid construct. Thus, the dimensions of academic stress, coping and social-cultural adaptation toward the psychological well-being among Indonesian postgraduate students have been identified.

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Emotional Intelligence from Perspectives of Malaysian Helping Professionals: A Qualitative Study

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ABSTRACT

Frequent emotional interactions between professional helpers and their clients mean that helpers must possess a high level of emotional intelligence (EI). No previous study explores the specific aspects of EI needed to become efficient helpers. Moreover, most EI research has been carried out in Western countries, where the concept of EI may be different in comparison to the Malaysian context. Therefore, this study explores the idea of EI from the perspective of professional helpers in Malaysia through a qualitative research design. Twenty-four professional helpers, with a minimum of five years working experience in their respective fields, were recruited for four focus group interviews. Participants included counsellors, psychologist, rehabilitation officers and social workers. Data were analysed using Atlas.ti, and the results yielded 11 themes. They were selfawareness, self-expression, self-understanding, self-acceptance, self-management, social

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E-mail addresses: hartina@um.edu.my (Ida Hartina Ahmed Tharbe) melati@um.edu.my (Melati Sumari) kokmun.ng@oregonstate.edu (Kok-Mun Ng) safatul@um.edu.my (Norsafatul Aznin A. Razak) saflehba@ukm.edu.my (Salleh Amat) * Corresponding author awareness, effective decision making, effective communication, management of others emotion, intrapersonal professional competencies and interpersonal professional competencies. The research highlights the vital components of EI from the perspective of professional helpers in the multicultural society of Malaysia.

Keywords: Culture, emotional intelligence, focus group, professional helpers, qualitative study

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INTRODUCTION

Humans differ in their skills of perceiving, understanding, and utilising emotional information, suggesting that individuals differ in their ability to cope with their emotional experiences. Such individual differences are referred as differences in emotional intelligence (EI), which contributes substantially to the psychological well-being of individuals (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Based on previous studies (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) the theoretical conceptualisation of EI can take the form of three different perspectives: ability, mixed model, or trait. These different conceptualisations of EI provide the basis for the literature used in this study and are discussed in detail in the following section.

Salovey and Mayer introduced the first model of EI in 1990, then revised their earlier definition to include the area of thinking about feelings in 1997. An explanation of EI by Mayer and Salovey (1997):

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotions; the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (p. 10).

In 2002, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), an ability-based test was developed, to assess the four branches of EI namely perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions and managing emotion. MSCEIT consists of 141 items and takes 30-45 minutes to complete. Selfrated inventories based on the Mayer and Salovey's conceptualisations have been developed such as the Self-rated Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS; Brackett et al., 2004), Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and Schutte's Self-report Emotional Intelligence Inventory (SSREI; Schutte et al., 1998). These inventories have been used in research in the recent years.

The Bar-On model of social intelligence defines EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14) He further rationalised that "intelligence describes the aggregates of abilities, competencies, and skills... that represent a collection and knowledge used to cope with life effectively. The adjective emotional is employed to emphasise that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence..." (Bar-On, 1997, p. 15). Bar-On (1997) listed five personality areas that were related to life success and which defined EI. They are (a) intrapersonal skills, (b) interpersonal skills, (c) adaptability, (d) stress management and (e) general mood. Bar-On's mixed approach of EI resulted in the first commercially available inventory for assessing EI, named the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). A later version of EQ-i 2.0 (self-report scale) and EQ-i 360 (observer rating scale) was developed to evaluate the complete profile of EI and provides five modified composite scores and fifteen subscale scores namely self-perception (self-regard, selfactualization, emotional self-awareness); interpersonal (interpersonal relationships, empathy, social responsibility); decision making (problem solving, reality testing, impulse control). Self-expression (emotional expression, assertiveness, independence) and stress management (flexibility, stress tolerance, optimism). However, Bar-On EQI has evolved more in a clinical context rather than an occupational one.

Goleman's (1995) mixed model of EI covers five areas namely (a) knowing one's emotions, (b) managing emotions, (c) motivating oneself, (d) recognising emotions in others, and (e) handling relationships. In 1998, Goleman further divided his five emotional intelligence dimensions to include 25 different emotional competencies under two main umbrellas of competencies; personal competence and social competence. Goleman's conceptual model of EI was used to develop ECI and ECI-2 with the collaboration of the Hay Group (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004; Goleman, 1998) and is widely used in the context of organisational leadership.

Furnham and Petrides (2003) highlighted theoretical differences between trait EI (or 'emotional self-efficacy') and ability EI or 'cognitive-emotional ability' (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001). According to Furnham and Petrides (2003, p. 278), EI bears consideration as, "a constellation of behavioural dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognise, process, and utilise emotion-laden information". Included in this "constellation" are emotionally relevant personality traits, such as empathy and perseverance, and self-perceived social abilities allowing conceptualisation as "emotional self-efficacy." Petrides and Furnham introduced TEIQue as a measure of proposed trait EI. The TEIQue encompasses 15 subscales organised under 4 factors: well-being (self-esteem, trait happiness, trait optimism); self-control (emotion regulation, stress management, low impulsiveness), emotionality (Emotion perception (self and others), emotion expression, relationship skills empathy) and sociability (social competence, emotion management (others), assertiveness). Two other subscales (Adaptability and Selfmotivation) do not belong to any of these factors but are included directly under the total score. The internal consistency of original TEIQue, based on the initial sample pool of 102 individuals, is 0.86. The TEIQue (short form) was later developed with two items from each of the 15 subscales from the TEIQue based on their correlations with the total subscale scores (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

After building an EI profile for government workers in Malaysia, Noriah and her colleagues (2004) adapted the Goleman model to fit a Malaysian context by adding two more EI domains, spiritual awareness and maturity. The study resulted in the development of the Malaysian Emotional Intelligence Quotient Inventory. Meanwhile, Yusoff et al. (2010) developed the USM Emotional Quotient Inventory (USMEQ-i) based on the mixed model of EI. They used it to measure the EI of the medical student applicants to assist with student selection (Yusoff et al., 2011). The self-report measures seven domains of EI, namely emotional control, emotional maturity, emotional conscientiousness, emotional awareness, emotional commitment, emotional fortitude and emotional expression, and a special index called the faking index.

This current research is driven by the belief that individuals in the helping professions require a higher level of EI compared to those in other jobs due to the emotionally taxing responsibilities associated with the profession. A study by Nastasa and Farcas (2015) highlighted the relationship between EI and the sense of personal accomplishment, which determined the level of burnout among healthcare professionals. Past studies identified the benefits of EI and its relation to other variables such as job satisfaction (Anari, 2012), psychological wellness (Kumar & Hasnain, 2009; Shabani et al., 2010), stress and stress management (Naidoo & Pau, 2008; Salim & Nasir, 2010) and many more.

Research shows that EI is of benefit to counsellors because it enables them to identify the client's strengths and weaknesses, thus providing input on whether the client is improving or not (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006). The research also suggests that clients are less likely to experience high levels of stress in the future if counsellors can assist them to accurately identify emotions (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006). Emotional competence variables are also potential mediators of change in counselling interventions that may lead to a decrease in negative issues like depression (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 1999).

The study by Mercer and Reynolds (2002) highlighted that a key component of EI was empathy. It is a crucial element in therapeutic relationships and contributes to improving the quality of care administered by doctors, nurses, and therapists (counsellors). Meanwhile, empathy is regarded as one of the major contributors to psychological wellness (Kumar & Hasnain, 2009). Findings by Wagaman et al. (2015) indicate that among social workers, empathy might prevent or reduce burnout and secondary traumatic stress, as well as increase levels of compassion and job satisfaction. The researchers proposed that empathy should be incorporated into training and education as part of continuous learning throughout a social worker's career. This suggestion is in line with earlier research by Ogińska-Bulik (2005), which found that EI played a significant role among professionals in the helping professions (doctors, nurses, morale officers and managers) in perceived job stress and related health effects. The research highlighted that a high level of EI reduced the feeling of lack of control and support. Kinman and Grant (2011) emphasised the importance of inter- and intrapersonal emotional competencies in social worker trainees and showed that it encouraged coping skills and increased psychological well-being. Being emotionally intelligent can be regarded as an added value to help professionals build alliances with clients and for self-care maintenance.

As discussed, all previous studies are based on the quantitative measurement of EI using a standardised test and may lack the depth of understanding towards the EI of those in the helping profession. Therefore, this study seeks to explore the meaning of EI from a qualitative perspective through direct interview with participants in the profession itself.

Moreover, all conceptualisations of EI originated in the West and may differ from the conceptualisation of EI among multicultural Malaysian helping professionals. This qualitative study investigates the different realms of EI from the perspective of Malaysian helping professionals. Taking into considerations all conceptualisations of EI from a variety of theoretical approaches, the researchers conducted a semi-structured interview through a series of focus groups with helping professionals from multiple backgrounds. The methodology is discussed in further detail in the following sections.

METHODS

The present study examines EI from the perspectives of helping professionals in Malaysia, which includes counsellors, psychologist, rehabilitation officers and social workers, using qualitative research design. The qualitative research design was chosen because it is an overarching concept under which a variety of issues may be examined (Rahman, 2017). It also produces an in-depth description of participants' feelings, opinions, experiences; and interprets the meanings of their actions (Denzin, 1989). Meanwhile, the focus group discussion method was chosen for data gathering for several reasons. Firstly, its environment enables participants to discuss perceptions, ideas, opinions and thoughts (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Secondly, Morgan (1988) asserted that the interaction among participants, in this case, the helping professionals, in the focus group would yield valuable data. Since time was of the essence for this study, the third reason for choosing the focus group method was because of the in-depth data it provides in a relatively short period (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Participants and Sampling Procedure

According to Morse et al. (2002), to ensure the reliability and validity of the data, "the sample must be appropriate and must consist of participants who best represent or have knowledge of the research topic. These guidelines ensure the efficient and effective saturation of categories, with optimal quality data and minimum dross" (p. 18). Based on the operational definition of helping professionals for the study, participants include counsellors, psychologists, rehabilitation officers and social workers. Purposive sampling was used to select representatives of helping professions from various agencies.

Based on Creswell's (1998) suggestion of 20-30 sample size for focus group discussions, 24 participants were selected. There were five private practising counsellors, one counsellor from a prison setting, one counsellor from a school setting, two counsellors from organisations, two student counsellors from higher education settings, five counsellor educators also from higher education settings, one hospital psychologist, three counsellors who were community social workers, and four rehabilitation officers from drug rehabilitation settings. All participants met the research selection criteria of five years working in the helping profession, regularly attending to clients from different backgrounds, and had received formal education in their respective fields. Their age ranged from 35 to 58 years old. In terms of ethnicity, there were eighteen Malays, three Chinese and three Indian participants in the study.

Ethical Considerations

Upon invitation, all participants confirmed that they were willing to participate voluntarily and not due to any coercion from the researcher. Before each interview, the participants were verbally informed of the objectives, procedures, risks, and benefits of the study. They were also given written material about the research and informed of confidentially and their right to withdraw at any time. All the participants gathered for their focus group meeting on the assigned date. They signified their agreement to participate and that they understood the terms and conditions by signing an informed consent form.

Data Collection Procedure

Data collection was done through four series of focus group interviews. These interviews were conducted from October 2016 to April 2017. Each focus group was held for 6 hours with 45 minutes lunch break. The researchers prepared semi-structured interview protocols based on the different conceptualisations of EI found in the past literature to fit the objectives of the study. The questions were open-ended to enable samples to add to their perspective of EI relating to their daily activities as helping professionals. Two of the researchers conducted the interviews. Some sample questions of the meeting included: "What does EI mean to you as a professional helper?"; "How important is it to identify the emotions of clients in your role as a professional helper"; "What is your opinion about making professional decisions during the emotional state?"; and "as a professional helper, how do you manage your own emotions?".

Data Analysis

The focus group interview was recorded to ensure all relevant information was gathered. The interview data were then transcribed verbatim for analysis. To promote trustworthiness, triangulation and members checking were conducted. In qualitative research, validity refers to the appropriateness of the process, tools and data of the study (Leung, 2015). Triangulation was done to determine whether the data from all available resources in the study converged and led to the same findings (Yin, 2011). Member checking was carried out by taking the transcribed data back to the participants to determine its accuracy and synchronicity with their experiences (Birt et al., 2016).

During data analysis using Atlas.ti, open coding through line by line analysis was used to ground elements that emerged from the data. Essential words and phrases are labelled to identify concepts. Initially, each focus group interview was coded separately. Later, a combined open coding session was conducted to determine emerging concepts and categories across all focus group interview and confirm data saturation. The open coding resulted in 365 codes. The data were further analysed using axial coding, whereby "the researcher develop the concepts into categories and organise the categories" (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 414). Researchers looked for recurring themes or similarities across the interviews which resulted in 43 subthemes.

The axial coding process was followed by selective coding, focusing on theoretical connections among the core categories that emerged. The researchers looked for a storyline of the theory by rechecking the theory with the data, and by making constant comparisons with existing literature until theoretical saturation occurred. Theoretical saturation refers to when no new information or concepts emerge from the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). From the data analysis, the research team was able to confirm eleven main themes.

RESULTS

Data analyses revealed the professional helpers' EI dimensions. Eleven themes were identified which include self-awareness, self-expression, self-understanding, selfacceptance, self-management, social awareness, decision making, effective communication and management of other's emotion, intrapersonal professional competency and interpersonal professional competency. Each theme is described and illustrated as follows.

Self-awareness

The majority of the participants agreed that the basic element of EI was selfawareness which referred to awareness of their emotions, mood changes, and external influences. Awareness of one's own emotions is crucial as highlighted by a private practitioner,

"It's related to how we are aware of our own emotions....".

This is supported by another counsellor who mentioned,

"If you are emotionally intelligent, you are in touch with your own emotions".

One participant highlighted awareness towards mood changes and how it affected him

"I'm aware of things that change my mood...".

Several participants talked about the awareness of external influences. One participant stated,

"I realised my surrounding will lead to positive or negative emotions and may cause stigma. Sometimes I need to reframe the emotion positively and feel better about it."

In summary, self-awareness is one of the fundamental EI component needed among helping professionals, and it requires them to be aware of their own emotions, moods and interplay of external influences towards their emotion.

Self-expression

Through this theme, several aspects of self-expression were identified including the ability to express oneself accurately, Possession of extensive emotional vocabulary and assertiveness trait. The participants agree that helpers with high EI can accurately self-express, as voiced out by a participant,

"Even when we are angry at someone, we should use accurate self-expression".

Another participant supported that extensive emotional vocabulary would assist better self-expression,

"It's very important to know a lot of this (emotional) words; it can get tricky if we cannot identify the actual emotion".

Emotionally intelligent helpers were also able to express themselves more assertively than those with low EI as mentioned in the following statement: "if the counsellor manages to express, means we are able to put the emotion in place, at times be assertive. Although you might be rejected for being assertive, it's very important as a counsellor".

In essence, the ability of self-expression among professional helpers can help to improve emotional communication with clients.

Self-understanding

The self-understanding theme includes the ability to understand a broad range of emotions, emotional triggers and the effects of these emotions on one's behaviour. A participant pointed out his view on the ability to understand different emotions by saying,

"We have to look at ourselves in a more holistic manner, understanding which emotion is most significant at the moment".

The data also supports the ability to understand emotional triggers as part of EI. A participant shared,

"(his story) makes me recall that emotional experience which happens to me and I guess others too. So, I need to be aware of anything that triggers me emotionally and decides how to deal with it".

Participants also highlighted the ability to understand the effects of emotion on behaviour as an important component of helpers EI. A female participant shared,

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"During the times when I'm experiencing a very negative emotion, I know that it if I deal with anyone, it will cause trouble to the person".

In conclusion, the ability of helpers to understand themselves reflects their EI and enhances their ability to attend clients effectively.

Self-acceptance

The data revealed three sub-themes under self-acceptance, namely acceptance of positive and negative emotions, ability to self-reflect (past situation) and emotional maturity. A participant shared how he accepted emotions,

"As for me, emotion depends very much on our cognition, our thinking, our belief system. If you're always negative, you will have negative emotions. But of course, negative and positive emotions are not wrong".

Another participant believed that selfacceptance also included the ability to reflect on past situations. He said:

"Sometimes I reflect on myself, my weaknesses in the past I know I'm not perfect but it thinking about it makes me realised I need to improve myself".

Participants also agreed that selfacceptance also led to emotional maturity, "Emotional experience will lead us to be more mature. It helps us to control our own life".

As a whole, acceptance of oneself is related to EI since accepting oneself reflects the openness of helpers towards their here and now.

Self-management

This competency refers to how EI competent helpers manage themselves at emotional times. It includes the ability to regulate emotion, seek emotional support from others and use spiritual and emotional management. The following statements from the participants support these subthemes.

A counsellor shared regarding his regulation of emotion,

"Our emotion needs to be stable, moderate... I find that if I'm too happy, or too sad, I do tend to make the wrong decision. Therefore, I need to cool down and keep calm."

Participants also mentioned seeking emotional support to regulate emotions for intelligent, emotional helpers. A psychologist in the study suggested,

"I would say emotional support is like psychological first aid for me to manage stress. When I'm are not stable to think well, that's one of my coping mechanisms".

Spiritual, emotional management was mentioned frequently in all focus group discussion. It is regarded as a crucial element of being emotionally intelligent. A participant shared his view by saying,

"I believe in the concept of 'Syukur', appreciating our life, it's one of the important ways to control our emotions".

Another participant supported by saying,

"When I'm stressed out, I seek solace in my religion; it never fails to help me calm down."

Interestingly, in addition to the above, patience was mentioned several times as a critical part of EI that is necessary for professional helpers to manage their emotion during interaction with clients. A counsellor shared his view on patience as follows,

"As counsellors, we seldom have prior information about a new client, so the emotions of the client have to be explored to be managed. If a counsellor is emotional and rush, then you can't do that. Exploration needs patience."

It can be concluded that emotionally intelligent helpers practice personal selfmanagement and are open to supporting others. They utilise the spiritual approach to as stress coping mechanism and bear a high level of patience when dealing with challenges.

Social Awareness

This refers to the cognitive processes which assist the sensitivity of the participants toward others during the interaction. The subtheme includes awareness of the emotions of others, the ability to emphasise, to discriminate genuine and non-genuine emotions, to be non-judgmental, and to have patience.

Most of the helpers stated that they were aware of the emotion of others, as shared by a psychologist in the focus group,

"I can understand the emotions of others well".

On a deeper level than basic awareness, the ability to empathise is recognised as an important component of EI. A counsellor shared his view on empathy as follows,

"Sometimes they look aggressive, yes they seem threatening, but I always hold on to a belief (which is) I need to empathise with them, How it feels like to be in their place. Some of these kids become notorious because people accuse them of being bad. When we empathise, they will open up to us."

A few participants shared the ability to discriminate genuine and non-genuine emotions. Quoting from a social worker, he mentioned,

"If we have high EI, we should be able to identify genuine and nongenuine disclosure of clients..." Being non-judgmental was also seen as EI requirement in terms of helpers' social awareness. The statement of a participant clearly illustrated this,

"In the case, if I have a prostitute as a client, although my values may oppose I will not judge her because my I'm here to help her, although for me prostitution is wrong".

In conclusion, social awareness is highlighted as one of the EI components that enables participants to work more effectively with clients in achieving positive changes.

Decision Making

This theme includes an awareness of how emotions affect decision making, and the ability not to let emotions influence decision making so that rational decisions can be made. The following statements support each one of these sub-themes. Being humans with emotions, the participants agreed that helpers needed to have an awareness of the emotions that influenced their decision making, as shared by a participant,

"We need to evaluate constantly, is our emotion appropriate or not. If we are too emotional, most probably we are not able to make a good decision".

Interestingly a lady counsellor emphasised the ability to avoid any decision making while in emotional condition. Her statement was, "When we are too emotional it's better to withhold the decision making if that's not possible for me, then I will discuss with someone before deciding".

Under this theme, all participants agreed that the ability to make rational decisions while at work was very important. A statement from a counsellor illustrates this need,

"At work, I have to make more rational decisions. We have to identify with whom we can refer to help us with rational decision making".

Since decision making is an integral part of the relationship, it can be summarised that emotional intelligence helpers must always strive to make rational decisions by keeping their emotions at bay when necessary.

Effective Communication

Effective communication refers to the ability to interact well with others nonverbally and verbally. The data from the focus group supports that an emotionally intelligent helper communicates effectively with their clients verbally and non-verbally.

A blind counsellor in the study shared a fascinating insight into the ability to understand non-verbal and paralinguistic communications in his statement,

"Sometimes I can identify from the breathing and the way he talks, and I can identify that there is something else to explore. Therefore, I try to communicate based on his reaction".

Another participant supported the importance of non-verbal understanding as part of effective communication. He mentioned

"I can see in his (client's) way of sitting; he needs time to open up. I encourage the client through my words".

The participants also agreed that an emotionally intelligent helper could communicate effectively to generate rational thinking. One of the participants stated

"I would say that emotionally intelligent counsellors deliver the message more rationally. Rational communication helps the client to consider between emotion, behaviour and action to be taken.

In summary, the emotional intelligence of a helper is reflected through their communication style, both verbally and nonverbally, thus leading to rational thinking of the client.

Management of Other's Emotion

This component refers to the ability to evaluate and regulate the emotions of clients effectively. Emotionally intelligent helpers can assess their client's feelings and identify appropriate ways to manage them, as illustrated by this statement, "I can detect if someone's mood changes during my interaction with him. It helps me to be ready in terms of managing his emotions".

An emotionally intelligent helper can regulate the emotions of clients in various ways. The following statement supports this idea,

"When we are managing the emotions of others, aware of the words we use, if we are using a negative word, we definitely will not be successful in managing their emotions".

To conclude, an emotionally intelligent helper manages their clients' emotions well, and this ability benefits the therapeutic relationship.

Intrapersonal Professional Competencies

This theme refers to how helpers manage themselves and their emotions, precisely, concerning their professional identity. Several interesting concepts related to a professional role were identified in this theme. A participant highlighted that awareness towards one's value system is a vital component of EI. As illustrated in the following statement:

"As a counsellor, we must be aware of our personal identity as a counsellor and as a human. Do not bring in your perceptions into the session. There needs to be a thick divider." This brings another realisation that emotionally intelligent helpers are also open-minded and able to refrain from being judgmental. The following verbatim illustrates this:

"Our emotions are interrelated and need to be in line with our cognitive thinking, which we can actually filter. Before entering the counselling room, we need to be open-minded; be cognitively ready."

Based on the focus group discussion, emotionally intelligent helpers are also determined to have an excellent ability to self-care and cope with unfinished business. These elements were mentioned by two different participants follows:

"EI does not depend just on our maturity; it's about how we give space to ourselves, to love ourselves. Self-care is very important."

"In the process of counsellor education, we can use the time to heal ourselves. We have to expose ourselves to unlimited issues which we need to express and deal with it.

As a result of all the EI abilities in this theme, participants agreed that it led to the ability to manage countertransference more effectively among intelligent, emotional helpers. One of them shared,

"When experiencing countertransference, I will pause, I will summarise what the client has said, slow down a bit and take the opportunity to calm down"-

In essence, an emotionally intelligent helper has the competencies to manoeuvre their self as professionals by identifying intrapersonal elements which may affect their professional work.

Interpersonal Professional Competencies

This theme concerns the quality of emotional interaction between the helpers and clients in their professional roles. Several participants highlighted the acceptance of professional limitations. An example of this narrative is as follows:

"As a human being, we sometimes feel reluctant, but we cannot say that we can accept everything the job needs. If we feel that way, we accept our weaknesses."

This idea is supported by a counsellor in the study who mentioned about the readiness to refer to others in the profession. He said,

"If we do not know what to do, it's better to refer, rather than pretend to sympathise with the client, because we aim to help."

Meanwhile, the ability to differentiate between personal and professional emotions was also deemed as an EI ability. The following verbatim is from a social worker. He mentioned:

"It has to be a habit, the practice of separating our personal from professional emotions has to be done effectively. If it's not trained, it affects the session and can cause problems in providing our service."

The participants agree that emotionally intelligent helper who differentiates between personal and professional emotions can avoid a dual relationship with the client. A counsellor shared,

"In a counselling session, we should not have any other relationship with the client, because we know the relationship has attachment implications"-

Based on this theme, it can be concluded that highly intelligent helpers act professionally to deal with the interplay of emotions between themselves and the client. This EI component may not be a requirement for individuals outside the helping profession.

DISCUSSIONS

It is thought that this study is the first to explore EI from the perspective of helping professionals. Previous EI models are conceptualised for the overall general population, with some concentration on specific groups of respondents. Working in human-related jobs means a person is subjected to various emotional experiences both positive and negative. The findings of this research are useful in understanding the different themes of EI required by professional helpers to be efficient at their jobs. These EI competencies can buffer the effects of emotional stress factors thus enabling the professionals to provide quality care while preserving their psychological well-being.

This research supports many EI components proposed by earlier researchers. However, there are some unique findings that are worth mentioning that differentiate this study from earlier ones. The study highlighted spiritual and emotional management and patience as components of EI among helpers in Malaysia in managing their emotions. It is common to find Malaysians who are spiritually connected to their religions. The first national principle of Malaysia is to "Believe in God", and this principle is upheld by most Malaysians, including those participating in this study. Several common spiritual coping skills to manage emotions were found during the focus group, irrespective of the different cultural backgrounds of the helpers. Meanwhile, patience which is not mentioned as an EI trait in earlier studies is recognised as an important component of an emotionally intelligent helper due to the challenging nature of the cases and clients they encounter each day. During the sharing's of Muslim participants, patience was recognised as an essential Islamic virtue.

Conducted in a multicultural society of Malaysia, the findings of this study embrace the importance of multicultural awareness in counselling. Emotionally intelligent helpers are identified as non-judgmental and more aware of their value system under the theme of intrapersonal professional competency. These EI components are in line with Article 17-19 in the Ethical Standards of Human Service Professionals (National Organization for Human Services, 1996) which emphasises that services should be rendered to clients without discriminations and that service providers should be aware of their cultural background, beliefs, and values. Meanwhile, the findings under the interpersonal professional competency theme suggest that emotionally intelligent helpers are also mindful of their professional limitations and have the readiness to refer to other professionals if the need arises. Ivey et al. (2014) mentioned that multicultural counsellors understood their multicultural background and the differences from others. They recognised the limitations this posed and acknowledged the need to refer clients on certain occasions.

This study also points out two unique EI components exclusively related to the professional role of helpers, namely the ability to manage counter-transference and to avoid dual relationships. The therapeutic relationship can be jeopardised because of these two components and the distraction caused to helpers' emotions when carrying out their professional duties. Emotionally intelligent helpers can manage countertransference by monitoring their emotional reactions and behaviour during sessions to adequately recognise what the client said or did to bring about that reaction in them (Goldfried & Davidson, 1994). Meanwhile, the ability to avoid a dual relationship is closely related to ethical practice. It is argued that dual relationships can lead to a loss of professionalism, which results in poor judgment and decision making (Brownlee, 1996), and may lead to the exploitation of the client, either in the form of exertion of power, or sexual transgression (Gross, 2005; Kitchener, 1988). Therefore, a professional helper is considered emotionally intelligent if they can manage counter-transference and avoid dual relationships during their professional life.

In conclusion, the study found several components of EI that were not discussed in the Western conceptualisation of EI. Furthermore, the study classified two themes uniquely related to the EI of professional helpers. They were intrapersonal professional competencies and professional interpersonal competencies. Based on these findings, our research team aims to develop an EI assessment scale to help professionals. The availability of such a measure will assist in identifying the level of EI in existing helping professionals, and in identifying opportunities for future training to enhance the competency levels of those with low EI. A scale could also assist with future recruitment by identifying the competencies of prospective helping professionals. This study provides researchers with the framework identify, evaluate, and plan appropriate training to ensure existing and future professional helpers enhance and develop their EI competencies.

CONCLUSION

This qualitative study provides a new perspective of EI among helping professionals. The research focuses specifically on professional counsellors, psychologists, rehabilitation officers and social workers in Malaysia. It is the first step towards understanding the similarity and uniqueness of helpers EI components, compared to those of the general public. The data analysis using Atlas.TI produced 11 themes. Most were replicated items that appeared in earlier conceptualisations of ability-based, mixed and trait EI. However, the study identified new components of EI among helpers in Malaysian society. It provides a useful framework to understand helpers' EI and develop an EI assessment tool for aiding professionals.

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Humour as a Moderator of Stress and Defence Based Coping Mechanisms among the Youth of Kerala, India

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this study was to examine the effect of the moderators of adaptive and maladaptive humour on stress and on the four levels of defence based coping mechanism amongst the youth of Kerala, India. Four hundred and fifty-three youth between the age of 18 and 40, selected from two different cities of North Kerala, India (Calicut, Malappuram) and Central Kerala, India (Cochin, Trissur), were asked to fill out three questionnaires assessing stress, coping and humour. Pearson's test of product-moment correlation indicated that stress had a positive and moderate statistically significant correlation with the first three levels of defence based coping mechanism (pathological defences, immature defences and neurotic defences). Furthermore, there was a positive and weak statistically significant correlation between stress and level-IV coping (mature defences). When positive and moderate correlation was found for stress with maladaptive humour, no significant correlation was

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 found with adaptive humour. When coping was studied in relationship with humour, a negative and weak statistically significant correlation was found for level-I coping (pathological defences) with adaptive humour, whereas a positive and moderate statistically significant correlation was found with maladaptive humour. Here level-IV coping (mature defences) was found to have a positive and moderate statistically significant relationship with adaptive and maladaptive humour. Moderator analysis showed that maladaptive humour moderated the association between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism. The study implied that youth should be trained to use more of mature means of coping and adaptive humour styles in life.

Keywords: Adaptive humour, defence based coping mechanisms, India, Kerala, maladaptive humour stress, youth

INTRODUCTION

Youth are considered as the greatest wealth and strength of any nation. Many scholars have done extensive studies on youth (Assaad & Krafft, 2020; Kerestes et al., 2014; Knudson & Mazurik, 2020; Sugar & Ford, 2012). Youth across the world, to be very specific Indian youth, receive endless support from the government and various ministries (Joshi & Kunduri, 2017). Despite all the provision the youth has received from the government, studies indicate that factors like asymmetries on jobs and skills, and the lack of proper guidance for setting realistic career goals hold back young Indians (World Economic Forum, 2018); that is, in the present competitive age, the younger generation is found to be more stressed (Bhargava & Trivedi, 2018).

Stress is a commonly used word that often refers to the sum of physical, mental and emotional tensions on a person (Marzo et al., 2016). Each person undergoes stress in different forms. Studies on stress have been receiving much research attention including in the domain of children and adolescents (Reddy et al., 2017; Rentala et al., 2019; Sharrer & Ryan-Wenger, 2002), youth (Alshagga et al., 2015; Fritz et al., 2017; James et al., 2018) and elderly population (Kumutha et al., 2014; Rani et al., 2016; Tandon, 2017).

One concept, closely linked to stress is coping. A coping mechanism is described as an effort directed to manage stress. This is inclusive of the usage of both task-oriented coping and ego as a defence mechanism (Somaiya et al., 2015). There is an ample number of studies that talk about the significance and application of different coping strategies (Somaiya et al., 2015). The psychoanalytical approach focuses on the use of defence mechanisms as a means toward coping (Freud, 1966). According to the theory, there are four levels of defence mechanisms which include level-I coping (pathological defences), level-II coping (immature defences), level-III coping (neurotic defences) and level-IV coping (mature defences). Vaillant (2011) pointed out that mature defences (e.g., sublimation and humour), as opposed to immature defences (e.g., projection and fantasy), encompassed change in mental health. Further, it was Valliant (1977) who also reported that excessive use of defences by an individual (or use of immature defences by an adult) was linked with psychopathology (as cited in George & Shari, 2015).

Studies on the stress-buffering effect of humour have been done by many scholars. Work and findings of Fritz et al. (2017) and Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2012) support the stress-buffering effect of humour. However,

a recent study on bank employees came up with a contradictory finding. According to the study, humour did not act as a stress-buffering agent (Van Oortmerssen et al., 2019). Studies also discussed the positive and negative effects of different humour styles. A study by Abel (2002) found that individuals with high humour appraised less stress, used more positive coping strategies and also reported as having less anxiety than their counterparts. Studies have also found that the adaptive humour (affiliative and self-enhancing humour) resulted in decreased stress and depression and increased level of selfesteem (Kuiper & McHale, 2009; Nicholas et al., 2004). Moreover, it also functions as an emotion regulation mechanism (Romero & Pescosolido, 2008). Maladaptive humour, which includes aggressive and self-defeating humour, was reported to lead to increased anxiety, depression and lowers self-esteem and emotional exhaustion (Tumkaya, 2007; Wood et al., 2007). With the strong empirical support on the effects of adaptive and maladaptive humour on the wellbeing of individuals, the present study investigated the effect of adaptive and maladaptive humour on stress-coping relationships.

Based on the empirical data from youth in the Western countries (Abel, 2002; Artemyeva, 2013; Fouladi et al., 2006; Fritz et al., 2017; Nezlek & Derks, 2001) and the few available studies in the Asian context (Kim, 2014); the present investigation aims at exploring stress, coping and humour among Indian youth and specifically on the youth of Kerala. Findings of reviewed articles showcased that only limited studies were done on stress, a defence based coping mechanisms and humour in the Indian context (Darshan et al, 2013, as cited in George & Shari, 2018). On the other side of the spectrum, studies have also reported that the high prevalence of psychological distress among Kerala youth (Jaisoorya et al., 2017) with the increase in the unemployment rate (Baby, 2019). The factors that may lead to college students in Kerala experiencing stress are academic, familial, emotional and work-related issues (Pullokaran, 2018). Meanwhile, highly stressed college students are found to use maladaptive coping styles (Navya et al., 2019). A study on medical officers of Kerala reported stress to be related to numerous coping variables such as denial, substance use, social support, positive reframing, and planning (Sadath & Kumar, 2017).

As studies specifically on stress, defence based coping mechanism and humour on the youth of Kerala was lacking, investigators decided to explore further on productive youth of Kerala. Hence in this study, we intended to determine the relationship between stress, defence mechanism based coping and humour in a population of youth (ages 18-40) selected from two cities of North Kerala (Calicut, Malappuram) and from two cities of Central Kerala (Thrissur, Cochin). Another purpose of the study was to investigate the moderating role of adaptive and maladaptive humour in stress and coping among the study participants. If humour (adaptive and maladaptive humour) plays a role in between stress and coping relationships, it can be concluded that youth needs to develop the skill of using humour in the best way to deal with stressors in life.

Objectives

- To examine the relationship among variables of stress, four levels of defence based coping mechanisms, adaptive humour and maladaptive humour among youth.
- 2. To examine the moderator role of adaptive and maladaptive humour in stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanisms among youth.

Hypotheses

- 1. There will be a significant relationship among the variables of stress, four levels of defence based coping mechanisms, adaptive humour and maladaptive humour among youth.
- 2. Adaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and

four levels of defence based coping mechanisms among youth.

3. Maladaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanisms among youth.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were youth between the ages of 18 and 40 (181 male, 272 female, N=453). Survey respondents were recruited from two cities of North Kerala (Calicut, Malappuram) and two cities of Central Kerala (Cochin, Trissur). Respondents were taken from different colleges, universities, IT hubs, small scale industries and companies within the study area. Other than the data collection through questionnaires shared to the respondents in the study area through electronic mail, in-person meetings with few of the participants at their residence were conducted. Details of participants are given in Table 1.

Table 1

Socio-demographic characteristics	of the study participants
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Variables		n	·	Variables		
Gender	Male	181	Age	18-22 years	84	
	Female	259		23-28 years	238	
	Total	453		29-33 years	79	
Marital	Married	194		34-40 years	52	
Status		Unmarried 259		Total	453	
	Unmarried Total					

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Materials

Data collection was through three different questionnaires. The questionnaires consisted of research instruments that covered three variables namely stress, a defence based coping mechanism and humour. In addition, there were questions on demographic characteristics such as gender, marital status and age of respondents. Stress was measured using Youth Stress Rating Scale (YSRS) developed by George and Shari in 2013 (cited in George & Shari, 2018). YSRS is a 75 item tool designed to assess the degree of stress experienced, in this case, by the youth of India. Items in this tool are categorized under ten factors: personal, environmental, social, financial, familial, health, intimate relations, job-related, studyrelated and emotional factors. The category of responses ranges from 0 to 5 for varying degrees of stress. A higher score indicated a higher level of stress, and a lower score indicated lower levels of stress. Test-retest reliability (0.67, P<0.01) and validity of the tool was also established using face validity and content validity. The tool was first constructed in Malayalam, and was later translated to English, before being standardized. Pearson's value of Product-Moment Correlation for the standardization of data was calculated as 0.98, significant at 0.01 level.

Coping Pattern Inventory-Defence Mechanisms or CPI-DM (George & Shari, 2013) was used to measure defence based coping mechanisms. CPI-DM consisted of 48 items which were categorized under 16 sub-factors and four different levels. The four levels are level-I coping (pathological defences), level-II coping (immature defences), level-III coping (neurotic defence) and level-IV coping (mature defences). Sub-factors such as denial and delusional projection come under level-I coping (pathological defences). Sub-factors such as passive aggression, fantasy, projection and acting-out come under level-II coping (immature defences). Intellectualization, reaction formation, dissociation, repression and displacement are grouped under level-III of coping (neurotic defences). Sub-factors such as humour, sublimation, suppression, altruism and anticipation come under level-IV coping (mature defences). All the items were positive in nature. Response categories ranged from 1 to 5.

Test-retest reliabilities for the four coping levels ranged from 0.37 to 0.64. Test reliability was established using face validity, content validity and criterion validity. Face validity was established using the support of fellow scholars and item analysis technique and content validity was established using theories of coping and defence mechanisms. Criterion validity was established by administering seven subfactors under the Coping Pattern Inventory-Defense Mechanisms (CPI-DM) along with the same seven sub-factors from the Defence Style questionnaire (San Martini et al., 2004). The result of correlation ranged from 0.59 to 0.9. All the results were found to be significant at 0.01 level.

Humour Style Questionnaire-HSQ (Martin et al., 2003) was used to measure

the two different styles of humour (adaptive and maladaptive humour) exhibited by individuals on various occasions. HSQ consisted of thirty-two items. Response category for the tool ranges from 1 to 7. For the present study, the investigators changed the response category to a point scale of 1 to 5 for convenience and avoidance of confusion. Internal consistencies of four subscales (affiliative humour, selfenhancing humour, aggressive humour and self-defeating humour) ranges from 0.770 to 0.810. Test-retest reliability for the four subscales ranges between 0.800 and 0.850, respectively. Here, four humour dimensions, inclusive of affiliative humour, self-enhancing humour, aggressive humour and self-defeating humour, were correlated with the ratings provided by individuals with people familiar with the HSQ. Moreover, theoretical correlations with significance were construed between various humour scales, self-esteem, hostility, coping, mood, well-being, social relationships and big five models of personality. This tool of measurement, with the application of construct validity, was translated to and standardized in the Malayalam language by George and Shari (2013). Correlation result was found to be 0.609** for adaptive humour, and 0.755** for maladaptive humour and both the values were found to be significant at 0.01 level.

Procedure

Primarily, investigators identified two cities from North Kerala (Calicut, Malappuram) and Central Kerala (Thrissur, Ernakulam) for conducting the study. A handful of colleges, universities, IT hubs, small scale industries and companies that came under these four cities were identified and selected for the data collection. Investigators, further, arranged for an in-person encounter with the head of each institution. After getting permission, this study proceeded with meeting the participants who satisfied the age category. Respondents who showed interest in the study were informed about the purpose and nature of the study, along with the assurance of anonymity. The questionnaire was attempted only after asking for their informed consent. Upon the completion, questionnaires were collected with a sense of acknowledgement, and investigators reviewed in avoidance of any missing items in the questionnaires. All the ethical issues underwent direction throughout the process of study.

Data Analysis

The computation of the basic descriptive statistics (measures of central tendency: mean, median, and mode), availing the SPSS- 21 version, to ensure the normal distribution of the data amongst the study participants. Subsequently, variables of the descriptive statistics were evaluated based on the demographic details (gender, marital status and four age category). Relationships between the study variables was tested using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation. Since the obtained correlation coefficient (PPMCC) was significant, investigators decided to further proceed with the moderator analysis using AMOS software to study the effect of adaptive humour and maladaptive humour (individually) on stress and the four levels of defence based coping mechanisms. A total of eight moderator analysis were computed wherein adaptive humour and maladaptive humour was considered as the moderators. Here stress was considered the independent variable, and four levels of coping (level-I coping-pathological defences, level-II coping-immature defences, level-III copingneurotic defences and level-IV copingmature defences) were considered as the dependent variable.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

Preparatory to the inferential statistics, the findings of the basic descriptive statistics were assessed to demonstrate the assumptions of normality. The values from the descriptive statistics, skewness and kurtosis for all the variables are presented in Table 2. The findings of mean, median and mode for study variables are almost similar and values of skewness and kurtosis were approximately close to zero. Hence, the variables studied were normally distributed among the sample population.

Variables	Mean	Median	Mode	Skewness	Kurtosis
YSTRESS	158.45	155	111	0.16	-0.88
LEV-I Coping	10.17	10	10	1.04	1.03
LEV-II Coping	26.92	26	25	0.44	0.25
LEV-III Coping	38.82	39	38	0.30	0.39
LEV-IV Coping	44.66	45	44	-0.02	-0.09
ADAPH	54.41	53	52	-0.33	2.09
MALH	40.42	41	43	-0.12	0.25

Table 2Description of data for variables of stress, coping and humour

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

In addition to that, the comparison of the mean scores was gauged to study the data with respect to marital status, gender and the four different age groups. Details are given in Table 3 and Table 4.

Mean score comparison indicated that stress was high amongst the married counterparts with respect to those unmarried. Concurrently, the findings of all four levels of coping (pathological defences, immature defences, neurotic defences, mature defences) and the two forms of humour (adaptive humour and maladaptive humour) were high among unmarried participants. Gender wise comparison conveys that stress, levels of coping patterns (pathological defences, immature defences, neurotic defences, mature defences) and the maladaptive form of humour was high among males, which was in contrast to the adaptive form of humour being high among the female participants. The age-wise comparison indicated that stress was high among participants in the age group of 34-40 years. Compared to their counterparts, youth in the range of 18-22 years were found to be using varied forms of coping (pathological defences, immature defences, neurotic

Table 3

1								
Groups Variables		Marit	al status		Gender			
	Married (194)		Unmarri	Unmarried (259)		Male (181)		(272)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Stress	163.48	66.67	159.69	67.25	175.69	63.97	151.75	67.30
Level-I	9.92	2.95	10.36	3.38	10.71	3.80	9.82	2.69
Level-II	25.93	6.30	27.67	6.54	28.76	6.59	25.70	6.14
Level-III	37.73	7.44	39.63	7.43	40.70	7.99	37.56	6.86
Level-IV	42.62	7.51	46.19	7.99	46.26	7.72	43.59	7.97
ADAPTT	53.40	8.65	55.17	9.38	52.99	9.01	55.35	9.06
MALTT	39.19	8.999	41.35	9.03	42.83	9.38	38.82	8.50

Descriptive details of variables based on marital status and gender

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

defences, mature defences) and were also found to be using increasingly adaptive humour styles. Maladaptive humour was found to be high in participants within the age group of 23-28 years.

Group	Age								
	18-22 years (84)			23-28 years (238)		29-33 years (79)		34-40 years (52)	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Stress	157.30	67.59	158.75	66.69	167.96	65.89	169.42	69.25	
Level-I	10.62	3.41	9.96	3.08	10.42	3.19	10.04	3.46	
Level-II	28.38	5.93	26.92	6.74	26.84	5.50	24.73	7.12	
Level-III	40.35	7.62	38.92	7.21	37.84	7.88	37.35	7.63	
Level-IV	46.37	7.63	44.74	8.19	43.13	7.11	43.83	8.41	
ADAPTT	56.12	10.49	54.64	8.87	53.06	8.74	52.62	7.89	
MALTT	41.06	9.29	41.31	8.73	39.27	8.89	37.08	9.77	

Table 4

Descriptive details of variables based on four age groups

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

Correlation Between the Variables

To test the hypothesis-1 which stated that "there will be a significant relationship among the variables of stress, four levels of defence based coping mechanisms, adaptive humour and maladaptive humour among youth" correlation analysis was performed between the variables (stress, four levels of defence based coping mechanisms, adaptive humour and maladaptive humour). Results of correlation coefficients between all variables are reported in Table 5. Pearson's Product-Moment correlation test showed that stress had a statistically positive and moderate correlation with first three levels of defence based coping mechanism (level-I coping- pathological defences (r=.37**), level-II copingimmature defences (r=.38**) and level-III coping –neurotic defences (r=.35**). Besides, a positive and weak statistically significant correlation was present between stress and level-IV coping-mature defences (r=.19**). Similarly, the study on stress, in its relation to humour, yielded a statistically significant positive and weak correlation with maladaptive humour ($r=.22^{**}$). These results were alongside negligent significant correlation being obtained with adaptive humour (r=.-09).

When a statistically significant negative and weak correlation was found between level-I coping (pathological defences) and adaptive humour (r=-.14**), a positive and weak statistically significant correlation was found with maladaptive humour (r=.25**). Similarly, findings of level-II coping (immature defences) showed a statistically significant positive and moderate correlation with maladaptive humour (r=.37**), and no significant relation was found with adaptive humour (r=-.00). When a statistically

Table 5Pearson's correlation between variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
YSTRESS Sig (2-tailed)	-	.37** .000	.38** .000	.35** .000	.19** .000	09 .067	.22** .000
LEV-I Coping Sig (2-tailed)		-	.39** .000	.33** .000	.13** .000	14** .000	.25** .000
LEV-II Coping Sig (2-tailed)			-	.55** .000	.39** .000	 .951	.37** .000
LEV-III Coping Sig (2-tailed)				-	.47** .000	.09 .063	.37** .000
LEV-IV Coping Sig (2-tailed)					-	.42** .000	.32** .000
ADAPH Sig (2-tailed)						-	.34** .000
MALH Sig (2-tailed)							-

** p<0.01

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

positive and moderate correlation was found significant between level-III coping (neurotic defences) and maladaptive humour (r=.37**), no significant relation was found with adaptive humour (r=.09). Correlation between level-IV coping-mature defences and humour found that level-IV coping has a positive and strong, statistically significant correlation with adaptive humour (r=.42**) and a statistically significant positive and moderate correlation with respect to maladaptive humour (r=.32**). From the above results, it is understood that hypothesis (1) which stated that "There will be a significant relationship among the variables of stress, four levels of defence

based coping mechanism, adaptive humour and maladaptive humour among youth" is partially accepted.

Moderator Analysis

To test the hypothesis (2), which states that "Adaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanisms among youth", moderator analysis was performed. Here, adaptive humour was applied as the moderator, along with stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanisms were categorized as independent and dependent variables. Table 6 gives the result of moderator analysis.

Table 6

Variables	YSTRESS- ADAPH-LEV-I Coping		YSTRESS- ADAPH-LEV-II Coping		YSTRESS- ADAPH-LEV-III Coping		YSTRESS- ADAPH-LEV-IV Coping	
	Value	P-value	Value	P-value	Value	P-value	Value	P-value
a=bmx	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.06
b=bym.x	-0.04**	0.01	0.02	0.47	0.099**	0.01	0.39**	< 0.001
c=byx	0.02**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.02**	< 0.001
c'=byx.m	0.02**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001
Indirect effect	0.00	0.15	-0.00	0.54	-0.00	0.13	-0.00	0.06
Sobel test	1.47	0.14	-0.68	0.49	-1.57	0.12	-1.89	0.06

Analysis of the moderator effect of adaptive humour on stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism

** p<0.01

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

Table 6 provides the output of moderator analysis performed for adaptive humour found in the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism. For the findings of the moderator analysis to be significant, all the values and the results of the Sobel test, along with all of the other values should be significant. The value of 'a' signifies the relationship between the independent variable and the moderator variable. The relation between the moderator and the dependent variable is denoted with value 'b'. Value 'c', with the inclusion of the moderator, signifies the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable. Indirect effect signifies the extent of change in the dependent variable, when the independent variable is held fixed with a change in the moderator variable, which, in turn, changes the results of the independent variable. The results from the Sobel test signifies whether the inclusion of a moderator variable has resulted in a significant change in the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable.

Findings from Table 6 shows that only values of b (-0.04**), c (0.02**) and c' (0.017**) were significant when the moderator effect of adaptive humour was studied within the relationship between stress and level-I coping (pathological defences). Concerning the level-II coping (immature defences), only the values of c (0.04**) and c' (0.04**) were significant. However, for level-III coping (neurotic defences), the values of b (0.099), c (0.04**) and c' (0.04**) were significant. Furthermore, it was found that only values of b (0.39**), c (0.02**) and c' (0.03**) were found significant when it came to the factors of stress and level-IV coping (mature defences). Analyzing the result from the table above, it is clear that not all values are significant. An impact can be created on the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, with the inclusion of the moderator, only when all the values are significant.

In accordance with the result, there is no moderator effect with adaptive humour between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism. Here, we accept the null hypothesis and fail to support the alternative hypothesis (2) which states the following: 'adaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism among youth'.

Moderator analysis was performed and computed between variables to test the hypothesis (3) that stated: "Maladaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanisms among youth". In this case, maladaptive humour was lodged as moderator; and stress, along with the four levels of coping mechanisms were considered to be the independent and the dependent variables respectively. Table 7 gives the result of moderator analysis.

From Table 7, it is clear that values of a, b, c, c', are significant based on the results from the indirect effect and Sobel test in all the analysis. In all the cases, the value of c' is less than that of c, and could be

Humour: Moderator of Stress & Defence Based Coping among Youth

Ta	ble	7

Analysis of the moderator	• effect of maladaptive	e humour on stress	and four levels	of defence based coping
mechanism				

Variables	YSTRESS- MALH-LEV-I Coping		YSTRESS- MALH -LEV-II Coping		YSTRESS- MALH -LEV-III Coping		YSTRESS- MALH -LEV-IV Coping	
	Value	P-value	Value	P-value	Value	P-value	Value	P-value
a=bmx	0.03**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001
b=bym.x	0.06**	< 0.001	0.22**	< 0.001	0.25**	< 0.001	0.26**	< 0.001
c=byx	0.02**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.04**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001
c'=byx.m	0.01**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001	0.03**	< 0.001	0.01**	0.0073
Indirect effect	0.00**	0.0020	0.01**	< 0.001	0.01**	< 0.001	0.01**	< 0.001
Sobel test	3.12 **	0.0018	3.98**	0.0001	3.98**	0.0001	3.85**	< 0.001

** p<0.01

Abbreviations: Youth Stress-YSTRESS, Level-I Coping (Pathological defences)-LEV-I Coping, Level-II Coping (Immature defences) - LEV-II Coping, Level-III Coping (Neurotic defences)-LEV-III Coping, Level-IV Coping (Mature defences) - LEV-IV Coping, Adaptive Humour-ADAPH, Maladaptive Humour-MALH

interpreted as a reduction in the relationship between stress and level-II coping (immature defences), with the inclusion of maladaptive humour. From the results obtained, it could be explained as a possibility in the change in the relationship between stress and all four levels of coping when maladaptive humour comes in between stress and four levels of coping. In all of the case scenarios, as the value of c' value is less than that of the variable c, it could be perceived as a weakening between the relations of stress and coping when maladaptive humour intervenes. With this results, we fail to

accept the null hypothesis and; thereby, support the alternative hypothesis (3) that stated that maladaptive humour moderates the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism among youth.

DISCUSSION

The current study was conducted to explore the moderator effect of adaptive and maladaptive humour in the relationship between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism among the youth of Kerala. Correlation analysis performed indicated a moderate and positive correlation between stress and the first three levels of defence based coping mechanism (pathological defences, immature defences and neurotic defences). Thus, the greater amount of stress experienced is related to increase in use of pathological defences (refusing to accept reality, projecting the cause of their life issues to unnatural forces), immature defences (expressing their aggression towards others indirectly, dreaming a lot and who attribute the cause of their problem to others) and neurotic defences (focusing on an intellectual component of a problem, converting unacceptable impulses to opposite ones, trying to maintain good boy image, blocking dangerous thoughts to come to conscious level) amongst the participants of the study and vice versa.

The weak positive correlation found between stress and level-IV coping-mature defences piqued the particular interest in this study. Thus, greater experience of stress was not related to the increased use of mature defences (anticipating and planning about future, engaging in helping behaviour, converting unacceptable impulses to creative work, yoga and other extracurricular activities, doing things after prioritizing and also being humorous in life) among the study participants. This result keeps up with many of the previous findings, wherein the highly stressed individuals use more maladaptive coping styles (Navya et al., 2019). Similar findings that support the present study results in those people with decreased levels of stress to be reported to use more adaptive coping methods (Wang et al., 2005) and those with an increase in their use of adaptive coping show decrease in acculturative stress (Belizaire & Fuertes, 2011).

When stress was studied in relation to humour, stress showed a weak positive correlation with maladaptive humour. Thus, greater levels of stress are associated with greater use of maladaptive humour (selfdefeating and aggressive humour). This finding is supported from the results reported by Wood et al. (2007) and Tumkaya (2007) showing maladaptive humour (aggressive and self-defeating humour) could lead to increased anxiety, depression and lowers self-esteem and emotional exhaustion. The lack of significant correlation of stress with adaptive behaviour was unexpected. This is in keeping with the findings of Martin et al., (2003) who found that the adaptive component of humour (affiliative and self-enhancing humour) resulted in decreased stress and that it is beneficial for psychosocial well-being. Therefore, it is possible that no significant correlation was found between stress and adaptive humour in the present study. The reason for this could be the youth using adaptive humour style for making new friends, increasing their self-esteem and regulating emotions rather than dealing with stress. Kuiper and McHale (2009), and Romer and Pescosolido (2008), to provide an instance, found that adaptive humour (affiliative and selfenhancing humour) resulted in increased self-esteem and; thereby, functioned as a regulatory mechanism for emotions.

When coping was studied in relation to humour, level-I coping (pathological defences) showed a negative and weak relationship with adaptive humour. It also provided a positive and weak relationship with maladaptive humour. Thus, increased use of pathological defences was associated with decreased use of adaptive humour (affiliative and self-enhancing humour) and increased use of maladaptive humour (self-defeatingand aggressive humour). When level-II coping and level-III coping showed a positive relation with maladaptive humour, no significant relation was found with adaptive humour. Considering level-IV coping, both adaptive and maladaptive humour had a significant positive relationship, i.e., greater use of immature and neurotic defences were associated with greater use of maladaptive humour. Similarly, greater use of level-IV coping (mature defences) was associated with greater use of both adaptive humour (selfenhancing and affiliative humour) and maladaptive humour (self-defeating and aggressive humour). Studies, supporting the findings, were identified. According to LaBelle et al. (2013) and Abel (2002), individuals with an increased sense of humour were identified as using more positive appraisals and problem-solving coping strategies. A greater sense of humour was also found to result in better coping.

Moderator analysis performed showed that only maladaptive humour moderated the association between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism. Thus, greater use of maladaptive humour resulted in a decreased usage of different coping mechanisms when observed under stress. Another unexpected finding from this study was that adaptive humour did not show any significant influence under stress and coping relationship; thereby, indicating the role of maladaptive humour in helping a person to cope with various stressors. This result is in keeping with many previous findings which focused on the moderating role of humour. According to Wood et al. (2007), maladaptive humour (aggressive and self-defeating humour) lead to increased anxiety, depression and lowers self-esteem and emotional exhaustion whereas adaptive humour (affiliative and self-defeating humour styles) moderated the relationship between social anxiety and depressive symptoms (Tucker et al., 2013). Positive humour was found to result in greater coping efficacy, reduced relationship stress, depression and increased relationship satisfaction and self-esteem (Kuiper & McHale, 2009; Vela et al., 2013). All the studies are supportive evidence for the present findings, but none actually focused on the Indian youth, specifically on the youth of Kerala and the moderating role of two types of humour on the stress and coping relationship. Hence, the study result is a new opener to the research community.

CONCLUSION

Present investigation finds a positive and moderate statistically significant correlation between stress and the first three levels of defence based coping mechanism (pathological defences, immature defences

and neurotic defences). When a moderate positive correlation was found for stress with maladaptive humour, no significant correlation was found with adaptive humour. When a negative and weak statistically significant correlation was found for level-I coping (pathological defences) with adaptive humour, a positive and statistically moderate and significant correlation was found with maladaptive humour. Here, level-IV coping (mature defences) was found to have a positive and moderate statistically significant relationship with adaptive and maladaptive humour. Moderator analysis showed that only maladaptive humour moderated the association between stress and four levels of defence based coping mechanism. The result of the study suggests that people who are working with youth group should train youth, specifically the youth from Kerala, India, to provide better and mature means of coping and adaptive humour styles, in order to control the use of immature means of coping mechanism and maladaptive humour styles as it can create negative effects on them.

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Trust your Abilities More than the Stereotype: Effect of Genderstereotype Threat and Task Difficulty on Word Production, Clustering, and Switching in Letter Fluency

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ABSTRACT

Gender-stereotype threat consistently accounts for underperformance phenomena experienced by women on male-stereotyped cognitive tasks. However, only a few studies have examined how the threat is affecting performance on female-stereotyped cognitive tasks, such as letter fluency. The present study examined whether variations in the cues to activate stereotype threat and the level of task difficulty would affect the letter fluency performance of undergraduate men and women (n = 168) and the underlying cognitive processes of this performance (i.e., switching, clustering). The results indicated participants held beliefs about women's superiority in this task. However, threat-activation cues did not affect production of correct words, errors, clustering, or switching in men and women. Task difficulty affected the number of correct words, yet it did not interact with the stereotype

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E-mail addresses: sri.wulandari71@ui.ac.id (Sri Wulandari) donny.hendrawan@ui.ac.id (Donny Hendrawan) *Corresponding author threat-activation cues. Finally, participants' actual performance was related to their selfrating perception about their ability instead of the stereotyping they perceived. The effect of self-efficacy, educational level, and individuals' susceptibilities should be taken into account when studying the effects of stereotype threat.

Keywords: Clustering, gender-stereotype threat, letter fluency, task difficulty, switching

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INTRODUCTION

Gender-stereotype threat refers to the phenomenon in which members of a particular gender group fear that their performance on a particular task will confirm an existing negative stereotype attached to their gender and this leads to a poorer performance in that stereotyped task (Spencer et al., 1999; Steele, 1997). Studies of gender-stereotype threat have mostly examined the effects on gendersensitive tasks favouring men, such as mathematics (Flore et al., 2018) and spatial ability (Sanchis-Segura et al., 2018). By introducing a gender-stereotype threat into a testing situation, score differences between gender groups are produced or enlarged, with men consistently outperforming women. Despite the growing number of studies on gender-stereotype threat (Spencer et al., 2016), only a few of them examined the effect of a gender-stereotype threat on gender-sensitive tasks favouring women, such as social sensitivity (Koenig & Eagly, 2005), reading performance (i.e., recognition and comprehension of written words; Pansu et al., 2016), or verbal fluency (Hirnstein et al., 2014; Hirnstein et al., 2012).

A study using a social sensitivity task showed that the male participants in the threat condition performed worse than both the female and the male participants in the non-threat condition (Koenig & Eagly, 2005). In this study, gender stereotype threat was activated by explicitly telling the participants that men usually performed worse on the task and that the task was meant to measure people's ability to understand communication and the use of nonverbal cues. Additionally, a study utilizing reading performance tasks (Pansu et al., 2016) employed a subtler method of activating gender stereotype threat by telling students in the experimental group that the task was a test meant to evaluate their reading ability. As expected, the male students performed worse in the threat conditions than the female students. In contrast, despite the stereotype about women's superiority in language-related domain (Moe et al., 2020; Steffens & Jelenec, 2011), studies using verbal fluency found that genderstereotype threat did not necessarily cause the performance of men in the threat group to be worse than men in the control group (Hausmann et al., 2009; Hirnstein et al., 2012; Hirnstein et al., 2014).

Although studies regarding verbal fluency found that men did not perform worse when under stereotype threat (Hausmann et al., 2009; Hirnstein et al., 2012; Hirnstein et al., 2014), it was found that the extent of the threat effects on the participants' performance varied among these three studies based on the way that the threat was activated. Hirnstein et al. (2012) found that when the threat was activated in a moderately explicit manner (i.e., participants were told that they would participate in a study about gender differences using verbal tests), the men in the threat group performed better than those in the control group. Additionally, Hausmann et al. (2009) and Hirnstein et al. (2014) found that the use of subtle cues to activate the stereotype threat (i.e., participants were asked to complete a gender-stereotype questionnaire to prime the stereotype threat before the letter fluency test was administered) did not cause the performance of the men in the stereotype-threat conditions to be significantly different from that of the men in the control group. Meta-analyses also supported that the way in which the stereotype threat was activated moderated the effect of gender stereotype threat on the participants' performance (Appel et al., 2015; Nguyen & Ryan, 2008; Walton & Cohen, 2003). However, the results from these meta-analyses still yielded different conclusions regarding which activation cue would produce the largest effect size. Hence, a study in which the three activation cues are directly compared is needed.

Another important variable that significantly affects participants' performance is the level of task difficulty (Flore et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2016). According to Spencer et al. (2016), genderstereotype threat only interferes with participants' performance when the task is considered as difficult. For example, in the spatial orientation task, a significant effect of gender-stereotype threat was present in males and females in a more difficult task, but not in an easy one (Allison et al., 2017). When the difficulty level was reduced, both male and female showed better performance even under the stereotype threat. The findings on the level of difficulty are also supported by a meta-analysis that showed a

robust moderating effect of task difficulty; the more difficult the task, the larger the effect size produced by the stereotype threat (Nguyen & Ryan, 2008).

According to Spencer et al. (2016), introducing a gender-stereotype threat during an easy task can improve individuals' performance due to their heightened motivation to disconfirm or avoid confirming the stereotype. However, when a task is challenging and demanding, the cognitive demand of the task increases individuals' mental workload, making interference from a stereotype threat cognitively more problematic (Steele et al., 2002). Stereotype threat interferes with test-takers' cognitive performance by using their working memory capacity to suppress negative thoughts about the stereotype threat, i.e., the thought that their performance will confirm an existing negative stereotype about their social group (Beilock et al., 2007). As a result, working memory capacity that is available to attend to a task's information-processing requirements and controlling its execution is reduced (Schmader et al., 2008), and the performance becomes compromised.

While it has been evident that under stereotype-threat condition, level of task difficulty affects participants' performance on mathematics and spatial task, to date, no study on stereotype threat has incorporated task difficulty to examine how it affects performance on cognitive tasks favouring women. Letter fluency is one of the women's stereotypical tasks that relies on working memory (Azuma, 2004; Mueller et al., 2015) and is also relatively easy to be manipulated in terms of difficulty level. In this task, participants should generate words begin with specific letters. The level of difficulty depends largely on the specific letter used as the stimuli; as the difficulty increases, the number of correct words decreases, and the errors increase (Borkowski et al., 1967; Kosmidis et al., 2004).

Regarding the effect of stereotype threat on performance, there are a number of psychological factors that moderate the degree of individuals' susceptibility to a gender-stereotype threat. These moderators affect the extent to which individuals are invested in the evaluative aspect of the stereotype and the extent to which they are able to cope with the pressure from the stereotype (Spencer et al., 2016). According to Nguyen and Ryan (2008) and Spencer et al. (2016), individuals tend to invest more in the success of their performance when they have a high level of stigma consciousness (i.e., the extent to which individuals are conscious of the negative stereotypes attributed to their social group), domain identification (i.e., how strongly individuals identify with the domain being evaluated), and group identification (i.e., how strongly individuals identify with the social group being stigmatized).

Another psychological factor, namely, self-efficacy belief, could also affect individuals' ability to preserve their performance under the additional pressure applied by the stereotype. Self-efficacy belief is defined as a person's belief about his/her ability to succeed in a particular task despite the circumstances (Bandura, 1997). It has been argued that self-efficacy is critical due to its positive influences on performance as well as its role in mitigating the negative influences on performance (Bajaj et al., 2014); it does this by focusing individuals' attention, monitoring their execution of tasks (Mayer & Moreno, 2003), and enabling them to resist the distractions caused by anxiety and handicapping (Ashcraft & Kirk, 2001; Hopko et al., 2005). Moreover, individuals may approach a task differently based on their self-efficacy level and may adopt different cognitive strategies with different levels of efficiency (Kalpouzos & Eriksson, 2013). Individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy are found to be more able than others to sustain their performance when a task becomes complex and requires more working memory (Hoffman & Schraw, 2009). Individuals' levels of self-efficacy and those of their susceptibility should be taken jointly into consideration when studying the effect of stereotype threat, as these factors may serve as a buffer or a catalyst for individuals' performance.

The letter fluency performance of the adult sample was found to be affected by several factors, such as educational level (Aziz et al., 2017; Ghasemian-Shirvan et al., 2018), level of literacy, ethnicity (Strauss et al., 2006), and intelligence (Diaz-Asper et al., 2004). Meanwhile, the findings regarding gender and age were quite mixed (Ghasemian-Shirvan et al., 2018; Mathuranath et al., 2003; van Der Elst et al., 2006; Zimmerman et al., 2014). The studies performed in Indonesia that used undergraduate students as a sample showed that university affiliation (i.e., state university vs private university), intelligence, and creativity fluency affected letter fluency performance, while gender and academic background (i.e., exact science vs social science) had no effect (Hendrawan, 2013; Hendrawan et al., 2015). Hence, it is important to control these demographic and ability-related variables when a letter fluency task is used as a measure of cognitive performance, such as by ensuring that the sample is homogeneous in terms of participants' levels of education, literacy, intelligence, or age groups.

In letter fluency test, optimal overall performance is characterized by a high number of correct words and a low number of errors (Strauss et al., 2006). However, in neuropsychological task such as letter fluency, it is equally important to study both the overall performance and the underlying strategies used by individuals to reach the optimal performance (Abwender et al., 2001). This optimal performance in letter fluency is affected by two underlying cognitive processes, i.e., clustering and switching (Troyer et al., 1997). Clustering is defined as the ability to generate phonemically related words within a subcategory, while switching is defined as the ability to shift to a new subcategory when the previous subcategory is exhausted (Troyer, 2000).

Studies on clustering and switching have shown that men and women rely on different strategies to generate words; men tend to produce significantly more clusters than women (Lanting et al., 2009; Weiss et al., 2006), but women tend to switch more than men (Weiss et al., 2006). However, both strategies appeared to be successful in producing an optimal performance because both men and women created a comparable number of total correct words (Lanting et al., 2009; Scheuringer et al., 2017). Given that an optimal performance in letter fluency is affected by two different word generation strategies, and different sexes employed different strategies, we extend our present study by examining whether the effect of a gender-stereotype threat is evident in the component processes of letter fluency performance, i.e., clustering and switching.

Taken together, considering that (1) less consistent results are evident on gender stereotype-threat studies using the letter fluency task, (2) stereotype threat-activation cues as well as level of task difficulty may influence the effect of stereotype threat on individuals' performance, and (3) the effect of a gender-stereotype threat may be observed not only in the overall performance but also in the component processes of letter fluency test, this study aimed to address how different gender stereotype threatactivation cues and different levels of task difficulty would affect men and women on letter fluency task performances in the aspects of number of correct words, errors, clustering, and switching. We hypothesized that different types of gender-stereotype activation cues would affect male and female performance differently, and increasing difficulty levels will decrease their letter fluency performance.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

A total of 168 undergraduate students (91 female) from a state university in Depok, Indonesia, were recruited. Participants were excluded from this study if they did not speak Bahasa as their first language for daily communication, had a history of trauma and/or surgical operation related to the brain and central nervous system, suffered from neurological and psychiatric disorders, had a history of substance and/ or alcohol abuse, or were left-handed or ambidextrous. Given that letter fluency is a neuropsychological test, these criteria were applied to ensure that language barrier and neurological or psychiatric conditions did not affect participants' letter fluency performance.

Study Design

This study was a single-blind, randomized and controlled experiment. Participants were randomly assigned to four gender stereotype-activation groups (blatant/ moderately explicit/subtle/no activation with the number of participants being 44, 41, 42, and 41, respectively) and assessed three times as the level of difficulty in the letter fluency test increased (easy, medium, and hard).

Materials

Gender Stereotype-activation Cues. Gender stereotype threat-activation cues were pre-recorded using Audacity® 2.0.3 for Windows. The instructions and procedure for activating gender-stereotype threat were adapted from Nguyen and Ryan (2008), and Hirnstein et al. (2012). In the control group, participants were told that they would engage in a task that was a part of a research about the general process of problem solving. In the subtle group, participants were told that they would take a verbal fluency test to evaluate their language ability. In the moderately explicit group, participants were told that their language ability would be evaluated and that gender difference existed in verbal fluency performance so that males and females would get a different score. In the blatant group, participants were told that they would be evaluated on their language ability and women would get a higher score than men in this verbal fluency test. Apart from the control group, participants were asked to indicate their gender and to write it down on a piece of paper.

Letter Fluency Test. Letter fluency performance was measured by a letter fluency test that consisted of three letters, i.e., K, R, W; each letter represents easy, moderate, and hard level of difficulty (Hendrawan & Hatta, 2010; Hendrawan et al., 2015). The instructions and test items were pre-recorded. Four scores were obtained for each participant: (a) number of correct words, (b) number of errors, (c) mean cluster size, (d) number of switches. Scoring was completed by giving +1 for every correct word and 0 for every error. The score for the correct word/ error was calculated by summing up the total number

of correct words/ errors produced for each letter. A word was considered an error if it started with a capital letter (e.g., name of persons, places, or brands), was a repeat, was meaningless, or differed only by its suffix. The online Indonesian dictionary (http:// kbbi.web.id/) was used to check whether the words were officially recognized in Bahasa. A cluster was defined as a group of words sharing similar characteristics, i.e., begin with the same two first letters, rhymed, differed only by a vowel sound, or were homonyms. Cluster size was counted from the second word in each cluster. The mean cluster size was computed by dividing the total cluster size by the total number of clusters for the three letters. The number of switches was defined as the number of transitions between clusters. Error words were included when performing the scoring for clustering and switching. Detailed rules for scoring clustering and switching can be found in Troyer et al. (1997).

Gender-stereotype Questionnaire. The gender-stereotype questionnaire was used to determine the direction and magnitude of gender stereotype held by the participant regarding verbal ability. The questionnaire had been translated into Bahasa from the gender-stereotype questionnaire by Hausmann et al. (2009) and permission was obtained from the authors. We only used one item from this questionnaire that refers to verbal fluency, as this was the focus of the present study. Participants were asked to imagine that they would meet someone whom they had never met before, and they received a clue that this person "...*can*

generate many words beginning with the same letter within one minute". Based on that clue, participants rate the probability that this person was man or woman. To indicate their rating, participants were asked to put any number in the male and female columns as long as the sum was 100. A probability estimate of 50% in the male column and 50% in the female column meant that participants believed there was no gender difference in the word generation ability mentioned in the questionnaire. An estimate larger than 50% in the male column indicated that the participant believed the person in the story was more likely to be male and vice versa.

Self-rating. The self-rating was also translated from Hausmann et al. (2009). The self-rating was given to the participants to assess the possibility that although participants might believe that letter fluency ability was generally associated with one gender or another, as an individual, their ability on letter fluency was an exception and was independent from the stereotype. Participants were asked about how they perceived their ability on the letter fluency test they had just done. To complete the selfrating, the participants were asked, "To what *extent does the following item describe you? I* can generate many words beginning with the same letter within one minute". On a 7-point scale, the participant was asked how applicable that statement was to them, with '1' indicating 'not descriptive at all' and '7' indicating 'highly descriptive'.

Manipulation Check

A manipulation check was completed by giving a questionnaire asking whether the recorded instruction for activating a genderstereotype threat was perceived as having a different degree of stereotype across the three manipulation groups (blatant, moderately explicit, subtle) and a control group. The instruction on how to fill this manipulation check was similar to the gender-stereotype questionnaire.

Procedures

Informed consent was obtained from all participants. Each participant was randomly assigned into one of four gender stereotype threat-activation groups. An experimenter played one of the pre-recorded stereotypeactivation cues using a laptop (Windows media player on an HP Pavilion dm1) followed by the pre-recorded letter fluency test. The test consisted of three parts, i.e., test instructions, sample item, and test items. The experimenter took notes every word generated by the participants. After the test finished, the participants were given genderstereotype questionnaire and self-rating. The experimental procedure was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Statistical Analysis

Scores from manipulation check violated the assumption of normality and heterogeneity; hence Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to examine how gender stereotype threatactivation cues were perceived across the four activation groups whilst KolmogorovSmirnov Test was used to examine across gender. To examine the effect of activation types, gender, and level of task difficulty on letter fluency performance, number of correct words and errors from each letter on the letter fluency test were subjected to $4 \times 3 \times 2$ mixed ANOVA. The total correct words, total errors, mean cluster size, and number of switches from the letter fluency test were subjected to 4×2 ANOVA to examine the effect of activation types and gender on letter fluency overall performance and its component processes.

One sample t-test was performed on the probability estimate from the male column of the gender-stereotype questionnaire to examine whether the probability estimation was significantly different from a value of 50 (an indication of neutral appraisal). A significantly positive *t*-value indicated the probability as a male. A one sample t-test was also performed on the self-rating score to examine whether the score was significantly different from a value of 4 (an indication neutral appraisal of their performance). A significantly positive t-value indicated a generally superior appraisal. To further examine whether gender stereotype and performance appraisal varied across activation type and gender, probability estimates from the genderstereotype questionnaire and scores from self-rating were subjected to 4 x 2 ANOVA.

Pearson correlations were performed on the scores from the letter fluency test (number of correct words, number of errors, mean cluster size, number of switches), gender-stereotype questionnaire, and selfrating to examine whether the scores from these instruments correlated with each other.

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

The median score from the male column on the manipulation check showed a gradual increase across the four stereotype threatactivation groups, with the lowest mean produced by the blatant group, followed by the moderately explicit, subtle, and control group, as shown in Figure 1. The median score from the male column on manipulation check showed a comparable value between the 2 gender groups. The instruction was significantly different across activation groups, H(3) = 25.959, p = 0.00, but not significantly different across gender. Pairwise comparisons with adjusted p-values showed that there were significant differences in the score from the male column between the blatant activation group compared to the rest, as shown in Table 1.

Letter Fluency Test. The participants' scores on the letter fluency test are presented in Table 2. As shown in Figure 2, analysis of correct words showed that the level of task difficulty was the only variable with a significant effect on the letter fluency performance, as the difficulty increased the number of correct words decreased, $F(2, 320) = 760.14, p < 0.05, \eta_{P}^2 = 0.826.$ Neither gender stereotype-threat activation nor gender showed a significant effect and no interaction effect existed between the three variables. When number of error words for each letter stimulus was entered as a dependent variable, analysis showed that gender-stereotype threat, gender, or task difficulty had no significant effect.

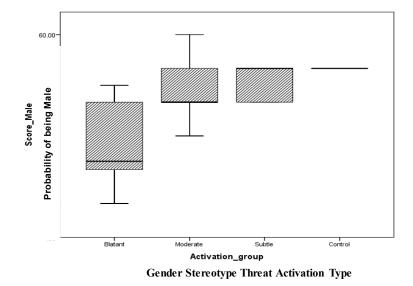


Figure 1. Differences on scores from male column across four gender stereotype activation groups

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Table 1

Pairwise comparisons between blatant, moderately explicit, subtle, and control activation group

Activation Ty	pe	1	2	3	4
1	Blatant	-	H = -16.57 p = 0.017*, r = 0.433	H = -20.25, p = 0.002*, r = 0.544	H = -28.68, $p = 0.000^{*},$ r = 0.80
2	Moderately Explicit	-	-	H = -3.68, p = 1, r = 0.151	H = -12.11, p = 0.245, r = 0.138
3	Subtle	-	-	-	H = -8.43, p = 0.927, r = 0
4	Control	-	-	-	-

Notes: Test Statistic (H), Adjusted P-value (p), Effect Size (r), *Significant at p < 0.05

Table 2Mean and standard deviation between sex groups and activation groups on letter fluency scores

Letter Fluency <i>M</i> (SD)	Sex		Activation Groups			
	Male	Female	Blatant	Moderate	Subtle	Control
K/K-Error	17.71 (3.91)/ 0.68 (0.83)	18.58 (3.97)/ 0.74 (1.02)	18.20 (4.65)/ 0.82 (1.06)	18.20 (3.83)/ 0.85 (0.96)	17.62 (3.64)/ 0.57 (0.77)	18.73 (3.64)/ 0.59 (0.92)
R/ R-Error	13.21 (2.86)/ 0.58 (0.98)	13.90 (4.33)/ 0.68 (0.87)	13.77 (3.88)/ 0.43 (0.66)	12.51 (3.43)/ 0.78 (1.29)	13.64 (3.90)/ 0.69 (0.81)	14.39 (3.56)/ 0.66 (0.79)
W/ W-Error	6.74 (2.62)/ 0.58 (0.89)	7.10 (2.38)/ 0.60 (0.92)	6.89 (1.98)/ 0.59 (0.73)	6.56 (2.13)/ 0.83 (1.16)	6.83 (3.37)/ 0.40 (0.80)	7.46 (2.26)/ 0.56 (0.87)

Letter Fluency and Gender-stereotype Threat

Letter Fluency M(SD)	Sex		Activation Groups			
	Male	Female	Blatant	Moderate	Subtle	Control
Total words/ Total error	37.66 (7.71)/ 1.83 (1.88)	39.60 (8.40)/ 2.02 (1.75)	38.86 (8.93)/ 1.86 (1.62)	37.27 (7.53)/ 2.41 (2.30)	38.14 (8.77)/ 1.67 (1.51)	40.59 (6.97)/ 1.80 (1.68)
Mean cluster size	0.85 (0.59)	0.70 (0.37)	0.78 (0.42)	0.69 (0.43)	0.78 (0.49)	0.82 (0.60)
Switching	20.07 (7.34)	22.07 (6.46)	21.23 (8.01)	21.49 (6.45)	20.67 (6.99)	21.25 (6.23)

Notes: Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD)

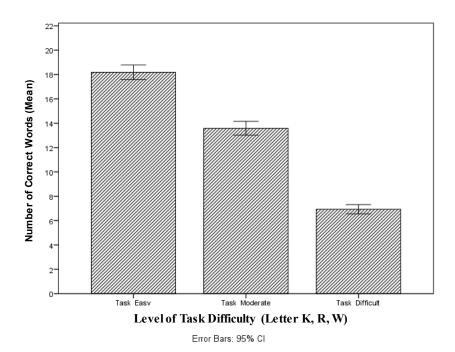


Figure 2. Differences on number of correct words across three levels of task difficulty

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Analysis of mean cluster size showed that gender had a significant effect on mean cluster size F(1,159) = 4.123, p < 0.05, η^2_P = 0.025, with male participants having a higher mean value than female participants (M = 0.849, M = 0.697, respectively). Gender stereotype-threat activation did not have a significant effect on mean cluster size. Analysis of the number of switches showed that neither gender nor gender stereotype-threat activation had a significant effect on the number of switches.

Gender-stereotype Questionnaire and Self-rating. The mean probability estimate from the male column across all participants was M = 46.16 (SD = 12.74) and differed significantly from a value of 50, t(167)= - 3.91, p < 0.05, d = -0.30, indicating that in general, participants held a gender stereotype favouring women. The mean probability estimates from male and female participants were also calculated separately. The mean probability estimate from men was M = 41.56 (SD = 11.40) and differed significantly from the value of 50, t(76)= -6,50, p < 0.005, d = -0.74, indicating that men believed that the hypothetical person with letter fluency ability was more likely to be a woman. In other words, they believed that letter fluency task was more likely to have a gender-stereotype favouring women. The mean probability estimate from women was M = 50.05 (SD = 12.57) and did not differ significantly from the value of 50, t(90) = 0.042, p > 0.05, d = 0.00, indicating that women did not believe a gender stereotype favouring women existed in letter fluency task. In other words, women believed that letter fluency task was more likely to be gender-neutral. The 4 x 2 ANOVA for the probability estimate showed that there was a significant effect of gender, F(1,160) = 21.62, p < 0.01, $\eta^{2}_{P} = 0.119$, but there was no significant effect of stereotype threat-activation type.

A similar procedure was performed on the self-rating score. Even though in general participants rated themselves lower than the average score (M = 3.87, SD = 1.09), onesample t-test showed that the overall selfrating score and gender-based self-rating scores (men and women scores calculated separately) did not differ significantly from a value of 4, which was the average score. The 4 x 2 ANOVA for the self-rating score showed that gender stereotype activation type and gender had no significant effects.

Correlations between Total Correct Words, Total Errors, Mean Cluster Size, Number of Switches, Gender-stereotype Score, and Self-rating Score. As shown in Table 3, significant positive correlations were obtained between total correct words and number of switches, total correct words and the self-rating score, total errors and the gender-stereotype score, total errors and the self-rating, mean cluster size and number of switches, and number of switches and the self-rating score.

Table 3

Correlations between total correct words, total errors, mean cluster size, number of switching, gender stereotype score, and self-rating score

Score	1	2	3	4	5	6
Total Correct Words	-	.045	.066	.590**	100	.223*
Total Errors	-	-	.007	.135	.222**	.160*
Mean Cluster Size	-	-	-	666**	119	081
Number of Switching	-	-	-	-	.017	.238**
Gender- stereotype	-	-	-	-	-	.052
Self-rating	-	-	-	-	-	-

Notes: *Significant at p < .05, ** Significant at p < .01

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to examine whether different gender stereotype threat-activation cues would affect men's and women's performances differently when tested over three levels of difficulty on the letter fluency test. Overall, this study found that, although the results of the gender stereotype questionnaire showed that the participants held certain beliefs about the presence of a gender stereotype in the letter fluency test, participants' actual performance was not affected by the stereotype threat. This result was still the case even when we accounted for the variation in the stereotype threat activation cues and the level of task difficulty. Regarding the variations in the threat activation, our analysis of the manipulation check showed that participants perceived that the cues that activated the gender stereotype threat were gradually

increased in terms of emphasizing women's superiority. In terms of task difficulty, the analysis showed that the level of task difficulty affected the production of the correct words but did not affect the errors for each letter stimulus. However, even after the cognitive demand of the test was manipulated by introducing three different letter stimuli with an increased level of difficulty, the participants' performance under the stereotype threat was not affected.

Interestingly, it was found that the participants' performance in this test was related to their self-rating, which measured their perception about how well they performed on the letter fluency test. The scores from the participants' self-ratings accurately reflected the participants' actual performance on the letter fluency test. Furthermore, when the variations in gender and stereotype-threat activation were

considered, the scores from the participants' self-ratings showed that these scores were not affected by the variations in gender and stereotype-threat activation cues. This result regarding the self-rating scores was in line with the participants' scores on the letter fluency test, which were also not affected by the variation in gender or stereotypethreat activation cues. Collectively, our results showed that neither the participants' perceptions about women's superiority in relation to the activation cues nor their beliefs about the gender stereotypes attached to the task necessarily caused differing performances among the participants during the letter fluency test. The participants' own judgement about their ability was more important for their performance than the abovementioned factors (Hausmann, 2014).

This study also examined the effect of the gender-stereotype threat on clustering and switching as the underlying cognitive processes of the letter fluency test. We found that clustering and switching were not affected by the gender-stereotype threat. When we analysed clustering and switching between gender groups, we found that men produced significantly larger cluster sizes than women. In terms of switching, the two genders produced a comparable number, although men switched slightly less than women. Our findings were also partially consistent with Troyer et al. (1997) and Scheuringer and Pletzer (2017); we found that mean cluster size and the number of switches were negatively correlated, and switching was more highly related with total correct words as well as with the self-rating

score. Our findings suggested that men and women relied on different strategies to generate words, but both strategies worked similarly well in producing total correct words. Although males tended to produce more words within a cluster, the mean cluster size was not related to the total correct words as much as switching was. Hence, when females compensated for smaller cluster sizes by being more rapid in switching, the total number of correct words between two genders was relatively comparable.

Based on our findings, we propose that self-efficacy, educational level, and individual moderators may explain on why gender-stereotype threat did not affect letter fluency performance even when the task difficulty had been increased. It is important to highlight the role of participants' selfefficacy belief (Bandura, 1997), given that our data showed that self-rating reflected participants' actual performance on letter fluency better than the belief about the stereotype threat. A study by Chung et al. (2010) showed that self-efficacy mediated the effect of ethnicity-stereotype threat on a job knowledge exam. This result is understandable, as self-efficacy has been found to exert positive influences and mitigate the negative impacts on performance in a pressured situation, such as when an individual is under stereotype threat (Bajaj et al., 2014; Pennington et al., 2016). Previous studies also found that participants with high self-efficacy employed more efficient cognitive strategies than participants with low self-efficacy;

hence, these participants performed better on cognitive tasks, such as set-shifting (Mäntylä et al., 2010) and visuospatial working memory tasks (Kalpouzos & Eriksson, 2013).

In our study, scores from the self-rating showed that participants' beliefs about their performances on the fluency test were robust. Across different stereotypethreat conditions, participants held similar beliefs that their letter fluency ability was average. We argued that this positive belief enabled participants to block the negative influence and simultaneously enabled them to employ more efficient cognitive strategies to sustain their performance even when the test became more demanding for their working memory due to the increased level of difficulty.

Another important aspect is the participants' educational level as a university student. According to Andreoletti and Lachman (2004), level of education buffers the effect of the gender-stereotype threat on cognitive performance. This study found that under stereotype-threat conditions, individuals with less than a 4-year college degree had a lower score on a memory test, while individuals with higher education performed better on the same test. It was suggested that higher level of education is associated with better use of adaptive memory strategies and with greater confidence and self-control (Andreoletti & Lachman, 2004; Schieman, 2001). Furthermore, it is also worth mentioning that the research on verbal fluency among Indonesian undergraduate students also

found that university affiliation affected participants' verbal fluency performance (Hendrawan et al., 2015); the state university students produced a higher number of correct words in the letter fluency tests than the private university students. In Indonesia, it is well known that state universities apply more rigorous admission criteria and have a more competitive admission rate; hence, this group difference could be due to the relatively different cognitive abilities between these two groups (Hendrawan et al., 2015).

In our study, participants' performances in the letter fluency test showed that their production of correct words and errors were not affected by the gender-stereotype threat even after we varied the level of task difficulty. Moreover, participants produced a very low number of errors, leading to a very positively skewed distribution with a narrow range of scores, suggesting a floor effect. Taken together, it is reasonable to argue that, for our participants, performing a letter fluency test under the presence of stereotype threat was not cognitively problematic given their educational background (i.e., university students who came from one of the best state universities). Their advantageous educational background means that they possess above average cognitive capacities that enabled them to employ better coping strategies. Furthermore, better educational background might also contribute toward participants' level of self-efficacy which then helped them to sustain their performance under the stereotype threat.

Underlining the highly situational

character of stereotype threat (Steele, 1997), it has been shown that the degree and direction of stereotype threat effects can be moderated by various psychological factors (Appel et al., 2015; Spencer et al., 2016). Among these psychological factors, the three most important individual moderators which cause susceptibility towards the stereotype threat are stigma consciousness, domain identification, and group identification (Nguyen & Ryan, 2008). According to Brown and Pinel (2003), the performance of individuals who are highly conscious about the negative stereotype ascribed to their social group would be more affected by stereotype threat. Our study did not directly measure the degree of stigma consciousness; however, the score from the gender-stereotype questionnaire showed that our male and female participants had different view of gender stereotype attached to the letter fluency task, even though the effect size was small. Men perceived letter fluency as women-favouring task, while women perceived the task as gender-neutral. Despite being conscious about the stigma, it seems that participants' self-efficacy and educational background protected their performance from the threat.

Studies have shown that the more participants identified themselves with the cognitive domain being evaluated, the more impaired their performance under stereotype threat (Aronson et al., 2002; Keller, 2007; McFarland et al., 2003; Steele & Aronson, 1995). Compared to other gender-sensitive cognitive tests, such as mathematics or mental-rotation tests, letter fluency tests are rarely found on standardized scholastic or admission tests (Bertua et al., 2005). Moreover, the letter fluency test seemed to be very simple in terms of the administration and the responses it required. This might affect how participants assigned importance to their performance. They might perceive this test as less indicative of their verbal ability or even of their intelligence which made them to be less concerned about their performance.

In addition to domain identification. group identification could also affect how participants perform under a genderstereotype threat. Schmader (2002) found that women with stronger gender identification tend to perform worse on mathematics tests than women with lower gender identification. In our study, participants in the stereotyped groups were asked to indicate their gender to prime their awareness about their gender membership. However, there might be variation in to what extent participants considered this gender membership to be an important part of their selves, and this might affect how our participants reacted to the genderstereotype threat. Moreover, participants had multiple social identities, and it was possible that participants in this study put more importance to their other groupmembership categories than to their gender group-membership (Rydell et al., 2009). As a result, when their gender identity was threatened by the presence of the stereotype, their performance was not affected because they identified less with their gender group.

The results of our study showed

the importance of individuals' personal characteristics (e.g., self-efficacy, educational level, and individuals' susceptibility) to sustaining performance under the interference of the genderstereotype threat. As far as we know, this is the first study investigating the effect of using various gender stereotype-activation cues to explore how the cues affected performance on letter fluency task. This study also tried to examine how different cognitive loads on letter fluency task interact with the stereotype threat by manipulating the levels of difficulty. Moreover, this study took into account the role of clustering and switching as the underlying components of verbal fluency performance under the stereotype threat. However, our study has several limitations. First, we measured self-efficacy only by a single item selfrating which might not comprehensively represent the construct. Second, we did not measure potential individual moderators of gender stereotype threat. Third, the letter fluency task was not demanding enough for our sample cognitive capacity given their educational background. Fourth, no direct measure of working memory was administered to examine how much an increase in task difficulty corresponded to an increase in cognitive load.

For the reasons explained above, future studies should consider the following: 1) measuring individual psychological constructs that affect the strength of stereotype threat, (e.g., self-efficacy, stigma consciousness, gender identification, domain identification); 2) administering a more complex verbal task, such as the alternate phonemic/semantic fluency test (Costa et al., 2014); it would impose more load on working memory since the rapid shifting between stimuli would require a more effortful and controlled process, and 3) incorporating a direct measure of working memory to enable studying the role of cognitive load on the effect of stereotype threats.

CONCLUSIONS

Our findings contribute to the body of literature on stereotype threat by showing that belief about one's ability, namely, selfefficacy, is an important buffer to the effect of a gender-stereotype threat on both overall performance and underlying cognitive process of the letter fluency task. Other personal characteristics that also need to be considered are educational level, stigma consciousness, domain identification, and group identification. Taken together, our findings suggested the importance of taking into account psychological factors that determine variation in individuals' susceptibility in studying the highly situational phenomenon of stereotype threat.

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Psychosocial Impacts of Malocclusion among Adolescents in Kedah, Malaysia: A Qualitative Study

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ABSTRACT

Dental malocclusion can affect the psychological and social aspects of adolescents. However, the knowledge of this condition has been limited in the Malaysian population. This study aims to explore the psychosocial impacts of dental malocclusion among adolescents in Kedah state, Malaysia. A qualitative study was conducted at two public specialized dental clinics. Focus group discussion (FGD) and in-depth interview (IDI) were conducted among adolescents aged between 11 and 19 years, who received orthodontic treatment for moderate to severe dental malocclusion. All the FGD and IDI sessions were video-recorded, transcribed verbatim, and translated into English. The thematic analysis method was used for the data analysis. A total of 32 adolescents participated in six sessions of FGD and

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 five sessions of IDI. Four themes emerged from the data analysis: (i) pressure to seek treatment, (ii) negative feelings about one's dentofacial image, (iii) negative influences on interpersonal relationship, and (iv) negative impacts on school performance. The findings indicate that adolescents with dental malocclusion had been receiving pressure from different parties and generally had low self-esteem, which eventually affected their relationship with family and friends and their involvement in school activities. Therefore, public education and interdisciplinary collaboration to address their psychosocial needs are required.

Keywords: Adolescent, Malaysia, malocclusion, orthodontics, psychosocial

INTRODUCTION

Dental malocclusion is defined as an abnormal position of adjacent teeth on the same jaw or opposing teeth as the jaws are closed (Houston et al. 1992). It has increasingly become a public dental health problem worldwide, mainly occurring in children and adolescents (Akbari et al., 2016; Gudipaneni et al., 2018). Commonly, patients with dental malocclusion are driven to seek orthodontic care because of its physical, psychological and social impacts. Similarly, children and adolescents with the similar condition were found to seek treatment, mainly because of their dissatisfaction with the dentofacial deformities, recommendations from dentists and the influence of schoolmates who wear braces (Chambers & Zitterkopf, 2019; Ernest et al., 2019). Gatto et al. (2019) also reported that school bullying took place in 12.8% of adolescents with dental malocclusion, greatly affecting their selfesteem and oral health-related quality of life.

In Malaysia, studies on dental malocclusion among children and adolescents are scarce. A study on 560 patient who received orthodontic treatment from dental specialist clinic in Pahang revealed that more than 70% of them were aged between 7 and 17 years with 73.4% had moderate to severe stage of dental malocclusion (Ismail et al., 2017). Meanwhile, another study performing a dental check-up on 700 schooled adolescents with dental malocclusion showed that 27% and 22% of them required treatment for oral health and aesthetic reasons, respectively (Zamzuri et al., 2014). However, only 3.2% of the students from the same study believed that they needed treatment, while the reasons for such a low level of self-perceived need for treatment were yet to be explored.

Generally, dental care providers and policymakers depend on sufficient information of patient-related psychosocial factors to improve oral health education and treatment (Bittencourt et al., 2017). Therefore, the understanding of malocclusion and its management should go beyond its clinical aspects in order to meet the psychosocial needs of patients, especially those who are younger. To gain information on this issue, a qualitative study was conducted to explore the psychosocial impacts of dental malocclusion among adolescents in Kedah state, Malaysia.

METHODS

Study Design and Setting

This study used a qualitative design, facilitated by a semi-structured interview guide. As adolescents are more likely to have less patience and lose attention to a series of verbal questions in a one-to-one session (Adler et al., 2019), focus group discussion (FGD), which is more lively and interactive in nature, was selected as the main strategy

for data collection in this study. In addition, in-depth interview (IDI) was used to validate the findings and enhance data richness (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008). Both the FGD and IDI were conducted at the Alor Setar and Changlun dental clinics, which are the two of three public specialized dental clinics providing orthodontic services for the population of Kedah state, Malaysia. On average, both clinics have been providing treatment for 30 to 40 patients daily. At the time of this study conducted, only a few private dental clinics across the state offered orthodontic services. Thus, most of the orthodontic cases were seen at the public dental clinics. Furthermore, the two selected dental clinics represent different geographical location; Changlun dental clinic was located in the rural area while Alor Setar dental clinic served mainly the urban population. Therefore, the selection of participants with different geographical background would provide rich information on personal experience related to dental malocclusion.

Participants

The purposive sampling method was used to select respondents, who were aged between 10 and 19 years, received orthodontic treatment for moderate to severe dental malocclusion, and were able to communicate in the Malay language. The selected age group was in line with the definition of adolescent by the World Health Organization (2020). The diagnosis and grading of malocclusion were performed by experienced orthodontists (HIS, SK) stationed at the participating dental clinics, guided by the Index of Orthodontic Treatment Need. After considering both the oral health and aesthetic aspects of the condition, the patients who were diagnosed with mild dental malocclusion were excluded from the study. All the participants were approached at the waiting areas of the dental clinics. They received verbal explanation on the objectives and methodology of the study. Their parents or guardians were also informed of the study. Written informed consent was obtained from both parties.

Data Collection

The participants were grouped and given a date to participate in the FGD. They were also allowed to opt for an IDI if they were unable to visit the clinics on the scheduled dates. The interview guide was constructed by a panel of dental care providers including orthodontists, and was pilot-tested with a patient with dental malocclusion. One of the investigators (MAMS), who was a medical doctor and had an experience with qualitative research, led both the FGD and IDI. Meanwhile, another investigator (NSM) was tasked with video- and audiorecording all the sessions and taking field notes.

Each session of FGD or IDI took approximately 30 to 60 minutes, conducted in a private room at one of the clinics without the presence of parents or guardians. Both the FGD and IDI were conducted in the Malay language. All authors did not know the participants prior to interview session and introduced themselves to the participants before commencing the interview. Each session started with gathering information on the demographic information, including gender, family background and education level. Subsequently, the participants were encouraged to share their experiences regarding the psychosocial impacts of dental malocclusion. All sessions were videoand audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim and translated into English. Transcribing was performed immediately after each session. Constant comparison was made between sessions, and the recruitment of new participants continued until there is 'no new data' or 'no new themes' emerges during interviews.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using the thematic analysis method by two investigators (MAMS, HKC) independently (Nowell et al., 2017). Both the FGD and IDI transcripts and filed notes were carefully studied. Codes were generated from the transcripts, and the similar codes were subsequently grouped into themes and subthemes. The discrepancies in the outcomes of analysis were discussed among the investigators and resolved by consensus. The study methods and findings were reported according to the Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Research (COREQ; Tong et al., 2007).

Ethical Approval

The Medical Research Ethics Committee,

Ministry of Health Malaysia had approved this study (NMRR-16-1069-31043).

RESULTS

A total of 32 participants participated in five IDI (IDI_{1-5}) and six FGD (FGD₁₋₆) sessions. Each FGD session had 4-5 participants (P_{1-5}). The majority of the study participants were female (n=23). At the time of the study, eight of them were studying at a university or college, 23 at a secondary school and 1 at a primary school. All participants completed the interview sessions, none withdrew consent or dropped out. Four themes and four sub-themes emerged from the data analysis: (i) pressure to seek treatment, (ii) negative feelings about one's dentofacial image, (iii) negative influences on interpersonal relationship (family relationship and peer relationship), and (iv) negative impacts on school performance (classroom activities and extracurricular activities).

Pressure to Seek Treatment

Most of the participants reported that they received pressure to seek treatment for their conditions from different sources and teasing from friends emerged as the most common source of pressure.

'At the school, my friends always tease me because of my (teeth) problem. It has been happening for 3 years. When I came back from the school, I told my father, and I cried. We discussed this (problem), and he took me to a dental clinic. '(FGD₂: P₄, 17 years, female) 'Initially my parents didn't think that I need treatment because they said my teeth looked normal. But after repeatedly being teased by my friends, I insisted my parents bring me here (dental clinic) to get treatment.' (IDI₅; 19 years, female)

Family members had also been another source of pressure which led the patients to the treatment.

'My aunt wears braces because of dental malocclusion. So, when she saw me having the same problem with my teeth, she urged me to seek treatment.' (FGD₁; P₃, 17 years, male)

'I can't close my mouth because these teeth are protruding. My family noticed it and brought me to the clinic for treatment.' (FGD₂: P₃, 16 years, male)

Besides, some participants were referred for treatment following a dental check-up at schools.

'When the dental nurse checked my teeth, she strongly suggested that I seek treatment from an orthodontist. It is very likely that I need to wear braces. (FGD₄; P₅, 19 years, female)

Negative Feelings About One's Dentofacial Image

Dental malocclusion influenced how the participants viewed themselves. They were found to have generally low self-esteem arising from constant self-criticism of their dentofacial images, leading them to the feelings of embarrassment, shame or guilt. Such negative feelings were also found to limit smiling and speaking.

'I do not enjoy taking photos. I feel bad when I am looking at myself in the picture.' (IDI₃, 19 years, female) 'I don't want people to know my (teeth) problem. To hide it, I just nod my head and don't talk much with people...' (FGD₆, P₅, 17 years, male)

Negative Influences on Interpersonal Relationship

Family Relationship. Although most of the participants were able to communicate their conditions and sought help from their parents, a small number of them felt that the responses of their family members to their dentofacial images were completely unacceptable.

'I have been frequently quarrelling with my brother because he keeps saying that my teeth look like anchors.' (IDI₃; 19 years, female)

'My grandmother is a bit chatty. She even compares my teeth with her other grandchildren! I don't like it' (FGD₄; P₃, 19 years, female)

To keep themselves away from being the centre of attention or a laughing stock, some participants also avoid visiting their family members.

'Each time I meet my aunt, she will start talking about my mouth and teeth. I would rather stay at home rather visiting her even during the festive seasons.' (IDI₃; 19 years, female) **Peer Relationship.** Furthermore, a number of participants pointed out that name-calling had affected their relationship and interaction with friends.

'I do not like to chat with my friends. I feel that I need to talk less to them, or else they will start noticing my problem (dental malocclusion) and calling me by different names. '(FGD₁, P₅, 19 years, female)

'My teeth problem becomes apparent when I'm in secondary school. My friends call me all sorts of names! I'm feeling down because of them.' (IDI₅; 19 years, female)

As a result, they had tried to avoid group activities whenever possible.

'Most of the time, I have been trying not to join them at the park.' $(FGD_{5;}P_{4,} 19$ years, male)

'During recess time at school, I always look for a hidden spot to be alone. I feel relieved not hearing them (friends) teasing me.' (FGD₂; P₄, 17 years, female)

A participant even found that the tension between her and her friends, who had been making fun at her condition, was intolerable. Therefore, she requested a transfer to another school.

"Most of the time, I'm alone...Because they always make fun of my teeth. All of them do that to me! (starting to cry). I had requested a transfer to another school from my mother, but she said this would not solve the problem. She advised me to stay strong and ignore what others have to say about my look.' (IDI₄; 11 years, female)

Negative Impacts on School Performance

Classroom Activities. In general, most participants agreed that dental malocclusion did not affect their academic performance. However, two participants admitted they had been trying not to make an oral presentation in front of the class whenever possible.

'We had group works in our language class. Even though my team members always selected me to make an oral presentation in front of the class, I had been trying my best not to accept the tasks.' (FGD₆; P₃, 15 years, female) 'I've been called by my teacher to present in front of the class. When I stand-up at the front, I think that my classmates are focusing on my teeth. I feel embarrassed.' (FGD₁; P₁, 17 years, female)

Extracurricular Activities. Nearly half of the participants did not actively participate in extracurricular activities, mainly to avoid teasing from friends. One of them also had an experience with withdrawing from the school band due to the difficulty in playing a music instrument.

'I would like to be a trumpet player for the school band, but my protruding tooth causes pain when I was playing. Therefore, after a few training sessions, I withdraw from the band team. '(FGD₃; P₅, 17 years, female)

DISCUSSION

The present study revealed that dental malocclusion had noticeable negative psychosocial impacts on adolescents in Malaysia. Although similar findings have been reported worldwide (Bittencourt et al., 2017; Dalaie et al., 2018; Gatto et al., 2019), the present study applied a qualitative design, specifically focusing on patients presenting to two specialized dental clinics. Therefore, in addition to the negative influences of dental malocclusion on the emotion, social interaction and quality of life of patients in general, the present study provides insight into the pressure they received from different parties because of their conditions, which eventually resulted in their treatment-seeking decisions. Such findings are helpful not only to dental care providers but also to policymakers and other stakeholders in better understanding the psychosocial needs of young patients with similar conditions.

Similar to the previous findings (Baram et al., 2019), teasing from friends was found to be the major source of pressure driving the treatment-seeking behaviours of adolescents with dental malocclusion. In fact, it has been reported that being the target of teasing is particularly common among adolescents with an abnormal body weight or physical appearance (Bacchini et al., 2015). In order to make themselves more socially acceptable, this group of adolescents would try changing how they look when they grow older, including accepting invasive cosmetic surgery (Nerini et al., 2019). Apart from that, consistent with several studies (Imani et al., 2018; Tuncer et al., 2015), the participants were shown to receive pressure from their family members to seek treatment for malocclusion problem. However, this was not necessarily undesirable, as parental awareness of their conditions was important to prevent the delay in treatment. Nevertheless, some participants did express disappointment with family member's responses towards their dental appearance. This conflict likely arises from limited knowledge on malocclusion among family members as well as the community. Relevant stakeholders such as dental professional body and health educators, are proposed to design an educational aid in a printed material (e.g. pamphlet), practical demonstration or audio-visual form (e.g. short video) to improve adolescent and public awareness on dental malocclusion. It is also suggested that such educational materials should include the contact number of the dental clinic with orthodontic services if any queries regarding malocclusion arise. Intervention using audio-visual aids, lecture presentation and educational demonstration during oral health program has been shown to significantly improve knowledge and behaviour among children and their parents in Saudi Arabia and Bangladesh (Halawany et al., 2018; Haque et al., 2016).

Participants also shared their unpleasant experience in interaction with their friends, especially at school. While peer acceptance is crucial for social, emotional and behavioural development of adolescents (Nerini et al., 2019), these participants claimed that they had been bullied, mainly through

name-calling. This is a form of verbal bullying, which is common among school children with dentofacial abnormalities (Al-Hummayani & Taibah, 2019; Baram et al., 2019). On the bright side, peers could also be the helpful hand to assist their affected friend. In an interventional study conducted in Mexico, a peer-led dental education program was introduced at several schools with aim to improve oral self-care among their friends (Villanueva-Vilchis et al., 2019). Selected students with good academic performance and ability to socialise received short-course dental training and later was assigned to small group of younger peers to teach them on oral health and self-care. A similar program can be adopted in local schools in which the lead students are not only can disseminate information on dental malocclusion to other peers, but also help their friends with malocclusion to deal with such condition and indirectly prevent bullies at school.

The reasons behind negative feelings about one's own dentofacial image were also explored. A few participants felt that their conditions were more noticeable when they smiled. This would be expected as well-aligned teeth are one of the important elements of facial aesthetics, which is associated with one's popularity and social success (Jawad et al., 2015). Smiling is also regarded as an important authentic feature of an individual (Stiller et al., 2015). Such low self-esteem and embarrassment have limit these participants from smiling and talking to others. Those affected adolescents may be benefited from counselling session either at school or at the dental clinic where they received orthodontic treatment. It is recommended that a counsellor be integrated into the dental team as educator for the team and for direct counselling on referral.

Dental malocclusion was also shown to directly have an impact on school performance. However, unlike those in the previous study (Basha et al., 2016), the participants in the present study denied the negative influences of dental malocclusion on their academic performance. Rather, they pointed out that the condition had hindered their involvement in both the classroom and extracurricular activities. Such experiences had been found to disrupt the social interaction between the adolescents and their friends in the present study, resulting in social isolation most of the time. Within this context, school teachers could play an important role in recognizing their behavioural, corresponding mood changes, or academic performance that may be affected from having malocclusion and subsequently offer help and guidance as necessary. However, literature discussing on the role of school teacher in managing psychosocial impact of malocclusion among adolescent is scarce. Thus, it can be a potential area to explore in future study.

One of the study limitations is that the female participants considerably outnumbered the male participants. However, the gender distribution of the participants is reflective of that of the adolescents seeking treatment at both the dental clinics selected. In addition, there were no noticeable differences in the responses between the male and female participants. Second, despite the encouragement of the facilitator, some participants appeared to be less active during the FGD. Hence, their views might not be reflected in the study findings. Third, the exploration of the psychosocial impacts of dental malocclusion was limited to self-reporting of the patients. Therefore, future studies should also involve dental care providers, parents and school teachers in order to understand this issue in greater depth.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, moderate to severe dental malocclusion was shown to have negative psychosocial impacts on adolescents in Kedah state, Malaysia. The pressure to seek treatment and negative emotion arising from low self-esteem were commonly seen among them. Besides, such a condition was also shown to affect their social interaction and hinder their involvement in school activities. Hence, in addition to conventional orthodontic treatment, an interdisciplinary collaboration between dental care providers, parents and school teachers to address their psychosocial needs is required.

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Some Psychosocial Determinants of Cyber-Intimate Image Diffusion: A Cross-Sectional Study among In-School Deaf Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

This study determined some psychosocial variables on cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents from two states in North-Central Nigeria. A descriptive research design and a multistage sampling procedure were employed in identifying 186 deaf adolescents who participated in the study. Two hypotheses were formulated for the study. The theory of planned behaviour was adopted as a framework for the study. Data generated through the questionnaire were analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency count and simple percentage as well as inferential statistics of bivariate correlation and *t*-test at .05 level of significance. Sixty-five percent of the respondents were aged 16-19.

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 All respondents used WhatsApp and 78% had a Facebook profile. Findings revealed a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence (r = .489; p < 0.05), self-esteem (r = .530; p < 0.05) and cyberintimate image diffusion. Also, significant differences were found between Christian and Muslim respondents (t = 11.250; p < 0.05); low and high emotional intelligence (t = -2.412; p < 0.05); low and high self-esteem (t = -11.958; p < 0.05) with regard to cyber-intimate intimate image diffusion. The study concludes that emotional intelligence and self-esteem are determinants of

cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. This study, therefore, recommends a synergy between parents of the deaf and professionals working with deaf adolescents to develop modalities that enhance psychological wellbeing and reduce cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents.

Keywords: Cyber-intimate image diffusion, deaf adolescents, emotional intelligence, religion, self-esteem, spirituality

INTRODUCTION

The advent of computers, smartphones, and particularly the internet has significantly transformed communication models, especially among adolescents. Globally, adolescents form a larger percentage of internet users (Rai, 2017) through email usage, instant messaging and chat, blogging, web surfing, and social networking. Interestingly, previous studies have revealed the benefits associated with the use of the internet for education, psychosocial wellbeing as well as sexual and reproductive health. Also, studies have recently associated the use of cyber platforms and digital communication with social interaction and sexual expressions among adolescents (Oluwole, 2009; Scholes-Balog et al., 2016). Currently, cyberspace has been used as a means of sexting. Sexting has been described as the process whereby sexually explicit or intimate images and messages are shared through electronic gadgets, and particularly, through social networks

(Scholes-Balog et al., 2016). Sexting is regarded as risky sexual behaviour that has spread through all strata of society with a greater prevalence among adolescents (Marume et al., 2018). While previous studies (Englander & McCoy, 2018; Klettke et al., 2014; Madigan et al., 2018) have used the term 'sexting', the term 'intimate image diffusion' (Penado et al., 2019) as a phenomenon associated with the exchange of sexually explicit or intimate images via social networking sites has been adopted for the purpose of this study.

As noted by Adigun (2020) and Penado et al. (2019), through the social networks (e.g. Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, and other social platforms) via mobile devices (smartphones or computer gadgets), adolescents have largely engaged in sending, receiving, broadcasting, and re-broadcasting of sexual or erotic contents and images. Since the 2008 published results of the National Campaign among adolescents in the United States, studies have shown that sexting and diffusion of sexual contents and images among adolescents is a common phenomenon. Depending on demographic characteristics, the prevalence of sending and receiving sexual images via social networks ranges from ten to forty percent especially among adolescents in primary and secondary schools (Penado et al., 2019). However, while the prevalence of diffusion of sexual/provocative contents and images is on the increase, Madigan et al. (2018), as well as Morelli et al. (2016) stated that a higher percentage of adolescents received images of sexual contents than sent them. In their studies, Harrison and Gilmore (2012), as well as Lindsay and Krysik (2012), established that females had higher tendencies to disclose personal and intimate images of themselves to their boyfriends or someone they were in a romantic relationship with or someone they intended to have a romantic relationship with. In fact, Kaur (2014) and Lawrence and Tokede (2017) avered that women often engaged in sending nude images of themselves to their romantic partner than they received.

There has been serious and unending debate among the scientific community about the implication of sexting and/or diffusion of sexual/intimate images among adolescents, especially about the associated negative effect on their mental, social, psychological, and sexual health. Temple and Lu (2018) indicated that diffusion of intimate sexual images, often resulting from (cyber) bullying, harassment, and humiliation was a negative and risky sexual behaviour capable of detrimental effects on mental health. Kopecký (2012) in a study among 9,353 adolescents from the Czech Republic found that the respondents engaged in sexual image sharing as a result of social pressure, boredom, self-representation and to make intimate contact. Furthermore, Lippman and Campbell (2014) stated that for adolescents, sharing of intimate messages and images could serve as a form of expression of sexuality and sexual interest as religion might have prevented them from premarital sexual exploration and contacts. Unfortunately, while a large number of studies on adolescents have explored various forms and implications of sexting and sharing of sexual/provocative images, the influence of psychosocial determinate of cyber-intimate diffusion among adolescents especially deaf adolescents is yet unknown. Hence, this study aimed to unravel the influence of psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) on cyberintimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.

Deafness is a condition that results in a loss of sense of hearing. In other words, individuals who are deaf lack the required potential to respond to auditoryverbal stimuli. The condition of loss of hearing sensitivity may arise at any time in an individual's life (Adigun, 2020). Irrespective of the onset of deafness, about 90% of deaf children are raised by parents who are not deaf (Moroe & De Andrade, 2018) resulting in heightened tension, grief, and anxiety within the family. Within the family and social context, the deaf experience communication difficulties especially when verbal communication forms the basis of social interactions. Although deaf people have and are expected to communicate via sign languages when assistive listening devices are unavailable, some studies have noted that sign language use has limitations particularly when the illumination is bad, or when considerable distance and obstruction are involved (Adigun, 2018; Bontempo, 2015; Napier & Barker, 2004). Thus, many deaf have leveraged the advantages presented by

social networking sites for communication and social interaction (Barak & Sadovsky, 2008). According to Lenhart et al. (2010) as well as Anderson and Jiang (2018), the number of adolescent users of social networking sites has drastically increased to about 95% in 2018 from about 62% in 2009. However, Adigun (2020) stated that research finding was yet to determine the percentage of deaf adolescent users of the various social networking sites and the percentage of those who engaged in sexting and intimate image diffusion. In other words, there is a dearth of literature on sexting and intimate image diffusion among the deaf; but it is expected that deaf adolescents especially in Nigeria may not have been spared from the web of sexting and indiscriminate intimate image diffusion over cyberspace. This assumption is based on the fact that even when digital media is not involved, deaf adolescents actively engage in risky sexual behaviours (Adigun, 2020; Sangowawa et al., 2009). Therefore, with deaf adolescents' active engagement on social networking sites, this study hypothesized that the frequency of sexting and intimate image diffusion via social networking sites among deaf adolescents is significantly high.

The literature on sexting or intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents is sparse but other extant literature among adolescents generally revealed variation in sexting or intimate image diffusion among adolescents in developed countries. Hence, this study employed literature from the nondeaf adolescents' population as a basis for comparison for the actual study participants. For instance, Livingstone and Görzig's (2014) reported among Europeans aged 11-16 showed that about 15% of the study population had received sext and sexual/ intimate images online in the previous years. In another study, Willard (2010) noted that 20% of early adolescents in America had either sent or received sexual and provocative intimate images, while about 33% of late adolescents had posted online or electronically sent or received a sexually suggestive image via the social networks. According to Willard (2010), diffusion of an intimate image is not gender-specific as both male and female adolescents engage in the behaviour. In his study, Willard reported that about 18% and 12% of early adolescents engaged in sexting while among late adolescents, 36% of males and 31% of females reportedly sext. A study among Australian adolescents by Scholes-Balog et al. (2016), was consistent with earlier studies of Willard (2010) and Klettke et al. (2014) who stated that adolescents had a greater tendency to engage in sexting and diffuse sexual and intimate images via social networking sites (SNSs) such as WhatsApp, Facebook, and Instagram. Unfortunately, until now, the implication of age and gender of deaf adolescents on sexting and intimate image diffusion remains unexplored in previous studies but Scholes-Balog et al. (2016) noted that irrespective of gender, adolescents tended to be more comfortable with exploration and exchange of sexually explicit messages or images with romantic partners.

Globally, the influence of religion and spirituality on sexuality among adolescents especially with the role played by digital media is still contentious in research (Apostolides, 2017; Quinn & Lewin, 2019). According to Apostolides (2017), religion and spirituality are two different phenomena; spirituality is developed from religious practices and experiences. Rostosky et al. (2004) avered that religion played a vital role during adolescence especially with regard to sexual exploration and identification but that religious participation tended to decrease with age. Findings of De Visser et al. (2007) among other studies on the influence of religious affiliation and participation on adolescents' sexual behaviour have yielded mixed results. Another study attests that adolescents' regular participation in affiliated religious activities is associated with higher tendencies for abstinence, less potential for premarital sex, sexting, and other risky sexual behaviours as well as delayed in first sexual initiation and experience (De Visser et al., 2017).

Irrespective of religious affiliation and participation, Bankole and Malarcher (2010) stated that the level of spirituality among religious event attendees was different. In addition, Apostolides (2017) noted that spirituality and identity formation were complex layers that shape experience and social interaction even in cyberspace. In other words, the implication of spirituality on adolescents' cyber-intimate image diffusion through social networking sites may grossly be influenced. However, the influence of religious affiliation and spirituality on risky sexual behaviours such as sexual/intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents is yet unknown.

Spirituality is a complex phenomenon that is inextricably attached to religious affiliation and practices. It is a complex term that significantly shapes lifestyle and biological needs such as seeking sexual attention through social networking sites or through other means. According to Spencer (2012), spirituality is the individualistic drive towards the achievement of a sense of purpose and peace with others. Studies also established the role of spirituality on a variable concept that influences human existence and social interaction (Malinakova et al., 2019; Smith & Snell, 2009) but the dearth of studies which have considered the level of spirituality of the deaf vis-à-vis risky health, social, and sexual behaviours such as sexting and sexual/intimate image diffusion is surprising. However, Smith and Snell (2009) linked levels of spirituality to the use of and visits to social networking sites. Nicholas and Durrheim (1995) as well as Wallace and Forman (1998) in their cross-sectional studies identified that an increased level of spirituality and devoutness was associated with less frequency of intercourse, increased rates of premarital abstinence, and lower sexting tendency.

Certain attributes of adolescence (non-deaf adolescents) such as sexual experimentation and exploration as well as activities associated with risky sexual behaviours have been linked to variations in personality differences (Crimmins & Seigfried-Spellar, 2017) and self-esteem (Klettke et al., 2019; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2014). However, findings among the nondeaf population about the implication of self-esteem and sexting are inconclusive. For instance, the study of Abeele et al. (2012), as well as Gordon-Messer et al. (2013), reported that self-esteem had no correlation with sexting behaviour among adolescents whereas Ybarra and Mitchell (2014) stated that sexting and diffusion of sexually suggestive images among adolescents were largely predicted by selfesteem. In other words, variations exist between how adolescents with low selfesteem and their counterpart with higher self-esteem may engage in activities that may lead to the sharing of sexual/intimate images over cyberspace. While previous studies have identified the self-esteem as predictors of sexting and sexual/intimate image diffusion among non-adolescents, there is yet to be an established study which has revealed any implication of self-esteem in the engagement of deaf adolescents in sharing of sexually suggestive image or contents over the social networks.

This study further hypothesised emotional intelligence as a construct plays a crucial role in an individual's success, social engagement, and ultimately mental health (Goleman, 1995), and could predict the tendency to engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. Emotional intelligence is a construct associated with an individual's capacity to identify and manage their *emotions*, as well as those of others. As indicated by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Goleman

(1998), more than intelligent quotients, emotional intelligence largely influence all aspects of human interaction, emotional development, and maturity. Unfortunately, Pujar and Patil (2019) stated that deaf adolescents had a high risk for emotional distress, behavioural problems, difficulties with the emotional process, and ultimately lower emotional intelligence due to lack of ability to understand and respond to verbal communication. However, unlike the assertion of Pujar and Patil (2019), Mayer and Salovey (1993) noted that emotional intelligence was a phenomenon that incorporated verbal and non-verbal cues. In other words, emotional intelligence has the capacity to influence non-verbal behaviours, communication, and decision making. Thus, it could be assumed that variation in the level of emotional intelligence may influence intimate image diffusion through the social networking site. In a study, Newness et al. (2012), found that individuals with high emotional intelligence disclosed lesser inappropriate content over Facebook. Similarly, Schuttle et al. (2002) averred that individuals with higher emotional intelligence had a positive mood, positive self-perception and worth, while there was a negatively higher correlation between individuals with a lower level of emotional intelligence and anxiety, depression, and stress.

Digital devices and the autonomy of adolescents' use of the internet and social networking sites have increased in the last two decades. Based on the reported increase (Temple & Lu, 2018), Penado et

al. (2019) raised concern about the alarming rate of diffusion of sexual/intimate images over social networking sites among nondeaf adolescents. Unfortunately, many adolescents who engaged in reckless intimate image diffusion have experienced or are currently experiencing attendant negative effects (such as sextortion, victimisation, cyberbullying, loss of privacy, isolation, depression, and ultimately suicide ideation) of reckless diffusion of intimate images over the social networking sites (Bates, 2017; Drouin, 2015). Although research attention has been directed to modalities to arrest the ugly phenomenon among non-deaf adolescents, there is no established study that has directed research attention to intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. Therefore, some psychosocial variables that could determine cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents from Nigeria were examined in this study.

Theoretical Framework

This study is hinged on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). The theory is designed to explain and predict intentions and behaviours which could be planned or deliberate. According to Ajzen (1991), an inverse relationship exists between intentions and emotion with a resultant influence on behaviour based on an individual's belief and strength. However, some recent studies, for instance, Wolff et al. (2011), on the direction of the relationship between intention and behaviour, posited that there was a direct link between emotion and behaviour. Irrespective of the directional effects, TPB captures variables or factors that predict willingness to try out a task, efforts exerted to exhibit or perform a behaviour as well as decisions taken by an individual. Since 1991, TPB has been used to predict and determine human behaviour and reaction to diverse phenomena (Hasbullah et al., 2014; Wolff et al., 2011) but recent studies have engaged TPB to describe the predictor of technology acceptance and use (Hasbullah et al., 2014; Sanne & Wiese, 2018). Despite these studies, there is yet to be established research especially among deaf adolescents that have engaged the TBP as a model to predict the influence of various psychosocial variables (such as the age of an individual, gender, religious affiliation, dimensions of spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) on how adolescents engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion. Therefore, based on established principles of TPB that behaviours are purposive and driven by intentional self-controlled processes, this study assessed psychosocial determinants of cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents from North-Central Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives of this study are to:

- determine any relationship exists between some psychosocial factors (spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyberintimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.
- establish the difference between dichotomised psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality,

self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.

Based on the stated objective, this study, therefore, hypothesised that:

 $H0_{1:}$ There is no significant relationship between psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.

H0_{2:} There is no significant difference between dichotomised psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, selfesteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among inschool deaf adolescents.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling

This cross-sectional study was conducted among in-school deaf adolescents in Kwara State and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja in North Central, Nigeria between September, 2 and 26, 2019. The study purposively selected two schools for the deaf in the Kwara States and three in the FCT, Abuja based on the population of the students. The selected schools were government-funded secondary schools located within the urban centres. Also, the study purposively selected deaf adolescents from grade 8 and grade 12 aged 13-19 who had access to and actively use social networking sites. A simple random technique was used to select 186 deaf adolescents from the selected schools with a total of 97 (31% male; 69% female) respondents from Kwara State and 89 (36% male; 64% female) respondents from the FCT, Abuja. All respondents had access to smartphones with internet access and they had used it consistently in the last six months prior to the study. Respondents had profiles on 2 to 3 different social networking sites.

Procedure

The study recruited the respondents after permission had been sought from the school authorities. The head of schools were adequately briefed about the aim of the study. The head of schools assigned the school counsellor to guide and observe the procedures of data collection. Also, through the Executives of the schools' Parents Teachers Association, permission to conduct the study among deaf adolescents in the schools was sought and received. Written informed consent was secured from all respondents above 16 years of age, while parents/legal guardians gave their consent on behalf of all respondents below the age of 16. Through sign language which serves as a means of communication among the deaf, all sampled respondents were adequately informed about the need and implication of the study, and they were assured of confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy of their identities and information provided. The research instrument in a paper-pencil printed format was given to the respondents in a conducive environment devoid of external interference. Respondents completed all measures of the scale in an average of 24 minutes. This study ensured

that all ethical principles guiding the use of human participants in the research were observed.

Measures

Sociodemographic Characteristics: A total of 186 deaf adolescents participated in this study with about 35% and 65% of the respondents being between the ages of 13-15 and 16-19 respectively. The percentage of male respondents was about 33% while the percentage of female respondents was 67%. A greater response rate of 69% was obtained from Christian deaf adolescents and 31% of Muslims volunteered to participate in the study while none of the participants belongs to traditional or other religions. All respondents in this study used WhatsApp as a means of communication and social interaction, 87% had Facebook profiles, 35% had an Instagram account, and only about 12%, 7%, and 1% had a social networking profile on 2go, Eskimi, and ToTok respectively. In about 30 days prior to data collection, a total of 108 (58.1%) deaf adolescents reported that they had sent sexual/intimate image over at least one of the social networking sites while 116 (62.4%) of the respondents indicated that they had received intimate images or sexually suggestive contents on social networking sites in the last 30 days before the study.

Intimate Image Diffusion: The respondents answered the 19-item Intimate Image Diffusion Scale developed by Penado et al. (2019). The scale is a two-section scale that measures intimate image diffusion through chat and intimate image diffusion through social networking sites. The scale is designed in a 5-point Likert scale of 1-'Never', 2 - 'Rarely', 3- 'Occasionally', 4 - 'Often' and 5 - 'Frequently'.

Self-esteem: The self-esteem of the respondents was assessed with the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES) (Rosenberg, 1965). The self-esteem scale is a 10-item scale that has 5 positively worded and 5 negatively worded statements. The 5 negatively worded statements were reversed during data coding. Items on the RSES were scored on a 4-point Likert scale of 1– 'strongly disagree', 2– 'disagree', 3– 'agree', and 4– 'strongly agree'. In this study, self-esteem scores between 0-29 represented low self-esteem, while scores of 30 above represented high self-esteem.

Emotional Intelligence: The 33-item Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was used to assess the general emotional intelligence of the respondents. SSEIT developed by Schutte, et al. (1998) is a self-reported instrument designed to map the models of EI as indicated by Salovey and Mayer (1990). All the 33 items of SSEIT measured on a 5-point Likert scale of 1 ='strongly disagree' to 5 ='strongly agree' were related to utilization; regulation; appraisal and expression of emotion. In this study, scores lower than 93 represented lower emotional intelligence while scores between 93 to 120 denoted a higher emotional intelligence.

Spirituality: The spirituality scale (SS) developed by Delaney (2003) was used to measure the spirituality of the respondents. The spirituality scale is a 23-item self-reported scale. Items (e.g Prayer is an integral part of my spiritual nature) were scored in a 6-point response format of 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 6 = 'Strongly Agree'. Based on the respondent's total score on the spirituality scale, scores of 178 and below represented lower spirituality level while scores of 179 to 201 denoted a higher spirituality level.

Reliability and Validity

The entire instrument used in this study was pilot-tested among some in-school deaf adolescents from Lagos state, Southwest, Nigeria. The inter-rater reliability of the intimate image diffusion scale was found reliable at Cronbach alpha of .75 while the RSES, SSEIT, SS subscales had a Cronbach alpha of .86, .77, and .78 respectively.

Data Analysis

Data generated were analysed using the descriptive statistics of frequency counts and simple percentages to describe the characteristics of the respondents *vis-à-vis* age, gender, and religious affiliation. The inferential statistics involving Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Independent Samples T-Test at .05 level of significance was used to test the stated hypotheses. Pearson Product Moment Correlation the relationship between spirituality, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and

cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents while the Independent Samples T-Test was used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between dichotomised psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.

RESULTS

Hypothesis Testing

HO_{1:} There is no significant relationship between psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents.

Table 1 reveales the correlation between some identified psychosocial factors (emotional intelligence, selfesteem and spirituality) and cyberintimate image diffusion among the deaf adolescents. The table also shows a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence (r = .489; p < 0.05) as well as self-esteem (r = .530; p < 0.05) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among observed deaf adolescents from North Central Nigeria. This study showed no significant relationship existed between age of respondents (r = -.049, p > 0.05), gender (r = .056, p > 0.05), spirituality (r = .065, p > 0.05) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among the deaf adolescents from North Central Nigeria. Therefore, the hypothesised statement that there is no significant relationship between emotional

Variable		1	2	3	4
Intimate image	Pearson Correlation	1	.489**	.530**	.065
diffusion	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.379
Emotional intelligence	Pearson Correlation		1	.323**	.082
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.263
Self-esteem	Pearson Correlation			1	.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.706
Spirituality	Pearson Correlation				1
Mean		58.387	94.290	26.037	169.483
Standard Devi	iation	12.603	14.820	4.389	19.206

Table 1

Bivariate correlation between psychosocial factors and cyber-intimate image diffusion

Note: **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

intelligence, self-esteem and cyber-intimate image diffusion among in-school deaf adolescents is not accepted.

HO_{2:} There is no significant difference between dichotomised psychosocial factors (age, gender, religion, spirituality, selfesteem, and emotional intelligence) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among inschool deaf adolescents.

Table 2 sought to determine the significant difference in the dichotomised psychosocial variables and cyber-intimate image diffusion among the respondents of this study. As captured in Table 3, there was a significant difference between deaf adolescents who were affiliated with Christianity ($\overline{X} = 63.720$) and Islam ($\overline{X} = 46.315$) with respect to cyber-intimate image diffusion. The result showed that there was a likelihood of deaf adolescents who were Christians to engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion than their counterparts who were practicing Islam. Also, a significant difference between deaf adolescents with lower emotional intelligence ($\overline{X} = 56.163$) and higher emotional intelligence ($\overline{X} = 60.563$) with respect to cyber-intimate intimate image diffusion was observed. These results indicate that deaf adolescents with higher emotional intelligence have lower potentials to engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion.

Furthermore, the table showed a significant difference in cyber-intimate image diffusion between deaf adolescents with low selfesteem ($\overline{X} = 47.046$) and higher selfesteem ($\overline{X} = 64.479$). This implies that

deaf adolescents with lower self-esteem have a higher tendency to engage in cyber activities that diffuse sexual/intimate images when compared with others with high selfesteem.

Table 2

				0.1D	DC		
		Ν	Mean	Std Dev	Df	t-cal	Sig
Age	13-15 years	66	59.212	13.689	184	.661	.509
	16-19 years	120	57.933	11.999			
Religion	Christianity	129	63.720	9.185	184	11.250	.000
	Islam	57	46.315	10.864			
Gender	Male	62	57.387	8.122	184	764	.446
	Female	124	58.887	14.332			
Emotional intelligence	Low emotional intelligence	92	56.163	14.054	184	-2.412	.017
	High emotional intelligence	94	60.563	10.631			
Self-esteem	Low self- esteem	65	47.046	8.090	184	-11.958	.000
	High self- esteem	121	64.479	10.143			
Spirituality	Lower level of spirituality	115	56.422	12.784	184	-1.679	.095
	Higher level of spirituality	71	59.600	12.390			

T-test showing differences between the independent variables and the dependent variable

DISCUSSIONS

This study assessed the psychosocial determinants of cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents from North Central Nigeria in other to fill the existing research gap on the construct of sexting or cyber-intimate image diffusion. Therefore, justification and discussion were completed with many references to studies from the non-deaf adolescents' population. In line with the study objectives, the study hypothesised that there is no significant relationship between identified psychosocial factors (emotional intelligence, self-esteem, and spirituality) and cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents.

Findings in this study revealed that emotional intelligence and self-esteem significantly correlated with cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. While this current study was conducted among deaf adolescents, the findings obtained on the relationship between religiosity and cyber-intimate image diffusion are similar to previously reported findings, although among non-deaf adolescents. Some studies have linked emotional intelligence to adolescents' behaviour, social interaction, and engagements (Liu, 2010; Tissaa, 2019). Studies of Liu (2010) and Tissaa (2019) stated that individuals with regular participation in religious rituals had stronger emotional stability and lesser tendencies to engage in risky behaviours which may include cyber-intimate image diffusion. According to Goleman (1998) and Tissaa (2019), emotional intelligence has a substantial influence on emotional development, stability, and human interaction especially over cyberspace and various social networking sites. From the findings in this study, there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. This corroborates Silva et al. (2016) and Ugoji (2014) who had reported a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and reported sexual practice, functioning, and diffusion of intimate contents among adolescents. On the contrary, this finding does not correspond with some other previous studies (Ortiz, 2012; Wozniak, 2013) which reported an insignificant relationship between adolescents' sexual expression and emotional intelligence.

Also, this study found a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. This implies that deaf adolescents with a sense of self-worth, high moral value with a positive perception of themselves would not engage in activities associated with the diffusion of sexual/ intimate images through social networking sites. This finding, though among deaf adolescents, supports earlier studies such as Ellison et al (2007), Scholes-Balog et al. (2016), as well as Vogel et al. (2014) while it negates the findings of Abeele et al. (2012), Crimmins and Seigfried-Spellar (2017), as well as Gordon-Messer et al. (2013) who reported no significant relationship between self-esteem and sexting (sending and receiving intimate images) among adolescents. According to Ellison et al (2007), self-esteem is a major factor that influences online presence and usage of social networking sites by adolescents. As stated by Ellison et al (2007), selfesteem is attributed to psychosocial adjustment, models of social interaction, and communication through social networking sites among adolescents.

Furthermore, the findings of this study with regard to the second hypothesis showed

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significant differences in cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents based on the dichotomized variables of religion (Christian and Muslim), emotional intelligence (high and low), and self-esteem (high and low) as shown on Table 2. Results in Table 2 show that deaf adolescents with affiliation to Christianity had a higher mean score than their counterparts with Islamic affiliation. This implies that deaf adolescents who were Christians may engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion than their counterparts who were Muslims. Irrespective of religion, sexting, and diffusion of sexually explicit images and content on virtual space through elements of social networking sites remains a challenging and incomprehensible discourse based on morality, security, and religious dimensions. The issues of cyber-intimate image diffusion or sext as it may seem to be discussed more among Christians based on the population of participants recorded in various studies (Cindoglu, 2003; Hasinoff, 2014) even as shown in this study where about 69% of the respondents were Christians. Hence while few studies have explored the differences in sexual exploration over the cyber media, this study supports Hasinoff (2014) who had previously observed a low frequency of sexting behaviour among Muslim adolescents. This finding may be associated with philosophies of namus (honour), prevailing religious practices, and stringent punishment attached to pre-marital sexual activities in Islam as indicated by Cindoglu (2003).

The capacity to regulate one's emotion is an integral part of emotional intelligence which serves as a buffer for risky sexual behaviour (Sesar et al., 2019) such as engaging in cyber-intimate image diffusion. In other words, levels of emotional intelligence among deaf adolescents as hypothesized in this study influence their potential to engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion. In this study, deaf adolescents with a high level of emotional intelligence as shown in Table 3 were found to have a higher mean score than their counterparts with low emotional intelligence. Hence, they possess a lower probability to engage in cyber-intimate image diffusion. This finding is consistent with Currò's, (2017) who noted that adolescents stood to engage in sexting and other risky sexual behaviours when they exhibited challenges with the ability to understand and regulate emotion particularly when under peer pressure. Since cyber-intimate image diffusion is an activity between two individuals, the pressure to sex chat via social networking sites may be more from one person to the other. Hence, deaf adolescents with a higher level of emotional intelligence may therefore resist the request. As stated by Brackett et al. (2004), Goleman (1995), and Mayer et al. (2000), individuals with a higher level of emotional intelligence are expected to have an adaptive defence mechanism that acts as a buffer against peer pressure, deviant behaviour, and engagement in sexual activities such as sexting and sharing or intimate or sexually explicit images.

The finding of this study based on dimensions of high and low self-esteem and cyber-intimate image diffusion is not in tandem with two previous studies that had investigated sexting (sending and receiving intimate images) and levels of self-esteem which reported no significant difference across levels of self-esteem and activities associated with sending and receiving sexual/intimate images among adolescents (Abeele et al., 2012; Gordon-Messer et al., 2013). Unlike the report of Gordon-Messer et al. (2013), this current study supports Scholes-Balog et al. (2016) who found differences between levels of self-esteem and how adolescents sent nude photos or videos. In line with the studies of Preston et al. (2004) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), this study identified lower self-esteem as a construct that is associated with increased potential to engage in sexual activities associated with sending and receiving sexual intimate images or content while deaf adolescents with high self-esteem have lesser tendency to engage in such activity based on their perception of self-worth and morality.

CONCLUSIONS

This study revealed a significant relationship between religion, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, and cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents from North Central Nigeria. However, neither significant relationship nor differences were found between age (early and late adolescence), gender (male and female), spirituality (low and high), and cyber-intimate image diffusion among the respondents in this study. This implies that cyber-intimate image diffusion is a phenomenon largely predicted by more psychological than social determinant factors. Therefore, the role of psychological determinants of cyberintimate image diffusion makes it imperative for an urgent concerted effort by parents, teachers, school counselling psychologists to promote activities that will foster positive psychological development among deaf adolescents. Through various means of communication such as sign language, social networking sites, lip-reading, or other means of communication within the home, parents need to engage their deaf children in a discussion about sexuality, their online friends, interactions, and activities. Also, teachers should be watchful of red-flags associated with cyber trauma arising from cyberbullying, sextortion, and harassment among deaf learners. Teachers are enjoined to adequately report and make referrals to the appropriate professionals for counselling. Furthermore, school counselling psychologists should in collaboration with teachers and parents of deaf learners engage in effective behavioural and emotional interventions geared towards the deconstruction of cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents, and the development of positive communication and interaction on social networking sites.

Although findings from this present study provide new information about cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents as determined by some psychosocial factors, there exist some limitations that this study needs to acknowledge. The population of respondents in this study was a representative sample of deaf adolescents from North Central Nigeria with a non-equal gender proportion of respondents. The non-equal representation of the gender of respondents who participated in this study was largely due to the high population of in-school female deaf adolescents within the age bracket (13-19) considered in this study. Also, determinants of cyber-intimate image diffusion examined in this study are not exhaustive as there are other variables such as parental/family status, birth order, peer pressure, home/school environmental factors of the respondents that may influence the engagement of deaf adolescents in cyber-intimate diffusion. Also, this study used quantitative approaches that limit the responses of the respondents. Therefore, future research efforts on cyber-intimate image diffusion may consider a larger sample of deaf adolescents from different races, ethnicity, or nations. Qualitative studies and longitudinal approach to data collection of determinants of cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents are encouraged.

Despite these limitations, results from the present study have provided some insights regarding the influence of religion, emotional intelligence, and self-esteem on cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. In particular, these findings may provide counselling psychologists, parents, and teachers of deaf learners with sufficient understanding of the role each of the constructs measured in this study could play on cyber-intimate image diffusion among deaf adolescents. Lastly, in an attempt to mitigate negative consequences associated with reckless cyber-intimate image diffusions such as cyber-harassment, cyber-bulling, or sextortion (Kaur, 2014) which may lead to suicidal thoughts and or attempts, this study should serve as a springboard for developing therapeutic approaches aimed at enhancement of psychosocial wellbeing of deaf adolescents.

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Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intention among Engineering Students Based on Structural Equation Modeling

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurial intention models are widely accepted in university contexts in developed countries; however, more robust studies in emerging economies are needed. With the aim of filling this gap, this work analyzes the influence of subjective norms, behavioral beliefs, attitudes, and entrepreneurial behavior on the entrepreneurial intention of college students. Structural equation modeling was implemented by means of a self-administered questionnaire that was answered by 636 undergraduate engineering students in Medellín, Colombia. According to the findings, both attitude and entrepreneurial behavior have a positive effect on entrepreneurial intention. Nevertheless, no evidence was found to confirm that subjective norms affected entrepreneurial intention, i.e., that other people's

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Keywords: Attitude, behavioral beliefs, college students, engineering, entrepreneurship, SEM

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INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, entrepreneurship has been consolidated as one of the fastest-growing research fields in terms of quantity as well as sophistication (Cefis & Marsili, 2011; Nueno, 1994; Pulgarin & Cardona, 2016; Veciana, 1999; Vergés et al., 2003). This is because the creation of new ventures is considered one of the most important ways to generate employment and a driver of economic growth, innovation, and social development (Acs & Szerb, 2010; Song et al., 2008). Those benefits are particularly relevant to tackle current global issues, such as high unemployment rates and the constant increase in the number of graduates, out of which only a low percentage can join the formal sector (Adekiya & Ibrahim, 2016). Therefore, studying the origin of the entrepreneurial process and its causes is the starting point in order to implement strategic promotion policies that have a positive effect on economic growth (Bergh et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Sebora & Theerapatvong, 2010; Van Riel et al., 2011).

Entrepreneurial intention is considered a prerequisite to the decision of starting a business (Soria et al., 2016) because it is one of the primary and most significant predictors of entrepreneurial behavior (Fang & Chen, 2019; Guzmán & Guzmán, 2012; Shamsudin et al., 2017; Torres et al., 2018). This idea is supported by several authors such as Gailly and Fayolle (2004), Kolvereid (1996), and Lee and Wong (2004), who claimed that entrepreneurial intentions were the first step in the course of the venture creation processes (sometimes in the long term). Similarly, entrepreneurial intentions create the initial strategic structure of new organizations and are essential to develop new ventures (Bird, 1988; Echeverri-Sánchez et al., 2018). However, several barriers may discourage or reduce entrepreneurial intention (Bates, 1995, Lien et al., 2002; Hernández-López et al., 2018) administrative difficulties, banks' unwillingness to fund new projects, and an unfavorable cultural environment. All of them have been extensively studied by researchers such as Carayannis et al. (2003) and Schmutzler et al. (2019).

Several studies have contributed to the dissemination and implementation of entrepreneurial intention models, thus confirming their applicability and progress in different contexts (including attitudes and some specific personality traits as determiners of said intentions) and highlighting the stability of the field (Liñán & Chen, 2009; Shepherd et al., 2015). For instance, in the academic field, entrepreneurial studies have explored the emergence of new organizations, conditions to generate innovation, and factors that lead to the promotion of venture creation (Ayalew, 2020; Lichtenstein, 2016). In addition, many of these studies confirm that the university context plays a key role in students' entrepreneurial intentions (Ordoñez et al., 2017). Therefore, great efforts are currently being made in terms of educational policies to provide students with more information regarding entrepreneurship issues, seeking to increase coverage and guaranteeing access to Higher Education Institutions for more people.

The Colombian Government has entrepreneurship programs and public policies that seek to support entrepreneurs who have the initiative to create new businesses with a technological focus. However, few studies have analyzed and identified the entrepreneurial intentions of university students in undergraduate programs with a technological focus, such as engineering (Eyel & Durmaz, 2019; Galleguillos-Cortés et al., 2019), who represents one of the main groups in society that policies to promote technology-based entrepreneurship can target.

Therefore, this study aims to close this gap and examine the entrepreneurial intention of university students by answering the following research question: What are the determining factors of entrepreneurial intention in engineering students?

To answer this question, multiple models have been developed in the field of entrepreneurial research (Guzmán & Guzmán, 2012), such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and Shapero's model of the entrepreneurial event (Botsaris & Vamvaka, 2012), which reveal why many entrepreneurs decide whether or not to start a venture (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). In accordance with said models, any entrepreneurial behavior is preceded by the intention to adopt said behavior, and those conducts can be promoted to have a positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions and, indirectly, on venture creation and entrepreneurial behavior in a given area (Guzmán & Guzmán, 2012). Nevertheless, Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1991) is the dominant model to analyze entrepreneurial intention (Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Munir et al., 2019); for that reason, it was selected to carry out the present study. First, this study begins with a conceptual framework and with the establishment of five hypotheses to connect different factors that may influence entrepreneurial intention based on reports or information provided by different authors. The quantitative method adopted in this work includes a selfadministered questionnaire that collected information from 636 undergraduate engineering students in Medellín, Colombia. The data were later evaluated and fitted, and an instrument was used to conduct the statistical analysis. Finally, this work presents the results obtained from the structural evaluation and the comparison of hypotheses in order to discuss the content and the findings of each hypothesis.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This work examines the influence of five different factors on the entrepreneurial intention of college students (Table 1).

In the context of entrepreneurship, behavioral beliefs can be defined as the expected advantages and disadvantages of creating a venture (Marcati et al., 2008), which are analyzed by individuals to establish if they are prepared to undertake the related action (Segal et al., 2005). For that reason, such behavioral beliefs influence Diana Arango-Botero, Martha Luz Benjumea Arias, Mauricio Hincapié Montoya and Alejandro Valencia-Arias

Table 1

Constructs	Definition	Reference
Behavioral beliefs	Mental associations between an object or behavior and its perceived attributes.	Marcati et al. (2008)
Personal attitudes	Learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner to a given object.	Ajzen and Fishbein (1977)
Normative beliefs	Results individuals believe will be produced by adopting a behavior, weighted by the individual motivation to meet subjective standards.	Chorlton et al. (2012)
Subjective rules	Individuals' motivations to behave according to what an individual or a group think.	Pee et al. (2008)
Entrepreneurial behavior	The search for opportunities without taking into account the resources currently under control.	Erikson (2002)
Entrepreneurial intention	Intentionality is a state of mind that directs a person's attention (and therefore experience and action) toward a specific object (goal) or a path to achieve something (means). This entrepreneurial intention, specifically, can be interpreted as "a state of mind in terms of starting a new business".	Bird (1988) and Sondari (2014)

Constructs involved in this study

attitudes toward entrepreneurship because the social environment where individuals are educated contributes to develop their attitudes (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005; Vamvaka et al., 2020). Therefore, the first hypothesis is introduced:

H1: Behavioral beliefs have a positive influence on attitudes toward entrepreneurship.

Normative beliefs and subjective norms are two different concepts. The former refers to the results an individual thinks will be produced by adopting a behavior, conditioned by the individual's motivation to conform to subjective norms (Chorlton et al., 2012); the latter describes the motivation a person has to behave in accordance with what an individual or group thinks he or she should do (Pee et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the two ideas are closely related. According to Marcati et al. (2008), normative beliefs are about who would approve or reject a given behavior; in addition, they are among the main individual and environmental characteristics that influence students' entrepreneurial intention (Duong et al., 2020). Thus, the second hypothesis emerges:

H2: Normative beliefs have a positive influence on subjective norms.

As a consequence, individuals perceive a high probability that their attitudes will lead to adequate venture creation. Ajzen (1991) claimed that attitude toward behavior in the context of entrepreneurship was the first antecedent of entrepreneurial intention. This idea supports the findings of Marques et al. (2012), who proposed the existence of a highly significant positive relationship between attitude and intention. In addition, several studies have shown that attitudes are the most influential variable in entrepreneurial intention (Lechuga et al., 2020).

Hypothesis 3 is thus proposed:

H3: Attitudes have a positive influence on entrepreneurial intention.

According to Ajzen (1991), the attitudes in the previous statement refer to the degree to which individuals perceive the attraction of the conduct under analysis. A favorable attitude toward said behavior is related to the individual's belief that it will lead to a high probability of positive results.

As mentioned in the justification of H2, subjective norms are one of the main determinants of an individual's intention because the social environment and culture directly affect people's behavior (Lechuga et al., 2020). An example of this is the context of Latin American students, where three groups of people have been identified to influence the most a young person's motivation to create a venture: friends, relatives and, in general, parents (Bolaños, 2006; Díez-Echavarría et al., 2019). Hence, Hypothesis 4 is formulated:

H4: Subjective norms have a positive influence on entrepreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurial behavior can be defined as "the search for opportunities disregard the resources currently under control" (Erikson, 2002, p. 278). According to van Dam et al. (2010), such behavior implies managing resources to make the most of the identified opportunities. Interesting findings regarding this definition have been reported in the literature. For example, people who have skills to start a venue will positively affect their subjective norms, thus favoring an entrepreneurial behavior, and the more individuals' social circles value and support entrepreneurship, the greater the skills they feel they have to start a venue, thus increasing their intention (Liñán, 2008). This is confirmed by Bolaños (2006) and Díez-Echavarría et al. (2020), who highlighted how influential it was for individuals that their immediate family, friends, and those who were important to them show their support to the entrepreneurial activity, as it helped to trigger an entrepreneurial behavior that resulted in the following hypothesis:

H5: Entrepreneurial behavior has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intention.

METHOD

In this work, a cross-sectional descriptive field study was conducted adopting a quantitative method through a selfadministered questionnaire (the instrument to collect information). Such type of questionnaire was implemented due to its low cost, convenience, briefness, and easy preparation (Suárez et al., 2009). The sample comprised 636 undergraduate engineering students in Medellin, Colombia (Table 2). Before the information was gathered, a pilot test was carried out to evaluate the clarity

Table 2

Characteristics of participants

and users' comprehension of the structure and items in the questionnaire.

Field of the engineering undergraduate program	Percentage of the sample
Mines, Oil, Geology	15%
Electricity, Electronics	8%
Systems, Telecommunications, Civil	39%
Administration, Finance, Industry, Control	25%
Chemistry, Physics, Mechanics	9%
Biology, Environment	3%
Total	100%
Semesters Enrolled	Percentage
Up to 4	40%
Between 5 and 7	27%
8 or more	33%
Total	100%
Age	Percentage
Up to 22 years	62%
23–29	31%
30 or more	7%
Total	100%

The final questionnaire measured 6 constructs, each with 3 items (evaluated on a Likert scale with 5 answer options), for a total of 18 questions. The questions regarding the Entrepreneurial intention (INTENTION) construct were adapted from Liñán et al. (2011); those about Personal attitudes (PATs), from the study by Liñan and Chen (2009); and the ones about Behavioral beliefs (BEH_BEL) were based on Liñan and Chen (2009). In addition, Entrepreneurial behavior (ENTRE) was measured as in Naktiyok et al. (2010). Normative beliefs (NOR_BEL) were measured as in Iakovleva and Kolvereid (2009). Finally, Subjective norms (NORMS) were measured using questions adapted from Iakovleva and Kolvereid (2009). The final version of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

The sampling in this study was nonprobabilistic in terms of two inclusion criteria: participants should (1) be currently enrolled in an engineering program and (2) live in Medellin. Different engineering programs in the city were visited over a period of 3 months. We had the authorization of the universities in order to take a moment in class to explain the information and have each student autonomously answer the survey. The information was gathered from 23 academic engineering programs in the city. We collected 657 surveys, out of which 21 were discarded because all their fields were not filled out or their information was incorrect. Finally, the data were tabulated, and the statistical analysis was conducted.

The method implemented in this study to analyze the results, Structural Equation Modeling, comprises two parts: a measurement model and a structural model. For that reason, before the hypotheses proposed in this study are compared, they must be confirmed. The statistical analyses were conducted using the Psych and Lavaan packages of R software.

RESULTS

Evaluation of the Measurement Model

The convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability of the internal consistency of the instrument were verified for the statistical validation of the model.

Two indicators were used for convergent validity: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test (>0.5) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p \rightarrow 0$). All the variables intersected the cut-off points. The standardized factor loadings were analyzed to test convergent validity (Table 3). An item is considered to converge to the construct it measures if its factor loading is above 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and the average of the loadings of the questions of the construct is greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010).

Construct	Item	Factor Loadings	Average
INTENTION	AJ1	0.729	0.736
	AJ2	0.792	
	AJ3	0.687	

Table 3Average and standardized factor loadings of the constructs

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Table 3 (Continued)

Construct	Item	Factor Loadings	Average
PATs	C1	0.813	0.762
	C2	0.738	
	C3	0.734	
BEH_BEL	B1	0.743	0.723
	B2	0.607	
	В3	0.819	
ENTRE	I1	0.716	0.745
	I2	0.815	
	I3	0.704	
NOR_BEL	D1	0.73	0.78
	D2	0.858	
	D3	0.753	
NORMS	EKT1	0.814	0.76
	EKT2	0.687	
	EKT3	0.779	

Additionally, to verify the discriminant validity of our model, we calculated confidence interval estimates of the correlations between its pairs of constructs. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the fact that such intervals do not contain a value of 1 is a sign of discriminant validity. A second method is to verify that the average variance extracted (AVE) for every construct exceeds the square of the correlation between each pair of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 4 presents the results described above. The diagonal indicates the square root of the average variance extracted (Table 5); under it, the confidence interval of the correlation between constructs; above it, the estimated correlation between them. It can be seen from Table 4 that all the constructs passed the two discriminant validity tests.

After the convergent and discriminant validations, the reliability or internal consistency of the measurement was evaluated with Cronbach's coefficient. A reliability value of around 0.7 is assumed to be adequate (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Additionally, the reliability analysis can be complemented with the calculation of the Compound Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each construct, which is expected to be above 0.5. Table 5 lists the values of Cronbach's alpha, Compound Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each construct; all of them are satisfactory.

	INTENTION	PATs	BEH_BEL	ENTRE	NOR_BEL	NORMS
INTENTION	0.74	0.52	0.39	0.48	0.5	0.15
PATs	[0.46, 0.57]	0.76	0.48	0.39	0.4	0.16
BEH_BEL	[0.32, 0.45]	[0.42, 0.54]	0.73	0.42	0.43	0.23
ENTRE	[0.42, 0.54]	[0.32, 0.45]	[0.35, 0.48]	0.75	0.43	0.19
NOR_BEL	[0.43, 0.55]	[0.33, 0.46]	[0.36, 0.49]	[0.36, 0.49]	0.78	0.25
NORMS	[0.08, 0.23]	[0.08, 0.23]	[0.16, 0.31]	[0.12, 0.27]	[0.17, 0.32]	0.76

Table 4Discriminant validity of the measurement model

Table 5

		ices

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
INTENTION	0.914	0.78	0.54
PATs	0.776	0.81	0.58
BEH_BEL	0.769	0.77	0.53
ENTRE	0.847	0.79	0.56
NOR_BEL	0.904	0.82	0.61
NORMS	0.888	0.81	0.58

Note: CR: Compound Reliability. AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Evaluation of the Structural Model and Comparison of Hypotheses

The second part of SEM is the structural component, which evaluates the relationships between different constructs or latent variables (Figure 1).

Before comparing the hypotheses established in Figure 1, their compliance

with some indices proposed in the literature must be verified in terms of evaluating the goodness of fit of the proposed model with the collected data. Authors such as Hu and Bentler (1999) claimed that values under 0.06 in the RMSEA index and below 0.08 in SRMR suggested a good fit. According to them, another sign of good fit is a value less Diana Arango-Botero, Martha Luz Benjumea Arias, Mauricio Hincapié Montoya and Alejandro Valencia-Arias

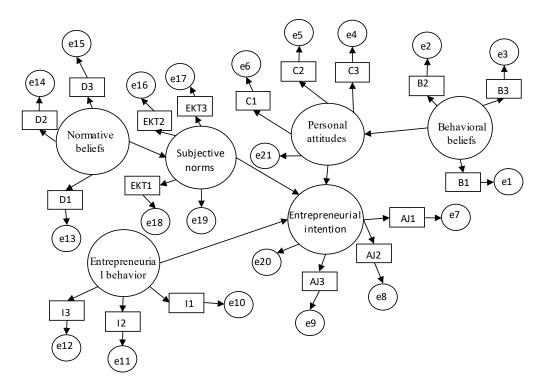


Figure 1. Entrepreneurial intention model

than 3 in the quotient between the statistic of χ^2 and its degrees of freedom ($\chi^2 / df < 3$). Hair et al. (2010), in turn, held that values exceeding 0.9 in the CFI and TLI indices reflected a good fit. Such indices were calculated in Table 6 using the SEM function of the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) in R software (The R Core Team, 2016).

In accordance with the values of the indices of the initial model in Figure 1 (listed in the third column of Table 6), none of the measures reached its corresponding threshold; as a result, some correlations between the constructs *behavioral beliefs*, *normative beliefs*, and *entrepreneurial behavior* were introduced. The values of

the indices in the modified model meet their corresponding thresholds. The structural model with the suggested modifications is thus validated.

Table 7 presents the estimates of the regression coefficients and the p-values of the relationships in the hypotheses. Four out of the five hypotheses examined in this work were supported at a significance level of 0.001. The hypothesis that proposes a positive influence of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intention is the only exception (valor p = 0.141). Additionally, the standardized coefficients were calculated (column 5) to compare the strength of the relationships. As a result, the strongest

relationship was the positive influence of the variable Behavioral beliefs on Personal attitudes, with an expected change of 0.93

units in the latter when there was a variation of one standard deviation in the former.

Table 6Measures of goodness of fit of the models

		Initi	al model	Modified model		
Index	Threshold	Measured value	Decision	Measured value	Decision	
RMSEA	≤ 0.06	0.092	Not met	0.055	Met	
SRMR	< 0.08	0.182	Not met	0.046	Met	
χ^2 / df	< 3	6.24	Not met	2.86	Met	
CFI	> 0.9	0.808	Not met	0.933	Met	
TLI	> 0.9	0.774	Not met	0.920	Met	

Note: RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation. SRMR: Standardised Root Mean Residual. CFI: Comparative Fit Index. TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index. df: degree freedom.

Table 7
Estimates and hypothesis tests

	Independent variable	Dependent variable	Coef.	Stand. Coef.	t-value	P(> t)	Hypothesis
H1	Behavioral beliefs	Personal attitudes	2.534	0.93	3.433	0.001	Supported
H2	Normative beliefs	Subjective norms	0.383	0.358	7.226	0	Supported
Н3	Personal attitudes	Entrepreneurial intention	0.373	0.522	3.405	0.001	Supported
H4	Subjective norms	Entrepreneurial intention	-0.107	-0.059	-1.472	0.141	Not supported
Н5	Entrepreneurial behavior	Entrepreneurial intention	0.807	0.414	4.042	0	Supported

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DISCUSSION

H1, the positive influence of behavioral beliefs on attitudes, is related to individuals' certainty that some people or even institutions (that are relevant to them) expect them to exhibit a given behavior (Hirsch & Pérez, 2005). In the context of entrepreneurship, behavioral beliefs can be understood as the advantages and disadvantages that can be expected from starting a venture (Marcati et al., 2008). Among the main advantages that establish a strong relationship between behavioral beliefs and entrepreneurial attitudes, an entrepreneurial lifestyle stands out. Such lifestyle is associated with autonomy, financial independence, more economic compensation, risk-taking, and the desire to achieve higher personal and professional objectives (Henderson, 2002; as cited in Marcketti et al., 2006; Ismail & Zain, 2015).

Additionally, individuals can choose from several behavioral options. However, to make that decision, they analyze the degree of control they have over said behaviors (Krueger et al., 2000; Van Gelderen et al., 2015) and which one will produce better results, being aware that some behaviors bring along great difficulties that will require a great commitment from them. At this point, beliefs about their behavior influence their attitudes because they directly help the individual to feel prepared or not to perform the related action (Segal et al., 2005). For that reason, said behavioral beliefs have an impact on attitudes toward entrepreneurship because the social environment where individuals are educated contributes to develop their attitude (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005).

H2 refers to the *positive influence of normative beliefs on subjective norms*, and its Somers' D reached 0.138. Regarding this result, subjective norms are directly related to normative beliefs because they stem from the influences of the people who are important for the individual. The two concepts are not the same because normative beliefs refer to a specific individual or group, while subjective norms generally come from people who are considered significant (Souitaris et al., 2007).

H3, the positive influence of attitudes on entrepreneurial intention, is an idea confirmed by several authors, such as Herrington et al. (2011), Peterman and Kennedy (2003), and Rae (2010). Furthermore, this relationship is a logical assumption in the context of this work because the educational environment reinforces positive personal attitudes toward entrepreneurship (Zeng et al., 2011). Specifically, extensive knowledge of venture creation generates better personal attitudes toward entrepreneurship (Tshikovhi & Shambare, 2015). Among the personal attitudes associated with a higher likelihood of starting a new venture, factors such as creativity and innovation capacity have been found to be the most influential in encouraging entrepreneurship (Hattab, 2014).

Moreover, in general, individuals perceive a high probability that their attitudes will lead to adequate venture creation. This is in line with the findings of Marques et al. (2012), who proposed the existence of a positive, highly significant relationship between attitude and intention. One of the factors that can explain this attitude is the personal satisfaction generated by the entrepreneurial lifestyle, as it is associated with feelings of personal growth, the achievement of goals, and personal success (Marcketti et al., 2006). Such results are positive because a favorable personal attitude helps individuals to focus on their venture creation objective (Bird, 1988; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; cited in Moriano et al., 2011).

H4 proposes a *positive influence* of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intention. The term subjective norms in it refers to the perception of the set of norms there is in a society or an individual's environment, which generally tends to vary from person to person even in the same environment; for that reason, such norms are said to be individual perceptions of values, beliefs, and behaviors. Usually, their influence is more significant or respected when they are adopted by people who are very important for the individual (Basu & Virick, 2007).

Due to the significance of subjective norms for entrepreneurial intention, they can be influenced by entrepreneurship programs (Basu & Virick, 2007; Souitaris et al., 2007). This is confirmed by Souitaris et al. (2007), who compared the subjective norms of individuals participating and not participating in entrepreneurship programs. They found that those who were trained in entrepreneurship perceived more positive subjective norms. This may be one of the reasons why this hypothesis was discarded in the present study since only 9% of the respondents were participating in training programs for business creation. Therefore, they do not have constant interaction with entrepreneurial people in their social environment. Additionally, students are at an age where they want to have more autonomy in their decisions; as a result, they attach less importance to the opinions of their immediate environment, in contrast to professionals, who can consider their social context to be more relevant.

H5 describes the positive influence of entrepreneurial behavior on entrepreneurial intention. This can be the case because participants are pursuing undergraduate studies which, according to Torres et al. (2018), creates more opportunities for support when a new venture is created. As a result, individuals who receive training or support have more ambitious objectives and visions than those who do not. In that regard, the role of the economic and business environment is highlighted as one of the factors that influence entrepreneurial intention because social, economic, and cultural differences result in dissimilar entrepreneurial behaviors (Bosma et al., 2008; as cited in Moriano et al., 2011).

Finally, a limitation of this study was that it included engineering students in only one city. Future research should compare several Latin American cities with similar demographic and cultural conditions. Additionally, a non-probabilistic sampling becomes a limitation for the generalization of the results; therefore, stratified random sampling should be implemented in future studies. In addition, the fact that this is a cross-sectional study does not allow us to observe the evolution of entrepreneurial intention throughout the university education process, which makes it difficult to identify the variables that intervene in the strengthening of business creation intention in college.

CONCLUSIONS

This article contributes to the understanding of the entrepreneurial intention of engineering students in the context of an emerging economy. The hypotheses we proposed are supported by positive relationships between behavioral beliefs and personal attitudes (H1), personal attitudes and entrepreneurial intention (H3), and entrepreneurial behavior and entrepreneurial intention (H5). These results will allow centers for entrepreneurial education at universities that offer engineering programs to take measures so that students have more entrepreneurial experiences that strengthen their entrepreneurial behavior and orient their training programs to strengthen business creation attitudesthrough exposure to successful practices and a greater awareness of the creation of technology-based companies in the market.

The strongest relationship in this study was found between behavioral beliefs and personal attitudes (with a standard coefficient of 0.93). This shows that, if there is a positive perception of the advantages of creating a company, individuals will have a better attitude towards entrepreneurship. From this perspective, it should be taken into account that respondents may have several behavioral options to choose from. Therefore, their decision may depend on how much control they have over these behaviors and, in the case of entrepreneurship, on the fact that engineering students may or may not feel qualified to create a company. Furthermore, individuals' social, cultural, and educational environment imposes the conditions for their attitude.

The moderate relationship between entrepreneurial behavior and entrepreneurial intention indicates that entrepreneurial behavior influences the development of certain capacities and abilities for business creation, allowing individuals to develop a personal position in relation to entrepreneurship. Additionally, entrepreneurial behavior is encouraged if the social and educational context of entrepreneurial students provides them with opportunities and resources. When a decision regarding a new venture is being made, individuals are highly influenced by the feasibility of the project because it is essential to consider the risks or difficulties said choice can bring along. Based on their analysis, individuals can establish if they are prepared or not to take on responsibility.

People around individuals willing to start a venture play an important role because the motivation and approval they express is decisive for said individuals to develop their ideas. Nevertheless, it is relevant to analyze what other variables influence this factor because the hypothesis test rejected that alternative.

Personal attitudes toward entrepreneurship are decisive as well because they enable a clear focus on the actions to be undertaken to adequately create a venture; that is, displaying said attitudes may mean that people can achieve their goals.

The positive influence of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intention can also be explained because the social and cultural environments that surround individuals directly shape their behavior, more so if said influences come from people important to them (usually friends, parents, and other relatives).

The search for opportunities, i.e., entrepreneurial behavior, surrounded by a society that values and supports entrepreneurship will make people feel more confident and have better skills, thus increasing their intention to create new ventures.

Future research should incorporate new variables into the model proposed in this study, such as risk tolerance, entrepreneurial experience, and perceived self-efficacy, which have shown greater relevance in recent years. In addition, a longitudinal study should examine the university population in order to determine their entrepreneurial intention when they start their higher education studies as well as the evolution of said intention using two surveys, one in the middle and one at the end of their academic programs. This would allow scholars to clearly follow the influence of university education on each of the variables involved in entrepreneurial intention.

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APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire

How much do you care about what your closest relatives think of your decision to pursue an entrepreneurial career or not?
How much do you care about what your closest friends think of your decision to pursue an entrepreneurial career or not?
How much do you care about what people who are important to you think of your decision to pursue an entrepreneurial career or not?
My closest relatives think I should pursue an entrepreneurial career.
My closest friends think I should pursue an entrepreneurial career.
People who are important to me think I should pursue an entrepreneurial career.
I will do everything I can to start and run my own business.
I am decided to start a business in the future.
My professional objective is to be an entrepreneur.
Entrepreneurs can improve their work-life balance.
Entrepreneurship is full of challenges.
Entrepreneurs have a good life.
I can take action to find opportunities.
I can see new market opportunities for new products and services.
I can establish and maintain positive relationships with potential investors.
To me, being an entrepreneur entails more advantages than disadvantages.
Being an entrepreneur would give me great satisfaction.



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Exploring Patients' Experience on Hospital Merger: Have they Benefited from Cluster Hospital Initiative in Malaysia?

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ABSTRACT

Cluster Hospital Initiative (CHI) in Malaysia is a hospital merger exercise to establish an integrated network of specialist and non-specialist hospitals. The resource sharing, services realignment, and better care coordination from this integration have been shown to improve operational efficiency and quality of care from the providers' perspective. However, there are very limited studies which focus on the effects of hospital merger

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E-mail addresses: ngrj@moh.gov.my (Rui Jie Ng) drnureliza@moh.gov.my (Nik Nur Eliza Mohamed) dr.ililiyana@moh.gov.my (Ili Liyana Khairul Anuar) dr.leckunyun@moh.gov.my (Kun Yun Lee) eliana@moh.gov.my (Nurul Syarbani Eliana Musa) midriso.nih@moh.gov.my (Mohd Idris Omar) roslinda@nih.gov.my (Roslinda Abu Sapian) szawani.nih@moh.gov.my (Sharifah Zawani Syed Ahmad Yunus) drizzah@moh.gov.my (Nor Izzah Ahmad Shauki) noriahbidin@gmail.com (Noriah Bidin) *Corresponding author on patients. Therefore, this study aims to explore patients' and caregivers' experiences of CHI. A qualitative study using purposive sampling was conducted from July to August 2017 at the three pilot sites. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with 85 patients and caregivers who received healthcare services before and after CHI. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Data were analysed using thematic text analysis. Three main themes transpired from the analysis were changes in healthcare service delivery, time spent on healthcare-related activities, and financial implications. Firstly, participants

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were generally satisfied with the increased access to specialist services, better quality of care, and upgraded equipment and facilities. Secondly, many participants experienced a shorter waiting time and reduced travelling time after CHI. Thirdly, CHI led to financial savings for the participants in terms of reduced out-of-pocket expenditure and productivity loss. This study demonstrated that the implementation of CHI appeared to be well-received by the patients. The expected benefits brought on by hospital mergers were also acknowledged by the study participants. A follow-up study is recommended due to the short duration of CHI implementation and low awareness about the initiative among patients.

Keywords: Hospital consolidation, integrated care, patient-centred care, patient satisfaction, service delivery, thematic analysis

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the activity of hospital mergers has been on the rise globally (Ovseiko et al., 2015). The American Hospital Association defines a hospital merger as a combination of previously independent hospitals formed by either the dissolution of one hospital and its absorption by another, or the creation of a new hospital from the dissolution of all participating hospitals (Keane et al., 2016). Hospital merger has been shown to improve the overall hospital efficiency through economies of scale and scope, reduced duplication of services, beneficial synergistic impacts (Ovseiko et al., 2015; Satta & Edmonstone, 2018), and enhanced quality of care (Kreindler et al., 2017). From the patients' perspective, in a systematic review, Baxter et al. (2018) analysed hospital merger activity among member countries of the Organisation for Economic Collaboration and Development revealed that the intervention increased patient satisfaction level. Patients also reported enhanced treatment experience and better contact with healthcare personnel (Lim, 2004; van Veghel et al., 2019). Other advantages appreciated by patients through hospital merger was the convenience and reduced cost in receiving healthcare treatment as seen in the qualitative study conducted by McGrath (2015) on cancer patients in Australia.

The concept of hospital merger has been implemented in many countries, albeit with slight variations in the definition and operational terms. In Hong Kong, there are currently seven clusters of hospitals after the merger exercise in the 1990s to overcome issues such as uneven standard of care, inefficient resource allocation, and service duplication between hospitals. Each cluster comprises one tertiary hospital and five or six smaller satellite hospitals that provide a full range of healthcare services to different population areas (Caulfield & Liu, 2006; Kong et al., 2015). Likewise in Singapore, there are six regional health systems, each consisting of regional hospitals together with primary, intermediate, community, and longterm care support centres. The vertical and horizontal integration of public healthcare services has enabled the smooth delivery of care at the respective geographical region (Okma et al., 2010; Saxena et al., 2015). Similarly, the Australian health authority has established the Local Hospital Network as part of the healthcare reformation in 2010. Geographical groupings of hospitals around a tertiary referral hospital were conducted to decentralise public hospital management and to enhance local accountability. It is also aimed to improve responsiveness to the healthcare needs of local communities via better access to service and increased clinician engagement (Anderson & Catchlove, 2012; Hall, 2010).

Since achieving independence in 1957, Malaysian healthcare has gradually transformed from a largely governmentled and tax-funded public service into a dichotomous parallel system with a thriving private sector. The three main types of hospitals in Malaysia are government-operated public hospitals, privately-owned hospitals, and non-profit private hospitals. Public hospitals are fully funded by the government and they provide comprehensive services at highly subsidised rates to all citizens (Ahmad, 2019). They can be further categorised into specialist hospitals, non-specialist district hospitals, and special medical institutions. In 2016, these public hospitals make up a total of 144 hospitals and 41,995 beds, as compared to 187 private hospitals that provide only 13,957 beds (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2017). Majority of the population prefers public hospitals due to the much lower charges. With an admission

rate that is twice that of the private hospitals, public hospitals in Malaysia face perennial problems of long waiting time, congestion, and heavy workload. The situation is further aggravated by the unequal distribution of specialists with 30% of the public hospital specialists treating 70% of the acute cases in the country (Ahmad, 2019). Moreover, the increasing double disease burden and the ageing population in Malaysia also call into question the financial sustainability of public healthcare services.

In view of this, the Malaysian Ministry of Health (MOH) formed a technical committee to explore the hospital merger concept in 2010 prompted by the reported success in other countries. Cluster Hospital Initiative (CHI) was later conceptualised based on the Health Service Goals of Malaysia's Health Vision under the 10th Malaysia Plan. The goals included Care Provided At Home or Close To Home, Seamless and Continuous Care, as well as Effective, Efficient, and Affordable Services (Institute for Health Management [IHM], 2017). Nonetheless, the MOH was initially cautious with CHI implementation because of evidence from published studies showing that hospital merger may lead to unintended outcomes such as increased treatment costs, bureaucracy due to diseconomies of scale, ambiguous effects on quality of care, and poorer patient experience (Beaulieu et al., 2020; Gaynor, 2011; Kristensen et al., 2010; Mutter et al., 2011). Therefore, the technical committee recommended for CHI to be first introduced as a pilot project prior to nationwide expansion. Cluster

Hospital Policy Framework and Standard Operating Procedures for the pilot project was developed by the working committee with inputs and contributions from various stakeholders to provide a blueprint for CHI implementation (IHM, 2017).

CHI consolidates public hospitals within the same geographical location as an integrated cluster network that shares resources, manpower, and equipment (IHM, 2017). Each cluster is made up of one lead hospital (LH), which is a specialist hospital, and one or more non-lead hospitals (NLH), which may be smaller specialist or non-specialist facilities in less urban areas. Prior to CHI, specialist hospitals were overcrowded while district hospitals were underutilised (Ang, 2014; Ang et al., 2013). CHI strives to overcome these issues through the formation of strategic partnerships and resource optimisation between the hospitals. For example, healthcare services are delivered in the optimal setting by reducing unnecessary patient referrals from NLH to LH, whereas medically stable patients requiring long term care are transferred from LH to NLH. Simple procedures are conducted in NLH, while only the complex surgeries are performed in LH. Besides that, CHI can increase healthcare providers' competency level via the sharing of best practices and improve their job satisfaction through a more balanced workload distribution. In addition, CHI emphasises patient-centred care by bringing specialist-level care closer to the patient's home to make healthcare accessible to all (IHM, 2017). Patients

are also expected to benefit from reduced waiting time for treatment and better care quality as a result of more efficient work processes and a competent workforce.

CHI started with three pilot clusters in 2014, namely the East Sabah Cluster in East Malaysia, and Melaka Cluster, and Central Pahang Cluster in Peninsular Malaysia (Figure 1). These pilot sites were identified based on their distinct geographical locations to reflect the different needs for urban, semi-urban, and rural populations. Due to financial and human resource constraints, not all the specialty departments were clustered in these three pilot clusters. Based on the situational analysis, the departments with more urgent needs were the first to be clustered (IHM, 2017). Central Pahang Cluster commenced with general medicine and emergency departments, Melaka Cluster started with departments of plastic and reconstructive surgery, orthopaedics, emergency, and general medicine; while the East Sabah Cluster focused on the obstetric department. Since the implementation of CHI, various improvements had been observed from the healthcare providers' perspective, for example, increased bed occupancy rate (BOR) and a number of procedures performed in NLH, reduced congestion in LH, and shorter waiting time for procedures (IHM, 2017). As for the patients, their experience with CHI has not been fully explored. It remains unclear whether the objective of attaining patient-centred care via CHI has been achieved, thus it formed the theoretical basis for this study. Among the three pilot clusters, only Central Pahang had conducted a small-scale cross-sectional study using a survey questionnaire. The study showed that the percentage of satisfied patients increased from 75.9% in 2013 to 83.0% in 2015 (IHM, 2017). Apart from that, all the public hospitals under MOH have been using SERVQUAL KKM as a patient satisfaction measurement tool since 2007. However, it is a generic tool applied across all types of MOH hospitals. Thus, it is not able to provide an in-depth exploration of patients' experience towards CHI (Ghazali et al., 2010). Patients' feedbacks as the endusers would be valuable in identifying the barriers and facilitators towards improving CHI (Pope et al., 2002) and serve as part of the evaluation for the pilot project before the initiative can be expanded on a larger scale. Hence, this study aimed to explore patients' and caregivers' experience in the utilisation of public healthcare services in the three CHI pilot sites.

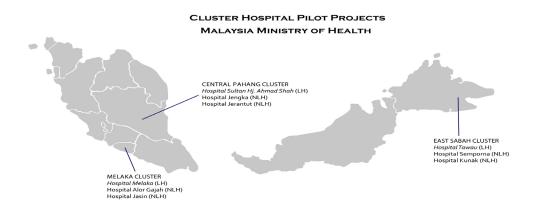


Figure 1. Map of Malaysia and cluster hospital pilot project sites

METHODS

Study Design

A qualitative study using in-depth interviews was performed to explore patients' and caregivers' experience of the healthcare service delivery after CHI. As CHI is a new concept in this country, the qualitative method would be a more flexible and preferable approach in exploring the participants' perspective and experience (Al-Busaidi, 2008; Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013; Pope et al., 2002). In-depth interviews also enabled two-way communication and engagement between the research team members and participants which allowed for a deeper understanding of emergent issues (Grossoehme, 2014; Kemparaj & Chavan, 2013).

Study Setting and Participants

This study was conducted between July to August 2017 in the three pilot clusters. The hospitals for Central Pahang Cluster are Hospital Sultan Haji Ahmad Shah (LH), Hospital Jengka, and Hospital Jerantut (NLH). Melaka Cluster includes Hospital Melaka (LH), Hospital Jasin, and Hospital Alor Gajah (NLH). East Sabah Cluster includes Hospital Tawau (LH), Hospital Kunak, and Hospital Semporna (NLH). Table 1 shows an overview of the features of the respective hospitals.

Due to the nature and objective of this research, all participants were chosen through a purposeful sampling technique. This sampling method was the most appropriate option to ensure the selected participants were patients and caregivers who had received healthcare services before and after CHI. Inclusion criteria were those aged 18 and above, able to understand Malay/ English/ Mandarin language, and received treatment services under the specialties which had been clustered. Only those who were actively involved in the inpatient care and/or follow-up appointments of patients were approached to be interviewed as caregivers. A list consisting of a total of 639 potential participants fulfilling the inclusion criteria was prepared by the local corresponding officers of each cluster. Random purposeful sampling was then applied whereby 40 potential participants for each cluster were approached by the research team members (NRJ, NNEM) via telephone calls. If they agreed to participate, an appointment would be set up to interview

them at facilities within the hospital such as meeting rooms and clinic consultation rooms. The most common reasons for refusal to participate were time constraints and unwillingness to participate.

Data Collection

A trained interviewer from the research team briefed the participants individually prior to the interview. A semi-structured interview protocol (IP) adapted from current literature about hospital mergers (Gordon et al., 2010; McGrath, 2015), objectives of CHI, and expert opinions of MOH top management personnel were used as guidance during the interviews. The IP enabled the research team members to address topics of interest while allowing the participants to answer on their own terms and for new topics to develop throughout the interview (Pope et al., 2002). Topics covered in the IP included participants' experience in receiving treatment at the hospitals, awareness of CHI, changes noticed in the services provided, and suggestions for improvement. Written informed consent was obtained from the participants before starting the interview. The research team members informed the participants that they were interested in exploring participants' experience in CHI. The interview was conducted by any of the research team members (NRJ, NNEM, NSEM, RAS, SZSAY) under the supervision of either senior researchers (MIO, NB) who had previous experience in conducting qualitative research.

Table 1

Overview of the hospitals in the three CHI pilot projects

Cluster	Specialist hospital (LH)	Non-specialist district hospital (NLH)	Non-specialist district hospital (NLH)	
Central Pahang	Hospital Sultan Haji Ahmad Shah	Hospital Jengka	Hospital Jerantut	
Year started operation	2005	1994	1977	
Total operating beds	550	70	77	
Staffing	2,009	295	329	
BOR (%)	91.3	72.2	49.5	
Services offered	14 specialties	Visiting specialists	Visiting specialists	
Distance from Hospital Sultan Haji Ahmad Shah	-	48km	60km	
Melaka	Hospital Melaka	Hospital Jasin	Hospital Alor Gajah	
Year started operation	1934	2005	2013	
Total operating beds	1,041	76	78	
Staffing	3,666	351	508	
BOR (%)	84.2	51.0	47.5	
Services offered	26 specialties	Visiting specialists	Visiting specialists	
Distance from Hospital Melaka	-	28km	24km	
East Sabah	Hospital Tawau	Hospital Kunak	Hospital Semporna	
Year started operation	1922	2006	1975	
Total operating beds	334	48	70	
Staffing	1,630	250	276	
BOR (%)	85.6	47.7	50.5	
Services offered	11 specialties	Visiting specialists	Visiting specialists	
Distance from Hospital Tawau	-	80km	110km	

Each interview lasted approximately 30-60 minutes in duration. It was designed to elicit participants' experience using open-ended questions to trigger responses, with prompts given when necessary for clarification purposes. Mono-, bilingual, or mixed languages were used during the interviews depending on the fluency and preference of both participants and research team members. Interviews were conducted for each cluster until the point of saturation was met and no new perspectives appeared. This entire process was then repeated for the subsequent clusters. The interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim, and, where necessary, translated into English. All places, names, and identifiable information were anonymised. Each participant received 30 Malaysian ringgit (RM) (USD 7.20) as the reimbursement for the time spent on the interview and travel expenses. This study was registered with National Medical Research (NMR) with the registration number (NMRR-17-297-34718) and funded by the Malaysia MOH grant. Ethical approval was obtained from the Malaysia Medical Research Ethical Committee (Ethics approval number (5)KKM/NIHSEC/ P17-496).

Data Analysis

Research team members who were involved in the data collection independently reviewed the transcripts using thematic text analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The transcripts were first read and then codes were allocated manually according to the descriptive or inferential meaning (Basit, 2003). The constant comparison method of analysis was adopted throughout the research process to produce an extensive list of codes until saturation was achieved. Categories were then created from similar groups of codes and eventually broad overarching themes were derived. To avoid researcher bias, peer review via regular meetings were conducted. The consensus from all research team members was reached on the final main themes and sub-themes. The analysis was conducted in multiple stages involving the independent analysis and consensus meetings to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

Results

A total of 85 participants were interviewed before reaching the point of saturation, with 27 from East Sabah Cluster and 29 each from Melaka Cluster and Central Pahang Cluster. Table 2 summarises the demographic characteristics of the participants.

From the interviews conducted, three themes emerged relating to the patients' and caregivers' experience in utilising healthcare services after CHI, namely (1) Changes in healthcare service delivery, (2) Time spent on healthcare-related activities, and (3) Financial implications.

Changes in Healthcare Service Delivery

The significance of CHI in improving the quality of healthcare was highlighted in the first theme. Participants described an increased level of satisfaction as a result of improved healthcare service delivery. This theme can be further categorised into of specialist care at NLH, better quality of facilities.

three sub-themes in terms of availability care by staff, and upgraded equipment and

Characteristics of Participants	n (%)
Age Group	
18 - 20 years old	3 (3.5%)
21 - 40 years old	23 (27.1%)
41 - 60 years old	38 (44.7%)
>60 years old	21 (24.7%)
Gender	
Male	40 (47.1%)
Female	45 (52.9%)
Ethnicity	
Malay	68 (80.0%)
Chinese	8 (9.4%)
Indian	4 (4.7%)
Others	5 (5.9%)
Cluster	
Central Pahang	29 (34.1%)
Melaka	29 (34.1%)
East Sabah	27 (31.8%)
Specialty	
Obstetrics	14 (16.5%)
Orthopaedic	43 (50.6%)
General Medicine	22 (25.8%)
Plastic & Reconstructive Surgery	6 (7.1%)
Role	
Patient	77 (90.6%)
Caregiver	8 (9.4%)

Table 2 Sociodemographic characteristics of the participants (N=85)

Availability of Specialist Care at NLH. Prior to CHI, many patients and caregivers had to travel further to LH for follow-up at specialist clinics. With this new initiative, specialist services were made available at NLH and this was highly complimented by most of the participants.

"I am satisfied with the specialist who comes to the non-lead hospital as he explains very well." [Mdm. M, orthopaedic, aged 49]

"Previously there were no specialists in Hospital B [NLH], often we had to be referred to Hospital A [LH]. But now the specialists are coming here every month to see the patients which is much more convenient for us as we do not need to travel to the town." [Mr. M, general medicine, aged 45]

Nevertheless, majority of the participants were not aware that these changes were brought on by CHI. Furthermore, there was still room for improvement as a few participants opined that the frequency of specialist clinics with high patient load should be increased.

"I don't know [about Cluster Hospital], I have never heard about it. But here [NLH] is better, the process seems to be more systematic and faster." [Mr. A, orthopaedic, aged 24] "Cluster should be expanded to other specialties, and with more frequent specialist clinics." [Mdm. H, obstetrics, aged 30]

"The specialists should come here [NLH] more often, currently they come only on Friday." [Mdm. J, mother of orthopaedic patient, aged 37]

Better Quality of Care by Staff. Apart from the provision of specialist care in district hospitals, the participants also expressed satisfaction with the quality of care at NLH after CHI. Many participants perceived the standard of healthcare services and interaction with staff had improved as compared to their previous visits prior to CHI. This could be attributed to the higher staff: patient ratio and less stressful working environment at NLH.

"Truthfully, the specialist service here [NLH] is better as there are too many patients [at LH]. The specialists here are well-mannered and very helpful, their explanations are very good." [Mdm. N, obstetrics, aged 32]

"I think Hospital B [NLH] is better. Because Hospital B is less crowded, the doctors will come to see you, that's one. Secondly, here in Hospital A [LH], [there are] too many patients. [It is] over-crowded and [faces] shortage of nurses. They have no time to come and see us for medication and other things. In Hospital B, because the patients are less, so for medication or any other things we can call the nurses." [Mr. B, plastic and reconstructive surgery, aged 62]

Upgraded Equipment and Facilities. In addition, another positive experience from CHI was the less congested wards and upgraded facilities at NLH to accommodate the specialist services. One significant example was the refurbishment of operation theatres (OT) in Melaka Cluster and East Sabah Cluster.

"Yes, I like it here [referring to NLH], the facilities are okay. It is not too crowded. I visited my sister who delivered at Hospital A [LH], it was so overcrowded there. I can feel it was not comfortable at all. My sister herself said that here [NLH] is comparable to private hospitals." [Mdm. H, obstetrics, aged 32]

"My operation was done in Hospital B [NLH] because the operating theatres in Hospital A [LH] were fully occupied. I will have to wait for one month in Hospital A, but I can get it done within days in Hospital B. Nowadays I see that Hospital B is already furnished with many equipments and various procedures can be done here." [Mr. S, orthopaedic, aged 40] Nonetheless, not all the facilities were equipped with the necessary equipment to cater to all types of surgical procedures. A few participants had commented on the inadequacy of certain vital equipment for the provision of comprehensive specialist care.

"The adequacy of the operating equipment is okay. I think maybe it will be better if an additional scan machine can be provided here [NLH]." [Mr. M, orthopaedic, aged 68]

"Increase the number of specialists or senior doctors who are visiting here [NLH], or just place them here. And of course, together with adequate and complete equipment." [Mdm. R, obstetrics, aged 35]

Time Spent on Healthcare-Related Activities

The total amount of time spent on healthcarerelated activities is a major concern to most patients. During the interviews, participants frequently mentioned the travelling time to the hospitals and the waiting time for medical consultations and procedures.

Waiting Time for Medical Consultations. Overall, majority of the participants were satisfied with the availability of outpatient specialist clinics at NLH which led to shorter waiting time.

"Here [NLH] waiting time is not long. I waited for 20 to 30 minutes only before seeing the doctor in the specialist clinic." [Mdm. F, general medicine, aged 68]

"It [CHI] really saves time. In Hospital A [LH], we usually have to wait for 3 to 4 hours, even if we arrive early for the appointment." [Mr. F, son of a general medical patient, aged 41]

In contrast, long waiting time at the emergency department especially at LH was still a common grouse among the patients despite CHI. This was evidenced by the feedback from several participants who expressed that no discernible reduction in waiting time was observed.

"I have experienced a very long waiting time in the emergency department. My son was treated there [LH] after a road traffic accident. He arrived at 7 p.m. and he was yet to be seen at 5 a.m. the next day." [Mr. M, father of orthopaedic patient, aged 54yo]

"It's very long [waiting time]. Getting treated at the emergency department is very timeconsuming." [Mr. S, general medicine, aged 64]

Waiting Time for Medical Procedures. A more significant time-saving impact from

CHI was contributed by the improvement of the waiting period for medical procedures and surgeries. With the upgraded facilities and improved staffing at NLH, many interventions that were previously limited to LH could be performed at NLH after CHI. A few of the participants voiced out about their disappointments on the long waiting time or the procedure delay that frequently happened before CHI.

"Last time my son had a wound on his head. They said he needed to be sent to Hospital A [LH] as the specialist was there. At that time, the emergency department was congested with patients. I waited from afternoon until night. We were later informed that he would need wound suturing in the operating theatre but again we had a long wait as all the theatres were occupied." [Mdm. S, obstetrics, aged 30]

"I had experienced [long waiting time] and heard [the same] from my family, relatives, and neighbours who have had operations done here in Hospital A [LH]. We had no choice but to wait and the waiting time can be very long." [Mr. D, orthopaedic, aged 39]

However, majority of the participants responded favourably when asked if they had experienced any changes in this aspect after CHI. In fact, they indicated that apart from the reduced waiting time for medical procedures, other processes such as ward admission and discharge were also more seamless and accommodative to patients' needs.

"It is good now that we can have the surgery done faster without having to wait for too long. If the condition can be treated, it should be done at the earliest possible to prevent possible complications and even death." [Mdm. A, mother of orthopaedic patient, aged 54]

"Here [at NLH], I had my surgery on Wednesday. I was admitted one day before, on Tuesday. Everything was fast. The doctor and the nurse had contacted me two days prior to my admission to follow up on me and to remind me about the ward admission." [Mr. M, orthopaedic, aged 24]

Travelling Time to the Hospitals. Among the three pilot clusters, participants from the East Sabah Cluster were the biggest benefactors in terms of shorter travelling distance and time. In the East Sabah Cluster, the distance between Hospital Kunak (NLH) and Hospital Tawau (LH) is 80km. With the newly upgraded OT in Hospital Kunak under CHI, many patients expressed their relief as they no longer need to spend substantial time and resources to access obstetrics services. The patients in Hospital Semporna (NLH) were also benefited as they were able to receive necessary care in the nearer Hospital Kunak (30km away), rather than having to travel 110km to Hospital Tawau.

"During an emergency, it is so much of a hassle to go [to LH]. It is truly inconvenient, especially for those poor patients with no own transportation. If a family has to visit the patients, with small children, expecting mothers... [very inconvenient]" [Mdm. J, obstetrics, aged 36]

"It takes one and a half hours to travel to Hospital A [LH] to see the specialists. After taking the queue number, we need to wait for another one to two hours for the consultation before we can go back. There was once we left home at 6 a.m., and only reached home by 2 p.m. So now with the availability of specialist services here in Hospital B [NLH], it is easy and convenient for us." [Mdm M, general medicine, aged 42]

Financial Implications

Under CHI, NLH was upgraded to be equipped with the facilities and human expertise to provide specialist services. As a result, many patients could receive the necessary care in hospitals nearer to their homes.

Reduced Out-of-Pocket Expenditure. Many participants reported financial savings in terms of out-of-pocket (OOP) expenditure because of the shorter distance. They spent less on transportation (fuel, highway toll) and overnight accommodation after CHI.

"The transportation expenses to the district hospital [NLH] was RM 5 (USD 1.20) as compared to RM 30 (USD 7.20) if going to the specialist hospital [LH]." [Mr. P, orthopaedic, aged 55]

"When I delivered my baby in Hospital A [LH], my family had to travel there and stay overnight. The car fuel was expensive. After the Caesarean section, I had to stay for another one to two days, total expenses were about RM 200 (USD 48) for food and accommodation." [Mdm. R, obstetrics, aged 30]

"Some of the patients failed to turn up for their appointments because of financial difficulties. That's why they did not come. If the services are provided at hospitals nearer to home, it is much more convenient for us." [Mdm. N, orthopaedic, aged 38]

Reduced Productivity Loss. The participants also highlighted the additional benefit they derived from CHI in terms of reduced productivity loss when seeking treatment at NLH. A nearer distance to hospitals and shorter travelling and waiting

time translated into lower absenteeism and reduced time off from work, and subsequently less productivity loss for both the patients and family members. The caregivers, typically the children of the elderly patients or the parents of younger children, reported a lower likelihood of income loss, especially for those who were self-employed.

"He [patient's son] is working. Last time if I have a check-up in the specialist hospital [that is] further away, he has to take leave from work with no pay for that day just to fetch me." [Mdm. F, orthopaedic, aged 68]

"I don't have to take leave to send my father to the hospital now." [Mr. M, son of a general medical patient, aged 38]

"It is easy to come [to the NLH]. It's convenient for my children to visit me, before and after work." [Mdm. Q, orthopaedic, aged 49]

Discussion

CHI is a major effort by the Malaysia MOH to integrate the public healthcare service delivery in order to improve the quality of care and to safeguard the long-term sustainability of the healthcare system. Since the implementation of CHI in 2014, subjective outcomes such as the perception and experience of the CHI recipients have yet to be explored. This study filled the

gap by assessing patients' and caregivers' experiences at the three pilot sites of CHI in Malaysia. Overall, almost all the participants reported a positive experience and were satisfied with the various aspects of improvement brought on by its implementation. This echoed other studies in the United Kingdom, Hong Kong, and Singapore that reported increased patient satisfaction after integrated care between various healthcare facilities were introduced (Baxter et al., 2018; Lim, 2004; Wong et al., 2012). Malaysia shares similarities with these countries whereby the hospital services are mainly funded and provided by the government. On the contrary, a recent study in the United States reported that hospital mergers were associated with modest deterioration in patient experiences. However, unlike Malaysia, the country relies primarily on the private healthcare system, and hospital consolidation was said to weaken competitive pressures to provide high-quality care to patients (Beaulieu et al., 2020). Thus, the impact of hospital mergers on patients has to take into consideration the delivery model and financing mechanism of the healthcare system.

With the increasing healthcare demand, Malaysia MOH hopes that CHI can accelerate the progress towards achieving universal health coverage (UHC). World Health Organisation (WHO) defines UHC as the goal to provide all people with access to needed healthcare services of sufficient quality without being exposed to financial hardship (Evans & Etienne, 2010). One of the objectives of CHI is exactly to improve access to care for the patients including specialist-level care, especially in rural areas. This was one of the aspects greatly appreciated by the participants in this study. Similarly, Baxter et al. (2018) reported that integrated care in the United Kingdom and internationally improved healthcare access for patients. Through CHI, the district hospitals are now able to offer primary healthcare, emergency obstetrical care, general surgery, orthopaedic surgery, and advanced medical specialty care in line with the WHO recommendation (Rajbhandari et al., 2020). Hospital merger allows sharing of resources and realignment of the healthcare services delivered between the hospitals to overcome the underutilisation of district hospitals which would otherwise risk being downsized or closed down (Guerin-Calvert & Maki, 2014). Hospital closure would negatively impact the health and wellbeing of the local community due to increased travelling time to access care, longer waiting time at the remaining hospitals, and ultimately higher mortality (Buchmueller et al., 2006).

Most participants reported a positive experience after CHI in terms of shorter waiting time for outpatient clinics, medical procedures, and surgeries. This is comparable to studies conducted in the United Kingdom (Baxter et al., 2018). With numerous surgical procedures such as arteriovenous fistula creation, cataract surgery, and internal fixation for fractures now being conducted at NLH, this opens up additional operating slots for all the patients within the same cluster. Thus, more patients

are able to undergo surgical procedures in a timely manner. Singapore documented similar improvement after the cluster reform with average waiting time for elective surgery reduced to a mere two weeks (Okma et al., 2010). A study conducted in Canada also showed that regional consolidation of orthopaedic surgery succeeded in providing patients with more timely hip-fracture surgery whereby there was a significant increase in the proportion of patients who received surgery within 48 hours. The shortened waiting time for surgery had also translated into reduced mortality (Kreindler et al., 2017). The reduction in waiting time is achieved as hospital merger allows better coordination of care and optimal resource utilisation across the hospitals (Guerin-Calvert & Maki, 2014).

Nevertheless, several patients lamented the long waiting time at the emergency department especially at LH even after CHI. Overcrowding at the emergency department is a significant worldwide public health problem and Malaysia is not spared (Di Somma et al., 2015). Under the concept of CHI, NLH is tasked to improve on their scope of services and competency at the emergency department in order to manage cases with higher severity of illness and reduce unnecessary referrals to LH (IHM, 2017). However, Trzeciak and Rivers (2003) found that inpatient capacity was the most important factor for emergency department overcrowding. With the average BOR at LH in the three clusters is already above 80%, the hospitals are ill-equipped to handle fluctuations in demand resulting in inpatient bed shortage and emergency department overcrowding. The merging of more specialty departments and ultimately the whole hospitals in the future is hoped to allow better resource utilisation between LH and NLH to alleviate the inpatient bed shortage. While the literature assessing the effect of hospital merger towards waiting time at the emergency department is limited (Baxter et al., 2018), a patient satisfaction survey conducted in Hong Kong found that a significant number of patients at the emergency department reported long waits for ward admissions despite having implemented hospital merger although the reasons were not determined (Wong et al., 2012).

Providing healthcare services of sufficient quality is also a key target of UHC. Many participants perceived higher quality of care after CHI, for instance, better staff-patient interaction. A study by Veghel et al. (2019) found comparable findings whereby patients were satisfied with the improved personal contact between patients and physicians after integration between the hospitals due to better planning and less work pressure. CHI allows the deployment of medical staff across the hospitals within the cluster according to the needs and for better workload distribution (IHM, 2017). Besides that, hospital merger improves patient care by enabling the sharing of best practices and clinical protocols between specialist hospitals and district hospitals. Several hospital leaders in the United States reported substantial reductions in the average length of stay when uniform care

protocols are adopted across the hospitals after merging (Noether & May, 2017).

In this study, the participants complimented the Malaysia MOH for the upgraded infrastructures and facilities especially at NLH after CHI. While the initial capital for these upgrades was funded by the government, the cost savings resulted from hospital mergers are expected to help fund part of the future investment in new or improved healthcare services. Hospital merger has been shown to improve efficiency through economies of scale and consolidation of duplicative administrative and supporting services (Bazzoli, 2015). Hospital merger also enables optimal utilisation of excess capacity at one hospital and alleviate capacity constraints at another, thus avoiding capital expenditure for building new facilities (Kraus, 2018). These potential savings can then be passed on to the patients through the expansion of services, purchase of better equipment, and building renovations which are some of the expectations raised by the participants for CHI.

UHC emphasises that financial barriers should not prevent people from using the services they need (Evans & Etienne, 2010). In many healthcare systems, the cost spent on accessing, travelling to, and waiting for treatment by the patients are often poorly explored compared to the direct cost of healthcare. Although public healthcare services in Malaysia is highly subsidised with patients only need to pay a nominal fee, often there are OOP expenditure for transport and accommodation and loss of income especially if patients need to travel to out-of-town hospitals. Hence, CHI which brings specialist-level care including outpatient specialist clinics and surgeries to NLH has resulted in significant savings for the participants in this study. In the United States, the Mayo Clinic Care Network enables network physicians to work collaboratively. This network allows many patients to receive care from their local providers close to home even for complex medical issues who may otherwise have travelled to Mayo Clinic (Wald et al., 2018). Even though not exactly a hospital merger concept, this network has helped lower healthcare expenses for the patients besides ensuring integrated experience and seamless care. McGrath (2015) also mentioned that regional, rural, and remote patients greatly appreciated the opportunity for specialist consultation at regional centres rather than travelling to metropolitan centres, stating advantages such as avoiding lengthy travel, stress due to separation from family if admission is required, and disorientation due to unfamiliarity with the metropolitan centre besides incurring lower OOP expenses.

Strengths and Limitations

While there are many literature on hospital merger globally, most studies focus on its impact towards hospital efficiency (Chu & Chiang, 2013; Kristensen et al., 2010), price and cost changes (Baxter et al., 2018; Schmitt, 2017), clinical outcomes (Kreindler et al., 2017; van Veghel et al., 2019), and quality of care (Baxter et al.,

2018; van Veghel et al., 2019). This is one of the first qualitative studies in exploring patients' and caregivers' experience after a hospital merger exercise (Baxter et al., 2018). There are several limitations to this study. Firstly, a direct comparison of the findings with other published literature may not be completely feasible due to the heterogenicity of the healthcare system and the implementation of the merger system. Secondly, CHI in the three pilot sites was not standardised in terms of the departments or services that were integrated. Furthermore, due to the short duration of implementation, many participants were unaware that the changes they experienced at both LH and NLH could be attributed to CHI. Most responses gathered in this study were also on the more notable changes observed at NLH compared to LH. Thus, future research is indicated, especially when CHI has matured and garnered more awareness among the patients. Prior to nationwide expansion, the Malaysia MOH should also consider further evaluation studies on other aspects of CHI implementation, for example, exploratory study about healthcare personnel's experience as the implementer, as well as cost analysis and efficiency evaluation.

CONCLUSIONS

CHI sets out to enhance the overall user experience of public hospital services in Malaysia. The strategic implementation of CHI appeared to be well-received by the patients and caregivers. Despite a large majority of the participants not being aware of the actual implementation of CHI, they experienced positive changes expected from a hospital merger, especially in terms of better access to specialist care, shorter waiting time, reduced travelling time and costs, and improved quality of care. Nevertheless, policymakers must take into consideration the areas of concern arising from this study, including the need to further expand the specialist services and upgrade important equipment and facilities in the hospitals. By implementing the necessary improvement strategies, the nationwide expansion of CHI will be more successful and seamless. A comprehensive hospital merger system will pave the way towards universal access to quality hospital care for the whole population.

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Decision-Making Models for Using Multimedia Marketing in Enterprises

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ABSTRACT

This study has three purposes: to understand the enterprises' expectations and needs of using multimedia marketing, to examine the reasons behind enterprises' rejection of multimedia marketing, and to verify whether multimedia marketing meets the expectations of the enterprises. This study combines the technology acceptance model (TAM) and expectation confirmation theory (ECT) to investigate Taiwanese enterprises' perspectives of using multimedia marketing by employing the questionnaire technique. A total of 288 valid paper questionnaires (143 companies did not use multimedia marketing, while 145 did) were collected after eliminating invalid ones. As a result, this study shows that TAM and ECT are suitable models for explaining the enterprises' behavior of using multimedia marketing. Perceived ease of use is an important factor for enterprises that do

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E-mail addresses: hsiehph@nccu.edu.tw (Pei-Hsuan Hsieh) ylhsiung@hotmail.com (Yu-Lu Hsiung) *Corresponding author not use multimedia marketing. In addition, both perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are important factors that affect the enterprises' continuance intention to adopt multimedia marketing.

Keywords: Enterprise decision, expectation confirmation theory, multimedia marketing, technology acceptance model

INTRODUCTION

Companies typically employ a variety of marketing methods to achieve the goal

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of selling products. A major traditional marketing method is to place ads in newspapers and magazines. However, following the explosion of information technology, more companies are marketing their products via information media such as websites, e-mails, online platforms, cell phones, and so on (Gupta et al., 2017). The characteristics of multimedia can enhance a product's presentation and increase marketing effectiveness because multimedia draw consumers' attention to the products and boosts the sense of entertainment (Hoogeveen, 1997; MacLenna & Van Belle, 2013). In addition, in recent years, companies such as Toyota, IBM, and Sun Microsystems have started to use 3D virtual worlds to help consumers to become more engaged, increase their learning ability, and change their perceptions (Keng & Liu, 2013; Wasko et al., 2011; Yoo et al., 2015). Consumers can better understand the products and the company image via 3D virtual worlds, which enables the companies to reach their marketing goals (Baker et al., 2019; Choi & Taylor, 2014; Hong et al., 2006). Nevertheless, Hoogeveen (1997) pointed out that multimedia did not necessarily bring about added value, and although multimedia could create new sensations, companies still needed to invest a certain amount of money. For this reason, many companies still have some reservations about using multimedia marketing activities. Additionally, past studies concerning the acceptance of various types of media have generally focused on consumer perceptions (Chang, 2009; Daugherty et al., 2008; Jeon

et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2013), and some suggested the importance of a company's internal degree of acceptance of multimedia (Gupta et al., 2017; MacLenna & Van Belle, 2013). Through empirical research, this study hopes to understand the main reasons companies use (or do not use) multimedia in marketing activities, the degree of satisfaction after using, and whether the results are consistent with the expectations of using multimedia. The study also discusses company expectations for multimedia marketing and the suitability of multimedia marketing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Multimedia Marketing

Multimedia represents a multiple channel approach, involving the combined use of various cognitive media, such as voice, music, text, graphics, animation, and video (Hoogeveen, 1997; Marmolin, 1991). Since different types of media have different effects, the use of various media is likely to bring about different results (Daugherty et al., 2008; Hoogeveen, 1997). For instance, past studies have shown that although the use of text provides detailed descriptions, images can compensate for certain cognitive shortcomings, and the use of multimedia can increase work performance under such situations (Chen & Sun, 2012; Colliot & Jamet, 2018; Mutlu-Bayraktar et al., 2019). However, some scholars are opposed to this view and feel that a high degree of multimedia usage does not necessarily lead to mission accomplishment or emphasize

information and knowledge; instead, they believe that the use of multimedia only boosts the entertainment effect (Pastore, 2016; Pincus et al., 2016).

Marketing activities include advertising, sales promotion, publicizing, packaging, and news media reporting. These enable companies to deliver unified information and product value to the public (Chang, 2009). Among previous studies, Battiato et al. (2009) used a multimedia messaging service (MMS) to send advertisements to cell phones and track consumer behavior, intending to boost the sales personnel's performance results. The use of MMS in marketing is not only convenient but also effective to a certain extent. On the other hand, the study of Danaher and Rossiter (2011), which focused on the marketing results of different marketing channels, showed that emails could use various types of multimedia to present content. As internet speed becomes faster and new, free technologies become increasingly available for download from the web, MMS can be launched on different channels to reach more customers, such as video realtime applications and social network sites (Chang et al., 2017). However, the study also found that consumers are still more open to traditional marketing channels, e.g., newspaper, radio, and television, and perceive these information sources as more trustworthy and reliable.

The concept of multimedia marketing has been widely discussed in prior studies, but its practical uses have shape-shifted in different applications in different contexts as more advanced technologies become accessible to us. For example, multimedia marketing can be referred to as an interactive platform. Second Life (SL) of Linden Lab is a 3-dimensional (3D) platform that allows multi-players to conduct various activities, such as online meetings or training. All SL players can be easily engaged in a variety of exchange activities by using SL's text or voice message functions. More 3D ads are also used to have consumers engaged in vivid emotional and psychological virtual experiences, and different research findings have confirmed that multimedia's influence on consumers' attitude toward brands and purchase intentions are different (Daugherty et al., 2008; Keng & Liu, 2013; Liu et al., 2013). However, Wasko et al. (2011) suggested that the number of 3D virtual world users continued to grow every year, and the 3D effects offer a new internet world that produces new economic values (Choi & Taylor, 2014; Yoo et al., 2015). The above studies clearly show that multimedia brings about more flexible and diverse marketing activities; however, it is uncertain whether it improves their effectiveness.

The companies that participated in the current study are listed in an exchange or are traded Over-The-Counter (OTC). Even though they all have official websites and marketing departments, some believe that there is no need to use multimedia for marketing, and some companies conduct limited multimedia marketing activities as long as these continue to make profits for their shareholders in the stock market. Therefore, multimedia marketing is defined here as the use of more than one media, e.g., MMS plus social networks or MMS plus virtual objects, to promote a company's products/services through marketing activities to achieve its communication goals.

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

The technology acceptance model (TAM) was proposed by Davis (1989). The TAM is widely used to investigate users' degree of acceptance of information technology (IT) and their willingness to use IT in the future as a way to identify potential IT users. Two important factors in the TAM are the users' perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. These two factors affect the users' attitude toward a system, and the resulting attitude further influences their behavioral intention to use the system. Numerous empirical studies have so far verified the TAM, and the majority of the studies have found that perceived usefulness is the most influential user factor (Abdullah et al., 2016; Renny et al., 2013; Wu & Chen, 2017). Apart from perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use, many scholars have included other factors, such as subjective norms and entertainment, when investigating the intention to use IT for learning or online shopping (Agag & El-Masry, 2016; Hong et al., 2011; Lee, 2010; Renny et al., 2013). The influence of customer loyalty, trust, entertainment, and service quality on users' acceptance of e-service was also explored in their research (Chiu et al, 2005; Pincus et al., 2016; Renny et al., 2013).

The TAM is often compared to the expectation confirmation theory (ECT). For example, Hong et al. (2006) supported using the TAM to predict users' future intention to use IT, but in light of the model having been used by many scholars to test whether IT users will continue to use the technology, Hong simultaneously tested the TAM and ECT and proposed that the TAM can measure users' willingness to continue using the IT after the first use. Some studies combined TAM and the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to explore users' behavioral intentions on IT use (Lee, 2009; Shiau & Chau, 2016). Lee (2010) integrated TAM, ECT, and TPB to study user experience and potential users and suggested that the satisfaction derived from the users' firsthand experience was the most significant factor for future intention to use.

Expectation Confirmation Theory (ECT)

The expectation confirmation theory (ECT) was proposed by Oliver (1980). The ECT mainly explores the discrepancy between consumers' expectations before the purchase and the actual experience of perceived performance, as well as the influence of such discrepancy on consumer satisfaction and purchase behavior. In other words, confirmation affects customer satisfaction, which in turn affects consumers' intention to make a repeated purchase. When employing the ECT to investigate users of online banking services, Bhattacherjee (2001) found that users' intention to continue using an information system (IS continuance)

intention) was based on their satisfaction and perceived usefulness; as a result, the model was adjusted to include four constructs: confirmation following system use, perceived usefulness, satisfaction, and IS continuance intention. Among these, confirmation following system use and perceived usefulness both influence satisfaction, while perceived usefulness and satisfaction influence IS continuance intention.

Currently, the ECT is used extensively to measure the degree of satisfaction and continuance intention for a myriad of information systems (IS) (Ayanso et al., 2015; Chiu et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2007; Mohammadi, 2015; Veeramootoo et al., 2018). For example, the ECT was applied to investigate the continuance intention of e-learning (Chiu et al., 2005), the continuance intentions of physicians with electronic medical records (Ayanso et al., 2015), or the continuance usages of e-government services (Veeramootoo et al., 2018). These studies agree that the perceived usability or perceived usefulness of the system influence satisfaction and continuance intention; the studies also reveal the effect of other factors on the continuance intention, such as user's habit, perceived quality, perceived value, and perceived risk. In addition, some studies integrated different models into ECT to explore the antecedents influencing users' levels of satisfaction and continuance intention for various IS. For example, Liao et al. (2007) integrated the ECT and the TPB in a study of the continuance intention for an e-service and added constructs such as perceived ease of use, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control into the original model. The findings show that customers' continuance intention depends on their satisfaction, perceived ease of use, and subjective norms. Mohammadi's (2015) study integrating the ECT and TAM also found that subjective norm plus perceived image were important antecedents of Iranian users' intention to use m-learning. These results suggest that the extended ECT models integrating another model to include other aspects of influences would have more explanatory power than the original model. However, the two constructs in the TPB model, i.e., subjective norms and perceived behavioral control, are more appropriate for exploring individuals' personal attitudes and perceptions, not at the enterprise level. Therefore, to achieve the purpose of the current study, the TAM and ECT are combined to investigate Taiwanese enterprises' perspectives of using multimedia marketing.

METHODS

Research Framework and Hypotheses

This research examined the views concerning multimedia marketing of companies that used it (the "M Group") versus those that did not (the "NM Group"). The TAM was originally proposed to measure the attitude of users who had not accepted technology. Therefore, this research made use of the TAM to gauge the viewpoints of the NM Group; the relevant model is shown in Figure 1. Companies may use the ECT to confirm whether their use of multimedia marketing meets their expectations. Because the TAM suggests that perceived ease of use influences perceived usefulness, this study went beyond the ECT to hypothesize that perceived ease of use had a positive influence on perceived usefulness. The study then compared the same constructs in both models to see the difference of these dimensions between the companies that used multimedia marketing and those that did not. Figure 2 shows the model for the NM Group. Based on the above description, this study proposes the following hypotheses concerning the NM Group:

H1a: The users' perceived ease of use has a positive impact on their perceived usefulness.

H1b: The users' perceived ease of use has a positive impact on their attitude.

H1c: The users' perceived usefulness has a positive impact on their attitude.

H1d: The users' perceived usefulness

has a positive impact on their behavioral intention.

H1e: The users' attitude has a positive impact on their behavioral intention.

The study proposes the following hypotheses for the M Group:

H2a: The users' use with expectation has a positive impact on their perceived usefulness.

H2b: The users' use with expectation has a positive impact on their perceived ease of use.

H2c: The users' perceived ease of use has a positive impact on their perceived usefulness.

H2d: The users' perceived usefulness has a positive impact on their satisfaction.

H2e: The users' perceived usefulness has a positive impact on their continuance intention.

H2f: The users' satisfaction has a positive impact on their continuance intention.

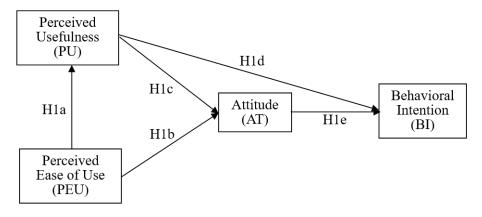


Figure 1. The model for the NM group

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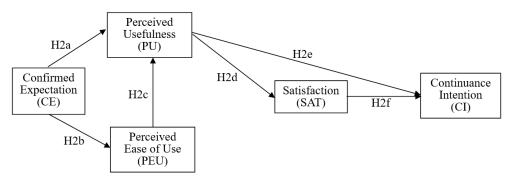


Figure 2. The model for the M group

Questionnaire and Data Collection

The study was designed based on the relevant literature (Bhattacherjee, 2001; Davis, 1989; Hong et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2009; Roca et al., 2006). A seven-point Likert scale was used. The formal questionnaire was revised based on the opinion of 11 scholars in the field of marketing in Taiwan (see Table 1 and 2). Before starting on the questionnaire, all respondents were presented with the operational definition of multimedia marketing and some examples. Then, they had to answer two screening questions. One is to decide whether they consider multimedia marketing important to their companies. If so, they were regarded as the M Group, and vice versa. The other one was to select the multimedia tools from a list to re-confirm that they had previously used them for marketing. For the NM Group, this second question was skipped. The respondents of the formal questionnaire consisted of 484 exchange-listed and OTClisted companies in Taiwan. Being an exchange-listed and OTC-listed company means that its securities are traded in a standardized process. The listed companies are not necessarily large, but their annual financial reports are usually credible before their securities can be approved to be traded in the stock market. The companies were listed in the stock market after 2016. Then, information about the listed companies was obtained from the Taiwan Stock Exchange (https://www.twse.com.tw/en/) and the Market Observation Post System (https:// emops.twse.com.tw/) by searching for their corresponding industry sectors, however closely or remotely related to the research topic (multimedia marketing). For example, the companies listed in the sectors like communication and the internet, information services, and tourism were categorized as a member of the M group. The companies' official websites were also visited to reconfirm the category. Using the same approach, the NM group was formed and properly screened for this research. Finally, the questionnaires were distributed to these

companies' customer service contact person within a span of 30 days. A total of 1,452 paper questionnaires were distributed and 309 were recovered, making the recovery rate 21%. The valid questionnaires totaled 288 after invalid questionnaires were eliminated. Among the valid samples, the researchers made follow-up contacts with the companies either by email or by phone to verify their marketing needs and tools. As a result, 143 companies confirmed that they did not use multimedia marketing (the NM Group), while 145 did (the M group). To be noted, the invalid questionnaires were eliminated due to several reasons. First, by observing all the responses, six were removed immediately (NM: 4, M: 2) for giving identical answers to all the questions. Then, four incomplete responses toward the end of the questionnaire were found, and thus they were removed as well (NM: 3, M: 1). Finally, nine responses entered the wrong group (NM: 2, M: 7), and one response was not sure which group the company belonged to after the follow-up contact. In short, a questionnaire was removed if it contained these mistakes, and if the respondent answered the questions for a company other than their own.

This study employed the statistical program SPSS 17.0 and LISREL 8.51 to perform the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis in order to verify the reliability and validity of the questionnaire and test whether the study's model and hypotheses were valid. A demographic breakdown of the recovered valid samples in this study is shown in Table 3. In the NM Group (N=143), 39.9% of the respondents were male and 60.1 were female; most were between 26 and 35 years old (54.4%); the majority received college education (67.6%); half of them had 1 to 6 years of work experience (50%). In the M group (N=145), 45.7% were male and 54.3% were female; most were between 26 and 45 years old (78.4%); the majority received college education (75.7%); 42.1% had more than 10 years of work experience.

Table 1	
Questionnaire for the NM group	

Construct	Measurement Item		
	PEU1	I think using multimedia marketing is easy.	
Perceived PEU2 ease of use PEU3	I think multimedia marketing is easy to understand.		
	PEU3	I think using multimedia marketing can easily bring about the results that I'm after.	

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Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Measuremen	nt Item	
	PU1	Using multimedia marketing can improve the effectiveness of communication.	
Perceived usefulness	PU2	Using multimedia marketing can improve the effectiveness of marketing.	
	PU3	Using multimedia can make marketing easier.	
	PU4	I think multimedia marketing is very helpful for marketing.	
	ATT1	I think multimedia marketing is attractive.	
Attitude	ATT2	I am interested in multimedia marketing.	
	ATT3	I would be very willing to use multimedia marketing.	
	BI1	In the future, I will use multimedia marketing to help with the company's marketing.	
Behavioral intention	BI2	In the future, I will actively use multimedia marketing.	
	BI3	In the future, I will recommend the use of multimedia marketing to the company.	

Table 2

Questionnaire for the M group

Construct	Measuremen	Measurement Item				
	CE1	I think the quality of using multimedia meets my expectations.				
Confirmed	CE2	I think the communication effectiveness of using multimedia meets my expectations.				
Expectation	CE3	I think the marketing effectiveness of using multimedia meets my expectations.				
	CE4	Overall, I think the outcome of using multimedia meets my expectations.				
	PEU1	I think using multimedia marketing is easy.				
Perceived ease	PEU2	I think multimedia is easy to understand.				
of use	PEU3	I think using multimedia marketing can easily bring about the results that I'm after.				

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Table 2	(Continued)
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Construct	Measurement Item		
	PU1	Using multimedia marketing can improve the effectiveness of communication.	
Perceived usefulness	PU2	Using multimedia marketing can improve the effectiveness of marketing.	
	PU3	Using multimedia marketing can make marketing easier.	
	PU4	I think multimedia is very helpful for marketing.	
	SAT1	I am satisfied with using multimedia marketing.	
Satisfaction	SAT2	Using multimedia marketing gives me a sense of achievement.	
	SAT3	Using multimedia marketing is the right thing to do.	
	CI1	In the future, I will continue to use multimedia to help with the company's marketing.	
Continuance Intention	CI2	In the future, I will use multimedia frequently to help with the company's marketing	
	CI3	In the future, I will recommend the use of multimedia marketing to the company.	

Table 3

Basic	demograp	phics of	f the	samples	1

Demographic		M group	NM Group
C 1	Male	39.9%	45.7%
Gender	Female	60.1%	54.3%
	21-30	35.8%	22.3%
A	31-40	42.7%	40.3%
Age	41-50	16.6%	26.6%
	Over 50	4.8%	7.2%
	High school	2.1%	6.4%
Education	College	67.6%	75.7%
	Graduate school	30.3%	17.1%
	<1 year	15.3%	10.0%
Work experience	1-3 years	24.3%	18.6%
	4-6 years	25.7%	15.7%
	7-9 years	11.8%	13.6%
	\geq 10 years	22.9%	42.1%

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RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Reliability and Validity Analysis

The results of the constructs' reliability and convergent validity analyses are shown in Table 4 and 5. The loading of each question exceeded .5; the Cronbach's α of all constructs exceeded .7; the composite reliability (CR) exceeded .7. These results show that each construct possessed outstanding internal consistency and stability (Hair et al., 2010). The average variance extracted (AVE) of the constructs in this research exceeded .5, confirming that the data possessed convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). The discriminant validity results of the constructs are shown in Table 6 and 7. The values along the diagonal are the square roots of AVE, and the non-diagonal values are the constructs' correlation coefficients. Each construct's correlation coefficient should be smaller than .85. In addition, Hair et al. (2010) pointed out that a construct possessed discriminant validity when the square root of AVE was greater than the correlation coefficients between other measured variables.

Table 4

Item code	Loading	Error term	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α
PEU1	.65	.10			
PEU2	.73	.08	.74	.74 .95	.74
PEU3	.85	.08			
PU1	.75	.07			.87
PU2	.63	.06	97	.97	
PU3	.77	.07	.87		
PU4	.71	.06			
ATT1	.61	.07			
ATT2	.88	.07	.83	3.96	.83
ATT3	.85	.07			
BI1	.94	.07			
BI2	.99	.07	.90	.97	.90
BI3	.92	.08			

Reliability and convergent validity of the NM group

Item code	Loading	Error term	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α
CE1	.75	.08		60	00
CE2	.80	.08	08		
CE3	.82	.08	.98	.68	.90
CE4	.79	.08			
PEU1	.80	.11			
PEU2	.91	.09	.96	.56	.81
PEU3	.75	.08			
PU1	.51	.07		.64	.88
PU2	.67	.06	.97		
PU3	.78	.07	.97		
PU4	.76	.06			
SAT1	.69	.08			
SAT2	.60	.08	.97	.66	.85
SAT3	.66	.07			
CI1	.85	.06			
CI2	.86	.07	.98	98 .86	.94
CI3	.86	.07			

Table 5Reliability and convergent validity of the M group

Table 6

Discriminant validity of the NM group

Variable	PEU	PU	ATT	BI
PEU	.71			
PU	.85	.80		
ATT	.71	.72	.80	
BI	.67	.59	.76	.87

Variable	CE	PEU	PU	SAT	CI	
CE	.83					
PEU	.66	.75				
PU	.69	.76	.80			
SAT	.76	.77	.91	.81		
CI	.55	.52	.80	.83	.93	

Table 7Discriminant validity of the M group

Path Analysis

For the NM Group's model, the goodnessof-fit index normed chi-square=1.93, GFI= .89, SRMR= .06, NNFI= .93, CFI= .95, and IFI= .95. For the M group's model, the goodness-of-fit index normed chisquare=2.37, GFI= .83, SRMR= .06, NNFI= .91, CFI= .93, and IFI= .93; all exceeded the recommended thresholds (Bagozzi et al., 1988; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hair et al., 2010). These findings show that for both groups, both the data and the model had an outstanding goodness-of-fit.

The verification of the models' causeand-effect relationships began once the goodness-of-fit was confirmed. The results of the path analysis are shown in Figures 3 and 4. Within the model for the NM Group, hypotheses H1a, H1b, and H1e were confirmed, which implies that the TAM is applicable for examining multimedia marketing use, and that perceived ease of use is an important factor of perceived usefulness and attitude toward multimedia marketing use. In other words, when a company has a positive attitude toward multimedia marketing, it will want to use multimedia in its marketing. Furthermore, the results show that H1c and H1d did not hold, which indicates that although the companies that did not use multimedia marketing might believe that it was an effective marketing tool, their attitude toward multimedia and their future intention to use it were nevertheless not affected, and their attitude toward multimedia could only be influenced by their perception of its ease of use. In short, even when the marketing personnel believes that multimedia marketing could bring about good results, companies would not necessarily use multimedia for marketing as long as these marketing tools are not easy to use. Therefore, we conclude that ease of use is the chief factor when a company decides not to use multimedia.

Among the factors in the model for the M group, hypotheses H2a, H2b, H2c, H2d, and H2f were all confirmed. This means that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use can be used to measure the effect of multimedia in the area of multimedia marketing. Through user satisfaction,

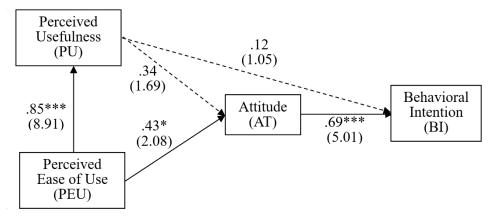


Figure 3. The model and paths for the NM group

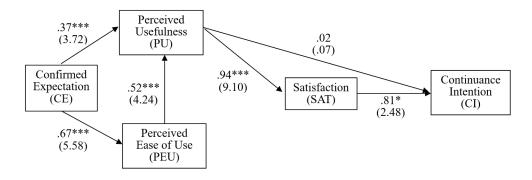


Figure 4. The model and paths for the M group

perceived usefulness can influence marketing personnel's continuance intention for multimedia marketing. However, H2e did not hold to be true, which indicates that simply recognizing the usefulness of multimedia in marketing is not enough. Rather, its effectiveness has to reach the level of expectations by the marketing personnel before it will be used continuously for marketing activities.

Discussions

According to this study's results, perceived ease of use affects perceived usefulness and attitude, which in turn affects behavioral intention among employees whose companies did not use multimedia marketing. These findings show that perceived usefulness does not significantly affect attitude and behavioral intention, which is consistent with past research

findings. The study of Daugherty and Biocca (2008) discovered that although presenting products through multimedia could boost consumers' learning effect, it did not affect their attitude and purchase intention. Similarly, the study of Hong et al. (2011) found that digital archive users' perceived usefulness did not affect their intention to use, and the most important factor that influenced the use of digital archives was perceived ease of use. The current study shows that to develop a company's intention to use multimedia marketing, the only viable path is through perceived ease of use affecting attitude affecting behavioral intention. To discuss this from another angle, perceived ease of use can influence perceived usefulness and attitude, but perceived usefulness does not significantly influence attitude. It is therefore clear that, compared with perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use has more influence over companies that do not use multimedia marketing.

The multimedia marketing model used in this study is based on the ECT, with the added construct "perceived ease of use" from the TAM model. The findings show that confirmed expectation has a significant effect on perceived ease of use, and perceived ease of use has a significant effect on perceived usefulness. This indicates that perceived ease of use is also an important factor for companies that use multimedia marketing. In short, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are two important factors affecting the use of multimedia marketing (Renny et al., 2013). Although perceived usefulness does not directly affect continuance intention, the latter can be influenced by satisfaction, which indicates that even though multimedia marketing delivers certain results, only a certain degree of satisfaction will induce a company to continue to use multimedia. The findings of the current study are consistent with Lee's (2010) results concerning e-learning, in which satisfaction is an important factor of continued use. However, apart from satisfaction, Lee (2010) also discovered that objective factors and subjective norms, such as the public's viewpoint and peer pressure, might also influence users' continuance intention. Currently, companies often outsource system tasks to system suppliers; as a result, service quality is likely one of the most important factors for the companies' continuance intention for using multimedia in their marketing activities.

Based on the above discussion, this study concludes that for companies that do not use multimedia marketing, perceived ease of use is an important factor that influences their lack of intention to use it. On the other hand, for companies that do use it, perceived ease of use, and perceived usefulness are equally important. This study is different from other technology adoption studies because it is not just an application of known models (TAM and ETC); it further reveals that it is not the same factor that determines whether a company becomes a user or a non-user of multimedia marketing. While perceived ease of use was important for both groups, perceived usefulness was important only for the M group and had no

bearing on the NM group. In addition, to induce a company's continuance intention for multimedia marketing, its degree of satisfaction has to be increased; conversely, the company will unlikely continue to use multimedia for its marketing activities if the degree of satisfaction decreases or is less than expected. An interesting question may be raised here: Did the NM group reject multimedia marketing not simply because they perceived it as not easy to use but because they valued the tool's ease of use more than its usefulness? That is when it comes to technology adoption, do the nonadopters tend to value a tool's convenience more than its effectiveness? If so, then it is not the tool's properties themselves but the companies' value system (what they believe to be their priorities) that really drive the technology adoption of multimedia marketing, and that may be a deeper root cause than the individual factors in the TAM or the ETC. In other words, the adoption of multimedia marketing depends on the company's culture/priorities and not on the actual ease of use of the tool itself. With the same rationale, one might conjecture that some companies continue to use multimedia marketing because they set both convenience and effectiveness as priorities and believe that both are key to their communication goals. The current study also concludes that as a company value multimedia marketing's usefulness more than its ease of use, the levels of satisfaction and continuance intention increases.

Suggestions and Conclusion

The results of this study prove that through attitude, perceived ease of use can indirectly influence behavioral intention in the case of companies that do not use multimedia marketing. In addition, for companies that use multimedia marketing, perceived ease of use may influence satisfaction through the mediation of perceived usefulness, which in turn affects continuance intention. This shows that whether a company uses multimedia marketing or not, perceived ease of use is an important factor that influences the company's willingness to try or to continue to use multimedia marketing (Hong et al., 2011). Accordingly, a company can increase its employees' perceived ease of use of multimedia marketing tasks through education and training. Multimedia marketing should be considered not only as a means to achieve the company's goals but also as an end to inspire the employees to build a different company culture (Baker et al., 2019). As more information systems and technological tools can now be considered multimedia, the marketing strategies should be more comprehensive and should be a shared responsibility of all departments within the company.

Multimedia marketing tasks may be outsourced to reduce user rejection of use and make employees truly appreciate the advantages of using multimedia in marketing tasks. Multimedia service providers must therefore emphasize the results and advantages brought by multimedia and strengthen the companies' confidence in multimedia use by enhancing the usability of the multimedia user interface, which will increase the perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use of multimedia marketing (Chang et al., 2017). Furthermore, because service quality in an outsourced service is very important, the providers should offer various service plans based on the needs of different companies and should improve their existing service quality to boost customer satisfaction and ensure the continued use of multimedia (Mutlu-Bayraktar et al., 2019).

This study explores the factors affecting multimedia marketing use and satisfaction based on the results from 484 exchangelisted and OTC-listed companies in Taiwan. The companies are in different industry sectors. However, even though some sectors may use multimedia as major marketing tools, some companies' activities are determined by profit and may not consider multimedia a necessity, as was discovered during the phone/email followup conversations. In other words, this study did not conduct a classification or a comparison based on industry type, future research may investigate whether the use of multimedia in marketing activities depends on the type of industry. The current study only considers those that are in the stock market (exchange-listed and OTC-listed companies). Even though this recruitment strategy can guarantee the companies are healthy and wealthy and therefore more eligible than other small and medium-sized companies, one might see a more stark contrast between the two groups (M or

NM) if extreme cases (e.g., Highly M vs. NM Groups) were to enter this study and take the questionnaires. Those companies in the Highly M Group may offer more insights into their business activities that use multimedia marketing during the followup interviews. The hypothesis verification outcomes of the theoretical models, as well as the comparison results of the two groups, may be different from the current findings. In addition, the range of multimedia is very broad: Animation, dynamic webpage, audiovisual, Flash, and interactive media are very different from each other. This study's operational definition of multimedia marketing is somewhat conservative due to the characteristics of the participating companies by describing it as the use of more than one media, such as MMS plus other latest technological tools. Different types of multimedia can entice different human senses and affect a company's multimedia marketing effectiveness differently. Therefore, future research may explore how different types of multimedia affect companies' willingness to use multimedia marketing and their satisfaction.

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Towards the Implementation of Social Forestry Policy in Aceh Province, Indonesia: Process and Institutional Assessment

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ABSTRACT

The Indonesian government devised numerous strategic plans to achieve 12.7 million hectares of social forestry areas as targeted by the social forestry program. This target is achieved through specific policies issued by the Indonesian government, which regulate the implementation and management of village forests. This study examined the readiness of the Forest Management Unit and the Village Forest Management Institute as the main institutions involved in the implementation of village forests. Additionally, the study discovered that readiness was directly proportional to the poverty alleviation level among forest users, the improvement of forest conditions, and the empowerment of forest users. This research applied an objective-based evaluation and institutional assessment. Furthermore, the data obtained was qualitative data, which was quantified using a scale, then the calculated scale results were analysed to produce index value. The

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 data analysis was employed by adopting an FMU performance appraisal method, which utilised community-managed forest management indicators. In the last five years, from the submission of the permit proposal to the issuance of forest license, the results showed an increase of community participation, particularly on the initiatives of (i) institutionalising business unit management, (ii) integration of the village forest management to the village fund, (iii) building the capacity of village enterprise group, and (iv) contributing to wildlife conflict mitigation.

Keywords: Forest management unit, policies, social forestry, village forest

INTRODUCTION

One of the means to manage forests is through community forestry or social forestry (SF), which integrates local practices and supports local livelihoods. The need to manage forests arises when there is concern over the high rate of deforestation. Thus, the government's responsibility is to control the preservation of forest resources and perform their capacity for forest protection and management (Moeliono et al., 2017). For the past few decades, SF was introduced by policymakers and subsequently became a top priority in government strategies (Fisher et al., 2018; Gauld, 2000) in their effort to overcome forest degradation and to reduce poverty (Khalyani et al., 2014; Ministry of Forest and Soil Conservation, 2013). These efforts were executed by mobilising community participation in managing the forests to further increase support from external parties and encourage community participation (Aju et al., 2019; Resosudarmo et al., 2019).

In Indonesia, SF is a policy that was recently reinvented in 2016. Village forest is one of the policy's program schemes implemented to improve welfare and reduce poverty (Santika et al., 2019) by legally empowering the social community so that they can manage and protect forests (Hutauruk et al., 2018). Besides, forest users were able to control the diversification of forest products to generate financial benefits (Yemiru et al., 2010). Therefore, the Indonesian government had specially elected a minister of environment and produced a forestry regulation program, which included the village forest scheme regulation. The target of the program was to establish 12.7 million hectares of SF areas by the end of 2019 (Resosudarmo et al., 2019; Tacconi & Muttaqin, 2019) and aimed to diminish poverty, unemployment, and inequality in the management or utilisation of forest areas.

The SF implementation coincided with another new policy on establishing permanent forest management units (FMU). FMU is the area manager, whereas SF units hold utilisation licenses in the area. Hence, SF is required to be aligned in the framework of FMU. In short, two organisations are employed in the working area under FMU management.

This research examined the implementation and evaluation of SF under the parallel developing organisation of FMU in the Aceh Province. The study area focused on Aceh Province because the village forests in that area had been established since 2014, which was right after the establishment of FMU. Also, the five-year evaluation was linked to the government's commitment to improve land access for rural people and to provide opportunities for economic development, meanwhile protecting the remaining fragile forests, as discussed in the Indonesia Presidential Election Debate 2019 (Fisher et al., 2019). The implementation of SF is examined and required to be reported to the government and the public being one of the stakeholders.

According to the Indonesian Government Regulation Number 11 Year 2006, Aceh Province holds special autonomy in managing and utilising its natural resources, which include forest resources to improve society's quality of life. With that, Aceh Province can alter national policy and adjust it based on the local situation and dynamics. Thus, it has become a particular interest to analyse the policy implementation efficacy.

The basic approach adopted by this Article was two-fold (i) Theory of Organisation Readiness for Change, and (ii) Bottom-up Policy Implementation Assessment. Furthermore, the methods applied to employ these approaches are (i) Objective-based Evaluation (Maryudi et al., 2012) and (ii) Process-based mapping analysis (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2011).

Past research studies have conducted an assessment of SF in Indonesia. Previously, Bong et al. (2019) discovered the analytical framework applied to determine the similarity and differences of a successful SF pattern. Through the use of this framework, the outcomes that enabled and hindered the implementation were discovered. Moreover, the challenge of SF implementation laid in the involvement of related institutions, which resulted in a conflict of interest that influenced the SF outcomes (Fisher et al., 2018). Unfortunately, most case studies discussed SF only from a social and economic perspective (Rakatama & Pandit, 2020) but not from an institutional perspective. Nevertheless, previous research by Tajuddin et al. (2019) stated that there were conflicts of interest between the SF program and FMU. The conflict resulted in difficulty in achieving the village forest objectives (Dash & Behera, 2015), which showed that the issues related to institutional performance also acted as an indicator to assess the effectiveness of the village forest (Rakatama & Pandit, 2020).

Hence, this study aimed to examine the readiness and capacity of SF organisations under the FMU framework to reduce the poverty of the community that utilises the forest directly, thus empowering and strengthening the community's capacity as forest users and beneficiaries. Plus, it improves the forest environments in terms of maintaining the forest from deforestation and other destructive activities to ensure sustainability and biodiversity.

Finally, this research provided a holistic evaluation of social forest policy achievements in Aceh Province, Indonesia, with regards to its objectives to promote economic benefits. The study also produced an institutional evaluation that contributed to further planning and practices of village forests in Aceh Province, Indonesia.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

In Indonesia, SF is the formalisation of community-based forest management that

is regulated in government policies and administration activities. The policy on village forests refers to the employment of land use rights and ownership rights (Erbaugh, 2019), which indicates that the community has special rights to the forest area granted by the Indonesian state. The issue under study is part of the new government policy implementation on SF. SF was established under the Forest Management Unit (FMU) management, plus both SF and FMU are products of relatively new policies. These policies indicate that certain changes need to be executed throughout the process of policy implementation. Furthermore, there is an evaluation of the policy's implementation particularly in the specific context, when two policies are implemented in the same area and exercised in harmony. Therefore, it is necessary to adopt a combination of approaches, namely: (i) Theory of Organisation Readiness for Change (Weiner, 2009) and (ii) Policy Implementation Assessment (Klaus et al., 2016). Certain modifications were made in merging these two concepts and applying them from a bottom-up perspective. Each method was adjusted to and adapted to a specific situation at SF and FMU in Aceh, as outlined in the methods.

FMU is an institution that supervises forest management at a site level (Barrette et al., 2018; Saputra & Dewata, 2019). The establishment of FMU was mandated by Law No. 41 Year 1999 with regards to forestry. Moreover, Article 12 of this particular law affirmed that forestry planning includes forest inventory, forest area gazettement, forest use planning, management area allotment, and forest plan design. Additionally, FMU was established in 2013 through Governor Regulation No. 20 Year 2013. FMU was involved in the implementation of forest management, preparation of strategic, tactical, and operational planning, management of land uses, harvesting, transformation and marketing, and control management (Beaudoin et al., 2015). Besides, the function of FMU included those related to community forest management (Jafari et al., 2018) through the village forest scheme. The village forest is the state forest managed by a village and utilised by them for the village community's welfare. Thus, the FMU plays an important role in facilitating, fostering, and overseeing forest management conducted by the village forest manager, the Village Forest Management Institution.

One of the village institution's role is to present a forest license proposal to the Indonesian Minister of Environment and Forestry to achieve the village forest objectives. Hence, in this research, the evaluation was conducted to monitor the extent to which the village forest objectives have been achieved (Maryudi et al., 2012), as shown in Table 1. Considering the difficulty in achieving these objectives without support from related institutions (Dash & Behera, 2015), the overall assessment of the institutions' maturity level is completed using process-based mapping analysis.

The research was conducted in three village forests in Pidie District, Aceh

Province, Indonesia, namely Gampong Lutueng, Gampong Mane, and Gampong Blang Dalam. The Pidie district is geographically located at 04.30° - 04.60° North Latitude (NL) and 95.75° – 96.20° East Longitude (EL), bordering the Straits of Malacca in the north, West Aceh District and Aceh Jaya in the south, Aceh Besar District in the west, and Pidie Jaya District in the east (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018). The Pidie Regency covers 23 subdistricts and consists of 94 mukim and 731 villages/gampong with a total area measuring 3,562.14 Ha. The population of Pidie district is approximately 425,974 people, with a density of 120 individual/ km² (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018). Besides, the unemployment percentage was recorded at approximately 7.64% (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018). The poverty level measured by income per capita is worth IDR

408,150 and equated with the consumption of 2,100 calories per capita/day (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018). Based on the income per capita, 92,350 people, or 21.43% of the Pidie population were living below the poverty line (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018).

In addition, the income or livelihood of the community was divided into 17 types of main business fields and grouped into seven major sectors, namely agriculture, forestry and fisheries, industrial trade, government administration, defence and social security, transportation and warehousing, and mining and quarrying. Based on the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics, agriculture, forestry, and fisheries are a part of the natural resources group, which is the largest group that contributes to the GDP with an estimated total of IDR 3,751,024.22 or 29% (Central Bureau Statistics, 2018).

Table 1	

Objectives	Elements/Indicators
Economic benefits for the community	Forest products, cash money (in IDR), services value
Benefits for forest management and biodiversity conservation	Forest patrol and monitoring, financial support for wildlife mitigation, forest plant cultivation, wildlife conflict mitigation. These activities to ensure forest quality is protected.
Social benefits for community strengthening, including community involvement and participation	Access to (i) information on SF, access to decision- makers, (ii) SF financing through village fund, (iii) capacity building through village fund and other stakeholders, (iv) decision making in terms of opportunities to give opinions in village meetings.

Data Collection

The selection of village forests and the respondents was carried out using purposive sampling. The chosen sites were village forests in Aceh which were granted five years license, namely Gampong Lutueng, Gampong Mane, and Gampong Blang Dalam village forests which are part of Aceh Province FMU 1 as illustrated in Figure 1.

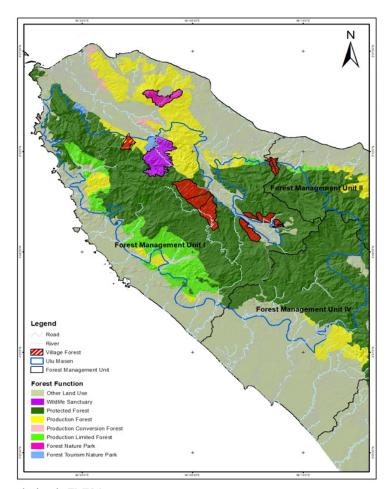


Figure 1. Research sites in FMU 1

The Gampong Lutueng forest village covers a protected forest of 2,271 ha. It is a part of the Krueng Teunom and Krueng Geumeu watershed ecosystems. The forest management of Gampong Luteung consists of cultivation activities such as seedling, planting, and selling the seeds within 140 ha. In this area, the community is also cultivating non-timber products such as dragon blood or traditionally known as *jernang*, rattan, bamboo, coffee, cocoa, fruit trees, natural honey, sugar palm, medicinal plants, and fishery products.

Secondly, the Gampong Mane village forest which is geographically located at 04° 49' 1.150" - 04° 56' 37.676" NL and 96° 0' 13.077" - 96° 5' 11.180" EL. This village forest is expected to benefit up to 1,200 households. The forest is divided into two blocks, which comprises of protection blocks covering 4,595 ha (97.88%) and rehabilitation blocks of 97.33 ha (2.12%). The protection blocks are determined using variables such as high forest cover environments, water supply, flooding and erosion prevention functions, and soil fertility preservation. The rehabilitation block land, on the other hand, is mostly dry with shrubs.

Thirdly, Gampong Blang Dalam is geographically located at 4° 52' 32.605" - 4° 54' 55.160" NL and 96° 7' 47.513" - 96°10' 37.026" EL. The LPHD of Gampong Blang Dalam was granted a forest management license for a work area of 1,048 hectares proposed by 390 households. The forest area is positioned in the Krueng Teunom watershed ecosystem which includes two sub-watersheds, namely Krueng Geumue and Krueng Inong. The work area of Blang Dalam Gampong village forest is divided into three blocks, namely the protected blocks covering an area of 515.45 ha (49.18%), the core blocks comprising of 490.73 ha (46.82%), and rehabilitation blocks of 41.85 ha (3.99%). The data collected in this research is subjected to two procedures as stated below:

- the proving of input and output from documentary sources that have been validated by authorized officials: FMU and Village Institution;
- 2. interview and group discussion with village institutions and FMU Regional I members. The topics include economic benefits, diversification, and innovation aimed at poverty reduction, forest management and biodiversity protection for the improvement of forest quality, and social benefits, including community involvement and participation to improve the community participation in forest management (planning, implementation, and supervision activities).

Objective-Based Evaluation for Village Forest Program

The main objective of the evaluation was to determine the accomplishments of the village forest program by assessing the target set achieved by the SF policies. The evaluation employed an approach developed by (Maryudi et al., 2012). This approach was used because it had gone through a "wrap up" process, synthesis involved a more complex to a set of simpler criteria, and had indicators focusing on the objectives of SF policy. Maryudi's approach assesses impacts that rely on the criteria and goal-based indicators consisting of poverty reduction, unemployment alleviation, and sustainable forest management (Maryudi et al., 2012).

Each assessment indicator has its own focus. In reducing poverty indicator that must be measured are how forest products can be utilized, how much income is derived from the use of forest products, and how the community provides services to preserve the forest for example monitoring and working together with institutions in charge such as FMUs, village headman, and police department. The second indicator is unemployment alleviation where community members can access forest information. decision, and forest land and resources. This element is related to how the government can prevent tenurial claims. While the third element, sustainable forest management by improving forest conditions such as planting native species of old-growth forest that someday invaluable. Also, these third indicator is regarding biodiversity.

In the previous research (Furness et al., 2015), Maryudi's assessment was used to evaluate the objective of forest management policy implementation in British Columbia in Canada. The aim of this research was to generate information about the strengths and weaknesses of related institutions. Also, the result indicated that the objectives of forest management policies were successfully achieved. Even though it did not align with to degree of economic benefits, the participation from the community was high.

Process-based Mapping Analysis Evaluation Approach

The process of implementing SF policies in the village forest scheme requires a cooperative role among stakeholders. FMU which acts as the forest area manager is a state representative in terms of providing public needs for the forests. This approach is also called interaction fields and space approach with a method so-called as the process-based mapping analysis (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2011). There are three aspects of process-based mapping (i) Time-momentum matching, (ii) Management effectiveness matching, and (iii) Institutional maturity matching. Table 2 shows the descriptions of each aspect.

Table 2

Aspects	Descriptions
Time momentum Matching	It is measured by aligning the institutional development process and interaction between village forest management institutions and FMU. The indicator of measurement contains a period of formation, institutionalization, pre-condition operational, and advancement time. Each indicator has elements, the measurement result is presented on as 1 to 3 scale. The final result is presented as an index generated by adding up elements scores.

Aspects of institutional maturity and descriptions

Table 2 (Continued)

Aspects	Descriptions
Management effectiveness matching	The measurement contains indicator groups such as objectives, institution instruments, programmes, and funding. Each indicator is also having an index value generated by the measurement of indicators' element. The final result of this measurement is also presented as 1-3 scale.
Institutional maturity matching	This aspect describes the level of alignment among related institutions which in this case institutions are village forest management institutions and FMU. This measurement includes all operational elements such as the fulfilment of legal aspects, organisational structure, job descriptions, organisational commitment, facilities, human resource and development, funding, short-term and long-term management planning, business planning, and partnership. The final result of these aspects is also presented as scale from 1 to 3.

While focusing on the process-based mapping analysing, this study investigates the development, status of implementation, and operationalisation of FMU and village forest within 5 years period. Besides, the maturity of the village institution as the manager of the village forest and FMU as the manager of forest areas were also assessed using this approach since the analysis is based on the mapping of inputs and outputs. The mapping of inputs and outputs is based on the process stages that are described in the form of graphs where x is the growth and y is the period (time) of the occurred process.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The State of Village Forest Policy Implementation: Objective-Based Evaluation

The indicators of measurement are following

the objectives of village forest management by the community that is to reduce poverty, to promote forest governance and social framework, and to strengthen community participation. Each indicator group consists of several elements which are referred to as quality elements. By dividing the total value of the indicator by the number of quality elements, the accumulated value of the indicator is known. The number of quality elements is equal to the number of benchmarks being used. Figure 2 depicts the outcome of the objective-based evaluation.

Based on Figure 2, the performance of the village forest continuously improved from 2013 to 2018. Also, the forest governance (maintaining and protecting forest) progressed better than that of increasing the economic value and benefits enjoyed by the village institution. This result can be objectively interpreted as efforts



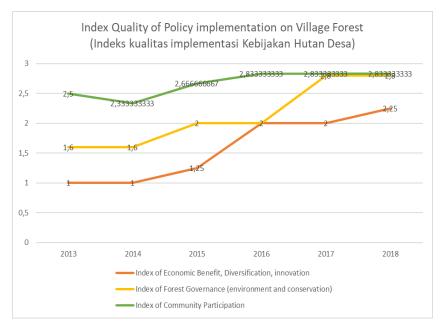


Figure 2. Index quality of policy implementation on Village Forest

in performing physical activities such as forest maintenance and patrolling are much simpler than the efforts put into improving the economic and institutional values.

Economic Benefit, Business Type, and Innovation. One of the objectives of the social forest was to provide access for the community to use forest products to support their livelihood which was not limited to forest products but also the availability of ecosystem services. Forest products and ecosystem services are expected to contribute to the community's income. The community utilising the forest products such as *manau* rattan, *slimit* rattan, and dragon blood were recruited as the respondents for this study. On the other hand, the income made from the business managed by the community group could be divided into three businesses of community groups with 10 members each. Of the total revenue, approximately 12% to 44% was contributed to village institutions while the income earned by group members ranged from 56% -88%.

Based on Figure 2, the index value of the implementation of village forest management policies in terms of improving the economy through activities aimed at increasing people's economic benefits in 2013 to 2014 was recorded at 1 point, which then increased to 2 points in 2015 and maintained at it in 2016 and 2017. The index value then continued to increase up to 2.25 in 2018. The slow performance of the index value between 2013 and 2014 could most likely be due to the initiation phase of the

village forest which involved the proposal submission and acceptance procedure. During the initial stages, the organisational structure was also informal as it has not been approved by the government. Besides, there was no regular funding to support economic activities at this point. Hence, the situation led to the absence of businesses and innovations. Fortunately, once the village forest proposal was approved in 2015, the index value experienced an increase. This increase was a result of the business funding assistance from non-governmental organisations for community groups in each of the village forest management institutions. Moreover, from 2016 to 2017, governmental funding support was also obtained which contributed to the enhancement of village forest achievement. This funding scheme was regulated by the Minister of Villages, Underdeveloped Regions, and Transmigration concerning

Priority Use of Village Funds regulation. Business activities were then carried out under a profit-sharing mechanism and/or also used to fund the village institution itself. Once the village forest was formalised, funded, and was fully monitored by the government, the index value continued to rise. Hence, in 2018, the index value was estimated at 2.25 points.

On the other hand, the community members had also begun to create innovative products particularly utilising non-timber forest products such as *jernang, silimit* rattan, and *manau* rattan. Through FMU Region 1 and Ministry of Environment and Forestry, the community skills were improved to produce valuable products from non-timber products by facilitating group learning and production tools. Figure 3 indicates the income earned from nontimber product utilisation in 2018.



Figure 3. The additional income from jernang, silimit, and manau rattan in 2018

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During the time of regulation of the funding scheme by the ministry, increased funds were also obtained from business such the cattle and buffalo fattening. The cattle fattening business income recorded approximately IDR 4,5000,000 per year for every household while sharing income with the village forest institution was recorded at IDR 960,000 to IDR 11,500,000 per year.

Policy to Protect and Conserve the Forest. The implementation of SF policies including the village forest scheme is also targeted to sustain forest resources. In this study, the goal was set to assess the reach of the forest protection and conservation implemented through forest management by the community. To measure this objective, the indicators of forest protection and conservation were constructed through the execution of the conservation-based initiatives related to forest protection including forest patrol and monitoring, prevention of deforestation, wildlife conflict mitigation, and other activities that support the use of environmental-friendly forest products.

Based on Figure 1, the index of forest governance by village forests in 2013 and 2014 was recorded at 1.6 points, since 2013 to 2014 was the period where the village forest was still under initiation and proposal process. During these starting years, the conservation agenda was not yet in place as was no activity related to the use of environmentally friendly forest products. However, beginning 2015 the index value grew by 0.4 points to 2. The slight growth was contributed by the good interest of the community in preparation for the village forest management plans while waiting for the permit issuance upon submitting the license proposal to the government. In 2015 and 2016, the initiatives to protect forests through patrol and monitoring activities were introduced. Simultaneously, deforestation prevention, wildlife conflict mitigation, and other activities supporting the use of environmental-friendly forest products were also included in the village forest planning documents. From 2016 until 2017, the community had also initiated the inclusion of forest management and wildlife mitigation into their village development plan, so that the wildlife mitigation activities could be supported by the village funds. The community proposal for wildlife conflict mitigation to be financed by the village funds was based on the Regulation of Village Minister concerning priority use of village funds.

From 2017 to 2018, the index value increased and maintained at 2.8. One of the factors that led to growth during this period is the financial support from the government. Funding of around IDR 69,000,000 was received by the village institution and was distributed to Gampong Lutueng's, Blang Dalam's, and Gampong Mane's to assist forest governance. The other supporting factor was a conservation agenda that was accommodated in the village forest management plan and village mid-term development plan. Moreover, forest patrol and monitoring were also included in the planning agenda. The patrol and monitoring teams were established by *adat mukim* institution in Lutueng settlement to eliminate wildlife conflicts.

Policy Effectiveness to Strengthen Community Capacity. One of the SF policy involved the capacity strengthening of the community to manage the forests to ensure the forest management and utilisation of forest products can be carried out in accordance with the principles of sustainable forest management. The aspect of social benefits as a partial under forest management was evaluated based on the community participation consisting of the participation rates in village institutions, number of community members involved in village meetings, number of people involved in business units, the participation rate of the community involved in the management of village institutions, number of members of village institutions involved in the drafting of the village development plan, and the participation of women in the management of village institutions.

The study revealed that the community actively participated in the socializing and discussing forest management related issues where decisions were made after much deliberation. During village discussion sessions, nearly 60% of the community members invited to the village discussions were present and contributed their inputs. The index value of public participation which was 2.5 in 2013 increased to 2.67 in 2014 and 2015. The index growth is promoted by the increased participation during the process of license proposal submission and the strengthened community interest to be involved as advisors in the leadership structure of the village institutions.

Further, in 2017 and 2018, community participation increased to 2.83. The increase was triggered by community participation along with the integration of village forest management requirements into the villages' development plan consultative process. One of the factors that led to the participation growth in the planning process was the policy foundation, where the ministerial regulation of village development stipulated that the village forests was one of the programs in priority to use village funds. The other factor was the demand to increase the capacity of business group members and mitigate wildlife conflicts.

Based on the results, the index indicated that the forest-related main capital currently owned by the community was considered as the main social benefit compared to the other objectives of SF policies. The index of social benefits since the initiation stage in 2013 up to the operational phase in 2019 was maintained between 2.5 to 2.83. It indicates that not only a strong capital but also the need and interest to make the forest as part of objects which use and protection must be planned.

The study also demonstrated that the economic benefits showed improvement. The index value of economic benefits in 2013 was 1, which then increased to 2.25 in 2018. On the other hand, the median index value was recorded by the benefits of forest governance and protection, where the index value of this particular benefit increased to 2.8. In 2018 from 1.6 in 2013.

Based on all the index values, SF policies were found to be supported by the priority use of village funds. The SF and village funds are the two main factors that helped to escalate community participation in sustainable forest management. Table 3 summarises an overview of the village funds allocated through community proposal submissions and approval in the case study area between 2017-2018.

Besides, providing economic sources to the community, there is forest stand

quality improvement which also aligns with ecological sustainability. The satellite images analysis employed annually from 2014 up to 2018 indicated that forest stand had improved significantly. In terms of forest cover, there was an average increase of 564 hectares annually at 3 villages (totally occupied 17,632 hectares of forest land). This is important evidence that village forest management has the capability in maintaining the forest stand, aside from benefiting out of the licensed areas as illustrated in Figure 4.

Table 3

The budget allocation for forest village from village fund, 2017-2018

No	Village	Amount of Village Fund (IDR)			Amount of Allocation Fund for Village Forest Management Institution (IDR)		
		2017	2018	2019	2017	2018	2019
l	Blang Dalam	788.612.181	1.108.000.000			20.000.000	-
2	Lutueng	973.985.002	977.000.000		10.000.000	29.000.000	-
3	Mane	1.083.365.795	2.000.000.000			20.000.000	-

No	Village	Percentage of Village Fund Allocation for Village Forest Management Institution (%)			r Amount of budget has been allocated for the Village Forest in 2 years
		2017	2018	2019	
1	Blang Dalam		1,81	-	20.000.000
2	Lutueng	1,03	2,97	-	39.000.000
3	Mane		1,00	-	20.000.000

Towards the Implementation of Social Forestry Policy

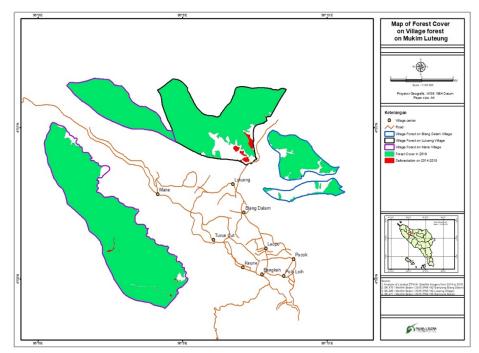


Figure 4. Additional forest cover on 3 village forests (based on ETM 8+ satellite images)

Results and Discussion Generated from Process-based Mapping Analysis

In addition to the objective-based evaluation, process-based mapping analysis was employed to determine the factors contributing to the quality of the process in governing and managing the village forest. In other words, learning power as one of the components in knowledge management may be well outlined in this approach. This approach is performed when two or more institutions experience development phases at the same time. The process consists of several stages in the aspect of the operationalisation of institutions. The matching process that was executed, engaged FMU and Village Institutions as forest managers. Both institutions grew

relatively in the same period, 2013-2018. During this period, both organisations performed their respective functions and tasks accordingly. Hence, it is also part of the process mapping approach to examine the effectiveness of joint performance on the ground. In short, the process-based mapping approach delivers three thematic matchings, namely (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2011):

- Time-momentum matching
- Management effectiveness matching
- Institutional maturity matching

Time-Momentum Matching. There are two consecutive stages of institution development, namely the preparatory

or instalment stage, and the operation stage (Strand, 2001). The initiation, establishment, institutionalisation, and pre-conditions processes are referred to as the maturity level of an organisation during the instalment stage. This stage reflects on the institutional situation whether the operational and management systems are being accommodated on a preparatory or informal basis. Hence, the operational process is defined to be at rationalised level and development stages at the alignment level.

This study focused on the FMU and village forest programs from 2013 to 2018. Each of the organisation experienced their journey of development but were observed to interact with each other as depicted in Figure 5.

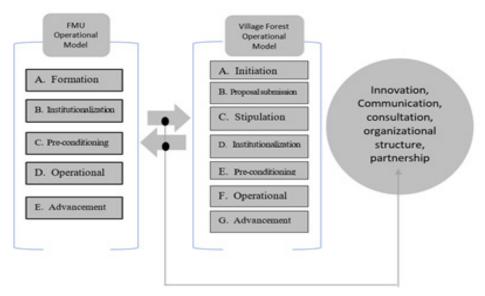


Figure 5. Institutional development and interaction between FMU and Village Forest

The matching dynamic between the stages of development of FMU and the village forest is diagrammatically expressed in Figure 6. Some of the observations that can be taken from this thematic map include:

FMU should interact with the village forest even during the establishment phase when the new organisation was set up. This interaction will ensure both FMU and village forest to exchange ideas and opinions from each other's institutional development.

The pace of development of both institutions may not be the same or even parallel (Balkin & Gomez-mejia, 1990). It may be caused by some difficulties encountered by the village forest prior to the establishment of FMU. Some bureaucratic barriers (authority, rights, and scheme of distribution of benefits) will have to be addressed before smooth interactions can take place.

Village forest advanced in terms of development, while FMU was still trying to

perform better in the initial operation. More effort is needed by the FMU management to cope with this unbalanced stage of institutional development.

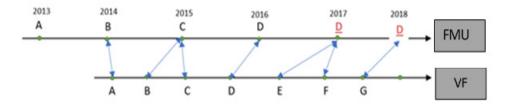


Figure 6. Time-momentum matching between FMU and Village Forest

Management Effectiveness Matching.

Management effectiveness matching aims to observe the area of commonness on the management between FMU and Village Forest institutions. Observations were made based on the semantic expression in the relevant management documents (Legal documents, Corporate profiles, Management Plan, and confirmation and articulation during interviews). The composite index ranged from 1 to 3 was applied as an aggregated valuation of the common patterns.

This matching type consists of four indicators, namely (1) commonness of the long-term management objectives, (2) similarity of program areas, (3) management instrumentation, and (4) availability of funding to support potential management partnership. Figure 7 represents the analysis result. Figure 7 indicates that both FMU and Village Forest run similar practices and program in their institutional objectives. Therefore, the collaboration between the two institutions became decent. On the other hand, both the institutions still have to prepare the institutional instruments such as management standards, coordination mechanism, and competencies of the staff to follow.

Institutional Maturity Matching. The institutional maturity matching was observed between 2013 to 2018 in this study. The analysis made use of three different stages of institutional maturity (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2011).

Level 1: ad-hoc institution, which is characterised by mixed, hero driven leadership, fragmented organisation and



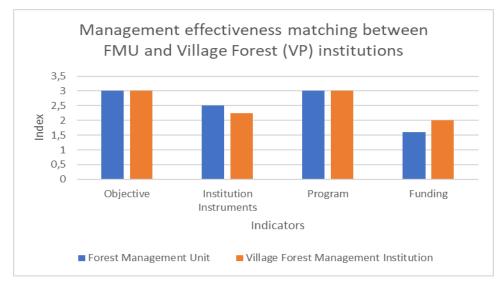


Figure 7. Management effectiveness matching between FMU and VP institutions

staffing, project-like resource allocation, and informal partnership

Level 2: rationalised institution, which is characterised by championed leadership that is internalised across disciplines, aligned organisation, competent staff, resource allocation based on program, and formal, aligned partnership

Level 3: leadership oriented towards commitment, integrated organisation and staffing, sustainable funding and budgeting, and consolidated partnership

The index for institutional maturity was operated against indicators that have been set up for forest management performance, consisting of social, ecological, economic, and the institution of management operation. The assessment of the indicators was performed using an ordinal scale.

Based on the outcome, the institutional maturity of Village Forests management

was relatively above that of FMUs'. This phenomenon can be factually explained as follows:

The management of village forest was and still is intensively facilitated, guided, and supervised by NGO activists (Fauna and Flora International).

The management of FMU is formally reviewed by the Provincial Forestry Office. From the beginning (2013) up to 2016, FMU grew consistently and the index for maturity increased from 1.3 to 2.0 (from the scale of 0 to 5.0). However, after 2016, the rate of maturity seemed to slow down and was over-taken by the maturity of Village Forests. In fact, the performance of FMU was affected by changes in leadership at FMU and the Provincial Forestry Office.

It is believed that the institutional maturity of forestry institutions is best developed by intensive and consistent coaching, advising, and supervising activities. Therefore, the maturity index of an institution may start from a very low level (around 1 on the scale of 1 to 3) during the initiation and work its way to full maturity after several years. However, the respective organisation may still encounter high risk while developing towards mature and stable management (as classified with maturity index with level 3) as seen in Figure 8.

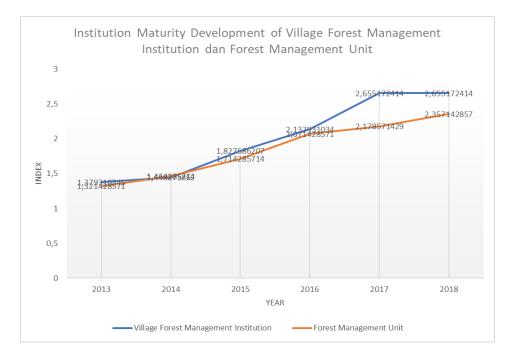


Figure 8. Institution maturity development of Village Forest Management Institution and FMU

CONCLUSIONS

To conclude, this study revealed that the Village Forests community, FMU, national governments, and village institutions must work together to support SF. Their similar vision and mission towards SF contribute to a better institutional maturity level. In regards to the success of the village forest, the village forest policy has to be supported by other policies. This study demonstrated that the integration between the village forest policy with the priority funding policy contributed to the success of the village forest implementation. These policies aid in developing and implementing forest protection steps such as forest patrol, monitoring, and wild-animal conflict mitigation. Based on the economics perspective, the integration of these policies reinforces community members to manage non-timber products such as rattan and *jernang* to improve their quality of life. This study also revealed that the maturity level of FMU and village institutions were influenced by other policies. The local policy number 23 year 2014 positively influenced the maturity level of FMU, while the maturity level of the village institution was influenced by village funding policy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Moderation Effect of Education to the Effect of Market Orientation and Technology Orientation on Entrepreneurship Orientation at Small-and-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in East Java, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

The research was aimed to uncover the effect of market orientation and technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation with education as a moderator variable. This research used the quantitative approach and the causal relationship between variables was investigated through *Structural Equation Modeling-Partial Least Squares* (SEM-PLS). The research population included Small-and-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in East Java, Indonesia, and 168 SMEs were selected as the sample. The findings of the research revealed that education attainment levels could reduce the effect of market orientation on entrepreneurship orientation. Based on the findings, it is recommended that SMEs in East Java must improve their entrepreneurship orientation by intensifying the variation of the market's supply and demand, upgrading technology, and hiring workers who have the required educational background, and then training them on the latest technology.

Keywords: Education, entrepreneurship orientation, market orientation, small-and-medium enterprises of Indonesia, technology orientation

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One of the business sectors with a strong contribution to the growth of the Indonesian economy is the Small-and-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) sector (Anton et al., 2015). Small-and-Medium Enterprises had contributed to 60.3% of the growth of the Indonesian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2018. The problem is that most

ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 Indonesian SMEs do not understand the importance of entrepreneurship values (Octavia & Ali, 2017; Rahyuda et al., 2017). Indonesian SMEs need knowledge of entrepreneurship values, such as innovation, creativity, and risk-taking, to improve their business performance (Abdilahi & Hassan, 2017; Heslina et al., 2016; Wambugu et al., 2015).

Low entrepreneurship orientation among SMEs is caused by the decline of their market orientation and technology orientation (Hidayat et al., 2016; Hussain et al., 2016). It is not surprising to see SMEs are always faced with difficulty when competing with larger business units because their marketing still focuses on the domestic market and low-income consumers (Anton et al., 2015; Octavia & Ali, 2017). The quality of SMEs' products is not competitive because the quality of raw materials, machines, and technologies are still poor, and the consequences of this are that they are in a less favorable position. Consumer trust declines and product distribution becomes stagnant (Hadiyati, 2015; Omar & Anas, 2014). All these factors force SMEs to have low market orientation, which then leads them into difficulties in market penetration and in having a larger consumer share.

Besides low market orientation, Indonesian SMEs are less competent in technology capability and business management (Anton et al., 2015; Astutie & Fanani, 2016; Hadiyati, 2015). It is not peculiar to see SMEs refraining from adopting new technology because the adoption itself is always problematic to them (Munizu et al., 2016). As a consequence, it is hard for SMEs to manage their resources optimally, and this, in turn, results in a bad impact; it leads to low productivity and disrupted product innovation (Ling, 2017; Pustovrh et al., 2017).

Apart from both market orientation and technology orientation, which indeed are undesirably low, the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs is also affected by education (Nwachukwu et al., 2017; Pett & Wolff, 2016). The education system plays a vital role in developing entrepreneurship orientation because education helps individuals to develop their capabilities on innovation, creativity, and in measuring difficulties (Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010). Besides, education has had a significant moderation effect on entrepreneurs because it enables them to develop capabilities in conducting market analysis or in using technology. This would increase their intellectual capability. Education has a moderation effect on the attitudes of entrepreneurs (Bae et al., 2014; Entrialgo & Iglesias, 2016; Souitaris et al., 2007) because currently, educational institutions are required to improve the entrepreneurship orientation of their educated participants by teaching them on technology, financial science, and communication skills because all of these are considered important for success in business (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015; Nabi et al., 2015; Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015).

Patricia and Silangen (2016) suggested that education indirectly affected someone's desire to start a business, especially if the knowledge that was needed was related to the field of entrepreneurship (Buana et al., 2017; Ertuna & Gurel, 2011; Nabi et al., 2017). Through policies issued by the government in the form of the improvement of technological infrastructure and the provisioning of various types of facilities that support entrepreneurship, the education level, therefore, is meant to enable SMEs to increase their productivity (Chienwattanasook & Jermsittiparsert, 2019; Entrialgo & Iglesias, 2016; Shah et al., 2020).

Reports from the field indicate that Indonesian workers in SMEs have low education levels. Indonesian SMEs tend to be labor-intensive, and therefore, young and lowly educated workers are preferred for employment (Anton et al., 2015). Berrill et al. (2018) indicated that education did not have a moderation effect on entrepreneurship orientation because someone who was highly educated prefered to work in companies with high salaries rather than being entrepreneurs. In the era of globalization, the presence of multinational companies in developing countries has attracted a significant portion of the workforce through a variety of offerings. This indicates that the moderation effect of education will negatively impact the entrepreneurship orientation of the community (Bae et al., 2014; Danakol et al., 2017; Kunday & Çakir, 2014).

By taking into consideration the aforesaid discussion, the author makes the early deduction that some factors have been affecting the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in Indonesia, and that the factors observed in this research are market orientation, technology orientation, and education. Therefore, the objective of this research was to uncover the effect of market orientation and technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in Indonesia with education as a moderator variable.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Market Orientation

Market orientation is a process to anticipate and learn what customer demands will be at present and in the future. This process is done by disseminating market intelligence to the internal parts of the organization and also by being responsive to market intelligence received from others (Dursun & Kilic, 2017). Small-and-Medium Enterprises with market orientation are those that can understand customer demands, and this understanding shall help them to offer solutions concerning how to satisfy customer demands in better ways than their competitors (Oluwatoyin et al., 2018). Market-oriented Small-and-Medium Enterprises will emphasize their abilities in producing excellent consumer value, in changing consumer satisfaction into consumer loyalty, in anticipating competitors' moves, and also in considering marketing as an investment (Dursun & Kilic, 2017).

Market orientation is a fundamental aspect of marketing that can contribute to SMEs' business performance (Al Asheq & Hossain, 2019). Market orientation involves such activities as disseminating market intelligence to the internal parts of the organization, being responsive to market intelligence of competitors, and learning about the market (Hinson et al., 2017). Therefore, market-oriented SMEs are those with greater capability to fulfill consumer demands. Such enterprises have a greater opportunity to see their performance increased.

Technology Orientation

Technology orientation is defined as a predisposition of firms/enterprises to introduce or use their new technology, new product, or innovation based on customer value. Therefore, the long-term success of an organization shall depend on innovation and problem-solution that involve new technology (Obeidat, 2016). Technology orientation comprises many activities, such as being proactive in developing new ideas and technology that concern new products, making integration with new technology, and using technology effectively in developing new products (Acar & Özşahin, 2017).

Small-and-Medium Enterprises with technology orientation are those that have excellent technology and also have the capability to produce more innovative products (Acar & Özşahin, 2017). Technology oriented SMEs have more leverage than their competitors. They have a stronger network with other providers of technology, better knowledge about technology, and the ability to design new products with current technology (Tarighi et al., 2017). Technology excellence will determine whether products are acceptable or not in the market because consumers may only seek products with good quality, and if the market considers the products acceptable, then Small-and-Medium Enterprises will find their performances increased.

Education

It is necessary for Small-and-Medium Enterprises to improve human resource quality through knowledge. Indeed, knowledge is a cognitive capacity to recognize, understand, realize, and solve problems, and one way to obtain this knowledge is through education (Sembiring, 2016). Education is closely related to organizational learning in SMEs. Organizational learning is a set of organizational behavior that affects the ways the organization in using knowledge to learn about the business environment and to respond to environmental demand. It is already said by Buana et al. (2017) that education had a significant role in developing someone's ability to become an entrepreneur, because, basically, many universities prepared students directly into becoming entrepreneurs. Undergraduates develop innovative capacity and creativity while undergoing their studies (Patricia & Silangen, 2016).

Education level affects entrepreneurs' skills in analyzing business opportunities and managing resources. Even, individuals with high education consider becoming entrepreneurs as it seems to be a more attractive choice compared to working as an employee (Berrill et al., 2018; Bosma &

Schutjens, 2011). Peterman and Kennedy (2003) stated that although education was proven to have a significant role in entrepreneurship orientation, in-depth research was still needed concerning the moderation effect of education on entrepreneurship orientation.

Entrepreneurship Orientation

Entrepreneurship orientation is a strategic orientation to utilize entrepreneurship values that help the firm/enterprise in standing above competitors and to take benefits from exploiting new opportunities and innovation in an uncertain environment (Obeidat, 2016). Entrepreneurship orientation is defined as an attitude to pursue new opportunities through a combination of internal resources supported by a variety of strategies, which among others is showing innovative, proactive, and risk-taking postures (Charupongsopon & Puriwat, 2017).

Small-and-Medium Enterprises with entrepreneurship orientation are those with the courage to show themselves as business units with the capability to attain excellent performance through innovation, proactivity, and risk-taking, and with support from top management (Obeidat, 2016). Entrepreneurship-oriented SMEs that adhere to this are those with better performance (Haliq et al., 2018).

Market Orientation, Education, and Entrepreneurship Orientation

Market orientation can be regarded as a predisposition of SMEs to implement

marketing concepts in order to find new consumers and maintain the existing consumers (Amfo et al., 2018; Na et al., 2019). To own market orientation, Small-and-Medium Enterprises need to understand market demands and implement business strategies to operate their business (Ismail & Alam, 2019). Besides, Small-and-Medium Enterprises must put attention to entrepreneurship values such as business innovation, risk-taking, and competing ability (Khaleel et al., 2017; Oni et al., 2019).

Entrepreneurship values are needed by SMEs to help them in targeting the market and if a certain market is successfully targeted, the SME becomes more marketoriented (Mugambi & Karugu, 2017). Small-and-Medium Enterprises with entrepreneurship orientation tend to respond to consumer demands better than those without entrepreneurship orientation (Amin et al., 2016). Entrepreneurship capability depends on knowledge, and education is one factor supporting the attainment of entrepreneurship orientation (Mutlutürk, 2018)

Given all statements above, the two following hypotheses are formulated:

 H_1 : There is a positive and significant effect of market orientation on the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java.

 H_2 : Education moderates the effect of market orientation on entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java.

Technology Orientation, Education, and Entrepreneurship Orientation

Small-and-Medium Enterprises need to use innovation to provide new products (Ismanu & Kusmintarti, 2019). Product innovation is only possible if SMEs use up-to-date technology (Aksoy, 2017; Diaw & Asare, 2018; Ungerman et al., 2018). Small-and-Medium Enterprises that have up-to-date technology and apply this technology to respond to consumer demands are those that have technology orientation (Ali et al., 2016; Lo et al., 2016).

Technology orientation helps to internalize entrepreneurship values, such as innovation and business strategy, into Small-and-Medium Enterprises (Ibrahim et al., 2017). In applying new technology and improving entrepreneurship orientation, Small-and-Medium Enterprises must have innovation capability and technological friendly procedure, and both factors can improve the SME's productivity (Asim & Sorooshian, 2019; Tseng et al, 2019). Knowledge about new technology and skill to use it are two factors needed to attain entrepreneurship orientation (Madu, 2016).

Taking into account all explanations in this section, the following hypotheses are developed:

 H_3 : There is a positive and significant effect of technology orientation on the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java.

 H_4 : Education moderates the effect of technology orientation on the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java.

Population and Sample

The research was done on the managers of Small-and-Medium Enterprises in East Java. The total number of SMEs observed in this research was 757,090, and all were obtained from the list of SMEs at the East Java Cooperative Office. Inclusion criteria used to sort SMEs were: annual turnover of 2 billion rupiahs, assets of 500 million rupiahs, and minimum age of 10 years. Based on these criteria, the research population was targeted at 288 managers. The sampling technique was purposive sampling. The sample consisted of 168 SME managers, and this was obtained after applying this technique to the population. The sample size was determined by the Taro Yamane Formula (Yamane, 1967):

$$n = \frac{N}{Nd^2 + 1} = \frac{288}{288 \times 0.05^2 + 1} = 167.44 = 168$$

In this research, there were 288 questionnaires distributed. The number of questionnaires returned was 195. The number of the questionnaire completed was 168, while that was not completed by respondents was 27. Therefore, the response rate was 86.15%.

Variable and Measurement Instrument

Variables to be analyzed are latent variables, also known as a construct or unobserved variables, and indicator variables such as *observed variables* of each latent variable. The latent variable consists of exogenous and endogenous latent variables. The exogenous latent variables in this research are (1) *Market Orientation* (MO); (2) *Technology Orientation* (TO); and (3) *Education* (E), while the endogenous latent variable is *Entrepreneurship Orientation* (EO). Data of all four variables were collected through questionnaires. The details are given as follows:

- Entrepreneurship Orientation (EO) is explained by: (a) new product innovation and strategy to use it (EO1); (b) proactivity in business (EO2); and (c) risk-taking (EO3).
- Technology Orientation (TO) is indicated by technology novelty (TO1).
- 3. Education (E) is represented by education level (E1).
- Market Orientation (MO) is explained by (a) activity to collect market intelligence from customers (MO1); (b) activity to draw market intelligence from competitors (MO2); (c) activity to disseminate market intelligence to internal elements (MO3); (d) activity to follow market development (MO4); (e) responsiveness to customer

complaints (MO5); and (f) responsiveness to what competitors do (MO6).

The research was designed to use the quantitative approach. Structural Equation Modelling Partial Least Squares (SEM PLS) was utilized to understand the causal relationship of research variables. The approach of SEM PLS run the empirical simulation by multiplying the score of each indicator in the observed variables, and also by constructing the possible interaction involving exogenous variables and moderator variables. SEM PLS can directly measure the reflection of the constructed relationship between exogenous variables and moderator variables (Becker et al., 2018; Shah et al., 2020). The hypothesis model is displayed in Figure 1.

Data analysis and hypothesis testing were conducted with *Structural Equation Modelling Partial Least Squares* (SEM PLS), and the operation was supported by SmartPLS version 3.2.7. The relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent variables was also tested with SEM PLS.

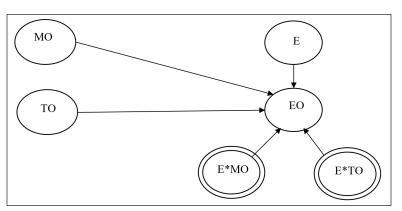


Figure 1. Hypothesis model

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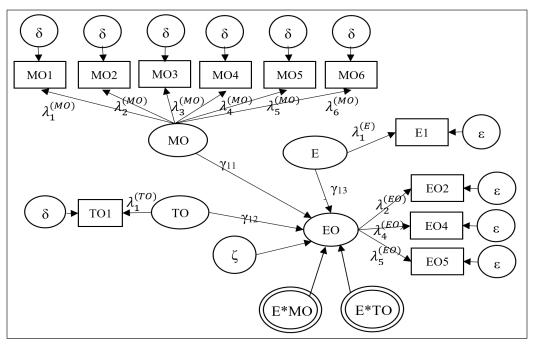


Figure 2. Research model

The research model is made of four latent variables, and each of them has its own explanatory indicators. Figure 2 displays this research model.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Goodness-of-Fit Test on Outer Model

The goodness-of-fit test was conducted on the outer model by carrying out a test against convergent validity (based on factor loading rate and AVE rate), discriminant validity (based on cross loading rate), and reliability (based on composite reliability rate). Table 1 describes the factor loading rate of each indicator of latent variables.

The AVE rate of each latent variable is presented in Table 2.

Based on items shown in Table 1 and 2, all factor loading rates are higher than

0.7, while all AVE rates are more than 0.5. Referring to the principle stated by Hair et al. (2014), therefore, the outer model is fulfilling the condition of convergent validity.

Table 3 shows cross loading rate of each indicator on latent variables.

As it is revealed in Table 3, at least, in every relationship of indicator and latent variables, each indicator has the highest cross loading rate compared to the cross-loading rate of each latent variable. Based on the principle stated by Hair et al. (2014), it can be said that the outer model has successfully fulfilled the condition of discriminant validity. The description of the composite reliability rate is shown in Table 4.

As displayed in Table 4, the composite reliability rate is more than 0.7. Therefore,

Moderation Effect of Education to the Effect of Market Orientation

Table 1	
Factor loading	rate

Indicator	Factor Loading	Factor Loading Rate of Indicator of Latent Variable					
Indicator -	МО	ТО	Е	EO	Validity		
MO1	0.756				Valid		
MO2	0.776				Valid		
MO3	0.864				Valid		
MO4	0.953				Valid		
MO5	0.850				Valid		
MO6	0.859				Valid		
TO1		1.000			Valid		
E1			1.000		Valid		
EO2				0.831	Valid		
EO4				0.708	Valid		
EO5				0.760	Valid		

Table 2

AVE rate

Latent Variable	AVE	Convergent Validity
МО	0.715	Valid
ТО	1.000	Valid
Е	1.000	Valid
EO	0.590	Valid

Table 3 Cross loading rate

Indicator	Cross Lo	0	f Indicator of able	The Highest Cross	Discriminant	
_	МО	ТО	Е	EO	— Loading Rate	Validity
MO1	0.756	0.631	0.485	0.594	MO1 → MO	Valid
MO2	0.776	0.674	0.517	0.696	MO2 → MO	Valid
MO3	0.864	0.698	0.583	0.748	MO3 → MO	Valid
MO4	0.953	0.808	0.681	0.803	MO4 → MO	Valid
MO5	0.850	0.687	0.587	0.735	MO5 → MO	Valid
MO6	0.859	0.705	0.576	0.689	MO6 → MO	Valid
TO1	0.831	1.000	0.694	0.680	TO1 → TO	Valid
E1	0.680	0.694	1.000	0.645	E1 → E	Valid
EO2	0.681	0.596	0.480	0.831	EO2 → EO	Valid
EO4	0.547	0.563	0.471	0.708	EO4 → EO	Valid
EO5	0.705	0.606	0.533	0.760	$EO5 \rightarrow EO$	Valid

Note: Result of Analysis with SmartPLS at a significance level of 5%

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Latent Variable	Composite Reliability	Reliability
МО	0.937	Reliable
ТО	1.000	Reliable
E	1.000	Reliable
EO	0.811	Reliable

Table 4Composite reliability rate

the model is considered reliable. Based on items presented in Tables 1-4, and referring to the principle of Hair et al. (2014), therefore, it can be said that the outer model is considered fit.

Goodness-of-Fit Test on Inner Model

The goodness-of-fit test on the inner model is done by evaluating the R^2 value. Table 5 describes the R^2 value of the inner model.

Table 5 R^2 value

Endogenous Latent Variable	\mathbb{R}^2	Decision
EO	0.732	<i>Inner Model</i> is Good

Pursuant to Table 5, the value of R^2 is more than 0.25. In accordance with the principle stated by Hair et al. (2014), therefore, the inner model is considered fit. The summary of the goodness-of-fit test result is shown in Table 6.

As indicated in Table 6, the criteria of goodness-of-fit are fulfilled, and therefore, there is goodness-of-fit for the outer model (Hair et al., 2014) and goodness-of-fit for the inner model as well (Hair et al., 2014). Given this result, the research model is then perceived as fit and thus, can be used in the hypothesis test.

For direct effect hypotheses, the author conducted the hypothesis test by processing values derived from the bootstrapping

Table 6Summary of the goodness-of-fit test result

Goodness-of-Fit		Parameter	Rule of Thumb	Decision	
Outer Convergent Model Validity		Factor Loading	Factor loading of all indicators must be > 0.7	Convergent Validity Fulfilled	
		AVE	AVE of all indicators must be > 0.5	-	
	Discriminant Validity	Cross Loading	The factor loading of all indicators in one latent variable must be greater than those in other latent variables.	Discriminant Validity Fulfilled	
	Reliability	Composite Reliability	Composite Reliability must be > 0.7	Reliable	
Inner Model	R ² Evaluation	R ² Value	R ² > 0.25	Model considered as fit	

formula. The processing was done with Smart PLS 3.2.7. Alternative Hypothesis (Ha) is accepted only if t_{count} is ≥ 1.96 (Hair et al., 2014). The t-statistic (t_{count}) values of the direct effect test are summarized in Table 7.

The hypothesis test on the direct effect relationship (Table 7) had given two results: (1) MO had a direct and significant effect on EO; and (2) TO had a direct and significant effect on EO. Baron and Kenny's Norm (Hair et al., 2014) required that the moderation effect could only be tested if the direct effect was proven to be significant. Related to the results in Table 7, where all direct effect relationships are significant, the moderation test is allowed to be conducted on the moderation relationships, such as: (1) moderation effect of E to the effect of MO on EO; and (2) moderation effect of E to the effect of TO on EO. For these moderations (indirect effect) hypotheses, the testing process remained similar to that of the direct effect test. The similarity is in the use of Smart PLS 3.2.7 to process the values obtained from bootstrapping formulation. The summary of t-statistic (t_{count}) values from the moderation effect test is displayed in Table 8.

The summary of the factor loading, path coefficient, and t-statistic (t_{count}) values shown in the hypothesis model is indicated in Figure 3.

Each result of the hypothesis test, as indicated in Figure 3, will be explained in separate sections.

No	Direct Effect	Нуро Н ₀	othesis H _a	Path Coeff.	t _{count}	Decision	Remark
1.	MO on EO (MO→EO)	$\begin{array}{l} H_{0(1)}:\\ \gamma_{11}=0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} H_{a(1)} : \gamma_{11} \\ \neq 0 \end{array}$	0.596	5.942	H_0 is rejected; H_a is accepted.	The effect is positive and significant.
2.	TO on EO (TO→EO)	$H_{0(3)}$: $\gamma_{12} = 0$	$\begin{array}{l} H_{a(3)} : \gamma_{12} \\ \neq 0 \end{array}$	0.191	2.162	H_0 is rejected; H_a is accepted.	The effect is positive and significant.

Table 7Summary of t_{count} values from direct effect test

Table 8Summary of t_{count} values from moderation effect test

No	Moderation	Нуро	othesis	Path	+	Decision	Remark
INO	(Indirect) Effect	H_0	Ha	Coeff.	t _{count}	Decision	Kelliark
1.	MO on EO moderated by E (MO*E→EO)	$\begin{array}{l} H_{0(2)} \\ \gamma_{11} = 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} H_{a(2)} : \gamma_{11} \\ \neq 0 \end{array}$	-0.092	0.691	H_0 is rejected, H_a is accepted.	The effect is negative, but not significant.
2.	TO on EO moderated by E (TO*E→EO)	$\begin{array}{l} H_{0(4)} : \gamma_{12} \\ = 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} H_{a(4)} \colon \gamma_{12} \\ \neq 0 \end{array}$	0.047	0.454	H_0 is rejected, H_a is accepted.	The effect is not negative, and also not significant

Source: Result of analysis with SmartPLS at a significance level of 5%

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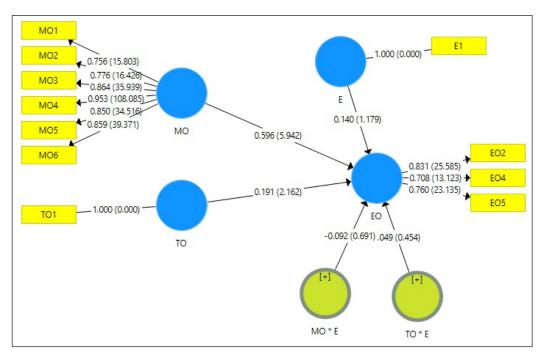


Figure 3. Summary of hypothesis model calculation results

Source: Result of analysis with SmartPLS at a significance level of 5%

Effect of Market Orientation on Entrepreneurship Orientation

Market orientation of Small-and-Medium Enterprises in East Java has a positive and significant effect on entrepreneurship orientation. In other words, market orientation significantly increases entrepreneurship orientation.

Whether Small-and-Medium Enterprises are still active in the market depends on how they grow and compete with others in fulfilling market demand (Frishammar & Hörte, 2007). Small-and-Medium Enterprises may survive in the business competition if they have the capability to translate properly their market demand and strategic orientation (Acosta et al., 2018). Small-and-Medium Enterprises with market orientation should have better performance because they respect and apply entrepreneurship values such as innovation, risk-taking, and being aggressive in competing for market shares (Jangl, 2015). Indeed, Small-and-Medium Enterprises with entrepreneurship orientation do always need market orientation to effectively drive their innovative action on target markets (Amin et al., 2016). Pursuant to these statements, it can be said that Small-and-Medium Enterprises' entrepreneurship orientation increases after they apply market orientation.

Effect of Technology Orientation on Entrepreneurship Orientation

The technology orientation of Smalland-Medium Enterprises in East Java has a positive and significant effect on entrepreneurship orientation. As the results showed, technology orientation increased entrepreneurship orientation.

Technology orientation is a key factor for the success of Small-and-Medium Enterprises (Zhai et al., 2018). The job environment has been affected by the fast growth of technology, and therefore, both values and effects of technology become apparent during the presentation of new products (Ali et al., 2016). The use of new technology needs to be supported by entrepreneurship values, such as innovation and that of being proactive in applying business strategy (Zhai et al., 2018). In other words, the SMEs' entrepreneurship orientation can be increased by improving technology orientation.

Moderation Effect of Education in the Relationship of Market Orientation on Entrepreneurship Orientation

Education acts as a moderator variable in the relationship of market orientation on entrepreneurship orientation. Education reduces the effect size of this relationship, but the level of this reduction is not significant statistically. There are two immediate causes for this situation. First is the low level of market orientation among Smalland-Medium Enterprises in East Java. Second is the low level of education among SMEs' workers which has prevented them from applying entrepreneurship values. Indeed, the further consequence of both low situations is the less optimality of entrepreneurship orientation.

Small-and-Medium Enterprises with entrepreneurship orientation are usually good at responding to market demands. Their market orientation tends to be responsive and proactive. The marketing strategy of SMEs, thus, always involves the exercise of market orientation supported by entrepreneurship values (Amin et al., 2016). If SMEs do have a good strategy and it is successfully executed, then it should improve performance (Acosta et al., 2018), especially when they innovate to empower market orientation.

The capability of being innovative and exercising other aspects of entrepreneurship is determined by knowledge, and regarding this matter, education can be an impelling factor that enforces entrepreneurship orientation. Education is a factor that determines the success of Small-and-Medium Enterprises (Nawawi et al., 2017). The strength of market orientation depends on the capacity of SMEs to understand market situations, and the effective use of knowledge may help them to sell their newly created innovative products (John et al., 2016). Within the context of East Java, the education level of the majority of SME workers is not very high, and most of them only graduated from high schools. Organizational learning at SMEs in East Java is only apparent among managers and secretaries (Al Idrus et al., 2018). This limited learning scope results in less optimality on the application of market orientation and entrepreneurship values because almost none of the lower-level workers has enough knowledge about entrepreneurship, and this surely will affect the SMEs' road to success.

Moderation Effect of Education in the Relationship of Technology Orientation on Entrepreneurship Orientation

Education is a moderator variable in the relationship of technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation. In this situation, education increases the relationship of technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation, and its moderation effect is not significant statistically. The reason is that the technology currently used by Smalland-Medium Enterprises in East Java is less up-to-date. As a result, the workers of these SMEs always find it difficult to apply entrepreneurship values such as innovation and lack of enthusiasm to learn new things. The majority of SME workers have low education levels and therefore, they will have difficulty in benefiting from the use of new technology.

To develop new products, Small-and-Medium Enterprises always need sustainable capabilities and should work to improve on innovation and also to adjust its production lines to provide room for the adoption of recent technology (Kamal et al., 2016). Small-and-Medium Enterprises must predict the growth of technology and keep track of it in order to make technology usable in their products and production process. This predicting capacity and the skill of using current technology should help SMEs to improve their business performance (Ali et al., 2016). In other words, a high level of technology orientation can affect the entrepreneurship orientation of Smalland-Medium Enterprises. However, they must still embrace education to develop

individuals with skills and capabilities relevant to the use of current technology. Human resource is one of the determining factors for the success of SMEs, especially when workers are capable of using current technology. Workers with high education find it easier to adapt to new technology (Carruth & Carruth, 2013), and this knowledge of technology helps them to be more innovative.

CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that the market orientation of Small-and-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in East Java can significantly increase their entrepreneurship orientation. Market orientation and entrepreneurship orientation are strategies that enable SMEs to increase their business growth (Miles & Arnold, 1991). If the business carried out by SMEs is not oriented to market tastes, there would be a mismatch between demand and supply in the market. The compatibility between SMEs and the market can be realized by ensuring that the capital structure and the marketing system of SMEs are running well. But, it must be noted that it always becomes a problem if there is no solid base that can be used by SMEs to satisfy market desires. The education level can reduce the effect of market orientation on entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java, but the reduction is not statistically significant as revealed in this study. In the era of globalization, entrepreneurship orientation does not only rely on the level of education but also involves experience, emotional intelligence, organization, and analysis of

consumer behavior, because all of these are considered as a necessity, especially when it involves competition (Yaghoubi & Naroei, 2011). Also, education levels can increase the effect of technology orientation on the entrepreneurship orientation of SMEs in East Java. However, in this study, the increase is not statistically significant. The effect of technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation is not actually intended to facilitate operations but to help entrepreneurs in deciding production outputs. The use of technology must still involve innovation in marketing in order to improve performance. Despite the importance of this innovation, however, education cannot guarantee the implementation of innovation because educational institutions in current days are often designing curricula that are oriented more to office jobs rather than to entrepreneurship (Bae et al., 2014; Kunday & Çakir, 2014; Saqib et al., 2018).

This research provides input and considerations concerning the moderation effect of education on the effect of market orientation and technology orientation on entrepreneurship orientation among Small-and-Medium Enterprises. The suggestion is that market orientation should be increased by intensifying the variation of the market's supply and demand and by enhancing marketing targets. Technology orientation must be improved by upgrading the technology currently used by Smalland-Medium Enterprises. This upgrading process can be achieved by giving employees training on recent technology. The education level of human resources at

Small-and-Medium Enterprises can also be improved by hiring candidates who have adequate educational backgrounds and then providing them with on-the-job training to increase their knowledge about the expected performance, the latest technology, and the importance of market orientation.

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Knowledge, Attitude, and Practices on E-Waste Recycling among Public in Port Dickson

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ABSTRACT

Electrical and electronic waste (E-waste) is defined as electrical and electronic appliances that are broken or unwanted by the present owner and are due to be thrown away. The rise in volume at a global scale is driven by several factors, such as economic development, increasing populations, and the shorter lifespan of electrical appliances. This global environmental issue could affect both the environment and human health. As agreed by many researchers, E-waste recycling is one of the options that will help in dealing with this rising issue. However, are Malaysian citizens ready to participate in the recycling of E-waste? This is the question that motivated this research. This study was conducted among 271 respondents in Port Dickson to determine the knowledge, attitude, and practices (KAP) on E-waste recycling among the public. It is also intended to investigate the demographic factors influencing the issue. The findings show that educational background is the main factor that affects the KAP on E-waste recycling. Mass media, such as television, radio, and the internet, are the most likely sources of information on E-waste recycling for the respondents. The findings of this research are significant in providing insights for the government, NGOs, and other stakeholders in managing E-waste, and helping minimize this issue in the study area.

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INTRODUCTION

Electrical and electronic waste (E-waste) is defined as electric and electrical goods that have already been used and are due to be thrown away (Tiep et al., 2015). E-waste releases heavy metals, flame retardant

ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 materials, chemicals (Hendricks, 2012 in Shumon et al., 2014), and toxic pollutants into the environment and may have a direct impact on living things throughout the food chain. Among the toxic chemicals contained in E-waste are lead, mercury, cadmium, barium, beryllium, arsenic, chromium, and selenium, which have the potential to pose danger to human health and the environment. As such, in Malaysia, E-waste is categorised as scheduled waste and is monitored under the Department of Environment (DOE).

Proper methods to dispose of E-waste are highly challenging. Indiscriminate dumping of E-waste, or dumping of E-waste together with general household waste in landfill, may lead to groundwater contamination, while incineration of E-waste will emit toxic gases into the atmosphere (Kiddee et al., 2013). The volume of E-waste generated has risen globally due to a combination of several factors, such as rapid economic and population growth of one country and the decreasing lifespan of electronic goods (Kalana, 2010; Kiddee et al., 2013). As reported by the Department of Environment (DOE), the amount of E-waste generated in Malaysia in 2009 was 134,035.70 metric tons and was expected to increase up to 1.1 million metric tons in 2020 (DOE, 2009 in Shumon et al., 2014). It is projected that mobile phones and rechargeable batteries are the largest contributors to E-waste generation in the future (Tiep et al., 2015).

Management of household E-waste in Malaysia is not well established, and much of it ends up in an inappropriate landfill (Shumon et al., 2014). E-waste recycling is one of the options available to manage this issue properly. E-waste recycling can be defined as the reprocessing and reuse of electrical and electronic equipment which will help to protect the environment and human health from E-waste pollution (Conserve Energy Future, 2018). Recycling of E-waste enables the raw materials from E-waste to be recovered, hence this will lead to a decline in the amount of mining activity. Technologies for recycling E-waste will change the E-waste into a secondary resource and make it possible to extract the raw materials (Rhee, 2016). E-waste consists of different engineering materials that can be reused via evolving and available technology (Shumon et al., 2014) for example, iron, copper, and aluminium (Kiddee et al., 2013). Recycling also plays an important role in conserving energy. For example, recycling one million laptops can save energy equal to the electricity used by 3657 US houses in a year (Jaiswal et al., 2015).

In Malaysia, E-waste is controlled under Environmental Quality (Scheduled Wastes) Regulations 2005, First Schedule (Regulations 2) under code SW 110, as waste from electrical and electronic assemblies containing components such as accumulators, mercury-switches, glass from cathode-ray tubes, and other activated glass or polychlorinated biphenyl-capacitors, or contaminated with cadmium, mercury, lead, nickel, chromium, copper, lithium, silver, manganese or polychlorinated biphenyl. This regulation clearly states that E-waste can be recycled and recovered only at the designated premises (Chow, 2017; Kalana, 2010; Suja et al., 2014). Besides legislation, DOE has also initiated a number of fixed recycling centres (FRC) and mobile recycling centres (MRC) in Pulau Pinang, Johor, Melaka, Negeri Sembilan, Kuala Lumpur, Selangor, and Putrajaya for the public to dispose of their E-waste (DOE, 2018). In Negeri Sembilan, there are two E-waste collection centres, which are located at Jusco Seremban 2 and Taman Arowana Impian, Seremban. E-waste collection is being supervised and handled by SWM Environment Sdn. Bhd. (DOE, 2018).

Even though legislation and facilities are widely known as important components in managing the E-waste, public participation also plays a prominent role in this issue. Knowledge, attitude, and practices (KAP) can be used in assessing public participation in E-waste recycling. Public participation has a vital role in the implementation of legislation and in improving environmental quality (Afroz et al., 2013). Knowledge may not affect public attitudes and practices, but, psychological factors can (Desa, et al., 2011). Population growth, economic growth, rapid development of technologies, and rapid urbanisation are the drivers for the increase in the amount of E-waste (Afroz et al., 2013; Akhtar et al., 2014; Borthakur & Govind, 2017; Kalana, 2010; Shumon et al., 2014; Tiep et al., 2015). This can be observed through the way the public handle and manage their E-waste. As an example, a study by Nokia revealed that E-waste was

not disposed of immediately after it was not needed, but instead, it was kept in the house (Tiep et al., 2015). One of the initiatives to prevent this rising issue in Malaysia is the introduction of the 'Take Back Programme' (TBP), which was initiated by Panasonic, Motorola, Dell, HP, and Nokia. TBP is meant to reduce the amount of E-waste, but the public was not well informed and only restricted to certain areas (Tiep, et al., 2015). Initiatives by the manufacturing companies are considered sustainable alternatives that need to be practised regularly by all electrical and electronic (E&E) companies. Besides, the circular economy (CE) is also known as a sustainable alternative, where the used material resources are circulated into the new product development. CE includes recycling, remanufacturing, reusing, reconditioning, refurbishing, and repairing. All of these will help to achieve maximum efficiencies (Singh & Ordonez, 2016).

Knowledge, attitude, and practices KAP surveys were first used in the 1950s to evaluate the concept of family planning and, how it was being understood and practised by societies around the world (Launiala, 2009 in Ahmad et al., 2015). The three components can be defined as follows; Knowledge can be defined as facts, descriptions, information, and skills about a topic that can be received through education and experience; Attitude can be defined as how a person feels and thinks about something, as it works as a psychological emotion either positive or negative on the practices of an individual (Jekria & Daud, 2016); Practice is action based on knowledge and attitude (Babaei et al., 2015). Based on these three components, knowledge will form attitude; while knowledge and attitude will form practices (Ahmad et al., 2015). It is apparent that knowledge and attitude are the two most important factors in determining practices (Babaei et al., 2015), as a lack of knowledge could affect practices (Mathur et al., 2011; Madhukumar & Ramesh, 2012 in El-Gilany et al., 2017). KAP research is widely used in managing different types of waste. Since waste management is a global issue, it is also widely discussed in different parts of the world. The utilisation of KAP as a research instrument in waste management studies will help in determining which demographic backgrounds influence the process. Furthermore, it will be able to obtain insights into which study instruments influence the other study instruments and how they are related to one another. The effectiveness of KAP research will help to develop a good output; hence, it is able to suggest ways to overcome the issue based on the KAP instruments. Based on KAP research, it can also be concluded that ongoing training and education could help in increasing the level of knowledge, attitude, and practices towards the study topic. Thus, this study seeks to determine the current status of KAP together with the satisfactory level and sources of information regarding E-waste recycling among 271 respondents in Port Dickson.

METHODS

Study Area

To achieve the study objective in determining the KAP of the public regarding E-waste recycling, this study was conducted in Port Dickson, Negeri Sembilan. Waste generation in Malaysia, including E-waste, is a huge environmental problem. Port Dickson is a well-known tourist attraction spot and is always bustling with various activities. It is highly crucial to understand the issues related to E-waste management in this area so that proper and appropriate management and monitoring actions can be taken to ensure proper controls are in place. Misappropriate management of E-waste in tourist attraction spots such as this study area could put the country in jeopardy in terms of the income generated from tourism activities. Furthermore, the output of this study can be used as an example for other tourist spots in Malaysia that share the same characteristics as Port Dickson. Historically, Port Dickson has been known as a tourism area since the colonial era (Abdullah et al., 2017). It is located in Negeri Sembilan, which is about 90 kilometers from Kuala Lumpur. Currently, now Port Dickson is still one of the beach tourism destinations in Malaysia (Praveena et al., 2018). The population of this tourism destination (2.5225° N, 101.7963° E) was recorded at 119,300 in 2017 (State Government of Negeri Sembilan, 2017). The Port Dickson coastline consists of 18 kilometers facing the Straits of Malacca (Abdullah et al., 2017; Praveena et al., 2018), which joins the Indian Ocean to the Pacific Ocean and the South China Sea (Praveena et al., 2018). The coast road, which is about 22 kilometers long, is parallel to the Port Dickson coastline and connects this tourism destination with Malacca and also Seremban district (Abdullah et al., 2017). Port Dickson enjoys a pleasant tropical climate with an average annual temperature between 21 C° and 32 C°, a humidity range of between 80% and 90%, and an annual rainfall of 2381 mm (Praveena et al., 2016 in Praveena et al., 2018). Figure 1 shows the location of Port Dickson, Negeri Sembilan.

Port Dickson is administratively under the supervision and jurisdiction of Majlis Perbandaran Port Dickson. Rancangan Tempatan Port Dickson, which focuses on developing Port Dickson as a sustainable tourism area (McKercher, 2003 in Abdullah et al., 2017), has divided Port Dickson into three main corridors. The tourism corridor (Zone 1), consists of Port Dickson town to Tg. Agas, the industrial corridor (Zone 2) is located along the highway of Seremban-Port Dickson, and agricultural activity (Zone 3) is located in the rural area of Port Dickson (Abdullah et al., 2017).

Participants

As reported by the State Government of Negeri Sembilan, the population of Port Dickson in 2017 was 119,300 and covered a range of demographics backgrounds. In any research, there are several strategies and options for determining the sample size, for example, using published tables, using a census for small populations, referring to the sample size of similar studies, and applying

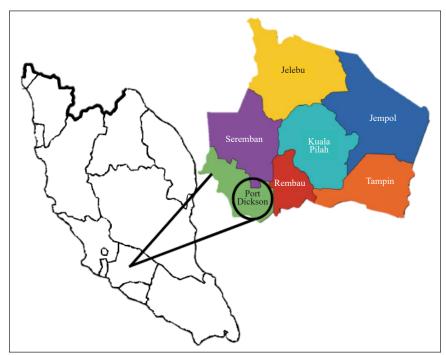


Figure 1. Location of Port Dickson, Negeri Sembilan (Pejabat Daerah dan Tanah Rembau, 2019)

formulae to calculate sample size (Israel, 1992). Based on the population size of Port Dickson, the minimum sample size of N=100 was required considering the confidence level of 95% and margin sampling error of 10% based on the table published in Israel (1992). Finally, a stratified random sample (N=271) was drawn from the public around Port Dickson who participated in this study. Respondents had to fit three criteria; held Malaysian citizenship, be aged 18 years and above and be a resident of Port Dickson. The age criterion is similar to that of several previous studies related to E-waste. Besides that, individuals aged 18 years and above usually already have their own income and hence are able to buy any electrical and electronic appliances on their own (Akhtar et al., 2014; Kalana, 2010; Sivathanu, 2016).

Of those respondents (N=271), 53.5% were female and 46.5% were male. The biggest proportion (28.4%) of the sample were the respondents aged 24 years old and below, while the married group (62.7%) were the predominant marital status. Regarding the education level of the sample, 53.9% of the respondents had a background of high school education and most of the respondents were at the time working in the private sector (30.3%). For the number in households, the highest proportion of the respondents (66.8%) were those who had between one and five persons in their house. About 78.2% of respondents, had a terrace house as their type of residence, which was the highest percentage among all the listed types of residence. In addition, the 38% of the respondents survived with no

monthly income. Table 1 shows the general demographic data of the respondents in Port Dickson.

Instrument

The instrument used in this research was the questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was developed after reviewing the scientific literature on this subject. The structure of the questionnaire was designed by the researchers based on previous research and the items were adopted from previous questionnaire items related to waste and E-waste management. Table 2 shows the items adopted from previous research.

The questionnaires were divided into five parts as follows; part A (8 items) collects demographic data, part B (14 items) collects data about knowledge, part C (7 items) collects data about attitude, part D (4 major items and 7 sub-items) collects data about practices and part E collects data about the sources of information regarding E-waste recycling and includes a comment section regarding the E-waste management in the respondent's housing area. The KAP of E-waste recycling was measured using a nominal scale (Yes or No).

Research Design and Data Analysis

In this study, a quantitative research methodology was used based on the method of surveys and the application of statistical tests. The collected data were reported in the descriptive analysis and analysed using the chi-square in Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to determine which elements of the demographic background

KAP on E-Waste Recycling in Port Dickson

Demo	graphic background	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Conton	Male	126	46.5
Gender	Female	145	53.5
	< 24 years old	77	28.4
Age	25-34 years old	56	20.7
$Mean \pm SD~4.91 \pm 2.822$	35-44 years old	39	14.4
	45-54 years old	64	23.6
	> 55 years old	34	12.9
	Higher Education	85	31.4
Education background	High School	146	53.9
Education background	Primary School	25	9.2
	No Formal Education	15	5.5
	Single	92	33.9
Marital status	Married	170	62.7
	No information	8	3.0
	1-5 persons	181	66.8
Household numbers	6-10 persons	85	31.4
	>11 persons	5	1.8
	Strata Houses	22	8.1
	Twin house/Bungalow	14	5.2
Type of residents	Terrace	212	78.2
	Village	18	6.6
	Townhouse	5	1.8
	Government Sector	18	6.6
	Private Sector	82	30.3
	Self Employed	49	18.1
Occupation	Housewife	55	20.3
	Student	50	18.5
	Pensioner	17	6.3
	< RM 1500.00	57	21.0
	RM 1501.00 - RM 3000.00	48	17.7
Income	RM 3001.00 - RM 4500.00	36	13.3
	> RM 4501.00	26	9.6
	No income / No stated / Not related	103	38.0

Table 1General demographic of respondents in Port Dickson

Table 2

List of adopted items from the previous study related to waste and E-waste management

Items Sources				
	Demographic background			
Gender	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018), Seng et al. (2018)			
Age	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018), Seng et al. (2018)			
Education background	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018), Seng et al. (2018)			
Marital status	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018)			

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Table 2 (continue)

Items	Sources			
Household size	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018)			
Occupation	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018)			
Income	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018), Seng et al. (2018)			
Residential type	Almasi et al. (2019)			
· _	Knowledge items			
B1				
B2	Song et al. (2012)			
B3	Akhtar et al. (2014), Sivathanu, (2016)			
B4	Akhtar et al. (2014), Sivathanu, (2016)			
В5	Akhtar et al. (2014)			
B6; B7	Ahmad et al. (2015), Chibunna et al. (2013)			
B8	Wang et al. (2011)			
B9; B10	Babaei et al. (2015), Malik et al. (2015)			
B11	Sivathanu, (2016), Stoeva and Alriksson (2017)			
B12; B13; 14	Almasi et al. (2019), Tiep et al. (2015)			
,	Attitude items			
C1	Almasi et al. (2019), Stoeva and Alriksson (2017)			
C2	Almasi et al. (2019)			
C3	Almasi et al. (2019)			
C4	Sivathanu (2016), Stoeva and Alriksson (2017)			
C5	Tiep et al. (2015)			
C6	Almasi et al. (2019)			
C7	Stoeva and Alriksson (2017)			
	Practices			
	Kalana (2010), Malik et al. (2015), Sivathanu (2016), Song et al. (2012),			
D1 (D1A-D1G)	Stoeva and Alriksson (2017), Tiep et al. (2015), Wang et al. (2011)			
D2	Akhtar et al. (2014)			
D3	Tiep et al. (2011)			
D4	Song et al. (2012)			
	Sources of information			
Television	Ahmad et al. (2015), Almasi et al. (2019), Malik et al. (2015)			
Internet	Ahmad et al. (2015), Laor et al. (2018), Malik et al. (2015)			
Radio	Ahmad et al. (2015), Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018)			
N T	Ahmad et al. (2015), Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018), Malik et al.			
Newspaper	(2015)			
Friends	Ahmad et al. (2015)			
Institution (College and	Ahmad et al. (2015)			
University)				
Family	Ahmad et al. (2015)			
Poster	Almasi et al. (2019), Laor et al. (2018)			
Talks (Discussion)	Malik et al. (2015)			
	Satisfactory level			
Satisfactory of public on	Babaei et al. (2015), Seng et al. (2018), Stoeva and Alriksson (2017)			
E-waste management				

were significantly linked to the items in the questionnaire. Among all the elements of demographic backgrounds, the level of education reported the most significant p-value <0.05 with most of the KAP items. Pearson's chi-square (p-values) was used to test the demographic background with the KAP items. The results of the analysis show that 12 out of 14 knowledge items, 5 out of 7 attitude items, and 7 out of 10 practice items were reported as being significantly associated at the 0.05 level with the level of education. This study was conducted from 16th July 2018 and lasted approximately 6 months, which included the preparation, distribution, and collection of the questionnaire and the analysis process.

RESULTS

Knowledge of E-waste Recycling

To determine the knowledge of respondents on E-waste recycling, 14 items from the knowledge section were developed in section B, which resulted in 12 items associated with the level of education. The descriptive statistics based on the percentage of respondents for each item were computed and the results are reported in Table 3.

The data in Table 3, shows that knowledge varies according to the differences in the level of education between respondents. The respondents with a high educational background recorded the highest percentage of responses that agreed with most items asked in Section B, compared to the respondents with a lower educational background (high school, primary school, and no educational background). For the question on the definition of E-waste, 82.4% of respondents with a high educational background agreed that E-waste was defined as electrical and electronic equipment that was due to be disposed of since the equipment was no longer used by the

Table 3

Association between the level of education and knowledge on E-waste recycling

Items		Sig* (X ²)
B1	Definition of E-waste	0.000
B2	The content in electrical and electronic equipment such as toxic and hazardous materials	0.000
B3	The effects of E-waste on the environment	0.001
B4	The effects of E-waste on public health	0.003
B5	E-waste generation in Malaysia continues to rise	0.000
B6		0.000
B7	Advantages of E-waste recycling	0.003
B8	Legislation regarding E-waste	0.000
B9	E wests management	0.000
B10	E-waste management	0.000
B11	Location of the E-waste collection centre	0.216
B12		0.005
B13	Method to dispose of E-waste	0.002
B14		0.358

waste generator. Hence, this electrical and electronic equipment contain toxic and harmful substances (83.6%), which is responsible for the possibility of E-waste posing a risk to the environment (81.2%) and human health (81.2%). Respondents with a high educational background also agreed that E-waste recycling worked as a possible solution to reduce the disastrous impact of E-waste on the environment and human health (88.2%), and would help to reduce the usage of raw materials (82.4%). Furthermore, 83.5% of respondents with high educational background agreed that E-waste could not be disposed of together with domestic waste, and thus, E-waste should be processed at designated premises (87.1%). Respondents with a high educational background also agreed that trade-in services were provided by certain mobile phone and computer manufacturers (69.4%).

Certain items in the questionnaire show a significant difference between the educational backgrounds and knowledge of the increase in E-waste generation and the availability of collection services and facilities. Respondents with a high school education were the group that was reported as having the highest percentage of respondents who agreed that E-waste generation had increased nowadays (70.5%); and that telecommunication companies provided E-waste collection facilities for the public to dispose of their E-waste (41.8%). For item B8 with a significant p-value < .05(.000), 46.9% of the 271 respondents agree with this statement. Out of that 46.9%, 62.4% of respondents with a high level of education knew that E-waste was controlled by a national law under the Environmental Quality Act (Scheduled Wastes) Regulations 2005 First Schedule (Regulations 2) code SW 110, which is administered by the Department of Environment (DOE).

Regarding item B11, 31.7% of the total respondents knew the nearest recycling collection centre for E-waste from their house. Analysis of the data also showed that there was a significant difference between male and female respondents with a significant p-value < .05(.001), regarding their knowledge of the nearest recycling collection centre. Out of that 31.7%, 62.7% (54) of the respondents were male. However, gender is not the most significant factor influencing the KAP on E-waste recycling.

Item B14 reported that 62.4% of the total number of respondents were not aware that rewards would be given if they disposed of their E-waste through the company. There was a notable difference with a significant p-value < .05(.002) between respondents' age and their awareness of the existence of rewards from a distributor or seller of electrical and electronic products if they disposed of their E-waste through the company (57.1%). Respondents aged less than 24 years old tended to have better knowledge regarding this compared to other age levels.

Attitude on E-waste Recycling

Similar to the knowledge (K) section, to determine the attitude of respondents on E-waste recycling, 7 items were developed in section C. In this section, 5 items are associated with the level of education (p-value < .05). This indicates that the attitudes of respondents differ significantly depending on their level of education. Table 4 shows the results of the chi-square analysis between the level of education among respondents and their attitude on E-waste recycling.

Based on Table 4, the group with a higher educational background was reported as having the highest percentage of respondents that had a good attitude compared to respondents with other levels of education. Respondents with a higher educational background were ready to segregate their waste (89.4%), to take part in an E-waste recycling campaign (88%), to recycle E-waste if the incentive was provided (71.8%) and to send off their E-waste to the nearest authorized E-waste collection centre (85.9%). Respondents with a high school educational background were reported as the biggest group of respondents who would ensure that their electronic devices such as mobile phone and laptop are always the most up to date in terms of style and technology (56.8%).

However, this attitude is not a good attitude, as it will increase the amount of E-waste. To reduce the environmental impact, it is strongly suggested that old mobile phones and laptops be traded into the seller when upgrading to new devices. In this attitude section, items C6 and C7 showed no significant links with any of the listed demographic variables.

Practices on E-waste Recycling

Similar to the previous categories (knowledge (K) and attitude (A)), practices (P) on E-waste recycling items are also developed for section D. The results of the descriptive statistics and p-value are given in Table 5. Regarding item D1, the disposal practices of E-waste were all significantly linked to the level of education (p-value < .05) except for item D1E and D1G. The results indicate that respondents with a higher educational background showed the highest percentage. Respondents with a higher educational background reportedly chose the following actions in managing their E-waste; sell (85.9%), tradein (82.4%), send to the nearest authorized E-waste collection centre (67.1%), send

Table 4

Association between the level of education and attitude on E-waste recycling

Items		Sig* (X ²)
C1	Segregation of waste	0.013
C2	Participation in a recycling campaign	0.000
C3	Incentive towards our participation	0.020
C4	Willingness to manage E-waste	0.000
C5	Upgrading the electrical and electronic gadget	0.000
C6	Willingness to reduce the amount of E-waste	0.189
C7	Willingness to manage the E-waste	0.201

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to the scrap collection centre (64.7%)and store their E-waste at home (64.7%). Even though respondents with a higher educational background were reported as the group with the highest percentage in practising the proper disposal of E-waste, not all of the practices were considered an appropriate method of disposing of E-waste. This shows that there is a lot of potential for improvement as far as the method of disposal is concerned. There was a significant difference between the respondents based on their educational background where the p-value < .05(.000) showed that respondents with a higher educational background (88.2%) encouraged their family members to dispose of their E-waste properly. Besides that, the same group of respondents also tended to repair their broken electrical and electronic products (81.2%).

Items D1(E), D1(G), and D4 do not indicate any significance regarding the educational background of the 271 respondents. Items D1(E) and D1(G) do not indicate any significance regarding any element of demographic background, while item D4 indicates a significance regarding the income of the respondents. With the reported p-value < .05(0.029), 53.5% of the 271 respondents agreed that they simply threw away their broken electrical and electronic appliances.

DISCUSSION

A reasonably high proportion (54.6%) of the public in Port Dickson indicated satisfaction with the E-waste management in their area, and (45.4%) were not satisfied. This satisfaction of respondents was significantly linked with the level of education with a p-value < .05(.002) regarding the educational background, respondents with a high school education background were reported as having the highest percentage (63%). This level of satisfaction is important, as it can serve as a reference for the stakeholders to improve the E-waste management on a regular basis.

Respondents in Port Dickson were reported as demonstrating a significant relation between KAP and level of education (p-value < .05). This finding is similar to

Table	5
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Association between the level of education and practices on E-waste recycling

	Items		$\operatorname{Sig}^{*}(X^{2})$
	D1A		0.007
	D1B		0.000
	D1C		0.000
D1	D1D	Ways to dispose of and manage E-waste	0.009
	D1E		0.361
	D1F		0.025
	D1G		0.383
D2	Encouraging	family members to dispose of E-waste properly	0.000
D3	Repairing broken electrical and electronic appliances		0.011
D4	Simply throw	ing out the broken electrical and electronic appliances	0.078

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Laor et al. (2018), stated that the level of education affected the KAP on solid waste management in Northern Thailand. This shows that KAP among respondents varies according to their level of education. There are a few studies conducted in Malaysia related to E-waste. For example, Kalana (2010) found that respondents in Shah Alam had a good level of knowledge regarding E-waste, and respondents in Kuala Lumpur also reported similar results (Afroz et al., 2012; Akhtar et al., 2014). However, in both studies, the researchers had identified that practices on E-waste disposal still needed to be improved. Another study conducted in Selangor by Mahat et al. (2019) found that the respondents had a good level of knowledge and attitude regarding E-waste disposal, but posed a medium level of practise.

As was observed from this research, respondents with a higher education level had a higher percentage of KAP on E-waste recycling compared to groups with other education levels. This shows that education is effective in encouraging the public to be a pro-environmentalist, to have a better understanding of their roles in helping the environment, and to promote and increase awareness of their community regarding environmental issues. As the role of the public is key in supporting sustainable waste management, the development of education and practical E-waste management should begin at the earliest stage such as in primary school (Jekria & Daud, 2016; Jereme et al., 2015; Kalana, 2010; Mahat et al., 2016; Sharifah et al., 2018).

Although respondents with a high educational background have a good level of knowledge on E-waste recycling, the public should be equipped with the facts and information related to E-waste recycling. The information can be provided through mass media, social media, and a wide range of sources to ensure that the public is well informed and will be more aware of this issue. The government, NGOs, and any other accountable bodies are responsible for delivering the information to the public.

As stated earlier, knowledge is the facts, descriptions, information, and skills about a topic that can be received through education and experience (Babaei et al., 2015). Attitude is how a person feels and thinks about something (Babaei et al., 2015) thus, it also works either positively or negatively as a psychological emotion on the practices of an individual (Jekria & Daud, 2016). Knowledge can influence a person's attitude and a good level of knowledge will lead to a good level of attitude. Attitude cannot be changed easily, but by increasing the level of knowledge, attitude can eventually be changed (Desa et al., 2011). This shows that a good synchronization of knowledge and attitude will create a good outcome. Compared to respondents with lower educational background, respondents with a high education level are more willing to segregate their waste, to participate in E-waste campaigns, to recycle their E-waste, and ready to send their E-waste to the registered collection centre.

Since there are several suggested methods for disposing of E-waste, the

practices section underlines a few of these to determine how the respondents in Port Dickson disposed of their E-waste. It was reported that respondents with a high educational background tended to sell or trade-in, sent it to the registered collection centre, or to the scrap materials centre, or to keep at home.

Selling, trading-in, and sending E-waste to the registered collection centre are the acceptable methods of disposing of E-waste. However, sending E-waste to the scrap materials centre and keeping E-waste at home are not appropriate methods for disposing of E-waste. This shows that the high level of knowledge and the positive attitude among the respondents with a high educational background do not necessarily lead to good practises, since the correct practices in handling E-waste are still in need of improvement.

Furthermore, respondents with a high educational background were reported as the respondents most likely to repair their broken electrical and electronic equipment compared to respondents with low educational backgrounds. Even though the practises element involves action based on knowledge and attitude (Babaei et al., 2015), it still depends on psychological and social factors (Desa et al., 2011). Practically, this group of the public might have knowledge regarding repairing the broken equipment, but this practice could be dangerous and harmful. Thus, it should not be practised by the public.

With the significant p-value < .05, respondents that have a high educational background tend to encourage their family members to be responsible for managing their E-waste, by recycling devices properly. This group of respondents reported the highest percentage compared to other educational backgrounds. This shows that respondents with good information and knowledge of the facts tend to share this information and encourage their family. The results of the preferred sources of information are shown in Table 6.

Based on Table 6, the preferred source of information regarding E-waste is the television (56.5%), followed by the internet (49.8%) and radio (38.4%). Even in the era of social media and the digital world,

Table 6	
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Sources of information	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Television	153	56.5
Internet	135	49.8
Radio	104	38.4
Newspaper	99	36.5
Friends	90	33.2
Institution (College and University)	86	31.7
Family	85	31.4
Poster	61	22.5
Talks (Discussion)	42	15.5

Respondents' preferred sources of information regarding <i>E</i>	-waste
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mass media, for example, television is still relevant as a good medium of information provider to the public. However, regarding posters and talks, both require improvement. Stakeholders, such as the government, and NGOs need to produce more posters related to the disposal of E-waste to reduce the amount of paper used, digital or electronic poster that can be easily shared through social media or any formal platform, can be used. For talks, a regular and on-going approach need to be taken by the responsible bodies to share insights regarding E-waste. This can be concluded at schools focusing on students and teachers, for example.

CONCLUSION

In a conclusion, this research which was conducted among the local community in Port Dickson has reported that level of education is a significant indicator in measuring different levels of knowledge, attitude, and practices of the local community regarding E-waste recycling.

As a mean to reduce the amount of E-waste dumped in the landfill, E-waste recycling activities should be promoted and practised among the public. Since the level of education has become the most relevant factor in this research, the high significance of knowledge in raising awareness among the public regarding the importance of E-waste recycling in creating and maintaining environmental well-being and sustainability are observed throughout this study.

In addition, the public should be provided with information on E-waste recycling that demonstrates the advantages of recycling the E-waste, the proper ways of managing the E-waste, the correct steps for segregating the waste, the registered E-waste collection centre, and the correct process to recycle the E-waste. All the accountable bodies such as the government, with assistance from NGOs, need to play an important role in ensuring the accessibility of the public towards sufficient and correct information. The public also should play a role in ensuring the management of E-waste by starting to recycle such waste.

Advertising the impact of E-waste on the environment and human health would be one of the ways to educate the public in practising a sustainable lifestyle for example, by reducing the number of purchases they make and less updating their devices based on the latest trends. It is also important to highlight how to handle the E-waste properly, not by storing it at home but instead sending it to the nearest E-waste collection centre or using E-waste recycling bins.

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Does Gender Difference Matter in Job Satisfaction? A Case of Academicians in Karnataka

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ABSTRACT

Learning organizations are the hubs of knowledge generation and dissemination. Academicians need organizational support to accomplish these time-consuming tasks effectively. The academician, when satisfied with his or her own work, is committed to the organization and demonstrates higher work productivity and work quality. The present study, with a cross-sectional design, was aimed to assess the level of job satisfaction (genderwise) and its determinants, among academicians, in the institutions of higher education in Karnataka. The study used a validated job satisfaction questionnaire developed by the researchers. The overall job satisfaction was satisfactory and did not differ between the male and female academicians. The job satisfaction in the aspects of promotion, supervision, coworkers, facilities, and working hours differed significantly between the male and female academicians. Among the socio-demographic factors; government or government-aided institutions, as well as the age of the academician, predicted job satisfaction. The findings imply the need for improved infrastructure facilities, clarity on the promotion process, fair distribution of workload, and an improved social atmosphere with gender equality and better

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shreemathi.mayya@manipal.edu (Shreemathi S. Mayya) mandrade@kku.edu.sa (Maxie Martis) sureshmayya@pim.ac.in (Sureshramana Mayya P.) * Corresponding author interpersonal relationships. This study of job satisfaction among the academicians of Arts, Science, Commerce, and Management colleges of Karnataka, is novel as there is no prior documented systematic inquiry among academicians of these streams.

Keywords: Academicians, gender, India, institutions of higher education, job satisfaction, Karnataka

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INTRODUCTION

'Job satisfaction' is an overall feeling of liking one's job or the facets of the post (Spector, 1997). The aspects of the position include the pay/salary, reward/ recognition, training and development, job security, role clarity, leadership style, the policies and procedures, supervisor and coworker support, career growth/promotion, organizational culture, and the physical work environment (Tomer & Rathee, 2018). Herzberg classifies these aspects of the job as motivational (intrinsic) and hygiene (extrinsic) factors (Khanna, 2016). Each facet of the position in itself and association with the other influences job satisfaction.

The study of job satisfaction has been a topic of interest to people in organizations and people who study them. An assessment of the 'job satisfaction' of employees in an institution is vital to understand: 1) what the employee(s) perceive(s); 2) the aspects within the organization that influence the perception and; 3) the impact of the perception on the organization as a whole (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction enhances organizational commitment (Rehman et al., 2013), thus influencing the quality of work and productivity.

There is a paucity of research related to the impact of job satisfaction on the organization. However, most of the prior studies on job satisfaction within and outside India, in the learning organizations (education sector) explored: 1) the level of job satisfaction; 2) the interdependencies between the job satisfaction and the motivational or hygiene factors within the organization (Ali & Akhter, 2009; Al-Mutairi et al., 2017; Amarasena et al., 2015; Eyupodlu & Saner, 2009; Jena, 2015; Masum et al., 2015; Moloantoa & Dorasamy, 2017; Razali et al., 2013; Saif et al., 2012) and; 3) the association between the socio-demographic variables and job satisfaction (Ahmad et al., 2015; Ch, 2013; Krishnakumar, 2013; Machado et al., 2011; Nas, 2016; Sakiru et al., 2017; Yilmaz et al., 2014; Yoleri & Bostanci, 2012). A review of the literature to identify the antecedents of job satisfaction among teachers reported working environment, pay, or salary, promotion or reward, training and development, career growth, role clarity, recognition, leadership style, and human resource practices as the significant antecedents (Tomer & Rathee, 2018). Age (Krishnakumar, 2013), work autonomy (Amarasena et al., 2015), and compensations (Ludviga & Kalvina, 2016) were predictors of job satisfaction among academicians. However, Rehman et al. (2013) argued that every organization and employee was unique, and the findings from the previous studies could not be compared or applied to organizations outside the setting of the study. Recommendations to improve job satisfaction must be based on the evidence gathered in the local context.

The academician's involvement to advance the knowledge economy and community development activities have been most recently emphasized in higher education institutions in India. As an effect, academicians at present seem quite engaged in work-related affairs, irrespective of whether it is the pressure to produce evidence of participation in the continuing education programs or the motivation for professional/career growth. They diligently participate in research, acquisition of grants, collaborations, publication, social welfare, and community development activities. The majority of Indian academicians make time for such activities by adopting work-life integration strategies to cope with the demands. In this scenario, "are academicians satisfied in their current job?" was the question of interest to the investigators of the present study.

Further, observation of lower percentage of female faculty in higher-order designation such as Professor, Associate Professor, Reader in the state Public Universities and their affiliated colleges teaching Art, Science, Commerce and Management between the years 2015-18 (The website of the All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) (http://aishe.nic.in/aishe/home) includes Institution-wise, Post-Wise Number of Male & Female Teachers in University & its Colleges) inspired us to examine the gender differences (Table 1). Thus, a study was planned with the aims to identify: 1) the level of job satisfaction (gender-wise), and 2) the socio-demographic determinants of job satisfaction. The purpose of this study was to document the evidence, to influence suitable policies or strategies to evolve an enabling work atmosphere in the regional context.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This cross-sectional survey was carried out in the year 2016-18, after obtaining the approval from the Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC 61/2016). The population for this study was the faculty members employed on a tenure basis in universities/ higher education institutions and affiliated colleges in Karnataka. A questionnaire developed by the researcher was used to collect the data. It included 1) Proforma on socio-demographic characteristics, and 2) Job satisfaction questionnaire.

Table 1

	2015	-2016	201	6-17	201	7-18	201	8-19
Designation	М	F	М	F	М	F	М	F
Professor & Equivalent	860	335	718	271	709	252	787	330
Associate Professor	4554	2178	3585	1720	3221	1654	3305	1777
Reader	89	30	39	23	70	26	65	31
Lecturer (Selection Grade)	1314	863	743	628	702	564	734	531
Assistant Professor	6030	4399	6676	5534	7693	6395	8676	7711
Lecturer (Senior Scale)	151	168	117	111	134	112	109	89
Lecturer	7583	6557	5947	5833	6122	6145	6797	6750
Total	20589	14530	17825	14120	18651	15148	20473	17219

Post-wise number of male and female teachers in state Public Universities and their affiliated colleges*

Note: *Universities teaching Arts, Science, Commerce, and Management

*There were 11 universities in 2015-16, it increased to 13 in 2018-19

Source: All India Survey of Higher Education, Teaching Staff Report 17, 2015-16 to 2018-19

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire: The items were compiled from the review of literature and suggestions by the experts in the field of education. The draft questionnaire contained 44 items. For each item, respondents were asked to indicate their perception on a 5-point scale - Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1). While computing the total score on the main scale and the subscales, responses to the negative statements were reverse scored. Thus, a higher overall score indicated a higher satisfaction level. Towards the end of the questionnaire, space was provided for additional remarks, if any. The content validation was done by circulating the job satisfaction questionnaire to eight experts (four men and four women faculty) in higher education. The items retained were rated relevant by at least five experts. The questionnaire was pilot tested by administering it to 32 academicians, of which 18 were female, and 14 were male. This data was used to test the internal consistency of the job satisfaction scale. We computed Cronbach's alpha as a measure of the internal consistency coefficient. The 33 items with a discriminating ability of more than .3 ("Corrected item-total Correlation" in Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)) were retained in the scale. The internal consistency coefficient computed with these 33 items was .79. The alpha coefficient computed from the final survey was .88. Table 2 presents the alpha coefficients of the subscales. The reliability of the scale and subscales were satisfactory for the size of the scales.

The scope of this study was limited to state Public Universities and the affiliated colleges teaching Arts, Science, Commerce, and Management. There were 11 state Public Universities in Karnataka during 2016 and the faculty distribution in these universities during 2015-16 to 2017-18 is shown in Table 1. Four of the 11 Universities were less than ten years old. We requested the seven Universities which were more than ten years old to participate in the study. Five Universities responded to the request. Four to five colleges affiliated with these five Universities were selected by convenience sampling. Institutions were visited with prior appointment, to administer the questionnaires. Participation was voluntary, and confidentiality of the data was assured. The participants signed a consent form. Of the 400 questionnaires (minimum of 75 questionnaires per University), a total of 306 faculties responded to the questionnaire (77% response rate). We excluded 43 questionnaires from analysis (34 filled by

Table 2

Reliability of subscales of the job satisfaction questionnaire

Sub Scales	Coefficient Alpha
Pay and Leave (2 items)	.5
Promotion (2 items)	.46
Supervision (3 items)	.64
Co-workers (2 items)	.65
Job Security (2 items)	.35
Growth (4 items)	.77
Working Hours (2 items)	.47
Teaching (5 items)	.7
Research (4 items)	.31
Administrative support (4 items)	.71
Facilities (3 items)	.57

the faculty on annual contracts, and nine were incomplete questionnaires). The data collected from the 263 participants employed on a tenure basis were analyzed using SPSS (v.15).

The socio-demographic data were presented as bivariate frequency tables. The items of the job satisfaction questionnaire were summarized, by clubbing the 'Strongly agree' and 'Agree' categories, to make the summary simple. Percentage distribution, *t*-test, and multiple regression analysis were carried out to identify the sociodemographic factors associated with the job satisfaction score.

RESULTS

Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Participants

A total of 127 male and 136 female faculty from various universities/colleges/higher education institutions participated in the survey. The mean age, in years, of men (43.24) and women (42.89) participants, as well as the mean duration of teaching experience in years of male (13.11) and female (14.2) participants, were almost the same. Of the 62.7% of the faculty involved in research, 56.36% were females. Table 3 summarizes the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants of this study.

Responses to Items of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The responses to the items of the job satisfaction questionnaire are presented subscale-wise, in Table 4. A lesser percentage of females were satisfied with the chances of promotion, immediate supervisor, career prospects, flexible working hours, teaching workload, the infrastructure provided, and the number of personnel in the department to run the classes. A lesser percentage of males were happy with co-workers. About 50% of the males joined the teaching profession because they had no other choice.

The thematic analysis of the responses to an open-ended item, "Is there anything else related to job satisfaction that you want to share?" implies that participants believed, 'job satisfaction lies in individuals being able to maintain a balance between various aspects of academic life'. Few male participants expressed that each individual must be allowed to decide which priority to focus on - be it collaborations, research, or teaching to ensure satisfaction and high-quality output (individual or the team) rather than having a blanket approach towards all. The participants suggested that better incentives, salary, adequate recognition for achievements, teamwork, and a relaxed environment at the workplace are imperative to maintain a stress-free and satisfying work life. The female participants suggested consideration of experience and achievements for promotion, supervisor and co-worker support, lesser teaching workload, more time for research work, flexible work timings, and facilities such as day-care for the dependents, grievance cell, mental health care, recreation center, and a separate room for women faculty.

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Table 3

Socio-demographic characteristics of the participants

Socio-demographic factors	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	127	48.3
Female	136	51.7
Type of the College/University		
Government or Government Aided	225	85.6
Private	38	14.4
Discipline		
Science	97	36.9
Social Science/ Commerce/Management	166	63.1
Designation		
Professor	40	15.21
Associate Professor	84	31.94
Assistant Professor	139	52.85
Involved in research		
Yes	165	62.7
No	98	37.3
Distance from home to the workplace		
Less than 10 KM	162	61.6
10 -20 KM	50	19
More than 20 KM	51	19.4
Marital status		
Married	228	86.7
Single/Separated/ Divorced /Widow/Widower	35	13.3
Age distribution of children		
0-6 Years	85	32.32
7 or more years/no children	178	67.68
Type of family		
Nuclear	113	42.97
Joint	150	57.03
Caring responsibility at home		
No caring responsibility	123	46.77
Caring responsibility of the Ill/Elderly/Disabled	140	53.23
Spouse's profession		
Academic	67	25.48
Non-academic	161	61.22
Residential area		
Rural	101	38.4
Urban	162	61.6

Table 4

Items Representing Job satisfaction	Male (n=127)	Male (Percent agreed)	Female (n=136)	Female (Percent agreed)
Pay and Leave				
I am satisfied with the present salary structure	117	92.10	122	89.7
I am satisfied with the leave facility provided to me	109	85.9	115	84.5
Promotion				
I am satisfied with my chances of promotion	111	87.40	93	68.40
Job promotion is based purely on job performance and achievement	102	80.30	80	58.80
Supervision				
My immediate supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job	90	70.90	81	59.60
My immediate supervisor shares faculty feedback in a positive way	89	70.10	82	60.30
My immediate supervisor encourages my development	103	81.10	101	74.30
Co-workers				
I share good relations with my co-workers	74	58.30	94	69.10
I feel that my co-workers are incompetent	70	55.10	40	29.40
Job Security				
My job is compatible with my qualification and experience	111	87.40	114	83.80
There is job security and stability at the institution	102	80.30	106	78.50
Growth				
Career prospects are given irrespective of the gender of the faculty	110	86.60	101	74.30
There are opportunities to utilize our skills and talents	112	88.20	113	83.10
The university helps me to pursue my professional growth	92	72.40	104	76.50
I have been recognized for my good performance	103	81.10	104	76.50
Working Hours				
We have flexible working hours	79	62.20	74	54.40
I am satisfied with the working hours	106	83.50	109	80.10
Teaching				
I am satisfied with the interaction with my students	107	84.30	106	77.90
I like teaching	101	79.50	119	87.50
I receive cooperation from my colleagues in teaching	101	79.50	100	73.50
I have a fair teaching load	115	90.60	104	76.50
I joined this profession because I had no other choice	67	52.80	42	30.90

Table 4 (continue)

Items Representing Job satisfaction	Male (n=127)	Male (Percent agreed)	Female (n=136)	Female (Percent agreed)
Research				
There is a lack of mentorship for research	46	36.20	54	39.70
I am satisfied with the library facilities	82	64.60	93	68.40
I do not get time for research activities	74	58.30	71	52.20
I am interested in research	112	88.20	115	84.60
Administrative support in the institutions				
Interpersonal relationships with administrators are good	85	66.90	98	72.10
Administration provides clarity about the faculty promotion process	59	46.50	57	41.90
Our institution gives men and women equal opportunity for administrative positions	54	42.50	62	45.60
Men and women are equally respected in our institution	91	71.70	104	76.50
Facilities				
The office/area of work is comfortable and safe	100	78.70	105	77.20
The infrastructure provided is satisfactory for academic purposes	79	62.20	60	44.10
The number of personnel is sufficient to run the work/classes	89	70.10	78	57.40

Comparison of Job Satisfaction among the Male and Female Participants

The scale and subscale scores of the job satisfaction questionnaire were compared gender-wise applying the independent sample *t*-test, which assumes interval scale data (Table 5). The mean of the overall level of job satisfaction scores of male and female participants was the same and towards the higher side. The male faculty scored significantly higher on four subscales (Promotion, Supervision, working hours, and Facility) of the job satisfaction questionnaire, while females scored significantly higher on the subscale "Co-workers". The difference in the level of job satisfaction was significant in these five sub-scales.

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to explain the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and two or more independent variables. In the present study, for multiple regression analysis, the total job satisfaction score was treated as a dependent variable, and demographic factors were treated as independent variables. When the variables were highly associated, only one of the variables was included in the regression analysis. The number of categories was reduced, including them with

Scale/subscale	Gender	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	<i>P</i> -value	95% CI
Salary & leave	Male	127	8.42	1.35	.638	.524	21 to
	Female	136	8.32	1.22	.038	.324	.41
Promotion	Male	127	8.28	1.68	3.94	<.001	.43 to
	Female 136 7.43 1.84 5.94		5.94	<.001	1.29		
Supervision	Male	127	11.51	2.25	2.36	.019	.108 to
	Female	136	10.86	2.23	2.30	.019	1.2
Co-workers	Male	127	6.165	2.34	-3.17	002	-1.44 to 34
	Female	136	7.052	2.19	-3.17	.002	
Job security	Male	127	8.27	1.32	.276	702	29 to
	Female	136	8.22	1.44	.270	.783	.38
Growth	Male	127	16.15	2.67	1.203	.230	26 to
	Female	136	15.74	2.81	1.205	.230	1.07
Working hours	Male	127	7.69	1.54	2 5 9 4	.01	.13 to .92
	Female	136	7.17	1.73	2.584	.01	
Teaching	Male	127	19.36	3.48	33	.74	-1.016
	Female	136	19.51	3.68	33	./4	to .73
Research	Male	127	13.62	2.62	.513 .61	.61	0.43 to
	Female	136	13.47	2.15	.315	.01	.73
Administrative	Male	127	13.795	3.41			73 to
support	Female	136	13.735	3.09	.15	.88	.85
Facility	Male	127	11.24	2.18	2.68	.008	.19 to 1.26

 Table 5

 Gender-wise comparison of mean scale and subscale scores of the job satisfaction questionnaire

appropriate categories. Age (continuous), Gender (Male=1, Female=0), Type of institution (Government or Government Aided=1, others=0), Discipline (Science=1, others=0), Research (involved in research=1, else=0), Children (below 6 years=1, else=0), Type of family (Nuclear=1, else=0), Family background (Rural=1, else=0), Family background (Rural=1, else=0), Caring responsibility at home (Yes=1, No=0), Distance from home to workplace (less than 10KM=1 else=0 and 10-20 KM=1, else=0) were treated as independent variables.

We tested the assumptions for multiple regression analysis. Normal Predicted Probability (P-P) plot was used to assess the normality of residuals of the regression (Figure 1), and the homoscedasticity assumption was evaluated by plotting the predicted values and residuals on a scatterplot (Figure 2). Multiple linear regression informs how much the job satisfaction score is expected to increase (or decrease) for every one-point increase (or decrease) in independent variables adjusting for the influence of the other variables. Stepwise regression was carried out to identify the variables which are significantly associated with the job satisfaction score, and it eliminated all the independent variables from the model except "Type of

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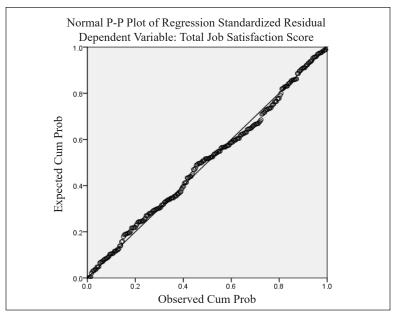


Figure 1. P-P Plot showing residuals of the regression following a normal distribution

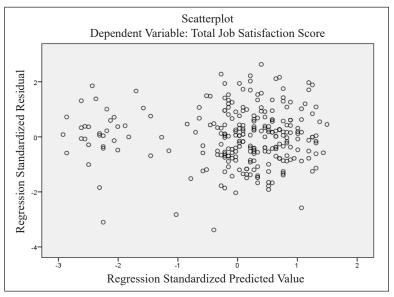


Figure 2. Residual plot showing homoscedasticity (Dependent variable: Total Job Satisfaction Score)

institution" and "age". These two variables were found to be associated significantly with job satisfaction (Table 6). The twopredictor model was able to account for only 6.2% of the variance in total job satisfaction score, F(2, 260) = 8.66, p < .001, $R^2 = .062$, Adj- $R^2 = .055$. Table 6 indicates that, for every ten years increase in age, the average job satisfaction score increases by 2.4 units. The average job satisfaction score of

Madal		lardized cients	4	S:-		nfidence al for b	Collinearity Statistics
Model	b	Std. Error	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
(Constant)	105.02	5.33	19.71	<.001	94.53	115.51	
Type of institution (Government or Government Aided)	9.19	2.69	3.43	<.001	3.91	14.48	1.005
Age	.24	.113	2.12	.035	.017	.46	1.005

Job satisfaction and associated socio-demographic factors

faculties, from government or governmentaided institutions, was 9.19 units more than the average score of others, adjusting for the influence of other independent variables. Multicollinearity was checked by computing the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and was found to be in the accepted range (VIF<5) supporting the absence of multicollinearity.

DISCUSSION

Job satisfaction is a dynamic and complex phenomenon (Nas, 2016). It is a product of situational factors and situational occurrences (Al-Mutairi et al., 2017). The administrator, supervisor, and co-worker support have a significant influence on job satisfaction (Masum et al., 2015; Saif et al., 2012). During the tenure as a full-time faculty, academicians are assigned additional academic advising and/or administrative responsibilities from the institution. These responsibilities are time-bound, and most of them are not spread throughout the year. However, at times, the primary and the additional responsibilities coincide with unexpected life events (personal/family). These are the compelling circumstances in which the academician seeks support from the supervisor and the co-worker. In the present study, more than 50% of respondents had caring responsibility for the elderly, ill, or disabled and a lesser number of academicians were satisfied with the relationship with the co-workers compared to the relationship with the administrators.

The lower mean score of female faculty members in the level of job satisfaction is in the aspect of promotion. It is interesting to note that a higher percentage (56.36%) of female participants, were involved in research compared to the male participants. However, only 58.8% of the female participants felt that the promotion was purely on the achievement and job performance as against 80.3% of the male participants. The majority (>46%) of the male and female faculties were not satisfied with the support from the administration on 'clarity in promotional process' and 'equal opportunities for administrative positions' in the present study. Further, the difference in response to the item, "Career prospects are given irrespective of the gender of the faculty" was more than ten percentage points, between the male and the female faculties. A significant difference in the aspect of promotion between the male and female participants implies that the female faculty members perceived gender bias and unfair treatment within the institution. It is also evident from the responses of the female participants that in the areas of infrastructure facilities for academic purposes, the flexibility of work hours, fair distribution of workload, and the number of personnel to run classes; were primarily experiencing limitations of resources to fulfill the assigned tasks. Fears over promotions need to be examined critically since they indicate wide-spread discriminating practices against women in Indian higher academia (University Grants Commission, 2013). An organizational culture which nurtures equality, fair treatment, trust, transparent policies and procedures (Ludviga & Kalvina, 2016), continuous learning, team learning, collaborations (Razali et al., 2013) as well as enabling institutional management (Khanna, 2016; Sakiru et al., 2017), with strategic leadership (Razali et al., 2013), good governance (Nawi et al., 2017) and interpersonal relationship (Ali & Akhter, 2009); might improve the job satisfaction of academicians in Karnataka.

The type of institution was one of the predictors of job satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction of academicians in the government or government-aided institutions was higher compared to the private institutions. A similar observation was reported in another study in Karnataka which attributes larger teaching workload, less time for research, and more time spent in educational and promotional activities; as the factors responsible for the lower level of job satisfaction and scientific productivity in the private institutions offering Pharmacy programs (Ahmad et al., 2015). Further, compared to the government institutions, the physical facilities in private institutions are inadequate in India (Borah, 2016). There are uniform rules and regulations across government institutions in India, leaving lesser space for arbitrary appointments, which is not an observation across the private sector. Though the work values of academicians in public and private sectors are not explored in the present study, they are expected to be similar in both sectors (Ali & Panatik, 2015). Thus, to improve the job satisfaction level of academicians in the Indian private sector, adherence to the standards of infrastructure and human resource management should be maintained.

The age of the academician was a predictor of job satisfaction in the present study, and a similar observation was also made by Krishnakumar (2013) in Karnataka. The relationship was also similar to the findings of a meta-analysis on age and job satisfaction, which showed a weak positive linear relationship (Bernal et al., 1998). In contrast, job satisfaction surveys have shown no association with age (Sakiru et al., 2017; Saner & Eyupoglu, 2012) or decreasing trend of satisfaction with increasing age and higher designation (Ch, 2013). Aging is a multifactorial process and involves changes brought about by the physiological, social, and psychological factors (Bernal et al., 1998). As these

factors are not explored in the previous studies, there is a need to examine the relationship of job satisfaction with age, outside the chronologic perspective to label it as a predictor of job satisfaction, as recommended by Bernal et al. (1998).

In the present study, the job satisfaction of the academicians was better in the aspects of pay and leave, job security, and growth. A study reported that the level of job satisfaction among academicians across India was the same in these aspects (Khanna, 2016), which infers that the focus lies in improving the other motivational and hygiene factors in learning organizations. Motivational factors such as the work itself, recognition and achievement as well as hygiene factors such as the status and rank, working conditions, administrative policies, and procedures are not explored in the present study. However, the review of literature informs that these factors are the antecedents of job satisfaction (Tomer & Rathee, 2018), and have a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Al-Mutairi et al., 2017; Masum et al., 2015; Razali et al., 2013; Saif et al., 2012). To substantiate the magnitude of the evidence, there is a need to study the relationship between these factors with job satisfaction in the regional context.

Teaching and research are timeconsuming endeavors that demand time and focused attention. It is interesting to note that the participants in the present study were interested in both teaching and research. In both of these aspects, the level of job satisfaction of the male and female academicians was alike, a finding similar to the observations in Malaysia (Dhanapal et al., 2013). Though 52.8% of the male and 30.9% of female faculty opted for the teaching profession because of 'no other choice', the academicians in the present study were more satisfied with the teaching aspect of the job rather than research. A study in Portugal reports similar results (Machado et al., 2011). The busy schedule of classes, administrative obligations, and writing tasks predominantly affects the scientific productivity of academicians (Yilmaz et al., 2014). In the present study, the majority of the male and the female faculties expressed that there were opportunities to use their talents/abilities (>80%) or to pursue professional growth (70%), however, 'time' was the major constraint (as expressed by 58.3% of male and 52.2% of female participants) in pursuing their research interests. The factors such as dissatisfaction with the library facilities, lack of mentors for research, incompetent co-worker or the supervisor, and the unsatisfactory relationship with co-workers and the administrator, could also have had a cumulative influence on the lower level of satisfaction in the aspect of research. Due attention to these areas and fair distribution of workload, keeping in mind the importance of nurturing research interest of academicians, is essential.

The association between job satisfaction and other factors such as the department, experience, income, marital status, spouses education background, the number of children (Yilmaz et al., 2014), type of employment (permanent versus contract) and the designation (Eyupodlu & Saner, 2009) have been studied in prior researches. In the present study, these variables (except the type of employment) were not the predictors of job satisfaction. The findings on the influence of socio-demographic factors on job satisfaction across the globe were inconsistent (Tomer & Rathee, 2018) and thus inconclusive. However, the findings of the present study need to be interpreted, considering the limitations of the survey approach and in relation to the context (Rehman et al., 2013).

The findings of the present study have implications for the regulatory body and the higher education institutions in India. At the institutional level, infrastructure facilities (including ladies' room, day-care center) and maintenance of cordial, trustworthy, transparent (Ali & Akhter, 2009; Ch, 2013; Masum et al., 2015), and humane work environment including flexible work hours (wherever applicable) and equal opportunity for promotions should gain momentum. An observation of the work environment of private institutions and their adherence to the expectations (in terms of resources) laid down by the regulatory body or professional council is essential (Borah, 2016).

This study of job satisfaction among the academicians of Arts, Science, Commerce, and Management colleges of Karnataka is novel, as there is no prior documented systematic inquiry among academicians of these streams. However, the colleges under various universities in the present study were selected through convenience sampling. A study with larger sample size, the random selection of colleges, and the inclusion of qualitative component (In-depth Interview or/and Focus group discussion) would strengthen the findings. Further, a component of work autonomy (Amarasena et al., 2015) and compensation (Ludviga & Kalvina, 2016) may also be added and their association with job satisfaction may be assessed in the Indian context in future studies.

CONCLUSION

'Teaching' is a responsible job. Academicians have the potentials to generate and disseminate knowledge, the characteristics essential to advance the knowledge economy, and community development. A satisfied academician stays in the learning organization and contributes to its growth. Thus, it is necessary to know the level and the determinants of job satisfaction of academicians. In the present study, there was no gender difference in the overall level of job satisfaction. However, the difference in the aspects of promotion, supervision, co-worker support, working hours, and the facilities was statistically significant. The academicians of advancing age in the government or government-aided institutions are likely to be more satisfied in the job than those of the private sector. The management of higher education institutions in Karnataka should invest in the development of the infrastructure facilities and congenial psychosocial work environment within the campus.

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Evaluating the Influence of Resident Agencies' Participation in Flood Management via Social Media, in Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Disaster management is conducted in multilevel and different stages. However, these different stages are tied together by the key infrastructural components of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) such as social media which is central to the effectual management of disaster through residents' participation. Nevertheless, there has been limited access to information technologies that enhance quick recovery services, timely response, and effective dissemination of disaster-related information. Therefore, this study examined the influence of resident agencies' participation in disaster management via the use of social media information planning and training possibilities (SMDPT) in Nigeria. The study used a survey questionnaire and stratified random sampling technique to collect 370 primary data from flood disaster management agencies in Ibadan, Nigeria. The collected

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Keywords: Flood disaster preparedness, flood disaster recovery, flood disaster response, participation, resident agencies, social media

INTRODUCTION

In recent times, there have been frequent occurrences of disaster in all parts of the world and these have generated numerous attention to the role played by information and communication technology (ICT) which enhances timely information experience and participation among victims of disaster and the general residents. As such, researchers have started raising interest in determining the need for social media in the management of disaster (Bruns & Stieglitz, 2012; Houston et al., 2015; Owolabi & Ekechi (2014); Zhang et al., 2019).

Residents' participation is an emerging arena for computer-mediated communications that has implications on both informal and formal disaster management (Yeh, 2010). The birth of an avalanche of social media including social network services, community contents, and micro-blogs has considerably reformed the perspective of managing disasters in recent times making social actions more possible. With the availability of software appliances such as online discussion podiums, institutions are presently able to dispense, obtain as well as peruse information more systematically. Thus, social media has the capability of averting disaster from winding wild (Owolabi & Ekechi, 2014). According to experts, disaster management can be categorized into three namely; disaster preparedness, disaster response, and disaster recovery. Across these three stages, social media tools can be used for different purposes which include information dissemination, disaster planning and training, collaborative problem solving, and information gathering (Zhang et al., 2019).

Improving resident's participation in disaster management is expected to influence the effectiveness of disaster management and reduce the information gap. This is because the more engaged people are, the better they learn about how to prepare, respond, and recover from a disaster. Hence, the reason why emergency and disaster management organizations involved the general residents in disaster management is to ensure that the residents get accurate and complete information (Grove, 2014). However, academic efforts on investigating the role of social media in the disaster have been limited especially from the perspectives of the residents' agencies and the general residents (Yates & Partridge, 2015). In view of the above, this study sought to investigate the influence of residents' social media participation on flood disaster management in Nigeria.

Research Objectives

This study was exploratory with a major purpose of collecting primary data on residents' information experience and participation on social media during flood disasters in Nigeria. Therefore, the specific objective of this study was to investigate the influence of resident agencies' participation via social media on flood management in Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Review of Flood Management System in Nigeria

Flooding is the most persistent disaster in Nigeria and it has had more than 1.5 billion individuals murdered while more than 81 million others became homeless over the last two decades (Owolabi & Ekechi, 2014). In Nigeria, flood disaster has been perilous to people, communities, and institutions. Recently, Usman Danfodio University, Sokoto, and other parts of the country have been affected by flooding. In Nigeria, millions of people have been forced to leave their homes and several properties worth millions have been destroyed (Abdulfatai et al., 2014; Owolabi & Ekechi, 2014). Flooding is among the natural disasters that claim more lives and wreck properties than any other natural disaster in the world. Even though it is not the most devastating in Nigeria, it displaces people and causes more havoc to properties. About 20% of the Nigerian population is prone to the risk of flooding (Abdulfatai et al., 2014; Agbonkhese et al., 2014). Evidently, flooding has repeatedly occurred in Nigeria and is generally brought on by either climatic or non-climatic variables, in this way prompting river floods, flash floods, urban floods, sewage floods, glacial lake outburst floods, and coastal floods (Abdulfatai et al., 2014; Agbonkhese et al., 2014). In the historical backdrop of flooding in Nigeria, the most exceedingly bad experience was recorded in the middle of July and October 2012 when 363 individuals lost their lives. 2.1 million individuals across ten states were dislodged with several severe diseases and 18, 282 were harmed (Agbonkhese et al.,2014). In general, flooding in Nigeria has been caused by both natural and human activities. The natural causes of floods are usually a result of climatic change (Agbonkhese et al., 2014), which can be as a result of heavy or torrential rain/storm and ocean or tidal storm along the coast (Nwigwe & Emberga, 2014). Naturally, a flood could be due to a high water table in an area, topography (low-land close hills), and low infiltration such as clayed soil (Odufuwa, 2012). The human causes of flooding in Nigeria may be due to farming activities which result in deforestation that exposes the soil to erosion and increases runoff, burst water main pipes, dam burst, and dam spills (Nwigwe & Emberga, 2014).

Overview of Disaster Management Resident Agencies and their Participation in Flood Management in Nigeria

Residents' participation in flood management is defined as the active involvement of residents in the preparedness, response, and recovery from a disaster (Evers, 2012). A responsible resident helps in every way to construct drains and ditches or embankments, protect buildings, constructions, and utilities, not throwing refuse or solid materials in drains, and discourages others from doing so. In other words, disaster management in terms of preparedness, response, and recovery are shared responsibilities between the government and the residents (Terpstra & Gutteling, 2008).

The continued propensity of flood incidents in Nigeria necessitated the establishment of institutions from the late 1990s to assists in flood disaster management in Nigeria (Obeta, 2014). Subsequently, the National and State Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), the Federal Environment Protection Agency (FEPA), and the Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NIMET) were unveiled. The N.E.M.A South West Zone covers Six (6) States which are: Lagos, Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Ekiti, and Osun. With an Operational Office in Ekiti which covers Ondo, Osun, and Ekiti. (Abdulfatai et al., 2014). NEMA is saddled with the responsibility of reducing the impact, loss, and damage incurred from the disaster that may occur (Abdulfatai et al., 2014). This involves the plans of putting in place the necessary methods of responding to the emergency occurrence. This method can be in form of an Emergency Response Plan (ERP), Simulation Exercises (SIMEX), training as well as an early warning system. Inter-agency collaboration for emergency responses at national, state, and local levels including civil society organizations and communication plans with easily understandable terminology and methods are all parts of NEMA's operational purview (Olanrewaju et al., 2019). Conscious of the prevailing vulnerability of local communities to weather and climate-related hazards, the zone adopts various strategies in confronting these disasters namely; collaboration with State Emergency Management Agencies (SEMAs) and other critical stakeholders to intensify efforts in disaster management through comprehensive early warning messages, awareness creation, multistakeholder workshops and training and simulation drills (Abdulfatai et al., 2014).

However, NEMA is constantly faced with numerous types of challenges in course of implementing the aforementioned measures. As stated by Abdulfatai et al. (2014) and Obeta (2014), the challenges faced by N.E.M.A in Nigeria are but not limited to: Information management, inadequate number of sustainable flood control strategies, Nonadherence to safety standards, Absence of up-to-date flood control acts, Inadequate Funding & Logistics, Nonconformity to Rules & Regulations, Crowd Control, Absence of prior planning that addresses issues which boost flood. In practical terms, residents can participate in flood management in many ways. For instance, residents can participate in the preparedness towards flood by helping to desist or clean gutters or drains and encourage others to do the same and also identifying safety locations in case of flood disaster (Abdulfatai et al., 2014; Obeta, 2014). Residents can also help in the recovery phase of flood disasters by offering sympathy and relief that can make up for the pain, grief, and losses of victims. Finally, residents have the responsibility of participating in the response to flood disasters by educating each other about floods, understanding signals, and behave in accordance with the signals (Zhang et al., 2019). At the occurrence of a disaster, residents are even regarded as more active online; they tend to increasingly turn to social network sites looking for the most recent up-to-date information (Houston et al., 2015).

In simplified terms, it can be said that there are three different levels at which residents can participate in flood management namely; disaster preparedness, disaster response, and disaster recovery these terms are coded as DPRE, DRES, DREC respectively for the purpose of this study. These three levels are discussed in detail in the following sections.

Flood Disaster Preparedness (DPRE)

The first phase of flood management is flood disaster preparedness. Theoretically, preparedness is related to the focuses that are directed to preventive measures and activities in order to reduce known risks that could lead to a disaster. The major measures in this phase of disaster management are training and planning on evacuation training and emergency tactics training. Researchers have demonstrated that preparedness is an important part of flood disaster management which cannot be undermined (Takao et al., 2004). However, certain factors determine the flood disaster preparedness of residents in flood disaster management. Takao et al. (2004) had specifically revealed that homeownership and the severity of catastrophe from previous floods inclusive

fear of flood were the determinants of residents' flood disaster preparedness.

Flood Disaster Response (DRES)

Flood disaster response is the second phase of residents' participation to flood management. During this phase, the focus is mainly on the speed of response. The effectiveness of response activities is determined by the quickness and swiftness in dispersing quick situational awareness to help authorities respond effectively to an occurrence of flood disaster. In the study conducted by Whitmarsh (2008) focusing on residents' behavioral responses to climate change and flooding, it was revealed that there were number of behavioral responses that could be taken in preventing the severity of flood disaster. Actions such as providing awareness and information about the victims of flood disaster actions can either be the direct solutions to disaster or the actions that make solutions by disaster management agency to be effective. Terpstra and Gutteling (2008) attested that residents did have the responsibility to respond to the risk of flood disaster. Peoples' participation and responsibility to respond to flood disasters has been widely researched and it has been revealed to be important and one of the most significant phases of flood management (Lindell & Whitney, 2000; Paton, 2003). This implies that when the residents participate in responding to flood disaster it does not only lessen the severity of flood disaster it will also make the role of government agencies to be effective and worthwhile.

Flood Disaster Recovery (DREC)

The damage of flood disaster management such as other natural disasters on victims does not evacuate immediately after the disaster. The flood disaster recovery focuses on helping casualties and victims of flood disaster to recover and gain their normal life after going through the damage of flood disaster. The recovery phase is about gaining normalcy and rebuilding houses, repairing roads, and locating all that have been displaced.

Residents' Agencies Participation in Flood Management Enabled Through Social Network Sites

Various attempts have been made by researchers and most nonprofit organizations on how social media can be used for maximizing the essence of residents' participation during flood disasters (Jamali et al., 2019). Liu and Palen (2010) cited the example of how gamification on social media had been used to improve people's knowledge and changing attitudes during natural disasters. Ortiz and Ostertag (2014), for instance, reported on the formation of a community of "Katrina bloggers" and their engagement in a range of offline collective civic activities during the 2005 Hurricane Katrina in the United States (USA). The study demonstrated that digital communication technologies including social media platforms facilitated the advent of new social ties and how the Web served as a mobilizing structure enabling individuals to link their civic engagement with collective civic actions. As indicated

in Liu and Palen, (2010) and the approach of advanced camera and cellular telephones with camera offers the likelihood of making photos more open by distributing them online or sharing them utilizing using social networks media sites and applications such as Flickr and social networks sites like Facebook which permits its members to store, sort, hunt and offer photographs and pictures by means of the Internet.

Modern social media applications, which have achieved considerable penetration into the everyday life of many users, provide an invaluable source of data regarding user thoughts, beliefs, and opinions. Social media consists of users with diverse backgrounds and has the ability to encourage aggregation of the users, can provide a unique substrate for researchers to understand behavioral patterns of communities (Jamali et al., 2019). Research shows that heavy social media users seek out contacts, content boosts, favorable information, requirement inquiries, stress discharge, "emotional support", and a sense of belonging (Kim & Hastak, 2018). Communication is seen as the nexus that anchor the connections among the four components of disaster management which are: mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery (Kim & Hastak, 2018) and in times of emergency in Nigeria, social network sites can stand as a powerful and effective broadcasting component from the disaster management agencies to the public and in addition serve as an impetus for residents' reactions in form of response.

The Technology, Organization, and Environment (TOE) Framework

The T.O.E is a framework that relates technology, organization, and environment by identifying the three aspects of an enterprise's context that influence the process by which it adopts and implements a technological innovation within the technological, organization, and environmental context (Oliveira & Martins, 2010). According to the TOE framework, technological, organizational and environmental context are the three main identified factors that influence technological innovation in enterprises.

Relating the TOE framework to flood disaster management, the technological context includes the current internal and external equipment (including social media) used by the flood management agency in disseminating flood management information. The organizational and environmental context remains the agency, public, and the entire environment affected by the flood. Therefore, the TOE framework has identified the potentials of managing flood disasters through social media through the adoption of the three influencing factors of technology: technology, organization, and environment. The major themes in using social media in flood disaster management include situational information (Oh et al., 2011), sense-making, collaborative resilience (Kim & Hastak, 2018), rumor management (Oh et al., 2011), and a vision of the future of disaster management that better supports inclusion of activities and information from members of the public. Most of these studies highlight the fact that during a disaster, social media can effectively supplement traditional information dissemination and sourcing methods by emergency services organizations and disaster managers (Ngamassi et al., 2016). Figure 1 presents the technology, organization, and environment framework.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Although applications of social media in the preparedness, response, and recovery phases of natural disasters have been widely studied (Kim & Hastak, 2018; Yates &

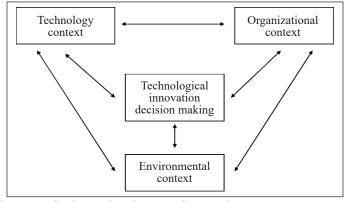


Figure 1. Technology, organization, and environment framework *Source:* Ngamaassi et al. (2016)

Paquette, 2011; Yates & Partridge, 2015), there have been only a few studies on the influence of residents' usage of social media as the resident's predictor for planning and training in times of disasters. Therefore, this study hypothesized that planning and training via social media significantly influenced residents' participation in flood management. Hence, sub-hypotheses are as follows:

H_a: Social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT) significantly influence residents' participation in flood disaster preparedness (DPRE).

H_b: Social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT) significantly influence residents' participation in flood disaster response (DRES).

H_c: Social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT) significantly influence residents' participation in flood disaster recovery (DREC).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study employed the quantitative research approach to investigate the influence of resident's social media disaster planning and training on flood management in Nigeria. The study was conducted in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The choice of Ibadan is informed due to the varying degree of flood incidents that had claimed over 35,000 lives and properties worth millions of Naira over the past 30 years in Ibadan (Eguaroje et al., 2015). The target population of the study was 4,372 members of the agencies responsible for flood/ disaster management in Ibadan, Nigeria. These resident agencies included the Oyo State Emergency Management Agencies (OYSEMA), Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NIMET), and the Red Cross Association, Oyo branch which had been responsible for flood disaster management in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. Table 1 presents the population distribution of the study and the percentage contributed by each agency.

Sample Size

The size of a sample used for a qualitative project is influenced by both theoretical and practical considerations (Robinson, 2014). The practical reality of research is that most studies require a provisional decision on sample size at the initial design stage. Without a provisional number at the design stage, the duration and required resource-allocation of the project cannot be ascertained, which makes planning all but impossible. However, a prior sample

Table 1		
Population	distribution	and proportion

	Population	Percentage (%)
OYSEMA	150	3.43
NiMET	500	13.43
Red Cross	3722	85.13
Total	4372	100

specification needs not to imply inflexibility – instead of a fixed number, an approximate sample size range can be given, with a minimum and a maximum (Robinson, 2014). Also, the simplified sample size table provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) provided that for a population size of 4000, a sample size of 364 is required for analysis at +/- 5% error level while a population of 5000 requires a sample size of 370 respondents (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

Therefore, the sample size of this study was determined based on the total population of the study following the formula provided by Dillman (2000) and the ideas provided in Robinson (2014).

$$n = \frac{N(p)(1-p)}{(N-1)(\frac{B}{C})^{2+(p)(1-p)}}$$

N = population size, P = 0.5, B = 0.05, C = 1.96

Note: n = calculated sample size requiredfor the desired level of precision N = size of the population,

P = the proportion of the population expected to be chosen,

B = the acceptable amount of precision or sampling error

C = is the K value associated with the confidence level.

Therefore, a sample size of 370 is regarded as appropriate for a population of 4372 in this study, and hence, it is further used for the data analysis. Table 2 presents the population distribution, percentage, and proportion of the questionnaire used for the study.

Sampling Technique

This study employed the use of a stratified sampling technique to select the required respondents from the entire population of the study. In a stratified sample, the researcher first selects the particular categories or groups of cases that he/she considers should be purposely included in the final sample. The sample is then divided up or 'stratified' according to these categories and a target number of participants is allocated to each one (Robinson, 2014). As a result, the sample for this study was drawn from various agencies (OYSEMA, NiMET, and Red Cross) responsible for managing flood disasters in Ibadan justifying the use of stratified random sampling.

Questionnaire Design and Data Collection

Primary data was collected using a survey questionnaire to ascertain that all the constructs of this study were fully measured.

<i>, 1</i> 8		
Population	Percentage (%)	Proportion (Questionnaire utilized)
150	3.43	12
500	13.43	49
3722	85.13	314
	Population 150 500	150 3.43 500 13.43

Table 2Population distribution, percentage, and proportion

The choice of the questionnaire for the collection of data was informed based on its ability to efficiently utilize the researcher's time, energy, and costs (Robinson, 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Therefore, this research adopted the use of a structured questionnaire consisting of closed-ended questions that were self-administered to the respondents. The choice of this data collection mechanism over the other rests is its ability to allow the researcher to familiarize and clarify the respondents of any doubt during the data collection process.

The questionnaire was designed in different sections to elicit information on the study variables. Section A of the questionnaire elicits information on the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Section B collects information regarding Social Media Information Planning and Training. While section C embodies questions on Flood Management (Disaster Preparedness, Disaster Response, and Disaster Recovery). A type of Likert scale questionnaire (5-point scale) that ranges between "1" = Strongly Disagree (SD); "2" = Disagree (D); "3" = Undecided (U); "4" = Agree (A) and "5" = Strongly Agree (SA) was used in this study.

Validity and Reliability Test

The study questionnaire was further subjected to validity and reliability test to ensure a proper adaption of the instrument. The validation of content was in the process of measuring/testing of respondents' comprehension and understanding of the research instrument items (Robinson, 2014). Content validity was conducted on the wordings and sequence of the items of the questionnaire to determine which best suits the respondents among the alternative formats; to ascertain whether the items of this study would adequately measure the hypothetical concepts of the study. Further validation was conducted by assessing the reliability of the items of the questionnaire through the assessment of the Cronbach's alpha level. Hence, items with Cronbach's alpha level greater than .7 were regarded as having good reliability and thus, retained for further data collection. Table 3 presents the Cronbach's Alpha result for construct validation

Descriptive Analysis of Constructs and Items. The statistical description of the constructs of this study was done by determining the statistical values of mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for all the constructs. The

Table 3Cronbach's Alpha result for construct validation

S/N	Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	N. of Items
1	Disaster Preparedness	.743	7
2	Disaster Recovery	.799	11
3	Disaster Response	.703	8
4	Social Media Disaster Planning and Training (SMDPT)	.721	5

measurement of all the constructs was done using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree.

Description of Disaster Preparedness. The descriptive analysis of construct disaster preparedness as shown in Table 4 reveals a minimum number of 1 and a maximum value of 5 for all the items used in measuring the constructs. The result of the analysis revealed a mean value of 4.23 with a standard deviation of 0.837 for 'Have plan for unpredicted disasters', indicating an agreement among the respondents to having a plan for unpredicted disaster management. The mean value of 4.11 and a standard deviation of 0.863 indicates agreement of the respondents to familiarity with disaster management. Also, the mean value of 4.00, 4.05, 3.98, 3.88, 3.85, 3.77 and standard deviation value of 0.855; 0.613, 0.925, 0.971, and 0.928 indicates that there was an agreement among the respondents to training using disaster simulation, preparedness during disasters, educating others during disaster management, taking part in disaster maneuvers, and possible threats to disaster management.

Description of Disaster Recovery. The descriptive analysis of construct disaster recovery as shown in Table 5 revealed a minimum number of 1 and maximum value of 5 for item 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 11, a minimum and maximum value of 2 and 5 respectively for item 6, 7, and 10, while item 8 and 9 had a minimum value of 3 and maximum value of 5 in the construct. The mean values of the construct (greater than 3.5) indicate agreement to the items among the respondents except for item 3 with a mean value of 2.85 and a standard deviation value of 1.22 indicating that the respondents were undecided about managing the recovery operation in an organized and effective manner.

Description of Disaster Response. The result of the descriptive analysis conducted on disaster response construct shows a minimum value for items 1, 4, 6, 7, and 8; a maximum value of 2 for items 2, 3, and 5 with a maximum value of 5 for all the items. The mean values for all items are above 3.5 indicating agreement among the

Table 4

S/N	Items	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Familiarity with disaster management	1	5	4.11	0.863
2	Training using disaster simulation	1	5	4.00	0.855
3	Educating others regarding disaster management	1	5	3.98	0.915
4	Have plan for unpredicted disasters	1	5	4.23	0.837
5	Taking part in disaster maneuvers	1	5	3.88	0.925
6	Possible threats to disaster management	1	5	3.85	0.971
7	Possible threats to disaster management	1	5	3.77	0.928
8	Preparedness during disasters	1	5	4.05	0.613

Description of Disaster Preparedness (DPRE)

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Table 5

Description	of Disaster	Recoverv	(DREC)
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S/N	Items	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Minimize the duration of a critical application service interruption	1	5	3.79	0.899
2	Assess the damage to the affected	1	5	4.07	0.572
3	Manage the recovery operation in an organized and efficacy manner	1	5	2.85	1.220
4	Prepare personnel to respond effectively in disaster recovery situations	1	5	3.52	1.049
5	Establish an alternative location where employees can work on key functions	1	5	3.86	0.690
6	Provides basic supplies (e.g. food, water, and first aid) for recovery operations	2	5	4.21	0.636
7	Provide contact information for employees involved in recovery operations	2	5	4.22	0.582
8	Provide employees with the details of the emergency plans	3	5	4.23	0.572
9	Make availability for evacuation in case the need arises	3	5	4.21	0.564
10	Provide financial plans to handle immediate needs	2	5	4.18	0.560
11	Provide supports outside the normal operations	1	5	3.96	0.694

respondents to all items that measured the construct. Table 6 presents a description of the disaster response.

Description of Social Media Disaster

Planning and Training. The description of social media disaster planning and training in this study as presented in Table 7 revealed a minimum value of 1 for 'Engage the general public on the topic of interest on social media network', a minimum value of 3 for 'confirm the success of the community exercises on social media' and a minimum value of 2 for item 1, 3, and 4 with all the items having a maximum value of 5 each. The mean value of 3.09 indicates that the respondents were undecided on the item 'confirm the success of the community exercises on social media'. All of the items

possessed a mean value greater than 3.5 indicating that there was an agreement to disaster management planning and training via social media.

RESULTS

The primary data collected in the study was analyzed using the partial least square – structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). However, a number of preliminary activities of data screening (Response Rate, Missing Data, Test of Non-Response Bias, Independent sample t-test for equality of means, detection of outliers, common method bias, normality and linearity test. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using the principal component analysis (PCA) of PLS-SEM because items used in the conduct of this

Resident Agencies' Participation in Flood Management Via Social Media

S/N		Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Follows the official weather forecasts and warning regularly	1	5	3.72	0.854
2	Provides medication kits for the affected	2	5	4.06	0.601
3	Stocks of food and drinking water for the affected	2	5	4.02	0.697
4	Stocks of fuel for the victims	1	5	3.78	0.887
5	Provides survival tools (e.g., electrical torch, blanket, and warm boots)	2	5	4.16	0.640
6	Pay special attention to the victim and vulnerable public members	1	5	3.81	0.895
7	Provides temporary means of accommodation	1	5	3.23	1.083
8	Adequate provision for evacuation	1	5	3.81	0.726

Table 6Description of disaster response (DRES)

Table 7

Description of social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT)

S/N	Items	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I use hash-tags on social media to help filter information relating to disaster on social media	2	5	4.03	0.666
2	Engage the general public on the topic of interest on the social media network	1	5	3.76	0.824
3	Stream video/activity on social media network to announce the occurrence of an event	2	5	3.93	0.789
4	Engage the communities in training exercise through social media	2	5	3.97	0.679
5	Confirm the success of the community exercises on social media	3	5	3.09	0.318

study were adapted from a previous related study; hence, the need for exploratory data analysis is not required (Hair et al., 2010). The essence of this was to ascertain the suitability of the collected data for the main data analysis.

Measurement Model

This study employed the use of partial least squares - structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) by using the smartPLS M3 software application to estimate the measurement model of this study (Hair et al. (2013). The study assessed the measurement model through the evaluation of the convergent validity, which is indicated by the item loadings, the average variance extracted (AVE), and the composite reliability (CR). The findings of the statistical analysis showed item loadings greater than the threshold (0.5) as recommended by Hair et al. (2013). The result of AVE presented a value of 0.599 for disaster preparedness (DPRE), 0.816 for disaster recovery (DREC), 0.607 for disaster response (DRES), and 0.644 for Social Media Disaster Planning and Training (SMDPT) indicating a good variance shared between a construct and its measures. In addition, the findings indicate a good internal consistency among the items of the constructs as revealed by the values of the composite reliability of 0.899 for DPRE, 0.947 for DREC, 0.822 for DRES, and 0883 for SMDPT. Furthermore, R2 value of 0.122 for DPRE, 0.083 for DREC, and 0.207 for DRES indicates that social media disaster planning and training explained 12.2%, 8.3%, and 20.7% variance level in disaster preparedness, recovery, and response respectively. Table 8 presents the convergence and reliability result of the analysis

Furthermore, the discriminant validity result of the study which was assessed through the Fornel and Lacker criterion revealed that the square root of the constructs' AVE were greater than the corresponding correlations of the measures indicating the achievement of discriminant validity in

Table 8

Constructs	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	R2
Disaster Preparedness	DPRE1	0.737	0.599	0.899	0.122
	DPRE2	0.797			
	DPRE3	0.809			
	DPRE5	0.835			
	DPRE6	0.755			
	DPRE7	0.703			
Disaster Recovery	DREC6	0.864	0.816	0.947	0.083
	DREC7	0.924			
	DREC1	0.908			
	DREC9	0.917			
	DREC10	0.614			
Disaster Response	DRES1	0.750	0.607	0.822	0.207
	DRES2	0.822			
	DRES3	0.763			
	DRES6	0.699			
	DRES8	0.667			
Social Media Disaster	SMDPT1	0.806	0.644	0.878	
Planning and Training	SMDPT2	0.711			
	SMDPT3	0.842			
	SMDPT4	0.844			

Note: Composite reliability (CR) = Square of the summation of the factor loadings) {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (square of the error variances)}. Average variances extracted (AVE) = (summation of the square of the factor loadings)/ {(summation of the square of the factor loadings) + (summation of the error variances)

the study indicating the uniqueness of the constructs, not represented by the other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2013). Table 9 presents the Discriminant validity analysis of the study.

Structural Model

This study assessed the structural model of the study as shown in Figure 2 by evaluating the path coefficient of PLS-SEM to test the stated hypotheses of the study. In achieving this, the PLS path modeling multiple regression approach was used to test the influences of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables using the bootstrapping technique in PLS to analyze the path modeling using 384 cases and 5000 bootstrapped samples to ensure that all the model parameters have empirical sampling distribution and standard errors were obtained. The path coefficients were estimated using t-statistics. According to

Table 9 Discriminant validity

	DPRE	DREC	DRES	SMDPT
DPRE	0.774			
DREC	0.239	0.903		
DRES	0.237	0.226	0.779	
SMDPT	0.346	0.264	0.426	0.802

Note: Values in the diagonals represent the squared root of average variance extracted while the other entries (off diagonals) represent the variable correlations.

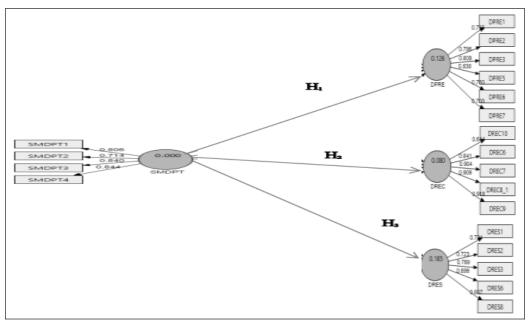


Figure 2. The research model

Churchill Jr. (1979) and Sharma (2000), in a situation where a one-tailed statistical test is conducted, the significance level of t-value of 1% is greater than or equal to 2.326, at 5% is greater or equal to 1.645 while at 10% is greater or equal to 1.282, any t-value lesser than the stated are regarded as not significant.

The result of the standard path coefficient (β), t-value and the decision taken on the hypotheses are presented in Table 10. The findings of the study revealed a significant influence of social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT) on residents' participation in disaster preparedness (SMDPT -> DPRE: β = .245, t = 2.941), recovery (SMDPT -> DREC: β = .241, t = 2.539) and response (SMDPT -> DRES: β = .384, t = 4.262).

DISCUSSION

The objective of this study aimed at investigating the influence of social media disaster planning and training (SMDPT) on the resident's participation in flood disaster management. Social media disaster planning and training is the engagement of the community in public education and emergency preparedness activities, training exercises, and advocacy through social media networks (Yates & Partridge, 2015). Three hypotheses were developed to accomplish this objective and tested in relation to the influence of social media disaster planning and training on resident's participation in flood disaster management (disaster preparedness, response, and recovery). The study found a significant influence of social media disaster planning and training (SMIDPT) on residents' flood disaster preparedness (DPRE), disaster responses (DRES), and disaster recovery (DREC).

The findings of the study imply that a unit increase in social media disaster planning and training will improve flood disaster preparedness by 24.5%; flood disaster recovery by 24.1% and flood disaster response by 38.4% as shown by the standardized beta value of the path coefficients. The findings indicate that social media disaster planning and training has more influence on disaster recovery than both preparedness and response. These findings corroborate the findings of previous researchers such as Ortiz and Ostertag (2014), Palen et al. (2007), and Richter (2012).

Table 10Test of hypotheses

Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Beta	Std. Err	T-Statistics	Decision
H ₀₁	SMDPT -> DPRE	.245	.082	2.941	Significant
H_{02}	SMDPT -> DREC	.241	.094	2.539	Significant
H ₀₃	SMDPT -> DRES	.384	.090	4.262	Significant

Palen et al. (2007) described some citizen-led online forums that emerged following Hurricane Katrina, pointing to the challenges facing the scientific community in helping to produce sociotechnical solutions that addressed the issues of usability and organizational applicability of citizen-generated information. Likewise, Richter (2012) revealed the role of digital communication platforms during another US natural disaster which was Superstorm Sandy in 2012. Occupy Sandy, a grassroots relief effort, was developed by the original members of Occupy Wall Street using the communication networks built by members of the earlier protest camp (Richter, 2012).

Similarly, Richter (2012) explained that peoples' knowledge and attitudes during disaster management had been improved through social media planning and training. In addition, the study has also been supported by Ortiz and Ostertag (2014) who reported that the formation of a community of "Katrina bloggers" and their engagement in a range of offline collective civic activities during the 2005 Hurricane Katrina in the United States (USA), demonstrated that, digital communication technologies including social media platforms facilitated the advent of new social ties and how the Web served as a mobilizing structure enabling individuals to link their civic engagement with collective civic actions. Therefore, it is evident that social media disaster planning and training significantly influence residents' participation in flood management.

SIGNIFICANCE, RECOMMENDATION, AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has established that social media disaster planning and training have a significant influence on flood disaster preparedness, response, and recovery. The study has found support for the Technology, Organization, and Environment theory which posited that the residents' participation through social media influenced disaster management (disaster preparedness, response, and recovery).

It has theoretically been able to contribute to knowledge by conducting its investigation in a flood disaster-prone environment in a developing nation. It has majorly contributed to knowledge by providing evidence in theorizing the optimization of social media for effective management of flood disasters in Nigeria. Findings of the previous studies relating to the significance of social media in flood management have shown that research into resident's use of social network sites in disaster situations especially in a developing country like Nigeria has been limited (Yates & Partridge, 2015). Therefore, this research has been able to contribute to expanding the literature available in the field of flood disaster management. It has excellently, found support for the TOE theory which posited that the residents' participation through social media influenced disaster management (disaster preparedness, response, and recovery).

This study is practically beneficial to the relevant policymakers on disaster management in Nigeria by providing institutional, regulatory, and enforcement frameworks in disaster management, especially with respect to flood disaster management. The study has complemented the efforts of the Federal and States governments of Nigeria such as the National and State Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), Oyo state emergency management agency (OYSEMA), Lagos state emergency management agency (LASEMA), Red Cross Association of Nigeria, Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC), Federal Environment Protection Agency (FEPA), and Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NIMET) towards alleviating flood hazards in a coordinated manner. It has notified stakeholders such as the government, emergency management agencies, and the residents on how to employ social media in flood management.

Recommendations

The descriptive analysis of disaster response (DRES) revealed that managing recovery operations in an organized and effective manner had a mean value of 2.85 indicating that residents of the flood-prone area in Ibadan were undecided regarding the use of social media during flood disaster. Therefore, this study recommends that governments and disaster management agencies should encourage the use of social media in information gathering and dissemination, awareness creation, and promote planning and training across the nation especially among the residents of flood-prone disaster environments.

Conclusion

This study has been able to establish the linkage and relationships between the resident's social media participation and flood disaster management in Nigeria and has tested the relationships in order to provide answers to the aforementioned research questions in relation to the corresponding research objectives stated in the introductory part of this study.

It is revealed in this result that residents' social media experience did not automatically translate into their participation in flood management unless they have undergone the social media disaster planning and training. Therefore, it is concluded that the research objective of this study as highlighted in the research objective part has been achieved.

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Attitude and Behavioral Control: Factors behind Popular Support to Duterte's Drug War

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ABSTRACT

Surveys and polls in the Philippines reveal that there is wide support for President Duterte's Drug War. This study investigates why Filipinos support President Duterte's Drug War Strategy. This paper advances the Theory of Planned Behavior by testing the extent to which Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control affect the intention of a young Filipino to support the Drug War strategy. A self-reported questionnaire survey was conducted to 197 Filipinos enrolled in four universities in Cebu City, Philippines. Linear Regression analysis and Structural Equation Modelling were employed in analyzing the gathered data with the aid of SPSS and Smart PLS. The results of the study reveal that Attitude and Perceived Behavioral Control are the main factors behind the youth's support to President Duterte's Drug War. This implies that strategic intervention in transforming people's attitudes and facilitating the ease in showing support to the activities linked to the drug war are key foci to sustain if not increase, people's support to the drug war policy.

Keywords: Attitude, perceived behavioral control, Philippine Drug War, public support

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INTRODUCTION

The Philippines has been beset by the menacing problem of the illicit drug trade and abuse. In 2015, the Philippine Dangerous Drug Board estimated a total of 1.8 million drug users comprising 1.8% of the total population of the 100.98 million Filipinos (2015 estimates). On the 13th of July 2017, in an interview with CNN Philippines of

the then-chairman of the Dangerous Drug Board, Dionisio Santiago, argued that there were around 3 million drug users in the Philippines (Cabato, 2017).

Project Double Barrel is introduced to address the argued severity of illegal drug use in the Philippines. It has two components: Project Tokhang, which is a strategy that gives a unique distinction to the Philippine Drug War, and the strategy targeting high-value targets. The Project Tokhang or "Knock and Plead" was a strategy adopted from Davao City, the hometown of Rodrigo R. Duterte, the current president of the Philippines (McKirdy, 2016). The second component of the Project Double Barrel is the strategy targeting highvalue targets. High-value targets are those in government positions and government services who were reportedly involved in the illegal drug trade.

Since its implementation, drug operations under President Duterte's Drug War has received numerous criticisms. Kine (2016) stressed out that President Duterte linked the killings of these alleged drugoffenders as the evidence of the success of the Philippine Drug Campaign. Several scholars have described the turn of events after the launching of the President Duterte's War on Drugs to be 'a spectacle of violence' (Reyes, 2016), a 'campaign of repression and executions' (Chapman & Babor, 2017), and quixotic (Bautista, 2017). In a Pulse Asia Survey (September 2017), it was indicated that 73% of Filipinos believed that Extrajudicial killings occured in the conduct of President Duterte's War on Drugs.

However, despite condemnations from the international community and the human rights groups, the Drug War continued. One factor that is to be accounted for the policy's furtherance is the strong support from the public. A Pulse Asia survey in September 2017 revealed that all respondents reported a 100 percent level of awareness about the War on Drugs of Duterte and 88 percent of them were supportive of President Duterte's War on Drugs. The same level of support was obtained across all geographic areas of the Philippines and in all socio-economic classes (Pulse Asia Survey, 2017). It is worth noting that a policy alone could not possibly achieve the intended impacts desired, as it would require 'a large number of people in different situations making decisions and taking actions in concert with policy objectives' (Schneider & Ingram, 1990).

The Philippine War on Drugs, for one, could have been short-lived had it not garnered a wide acceptance and support from the Filipino masses as reflected in the satisfaction ratings of President Duterte. On another poll conducted by Pew Research Center gauging the support of the Filipinos to Duterte's drug war, it was revealed that 78% of Filipinos supported the Philippine Drug War and approved of how President Duterte was handling the issue and 62% believed that the anti-drug campaign was making progress (Aquino, 2017). Also, the majority of the Filipinos from different social classes, 86%, attested that the operations of the Drug campaign were conducted in an orderly manner (Pulse Asia Survey,

2017). Even though it cannot be denied that the Drug War has grown to become a very controversial and divisive topic that discourses on the social media have become toxic (Bautista, 2017) and very reactive, numerous scholars emphasized that the wide support enjoyed by President Duterte, in the Philippines and abroad (Tigno, 2018) had provided a 'popular legitimatization' of President Duterte's Anti-Drug Campaign (Gaspar, 2016). This vigorous support for the President has been analyzed in various analytical techniques; Discursive Institutionalist Analysis (Teehankee, 2016), the violent strong man rule of Duterte, and how he established an 'illiberal populist law and order narrative' (Thompson, 2016a).

Scholarly inquiries range from articles asking about 'How Duterte is as a president' (Holmes & Thompson, 2017), how he made a narrative to incite support (Barrera, 2017), how he became a divisive figure (Tigno, 2018), and on how he was waging a quixotic war (Bautista, 2017). Albeit the existence of literature analyzing the Philippine Drug War, to date, no existing study has looked into an individual-level of analysis to investigate what drives the Filipino citizens to support the Philippine Drug War.

Research and polls focus only on narrow questions such as public perceptions on the Drug War but a deeper analysis of the factors behind public support are yet to be developed. This emboldens the gap of re-emphasizing the importance of public support to policy but also the factors that form this support. This study emerged to identify the factors that have a strong predictive association with the intention of supporting the Drug War Strategies of the Philippine Government. Specifically, the research delves into the individual's intention of supporting the Philippine War on Drugs and the factors behind this behavior. The research modified the Theory of Planned Behavior by Ajzen (1991) to analyze public support in a deeper psychological lens.

METHODS

The study is a quantitative explanatory study, advancing the Theory of Planned Behavior to analyze the factors behind the strong public support to President Duterte's Drug War Strategies in the Philippines. A survey was conducted and the instrument was carefully crafted from a pre-testing that was conducted. The data gathering was conducted from December 2017 to January 2018. A total of 194 responses were gathered from university students enrolled in one of the top four universities in Cebu City, Philippines. The gathered data were analyzed using IBM SPSS (Version 21) and SMART PLS (Version 3). Model Fitness Analysis provided by SMART PLS (Version 3) was used to evaluate the fitness of the model and regression analysis was employed to identify the extent of association of Political Trust and Attitude and of Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control to Behavioral Intention.

The research locale of the study was Cebu City, Philippines. Cebu City was identified by the President Duterte, in a speech he made in the Philippine Councilors' League 10th National Congress, to be the top city with the highest drug rate in the country. An interview with the Director of the Philippine Drug Enforcement Agency in Central Visayas (PDEA-7) explained that the location of Cebu had made it a transshipment port of illegal drugs because it had access to almost all the ports in the Philippines, most importantly in Mindanao and Visayas (Mayol et al., 2017). Hence, there is an intensified effort on drug enforcement in Cebu.

The respondents of the study were a purposive-convenience sample of 194 university students enrolled in one of the four top universities in Cebu City (Rankings based on the number of the Center of Excellence and Center of Developments Programs). All 194 students were enrolled in the Bachelor Program of Political Science in their respective universities for the second semester of Academic Year 2017-2018. The main reason behind the choice of respondents is that political awareness and knowledge of the Drug War are vital as the perception and intentions of the students must come from an informed understanding of the Drug War issue.

Limitations of the study include the number of respondents and the administrative restrictions to the conduct of random sampling based on university policies. The number of respondents is relatively small as there were only two-year levels in all universities, and in all programs in the Philippines due to the K + 12 educational reform. Also, the study employed a self-reported survey which means the social

desirability element, or how the respondents want to be perceived based on their answers, is a potential threat to the conclusions made.

Hypotheses

In this research, three variables that are associated with the intention-formation to support the Drug War: the attitudes of the students, subjective norm, and their perceived control towards supporting the Drug War. The attitude of the students is also theorized to be associated with the trust of the students to the political actors that are linked to the Philippine Drug War. An elaboration of how every construct is operationally defined and utilized in this research is presented below.

The dependent variable in this research is Behavioral Intent. It is the best predictor of actual use or actual performance of a particular behavior as individuals are expected to act and behave in accordance with their intention (Otieno et al., 2016; Pierce et al., 2014). It is hypothesized that the more favorable the attitudes of the students to the War on Drugs strategies, and the stronger the social influence to the behavior of supporting the Drug War strategies, and the greater the perceived control and ease of the students in supporting the Drug War, the more likely will a student form intentions of supporting the Drug War.

Attitude is defined to be a construct determined by beliefs about the outcomes of behavior and the evaluation of these outcomes; this evaluation refers to the perceived positive and negative consequences in the performance of the behavior (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Otieno et al., 2016). In this study, Attitude is measured by determining whether the student find it favorable or unfavorable to support the Drug War Strategies. To be favorable indicates that the student is amenable to not only the Drug War but also to the outcome of supporting the Drug War.

Hypothesis 1: Attitude positively affects the intent to support the 'War on Drugs' strategies

The second TPB predictor is Subjective Norm. Subjective Norm is a construct generated from the beliefs about how others feel the individual should behave (Normative beliefs) and the motivation of the individual to comply with his/her perceived expectations from others as this produces social pressure to intentionally perform the behavior (Otieno et al., 2016). In this study, subjective norm refers to the influence of families, friends, and significant others to a person's intention of supporting the Drug War.

Hypothesis 2: Subjective norm positively affects the intent to support the 'War on Drugs' strategies.

The third construct is Perceived Behavioral Control has two components emerging from an individual's control beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). These components are Self-Efficacy, the confidence of an individual in his/her ability to perform the intended behavior; and Controllability, the individual's control over his/her performance, or non-performance of the behavior (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Ceder & Chowdhury, 2013). Ceder and Chowdhury (2013) argued that the relationship between intention and behavior was strengthened when an individual had a high level of control. However, when control beliefs are weak, the individual is less likely to have the intention of performing the behavior. In this study, Perceived Behavioral Control refers to the students' perception of ease or difficulty in intending to support the War on Drugs Strategies.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived Behavioral control positively affects the intent to support the 'War on Drugs' strategies.

The added construct is Political trust. Political Trust is defined as a basic evaluative orientation toward the government founded on how well the government is operating according to people's normative expectations (Halapuu et al., 2013). In this research, it specifically refers to the trust of the students to the actors/institutions that are involved in the Philippine Drug War; the President, the police officers, the policymakers, and the legal system. Political trust is theorized to influence the attitude of the students. The more positive the political trust, the more positive the attitude of the students.

Hypothesis 4: Political trust positively affects the attitude towards the intent to support the 'War on Drugs' strategies.

Through the construction and employment of these hypotheses, the research aims to contribute to the field of behavioral public administration and policy studies illustrated in the proposed research model in Figure 1. Dyah Mutiarin, Queenie Pearl V. Tomaro, David N. Almarez, Ken M. Haictin and Sakir

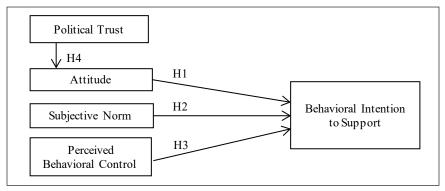


Figure 1. Proposed model

RESULTS

In brief, the age of the majority of the respondents rests between 18 and 20, and the majority of the respondents were females. Twenty (20) percent were enrolled in the University of San Carlos, 26 percent were enrolled in the University of the Philippines –Cebu, 25 percent were from the University of San Jose Recoletos, and 29 percent were from Cebu Normal University. All students were enrolled in the Bachelor Program of Political Science at their respective universities.

Several inner model measurements were tested to ensure that the indicators used for the analysis are strong and consistent as the measures. Table 1 shows empirical evidence of the indicator items' loadings and the constructs' AVE, Composite Reliability values, Rho Values, and Cronbach's Alpha values.

As presented in Table 1, item loadings of the indicators range from 0.661 to 0.945, which ensures good indicator reliability of all indicators used for the analysis. With regards to the Convergent Validity of the indicator items, the Average Variance Extracted or AVE was presented. To confirm that convergent validity is established or that the indicators of every construct are related and coherent, an AVE of 0.50 or greater must be achieved (Chin, 1998; Höck & Ringle, 2006). Composite Reliability levels were also presented to confirm the internal consistency of the indicator items. Good composite reliability levels must be 0.70 or greater (Gefen et al., 2000), and as presented in the table, the CR levels of the indicator items range from 0.898 to 0.969, which are considerably high.

The Dillon-Goldstein Rho, argued to be a better indicator than Cronbach's alpha (Chin, 1998; Mikolajczak et al., 2014), is also provided in Table 2. It can be observed that all Rho alpha levels are above 0.7 which indicate good composite reliability and unidimensionality (Ravand & Baghaei, 2016). Looking into Cronbach's Alpha, it is shown in the table that all indicator items have very high-reliability levels ranging from .846 to .958 and these high values reflect their validity and reliability. As evidenced by the values presented above, it is argued that the indicators used are strong, reliable, and fit for measuring the constructs.

	Items	Loadings ^a	AVE ^b	CR°	Rho_A ^d	Cron A ^e
Trust	T2	0.944	0.84	0.94	0.91	.90
	Т3	0.922				
	T4	0.874				
ATT	A1	0.939	0.89	0.97	0.96	.96
	A2	0.945				
	A3	0.945				
	A4	0.945				
SUB.N.	SN1	0.678	0.67	0.89	0.96	.85
	SN2	0.824				
	SN3	0.889				
	SN4	0.878				
PBC	PB1	0.885	0.69	0.90	0.88	.85
	PB2	0.857				
	PB3	0.661				
	PB4	0.901				
INT	INT1	0.917	0.89	0.97	0.99	.96
	INT2	0.956				
	INT3	0.94				
	INT4	0.955				

Table 1	
Measurement	model

Table 1

Item removed: Indicator item is below 0.5= TRU1

a. All Item Loadings > 0.5 indicate Indicator Reliability (Hulland, 1999).

- All Average Variance Extracted (AVE) > 0.5 indicate Convergent Reliablity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981)
- c. All Composite Reliability (CR) > 0.7 indicate Internal Consistency (Gefen et al., 2000)
- d. All Rho_A > 0.7 indicate composite reliability and unidimensionality (Ravand & Baghaei, 2016).

e. All Cronbach's Alpha >.7 indicate Indicator Reliability (Nunnally, 1978)

To test the model's fitness, the Smart PLS Version 3 model fitness analysis was conducted. The main indicators for a well-fitted and well-structured model are the following: a Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) of less than 0.10 or 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998) and an NFI of 0.90 (Lohmöller, 1989). It can be seen in Table 2 below that with an SRMR of 0.088 and an NFI of 0.838, the model failed to meet the criteria values of a good-fitting model.

Table 2	
Model fit d	nalysis results

	Saturated Model	
SRMR	0.088	
NFI	0.838	

Although the model failed to pass the fit indices, it is still important to assess the regression weights or path coefficients of the variables corresponding to the hypotheses of the research. The assessment of the hypothesis relationships is indicated by standardized regression weights/ path coefficients of at least 0.100, which should be significant (p-value) at a level of 0.05 (Henseler et al., 2009). The effect size must also be evaluated to know how meaningful the effect is if there is any.

As presented in Table 3, three of the four hypotheses were supported by the data and the findings of the research. The data revealed that among the three variables that are theoretically hypothesized to influence Behavioral Intention (B. Intention), only subjective norm has no impact on the behavioral intention with a regression weight of 0.034, with a p-value of 0.365 (Not Significant). This means that Hypothesis 2 is refuted. There are existing scholarly works that provide explanations on why the students' intentions of supporting the Drug War strategies are not influenced by the students' social circle. Several studies have investigated the influence of public opinion to people's policy judgments (Furth-Matzkin & Sunstein, 2018), and although individuals fall towards conforming to public opinion, some researches have argued that individuals may tend to show reactance (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Furth-Matzkin & Sunstein, 2018). Furthermore, another

notable research argued that counterconformity towards the social influence from the people surrounding the individuals might be accounted for from having a strong moral basis of attitude (Hornsey et al., 2003) which reinforces the insignificant effect of the subjective norm in this research.

Attitude, on the other hand, is observed to have a strong impact on behavioral intention. This is evidenced by its high regression weight of 0.735, significant at less than 0.001 level, resonating the argument that Attitudes are important as they may translate into actions and behaviors (Crawley, 2009) which could reinforce the theoretical ties of Attitude and Behavioral Intentions. Furthermore, the influence of Attitude to Behavioral Intention revealed in this research is also in synch with the results of the study of Pierce et al. (2014) which stressed out that attitude was important to society's acceptance of new policies and that cultivating positive attitude would, on a great extent, aided the formation of society's acceptance of a policy (Pierce et al., 2014). Similarly, Cordano and Frieze (2000), in their study on pollution reduction preferences of environmental managers in US companies, found a strong relationship

Hypothesis relationship	Standardized regression weights	Hypothesis supported?	p-value
Attitude -> Intention	0.735	Yes	< 0.001**
Sujective Norm -> intention	0.034	No	0.365
Perceived Behavioral Control -> Intention	0.218	Yes	< 0.001**
Trust -> Attitude	0.904	Yes	< 0.001**

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Table 3 *Hypotheses test* between attitude and behavioral intent; many environmental managers had positive attitudes about pollution prevention, thus, favoring pollution prevention activities. Dunlap et al. (2000) and Fielding et al. (2008) also linked positive attitude towards environmental activism, may it be motivation to enter environmental groups and/or self-identity as an environmental activist, and motivating the individual to engage in environmental activism. Along the same line, during the anti-drug efforts of U.S.A. in the Latin America, in the Belizean context, the people show favorable attitude in supporting drug war as well as strong drug education, and even increasing criminal sanctions and the size of the police force (Wiegand & Bennet, 1993).

Perceived Behavioral Control also has an impact as it projects a 0.218 regression weight at a p-value of less than 0.001. This implies that the greater the ease of supporting the drug war on the perspective of the students, the greater their intention of supporting the Anti-Drug campaign.

Political Trust is reported to have a strong influence on Attitude as evidenced by a regression weight of 0.904, significant at less than 0.001. This implies that the more positive the trust of the students to the political actors linked to the Drug War, the more positive the attitude of the students would be towards supporting the Drug War. The same pattern is observed in the study of Finkel (1985) where voting for national elections was both caused and affected by the voter's "external" political efficacy or the belief that authorities or a regime were responsive to their attempts to influence the system. Balch (1974) closely linked this belief to feelings of trust to the authorities. Additionally, low-level political trust in institutions permeates (legal) permissive attitude and 'lenient attitude' (Dalton, 2004 as cited by Marien & Hooghe, 2011) towards law-breaking behavior (Marien & Hooghe, 2011).

This means that only Hypotheses 1, 3, and 4 are supported by the findings of the research. This implies that Attitude and Perceived Behavioral Control positively influences behavioral attention while Political Trust has a positive association with Attitude. With this, it is now consequential to assess the effect size of the predictor variables (Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control) to explaining the endogenous variables (behavioral intention/intention to support).

Finally, the Regression Square which is also known to be the coefficient of determination emerged to have the following values: for behavioral intention, it is revealed to have a regression square of 0.933 which means that the variables in this research account for 93 percent of the variance while the remaining 7 percent can be explained by other variables. Attitude having hypothesized to have a relationship with Political Trust emerged to have a regression square of 0.817 which translates that 81.7 percent of the variance of Attitude is accounted from Political Trust while the remaining 18.3 percent can be explained by other variables.

DISCUSSION

The discussion tackles attitude and the influence of political trust by unpacking the drug menace portrayal and the support given to it, which includes to whom such support is given to. This is to understand the positive attitude of the youth vis-a-vis the broader public's support to Duterte's war on drugs.

Firstly, the public acquiescence to extrajudicial killings has become a concern since this could be misinterpreted as a public mandate for killings (Lamchek, 2017). Although survey says that 73 percent of the Filipinos believed that extrajudicial killings exist, 88 percent indicated their support to the drug war (Pulse Asia Survey, 2017) but 71 percent, in a different survey, believed that drug suspects should be captured alive (Social Weather Station, 2016).

The ambivalence of the Filipino populace as shown in the surveys implies an attempt to balance moral values by affirmations of the value of life (Lamchek, 2017) while at the same time addressing 'latent anxieties' (Curato, 2016b). Latent anxiety refers to the unheard shared distress among communities that have become mundane but still worrisome (Curato, 2016b). In this sense, the community has always been aware of the drug menace. The drug war addresses this 'latent anxiety' by materializing the actions that the community was unable to do.

Quimpo (2017) noted that this latent anxiety of broad popular concern was blown out of proportion. He explained it through securitization, the creation of a 'dangerous other' (Curato, 2016b) that was at the moment the most pressing threat to the national security and the society (Crick, 2012; Emmers, 2003; Linnemann, 2012; Quimpo, 2017) over and above poverty, social disparities, corruption, insurgency, among others. The construction of this 'dangerous other' reach up to locating the Philippines into the brink of becoming as 'narco-state' (Aruguay, 2017; Curato & Ong, 2018; Gaspar, 2016; Hernandez, 2017; Thompson, 2016b) which warrants an urgent move from the government. Despite criticisms, Duterte successfully securitized illegal drugs (Quimpo, 2017) and still enjoyed the astounding public satisfaction rate of his administration vis-à-vis garnering 78 percent satisfaction on his drug war (Social Weather Station, 2018).

Secondly, political trust is evident to have a strong influence on attitude. This is because Filipino citizens considered the police and the courts as unreliable and corrupt (Coronel, 2016; Johnson & Fernquest, 2018). Taub (2016) and David (2016) argued that the demand for a leader to have the will for decisive action to provide security arose from the people's frustrations to the government's inability to providing basic security and in the weaknesses of the justice system. Consequently, the Filipinos diverted their trust due to their frustrations to the court systems that were described to be only catering to the elite (Maboloc, 2018). This low-level political trust in institutions permeates permissive and lenient attitude (Dalton, 2004 as cited by Marien & Hooghe, 2011) towards law-breaking behavior (Marien & Hooghe, 2011). Another factor is that Duterte's ascension to national power is explained through populism (Curato, 2016b, 2016a; Holmes, 2017; Johnson & Fernquest, 2018; McCoy, 2017a, 2017b; Thompson, 2016a) or through "bossism" or as a local strongman (Quimpo, 2017). He is infamous for propelling relative peace and economic prosperity to Davao City which is his exhibit of being the 'man of action' (Quimpo, 2017) that the Filipinos deserve. He has capitalized this image which is further burnished by his disdain towards political and business elites (Malakunas, 2016). Tan (2016) expanded this image through Duterte's "tatay" (father) charisma that was strong and firm and only wanted to protect his children. A sign in Davao City which says: "Rody Duterte. The "People's last hope" reverberates to the whole Philippine archipelago (Johnson & Fernquest, 2018). Hence, Duterte and his policies manage to hold support from the people.

On the other hand, the Perceived Behavioral Control of the respondents, albeit significant, is little, which is consistent with the study of Lichtenstein et al. (1990) on behavioral prediction on voting. Perceived Behavioral Control has little, nonetheless significant, the effect on predicting behavioral intent on voting. Voters with high perceived control expressed high intentions of doing so but had low expectations of doing the actual voting. In terms of organizational Information Security Policies (ISP), Aurigemma and Panko's (2012) examination of ISP models shows a significant contribution of employees' Perceived Behavioral Control and/or self-efficacy to their behavioral intent of complying with ISPs.

The youth, favored by their zeitgeist, shows positive results on Perceived Behavioral Control which is significant yet limited. This is elaborated through their restricted, if not non-existent, involvement in the policy. There are two explanations why spaces for community participation in rehabilitating drug offenders are narrow for the populace. This is because, first, drug users are antagonized as threats to the survival of the Philippines' posterity (Quimpo, 2017), however, the dangers they posed did not warrant the sustained attention of the state. Drug users are always associated with crimes and violence (Blendon, 1998; Wiegand & Bennet, 1993), and that they are "undependable" (Curato, 2016b) in doing their assigned works. Drug suspects are collectively labeled as *adik* (drug addicts), not human beings (Bautista, 2017), good for nothing, criminals, rapists, and murderers. They are found dead on streets and roadsides with cardboard signs on them and sometimes wrapped with masking tape (Simangan, 2017). Written on these cardboards are the distinction of 'us' and 'them' (the dangerous other) which traps Filipinos into moral dilemmas (Simangan, 2017). But the dominant idea floated by the state - drug addict is a threat and not human - limits active participation of the populace for possible rehabilitation of drug suspects.

Moreover, discussion in public and even social media platforms are polarized. Attempts to correct erroneous choices presented by the administration did not have a promising change in the masses' perception. Because of this, supporters of the drug war were called 'blind supporters' and/ or 'dutertards' (a derogatory term that refers to Duterte supporters); and that their silence makes them accomplices of the on-going slaughter of their fellow Filipinos. This only shows that subjective norms have a little and insignificant effect on people's support of the drug war. Instead, the public showed reactance and retaliated those who call out and express opinions about Duterte and the drug war and tag them as 'yellowtards' (a derogatory term associated to Liberal Party supporters), 'intellectual elitists', and 'biased human rights supporters' who are detached from the realities of poor Filipinos (Simangan, 2017).

The state's inability to create a policy that incorporates community participation made interventions and solutions 'privatized' - "it was a problem resolved among neighbors, sometimes the local parish, sometimes NGOs and sometimes the barangay captain. The recurring problem itself was never solved with finality" (Curato, 2016b, p. 100). It is difficult to find space for participation in helping to rehabilitate drug abusers since the policy of the administration is narrowed to policemen and other authorities (Johnson & Fernquest, 2018). Moreover, the government has shown reluctance to helping drug suspects saying that shabu (methamphetamine) addicts cannot be rehabilitated (Barrera, 2017).

The Philippines is caught flatfooted by the drug war; it has less than 50 accredited rehabilitation facilities, and scarce drug counselors and doctors to assess patients (Cousins, 2016; Hechanova et al., 2018). Also, the Comprehensive Dangerous Drugs Act focuses less on enforcement of law and order and more on preventing drug use and rehabilitating drug dependents; however, while drug use is considered as a health problem but the government seems less than ready and willing (Cousins, 2016). Surrenderees have been forced to take dance classes - Zumba - forced exercise, forced labor, and forced marching or released without help, evidence-based treatment for surrenderees was lacking (Cousins, 2016; Hechanova et al., 2018).

Moreover, there is a prevailing stigma of drug users and seeking treatment. Hechanova et al. (2018) noted that the reluctance of opening up to strangers feared that seeing professionals might misinterpret them of being crazy, and the fear of tarnishing the name of the family were barriers to possible community-based interventions; thus, advises for these drug users come from family, friends, and other trusted persons.

With the limited avenues for participation, students still believe that the Drug War is fair and justified, bringing the discussion on how the factors are interlinked together. On Attitude, students support the drug war because they believe that the aims of the drug war are 'good', and this links back to hypothesis 1 positing that a strong positive attitude can form behavioral intentions, in this case, support towards the drug war strategies. This is also reinforced by the significant but low effect of the

variable perceived behavioral control. This signifies that despite a perceived difficulty of showing support to the drug war, there remains to be a positive attitude from the respondents indicating that the intention to support is mainly driven by what individuals believe to be good and fair (Attitude) and not necessarily, by what is easy. This could be because the drug war startegies are mainly government-led and since Political Trust is high, especially to the President, this could be an argued link on why Attitude towards supporting the drug war remains positive despite not being able to participate fully. Further, due to a strong moral basis of attitude, as evidenced by attitude's large and significant effect on people's intentions of supporting the drug war, it is argued that individuals experience counter-conformity towards the social influence of the people surrounding them. This has been purported in the study of Hornsey et al., (2003) explaining the link between attitude and subjective norm.

Considering the cases laid above, with all the complexities of information,

rhetoric, counter-claims, present conditions and moral values weighed together, the respondents feel the ease of supporting the drug war since it has become one of the most pressing social issues that the country faces. Nevertheless, the respondents - being political science students - affording them the needed faculties to go beyond presented realities - have control over their intentions of supporting to avoid bestowing whimsical support to the drug war.

CONCLUSION

Primarily, the study sought to investigate the extent of the relationship between Attitude and Political Trust, and between Attitude, Subjective Norm, Perceived Behavioral Control, and the Behavioral Intention of supporting the strategies of the Philippine Drug War. It also aims to identify the extent of the support that the students would willingly partake to aid the enforcement of the Philippine War on Drugs. Based on the results revealed in the preceding discussions, this research proposes the Public Support Model, as illustrated in Figure 2.

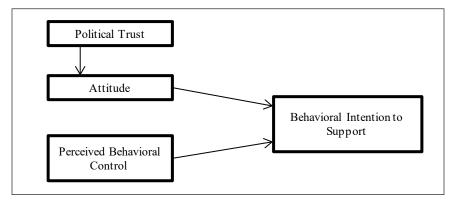


Figure 2. Public support model

The conclusion shows that what influences the students' intention of supporting the Philippine Drug War is their Attitude towards supporting it, and their Perceived Control over their intention to support it. These are based on the results showing that Attitude and Perceived Behavioral Control are crucial factors for the formation of the students' intentions in supporting the campaign of the Philippine Drug War. In general, Subjective Norm revealed to have no impact on the intention formation. In other words, despite the support of the people surrounding the students, this does not motivate, nor influence the students to support the Anti-Drug Efforts of the Philippine government. Attitude, however, is a strong predictor of intention, and this is combined with the small predictive effect of the variable, Perceived behavioral control. This result means that the more positive the attitude of the students towards the strategies enforced in the Philippine Drug War, and the higher their control over their decision to support it, leads to increased inclination of the students to support the War on Drugs Strategies of the Duterte Administration.

Also, since Attitude revealed to be strongly associated with Political Trust, this signifies that the higher the trust of the students towards the institutions which has authority over the Philippine Drug War (President, Police Officers, Legal System, and Policy Makers), the more positive their attitude will be as evidenced by the strong relationship between Political Trust and Attitude. This implies that changing public attitudes towards the War, re-establishing and strengthening trust in political institutions, and sustaining positive attitude towards the campaign against illegal drugs are all important for the continuity of the Philippine Drug War Strategies.

Additionally, since Perceived Behavioral Control emerged to have a small but existing impact on the intention of supporting the Anti-Drug efforts it is therefore imperative to look into the conditions that facilitate the show of support of people to the policy. The more facilitating the conditions are, participation in community-based drug programs, for instance, the more support people would give to the Drug War policy.

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Scandal and Malay Politics: A Question of Dignity Against Anwar Ibrahim and Azmin Ali

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ABSTRACT

Political scandal has become very common in a democratic country as political rivals bid to discredit one another. An open and free media allows politicians from different sides to publicize alleged wrongdoings by their opponents. There are different scandals ranging from financial, political to moral scandals. Using dignity as a framework, this paper argues that moral or sex scandals are most effective to defeat a Malay politician in Malaysia because a section of the Malay population looks upon virtuous conduct to evaluate the capability of a leader. Specifically, this paper uses homosexual accusations against Anwar Ibrahim and Azmin Ali to show that this is the type of scandal that is convenient to bring into question their dignity. The paper concludes that after the same tactic is used over the decades, it appears that voters are reaching a saturation point, especially among middle-class Malays. *Keywords:* Anwar Ibrahim, Azmin Ali, indignity, malay politics, moral scandal

INTRODUCTION

Scandal is part and parcel of politics these days, especially in a democratic country with relative freedom of access to various media outlets. Malaysia, being a hybrid regime for much of its history since independence, has

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also seen its fair share of scandals throughout the decades. It is considered a hybrid regime because as a dominant-party system since independence, Malaysia has never been a fully consolidated democracy; yet, it still has democratic instruments as means of governance (Case, 2005). While there are many types of scandals that range from financial, political to moral scandals, this paper argues that when it comes to Malay politics, the concept of dignity is pivotal in the creation of scandals to bring down a political opponent. Arguably the biggest scandal in Malaysia so far is the ongoing

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court case on 1 Malaysia Development Berhad (1MDB) which is considered the world's biggest financial scandal. However, as a financial scandal, it does little to tarnish Najib Razak's reputation among the Malay population (Firdaws, 2016). When Mahathir Mohamad re-entered politics in 2016, he claimed to have done so in order to save Malaysia from Najib's kleptocratic rule, and not necessarily because of Najib's undignified character (Welsh, 2018).

Malaysia is of course not immune to moral scandals. For example, Anwar Ibrahim saw the end of his political career in the ruling United Malay National Organization (UMNO) following his attempts to address alleged corruption by Mahathir Mohamad in 1998. For that, he was accused of sodomy and then put into prison for abuse of power. A decade later, he was accused of the same crime, but this time under the administration of Najib Razak. In 2019, then Parti Keadilan Rakyat's (PKR) deputy president and Anwar's former protégé, Azmin Ali, was implicated in a gay sex video scandal. This raises the question: why was the same scandal repeating itself every decade in Malaysia?

Malays make up a significant majority of Malaysia's 32 million population at 68.8% (this figure includes indigenous people such as the *Orang Asli* and the natives of Sabah and Sarawak called the *bumiputras*). As a people, the Malay as an ethnic group has its own set of values that establishes them apart from other Malaysians such as the Chinese and Indians. Values that are held in esteem by Malays include a much more traditional respect for conservative family values. Therefore, when a scandal breaks that purports the politician to have acted in a less dignified manner according to social norms, this requires much more effort on the part of the politician to try to clear his name (usually it is a male as there is a disproportionately small number of female politicians in Malaysia).

Every community would have its own shared values and norms. For example, the British are known for their stoicism while Americans are famous for their directness in communication. As a community, Malays in Malaysia are known for certain attributes such as reverence towards their elders, humility, circuitousness, obedience, hospitability, and politeness (Zamani, 2003; Zawawi, 2008). Supposed politeness in the Malay community can be seen in their behaviour and speech especially in their attitude to avoid conflict at any cost. This politeness also comes from a desire to preserve a person's dignity from being accused of souring a relationship (Brown & Levinson, 1978)-maintaining harmony is another important value to the Malays. Thus, in Malay politics, one effective way to accuse a political rival of being incompetent is to attack his or her dignity through actions that are considered un-Malay.

This paper will proceed with a thorough literature review on scandals and scandalogy by scholars from various background. Different scandals affect politicians differently depending on multiple factors such as social norms, timing, and elite role. The literature review also fits dignity into the larger question of scandals. This is followed by the three main case studies, namely Anwar Ibrahim's two sodomy cases and Azmin Ali's gay sex video. There is a short description on similar accusations that were used against other politicians before Anwar to show that this is not a recent phenomenon. Finally, the paper concludes by claiming that the people is reaching or close to reaching a saturation point of accepting this same information of supposed homosexual acts by the same politician.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on scandal, or sometimes called scandalogy (Brenton, 2013), covers mostly the different effects of scandals on a politician's longevity in office. In his seminal work, Thompson (2000) defined "political scandal" as a moral transgression that must be condemned by certain groups and might cause damage to the reputation of the individual in question. According to Thompson (2000), the apparent rise in exposure to scandals since the middle 20th century is due to increased visibility of leaders, the professionalization of the media industry and technological innovation.

It is generally accepted that scandal is negatively perceived because it brings into question the integrity of a public office holder. However, the extent to which a scandal affects the position of a public figure depends on the nature of the scandal, the timing of the scandal, and the culture in which the scandal erupted. On average, politicians will lose support from the outbreak of a scandal (Dimock & Jacobson, 1995; Welch & Hibbing, 1997) even though the politician's party may not necessarily be affected (Von Sikorski, 2014).

Given the frequency of political scandals in democratic countries, voters may turn to elites to gauge the importance of the scandalous issue being debated in the media (Woessner, 2005). Using two experimental designs, Woessner (2005) argued that in the absence of obvious incompetency from a scandal, elite framing of the scandal played an important role in affecting voters' evaluation of a president's performance. Using the Lewisnky affair during Clinton's administration as a case study, Woessner (2005) explained how Democrats framed the scandal as personal misconduct whereas Republicans framed the scandal as criminal obstruction of justice. Conflicting messages such as these appear to have little effect on the less ideological (Zaller, 1992). Similarly, affected parties in Malaysia may use the term "gutter politics" to dismiss scandals of a private nature. Nevertheless, moral scandal continues to be prominent in Malay politics because the unsavoury character of a politician affects his dignity in the community.

The conception of dignity is multifaceted as it can be understood from legal, psychological, cultural, and political perspectives. Furthermore, dignity is a concept that is discussed prominently in religious texts such as the Bible and the Qur'an, and in the philosophical works of Cicero, Locke, and Kant. As a starting point, it is possible to go back to as far as ancient times where dignity is associated with a person's role in society (Hayry, 2004). We may also look at Aristotle's description of honour and virtue (Putnam, 1995). Honour, or dignity, as conceived about 2500 years ago is dependent on a person's stature in society. In other words, a person's external factors and accomplishments would deem him to be honourable among his peers and thus improves his reputation in society. The same idea is applied to understand contemporary Malay politics where honour is synonymous with dignity.

The above conception of dignity is of course different from that discussed by Kant some 250 years ago whereby he argued that dignity belongs to all persons by virtue of being human. As a species, humans are unique in our ability for conscience and autonomy. Dignity is for all who can differentiate moral right from wrong. Due to their ability to make choices, human beings are afforded dignity and rights. Rights are human claims from the state, and they can be inalienable or sometimes conditional. Since rights are dependent on human's relations with state authorities, rights do not exist in the state of nature; this calls into question whether rights are intrinsic to humans or if it is in fact a social construct. As the entity that can limit our freedom and autonomy, states have to ensure our rights are protected in order to safeguard our dignity (Donnelly, 1982). Thus, instead of being an intrinsic value to humans, dignity may be considered as a goal that depends on making morally right decisions. For a communitarian society such as the Malay community in Malaysia, duties and obligations are prioritized goals

over that of individual rights (Howard & Donnelly, 1986).

However, it is incorrect to define the Malays in a monolithic fashion. Before the coming of Islam and the importation of its epistemology to the Malay Archipelago, the Malays have already developed a more progressive and individualistic outlook based on their cosmopolitan nature in the middle of the east-west trade route. Contemporarily, we see the differentiation of Malays into an urban-rural divide. Those belonging in the urban middle class are more likely to be concerned with abuse of power whereas those belonging in the lower income group bracket are more easily swayed by moral scandals. Since moral scandals are directed towards the more conservative group that prioritizes the wellbeing of the community over individual rights, this paper employs a value-based instead of rights-based understanding of dignity.

This paper uses Mattson and Clark's (2011) conception of dignity as a framework to guide the discussion on dignity and scandal in Malay politics. According to them, the lack of a clear conception of dignity disallows a proper policy response from relevant authorities. They conceptualize four themes relating to dignity, namely (1) as a metaphysical explanation, (2) a virtuous conduct, (3) a stereotyping of the "other", and (4) a subjective experience. This study focuses on "virtuous conduct" relating to dignity. When a scandal arises out of unethical conduct, the person that is involved in the scandal would have

compromised his dignity. As mentioned, Malays hold high regards towards various values and voters' perception of undignified actions by Malay politicians would cause a massive scandal.

In this respect, it is worth reproducing the observation of Mattson and Clark:

We recommend viewing dignity as a commonwealth of individually assessed well-being, shaped by relationships with others, affected by the physical world, and framed in terms of values...Conceiving of human dignity as a commonwealth of subjectively experienced value production and enjoyment has many practical policy implications. (2011, p. 303).

Framing dignity as value-based instead of rights-based justifies the application of this conceptual framework to the argument of this paper which is that indiscretion is linked to a loss of dignity to Malay politicians and possibly put their position in jeopardy. Weber's ethic of responsibility also stipulates that in a world of value pluralism, there is a need to accept responsibility based on certain values (Starr, 1999). Values and dignity are shaped by human relations and therefore the perception of indignity is a social construct that may create volatility in a communitarian culture of the Malays in Malaysia.

Based on the theme of virtuous conduct, dignity is constructed as when a person acts in a socially acceptable behaviour (Shultziner, 2003). Politicians, being in positions of power in the public eye, are always expected to portray good behaviour. However, in an experiment based on a national survey in the United States (Doherty et al., 2011), it was found that while a moral scandal might affect a politician's personal evaluation, it does not affect the politician's job evaluation unless abuse of power was committed while in office. Nevertheless, in a communitarian society, a dignified person would be someone who fulfils his or her duties and society's expectations on him or her. Understanding this, Malay politicians have used a rival's ostentatious bad behaviour as proof of his incapability to lead the country. In other words, dignity, or the lack there-of, has been used over the decades in the contestation of Malay politics. It is not so much the Malay community that politicises the concept of dignity but the political elites who regularly manipulate an opponent's moral scandal to be in line with their defective view that dignity is not afforded to all equally but to those who showed virtuous conduct.

Without solid dignity, it is difficult to claim one's competence as a leader. Therefore, elites have also used political scandals as a strategy to block an opponent's political goals without having to mobilize the electorate (Ginsberg & Shefter, 1999). A behaviour is considered scandalous if it helps one side of the conflicting parties. As such, political scandal is unique by virtue of the political construction of its exposure in a 'hyperpoliticized' society defined by constant political contestation (Welch, 2007). Using examples of Watergate, IranContra, and again, the Lewinsky affairs, Welch argued that the exposure of a scandal is constructed by powerful interests and over time, political scandals have been accepted as "normal" due to ongoing contention by the powers-that-be. Even in a country such as Malaysia, the people have taken scandals of a private nature less seriously over recent years because the exposure is viewed to have been constructed by rival Malay politicians for political gains.

It is not to say that scandals are no longer effective in Malaysia to bring into question the dignity of a Malay politician. As argued by McDermott et al. (2015), it is the presence of hypocrisy that worsens the reputation of a public office holder. Through the usage of survey experiment, they showed that respondents react more negatively towards politicians who showcase inconsistency between his or her behaviour and explicitly stated beliefs. Hypocrisy brings into question a politician's ability to perform his or her job because to legitimize a person's rule, that person must be presented as a defender of social norms. Deception lies at the heart of people's disapproval of hypocritical politicians (Runciman, 2010). For Malay politicians who claim to represent Malay and Muslim interests, when they are caught in a compromising situation that is against the values of the community, it puts their career at risk.

Another factor in understanding the effects of political scandal on a candidate's prospect is the role of timing and repetition. Mitchell (2014) argued that a scandal introduced towards the end of a political campaign had less negative consequence because voters had had the time to learn about a candidate and his or her policy. Another conclusion by Mitchell (2014) was that without new information, there was a saturation threshold where repeated references to the scandal would no longer have any impact; thus, it is better for a politician caught in a scandal to provide complete information from the beginning.

The literature on political scandal is of course not limited to the context of the United States. For example, Esser and Hartung (2004) provided a thorough review of scandals in Germany from the time of the Weimar Republic. An interesting point was made from the juxtaposition between Germany and countries such as the United States and Britain where scandal of a private nature is absent in Germany due to the country's civil law which protects the private sphere. In a study on Nordic countries, Herman (2018) argued that 'talk scandal' by populist leaders had led to a power struggle with the liberal media and mainstream parties. This is a sign of rising challenge to liberal democracies in the Nordics. In South Korea, Min (2013) wrote that the 2007 scandal involving the BBK stock price manipulation was simply one of many factors affecting a voter's decision in the presidential election. In other words, supporters would continue to vote for "corrupt" candidate despite him or her facing a scandal if the candidate is closer to a voter's preference. We could understand Najib Razak's continued popularity in Malaysia from this perspective as well.

From the literature reviewed, it is clear that research on scandal has covered a wide range of perspectives covering countries from Asia to Europe, mostly the Unites States. In the case of Malaysia, very little theoretical attempt has been made to understand the persistence of moral scandals over other types of scandal. There have been studies such as Funston's (2018) which argues that the parties in Malaysia are in constant contest for Malay votes in the country. This paper, however, goes a step further and explains that instead of just a play for Malay votes from the exposure of random scandals, there is a calculative effort by Malay politicians to use moral scandals to discredit their opponent because it would affect the dignity of the person. Since duty and responsibility is important to the Malay community, a loss in dignity could be a huge blow in holding a political position or mobilising the voters.

METHODS

This study is a qualitative research on political scandals among Malay politicians with specific references to Anwar Ibrahim and Azmin Ali. To further investigate this issue, counterfactual analysis was employed as a method of analysis. Based on the counterfactual analysis, we are assuming the possible alternative to a known event (Fearon, 1991), and in this case the use of moral scandals among Malay politicians to rile up certain Malay sub-population. In a small N research, counterfactual analysis is useful to provide a more rigorous explanation for the study.

According to Nye (2005), plausibility, proximity in time, relation to theory and factual accuracy are four factors that may help strengthen a counterfactual argument. In order to achieve Nye's four factors as best as possible, historical documents and textual records such as the 50 Dalil Kenapa Anwar Tidak Boleh Jadi PM ("50 Reasons Why Anwar Cannot Become Prime Minister") were given a new read within the framework of dignity as suggested. Similarities among the different cases that relate to the framework of dignity underscore the possibility of analysing the events from the perspective of value-based dignity that might not be present had it been in another society or ethnic group.

RESULT

In his seventeenth year as prime minister, Mahathir Mohamad sacked his third deputy prime minister, Anwar Ibrahim, from all cabinet posts on September 2, 1998, for being under police investigation. A series of event culminated into Anwar's sacking, starting with the distribution of a publication titled 50 Dalil Kenapa Anwar Tidak Boleh Jadi PM ("50 Reasons Why Anwar Cannot Become Prime Minister"). The book was circulated widely during UMNO's General Assembly in 1997 when Anwar officiated the Youth and Women wings' conference. There is no doubt that the purpose of doing so was to bring down Anwar by bringing into question his capability as a leader. Interestingly, instead of simply emphasising alleged corrupt actions committed by Anwar while in office, the book also contains

several disturbing allegations of moral misconduct from adultery to sodomy.

It appears that a scandal involving abuse of power is not enough to defeat a Malay politician. As pointed out by Esser and Hartung (2004) in the literature review, the impact of a political scandal depends on the political culture of the state. Unfortunately, in Malaysia, financial scandals have been tolerated in the past because of the rapid economic growth experienced from the 1970s until the 1990s. According to Funston (2018), the Malay-centric New Economic Policy (NEP),

and high growth rates for most of the 1970s through to the 1990s, provided an almost unlimited source of funds for political patronage, with which UMNO could exert financial control over Malays and offer appealing handouts during elections. At the same time, however, it led to major financial scandals, particularly as UMNO expanded its own direct business role. (p. 62).

Nevertheless, the NEP did lead to multiple facets of success such the elimination of hardcore poverty, diversification of the economy and growth of the middle class. Further culture of financial misappropriation occurred during the first tenure of Mahathir Mohamad's premiership when material reward was given to the urban, corporate and rich UMNO elites (Jomo, 2003) while government officers, teachers and the security and armed forces were banned from holding party posts. This was in lieu of a commitment to an ideological struggle for the betterment of the Malays. In this political climate, Anwar's political opponents need to concoct additional allegations of undignified behaviour in the form of moral scandals such as those alleged in the book in order to really paint Anwar as undeserving of the prime ministerial post.

Allegations of adultery and homosexuality are made worse by the fact that Anwar is a known Islamist who founded and led the Malaysian Islamic Youth Association (ABIM). Since those acts are sinful in Islam, accusing Anwar of committing them could possibly take away his power and influence over the Malay-Muslim population. On September 29, 1998, Anwar pled not guilty on charges of corruption and sodomy. Sodomy, even if consensual, is illegal in Malaysia, as a remnant of British colonial anti-sodomy law. However, the law is seldom used except in political circumstances as a manner to stifle opposition ("Malaysia: end political case", 2014). It must be noted that the author of the book that caused Anwar's ouster was eventually found guilty of slander by the High Court in 2005.

Matters of a private nature were no longer sacred when one is a Malay politician in Malaysia. Following Anwar's sacking from cabinet, Mahathir as the prime minister appeared on television to explain Anwar's arrest under the Internal Security Act (ISA), another remnant of British colonial rule. The ISA allowed any police officer to detain a person suspected of threatening national security without a warrant for up to two years. Mahathir argued on television that if two of Anwar's associates were charged with committing sodomy with Anwar, then Anwar should be charged for the same crime as well ("No room for rivals", 1998). Even before the judiciary could have come to a conclusion whether Anwar was guilty or not, Mahathir was already implying that he did commit the acts. It is argued that the government interfered in a supposed criminal trial because it was to the government's advantage to highlight Anwar's supposed misbehaviour that brings into question his dignity and thus his merit as a Malay leader.

Anwar was sentenced to nine years imprisonment for sodomy on August 8, 2000. However, his conviction was later partially overturned by the Federal Court in September 2004, allowing for Anwar to be released from prison. Under Malaysian law, a person may not participate in political activities for five years from the end of his or her sentence. Anwar could only begin participating in politics on April 14, 2008. Knowing this, parliament was dissolved on February 13, 2008, with the 12th general election (GE-12) set to be held on March 8, 2008, more than a month before Anwar could qualify to contest for a parliamentary seat. Despite the government's attempt to block Anwar from returning to parliament, the opposition bloc that was led by his wife, Wan Azizah Wan Ismail, successfully denied the government a two-thirds majority in parliament that year.

Anticipating that Wan Azizah would eventually vacate her Permatang Pauh parliamentary seat to make way for Anwar to compete in a by-election, a second sodomy allegation cropped up on June 29, 2008, by Anwar's former aide. The question raised is about the timing of the allegation. Why a similar accusation came up when Anwar's support and popularity was on the rise with the expectation of his return to parliament? Is it possible that the government was looking for ways to discredit Anwar with the tried-and-tested formula of a sodomy accusation? If the allegation made in 1998 was problematic due to many aspects such as the relatively recent age of the sperm specimen on the supposed mattress the acts were committed on, the allegation in 2008 also brought into question the plausibility of a 61-year-old man overpowering a strong and healthy 24-year-old. Hence, the complaint was changed from forcible sodomy to persuasion. Is it possible that the accusation is politically motivated to frame Anwar as a politician who lacks dignity? Anwar was subsequently arrested on July 16, 2008, but was released without charges the following day.

With mounting evidence to discredit the accuser, and Anwar pleading not guilty to the charges, the alleged victim decided to take another route—a spiritual one. A month-and-a-half after his initial allegation, the supposed victim chose to swear upon the Quran that he was sodomized by Anwar. This event was orchestrated to influence the perception of the majority Malay-Muslim community in Malaysia of Anwar's guilt. Yet, in the middle of the storm, Anwar won the by-election that was held five months after the general election, making him the new opposition leader replacing his wife. This shows that despite the nature of the allegations, Anwar's supporters are not jaded by such scandal. As argued by Welch (2007), the Malaysian populace is perhaps now more mature to differentiate between a crime and a scandal concocted to bring down a political opponent.

The trial for Anwar's second sodomy allegation began in February 2010, a decade after the first trial. After almost two years, now during the administration of Najib Razak, Anwar was found not guilty of sodomy. This verdict was used to show that the judiciary in Malaysia is supposedly independent. It is difficult to believe so as it was not the end for Anwar. In 2014, Anwar was involved in a political manoeuvre termed the "Kajang Move" which attempted to replace the Chief Minister of Selangor. The way to do it is for a PKR assemblyperson from Selangor to vacate his seat for Anwar to contest in a by-election. This was done by the Kajang assemblyperson in January 2014 with the by-election set for March 23, 2014.

If Anwar were successful at becoming the 15th Chief Minister of Selangor, it would have given him more power as leader of the most prosperous state in Malaysia. Without a doubt, his opponents would not have been thrilled with this prospect. Coincidentally, just a few weeks before the by-election, the Court of Appeal overturned Anwar's acquittal from 2012 and sentenced him to five years imprisonment, effectively disqualifying him from standing in the Kajang by-election. Without a scandal on Anwar's ability to lead, his political rivals resorted to moral scandals to portray Anwar in an undignified light. This is possibly part of Malay politics as Anwar's second round of being accused and convicted of sodomy was nicely timed before two of his by-elections.

In a twist of event, Anwar's former trusted protégé, Azmin Ali, who chose to side with Anwar over Mahathir in 1998, saw himself being the victim of the same dirty politics that brought into question the dignity of a Malay politician. On June 12, 2019, five years after Anwar's acquittal of sodomy was overturned, a video showing a man who resembles Azmin in bed with another man was circulated on social media. The video was supposedly recorded on May 11, 2019, the weekend in which a by-election was held in Sandakan, Sabah. Azmin, as PKR's deputy president, was present in the city in northeast Borneo to show his support as part of the campaign. As the case with Anwar, the question raised is why was the video released? Azmin was by then a powerful Minister of Economic Affairs, but he was supposedly caught in a tussle with his own mentor, Anwar Ibrahim, ever since he took over as the Chief Minister in Selangor (Sukumaran, 2019). While Anwar had been promised the premiership by Mahathir after the 14th general election (GE-14), rumours began swirling that Mahathir did not intend to pass the baton to Anwar and instead prefered Azmin.

A week after the release of the initial videos, Azmin stated that he did believe the people responsible for releasing the videos were members of his own party (Hassan, 2019). This statement came a day after Anwar said on parliament ground that if Azmin was indeed found to be the person in the video following police investigation, he should resign. As one can imagine, this makes matters worse as Azmin had remained loyal to Anwar throughout his two sodomy cases. In fact, when Azmin was Anwar's private secretary, he suffered an arrest under the draconian ISA for organising a protest supporting Anwar. Therefore, if it is true that people loyal to Anwar, such as his political secretary, were indeed behind the gay videos, it shows that the ploy to bring into question the dignity of a Malay politician may come from rivals within one's party. It is not difficult to imagine someone within PKR having a vendetta against Azmin as Farhash Wafa Salvador Rizal Mubarak, Anwar's political secretary and PKR Perak state chairman, shouted "Azmin semburit" following his release by the police for investigation, with semburit translated as sodomy. The police even concluded that a leader of a political party had possibly paid several hundred thousand ringgits to make the videos (Tay, 2019). This proves that tarnishing a person's dignity is very much a preferred method by Malay political leaders to upset a rival.

There is another proof that the leak of the video was nothing more but dirty politics to bring down a Malay politician. Haziq Abdullah Abdul Aziz, who publicly admitted as the other person in the video, immediately released a statement confirming his role and also made a plea for the Malaysian Anti-Corruption Commission (MACC) to investigate Azmin for alleged corruption. Interestingly, he also claimed that Azmin was unfit to be a leader. As described in the literature review, a moral scandal might not necessarily affect voters' evaluation of a politician's capability at his job unless an abuse of power was committed. Perhaps understanding this, Haziq somehow made a link of Azmin's indiscretion to his alleged corruption to discredit his position as a leader. This is similar to what was faced by Anwar in 1998 when he was accused of both sodomy and corruption. However, it is very difficult to make the case that a sex scandal also demonstrates abuse of power.

Unlike Anwar, Azmin was not charged for any crime from the release of the video. It might be argued that Azmin had the support and protection from Mahathir as the prime minister, in contrast to Anwar who was in a bitter rivalry with the same man in 1998. However, as argued by Mitchell (2014), voters have a saturation level when faced with the same information that is repeated over time. It seems that Malaysians are also increasingly weary of sodomy being used as a political weapon in Malay politics as a way to question a person's dignity. While these are of course different allegations by different people towards different leaders, the nature of the scandal is the same. Perhaps voters feel that unless new allegations are uncovered that necessitate a leader to abandon his seat in power, it is time for Malay politicians to abandon this dirty tactic.

DISCUSSION

Anwar was Mahathir's third deputy prime minister during his first tenure as prime minister. The previous two deputies, Musa Hitam and Ghafar Baba, had to resign for different circumstances. While Ghafar Baba lost to Anwar in the UMNO election in 1993 for the position of party deputy president, Musa Hitam submitted his resignation letter to Mahathir in December 1986 after five years as deputy prime minister supposedly due to incompatible leadership style and lack of trust. However, as he recalled in his memoir, Musa Hitam accused several individuals of spreading negative stories about him in a bid to get him out of government (Hitam, 2016).

Interestingly, a few years after Anwar's second sodomy accusation, Musa Hitam claimed that back in the 1980s when he was still deputy prime minister, he was accused of having sex with underage girls. As a weapon, accusing a Malay politician of undignified behaviour that goes against Malay customs and expectations has been an effective tool to bring down one's opponent even in the 1980s. This is especially true in a party such as UMNO which proclaims to be defender of Malay rights in the country. Therefore, in order to avoid being blackmailed for this or other accusations such as homosexuality—as had happened to his future successor-Musa Hitam was supposedly forced to relinquish his position (Jusoh, 2014).

It may seem straightforward that a politician that broke a code of conduct would be punished for his or her undignified behaviour. However, in Malay politics, indignity as part of a moral scandal is played against one's opponent. For example, another Malay politician who was caught in a moral scandal was Rahim Thamby Chik, a former close ally of Mahathir in the 1980s and 1990s. In 1994, when he was the Chief Minister of the state of Malacca. he was accused of raping a 15-year-old schoolgirl. Since he was highly connected as UMNO Youth Chief, the girl's guardian asked for help from Lim Guan Eng, a member of parliament in the opposition bench. Instead of bringing Rahim to justice, it was Lim Guan Eng who was imprisoned for sedition. Evidently, it is not the act or scandal itself that causes the fall of a Malay politician, but how a scandal is used to frame a politician as acting in an undignified manner. Obviously back then with the government, being as powerful as it was, did not scandalize the crime as an act that questions Rahim Thamby Chik's dignity. It may be interpreted that politicians and elites of the post-NEP era with limited social standing in society except for access towards public resources played into gutter politics when it benefited them because Malaysia's political environment very much depends on patronage in order to survive. The end may justify the means, but will the end be the same in years to come?

After decades of seeing similar headlines, is this the end of moral scandal as the modus operandi to discredit a Malay politician? Apparently not, as Anwar was once again accused of sexual assault by a 26-year-old assistant researcher at the end of 2019. This third attempt to bring down Anwar was unsuccessful when the Attorney-General's Chambers decided that not enough evidence was presented to charge Anwar with sexual assault. Furthermore, similar with the case against Azmin, it appears that Malaysians have reached a saturation point on this method of ruining a politician's dignity. It feels like there is no new information when it comes to attempts to bring down Anwar, and so Malaysians have become immune to sex scandals faced by the same politician as it is possibly viewed as a manipulated political agenda to silent those opposed to the powers that be.

Moreover, we are now seeing a shift in values by the Malays. Instead of being static, as an ethnic group, the Malays have experienced changes and development from a rural agrarian society to become a more affluent group of people which also render moral scandal to be ineffectual as a means to bring down a political opponent. Dignity is still important among the Malays; but perhaps modern individual dignity that stresses the values of justice, equality and liberty are beginning to overshadow the very narrow definition of dignity vis-à-vis immorality. This is possible partly due to the NEP that allowed the burgeoning Malay middle-class to become acquainted with a more universalistic definition of dignity that cuts across ethnicities and culture. The history-making 2018 general election is proof of a maturing democracy in Malaysia. Despite the constant barrage of gutter politics, Malaysians are seeing past the

smoke and mirror and are judging politicians accordingly based on new norms of integrity and transparency of governance as well as of justice and inclusivity of development delivery.

CONCLUSION

This paper argues that the biggest scandals faced by Malay politicians may have been a moral or a sex scandal because of the high regards put on dignity by the Malay population in general. While it is accepted that the Malays are made up of various backgrounds, moral scandals are usually used as a tactic by political elites to influence the more conservative rural Malays. Thus, dignity is still a truly relevant concept to understand the influence of moral scandals in Malaysia's democracy. Dignity is best defined in this paper by virtuous conduct, and a person caught in a compromising act of course risks tarnishing his or her dignity. Understanding the Malay psyche, political rivals chose to expose these scandals over other types of scandal such as a financial scandal that is not considered to be unusual in Malaysian politics.

For example, the 1MDB scandal is considered the largest financial scandal in the world. Despite the paper trail, Najib's supporters unabashedly promote the phrase "*malu apa bossku*" which translates to "what to shame, my boss". Since it is not technically a moral scandal, Najib is not tinged by indignity and thus saw his popularity even risen following his departure from the prime ministerial post. Furthermore, as described in the discussion, it is the growing Malay middle class who find abuse of power to be more serious than a moral scandal. As long as systematic issues such as freedom of press, technological divide and an education system void of humanity and creativity, there will always be conservative Malays who will fall for the elite's strategy to tarnish an individual's dignity for political mileage. Therefore, future studies may want to look into the German model of having a law that protects an individual's privacy so that scandals of this nature may no longer be used for political gains.

As can be seen, the efforts by politicians to mobilize the people based on this religiouscentric view on dignity has not shown much results in recent years especially with Anwar Ibrahim still being a much important figure in Malaysian politics despite multiple allegations against him. It appears that there is an implicit understanding that scandals are constructed for political gain of rival Malay politicians. Does this mean that dignity is no longer important to evaluate Malay politicians? Perhaps what it means is that Malays are moving beyond gutter politics to become a mature democracy with the people being able to distinguish between petty rivalries and actual crime in office.

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Vested Interests and Politicisation of Terrorism in Nigeria: A Critical Terrorism Studies Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This study interrogates the discourses and issues of terrorism and counterterrorism in Nigeria. That terrorism has plagued Nigeria for over a decade (2009-2020) makes it imperative to subject the purpose, conduct, scope, and outcomes of Nigeria's counterterrorism efforts to a critical analysis. This work adopted qualitative research methods (primary and secondary data collection), and used discourse analysis strategy to analyse the collected data. Using critical terrorism studies framework, the central argument of this study is that Nigeria lacks national consensus on the problem of terrorism, which has impacted negatively on the efforts to counter the scourge. The country lacks the needed unity of purpose to combat terrorism due to vested interests and politicisation of the terrorism issues. Consequently, the menace has lingered in ways that have made the country very fragile. This study concluded that for Nigeria to get out of the woods, both the leaders and the citizens would have to unanimously face the reality that terrorism is a common enemy that should be confronted in unison and with a whole-of-society approach. To continue doing otherwise is to allow the country to dissolve into "socio-political Armageddon."

Keywords: Boko Haram, counterterrorism, insurgency, Nigeria, politicisation, terrorism, vested interests

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INTRODUCTION

The Boko Haram group (BHG) and its splinter faction, Islamic State West Africa Province (ISWAP), are the officially designated terrorists in Nigeria (National Counter Terrorism Strategy, 2016). As of January 2019, BHG had caused a humanitarian crisis to over 7.1 million

ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 Nigerians (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2018). Between May 2011 and 1st May 2020, BHG directly caused 17,275 cumulative deaths, while 20, 506 deaths occurred following the confrontations between the group and Nigerian security forces (Campbell, 2020). BHG had targeted the UN facility, Military and Police formations, places of worship, and others. The group's activities drew widespread local and international condemnations, especially following the 2014 abduction of roughly 300 young women in Chibok town and the 2018 Dapchi kidnapping (Adelaja et al., 2018). BHG became the world's deadliest group in 2015 and Nigeria became the third most terrorised territory afterwards (Institute for Economics and Peace, 2015, 2019).

However, it is worrisome to note that Nigerians lack consensus and unity of purpose in combating the carnages of BHG that is forming alliances with Islamic State (ISIS) and franchise of al-Qaeda (de Graff, 2015; Zenn, 2013, 2017, 2018, 2019). Consequently, this study investigated the trajectories and dynamics of terrorism in Nigeria and argued that internal contradictions have, by implication, continued to reinforce the scourge of terrorism and have partly been responsible for the country's counterterrorism (CT) ineffectiveness.

Firstly, vested interests in this study refer to the competing political agenda which serve the purpose of the hegemonic establishment and the ruling elites but not the interests of terrorism victims and the country. Secondly, politicisation denotes using the existing socio-political divides and ethnoreligious tensions among the Nigerian people in ways that further caused the escalation of terrorism problems. More so, politicisation also refers to exploiting the existing socio-political divides and ethnoreligious tensions just for political gains and ambitions, which has been manifested by the way of using terrorism issues for elections and politics without necessarily addressing the plights of the victims and the larger society. However, the rest of this study are organised into the literature review, methodology, theoretical framework, results of the research, discussion, and conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Quite a number of studies have investigated the causes and activities of BHG terrorism in Nigeria. For instance, Pichette (2015) argued that religion had largely been employed as a means of legitimacy by BHG but it was not necessarily the motivation for the group's actions. Pichette's (2015) position resonates with a study by Gunning and Jackson (2011), who queried what could be religious in religious terrorism. Therefore, BHG terrorism should be understood from the point of view of governance failure, socio-economic, and socio-political realities in Nigeria (Pichette, 2015). Adesoji (2010) and Akinola (2015) also argued that the BHG existed within the interplay of Islamic fundamentalism, politics, and poverty. Using the theoretical perspectives of Marxism, Relative Deprivation, and Frustration-Aggression, Usman (2015) considered BHG terrorism to be the extreme outcome of unemployment and poverty in Nigeria. Usman (2015) referred to the Tunisian scenario in which unemployment and poverty forced a citizen to lynch himself which eventually sparked the phenomenal Arab Spring of 2010/2011.

With the slight exception of Akinola's (2015) and Adesoji's (2010) inclusion of religion as a motivating factor for terrorism, it appears that all the authors above acknowledged that governance inadequacies have made terrorism inevitable in Nigeria. However, the focus on poverty and unemployment as terrorism inducing factors is at variance with Thurston's (2016) position that holistic CT strategy in Nigeria cannot be reduced to only socio-economic drivers, but by addressing the inherent internal contradictions in the country. It is within the scope of such shortcomings, as identified by the authors above, that our study filled a gap with the argument that the problems of vested interests and politicisation have encouraged terrorism and frustrated CT efforts in Nigeria.

Although the discourses on the rise of BH terrorism have generated controversies, Nigeria's responses have been even more controversial. For instance, Leach's (2016) admonished that Nigeria would have to further deepen its democratic system, good governance, education, and widespread development in limiting the terrorists' appeal and devastating activities. More so, national defence and security forces would have to be subjected to the rule of law in checking the human rights violations, which is a position equally shared by Bauer and Conroy (2016). In a study by Adibe (2013), it was noted that defence and security forces discourses in Nigeria had been dominated by issues of BH terrorism yet almost everything about the group had equally been contested in terms of its name, its origin, objectives it seeked to achieve, and even its purported affiliations to other jihadi groups. Thus, Adibe (2013) noted that in the light of the conflicting narratives surrounding BHG and given that a lot of what was known about the group were often shrouded in speculation, there was a need for a study on factors enhancing the lack of clarity about the group.

METHODS

This research had adopted qualitative data collection and analysis methods, using semistructured interviews for the primary sources of data by drawing on the experiences of the purposively sampled populations of experts who were knowledgeable about the dynamics of terrorism and CT activities in Nigeria. These included military officers who had participated in CT operations and others with research expertise in CT issues in Nigeria. However, there was initially a challenge of getting the military officers for interviews because many of them were sceptical about the intention of the researchers. We overcame the challenge by using the snowballing technique, in which the first two military officers interviewed referred the researchers to another three, making a total of five. The military officers

were interviewed at the Nigerian Army Headquarters in Abuja, Nigerian Army 2 Mechanised Division in Ibadan and Nigerian Air Force Base in Ikeja, Lagos. Defence experts were also interviewed in Abuja, while more field works were conducted at the Nigerian Institute of International Affairs in Lagos (a Think Tank under Nigeria's Ministry of Foreign Affairs). The fieldwork also took place in a couple of Nigerian Universities in Abuja, Lagos, and Nsukka. Former Staff of the US Department of State with expertise in Nigeria and terrorism was also interviewed over the telephone while Professor Richard Jackson of the University of Otago (New Zealand) was interviewed via email. Above all, the fieldwork took place between August 2018 and March 2019. Also, the study significantly used secondary sources; books, journal articles, reports, newspapers, and reliable internet sources.

For the analysis, the study adopted the discourse analysis technique. Discourse analysis helps to unravel the asymmetrical power relation among all key political actors that are involved in Nigeria and to probe political issues surrounding terrorism and CT policy-making in Nigeria (Table 1 for annotated references in this regard). Discourse analysis also helps in probing the political motives by looking at the way issues of terrorism and CT have been structured in Nigeria. However, the next section focuses on the theoretical framework.

Theoretical Framework: Critical Terrorism Studies

This research hinged its theoretical argument on how vested interests and politicisation had impacted on the menace of terrorism and CT in Nigeria by using critical terrorism studies (CTS) framework. Broadly speaking, CTS promotes terrorism research which is self-conscious and adopts sceptical attitude towards the entrenched state-centric views of terrorism (Jackson, 2007b). By implication, CTS pays attention to the existing traditional views and knowledge of terrorism but challenges common positions

Table 1

	Political Speeches, Text, and Statements	Published Political Documents	Newspapers
/ested nterests	"Buhari rejects Boko Haram" (2012) "Buhari said attack" (2014)	Jonathan (2018)	Akowe (2013) "Nigeria's Goodluck" (2012) Premium Times (2012) "Boko Haram has supporters" (2012)
oliticisation	"Buhari rejects Boko Haram" (2012) "Buhari said attack" (2014)	Jonathan (2018)	Akowe (2013) Premium Times (2012) "Boko Haram has supporters" (2012)

Speeches, statements, and reports of Nigerian leaders with implications for vested interests and politicisation of terrorism issues in Nigeria. Period: 2009-2019

Source: Compiled by the authors

and viewpoints of the traditional perspective. To elucidate how vested interests and politicisation had reinforced terrorism and negatively impacted CT efforts in Nigeria, CTS approach helps to understand the elites' political agenda to maintain their hegemony in the military and the executive without necessarily addressing the citizens' grievances that brew terrorism and the plights of victims of the terrorist activities (Jackson, 2007a, 2007b, 2008; Jarvis, 2016; Smyth et al., 2008).

CTS framework, therefore, helps to question the causes of the terrorist campaign in Nigeria and then inspires probing questions as to whether the Nigerian government's violent CT efforts can be effective in resolving the menace while also probing the interests and politics involved (R. Jackson, personal communication, May 29, 2019). As its basic tenets, CTS approach attempts to challenge socio-political and state-centric views that are commonly held concerning the explanation of terrorism (Jackson, 2007b). CTS emphasises emancipation in the terrorism research agenda in ways that bring the relegated perspectives into the mainstream (Horgan & Boyle, 2008; McDonald, 2007; Smyth et al., 2008). Thus, CTS helps to challenge the mainstream and official narratives of terrorism and CT in Nigeria which then helps to expose vested interests and politicisation that have caused BH terrorism and consequently compromised CT efforts.

Therefore, with special reference to Nigerian leaders, who represent the state, tendencies to politicise issues and manipulate the ordinary citizens, who have often been the victims of circumstances, have been one of the drivers of radicalisation and terrorism. Again, in the aspect of resolving the problem, the Nigerian elites have been at the vanguard of manipulating

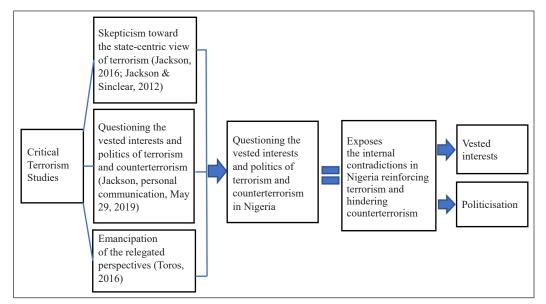


Figure 1. Graphical representation of critical terrorism studies as a framework to explain vested interests and politicisation of terrorism and CT in Nigeria

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the ordinary citizens in ways that tend to frustrate efforts to resolve the problem. In this regard, therefore, this article argues that CTS approach helps to provide a more accurate explanation for the terrorism and CT imbroglio in Nigeria. Figure 1 below depicts CTS as a conceptual framework of the study.

RESULTS

Boko Haram Terrorism in Nigeria: How Did It Immediately Begin?

Although terrorism is an age-long phenomenon to humanity (Hoffman, 1998; Rapoport, 2012), but it is a relatively novel national security challenge that Nigeria has been grappling with since 2009 (Solomon, 2015). Before 2009, the term 'terrorism' was rarely used in the political and security lexicons in Nigeria. Observers have hinted that BHG's original Arabic language name had been distorted by those who ab initio lived close the group, while the pseudonym later got popularised in the global political lexicon by the media (Adibe, 2013; Onapajo & Uzodike, 2012). The group's maiden appellation was Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awati Wal-Jihad, which could be translated to "People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad" (Adibe, 2013, p. 10; Onapajo & Uzodike, 2012, p. 4). Thus, 'Boko Haram' has its etymology in a mixture of local Hausa language 'Boko' (book) and Arabic language 'haram' (spiritually unacceptable or ungodly). Therefore, the combination of both words literarily means education is ungodly or sinful (Lacey, 2012; Salaam, 2013). It, however, appears that the group is against western education or any symbol of western civilisation as a result of its perceived negative Western influences on the Nigerian society (Campbell, 2014).

Some studies had suggested the possibilities of the group coming into existence during the 1990s and probably bearing different names (Aghedo & Osumah, 2012; Onapajo & Uzodike, 2012). In another study, Agwu (2013) hinted that the group began as the Shabaab Muslim Youth Organisation initially chaired by Mallam Lawal at a famous Indimi Mosque in Maiduguri. BHG reportedly began the process of radicalisation and exposure to al-Shabaab and al-Qaeda in the Maghreb (AQIM) when its leadership was handed over to Muhammed Yusuf as Lawal went for academic training at the University of Medina, Saudi Arabia around 1999 (Agwu, 2013).

Muhammed Yusuf subsequently had a leeway in spreading his message and garnering formidable following given the failure of the Nigerian state, in which widespread poverty and deprivation readily made so many religiously brainwashed young people to welcome his proposals as better means of saving them from their state inflicted misery (Campbell, 2014; Sadiq Mohammed quoted in Sahara Reporters, 2009). Moreover, the BH menace began merely in the form of religious procession and riots by the group in a few northern states until 2009, when things began to get out of hand following the clamp down on the group by a detachment of Nigerian forces (Adesoji, 2010). These events led to the arrests and even extrajudicial deaths of some of the group's members, while the group subsequently began reprisal onslaughts on the Nigerian forces (Adesoji, 2010).

Boko Haram's Radical Re-Emergence and Countering Terrorism in Nigeria

The earliest form of contradictions in Nigeria's CT efforts manifested in the handling of Yusuf's arrest and his mysterious death in 2009. It is believed that vested interests played out in his extra-judicial killing while in the Police custody, which was to prevent him from indicting some politically exposed persons who sponsored the group (Nigerian Air Force officer, personal communication, January 13, 2019; Nigerian Army officer, personal communication, December 7, 2018). More so, Nigerian authorities had a lukewarm attitude towards the group at the initial stage because the sect had some ties to the officials in the government and authorities (Gorman, 2009). Unfortunately, the killing of Yusuf only had the effect of handing the BH's leadership to Abubakar Shekau, under whose leadership the group had moved from radicalisation to brutality and a hydraheaded monster. With Shekau in charge from 2010, BH relaunched itself in cruel, violent ways and with a mindset to attack Nigeria for vengeance. The group audaciously invaded a prison in Maiduguri and freed about 700 inmates, including its members (Uchehara, 2014). It equally showcased its audacity for violence by bombing the Nigeria Police Force and the United Nations

(UN) facilities in Abuja around June and August 2011 respectively.

However, when BHG intensified attacks under Shekau's leadership, the then Nigerian President Jonathan responded by declaring an emergency rule in the affected northern states, first in December 2011 in about fifteen local government areas (LGAs) spanning six states, and later in May 2013 (Felter, 2018; Sahara Reporters, 2013). The Government began experimenting with carrot and stick strategies: using the military force and soft power approach, including efforts to negotiate with the terrorists (Agbiboa & Maiangwa, 2014). For the use of stick approach, the activities of the Nigerian defence and security forces, however, brought about some challenges, including allegations of human rights violations, especially by Amnesty International and some Nigerian foreign allies such as the US (Amnesty International, 2015; Jonathan, 2018). A more disturbing challenge about the military responses to terrorism is the observation of inadequacies in terms of capacities within the Nigerian defence and security set up. This made Agbiboa and Maiangwa (2014) to consider Nigeria's CT responses as a 'flip-flop' approach. This was also alluded to by a defence expert, who condemned Nigerian military's lack of enough infantry forces and too light security footprint that made it possible for insurgents to overpower security forces (R. Nwasor, personal communication, March 20, 2019).

Again, as for the nation's carrot CT approach, the factors serving as drivers of radicalisation and making it possible for terrorists to easily have recruits have not been decisively attended to. The Nigerian government had, however, sought to engage the terrorists in political negotiation since the Yar'Adua administration, but major negotiation efforts began when President Jonathan set the Galtimari Committee in August 2011 to inquire into the BHG's grievances and come up with recommendations on how the north-eastern Nigeria could be secured (Onuoha, 2012). Similar negotiation efforts were made at the level of Borno state government under both Governors Ali Modu Sheriff and his successor- Kashim Shettima (Aghedo & Osumah, 2012). The negotiation efforts were even at some point spearheaded by the former Nigerian President Olusegun Obasanjo, who went as far as holding talks with the relatives of BHG's founder, Yusuf (Agbiboa, 2013b). For whatever reason, there suddenly came a breakdown of communication between the group and the government's negotiators, and the group subsequently resumed violent hostilities (Integrated Regional Information Networks, 2012).

Further negotiation efforts were made when the Jonathan Presidency again came up with a Dialogue and Peaceful Resolution of Security Challenges in the North Committee (Dialogue Committee) saddled with the task of convincing BH terrorists to sheathe their swords and embrace the proposed state pardon (Thurston, 2013). Unfortunately, such government efforts did not yield any tangible results, as Shekau only promised further hostilities (Agbiboa, 2013a). The group acted its threats with the attacks on the Borno city of Bama where 55 persons including defence and security forces personnel were killed and over 100 prisoners were freed. The attacks had destroyed over a dozen villages in the middle belt state of Benue (Agbiboa, 2013c). Ever since the government's negotiation efforts broke down, BHG had continued to cause pain and agony in Nigeria. The high point of the group's destructive attacks was the 2014 abduction of roughly 300 young female students in Chibok town, and the Dapchi abduction of over 100 students in 2018. Thus, it has been a case of 'things fall apart and the centre holds no more' for Nigeria.

Dynamics of Internal Contradictions Showcasing Vested Interests and Politicisation of Terrorism and Counterterrorism in Nigeria

Hansen (2015) had argued that terrorism in Nigeria was a logical consequence of several decades of elite irresponsibility, which buttressed the argument of this study that terrorism in Nigeria was a function of disunity and internal contradictions. For instance, when the Nigerian authorities reinforced the carrot and stick mechanisms towards resolving the crisis between 2011 and 2013, certain vested interests had frustrated such efforts. With precise reference to the country's deployment of the military strategy against the Boko Haram terrorists, the then Presidential hopeful and opposition leader, retired General Muhammadu Buhari, reportedly declared that the military efforts of the government were not in the interests of the people of

Northern Nigeria. For instance, in a show of political opposition, General Buhari, who is the current Nigerian Chief of state, reportedly said: "...any attempt to fight and attack insurgents is an attack on the North" ("Buhari said attack", 2014).

The implication of the statements credited General Buhari, who is currently Nigeria's Chief of State, is that there has been a lack of consensus and vested interests among Nigerian leaders. It was reported that he faulted the attacks on BHG and had accused the Federal authorities over the deaths of BHG members and destruction of their houses. Specifically, and as a manifestation of vested interests and politicisation of terrorism in Nigeria, General Buhari reportedly accused the Federal government of giving the militants in Nigeria's Niger Delta special treatment, apparently referring to the amnesty programme that had been put in place to quell the conflicts in South-South region of Nigeria, while killing the militants in the north (Akowe, 2013).

Moreover, the extent to which Nigeria lacks national consensus and unity of purpose regarding efforts to nip terrorism in the bud can be seen in General Buhari's 2013 rejection of the BHG's call for him to be part of negotiations when the Jonathan administration attempted to negotiate with the terrorists. Assuming another untoward meaning would not have been read into it, Buhari's participation in such negotiations would have solved many problems that his current administration is facing over the menace of terrorism since he assumed power in 2015. That the terror group welcomed the negotiations if Buhari was part of the efforts. It could have saved the situation if only he had obliged.

However, perhaps General Buhari could be pardoned for his rejection to join the negotiation efforts with the terrorists and helped a country he would later rule over in a matter of a few years. But it is particularly worrisome that for reasons of vested interests and politicisation, the then Jonathan administration could not make overtures to persuade the General to participate in the negotiation at a time the BHG appeared to be favourably disposed to a dialogue. Sadly, it would later be realised that the Buhari administration (2015- till date) has been making more difficult efforts to get BHG to embrace dialogue (Haruna, 2018; Mills, 2016). The frustration caused by the uncooperative attitudes of the Nigerian leaders arising from vested interests and politicisation of national security has been well expressed by Garba Shehu, President Buhari's chief media aide from 2015 till date. Shehu retorted the decision of the then General not to join the dialogue with the BHG by noting that:

Buhari should have thought of the people, not the opposition PDP... If, as he said, he can't represent the Boko Haram because he didn't know them; he didn't believe in their cause and struggle and he did not know any member of the sect, how does our situation get better by him rejecting their overture? Couldn't Buhari have given them a bait or laid in ambush so that at least, the state can have the benefit of knowing who is really behind the vicious atrocities being carried out daily against innocent Nigerians? (Shehu, 2012).

The problem of vested interests and politicisation over the problem of terrorism became more evident when the then President Jonathan announced to the nation that his government had been infiltrated by BHG sympathisers ("Boko Haram has supporters", 2012; "Boko Haram sympathisers", 2012; "Nigeria's Goodluck", 2012; Premium Times, 2012). This position was more elaborately discussed when the former Nigerian leader wrote about the disastrous Chibok saga that:

Again, I was accused of not visiting Chibok immediately after the abduction of the girls... For the avoidance of doubt, let me state that I had made up my mind to visit Chibok even against the advice of my Service Chiefs and sent an advance party to the area in preparation for my visit. It was meant to be an unannounced visit. However, someone in the know, most likely a saboteur, leaked the information to the Western media and they reported it. Of course, when it became a public knowledge that I planned to visit Chibok, the security Chiefs requested the trip to be cancelled ... I was to access Chibok in a helicopter that would have flown over Boko Haram infested areas. (Jonathan, 2018, pp. 34-35).

Concerning the Chibok saga, however, vested interests and politicisation of terrorism and national security explain the report that the Jonathan administration was reportedly slow in rescuing the Chibok girls, apparently because the President did not believe the kidnapping took place (Jonathan, 2018). More so, before the Chibok Saga, it was even more disturbing that 19 governors from northern-Nigerian states decided to go and seek the audience with the former US President Barak Obama over the issues of terrorism, when they and their own President did not meet to find solutions to their country's problems (Jonathan, 2018). Thus, when the Nigerian young girls were kidnapped, there was no national consensus and synergy toward their rescue between the ruling government and the main opposition groups. This open display of hostilities among Nigerian leaders justified the position of Jean Herskovits, who in her 2012 testimony before the US Congress called for the US to abstain from Nigeria's CT efforts with the argument that terrorism in Nigeria is a function of internal politics and contradictions (Herskovits, 2012).

However, a more daunting manifestations of vested interests and politicisation of terrorism and CT in Nigeria were the revelations of corruption that had plagued the defence budgets under the Jonathan administration (Adebayo, 2015; Bolashodun, 2016; "Jonathan on \$2.1bn", 2016; Kazeem, 2015). About \$2.1 billion was allegedly misappropriated even in the face of widespread killings of innocent Nigerians and unequipped troops by the terrorists that possessed superior firepower (Munshi, 2018). A former US State Department official explained the implication of this situation and Nigeria's foreign relations by noting that:

There have also been concerns in the United States about the level of corruption within the Nigerian Army, which has been a huge problem...There is a need to fix the security sector corruption in Nigeria given the problem of sabotaging the training and equipment for the troops arising from the military budget corruption (M. Page, personal communication, October 3, 2018).

The important point in the remarks above is that defence sector corruption was partly the reason that the US refused to give Nigeria CT assistance during a critical time (Blanchard & Husted, 2019; Page, 2018). Therefore, the US refusal of critical intelligence and materiel to Nigeria at about 2013/2014 was a resultant effect of the vested interests and politicisation of terrorism and CT efforts in Nigeria. By implication, BHG became emboldened because Nigerian forces largely lack capacity in terms of equipment and intelligence, which had led to situations in which troops were running away from their formations and battlefields (Agwu, 2016).

A more appalling manifestation of vested interests and politicisation of national security crisis could be seen in the general attitude of the Nigerian populace themselves. A 2012 survey on the resolution of terrorism in Nigeria revealed that 58 per cent of the Nigerian population favoured negotiation with the terrorists (Anyadike, 2012). However, the large majority in the survey that favoured negotiation were from the northern Nigeria where terrorism has raged for over a decade, while the bulk of the southern people saw no reason for government's negotiation with the terrorists as they considered the problem to be entirely the northern region affair (Anyadike, 2012). By implication, Nigerians see BHG terrorism from the perspectives of the north-south dichotomy, which was why the North accused that terrorism was created by the then President Jonathan (a Southern Christian) to reduce their population for electoral gains, while the South argued that the menace was to actualise Islamisation agenda by the Northern oligarchy (H. Onapajo, personal communication, December 4, 2018). Thus, the lack of unity of purpose against a common enemy gave the terrorists the living space, as Nigerians politicised and 'ethnicised' BH terrorism. Therefore, the terrorists exploited the controversies and confusions within the society, which had resulted in ineffective CT efforts (H. Onapajo, personal communication, December 4, 2018).

Moreover, the challenge of politicisation among the general citizenry also manifested in the vehement rejection of the Government's plans to relocate captured and repentant BHG members to the Southeastern Nigeria for de-radicalisation and rehabilitation efforts. The frustration about the attitude and disposition of Nigeria's regions that are not directly facing the heat of terrorism was expressed by a retired Major-General, who observed that:

The main challenge is that there is a lack of unity in fighting terrorism...And without unity, it is impossible to win a war against the terrorists. For example, there was a time the country wanted to build a rehabilitation centre for the captured Boko Haram members in the East. The proposal was vehemently resisted by the Eastern Nigerians who claimed that terrorism is not their problem and should be treated as northern affairs... Until the country rises to the occasion collectively, it is unlikely that terrorism will leave the country (Retired Nigerian Army General, personal communication, January 6, 2019).

In sum, given the observations above, irrespective of the calls for Nigeria to be supported by the superpowers and its neighbours (Barnett, 2019; Omotuyi, 2017), the country is unlikely to get out of the woods unless it resolves its internal contradictions. As the BH phenomenon had proven, Nigeria is beleaguered with deadly fractures that are occurring ethnically, regionally, and religiously in such a way that its stability is upset and its very unity threatened (Bouchat, 2013). This dynamic is evident in the claim by the former President Jonathan that BHG elements infiltrated his government ("Boko Haram has supporters", 2012; Jonathan, 2018). Nigerians, therefore, have to make concerted efforts to reverse the growth in BHG's trajectory and end terrorism in their country.

Nigeria's Flawed Security Architecture as Implications of Vested Interests and Politicisation of Terrorism

While military approach only cannot solve the problem of terrorism, but is important to note that the needed military wherewithal to counter the terrorists' violence had been affected by the dynamics of vested interests and politicisation national security. For instance, and as noted previously, the corruption laden defence sector had made CT efforts unproductive despite huge budgetary allocations totalling N4.62 trillion (roughly USD 14 billion) between 2011 and 2015 (Olufemi, 2015). Nigeria still lacks modernised military and suffers inadequate intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance to drive all its CT operations (A Nigerian Army Major, personal communication, December 7, 2018). Moreover, there is an unhealthy bureaucratic rivalry among the defence and security services, which has often created failure and inefficiency in intelligence gathering and utilisation (A Nigerian Army Major, personal communication, December 7, 2018). The implication of this is that the understanding of the military and its

approach to CT have not been the same as those of the Department of State Service (DSS), Police, Immigration, and Customs Services, making the security agencies to work at cross-purposes (A Nigerian Army Major, personal communication, December 7, 2018). The above scenarios have largely been made possible because of the heavily politicised processes of enlistments, promotion, and postings in Nigeria's defence and security establishments.

More so, vested interests and politicisation have equally created Trojan Horses in the country's defence and security establishments. The Trojan Horses, who are unpatriotic and incompetent elements, had been linked to how BH terrorists have sometimes gained access to armoured personnel carriers (APCs), tanks, and other equipment looted from the Nigerian forces' arsenal, in addition to such elements divulging classified intelligence to the terrorists (Agwu, 2016; Jonathan, 2018). Therefore, a situation in which soldiers are aiding and abetting terrorists, who have kidnapped hundreds, responsible for the deaths of tens of thousands (Campbell, 2020; Lallanilla, 2014; Nossiter, 2014) is a major albatross to the Nigeria's CT efforts.

It is also believed that the US refusal to give Nigeria the needed CT assistance, which had gravely affected the nation's CT efforts, is because of the fear that American supplied military equipment may end up in the hands of the BH terrorists and over allegations that some military commanders had been compromised or sympathetic to the terrorists (Agwu, 2016; Blanchard, 2016). Similarly, the controversies generated by the politicisation in the Nigerian military has also been responsible for the ongoing criticism of Nigeria's de-radicalisation, rehabilitation, and re-integration efforts of the Operation Safe Corridor, in which critics had argued that the programme was an effort to provide soft-landing for the terrorists (Adibe, 2020).

DISCUSSIONS

As this study revealed, Nigeria's CT strategies and frameworks had been largely ineffective because the CT efforts had not been organically developed through collective procedure. Rather than developing local consensus to solve the terrorism problems, the Nigerian elites have been much engrossed with protections of their interests and divisive politics to sustain their hegemonic dominance. Although the country had developed some CT frameworks since 2009, such as Terrorism Prevention Act 2013; National Counter Terrorism Strategy (NACTEST; 2016); and the Policy Framework and National Action Plan for Preventing and Countering Violent Extremism (PCVE) 2017 and several military operations, but the scourge of terrorism lingers till date.

However, concerning the deficiencies and limitations of CT in Nigeria, the country has heavily relied on military strategy and on the short term rather than long term approaches that have often been politicised. Therefore, BH terrorism will remain a threat because of the unwillingness of Nigerian elites to do the right thing. This is for the reason that the elites benefit from the problems, which they use to mobilise for their political supports and patronages during elections. They perpetuate vested interests and politicisation using the existing socio-economic and socio-political divisions, and the existing tensions between the ethnoreligious groups in Nigeria.

Lastly, critical discourse analysis of the Nigerian leaders' political speeches and texts had confirmed the key assumptions of critical terrorism studies (CTS) that CT and state's activities themselves encouraged terrorism. Thus, the questions that CTS raised about the study of terrorism helped us to understand the implications of vested interests and politicisation as the predominant and persisted features preventing productive, coherent and cohesive CT policy and strategy in Nigeria. Therefore, Nigeria's CT efforts can only be effective and successful if terrorism issues are unanimously addressed as a collective problem, while the ruling class addresses their parasitic and predatory tendencies that partly serve as drivers of radicalisation and terrorism.

CONCLUSION

Problems of terrorism and CT in Nigeria are two sides of "disunity coin" among Nigerians, especially their leaders. This article had argued that the inherent factors such as vested interests and politicisation that had made the outbreak of BH terrorism inevitable also play out in the counterproductive CT efforts. The country's leaders have allowed corrupt practices, political ambitions, ethnoreligious sentiments, infiltration of the government and military services by Trojan Horses that are sympathetic to terrorists, and power tussles to make the cancers of terrorism fester for over ten years. Arising from all the arguments above, therefore, this study concluded that any efforts to address the terrorism challenges in Nigeria that are not unanimously devised by Nigerians, even with external assistance, would remain unproductive in the light of the inherent sabotage and lack of unity of purpose. Therefore, to avoid a situation in which the country would dissolve into socio-political Armageddon, national consensus to address the menace of terrorism needs to be devised.

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Assessment of Legislature-Executive Pattern of Relations in Nigeria's Democratic Governance of the Fourth Republic: Prospects and Challenges

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ABSTRACT

This study examined legislature-executive pattern of relations in the Nigeria's democratic governance of the Fourth Republic and its implication on good governance. To realize the above aim, the study relied on descriptive qualitative method and separation of power theory. It also relied on secondary data which included journal articles, textbooks, executive-legislature documents and the 1999 Constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. The study upon conclusion revealed that legislature-executive pattern of relations in Nigeria since the return of the Fourth Republic in 1999 had been more at loggerheads and crisis-ridden. It also revealed that this pattern of relations between the institutions, on several instances, had only succeeded in holding back good governance and service delivery to Nigerians. Their crises often overheated the polity, resulting into political instability, delay in the passing of bills and national budget among others. Based on the available revelations above, the study concluded that better relations, democratic consolidation and good governance can only be achieved when the executive and the legislature promote and adhere to the separation of power principles. They must maintain their constitutional jurisdiction to promote an enduring democratic practice, political stability and full representation of

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E-mail addresses: victorenugu47@gmail.com (Victor Vincent Okpe) mfuad@uum.edu.my (Muhammad Fuad Othman) * Corresponding author the people. The study will be relevant to the institutions, the public, and researchers alike. Further study can also be conducted on executive-judiciary relations under the Fourth Republic.

Keywords: Democracy, executive-legislature relations, fourth republic, good governance, Nigeria

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INTRODUCTION

Globally, the drive for good governance has left many countries in a crossroad decision, especially on which best governance model to practice. However, the end of the "Cold War Era" between the United States and the Soviet Union brought a grand change in the system of governance in several countries in the world. The period, also known as the "Third Wave Era", led to the wide spread of democratization in many countries of Africa, and including Nigeria (Isma'ila, 2016). According to Isma'ila (2016), democratization is not a new phrase in the world, but was intensified at the expiration of the cold war era between the Soviet Union and the U.S. It also brought a new phase in the development of the global capitalist system characterized by the global reorganization of the movement of finance and production, and invariably promoted a spread desire for democratic governance.

In Nigeria, however, the restoration of a democratic government in late 1979 after fourteen years of military reign was quite significant in the history of Nigerian politics. The occasion led to the jettison of the Westminster Model practiced in the First Republic of 1963 (Oni, 2014). The Westminster Model was jettisoned in 1979 in favor of a Presidential democracy patterned after the U.S. even though the government did not last long as it was toppled by the military in 1984. But the 1987 political bureau, the 1989 Constitution, the Constitutional Conference of 1994, as well as the 1999 Constitution, approved the retention and practice of a presidential model as a system of governance in Nigeria, notwithstanding the bitter politics of the 1979 Second Republic (Oni, 2014). It was a momentous occasion politically for Nigerians.

Also, the return of Nigeria to a democratic government in 1999, after a long military reign, ushered in the Fourth Republic with the retention of a presidential system of government. According to Oni (2014), under the 1999 presidential democratic model, no organ of government is either more powerful or secondary to another. Every organ of the government, for example, the legislature, the judiciary or the executive, enjoys independence within its sphere of constitutional power. The legislature and the executive derive their authorities from the 1999 Constitution. For instance, the executive is headed by an executive president, while the legislature, also known as the National Assembly in Nigeria, comprises the Senate president at the upper chamber, and a Speaker at the lower chamber (Oni, 2014; Yusuf, 2018). Under this arrangement, the executive and the legislature are both separate in terms of personnel, powers and functions constitutionally.

In addition to the above and for the essence of good governance, the two political institutions (i.e. the executive and the legislature) are expected to function on a pedestal of cordial relationship. The cordial relationship is desired for good governance, service delivery, and consolidation of democracy and sustenance of a stable political system. Relying on the above perspectives, therefore the essence of this study is to investigate the pattern of relations between the executive and the legislature under the Nigeria's Fourth Republic democratic governance and its implication on good governance. Such assessment will reveal the institutions' pattern of relations in the Nigerian presidential democracy and the factors that drive such pattern of relations. The assessment will also help in providing a valid modality for promoting a healthy interaction between the organs for the benefit of quality service delivery and democratic consolidation. To achieve the above objective, the study is divided as thus: introduction, conceptualization of terms, constitutional roles of the institutions, materials and methods, theoretical framework, results and discussion, and finally, the conclusion.

Conceptual Clarification

In order to create an easy understanding of this study, the following concepts such as 'the legislature', 'the executive', 'democracy' and 'democratic governance', are conceptualized in the following subheadings.

The Legislature. The word 'legislature' enjoys various names across the globe (Okpe & Taya, 2018; Oni, 2013). In Nigeria, for instance, it is described as 'the National Assembly'. In Britain, 'the Parliament', while in the U.S as 'the Congress' (Heywood, 2007; Lafenwa, 2009; Okpe & Taya, 2018; Oni, 2013). The legislature represents a fundamental institution in the business of democratic governance (Ewuim et al., 2014; Heywood, 2007; Obidimma & Obidimma, 2015; Okpe & Taya, 2018, Oni, 2013). In this same vein, Bernick and Bernick (2008), saw the legislature as a branch of the state with the essential objective of expressing and articulating the collective will of the society. It is the most significant institution of political representation (Murana & Bakare, 2019). In Nigeria, the legislature is a state legal body established by an act of the 1999 constitution to make, change, or amend laws, and perform the duty of constituency representation in the National Assembly, as well. It also controls the government through an oversight role (Okpe & Taya, 2018). According to Okoosi-Simbine (2010), the legislature represents a policy influencing organ. It is a lawmaking and deliberative group established to enhance a democratic political system. In fact, the legislature represents the Site of Sovereignty, First Estate of the Realm, Public Expression and the Realm of Representation of Public Will. The above submissions of Okoosi-Sinbine project the legislature as a legal instrument of the state and the voice of the people. These also support the description of Bernick and Bernick (2008) about the legislature. Following the above views on the legislature, hence, it can be said that the institution derives its power from the masses. It simply portrays that the existence and authority of the legislature should be exercised to represent the will of the citizens.

The Executive. In a presidential democracy such as Nigeria, the executive is seen as an irreducible organ of the state (Heywood,

2007; Oni, 2013; Okpe & Taya, 2018). According to Laski (1992), the executive as an organ of the state, occupies an important position in the business of the state. Furthermore, Laski noted that in many democratic nations, the executive is perceived as an agent of the state that, first, makes a decision on the final public policy choice to be sent to the legislature for an approval; and second, coordinate and articulate the various activities of departments and ministries of the state. In the same vein, Puke (2007) projected the executive as a state branch organ responsible for providing viable and good governance for the people. It is a legal state institution accountable for public policy implementation (Edosa & Azelama, 1995). For instance, it is noted that while political edifices existed for years without an independent organ for law making, political structures that lacks the executive branch will find it challenging to succeed (Okpe & Taya, 2018).

Furthermore, Oni (2013) and Heywood (2007) expressed that a political community could function without a constitution, assembly, judiciary or even political parties, but could not stand in the absence of the executive in charge of public policy formulation and implementation for a prosperous society. Accordingly, Anifowose and Borode (2007) believed that the executive represented a strong arm of government and basically inclined with the execution of public policies, as well as the authoritative laws of the state. The executive in Nigeria is often perceived as the main organ of the state that wills the highest power of the land in terms of governance, among other public policies, for the benefit of the people. In the above conceptualizations, therefore, the absence of the executive in a state arguably could make governance challenging.

Democracy. Democracy, arguably, has remained a consistent model of governance after the "Cold War Era" between the U.S and the Soviet Union. According to Yusuf (2018), and Okpe and Taya (2018), the concept of democracy is coined from two Greek concepts observed as 'demo' which stands for the 'populace' and 'Kratia' which means the 'rule'. They further observed that the fundamental meaning of democracy is a government owned by the people. In line with the above, Bello (2011) and Akindele and Olaopa (1997) noted that democracy, on its own, drove various ideological controversies, philosophical camps and analytical disputes. As a kind of a political system, just like any other political concept of its nature, it has been very challenging in portraying its actual meaning without ideological ambiguity (Akindele & Olaopa, 1997; Okpe & Taya, 2018). Operationally, it is the government of the citizens, by the citizens and for the citizens. It also tells that executive-legislature pattern of interactions can only be dissected within a political democratic space such as Nigeria. In this model of governance with respect to presidential democracy, the power, the legislature, and the executive, lie with the people who vote them into office.

Democratic Governance. In a democratic society such as Nigeria, the essence of democratic governance cannot be undermined. Democratic governance as a phrase simply means to govern a democratic state and the people in line with the teachings and dictates of democracy. In respect to this, Isma'ila (2016) observed that democratic governance was considered genuine only when the government in her actions was noted to be transparent and accountable to the public. It can also be said effective especially when citizens' freedom of expression and association are guaranteed. Citizens must enjoy the freedom to elect and supervise those in charge of public offices, and the freedom to practice meaningful and competitive election in their country. In a democratic system as noted by Omodia and Aliu (2013), the state is anticipated to promote and support respect for citizens' rights, enhance constitutional practice, transparency and accountability. It must ensure fairness in the distribution of public resources, and respect the rule of law, both of which are the bedrocks of a democratic government. Democratic governance entails the enjoyment of the actual democratic principles in a democratic setting. In Nigeria, however, dividends of actual democracy remain questionable as the people continue to complain of poor dividends of democracy, which also has its root in the pattern of institutional relations in the country (Yusuf, 2018). Hence, building on the above overviews, the following constitutional roles of the institutions in Nigeria are considered for clearer understanding of the study.

The Constitutional Roles of the Legislature in Nigeria

In most presidential democracies like the US, Canada, Philippines, Malawi and Nigeria, the constitutional roles of the legislature are often not taken for granted. These roles primarily are to do with legislation, oversight and citizens' representation in the parliament. In Nigeria, for instance, these basic roles are captured in the 1999 constitution and they are discussed under the following subheadings.

Legislation. In several presidential democracies as mentioned above, one of the basic constitutional duties of the legislature has to do with legislation (Abonyi, 2006). As an important institution of the state (Murana & Bakare, 2019; Okpe & Taya, 2018), the legislature is concerned with the enhancement of state activities in which legislation happens to be one. According to Laski (1992), the legislature has the constitutional responsibility to pass state laws. It represents a constitutional organ that lays down the exceptional societal laws and rules. It enjoys the power to enact laws for the effective governance of the state. These laws by constitutional rights can come from individuals or in the form of a private member's bill, as well as from the executive (Abonyi, 2006; Benjamin, 2010). In Nigeria, to be specific, since the emergence of the Fourth Republic in 1999, legislation remains one of the cardinal roles of the legislature (Nwaubani, 2014; Oni, 2013), and this is covered under Section 4(2) of the 1999 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria.

Representation. Just like the legislation, representation is another constitutional responsibility of the legislature (Awotokun, 1998). It is important to note that as the present-day administration complexities have made it challenging for the people to engage directly in the business of the state as was practiced in the Greek City-States, people now participate in their government through their elected representatives (Awotokun, 1998; Baba, 2019). In this regard, therefore, the representative's ability of the legislature enables the citizens with the opportunity to offer their contribution in the governance of their state (Edosa & Azelama, 1995). As Murana and Bakare (2019) noted, in the presentday democracies, representation remains an important requirement for the practice of democracy. In Nigeria, for instance, the lawmakers perform the responsibility of representing their constituents in the National Assembly as they defend their choices (Simmons, 2002). This role is covered in the 1999 constitution under Section 48 and 49. It has also remained in practice to date.

Oversight. An oversight role of the legislature over the activities of the executive in a presidential democracy is seen as one of the main functions of the legislature in enhancing good governance and accountability. According to Fashagba (2009), an oversight function represents a strong component activity of the legislature notwithstanding the type of government in practice. This role, as noted by Saliu

and Muhammad (2010), is a necessary constitutional action of the legislature over the executive. It involves investigation and monitoring the performance of the executive. In addition to the above, the legislature enjoys the constitutional power of overseeing the government performance, as well as the capacity to hold it responsible for her actions and inactions (Fashagba, 2010). It is one of the vital roles of the parliament in Nigeria (Baba, 2019). It is also consolidated under Section 88 of the 1999 Constitution of the Fourth Republic.

Also, parts of these legislative oversight roles in Nigeria involve the approval of executive nominees and public expenditure. According to Sanyal (2009), almost all the government expenditures, except for a few as directed in the 1999 constitution, must be authorized by the legislature. He further observed that the financial oversight role, for example, is exercised as a part of the annual national budget process. The role works as a vital instrument for the sustenance and consolidation of democracy (Lafenwa & Gberevbie, 2007). The parliament has the full legal backing to sanction expenditure of the government in the interest of the public as mentioned in Section 88 of the 1999 constitution. It is also important to note that most of these oversight roles like the approval of nominees, sanctioning of government expenditure and monitoring of its projects, are often done through committees of the National Assembly. The committees are task-oriented groups with a constitutionally defined purpose, and they function as the engine block of the legislature (Heywood, 2007). These committees, as further noted by Heywood (2007), apply legislative powers as they sanction executive bills and financial requests. They also scrutinize the activities of the ministries and agencies (Baba, 2019). The oversight roles of the legislature are often wide and done to promote transparency and accountability in Nigeria.

The Constitutional Roles of the Executive in Nigeria

Like the legislature in Nigeria, the executive which stands as the main engine of the government, also performs its own constitutional responsibilities. These responsibilities involve administration, legislation, and judicial functions, which are well established in Section 130(1)(2) of the 1999 constitution. They are discussed in the following subheadings and starts with the administrative role:

Administrative Role. In Nigeria, the executive organ of the government as one of the important standing instruments of good governance performs the function of administration. This role is done through controlling and coordinating the affairs of the government (Baba, 2019). As noted by Abonyi (2006), the executive coordinates and supervises the implementation of state laws made by the legislature. It equally appoints, controls, and disciplines its administrative officers. However, such appointments must be sanctioned by the legislature. The executive also controls the state military, oversees the external affairs,

carries out the declaration of a state of emergency, when appropriate, and represents the country in legal treaties with other sovereign states in the international system (Anifowose, 2008). This administrative role of the executive is often cumbersome in a presidential democracy like Nigeria.

Legislative Role. Under the Nigeria's Fourth Republic 1999 constitution, legislation also falls under the constitutional roles of the executive. The executive performs this role through the initiation of public bills to the National Assembly for possible sanctioning and consideration. According to Baba (2019), the executive institution is responsible for government policies, projects and programs. It also signs bills into law and issues commands to accommodate changing occurrences in the political system. As revealed by Anifowose (2008), the executive equally performs the political function of summoning and prerogative of mercy as defined by the 1999 constitution.

Judicial Role. Part of the executive roles (aside from the administration and legislation in Nigeria) involves judicial responsibilities, such as prerogative of mercy to state offenders. This form of judicial activity for instance, may encompass reducing a judicial proclamation already passed by the judiciary on an individual. It could also involve reprieving or delaying the execution of a citizen who has committed punishable crime (Oni, 2013). According to Anifowose (2008) and Abonyi (2006), the executive has the capacity to declare an amnesty on

citizens, such as exempting them from the legal penalty of their crimes. This kind of role, for example, was witnessed during late President Yar' Adua and the Niger Delta Militants amid 2007 to 2010 in which he pardoned their crime and offered them amnesty. It was also seen in the pardoning of some former principal officers of the National Assembly like Dr. Chuba Okadigbo, Evan Enwerem and Salisu Buhari, whom were indicted of sharp practices ranging from certificate forgery and corruption (Omotoso & Oladeji, 2019). These roles of the executive, especially in the 1999 constitution, were quite extensive.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study made use of descriptive qualitative research method to explain the pattern of relations between the legislature and the executive under the Nigeria's democratic governance of the Fourth Republic and its impact on good governance. According to Wright and McKeever (2000), descriptive qualitative method fits better in the study of social phenomenon. The aim is to avail a rich description and deep thought on the phenomenon of interest (Magilvy, 2003). The above submissions by the authors, therefore, explain why the study uses the method to achieve its set objectives. Also, the study relied mainly on secondary sources of information which included literatures that discussed on institutional relations and governance such as journal articles, legislature-executive reports and books written by authorities in the field. These authorities included Joseph Fashagba,

Chiedo Nwankwor and Ola-Rotimi Mathew, Omololu Fagbadebo and Fayth Ruffin among others. Importantly, the theory of separation of power by Barron Montesquieu was also used to consolidate the study and will be discussed below.

Theoretical Overview

The Theory of Separation of Power. This study adopted the theory of separation of power because of its capacity to explain the pattern of legislature-executive relations in Nigeria. The theory was developed by Barron Montesquieu (Mbah, 2007). According to Mbah (2007), this theory stands as the bedrock of democratic ethos in both present and past centuries. De Montesquieu in 1748 published this theory also known as "the Spirit of the Laws". It was reorganized from an ancient knowledge into a more standard political theory. As noted by Sabine and Thorson (2018) for instance, Montesquieu attributed liberty in England to the separation of the judicial, executive and the legislative powers, and the balancing of such powers over each organ. It can be said that the idea of power separation in the medieval European lawmaking operated as a countermeasure against the acclaimed divine power to rule by the kings. In England to be specific, the long tussle amidst the crown, the courts of common law and the parliaments, which reached its peak in the 1688 Glorious Revolution, underscored the significance of power separation, as well as checks and balances between the institutions of the state (Mbah, 2007).

According to Obidimma and Obidimma (2015), power separation involves the division of governmental powers and functions among the three major organs of the state which includes the executive, the legislature and the judiciary. As they further observed, this is a precedent condition for the supremacy of ruling in line with the laws of the state and with regards to a presidential democracy. Separation of power among the state organs intends to limit institutional rascality and the arbitrary use of power. It believes that a single institution of the state must not be thrusted with the entire power of the government (Mbah, 2007; Obidimma & Obidimma, 2015). Its central proposition is to guarantee citizens' liberty and to build an effective system that promotes the rights of the people. Montesquieu strengthened his view as he observed thus:

Political liberty can only be guaranteed when abuse of power is not guaranteed. However, often experiences have proven that every man given power has the capacity to abuse or misuse such power. To avoid this, it becomes pertinent from the look of events that power must not be concentrated in one state organ. For example, when the executive, judiciary and legislative powers are surrendered under one body, then human liberty cannot be ensured. (de Montesquieu, 1748/1752, p. 173).

In the context of Nigeria for instance, the 1999 Constitution vests the powers of the state in the three major arms of the government. These arms include the executive, the legislature and the judiciary (Obidimma & Obidimma, 2015). According to Aguda (2000), with this constitutional arrangement, no organ or level of government at any time may perform or exercise any function not assigned to her by the law, either directly or indirectly. Regrettably, the main essence of the 1999 constitution and the application of the theory in the Nigeria's Presidential democracy for good governance have not been fully achieved. This explains why since the inception of the Fourth Republic in 1999, the pattern of interaction between the legislature and the executive has often been more of a conflict of interest and crisis-ridden than cooperation and collaboration (Fatile, 2017; Godswealth et al., 2016; Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Okon et al., 2013).

In addition to the above, the crises often occur when electing leaders of the parliament, and legislature's oversight like giving approval to executive bills, nominees and public expenditure. This was evident during the administrations of President Obasanjo (1999-2007), Goodluck Jonathan (2010-2015) and Buhari (2015-2019) (Baba, 2019). According to Oni (2013), power separation by the 1999 constitution has been guaranteed for an effective running of the state and consolidation of democratic governance, but crisis pattern of relations has often been the game. This has been the situation since 1999 as the application of the theory, as defined in the 1999 constitution, has only remained as a document but not in actual practice to promote good governance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned in the prelude, the objective of this study was to understand legislatureexecutive pattern of relationship in Nigeria's Fourth Republic and its implication on good governance. On the above objective, however, the following results such as, conflict and collaboration pattern of interaction, leadership crisis, executive interference in parliamentary affairs, conflict over public expenditure and narrow-minded interests amongst institutions were revealed. These results are fully discussed in the following.

Legislature-Executive Pattern of Relations in Nigeria

In the present Nigerian democratic experiment under the fourth republic, the pattern of interaction between the executive and the legislature remains an issue of debate in the academic circle and among citizens. It has also been revealed to exist in two-folds, which includes conflict, and collaborative pattern of relations (Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Osakede et al., 2017). According to Momodu and Matudi (2013), and Bassey (2002), executive-legislature relations involve the total transaction and interaction that happens between the two arms and this mostly exists in a presidential democracy such as Nigeria. The fact that the two institutions are essentially established towards achieving the objective of administering the affairs of the state in order to guarantee citizens welfare and security in Nigeria, the pattern of relations between these institutions appears complex.

In some cases, the relations are either peaceful or cordial, while in some occasions, dysfunctional and tensed (Momodu & Matudi, 2013).

In Nigeria for example, in 2001, just two years into the Fourth Republic democratization process, leadership crisis erupted between the two institutions of the state, namely, the executive and the legislature over executive interference in the leadership selection process of the legislature. It was widely covered by the Nigerian media (Okon et al., 2013). The key implication of such crises as result had exposed, led to several impeachments of personalities in the legislature, and namely, Senate Presidents and Speakers in the House of Representatives (Okon et al., 2013; Momodu & Matudi, 2013). Also, on several occasions, crisis relations between the two over public expenditure often heated up the system such that many feared that the Fourth Republic would collapse due to the greed and recklessness identified with the principal actors of the institutions. Due to the constant crises above, Nossiter (2010) noted that Professor Soyinka asked Nigerians to rise and rescue their country from those politicians who did not represent public interests. Also reacting to the crises, Prof. Utomi, noted in Fashagba (2010) and Aiyede (2005), observed that Nigeria could only be free from these institutional crises if the citizens would take to the streets to demand respect for the constitution and the rule of law. Allying with the scholars, Baba (2019) also revealed that ever since the emergence of the Fourth Republic, the interaction had been more of crisis-ridden rather than cooperation and collaboration for the interest of the people.

According to Momodu and Matudi (2013), coalition formation between the two arms only aids the narrow-minded interests of the political elites and making it elitist in both character and nature in most cases. As they explained further, this pattern of relationship did not constructively guarantee viable policy development and implementation process to benefit the public. Also, power and influence often run from the political elites at the top, and down to the citizens, via elite-inclined public policy (Anderson, 1984; Dlakwa, 2008). At this juncture, as noted by Romer and Rosenthal (1978), the legislature and the executive should uphold the constitution and develop a sound coalition that would advance service delivery to the society, as well as to promote the consolidation of democratic governance in Nigeria. They should act as state institutions of agenda setter for Nigerians rather than constant conflict at the expense of good governance and quality service delivery to the people. They should also adhere to the principles of separation of power.

Challenges of Legislature-Executive Relations in Nigeria

In Nigeria, challenges facing executivelegislature fair relations were revealed to be enormous considering their level of impacts in almost all democratic transitions in the country. With respect to the above, Igbokwe-Ibeto and Anazodo (2015) explained that many factors had posed a huge challenge to a fair relationship between the two institutions in Nigeria. These factors include dysfunctional democratic culture, corruption, executive constant interference in parliamentary affairs and personal interests of political gladiators (Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Omotoso & Oladeji, 2019). Expanding the factors further, Rockman (1983) revealed oversight role, executive dominance and ignorance of the provisions of the 1999 constitution by the institutions.

As Omotoso and Oladeji (2019) further observed, democracy in Nigeria is still far away from being consolidated due to the evidence of the military hangover which has persisted in the system. Democratic principles like institutional accountability, free and fair elections and the rule of law are still a rarity in the system. Also, close to the above is the deep-rooted culture of corruption amongst the political institutions, which is a consequence of military misrule for several years in Nigeria. The 1999 constitution empowers the legislature to perform oversight roles such as screening executive nominees, approval of expenditure and even to impeach the president, but however it is disheartening because the executive continues to interfere in the exercise of such functions. Additionally, several members of the institutions also pursue their personal interests which are usually at variance with their basic functions. These issues create challenges to the institutions' fair relations (Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Omotoso & Oladeji, 2019).

In addition to the above as Igbokwe-Ibeto and Anazodo (2015) further noted, the 1999 constitution provided that making of laws should be the responsibility of the legislature for better governance in the country, while the executive should maintain the constitutional role of policy implementation. However, it has remained doubtful and debatable if the two institutions understand and have achieved the basic intents and meanings as enrolled in the constitutional provisions of their roles. This is left to logic that the struggle for achieving good governance and democratic consolidation in the country has continued to exist as a mirage, and most particularly in the obvious high rate of clashes among the organs. These clashes by implication succeed in giving birth to enormous poverty, persistent corruption among politicians and other ills among public office holders in the government (Igbokwe-Ibeto & Anazodo, 2015). Following the above without alteration, therefore, one can say that there exists a misplacement of priority among the two institutions and such misplacement would continue to remain as a challenge between the institutions if the situation is not given a timely arrest.

The State of Democratic Governance in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the return of democratic governance in 1999 which marks the beginning of the Fourth Republic was a welcome development among many Nigerians. According to Yusuf (2018), the return of democratic governance in the country after a long time of military interference in the nation's politics came with a lot of positive expectations. These expectations, however, have not been met as democratic consolidation and good governance have continued to remain a mirage through the activities of the institutions of the government like the executive and the legislature. In view of the above, Osakede et al. (2017) opined that democratic governance encompassed the sustainability of a country. As he explained further, this sustainability had to do with the enduring ability to maintain the independence of government institutions like the legislature, and the executive through the principle of separation of power, the exercise of authority in line with the constitutional provisions, respect for the fundamental rights and freedoms of citizens, the practice of accountability and transparency in the system. According to Bassey (2002), a country which is known with the practice of democratic governance is one that practices and promotes a wide degree of political participation, acceptance of a diverse system of political parties, tolerance of the media, as well as a vibrant civil society. It is also one that ensures faster development through a fair political process, viable institutions and regulations to enhance human capacity and faster economic growth. In Nigeria, however, these indices for good democratic governance have remained a tall dream (Isma'ila, 2016; Yusuf, 2018).

Implication of Legislature-Executive Tense Pattern of Relationship on Good Governance in Nigeria

Generally, the pattern of relationship between the legislature and the executive by implication can produce either positive or negative impact on good governance. In view of the above, Momodu and Matudi (2013) in their study explained that in an atmosphere of friendly relations between the legislature and the executive, interaction would be more positive, democracy consolidated, and good governance promoted. It would also enhance parliamentary oversight, strengthen policies for the public and promote responsible leadership. Friendly relations in addition, would equally promote institutional accountability, transparency and aid the legislature to develop important policies for the system, and finally, promote an effective representation and participation of the people in the affairs of the state. All these are the hallmarks of a democratic government.

In contrast to the above, however, Osakede et al. (2017) revealed that the constant face-off between the executive and the legislature had continued to generate ineffective policy development and implementation in Nigeria. According to Ukase (2003), this pattern of tense relationship between the institutions hugely affects the democratic processes and often time, overheat the national polity. The two institutions are always in struggle for supremacy and control over public policy making and implementation, and thereby suffer the ethos and the principles of power separation enshrined in the country's 1999 constitution (Momodu & Matudi, 2013). This tensed pattern of relation between the institutions undermines the pace for effective governance. It promotes hostility, suspicion, political instability, culture of impunity and abuse of the rule of law (Fatile & Adejuwon, 2016). The skirmishes never consolidate good governance and stable political system. In this respect therefore, it is important to note that the viability of any presidential democracy lies in the provision of actual dividends of good governance to the people, which can be achieved via healthy interaction among the state organs (Nwokeoma, 2011, as cited in Fatile, 2017).

Following from the above revelations as presented by Momodu and Matudi (2013); and Osakede et al. (2017), it is important to note that in an atmosphere of crisis-ridden relationship between the two institutions, the implication of such tensed pattern of relationship would always impact more negatively on the political system. It would affect sound policy development and implementation, as well as endangers the healthy running of the state affairs. For example, the passing of the 2016 and 2017 national budgets into law had witnessed a serious delay and disagreement between the two chambers. On this issue, Ayuali (2003) noted that as a result of the unfriendly relations between the executive and the legislature in Nigeria, the economy had continued to face serious confrontations and various challenges such as democratic instabilities that had featured the country for decades now.

Managing Legislature-Executive Relations in Nigeria

In Nigeria, several factors have been identified to be responsible for the challenges of a healthy legislature-executive interaction for good governance. As seen above, the factors include executive interference in parliamentary affairs, oversight role, corruption amongst others (Baba, 2019). However, the challenges can be managed in order to achieve a healthy interaction between the institutions. The healthy interaction is important as it would lead to a healthy security, speedy passage of bills and national budget, peace and good governance. The institutions must also develop a synergy to promote viable policy making and implementation process to drive good governance and consolidate democracy.

According to Remington (2004), for the institutions to be able to perform their constitutional roles, it is important that some degree of cooperation and understanding exist between them. Accordingly, Omotoso and Oladeji (2019) also noted the need to practice and adhere to the primary views of the principle of separation of power as established in the Nigerian 1999 constitution. In addition, the legislature must be given the free hand to perform its functions, while the executive must comply with the legislature in performing their roles. Collaboration and harmonious interaction between the legislature and the executive remain pertinent for achieving national development, good governance and democratic consolidation (Shehu, 1999). Better relations unarguably remain the key in achieving anything related to good

governance in Nigeria, which without it, good governance will only remain a mirage.

CONCLUSION

In a presidential democracy, legislatureexecutive healthy interaction cannot be overemphasized. They play vital roles in aiding a viable political system, delivery of good governance and democratic consolidation. With respect to the above, this study was centered on the objective to understand legislature-executive pattern of relations in Nigeria and its implication on good governance. To realize the above objective, the study relied on descriptive qualitative research method and secondary information. The results that emerged disclosed that since the return of democratic rule in 1999 in Nigeria, executive-legislature relations had been more of a crisis rather than cooperation. It also revealed that this institutional crisis between the two institutions often led to delays in the passing of national budgets, and bills, amongst other important policies in the country. The crisis equally derails the delivery of good governance, promote political instability and denial of democratic consolidation in the country. At this juncture, it can be concluded that the pattern of relations between the institutions impact more negatively on good governance, and therefore, synergy becomes necessary to promote good governance. Finally, the study would however, benefit the institutions, the public, and researchers alike. Further study can be conducted on executive-judiciary relations under the Nigeria's Fourth Republic.

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Solid Waste Management in Urban and Rural Communities of Santa Cruz Watershed, Laguna, Philippines

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ABSTRACT

Solid waste management (SWM) has become a continuing hurdle for governments and communities because of its multi-faceted nature. With the worsening SWM problem, the Philippines enacted Republic Act 9003, the *Ecological Solid Waste Management (SWM) Act 2000*, instituting SWM Program. Water quality in water bodies and watersheds is adversely affected by pollution, exacerbated by increasing population and urbanization. This study examined RA 9003 implementation in urban and rural communities of Santa Cruz Watershed (SCW) which drains into Laguna Lake. Knowledge, awareness, and perceptions (KAPs) of communities were elicited using focused group discussions, interviews, and surveys in barangays within the watershed. Municipalities have completed respective10-year SWM Plans, organized SWM Boards, and SWM committees in villages. Communities showed satisfaction with SWM implementation and monitoring but rural communities had higher overall SWM effectiveness ratings. Both communities were willing to pay for a cleaner environment. Challenges that hamper better implementation of RA 9003 include non-segregation of solid waste by residents attributed to lack of awareness and discipline;

irregular garbage collection; inadequate garbage trucks; lack of functional materials recovery facilities; and limited government resources. Addressing these concerns will further boost RA 9003 compliance and enhance the effectiveness of implementation and monitoring in the communities.

Keywords: Philippines, Republic Act 9003, Santa Cruz Watershed, solid waste management in urban and rural communities, willingness to pay (WTP)

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INTRODUCTION

As a highly-populated country, the Philippines is beset with challenges accompanying the increasing population that exacerbates the problem of solid waste. Under the Local Government Code of the Philippines 1991 (Republic Act 9003 [RA 9003]), it is expected that Local Government Units (LGUs) perform their role in implementing programs mandated by the national government, including the Solid Waste Management (SWM) program. RA 9003 or the Ecological Solid Waste Management Act 2000 was enacted to address the worsening garbage problem, along with its environmental and health impacts. Almost twenty years after its enactment, SWM remains to be a major problem.

According to Bueno et al. (2016), fully realizing the policy's objectives is a great challenge, given various local factors. Recent studies show diverse results in communities (Maskey et al., 2016). Atienza (2011) concluded that problems on waste were entirely population dependent. In waste generation, there is a difference of 0.3 kg person⁻¹ day⁻¹ at 0.7 kg person⁻¹ day-1 and 0.4 kg person-1 day-1, for urban and rural communities, respectively. Irene (2014) mentioned that the implementation of the policy depended on the attitude and perceptions of communities towards waste management. Almazan and Vargas (2016) viewed that success in the implementation of waste management systems in the country specifically at the local level, depended on the level of educational attainment and

proper education and information activities, particularly in reducing generated wastes and segregation at source.

Imposing fines and community service are included in waste policy implementation at the local level (Ancog et al., 2012). A common scheme used by municipalities in the country is segregation-at-source and non-collection of wastes if households fail to segregate (Azuelo et al., 2016). Lack of mechanisms for monitoring the different waste management activities and the absence of materials recovery facilities (MRFs) and sanitary landfills were revealed by Sapuay (2015). Further, most local agencies involved in waste management are undermanned, hence municipalities rely on outsourcing, as this is deemed more costeffective than providing regular personnel (Almazan & Vargas, 2016).

Management of wastes in urban villages in the country depends on the local translation of RA 9003 as adopted by the city government (Maskey et al., 2016). In Pansol, Quezon City, the provision of waste collection service by the city government and non-collection of unsegregated garbage were effective tools for households' compliance in waste segregation. Households complied because it was mandatory and a means to reduce waste-related risks such as pests and diseases, especially during typhoons and floods (Maskey et al., 2016). Cebu City villages showed high levels of compliance to waste management with at least three local policies being strictly implemented by the city government (Ancog et al., 2012). Turning trash into reusable and marketable items facilitated the diversion of waste generated by households into functional items and composting biodegradable materials.

On the other hand, most studies on waste management that were conducted in rural areas showed that local policies were absent (Almazan & Vargas, 2016; Azuelo et al., 2016; Vivar et al., 2015). Vivar et al. (2015) revealed that Brgy. Lahug, Cebu City adopted the city-wide policy of "No Segregation, No Collection" with the SWM ordinance not yet enacted. Almazan and Vargas (2016) reported the lack of implementation of RA 9003 in Bayog, Los Baños, Laguna as evidenced by unsegregated wastes and the absence of MRF. Composting of biodegradable wastes was minimally practiced, with kitchen wastes ending up as food for domesticated animals or disposed of within the household's periphery. However, residents of the village recycle solid wastes, as these are sold to formal and informal waste facilities. An earlier study by Atienza (2011) reported that all villages were compliant with the rigid waste management policies implemented by the municipal local government.

Azuelo et al. (2016) identified six strategies being implemented in Camarines Norte villages which were deemed effective, namely: 1) placing waste bins for each type of waste in a strategic location; 2) conducting livelihood and skills training; 3) providing garbage collection trucks with a regular collection, transport, and final disposal; 4) holding skills training in composting of organic waste; 5) increasing knowledge and Information, Education, and Communication (IEC) materials on waste segregation; and, 6) adopting an ecological SWM program and promulgating rules and regulations.

The RA 9003 and Related Policies. As provided in RA 9003, the State adopted a "systematic, comprehensive, and ecological solid waste management program". It provides for the reduction and minimization of waste at source through composting, recycling, reuse, and recovery, among others. The systematic administration of activities (segregation at source, segregated collection, and transportation, storage, transfer, processing, treatment, and disposal of solid waste) and all other waste management activities that do not harm the environment refers to ecological solid waste management. Private sector involvement in SWM is encouraged with LGU having major responsibility in its enforcement.

Hierarchically, SWM has four levels, namely: 1) At source: reduction and minimization of waste generated; 2) Village level: reuse, recycle, and resource recovery of wastes; 3) City/municipal level: efficient collection, proper transfer, and transport of wastes; and 4) SWM Facility: efficient management of residuals and final disposal sites and/or any other related technologies for the destruction/reuse of residuals.

The LGUs are expected to have established an SWM Board, with an approved 10-year SWM Plan, SWM committee at the village level, and each village or cluster of villages established an MRF and a centralized MRF at the municipality/city. Aside from RA 9003, there are other policies enacted by the government to ensure a safe and healthy environment for the Filipinos (Table 1). These policies highlight the functions of the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) and the government in making sure that people reside in a safe living environment.

This study examined the status of implementation and monitoring of RA 9003 in urban and rural communities in Santa Cruz Watershed (SCW); determined the role of various local institutions involved in the policy's implementation and monitoring; identified problems and difficulties in carrying out RA 9003 at the local level; and recommended measures to further improve its implementation and monitoring at the local level. With this, the study sought to add to the current knowledge on how SWM was practiced in two types of communities and the necessary improvements as suggested by the participants of the study.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Primary data were gathered through the conduct of a survey among households in six 'poblacion' barangays of the Santa Cruz Watershed, particularly in the municipalities of Rizal, Magdalena, Majayjay, Liliw, Nagcarlan, and Santa Cruz (Figure 1). The municipalities were selected because of their proximity to the primary tributary draining into Laguna

Table 1

Waste management-related	l policies in	the Philippines

Policy	Purpose/Scope
Organic Agriculture Act 2010 (RA 10068)	Look after the development as well as the promotion of organic agriculture, carry out a nationwide educational and promotional campaign for use, processing, and adoption of organic agriculture system to reduce pollution and destruction of the environment, and undertake comprehensive program promoting community-based organic agriculture systems.
Climate Change Act 2009 (RA 9729)	Establish a framework strategy and program on climate change, integrate climate change in government policies, and create the Climate Change Commission to coordinate, monitor, and evaluate programs and plans relating to climate change.
<i>Environmental Awareness</i> <i>and Education Act 2008</i> (RA 9512)	Provides for integrating into school curricula, environmental education encompassing, waste minimization, segregation, recycling and composting, resource conservation, including livelihood opportunities.
Philippine Clean Water Act 2004 (RA 9275)	The State shall pursue economic growth within the framework of sustainable development, but consistent with "protection, preservation, and revival of the quality of fresh, brackish and marine waters.
Philippine Clean Air Act 1999 (RA 8749)	Centers on pollution prevention and provides a comprehensive management program for air pollution with the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) leading its implementation.
Toxic Substances and Hazardous and Nuclear Waste Act 1990 (RA 6969)	Controls and regulates importation, manufacture, processing, sale, distribution, use, and disposal of hazardous and nuclear wastes with DENR as the principal agency.

Sources: https://www.da.gov.ph; https://www.emb.gov.ph; https://www.officialgazette.gov.ph

SWM in Urban and Rural Communities of Santa Cruz Watershed

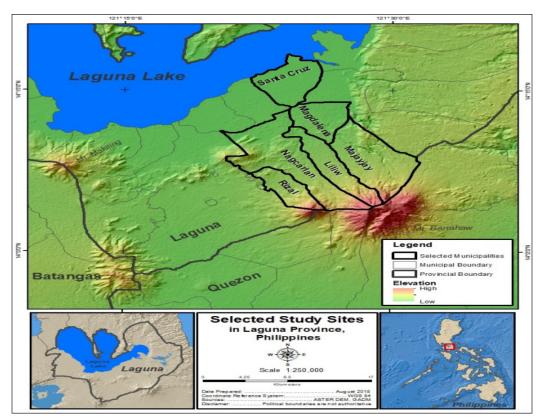


Figure 1. Map showing study sites and the portion of Laguna Lake

Lake and the worsening waste management problems affecting water resources based on studies conducted among its residents. Selected villages were classified into rural or urban communities, according to the level of urbanization, population density, and income class. Classified as rural villages are Poblacion, Magdalena; Origuel, Majayjay; and West Poblacion, Rizal while Rizal, Liliw; Poblacion II, Nagcarlan, and Poblacion IV, Santa Cruz were categorized as urban communities. A total of 180 randomly selected respondents distributed across the different sitios of barangays, were surveyed using a semi-structured questionnaire. Key Informant Interviews were undertaken with the village captain,

committee on environment chair (*kagawad*), Materials Recovery Facility (MRF) incharge, the Municipal Environment and Natural Resource Officer (MENRO), and head of RA 9003 implementation in the village/municipality.

Furthermore, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with 10 to 12 participants were done in each study site. Representing a household, each participant should have knowledge of the collection and disposal of garbage at home and community. This methodology was used to uncover community-level concerns and important information that could be elicited within a short period. Secondary information was sourced from reports at municipal LGUs, including their 10-Year SWM Plans, and other LGU reports. Further, publications and literature from the internet were also utilized.

Analysis of data was mainly descriptive, using frequencies, percentages, means, and others. Chi-square test of independence and t-test were done to determine differences between responses of rural and urban communities. It is hypothesized that the perceptions of respondents in urban and rural communities significantly differ.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Compliance of LGUs in the Santa Cruz Watershed on RA 9003 Provisions

As provided in RA 9003 implementing rules and regulations, LGUs must comply with 6-point requirements (Table 2). In the study sites, the SWM Board at the municipal and SWM committee at the village level had been formed by LGUs in both types of communities. The required 10-year SWM Plans had also been completed. Previously operating dumpsites in municipalities had been closed. All urban communities have municipal/central MRFs. The establishment of village MRFs is a major requisite under RA 9003, however, two rural communities have none. One reason is the lack of space to situate the MRF and limited funds for its construction. Among cluster villages, the issue is where to establish the MRF. Urban communities have a higher level of compliance because they have a bigger budget allocation as compared to rural communities.

Profile of Santa Cruz Watershed, Communities, and Solid Waste Problem

The Santa Cruz Watershed has an area of 12,445.54 hectares sprawled across several municipalities of Laguna province, namely: Pagsanjan, Rizal, Majayjay, Magdalena, Nagcarlan, Santa Cruz, Pila, and Nagcarlan. The Santa Cruz River contributes about 15% of the Lake's total water, irrigating 2,185 hectares of farms of Nagcarlan, Liliw, Victoria, Pila, and Santa Cruz.

Table 2

Agreet		Rural			Urban	
Aspect	Majayjay	Magdalena	Rizal	Liliw	Nagcarlan	Santa Cruz
SWM board				\checkmark		
SWM committee	\checkmark			\checkmark	\checkmark	
10-year SWM Plan	\checkmark			\checkmark	\checkmark	
MRF established in each village or cluster	Municipal: none	Municipal: none	Municipal: 1	Municipal: 1	Municipal: 1	Municipal: 1
villages	Brgy: 13%	Brgy: none	Brgy: 25%	Brgy: none	Brgy: 8%	Brgy: 3%
Open dumpsites closed	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
Compliance rating by	67.13	67.0	83.25	83.0	83.08	83.03
respondents (%)*	High	High	Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high

Compliance of LGUs in Santa Cruz Watershed to RA 9003 provisions, FGDs, and KIIs conducted in 2017

Note: * 81 and above: very high; 61-80: high; 41-40: moderate; 21-40: low; 20 and below: very low

Rural communities in the area are engaged in agricultural activities like the production of rice, vegetables, root crops, and fruit-bearing plants. Urban communities are also engaged in growing those crops, fruit trees, and coconuts. Other major sources of income in urban areas are retail stores, business, transport, and overseas employment. SWM was considered a major challenge in both communities. Rural communities perceived far location or absence of MRF as the primary problem. This finding is similar to that of Azuelo et al. (2016), citing that the lack of MRF contributes significantly to the prevailing attitude in waste disposal. Meanwhile, urban community respondents consider the collection as the worst problem on garbage, e.g. irregular collection, delayed or no collection which worsens when the garbage truck is inoperative, and lack of MRFs.

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Majority of the respondents in both rural and urban communities were female (Table 3). Most were married and with an average age of 52 years. In both communities, households had an average of five members with rural households having more members. More than half graduated from either high school or college. Almost all respondents were employed varying from business, agriculture, or employed in government, with the majority having an average monthly income of PhP 8,569.0. Their residence in the village averaged 37 years.

Awareness of Respondents on Solid Waste Management and Their WTP

Awareness of Local Policies on SWM and Sources of Information. Respondents were aware of the SWM Program of the local government. Considered as the main source of information, local governments have done their part in disseminating information on the SWM program which can be gleaned from the respondents' level of awareness. Waste segregation was the most mentioned policy being implemented. Moreover, respondents in both communities were mindful of the ordinances on SWM in their locality.

There are ordinances on proper waste disposal, garbage collection, and burning of garbage. Local policies cited are banning the use of plastic and styrofoam, "no smoking", disallowing stray dogs, "no segregation, no collection", and "*Tapat mo linis mo*". This finding is opposed to the reports of Almazan and Vargas (2016), Azuelo et al. (2016), and Vivar et al. (2015), that local policies are absent in rural areas. It was even noted that rural communities had more ordinances on SWM than urban ones.

Willingness to Pay (WTP) for Maintaining Clean Environment. To determine which community type gives higher importance to a clean environment, respondents were asked whether they were willing to pay or not and how much to safeguard a clean environment. This would have bearing on future strategies to improve RA 9003 implementation, e.g. proper disposal of garbage; clean-ups. More than 80% of

Characteristic –	Rı	ıral	Ur	ban	То	tal
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age range						
Less than 30	12	13	5	6	17	9
31-40	16	18	11	12	27	15
41-50	12	13	16	18	28	16
51-60	21	23	34	38	55	31
61-70	22	24	18	20	40	22
Greater than 70	7	8	6	7	13	7
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100
Mean age	5	51	5	53	5	2
Sex						
Male	22	24	27	30	49	27
Female	68	76	63	70	131	73
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100
Civil status						
Married	70	78	63	70	133	74
Widow	13	14	12	13	25	14
Single	6	7	12	13	18	10
Separated	1	1	2	2	3	2
Live-in	0	0	1	1	1	1
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100
Household size						
1-3	32	36	39	43	71	39
4-6	46	51	37	41	83	46
7-9	9	10	12	13	21	12
10-12	3	3	2	2	5	3
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100
Mean household size		5		4	4	5
Education						
Elementary undergraduate	0	0	2	2	2	1
Elementary graduate	14	16	3	3	17	9
High school	4	4	3	3	7	
undergraduate	7	+	3	3		4
High school graduate	28	31	33	37	61	34
College undergraduate	17	19	13	14	30	17
College graduate	22	24	31	34	53	29
Vocational	5	6	5	6	10	6
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100

Table 3Demographic characteristics of respondents

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respondents in both communities were willing to pay up to PhP 50.0 per month. Three rural community respondents showed higher WTP amounting PhP 250.0 or more per month. Willingness to pay for a clean environment is shown in Table 4. There was no significant difference observed (X^2 =.928; p-value=.335) in the WTP of urban and rural communities. However, more rural community respondents were willing to pay even at higher values (p-value=.046) as seen in Figure 2. For the rural community respondents, paying higher fees could be used for garbage disposal expenses and help keep the community and the environment clean. More respondents from rural communities were also in favor of imposing an additional fee for garbage collection. Urban respondents were not in favor of additional fees since the local

Table 4	
Willingness to pay for a clean environm	ent

Willingness to pay ^a				
Type of Community	Willing	Not willing	Chi-square value	p-value
Urban	71	19	029	225
Rural	76	14	.928	.335
Willingness to pay- Value ^b				
Type of Community	Ν	Aean	p-valu	e
Urban		28	046	
Rural		45	.046	

Note: ^aChi square test for independence at $\propto = 0.05$; ^bindependent sample t-test at $\propto = 0.05$

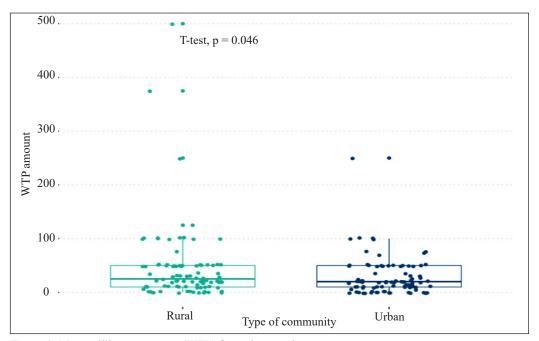


Figure 2. Mean willingness to pay (WTP) for a clean environment

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government collects PhP20.0 to PhP60.0 per month for garbage disposal. It can be gleaned that rural communities in SCW give greater importance to a clean environment than urban ones.

RA 9003 Implementation and Monitoring in the Communities

Congruent to RA 9003 which provided the SWM program, ordinances are passed by most villages and municipalities, e.g., prohibiting plastic use, burning of waste, and smoking in public places (Table 5). The imposition of a penalty for non-compliance is observed to happen more in urban communities. Fines and community service were forms of penalty cited by Ancog et al. (2012). Segregation at source, collection by garbage trucks of LGU, disposal at MRFs, or sanitary landfill and monitoring are the main components of SWM at the local level.

Garbage Segregation and Collection.

Segregating and following garbage collection schedules were how respondents abide by the SWM program. Segregation was done by having separate garbage containers for recyclables, non-biodegradable, and biodegradable materials. Food items were classified as biodegradable which was used for animal feed or composts. Respondents who failed to segregate their garbage argued that their children prepared their garbage for disposal and that they had a handful of household chores to do.

Biodegradable and non-biodegradable garbage were collected on different days by the garbage truck. The collection was

D*	Rı	ıral	Ur	ban	Тс	otal
Response*	n	%	n	%	n	%
Segregation/Disposal						
Segregation of waste at source	89	56	88	56	177	55.8
Penalty for non-compliance	26	16	41	26	67	21.1
No penalty	19	12	7	4	26	8.2
Not aware if with the penalty	5	3	8	5	13	4.1
Further segregation at MRF	2	1	0	0	2	0.6
Collection						
No segregation, no collection	12	8	6	4	18	5.7
Separate days collection for biodegradable and non-biodegradable	1	1	3	2	4	1.3
Collection by garbage truck	2	1	1	1	3	0.9
Recycling	1	1	0	0	1	0.3
Others (school supplies in exchange for plastic; using sacks in disposing of garbage; banning plastics/burning garbage; cleaning canals; no smoking policy)	3	2	3	2	6	1.8

Table 5Implementation of SWM program

Note: *multiple responses

done six times a week in urban communities while in rural, once a week. Along the main roads, the collection of garbage was done daily. It was reported that in some villages, both biodegradable and non-biodegradable wastes were collected during the same day by a single garbage truck, resulting in mixed garbage. A common practice by garbage collectors in both communities was not collecting unsegregated garbage. This was also reported by Azuelo et al. (2016). The garbage collection scheme being undertaken was rated by more rural community respondents to be "moderately effective" to "highly effective" (Figure 3). They mentioned that garbage was regularly collected and garbage collectors worked very hard. Respondents from urban communities gave lower ratings. This may be attributed to inconsistent and inadequate collection schedules, non-segregated garbage by some residents, and uncollected garbage.

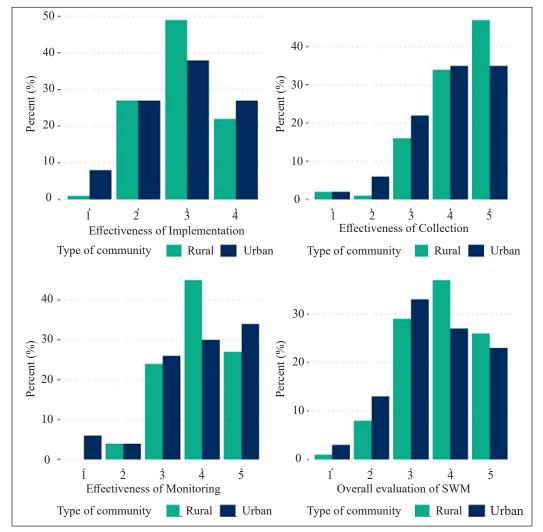


Figure 3. Perception of SWM implementation, waste collection, and monitoring

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There are some efforts being done in rural communities worthy to be highlighted. In a rural community, the Vice-Mayor facilitated garbage collection. A municipality distributed sacks labeled to track ownership of garbage while another municipality exchanged school supplies with plastics collected by school children.

Ratings on the Effectiveness of RA 9003 Implementation. The respondents were requested to rate the implementation of RA9003 or SWM in their village (Figure 3). Respondents in both types of communities were satisfied with the implementation since they observed improved cleanliness in surroundings and more residents are cooperating or starting to cooperate. Respondents who gave low ratings argued that the SWM program was not strictly implemented and some residents do not cooperate.

Monitoring Strategies by LGUs. Generally, monitoring was done by village officials/ inspectors and garbage collectors across study sites. Village officials did random checking if segregation of garbage was done in their locality. Each village *kagawad* (councilman) had an assigned zone for monitoring. In one of the rural villages, there was an employed person tasked to check if garbage was segregated prior to collection. In effect, there was no unsegregated garbage collected. For its part, monitoring was performed by the municipal waste management team.

The effectiveness of monitoring schemes by LGUs got "effective" to

"highly effective" ratings from respondents. However, urban communities received more "ineffective" to "very ineffective" ratings from some respondents than rural ones. This was also raised during the FGD in an urban community where respondents affirmed that there was poor monitoring of SWM implementation.

Several challenges in monitoring SWM implementation were identified. An inadequate LGU budget for SWM might result in a lack of personnel to do the monitoring. The absence or lack of a monitoring system was also noted. The inability of garbage collectors to trace the owners of unsegregated garbage was also viewed as a problem.

There was no difference (p=.941) in ratings for SWM implementation of the two communities as both were found effective. Comparatively, collection effectiveness ratings of rural and urban communities were also not significantly different (p=.113). SWM monitoring in rural communities is rated to be more effective (p=.062) than in an urban setting. The overall SWM effectiveness rating was higher in rural than in urban communities (Table 6).

Table 6

Relationship of	of type of	^c ommunity	and SWM
activities			

SWM	Mean	Rating	
Activities	Urban	Rural	- p-value
Implementation	3.66	3.67	.941
Monitoring	2.23	2.78	.062*
Collection	3.78	4.03	.113
Overall	3.22	3.49	.066*
*significant at ∝=	0.10		

Community Participation in SWM Program

Most of the respondents participated in beautification and clean-up drives that were regularly organized in their communities. Interestingly, they volunteered to participate in these activities even without payment, since this was for the cleanliness of the surroundings and a form of *bayanihan* for a village activity.

About one-fourth of the respondents shared that village officials/4Ps recipients were obliged to participate in the activity. A few others mentioned that participation in community activity would inspire others to cooperate. For some, it was a form of exercise and a good incentive, since in some urban communities, those who participated were being paid, e.g. PhP 340/day or 2 kg of rice. Respondents who did not participate in clean-up drives reasoned that (1) they were swamped with household chores or work or caring for their children/grandchildren; (2) only beneficiaries of 4Ps and village officials were obliged to clean; (3) they were already old and/or ill; (4) they were not informed that there would be a clean-up drive or they were new in the village; and (5) street sweeper was employed to do the cleaning.

Institutions Involved in RA 9003 Implementation in the Communities

The municipal local government is the primary institution for SWM implementation, with an encompassing role in the collection of garbage and maintaining cleanliness, policy implementation, and monitoring, collection, and disposal of waste. Expectedly, it provides garbage collection trucks even to villages. The village local government also has a major role in SWM implementation. Local institutions participate in SWMrelated activities as evidenced by clean-up drives, implementation of SWM, collection of garbage, monitoring, and maintaining the cleanliness of the locality. Cleaning riverbanks, reminding residents, managing the MRF, and teaching school children how to segregate waste are also being done.

Apart from the local governments, the civil society is greatly involved in these activities, e.g., schools and civic organizations (Rotary Club/Riders/ Guardians, LIMAS MARINA). The LIMAS MARINA association (Liliw, Majayjay, Santa Cruz, Magdalena, Rizal, Nagcarlan) regularly conducts tree planting and cleanup activities. The 4Ps beneficiaries of the Department of Social and Welfare Development (DSWD) participate in cleanup activities. Private and public colleges and universities, usually under the National Service Training Program (NSTP) extend community service, e.g. clean-up of villages, tree planting, and beautification.

Notably, the provision of waste service, in general, is more pronounced and systematic in urban than in rural communities. Parallel to the findings of Atienza (2011) and Maskey et al. (2016), more stringent implementation of proper solid waste management can be associated with the capacities of LGUs to provide these services.

Problems in RA 9003 Implementation and Monitoring

As viewed by respondents, the major problem in the implementation of the SWM program was the lack of discipline among residents, no cooperation, and limited information about SWM (Table 7). These were observed to be more evident among urban communities. Similarly, the irregular schedule of garbage collection was a greater problem for urban than rural communities. The irregular collection schedule as well as late garbage pick-up worsened the situation as stray animals scavenged the piled garbage and scattered them on the streets.

The absence or lack of MRF was mentioned in both types of communities. Worse, the dumping of garbage by some residents from nearby areas in respondents' village was a problem urban communities face. Unmaintained or clogged canals, presence of scavengers, non-collection of broken glasses, uncollected garbage, and scattered cigarette butts were also cited. Furthermore, piggery waste flowing directly to the river was mentioned in a rural community. These are parallel with the findings of Almazan and Vargas (2016) which altered environmental psychology when it came to proper waste management.

Suggestions to Improve RA 9003 Implementation and Monitoring

With these problems, respondents suggested measures to improve RA 9003 implementation and monitoring by local governments and institutions. These suggestions were primarily on

Response	Rı	ıral	Ur	ban	То	tal
-	n	%	n	%	n	%
Presence of Problems						
Present	54	60	66	73	120	67
Absent	36	40	24	27	59	33
Total	90	100	90	100	180	100
SWM Problems	n=	= 54	n =	= 66	n =	120
Lack of discipline, cooperation, and information on SWM by residents/tourists	20	36	35	41	101	54
Some residents do not segregate their garbage	15	27	11	13	26	14
Irregular/late pick-up and inadequate days for the collection of garbage	2	4	14	16	16	9
No MRF/space for MRF/garbage containers	6	11	8	9	14	7
Garbage from nearby places dumped to barangay	0	0	9	10	9	5
Dogs scatter garbage and pooping anywhere	5	9	3	3	8	4
Clogged and unmaintained canals	2	4	2	2	4	2
Foul odor and piggery waste disposed to river	3	5	0	0	3	2
Others (scavengers, cigarette butts, no garbage truck, lack of street sweepers)	3	5	4	5	7	4

Table 7Problems with RA 9003 implementation

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Information and Education Campaign (IEC) enhancement activities, budget augmentation, and policy implementation. In terms of the policy, the respondents stressed the need for stricter implementation and monitoring of garbage segregation, collection, and disposal as well as the penalty for non-compliance. An increase in garbage collection frequency and the putting up of MRFs in villages were deemed necessary. Stricter implementation of ordinance on stray dogs was also emphasized. It was also recommended that SWM, particularly proper segregation and disposal of solid wastes, should be integrated into the school curriculum.

It was also suggested that IECs be boosted and lectures conducted to inform residents on RA 9003 and SWM program; post signs and distribute fliers and regular reminders to residents. During village assemblies, it is vital that each household be represented and involved. Following the strategy of one of the rural villages, garbage sacks are labeled with the name of the household for ease of tracing the source of unsegregated garbage. A penalty can also be imposed on those who fail to comply. Further, regular and frequent monitoring must be done, employing additional staff as needed. Allocating additional budget for SWM and providing incentives to collectors/ monitors were also suggested.

CONCLUSIONS

In both types of communities, SWM is being implemented and this is evident in LGU compliance to the RA 9003. Majority of the respondents practice waste segregation at source largely because of the penalty imposed with non-compliance. RA 9003 implementation is better appreciated by rural communities as garbage is properly disposed of and observed improved cleanliness of surroundings. This is one major reason why the program should be pursued and implemented consistently. Rural communities tended to put more effort into proper garbage disposal and cleanliness given their willingness to provide additional time for various SWM mechanisms such as segregation and clean-ups. On the other hand, urban communities rely on the provision of these services by the LGU since additional fees are being imposed.

Constraints to the full implementation of RA 9003 are not absent, beginning from segregation at source in which many residents still do not abide, even with the prevailing local policies. The sporadic garbage collection causes confusion as to when should the garbage be brought out for pick-up. Lack of garbage collection trucks or dysfunctional trucks worsens this problem. The absence of MRF makes the problem more difficult. The MRFs in urban communities are inadequate visa-vis the bulk of garbage from different villages. The absence of monitoring the actual volume and type of waste generated in communities exacerbates the recognition of suitable strategies to decrease volume per waste type. Leniency in policy enforcement is magnified by undisciplined residents. Finally, insufficient budget, personnel, and other machines/equipment result in poor implementation of the RA 9003 and SWM program.

With the challenges revealed in the study, it is vital to have a stricter policy implementation and monitoring. Local institutions, both public and private, are greatly involved in the policy's implementation and monitoring. The municipal government should provide support to the village government, primarily on sourcing funds and space for MRF. LGUs should grant the necessary equipment and facilities for the collection, disposal as well as processing of solid waste, including providing safety gear to protect collectors from infection and communicable diseases. The critical role of the garbage collector, who inspects the sacks during collection, as well as village tanod and kagawad in monitoring cannot be undermined.

Given that SWM Boards and SWM committees are in place, more proactive guidelines to formulate and enforce SWM ordinances are needed. Participation of the academe should be further sought especially in the integration of SWM in the curriculum, as provided under RA 9512. School curriculum must include topics on environmental conservation and protection, specifically proper waste disposal, to instill these virtues to the younger generation. Moreover, parents should be encouraged to attend lectures/meetings on how to train children on proper waste disposal. Consistent teaching and reiteration create good habits and virtue among communities.

Across the communities, participation should be further encouraged in clean-up and environment-related activities. Finally, a concerted and harmonized effort by LGUs, the academe, and the community is critical towards full and more effective implementation of RA 9003 or the SWM Act.

Further studies may be conducted on factors and strategies that would motivate communities to comply and enhance stakeholder participation in SWM activities. Relational studies on community health, water quality, and SWM may also be undertaken. A more profound comparative study of communities on SWM is also suggested for policy formulation.

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Japan's Democracy Support as a Regime Stabilizer: The Case of Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This article addresses a neglected area in Japan–Malaysia bilateral relations: democracy support. While Japan has established itself as a rising democracy supporter after the Cold War and more so in the 21st century, the country has provided Malaysia with only regime-compatible low-end assistance. Maintaining distance from pro-democracy actors, Japan continued giving *de facto* support to the semi-authoritarian government in Malaysia before the 2018 general election. There are two main causes: First, Japan emphasized democracy in its diplomacy with the intention of expanding its international influence and differentiate its diplomacy from that of China, rather than to promote democracy out of normative commitment. With a view to obtaining respect from and strengthening relations with state actors, Japan sought to nurture friendly relations with the Malaysian government despite its semi-authoritarian nature. Second, Japan saw elections as the most critical institution for democracy and did not intend to address the weak civil liberties in Malaysia. These two

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maiko.ichihara@r.hit-u.ac.jp (Maiko Ichihara) ellyamalin@gmail.com (Amalin Sabiha Ismail) *Corresponding author factors led Japanese projects to focus on the capacity building of public administrators as state actors rather than pushing for political change. Hence, Japan's diplomacy and foreign aid to Malaysia have helped stabilize the status quo instead of supporting democratic diffusion.

Keywords: Civil society, foreign aid, governance assistance, Japanese democracy assistance, Malaysian democracy

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INTRODUCTION

Malaysia is among the beneficiaries of democracy assistance from various Western actors such as the National Endowment for Democracy, the Open Society Foundations, and German political foundations (Stiftungen). While scholars such as Ismail and Abadi (2017, 2019) analyze whether there has been substantial influence from the support activities of these Western actors, analysis on the role of non-Western democracies such as Japan has been missing. Statistics from the Creditor Reporting System database of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD; 2018) indicate Japan as one of the highest contributor of democracy assistance to Malaysia up until 2016, with an amount totalling USD7.591 million. Given this relatively large amount of democracy aid, what kind of assistance has Japan provided? And, what is Japan's role in assisting democratization in Malaysia?

The current work is significant for its potential to open up a new dimension in the literature on the bilateral relationship between Malaysia and Japan, which previously revolved around the Look East Policy (cf. Furuoka, 2007; Jomo, 1983; Khalid, & Lee, 2003; Lee, 1988; Lim, 1984) and popular culture (Mamat et al., 2012; Yamato, 2013). The study most closely related to this topic was conducted by Ismail and Ismail (2019) who examined the role of two Japanese non-state actors, namely The Nippon Foundation and Sasakawa Peace Foundation, in promoting democracy to Malaysia. Given that democracy assistance is "a set of foreign policy instruments exercised by both governmental and nongovernmental actors in the forms of monetary and technical support for strengthening democratic rule and norms" (Hsiao, 2010, p. 585), it is important that the role of Japan as a state actor is also scrutinized. This study is also crucial to increase our understanding on Japan's democracy support to Southeast Asian countries. Past research on this topic includes several case studies on Cambodia (Sato, 2017; Takeda, 1998), Vietnam (Asplund, 2015; Sato, 2017), Indonesia (Ichihara, 2016), and Myanmar (Ichihara et al., 2016). Yet, there is no specific reference made to Malaysia except several brief mentions for comparative purposes.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

In order to analyze the nature of Japan's assistance and its impact for the Barisan Nasional (BN) government up until the power transition in 2018, this article employed the method of descriptive analysis, utilizing government publications and interviews with policy-makers, activists, and scholars, in addition to secondary sources. To determine the amount of Japanese democracy aid to Malaysia, statistics from the Creditor Reporting System of the OECD database, an authoritative source displaying the amount of democracy assistance, were used for the records from 2003 to 2016. The year 2003 was chosen as the starting year because official recorded data under the OECD Creditor Reporting System commenced in that year. The introduction of Country Assistance Program (CAP Malaysia) in 2002 was also a factor in the selection of 2003 as the starting year. We set 2016 as the upper limit for our analysis in order to specifically identify the dynamics of Japanese democracy assistance to Malaysia in the BN era before the transition of power to Pakatan Harapan (PH) in 2018.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Democracy Assistance

External support for democracy is provided through multiple routes, which include diplomatic rewards/sanctions, economic rewards/sanctions, and foreign aid (Ichihara, 2017). Although the Iraq war directed attention towards military measures as well, this is normally not available as a democracy support option. Among these three routes, the foreign aid option is termed democracy assistance. There are, in general, three forms of democracy assistance (Carothers, 1999; Santiso, 2001). The first is assistance to a political process-that is, electoral assistance or political party building. Political party assistance is the least favored method among democracy supporters except for actors like the American, German, and Swedish political party foundations, due to the sovereignty issues. The second form is assistance to state institutions-such as the strengthening of police, judiciary, constitution, local governments, and so on. It is closely related to good governance in addition to political liberalism; and depending on the nature of assistance, it could afford the potential to stabilize authoritarian rule. The third is assistance to civil society organizations (CSOs) such as media, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), trade unions, and think-tanks. This is a popular strategy used to channel assistance, especially from Northern European countries (Ichihara, 2013b).

Another dimension for classifying democracy assistance is binary. Ottaway (2003) divided democracy assistance based on its type of program, i.e., low-end and high-end. Low-end programs tend to be less aggressive, accommodating the sensitivity of recipient governments, and take state sovereignty into account; whereas highend programs are more aggressive such as displaying direct support towards opposition parties and democracy advocates. Another typology adopted by Carothers (2009) divides democracy assistance into political and developmental approaches. On the one hand, political democracy assistance tends to be based on a narrow interpretation of democracy such as democratic elections, political freedom, and the necessity for democrats to challenge anti-democratic forces. On the other hand, the developmental approach focuses on the larger context of democratic governance, including questions pertaining to equality, economic and social justice, as well as gradual change. This approach is also shared by Fukuyama and McFaul (2007) who argued that democracy support must be implemented in the context of advancing economic development, eradicating poverty, and improving good governance. In her latest study, Bush (2015) classified democracy assistance into regime-compatible and non-regimecompatible approaches based on programs

implemented. A regime-compatible program is a soft approach program that would not escalate into regime change (good governance, constitution, women's groups, rule of law and conflict resolution), whereas a non-regime-compatible program focuses on creating political mobilization and competition that may lead to regime change (elections, human rights, media, political parties and youth).

Evolution of Japanese Foreign Policy: From Foreign Aid to Democracy Assistance

The defeat of Japan in the Second World War has caused the country to not only cease its policy of militarism but also refrain from conducting foreign policy based on abstract values, ideas, or concepts (Ichihara, 2017). Japan adopted a strategy known as the Yoshida Doctrine that emphasized economic development, while relying heavily on the US for security (Wan, 1995). In Southeast Asia, Japan emphasized the principles of rehabilitating and promoting friendly relations with the countries it has colonized through the payment of monetary compensation from the mid-1950s (Sudo, 1992). Although the total cost of war compensation was only about USD1 billion, it enabled Japan to bring in Japanese financial institutions and create a market for Japanese goods in Southeast Asia (Brooks & Orr, 1985). Japan began to introduce a comprehensive official development assistance (ODA) program to Asian countries with the help of a public grant started in 1969. However, some

Southeast Asian countries' dissatisfaction with Japanese dominance of the economy led Japan to take significant steps by issuing the Fukuda Doctrine, underpinned by heart-to-heart diplomacy and also positive cooperation with ASEAN countries as equal partners (Sudo, 1992). This doctrine at the same time confirms the special status of ASEAN for Japan to date, and forms the basis of Japan-ASEAN relations in various fields. Japan also signed the Treaty of Amity Cooperation (TAC) in Southeast Asia in 2004, even though the TAC non-interference principle would potentially affect Japanese diplomacy on issues related to democracy and human rights (Shoji, 2009).

Within this context, Japan's concern over the implications of TAC is understandable because Japan has begun to use the idea of promoting democracy as a tenet of its foreign policy. Japan began showing the intention to support democracy in 1992 when the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan (MOFAJ) introduced the ODA Charter, acknowledging the responsibility to promote democratization as well as consolidation of human rights and freedoms in recipient countries (MOFAJ, 1992). The introduction of the Japanese ODA Charter was significant for Japan in that it provided clarification by addressing the explicit definition of economic and political assistance, which was previously obscure (Ryo, 1999). The ODA Charter was later revised in 2003 with the inclusion of the theme of human security to complement global democracy promotion (Potter, 2012). With the subsequent 2015 revision, sharing

of universal values such as "values such as freedom, democracy, respect for basic human rights and the rule of law" was positioned as one of the priority policies (MOFAJ, 2015). Criticism for Japan's lukewarm response to the Tiananmen Square incident in 1989 and the lack of recognition for its checkbook diplomacy during the Gulf War in 1991 led the country to seek to change its international cooperation and enhance its international reputation (Ichihara, 2020).

Furthermore, in the 2000s, competition with China for influence became fierce, and Japan began seeking to differentiate its diplomacy from China's by implementing a series of diplomatic initiatives under the Abe administrations, from the Arc of Freedom and Prosperity in 2006, to value diplomacy in 2012, and the Free and Open Indo-Pacific vision in 2017, all of which underscored democracy, freedom, human rights, and the rule of law as universal values (Ichihara, 2017, 2020). Pragmatic motivation is driven by international reputation and influence, rather than a normative commitment to value, led Japan to support democracy.

When it comes to Japan's approach to the support for democracy, Japan employs regime-compatible low-end programs using a developmental approach geared towards state institutions. Its approach thus differs significantly from that of Western supporters. Japan tries to save face, refraining from naming and shaming, and acts behind the scenes to persuade target governments to restore democracy or stop human rights violations. Japan's government-to-government aid leads the country to assist state institutions for good governance, holding the belief that the responsibility to implement change in a country rests with state actors (Ichihara, 2017).

Japan's regime-compatible approach to the support of democracy can be parsed into the historical, resource-related, and geopolitical reasons that serve as stumbling blocks, alongside a theoretical rationale promoting its adoption of such an approach. As a historical factor, Japan's reflection on its aggressiveness in realizing its national interest during the two world wars has held it back from providing political support, as argued by Akaha (2002). Thus, Japan's interpretation and definition of democracy differs from the norm of democracy in that it prioritizes social order and stability rather than liberalism with emphasis on individual rights and freedoms. When it comes to international support, Japan understands democracy procedurally in line with Joseph Schumpeter's definition and considers elections to be the prime requisite for democracy (Schumpeter, 1976). This differs significantly from the substantial or liberal definition of democracy, which considers civil liberties and political rights, in addition to elections, as the core constituting elements of democracy (e.g., Dahl, 1971, 1989). Japan's seemingly procedural understanding has been criticized for underestimating civic participation and does not reflect the manipulation of new electoral democracies in the course of an election (Ichihara, 2017). Scholars and experts on democracy assistance, for example, make the criticism

that Japan continued election assistance to Cambodia in 2018 even at the time of Hun Sen's power concentration (Expert Groups for the Reconsideration of Japan's ODA and Democracy, 2018).

Geopolitical and security considerations have also influenced Japan's decision to openly support democracy, and while the country began using values-based diplomacy as a strategy to compete with China for influence (Kliman & Twining, 2014; Potter, 2012), it intends to refrain from bringing democracy to the forefront of its diplomacy and foreign aid in order not to force other Asian countries to choose between Japan and China (MOFAJ official, personal communication, July 19, 2018).

These passive reasons have been supplemented by Japan's inclination towards the long-term approach posited in modernization theory whereby economic development will lead to democratization (Ichihara, 2013a). Japanese policy-makers and scholars alike show their belief that a short-term approach to the support of democracy will only destabilize recipient countries. While not denying freedomcentered values, they prioritize the right to development, social rights, and stability over civil liberties, for the sake of stable political development (A. Tanaka, personal communication, August 30, 2018; Cabinet Secretariat official, personal communication, July 11, 2018; Japan International Cooperation Agency [JICA] officials, personal communication, July 24, 2018; R. Hirono, personal communication, August 13, 2018; K. Inoue, personal

communication, August 16, 2018). A Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) report on governance assistance states that providing direct support for CSOs is not desirable, because it entails bypassing state institutions and could weaken the accountability of—and citizens' trust in the government (JICA, 2004).

Malaysia–Japan Relations

Malaysia-Japan relations are characterized by links in trade, investment, and services as a result of the Japanese war reparation program from 1967 through grants amounting to USD25 million (Katayama, 2013). Since then, Japanese investors have entered the Malaysian market, in line with the latter's interest in attracting foreign investors for development purposes. This has boosted Japan to the position of Malaysia's largest trade partner, surpassing even Britain (Hoong, 1987). Relations between the two countries were further improved through the strengthening of Japan's relationship with Southeast Asia based on the Fukuda Doctrine in 1977, and through Mahathir's Look East Policy in 1982. The policy had the three main objectives of nurturing a positive work ethic, increasing technological knowledge and expertise, as well as adopting management and organizational systems from developed countries in Asia such as Japan, in order to increase Malaysia's productivity and development (Khalid, 1999).

As Japan went into an economic recession in the 1990s, Malaysia began to strike a balance between Japan and China (Suzuki, 2013). The absence of proactive international and regional security contribution from Japan despite the exacerbated territorial disputes between China and Southeast Asian countries over the South China Sea, in addition to Japan's hesitance in supporting Mahathir's idea of East Asia Economic Caucuses (EAEC, a purely regional group excluding the US), caused psychological distance between Japan and Malaysia. On the other hand, China supported EAEC and expanded its presence as an important market for Malaysia, strengthening the bilateral relations (Suzuki, 2013).

Malaysia-Japan relations continued to prosper during Abdullah Ahmad Badawi's premiership (2003 to 2009), but their cooperation remained centered around economic partnership. Through the theme "Japan-Malaysia Friendship Year 2007," the two countries agreed to promote cooperation in five key areas: politics and security, economics, human resource management, environment and energy sectors, as well as international cooperation (MOFAJ, 2007). While the Arc of Freedom and Prosperity initiative, in which Japan intended to assist other countries towards values such as democracy, freedom, human rights, the rule of law, and market economy, was already in place by that time, there was no substantial development in democracyrelated issues. On the other hand, the Abdullah administration increasingly approached China as well (Suzuki, 2013).

Bilateral relations experienced an

increase in momentum during Najib Razak's premiership—as compared to that of Abdullah, who had only maintained the momentum. For Japan, the change of governing party from the Liberal Democratic Party to the Democratic Party of Japan in 2009 shifted Japan's focus towards "Asianism" and led to positive growth in Malaysia-Japan bilateral relations. In 2010 the two countries declared a new level of cooperation known as "Enhanced Partnership," focusing on cooperation in peace and security, energy and environmental sectors, as well as promotion of peopleto-people exchange (Zainuddin, 2015). However, such liberal values as democracy, human rights, and the rule of law were not included in the cooperative partnership plan. Furthermore, Malaysia continued to move closer to China, enjoying frequent mutual high-level visits and strengthening bilateral economic ties (Suzuki, 2013).

Malaysia–Japan relations gained another boost after Najib and Abe declared the second wave of Look East Policy in the Japan–Malaysia Summit Meeting in December 2013 (Embassy of Japan in Malaysia, 2013). However, Malaysia regarded the renewed Look East Policy as a part of its economic stabilization strategy, whereas Japan through the Abe administration viewed it as a medium to strengthen Japan–ASEAN ties against the rise of China (Kuik, 2015; Suzuki, 2014). The return of Mahathir as Prime Minister under the Pakatan Harapan government in May 2018 dramatically revitalized the

relationship between the two countries. Harapan's victory sparked exultation among Japanese political and business communities, followed by Mahathir's announcement to renew the Look East Policy. Over the span of fifteen months (May 2018 to August 2019) he made five visits to Japan, announcing the idea of a third national car project, and proposing expanded cooperation in education and trade. Japan also guaranteed a release of RM7.4 billion in Samurai bonds to Malaysia to assist its economic recovery. Despite the historic regime change, however, and the increased necessity to support Malaysia in its transition, the topic of democracy does not occupy an important area in the bilateral cooperation.

RESULT

Fostering warm and cooperative relations, Japan never tried to exert diplomatic pressure on Malaysia for democracy. Neither foreign ministers nor press secretaries of the ministry have made any comment on Malaysian police crack-downs on peaceful rallies organized by BERSIH (MOFAJ, 2000-2016, 2000-2017, 2000-2018), a tacit signal of support for the Malaysian government in its approach to the rallies. Japan seemed to be uninterested in initiating or discussing democracy-related issues since it considered Malaysia to be a relatively democratic country without excessive violation of democratic principles in terms of its elections and competition between political parties. The 2002 country-based aid plan for Malaysia is an interesting case

in point. Despite the political turmoil after the sacking of Deputy Prime Minister Anwar Ibrahim, and alleged serious human rights violations, the plan recognized Malaysia as a stable parliamentary democracy, and assessed Malaysia's political situation to be stable overall despite the temporary shakiness. Japan also considered BN's majority victory in elections as a sign of trust in the latter's credibility as a government (MOFAJ, 2002). High-ranking officials of MOFAJ emphasized in an interview with one of this article's authors the importance of the people choosing their representatives. However, at the same time, they argued that we have to respect the result of elections even if the elections are flawed, and showed reluctance to foster civil liberties beyond the will of local governments chosen through elections (MOFAJ officials, personal communication, July 26, 2018).

When it comes to a prominent actor in the 2018 election. Mahathir Mohamad, Japan does not seem to have exerted a political influence on his comeback. Japan has had weak relations also with Anwar Ibrahim, another key actor for the change in administration in 2018. When Anwar intended to make a personal visit to Japan in 2014, Japanese immigration rejected his entry, claiming that he did not possess a visa required for those who had been convicted in the past. Given that the conviction of Anwar was a result of domestic political strife, this was a diplomatic decision on the side of Japan to keep distance from this figure. Japan gave tacit support to the BN government and helped stabilize its semi-authoritarian rule, and Anwar held Japan accountable for its minimal role in democratization (Anwar Ibrahim, 2014).

MOFAJ has created country-based aid plans for Malaysia four times so far (MOFAJ, 2002, 2009, 2012, 2017). The plans do not directly identify democracy issues as such, but they target areas where Japan has aimed to assist in democratic governance and point out the importance of assistance for the development of institutions and human resources for the purposes of economic liberalization and improvement of administrative capacities (MOFAJ, 2002, 2009, 2012, 2017). This is a reflection of Malaysia's consecutive development plans which make no mention of issues related to civil liberties and political rights, but indicate the importance of good governance elements such as trustworthiness, integrity, accountability, and productivity (Prime Minister's Department of Malaysia, 2006, 2010, 2015). The Japanese government has focused on these norms because they are important in the contexts of both good governance and democracy, and are acceptable for the Malaysian government, and thus can be underscored without forcing the country to choose between Japan and China.

Table 1 displays the amount of ODA channeled from Japan to the government and civil society sectors in Malaysia. The aid is divided among 13 subsectors largely comprising governance assistance (low-end/ developmental/regime-compatible). Five other subsectors fall under the democracy assistance sector more strictly defined (high-end/political/non-regime-compatible), comprising democratic participation and civil society, elections, legislatures and political parties, media, and human rights.

DISCUSSION

Japanese aid is mostly allocated for public sector policy and administrative management, public finance management, and legal and judicial development. In other words, Japan's assistance for democracy in Malaysia comes in the form of assistance for state institutions. This can be best explained by Japan's Partnership for Democratic Governance concept of 1996, where the government regards governance assistance as democracy assistance (MOFAJ, n.d.). As observed, Japan allocated USD7.591 million to the sectors from 2003 to 2016, and almost all recipients for the 87 Japanese assistance projects in these sectors are government agencies such as the Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia, Royal Malaysian Custom Department, Royal Malaysia Police, Malaysian Anti-Corruption Commission (MACC), Public Service Department, and Prime Minister's Department. Most assistance consisted of capacity building, good governance, and transfer of knowledge (Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia, 2018; JICA, 2006, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2017a, 2017b; MOFAJ, 2013a, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). The data reflect Japan's intention to support the capacity of administrative officials.

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Muhamad Takiyuddin Ismail, Maiko Ichihara and Amalin Sabiha Ismail

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Table 1

but Japanese assistance does not appear to have influenced either of these issues. Japan has held good governance seminars at the United Nations Asia and Far East Institute (UNAFEI) in Japan annually, focusing on the issue of anti-corruption, where Malaysian anti-corruption officials have participated along with other Southeast Asian officials (UNAFEI, n.d.). A triangular anti-corruption project was also conducted between Japan and Malaysia (MACC and Malaysian Ministry of Foreign Affairs) in Palestine in 2013 (JICA Malaysia, 2013), which might have served as an opportunity for the Malaysian trainers to reconsider the value of anti-corruption. However, Japan's support did not address the fundamental problem of political intervention by the government in the MACC, and it was only after the arrival of the PH government that the MACC began taking prominent actions over the 1MDB corruption case. In addition, public outrage over the 1MDB scandal was not fostered by the MACC investigation, but instead by investigative journalism in the country.

While remaining low profile, Japan has provided non-regime-compatible support internationally in the form of support for elections, media, and CSOs. However, such support is provided to countries that are in democratization or liberalization processes, where momentum for accepting such support exists on the part of the recipient governments. In the case of democratizing Indonesia from the late 1990s to early 2000s and liberalizing Myanmar in the early 2010s, for example, Japan's support projects to such institutions as the Supreme Court, Prosecutors Office, elections, and media set their long-term goals as promotion of democracy. When the Indonesian government requested Japan to support CSOs as a part of its electoral assistance, JICA provided grant aid for Indonesian CSOs (Ichihara, 2017).

On the other hand, authoritarian governments have no incentive to seek democracy support, and this is true for the BN government as well (Hyde, 2011). According to one East Asian scholar in Malaysia, "Malaysian leaders are aware that requesting democracy support from any country is to acknowledge that their country is in a state of non-democracy" (Benny Teh, personal communication, June 17, 2018). Thus, Japan's assistance to Malaysia has much less direct political connotation. As shown in Table 1, there is nearly no direct assistance for democracy in the form of aid for democratic participation and civil society, elections, legislature and political parties, as well as human rights in Malaysia. The aid allocation for the media and freedom of information subsector is small, which indicates that this was not a full project.

Japan's approach in supporting democracy seems to marginalize local CSOs championing political and democratic issues. In Malaysia, several NGO recipients of the grant include Women's Aid Organization, Era Consumer, and PT Foundation, none of which work in the fields of democracy and governance. Those actors who played significant roles in the run-up to the 2018 election, such as BERSIH, Center to Combat Corruption and Cronyism, and *Malaysiakini*, did not receive support from the Japanese government. Although the Japanese Embassy provides Grassroots Human Security Grant Aid for CSOs, its priority is limited to non-political areas aiming to improve basic human needs such as healthcare, education, public welfare, and the environment, with a caveat that these areas must adhere to national development plans (Embassy of Japan in Malaysia, 2018).

For local CSOs that fight for democracy, the fact that Japan strictly adheres to the priorities of recipient governments makes it almost impossible for them to highlight ignored but important political agendas and obtain grants for these. If a proposed aid project is not approved by the government of the recipient country, the Japanese government will not provide funding to the Japanese CSO as it fears that this would disrupt bilateral relations (MOFAJ, 2013b). One of the best examples of such consideration is the removal of dissenting artworks from a cultural exhibition held in Kuala Lumpur in 2017. In this incident, Japan Foundation Kuala Lumpur (JFKL) as the organizer removed artworks by local Sabahan artist Pangrok Sulap that contained a political message. The action taken by JFKL was driven by reports made by several political parties, and was heavily criticized by local artists and cultural activists (Ismail & Ismail, 2019).

Political values can be transferred through education and training programs sponsoring local students to attend educational institutions in democratic countries (Furuoka, 2007). Nevertheless, unlike the American Fulbright scholarship which aims to expose international students to democratic values (Nye, 2004), Japan's scholarships do not aim to promote particular political values (MOFA officials, personal communication, July 26, 2018). From 1982 to 2003, 10,352 students received scholarships for education and training programs such as the Japanese Language Program for Malaysian Teachers, Malaysia-Japan Higher Education Project, Industrial and Technical Training Program, as well as Business Management Training (Embassy of Japan in Malaysia, 2017), most of which revolve around obtaining technical knowledge. While in 2001 Japan began the Young Leaders Program, one of whose purposes is to provide education on public administration, only administrative staffers recommended by the Public Service Department of Malaysia are able to participate, a limitation that effectively precludes the participation of opposition party members or CSO activists (National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies, n.d.). In both cases, therefore, the programs are not intended to transfer democratic values but to nurture pro-Japan people and to support administrative stability and capacity improvement. Reflecting this, our surveys conducted with top officials of pro-democracy CSOs such as BERSIH and Make It Right Movement, and think tanks such as Institute for Democracy and Economic Affairs, located almost no Malaysian pro-democracy actors who had

participated in education programs in Japan. Because of the lack of support from Japan for the civil society, those who are involved in activities of pro-democracy CSOs do not hold a democratic image about Japan. In addition, the Japanese government requires applicants for Japanese government's scholarships to indicate whether they have a criminal record, which can alienate civil society actors who have previous record of arrest due to their participation in street demonstrations (Kok Hin Ooi, personal communication, Feb. 25, 2020).

CONCLUSION

This article has explored the role of Japan as a low-profile democracy supporter in Malaysia. Our finding is that Japan's diplomacy and foreign aid to Malaysia have acted as a regime stabilizer rather than contributing to the diffusion of democratic norms. First, Japan's diplomatic approach to Malaysia has revolved around economic cooperation, and Japan maintained a distance from pro-democracy actors even after it began support for democracy internationally. Japan evaluated Malaysia as a stable democracy, and did not have a motivation either to lend moral support to pro-democracy actors or to expand liberal democratic norms among the general public.

Second, based on such an understanding, the Japanese government has assisted the capacity of Malaysian administrative officials. Together with high sensitivity on the side of the Malaysian government concerning the interference of external actors, aid projects with no or weak political connotation have been implemented. Focusing on good governance norms, which are necessary for democracy as well, Japan has taken the approach of not rejecting authoritarianism. In other words, Japan has not intended to bring about political change in authoritarian countries.

There are two main causes for such an approach. First, Japan has emphasized democracy in its diplomacy with the intention of expanding its international influence and differentiating its diplomacy from that of China, rather than promoting democracy out of normative commitment. Aiming to gain respect from and strengthen relations with state actors, Japan sought to nurture friendly relations with the BN government despite its semi-authoritarian nature. Second, viewing elections as the most critical institution for democracy, Japan did not intend to address the weak civil liberties in Malaysia. These two factors led Japanese projects to focus on the capacity building of public administrators as state actors rather than pushing for political change. Hence, Japan's diplomacy and foreign aid to Malaysia has helped stabilize the status quo instead of supporting democratic diffusion.

This does not necessarily mean that Japan's role in Malaysia can be considered as insignificant. Rather, Japan's democracy support to Malaysia suits its expertise in the context of democratic transition. Several informants assert that assistance for institutional and bureaucratic reform should be continued, in contrast with sectors more closely related to democratization (K. Suguira, personal communication, August 27, 2018; T. Inoguchi, personal communication, August 20, 2018; Y. Kasuya, personal communication, August 10, 2018). The recommendation is similar to what was suggested by other democracy supporters such as the International Republican Institute. After the power transition in Malaysia, the Institute urged the West and its allies in the Asia Pacific such as Japan and Australia to provide assistance and expertise in aiding the political transition in Malaysia, particularly expertise assistance for the new state administration with limited governing experience (Hays & Twining, 2018).

However, the (former) Pakatan Harapan government showed disinterest in political programs as a form of cooperation. Press statements by government leaders, particularly Mahathir, on bilateral cooperation were inclined toward issues pertaining to the status quo. Thus, instead of defining democracy merely in terms of elections, Japan should incorporate civil liberties and political rights in its understanding of democracy. Based on such recognition, civil liberties would be emphasized in diplomatic differentiation from China, and support for civil society should naturally increase.

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Ameliorating the Plight of Awaiting-trial Inmates in Ebonyi State, Nigeria Through Reasonable Bail Conditions

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ABSTRACT

Bail is a privilege granted to suspects at the discretion of a court. The court exercises this discretion to give temporary freedom to crime suspects pending the conclusion of court trial. Where the bail conditions become stringent, unattainable or out of reach for suspects, suspects overreach themselves and this defeats the moral intentions of 'bailing' and the law. This paper discusses how awaiting-trial inmates are the most victimized by the challenges of the criminal justice system in Ebonyi State and how easing bail conditions for awaiting-trial inmates could reduce suspects' costs of victimization. Using qualitative and quantitative research approaches, a sample of 1498 respondents comprising 623 awaiting-trial inmates, 617 police officers, 145 prison officers and 113 court staff was drawn from Ebonyi State. Multi-stage and purposive sampling techniques were used to reach the respondents.

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Questionnaire and in-depth interviews were instruments for data collection. Findings confirmed that keeping suspects in prisons longer than necessary is traumatic to suspects. Key recommendations include easing of bail conditions for awaiting-trial inmates by cutting the high bail prices to match the economic capacity of Ebonyi State's neighborhood or relaxing bail terms that could enable inmates to meet bail requirements.

Keywords: Awaiting-trial inmates, bail conditions, criminal justice system, victimization

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INTRODUCTION

The fields in criminal justice system (CJS) are vast. As a result of this vastness, it has been difficult for scholars in various fields of criminology and criminal justice sciences to agree on a single definition for the topic. Based on the emphases of each definition, patterns of schools of thoughts have evolved over time. These schools include: CJS as an aggregation of interdependent government agencies, CJS as a dispenser of punishments to law offenders and CJS as measuring metric for socio-economic stabilities. In the words of Moses (2011), the CJS is an embodiment of crime regulating techniques which represent the whole range of government agencies that function as the instrument of the state to enforce its set rules necessary for the maintenance of peace, order and tranquility. Following similar thought, Daly (2011) saw the CJS as,

a loosely coupled collection of interdependent agencies, each having bureaucratic interests and each having specific functions (which can be in conflict with other agencies) that are subject to legal regulations, where agency workers have great discretion in making decisions when responding (or not responding) to harms defined as criminal by the state and where value conflicts exist within and across agencies and in the general population about the meaning of justice. (Daly, 2011, p. 3).

Moses and Daly subscribed to the school of thought that saw the CJS as

aggregation of interdependent government agencies. This school views the CJS as a conveyor of law and order but with emphasis on the collectiveness of the government agencies that makeup this system. Ayorinde (2014) considered the CJS to be collective institutions through which an accused offender passed until the accusations were lifted or matching retributions were received. Schubert (2018) held similar definition of CJS as a maze of agencies and processes that seeked to control crime, minimize crime and impose penalties for the commission of crimes. Ayorinde and Schubert's definitions describe the school of CJS as dispenser of punishments to law offenders. This school considers the CJS as a hammer of justice that disposes penalties and retributions to law offenders. The CJS is entrusted with the responsibility of controlling criminal behaviors and punishing criminals or offenders (Anele, 2008). Osasona (2015) added that how well a country managed its CJS affects its overall performance on the governance index. He noted that a destabilized society was always avoided by both foreign and domestic investors. Nnochiri (2011) also held this view. A sound CJS in any nation is a precursor to economic growth, political stability and social equilibrium (Nnochiri, 2011). This last group subscribes to the school of CJS as measuring metric for socio-economic stabilities in a society. They consider more of the responsibilities of CJS to every nation beyond the primary role of keeping law and order. These responsibilities include social,

political and economic benefits. Each of the schools of thought is holistic and complete on its own. What differentiates or tends to classify each definition is emphasized and points stressed in the definition.

In Nigeria, the criminal justice system (CJS) starts from the moment a crime is committed, through investigations and trials to the moment a convict is rehabilitated and reintegrated into the society. It includes all the activities and agencies that are involved from the moment a law offender breaks a law to the moment when the offender is convicted, rehabilitated and reintegrated into the society (Nwune et al., 2018). The Nigerian criminal justice system (NJCS) is as old as the Nigerian state but has seen few modifications over time. These modifications are however not sufficient to be considered unique from the CJS inherited by Nigeria from the colonial era (Bowd, 2005). The effect of this outmodedness is that the CJS is incapable of identifying law offenders efficiently and swiftly adjudicating appropriate retributions/rehabilitation where necessary (Ajah & Nweke, 2017).

Ajah (2019) and Alemika (2005) called the Nigerian criminal justice system disjointed and further berated law enforcement agencies for keeping suspects beyond the constitutionally allowed time. According to Alemika (2005), no reason should justify such cruel acts from Nigerian law enforcement agencies. All suspects should be forwarded to trials upon arrest or treated according to constitutional provisions when not immediately possible. The reality is that when trials are delayed, evidences degrade, witnesses disappear and suspects spend long years in prison than is constitutionally allowed ("Nigeria justice forgotten", 2015). In Ebonyi State, an observation of the criminal justice administration in the state shows that the justice system is pervaded with factors that victimized awaiting-trial inmates and their dependents. This is because many a time, courts ask for a certificate of occupancy (C of O), as a condition prerequisite for bail in an area where most buildings are according to customary and family ownership, this makes it difficult for suspects to meet such conditions. Furthermore, the challenge is compounded by courts insistence on wealthy sureties in the midst of mass poverty (Aduba & Alemika, 2010). Notwithstanding, this paper is aimed at suggesting more efficient means of addressing awaiting-trial problems in Ebonyi State prisons by easing bail conditions through legislation.

Scholars have also pondered how these conditions could be improved through rehabilitation of awaiting-trial inmates (see for example, Adelani, 2018; Ajah, 2018a, 2019; Ajah & Nweke, 2017; Ajah & Ugwuoke, 2018; Alo et al., 2015; Nweke & Ajah, 2017; Nwune et al., 2018; Ukwayi & Okpa, 2017). For years, these discussions have been around massive improvement in prison facilities like advanced toilet systems, installation of modern prison housing, disbursement of proper prison vehicles to commute inmates to courts, and many more. There is little or no indepth research technique that includes the key justice agencies in the study process.

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This paper fills this gap by taking Ebonyi State's criminal justice system as study area. The paper is divided into four sections. The first section starts with the police and criminal justice administration. The second section introduces the court and criminal justice administration. The third section discusses the prison and criminal justice administration. The fourth section introduces in detail the methodology adopted in the study. The fifth section presents and discusses the results of the study. The sixth and last section concludes and discusses how legislative easing bail condition is a key to safeguarding awaiting-trial inmates in Ebonyi State, Nigeria.

The Police and Criminal Justice Administration in Nigeria

The police is the first contact point in Nigerian criminal justice administration. It is the first point of call whenever and wherever a crime occurs. Reports about crimes are lodged with the police who, after necessary investigation and apprehension, charge suspected offenders to courts of law (Dambazau, 2007; Igbo, 2007; Ugwuoke et al., 2020). Dambazau (2009) asserted that

The police are the biggest, most visible and important subsystem of the criminal justice system. The police provide the entry point into the criminal justice system either through crime reports from the public or its own discovery. The police organization is the main institution which provides regular direct contact with the public, a situation that makes it unique among the other components of the criminal justice system. The uniqueness of the police borders on the fact that the decision of a policeman on the street is as important as the existence of criminal justice system. The policeman is the gatekeeper of the criminal justice system as he decides who goes into the system components. The policeman lubricates the system through the arrest of suspects, who are essentially the inputs into the criminal justice system. (Dambazau, 2009, p. 178).

In view of the foregoing, the police need to be given mental, physical, emotional, educational and analytical trainings for the effective and efficient performance of their roles in the criminal justice system. Obidimma (2004), Ajah and Okpa (2019) termed the roles played by police as vital in the administration of justice. In fact, one wonders what the polity would be without the police. The role of the police, which is predicated on constitutional and statutory provisions, include the maintenance of law and order through the prevention and detection of crime, apprehension of offenders, investigation of persons alleged to have committed an offence as well as through the exercise of the power to grant bail to suspects under police custody. The police also participate positively in the administration of justice by conducting prosecutions in court. The police are also engaged in the execution or enforcement of court orders and judgments. In doing so, they enhance the honour, respect and integrity accorded to court by compelling

the performance and obedience to orders made by the court. It can therefore be said that no criminal justice system can operate effectively without the participation of the police. This is so even with the obvious and flagrant abuses committed by members of the police force (Ajah & Okpa, 2019; Obidimma, 2004).

The Court and Criminal Justice Administration in Nigeria

The court plays catalytic role in administration of justice and also acts as important machinery to the smooth running of the criminal justice system in any civilized nation. Indeed, the wheel of criminal justice cannot run without the court. Aina et al. (2010) predicated the quality of any judicial output on the competence, incorruptibility, efficiency and dependable judicial administrations of the court. Osasona (2015) asserted that the court system was the second most important component in the triangulated relationship of the criminal justice system involving laws, courts and enforcement agencies. The court system is the only formal institution through which legal actions against accused persons are channeled. The decisions and dispositions of the court system bear important marks on other components of the criminal justice system, such as the investigative and the imprisonment stages of the process. The foundational system of courts in Nigeria is in the constitution of the federation. The constitution not only establishes the courts but also defines the

scope of judicial powers. This is found in section 6 of the 1999 constitution (Adekunle et al., 2015; Ugwuoke et al., 2020).

Magistrate courts in Nigeria are the most important courts when considering the criminal justice system, more than 90% of criminal cases that get tried commence in the Magistrate courts (Pedro, 2012) and 80% or more of those cases terminate in the magistrate courts (Ali, 2016). Punishments and sentences imposed by the courts are not reflective of any institutional design aimed at achieving specific set ends across social classes and groupings. Although the sanctions in the criminal and penal codes infer deterrence, retribution, and humiliation as the goal of these legislations, judgments do not uniformly and comprehensively reflect this for the same classes of offences (Osasona, 2015).

The Prison and Criminal Justice Administration in Nigeria

The final circle of the Nigerian criminal justice system is the prison system. The prison is perceived to be the darkest region of the apparatus of the criminal justice system in Nigeria (Dambazau, 2007). It is in this regard that Adebisi and Oyewo (2015) saw the prison as the stomach of the state. This is because the institution is expected to serve as the melting point for the activities of the security agencies. Prison/correctional service is one of the key tripod agencies in criminal justice system. It is responsible for the custody of the final product in the criminal justice process (Nwolise, 2010).

The prison system is set up in Nigeria with the primary aim of holding convicts. The Nigerian prison system is expected to function in line with United Nations approved standards for the treatment of inmates, by providing assistance to offenders in their reformation and rehabilitation and to facilitate their social reintegration into the society.

Unfortunately, Nigerian prison system has failed in this regard. Despite Nigeria's progress on economic and political reforms; Nigerian prisons are yet to make appreciable impact on the welfare of the inmates (Obioha, 2011). More worrisome is the reality that inmates get hardened after experiencing prison and subsequently frustrate efforts to contain crime in the society. The aims of the prisons are defeated by this reality (Nweke & Ajah, 2017). Most of the nation's prisons are a lot older than the nation. The facilities are outmoded and inmate populations are larger than installed capacities thereby overstretching existing facilities. Every inmate's humanity is vilified and threatened by horrible conditions like congestion and over-filled toilets that ease spread of diseases (Ajah & Nweke, 2017). The condition of prison staff is not different. Their salary structure is one of the worst in Africa. Their conditions are so terrible that they are often mistaken to be prisoners. Most of the prison branches or sections around the country find it difficult to maintain prisons' official vehicles due to poor revenue allocations to the prison agency. The prison system in Nigeria is one of the most underdeveloped

institutions in the criminal justice sector (Ojukwu & Briggs, 2005).

METHODOLOGY

Study Design and Location

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. This design is considered appropriate for this study because it has the capacity to accurately gather necessary information within a limited timeframe on large sample. The design is economical and focuses on studying large and small populations with emphasis on relative incidence, distribution and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables (Isangedeghi et al., 2014). The study was conducted in Police Command Headquarters, courts and prisons (Abakaliki and Afikpo prisons) located in Ebonyi state, Nigeria.

Participants and Procedures

The population for this study was 4032 which comprised awaiting-trial inmates, police officers, court officers and prison officers in the study area. Of this population, 1013 (25.1%) were awaiting-trial inmates in two prisons, 312 (7.7%) were prison officers (see "Nigerian Prison Records", 2018), 118 (2.9%) were court officers (see Ajah, 2018b; "Ebonyi State Judicial Records", 2018) and 2,589 (64.2%) were police officers (see "Nigerian Police Records", 2018). Using Yamane (1967) method of sample size determination, with a 95% confidence level and level of maximum variability (P = 0.02),

a sample of 1551 was computed—out which involved 646 awaiting trial inmates, 149 prison officers, 638 police officers and 118 court officers; of which—1498 respondents were finally used after data collation, gleaning, cleansing and analysis.

The multi-stage sampling technique that involves successive random sampling was adopted in the selection of respondents from the Local Government Areas (LGAs), prisons, police stations and courts. Multistage method is relevant to this study because the population is made up of several clusters: prisons, police stations and courts. The researchers clustered Ebonyi State into its 13 LGAs which were further grouped into urban and rural LGAs. From this categorization, five LGAs were purposively selected. In this light, Ebonyi, Abakaliki and Afikpo North LGAs were purposively selected from the urban LGAs, while Ezza South and Afikpo South LGAs were purposively selected from the rural LGAs. The essence of choosing these LGAs is because the only two existing prisons in Ebonyi State are located within the selected LGAs, precisely in Abakaliki and Afikpo North LGAs. Also, a greater number of courts and police stations in Ebonyi State with sufficient manpower, from where the researchers drawn their respondents, are also located in these LGAs.

Data Collection and Procedures

This study adopted mixed methods of scientific enquiries, following quantitative and qualitative approaches in its data collection. The instruments for data collection were structured questionnaire and unstructured 'In-Depth Interview (IDI).' The research instruments were self and order administered by four researchers. Participation in the research was riskfree, anonymous, voluntary, confidential and based on informed consent of all participants. Ethical clearance was obtained from police, court and prison authorities. Of the 1551 questionnaires distributed, 1518 were returned with 20 not properly completed and thus were rejected while 13 were not returned and thereby leaving us with a total of 1498 copies for analysis. In order to complement data generated through the questionnaire instrument, in-depth interviews were conducted on eight inmates and four police officers, prison officers and court officials, respectively-totally 20 interviewees. Each respondent's interview lasted between 35 and 90 minutes. The interviewees disapproved of our attempts to record their responses in audiotape, so only handwritten notes were taken.

Data Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative components of the data collected were subjected to scrutiny before cleansing, coding and analysis. The quantitative data analysis was performed using International Business Machine (IBM) Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Utilizing descriptive statistics, the results of IBM SPSS were further analyzed, interpreted and organized using tables, frequencies and charts. The qualitative data were analyzed using manual thematic method,

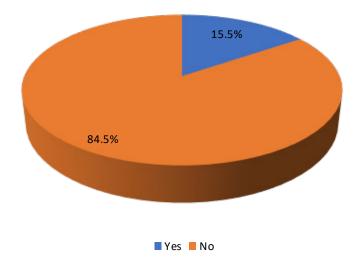
Benjamin Okorie Ajah, Emmanuel Ekeoma Uwakwe, Bonaventure N. Nwokeoma, Cyril O. Ugwuoke and Rebecca Ginikanwa Nnamani

where the responses were transcribed with some catchy phrases retained in their original versions and contexts in the form of extracts or excerpts (see the result section for details).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to ascertain whether the awaitingtrial inmates have been given bail since they came into custody, questions were asked, and their responses are presented in Figure 1 below. Figure 1 presents awaiting trial inmates' (ATI) opinions on whether they have been given bail since their arrival in prison. The data shows that 15.5% of the ATIs affirmed yes that they had been given bail since arrival to prison while 84.5% affirmed no that they had not been given bail since they came into custody. This indicates that majority (84.5%) of the ATIs had not been given bail since they came into custody.

The awaiting-trial inmates who were given bails were asked whether they fulfilled their bail conditions. Their responses are presented in Table 1 below.



Source: Field survey (2019)

Figure 1. A pie chart showing awaiting trial inmates opinions on whether they have been given bail

Table	1
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ATIS	responses	on whether	they	fulfilled	their	bail	conditions	when	they	were	given	bail

Fulfilled bail conditions	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	9	9.8
No	83	90.2
Total	92	100

Source: Field survey (2019)

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Table 1 presents ATIs' responses on whether they fulfilled their bail conditions when they were given bail. A percentage of 9.8 of the ATIs said yes that they fulfilled their bail conditions when they were given bail while 90.2% of the ATIs said no that they were not able to fulfill their bail conditions. This is an indication that majority (90.2%) of the ATIs did not fulfill their bail conditions. The above finding could be buttressed by the fact that bail conditions are often not easy to meet especially by the ATIs. This is mostly because huge sums of payments are often included in the bail conditions. Aside the monetary conditions, getting persons to sign surety for suspects is difficult. This is because sureties will be held responsible for any failure of the suspects to appear either in court or prison as at when required. The above finding is in consonance with the quantitative findings as most of the ATIs who were interviewed affirmed that they did not meet their bail conditions. One of the ATIs interviewed shared his opinion as below:

I could not meet my bail conditions because it was very difficult. I was told to bring two sureties who must be top civil servants with 250,000 naira each and I was not able to get such money or such person. Police refused to grant me bail because I don't have money. And I don't have people who are in higher places like a top civil servant. (Male/ ATI/B.Sc. holder/In-custody as ATI for 4years/IDI/Afikpo prison/July 2019).

The above assertion from one of the ATIs shows that most of them could not meet their bail conditions as the conditions are too difficult than they could afford. The above finding is in line with the assertions of Aduba and Alemika (2010) who revealed that many a time, courts asked for a certificate of occupancy (C of O) as a condition prerequisite for bail in an area where most buildings are accustomed to customary and family ownership. This makes it difficult for suspects to meet such conditions. Further, the challenge is compounded by courts insistence on wealthy sureties in the midst of mass poverty (Aduba & Alemika, 2010). Most awaiting-trial inmates cannot meet-up with such demanding bail conditions.

In order to ascertain whether bail conditions are easy to be met, the awaitingtrial inmates were asked questions and responses are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2 presents ATIs' opinions on whether bail conditions are easy to fulfill, the table shows that 1.1% of the ATIs opined that bail conditions were much easy to fulfill, 5.6% of the ATIs stated that bail conditions were easy to fulfill, 22.3% of the ATIs stated that bail conditions were less easy to meet while 70.9% of the ATIs opined that bail conditions were not easy to meet. This is an indication that majority (70.9%) of the ATIs were of the opinion that bail conditions were not easy to meet. This could be as a result of the financial requirements and need for surety to secure bail. The above findings are in tandem with the qualitative data as one of the interviewees made the below comments on easy of meeting bail conditions:

Table 2

ATIs' opinions on whether bail conditions are easy to fulfill

Bail conditions	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Much easy	7	1.1
Easy	35	5.6
Less easy	139	22.3
Not easy	442	70.9
Total	623	100

Source: Field survey (2019)

Difficulty in bail condition na (is) common problem we dey (do) face here. Dey (They) suppose (to) stop this thing (trend) because many innocent people dey (do) spend too much time here for (in) prison. (Male ATI/15months in custody as awaiting trial inmate/Afikpo prison/IDI/July 2019).

From the above narration, it is obvious that bail conditions are very difficult to meet in most cases and this has made the suspects to remain in custody for a very long time.

The criminal justice agents were also asked question concerning bail conditions and their responses are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3 presents agents of CJS opinions on whether bail conditions are always stringent. The table shows that higher percentage (44.4%) of police officers agreed that bail conditions were always stringent,

Table 3

Agents of CJS opinions on whether bail conditions are always stringent

Opinions	Police	Prisons	Court		
Strongly disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	63 (55.8%)		
Disagree	126 (20.4%)	7 (4.8%)	50 (44.2%)		
Somewhat disagree	35 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)		
Somewhat agree	158 (25.6%)	102 (70.4%)	0 (0%)		
Agree	274 (44.4%)	8 (5.5%)	0 (0%)		
Strongly agree	24 (3.9%)	28 (19.3%)	0 (0%)		
Total	617 (100%)	145 (100%)	113 (100%)		

Source: Field survey (2019)

majority (70.3%) of prison officials somewhat agreed that bail conditions were always stringent. Majority (55.8%) of court officials strongly disagreed that bail conditions were always stringent. This indicates that both police and prison officials stated that bail conditions were always stringent while the court officials strongly disagreed that bail conditions were always stringent. One would argue that the insinuation of court officials on bail conditions not being stringent is because they prepare and give bail conditions to inmates. The findings are in tandem with qualitative data as most of the officials of criminal justice agencies interviewed affirmed that bail conditions are stringent. One of the agents interviewed had this to say:

Bail conditions are dispensed based on nature of offence. Without doubt, serious offences like armed robbery or kidnapping tend to incur more stringent conditions for bail. If, for instance, such bail condition requires an ex-senator who must own landed property in a juicy area within Ebonyi State – not most inmates could meet such requirement. Comprehending this modus operandi is important in understanding stringency of bail conditions. (Male/Court official/ 6years experience as a judge/Afikpo / August 2019).

Another respondent had this to say:

Most of the bail conditions dey (are) very stringent for inmates. For instance, a high court in Abakiliki give (gave) one of the suspects bail condition and one of the terms is that the surety must be (own) property that worth N25, 000,000 within Abakaliki town, but you hardly get such person here that is willing. And because of that the suspect is still in the prison till now waiting for a motion to be filed. (Male/Prison staff/ 9years in service as a staff in in Afikpo prison/ July 2019)

The above narrative shows that bail conditions are given depending on the nature of the offence and that is one of the determinants of type of bail condition that an individual could be given. For serious offences and felonies like armed robbery, murder, kidnapping and others, aside the huge amount of money that will be required, top politicians who must have landed properties in designated areas in a city will be required to surety the bail. Unfortunately, most of the politicians may not be willing to meddle in criminal matters or become a suspect in a criminal case. The above findings are in corroboration with the findings of Nnamdi and Alemika (2016) who asserted that there could be other reasons making bail conditions stringent or refusing bail for suspects because of the nature and gravity of the offences committed by the suspects. Most times, bail could be refused on the basis that the suspects may likely jump bails. There is also the fear that the accused may tamper with investigations thus forcing magistrates to make bail conditions stringent or totally refuse bail. Moreover, refusal to grant bail directly or indirectly by making bail conditions stringent could also be linked to the perceived risks that the suspect may commit other offenses if released from custody. The gravity of the offence is only one of many factors that are relevant in determining whether the accused is likely to appear to stand trial or not, if granted bail. By distinguishing between the nature and gravity of the offence and the likelihood of the accused jumping bail, the courts have in practice elevated the former consideration to one of primary importance on its own merits. In other words, the nature and gravity of the offence are often determinants in granting bail, no matter what other factors might preclude the likelihood of flight.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Bailing suspects is an integral part of the criminal justice systems around the globe. The process usually requires a suspect or offender to meet certain conditions before release from custody. While bailing has many goals and benefits, it will fundamentally decongests prison facilities and sets affected people on path to freedom or rehabilitation. In Ebonyi State, these goals and benefits are defeated particularly the fundamental benefits of prison decongestion and recalibration of inmates to better behaviors. This is due to stringent bail conditions that are often too high or totally unattainable for suspects. Ebonyi State is a largely subsistence farming neighborhood with few investments in commercial farming by politicians, business

corporations and other private citizens. Over 70% of awaiting-trial inmates in Abakiliki and Afikpo prisons are subsistence farmers who have difficulties in both feeding and supporting their families and other dependents. High-cost bail-conditions are naturally difficult or unattainable for inmates in the neighborhood – thus leading to overstay of suspects in custody and consequently result in congestion of prison facilities. In addition to prison congestion, the awaiting-trial inmates continuously get negatively affected by prison environments which are filled by hardened criminals further making it impossible for innocent suspects to recover from prison experience. Thus, easing bail conditions for suspects by bringing down the high-prices to match the economic capacity of the neighborhood or relaxing the bail terms would enable inmates to meet bail terms and reduce congestions in prison facilities – thus, improving the criminal justice system in the state.

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The Real America: Representation of American Society in Jack Kerouac's On the Road Based on Michel Foucault's Notions of Institutions, Normalization, and Surveillance

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to scrutinize and analyze the novel *On the Road* by Jack Kerouac in the light of the political theory of Michel Foucault. The focus, however, would be specifically on the concepts of normalization, institutions and surveillance put forward in his book *Discipline and Punish* (1995), coupled with some other works that wrestle with the close links of power, society, and institutions. This research seeked to describe the real America in the 1950s, a decade that witnessed both conformism and radicality, represented in the novel. The study pointed out that the novel was a depiction of the American society in the 1950s in which distinct, overlapping institutions did a great deal in restricting the freedom of individuals who seeked liberation and authenticity. The American government draws on the power of the law, police, prison, academia, family, and different other overlapping and satellite institutions, working hand in hand to create a matrix. The concept of matrix, therefore, highlights the nexus through which the normalization and conformity of the individuals are guaranteed, leading to the creation of perfect institutionalized men who

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 are reduced to the level of simpletons. The whole novel becomes the story of some men who advocate abnormality as their credo to live a free life. Quite the contrary, they are transitioned into meek and docile bodies whose identity hinges on being like others in fitting in and following the norms through different dominant fragmenting institutions.

Keywords: Abnormality, Foucault, freedom, institutions, normalization, *On The Road*, representation, surveillance

INTRODUCTION

Applying a Foucauldian approach, this study provided investigation and analysis of the state of individuals and society in Jack Kerouac's masterpiece, *On the Road*. The novel depicts the lives of two protagonists, as well as those of many other people from all walks of life who take on journeys as the essence of their individuality, hinging on their resisting the government. The present study employed Foucauldian concepts such as institutions, surveillance, and normalization in surveying *On the Road*, a novel which manifested the zeitgeist of the period immediately after the Second World War.

The question of representation has always been a problematic subject. From ancient times, literature has represented the reciprocal relationship between individuals, their status, and their situation in distinct societies. However, with the end of the Second World War, representation became a controversial conception as critics discussed modern man and society and the way they were caught in a nexus of institutional practices that overlap and connect with satellite institutions even in most socalled democratic countries, without their citizens identifying such mechanisms. As a result, the theory of representation has shifted towards offering thick descriptions of distinct social forces that are operating within and surrounding literary works, using them as sites to grapple with social issues of institutional power, agency, and normalization.

Despite claims of democracy and freedom of individuals, the United States after the Second World War created a structure through which people became stripped of their individuality. In contrast, the real America that is depicted in On the Road portrays individuals who challenge many traditional beliefs and ideas, question the true nature of the state, stop acting normally, and are not dominated by the forces that the government has used. While the author sees the characters as real heroes who challenge the status quo, the focus must be beyond this in referring to all forces and strategies that the government employs so as to make the characters believe that they are free while imprisoning them in ways that they can hardly see and recognize.

In picturing the battle between resistance and authority versus conformity and ordinariness, this study seeked to reread the way the American government confronted people and the way its citizens experienced life, identity, authority, and freedom. Moreover, this study analyzed the strategies that the United States had employed and critically assessed how successful they had been in their enterprise of turning individuals into subjects. This set of objectives elucidated the issue of real representation, the question of governmentality, the interconnections between power, knowledge, subjects, and society, as well as the spirit of the age immediately after the Second World War.

After the end of the Second World War in 1945, the United States emerged as one of the most powerful countries in the world as it was the only country that could bring the war to an end; praising the United States as the new superpower, the columnist Walter Lippman argued that "What Rome was to the ancient world, what Great Britain has been to the modern world, America is to be the world of tomorrow" (as cited in Simmons, 2008, p. 13). In Antihero in American Novel: From Joseph Heller to Kurt Vonnegut, Simmons (2008) argued that the power that was attributed to the United States made it look far beyond its borders and seek for disseminating its capitalist ideology and values all around the world that finds its true form in the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. United States' strategy in homogenizing the world did not stop at the level of foreign policy as there was its counterpart in the domestic arena. It is in such a context that Dickstein (2015) argued that the dominance of a kind of ideology that sought to constrict the freedom of individuals forged a conformist society that left no space for individuals to be free and themselves.

In such a critical decade, therefore, that most critics believe to be a time when people were under a lot of pressure in following the established norms set for them, Kerouac's claim to howl for freedom necessitates a reading through which the researcher follows all that the American government has at its disposal, which are institutions and surveillance, to normalize and suppress people.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Jack Kerouac's works have unavoidably

been the subject of various scholarly studies from the 1950s onward; one reason for this attraction is the fact that it has engaged both readers and critics. On the one hand, it has been a reader-friendly work that undertakes moving the hearts and minds of its readers; on the other hand, critics find the work as history with a critical edge, leading to new chapters in the history of the United States that survey literature's interaction with specific political, social, and cultural forces. Significantly, Kerouac's depiction of part of his life recounted in On the Road, based on his travels with his friends across the United States that took place from 1947 to 1950, gets the reader to see history from below in which he provides descriptions of the forces circulating in the wider society.

Countercultural movements such as the Beat Generation, the psychedelics, and the hippies were ubiquitous in the cultural and literary arena in the 1950s and 60s as their works had become popular and numerous critics had started analyzing their literary pieces from various critical approaches. In essence, the literary works of these writers tended to deal with the lives of minorities who did not fit in the normalized society and sought, collectively, to represent the power of the individuals, groups, and movements in challenging the authority of the state to conform all individuals to its procrustean rules. Most critics, thus, have focused their efforts on this aspect of the novel On the *Road* in contending that the novel depicts two free protagonists whose resisting the dominant culture and achieving freedom forms the sum and substance of the novel.

Sobral (2012) wrestled with development of what he called 'the countercultural ethos in cult fiction'. Sobral's focus is on the notion of delinquency manifested in the novel by the two main characters of the novel; excitement and pleasure are the reasons for most of the actions done by them. The two protagonists rebut the idea of being like other members of the society as they seek 'individual satisfaction' and 'transcendence' as the main impetus for their being abnormal. Sobral's approach, however, rather focuses on an inner motive for abnormality while a Foucauldian reading would help the researcher see abnormality as a phenomenon that can exist only when the individual is able to stand outside various circulating discourses.

Kupetz (2015) embarked on the analysis of the novels The Town and the City (1950) and On the Road in terms of their representing disability. For him, in both novels, disability is a sign of extreme social nonconformity; the disability that is depicted in the novel points to the late capitalist antagonism against the abnormal individuals in that it was utterly a dehumanizing hegemony: "Dean Moriarty's disability provides him with an alternative subject position that frees him from postwar hypermasculinity, and Kerouac uses phalangeal amputation as a textual motif that signifies social non-conformist affiliation, not social stigmatization" (p. 135).

Bill (2010) tackled the real nature of *On the Road* in regarding the novel as

either a traveller in search of originality and authenticity or a tourist in search of joy and new experiences. He maintained that although Kerouac had called himself as a 'religious wanderer', the fact was that his travels could also be considered as tourism. Finally, Bill contended that the case of travel in On the Road represented antitourism "or the search for real as opposed to tourist experiences" (Bill, 2010, p. 416). In the same vein, Cresswell (1993) approached the novel by examining the theme of mobility in On the Road. He argued that the theme of mobility was present in "both the content and structure of the novel and relate it to expectations of family, progress and attached sexuality" (Cresswell, 1993, p. 249). He related the root of the counterculture movements of the 1950s and 1960s to the concept of American Dream and reconsidered the novel from the perspective of cultural geography and cultural studies. Dealing only with the purpose of Kerouac's quest, these two researchers did not touch upon the way characters in the novel could end up either achieving resistance or being imprisoned. The researchers would have capitalized on the results of such quests in forms of journeys if they had taken on the concepts of surveillance and panopticon along taking on the issue of mobility and travel in searching for freedom.

As demonstrated, there are numerous scholarly and critical pieces that seek to depict the way Jack Kerouac has been able to portray the ways individuals can resist power, introduce himself as a leader of resisting the state, and inviting others to engage in activities that undermine the grip of the state on them, on the one hand, and others that aimed at drawing on the concepts put forth by Foucault to represent the state of their societies, on the other hand. However, a Foucauldian reading with a shift in focus and scope provides the reader with a more critical understanding of the novel. What justifies employing the theories and concepts of Foucault is manifold; that is, a closer look at On the Road in this regard will result in seeing the way Foucualt helps readers differentiate the apparently oppositional such as the actions of the young travellers in the novel from the truly oppositional, emphasizing the results of the liberating actions committed by the individuals rather than taking them at face value, analyzing all the institutions, their mechanisms, and functions as to show the way all individuals are administered by the state, investigating the way institutions are perennially watching individuals in order to mold their behaviors according to established norms, subordinating them to the demands of these institutions, and making them governable.

In its close reading, this research focuses on institutions, normalization, and surveillance which stand in opposition to the concept of agency. Targeting humanism as a postmedieval understanding of who and what individuals are, Foucault dismisses the notion of agency for the modern subject, Foucault's preferred term for self or individual. The emergence of the modern institutions which culminated in the twentieth century and manifested in the 1950s, immediately after the Second World War, led to normalizing individuals as they operated through administering and creating the desired behavior in order to better control; as the states need to examine, watch over, punish deviants, normalize, and render the subjects docile, their panoptic power needs to keep the individuals under constant surveillance, ending up in the elimination of freedom of agents who seek liberation through resistance.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

The approach adopted in this study was textual analysis in which the researcher analyzed the text in order to find the representation of the real America, both in terms of the society as well as the lives of the individuals, pictured in the novel. It was through applying this framework that the researcher aimed at rereading the novel to go below the surface of the text so as to reveal how it worked and what it really meant. Most importantly, the textual analysis adopted in this study allowed for finding out what the text did not say; as the novel romanticized the main characters' search for freedom and so tended to neglect the real workings of the society, what was said and what was left unsaid was analyzed with illustrations from the text as well as the appropriate context as evidence.

The analytical lens of this textual analysis was Foucauldian; for Foucault, the regime of the disciplinary power that the governments create is run by numerous institutions through which power is operating. These institutions, however, need to intervene in the lives of all individuals to better control, a process that is facilitated by surveillance of all individuals at all times. Through this process, individuals become normalized subjects as they are subjugated and subordinate to the demands of the institution and the government. The researcher, thus, dealt with the places where individuals were targets of intervention by institutions that were semiautonomous and working alone as well as overlapping as they were intricately interwoven and tighten their grip on individuals from every corner. All individuals, including those who are agents in the institutions, the main characters of the novel and their close friends that they describe in the novel, the workers and those who do not work, and old men and young men are legitimate targets for institutions and normalizing operations.

In Madness and Civilization (1960) and The Birth of Clinic (1963), Foucault puts great emphasis on the way individuals are administered by the numerous institutions circulating in the society and illuminates the constriction of all individuals in the modern world. Modern power interferes in the lives of all individuals from the first day as it seeks to categorize, normalize, and govern them, drawing on the assistance of all different intuitions in the society: "In the modern age, power is everywhere, seamless, networked, and involves everyone, operating through surveillance and connected to life instead of death" (Saltman, 2014, p. 47). Consequently, the researcher was at pains to identify those institutions and examine

the way they worked towards their end of institutionalizing individuals.

Moreover, in Power/Knowledge (1980), Foucault maintains that, in disciplinary societies, the "power-knowledge circuits and matrices produce 'normalized' individuals through the combination of legal and moral norms with very detailed, highly structured, and tightly supervised training techniques and assignments" (Kreps, 2016, p. 41). In addition, surveillance and monitoring are exercised through reinforcing standards and systems of power/knowledge. In other words, power produces social structures and knowledge as in the case of law, religious, and academic institutions which become the expansion of power. These bodies of knowledge located in institutions combine with power in ways that they promote social control, continual classification, intervention, and institutionalizing subjects to be more effectively administered. The study would, therefore, grapple with subjects as they internalized such power/knowledge and operated like links in the power chain without actually knowing it.

Power, for Foucault, is spread out throughout institutions such as military, industrial, educational, and the like to administer the entire population. In consequence, it is not merely through institutions that specifically aim at correcting behavior, but through all institutions in the modern society that behaviors are normalized and being ordinary becomes the norm. In order for institutions to forge normalized subjects, they need to operate through constant surveillance

through which "[A] real subjection is born mechanically from a fictitious relation" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 202). In Discipline and Punish (1995), Foucault depicts an utterly bleak picture of modern world which has transitioned into a prison by all the prison-like institutions that seek "the accumulation and useful administration of men" (p. 303). Thus, the disciplinary power that operates through institutions by constant intervening and controlling leads to normalizing subjects that become docile and simpletons, subjects who are constituted inside institutions, outside of which they do not have any existence. This picture closely corresponds to the fates of the individuals in On the Road which makes it lend itself to a Foucauldian analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Institutions and Surveillance: Representation of American Society

Foucault highlights schools, academic sites, hospitals, factories, army, and the family as institutions which have emerged as new forms of disciplinary power--similar to the paradigm adopted by that of prisons--that contribute substantially to "normalization, rationalization, institutionalization, control, subjectivation and embodiment connected to the social life of concrete individuals and communities" (Kakuk, 2017, p. 6). It is no coincidence, however, that Sal Paradise and Dean Moriarity, the two main characters, as the novel opens, have been attending a reform school and a college respectively before meeting for the first time in New York.

The case is not limited to the lives of some distinct people; rather than having certain individuals under surveillance as it was practiced in premodern power, modern power's trace is visible in all parts of the lives of individuals. Therefore, that is not the case only for the protagonists, as other members of the society have been trapped in the same conformity inducing institutions in the society. During their travelling West, Sal and Dean encounter many people and the stories of their lives underwrite the idea that the circuits of institutions are highly at work in the wider society; from the boys they see escaping from institutions and the ones who enjoy the offers of others to the ones who are conditioned to the status quo maintained through various overlapping institutions, they all represent a society whose members are imprisoned.

The role of law which is a semiautonomous institution, aiming at reproducing the same norms and standards of the interested society with its overlapping institutions is validating and corroborating the judicial system of imprisoning and disciplinary establishments. In the same vein, the laws that the state passes become so all-pervasive that there will exist no slot from which individuals can be excluded. Along with other prisonlike institutions that dominate the wider society, the institution of law leaves individuals with no outside: "But this must also be a political relationship in that the decrees and laws must be implanted in the territory [in such a way] that no tiny corner of the realm escapes this general network of the sovereign's orders and laws" (Foucault, 1984/2009, p. 28).

During the 'greatest ride' which is on the back of a truck with a couple of other hitchhikers, Sal sees, for the first time, the real face of America. He talks about the clothes of some of them, the way and the place they have been working, and where they have been sleeping. Finally, he envisages the real cause of escape of some of them to be law. Working in railroads in some cases and the escape of some of them due to laws bring the workings of the various institutions, specifically that of law, on display, "The blond kid was also quiet and he seemed to be running away from something, and it figured to be the law the way he looked straight ahead and wet his lips in worried thought" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 23).

Foucault's interest in law had originated in its role as a disciplinary institution that is closely interwoven with all other social practices in the society; in fact, law, as an institution, becomes a main power technology in all norm-inducing societies. For Foucault, law becomes influential in dictating norms as he contends that there is "[A] fundamental relationship between the law and the norm, and that every system of law is related to a system of norms" (Foucault, 1984/2009, p. 84).

Along the same road and during the same trip west, he meets many hitchhikers whom he guesses what they may be doing and going. When he arrives at Iowa, he meets and befriends another hitchhiker who is also from New York; Sal says that the man used to drive a truck as his job in the post office for all the years has had worked, but now he has changed the course of his life and is looking for a girl in Denver. However, Sal contends that there was something wrong with the man as "I think he was running away from something in New York, the law most likely" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 23).

In one of the most important statements that he has made, Foucault points out to the judges of normality and argues that "The judges of normality are present everywhere. We are in the society of the teacher-judge, the doctor-judge, the educator judge, and 'social worker' judge; it is on them that the universal reign of the normative is based" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 304). The police force takes the position of judges of normality through which they specify and dictate actions that individuals must do to normalize the acts that are deemed abnormal. In part two of the novel, as Sal, Dean, Marylou, and Ed Dunkel are driving towards New Orleans, they are stopped by the police as Ed Dunkel speeds and moves in the wrong direction on the highway.

After being taken to the police station, the police officer in charge examines all of them personally to see what is wrong with them: driving at more than 80, driving in the wrong direction, three men and a young woman together in a car, driving at night, and having fifty dollars in one's wallet for these people who do not look rich are not normal and, finally, when Dean tells the police officer they have no charge to send him to prison, he answers that "Never mind what charge" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 136) as their abnormality is a great charge. The police fines Dean twenty-five dollars and although they have only fifty dollars for the whole remaining distance, they have to pay it; later, when Ed says that he goes to jail instead of paying the fine, the same police officer insists that he will not allow them to pass and send them back to Pennsylvania if they do not pay the fine. Breaking the driving rules starts the examination of their normality by a force that goes beyond its job in judging individuals according to their arbitrary rules.

The function of the police as an institution is also highlighted by Foucault where he goes back to the sinister idea of surveillance drawn from Bentham's (1748-1832) panopticon. Bentham proposed a new way to design prisons in which all the cells are facing inward; this allows the guards who inhabit a circular tower at the center to see prisoners perpetually in all directions and all the cells perennially without their being watched by the prisoners which is interpreted as the eye in the sky in the modern world where surveillance is all around individuals. In modern American society, the state seeks to supervise every action by the individuals in which "Society is a type of prison, with the police playing the role of the guard, concerning themselves with those things of every moment" (Koritansky, 2011, p. 212).

On a similar note, along all the roads they travel, Sal and Dean are watched and most of the time stopped by the police. However, it is not that the police want all drivers to observe the rules but, on the contrary, they want them to be as normal as possible: The American police are involved in psychological warfare against those Americans who don't frighten them with imposing papers and threats. It's a Victorian police force; it peers out of musty windows and wants to inquire about everything, and can make crimes if the crimes don't exist to its satisfaction. (Kerouac, 2003, p. 137).

Consequently, the police are not a force that can help drivers drive safely but they act as a restrictive power that are allowed to look into the internal secret and private spaces. As the police officers look into their car, they find something abnormal with the travellers which heightens their willingness to interfere to prove that they are abnormal, leading to their efforts at making them normal by taking care of them which is fulfilled through fining them.

Another aspect of the life of people in America becomes evident in Old Bull Lee's — Dean and Sal's mentor and a writer—arguments about the way American government kills thousands of people every year only to preserve the status quo and keep workers in factories. He argues that they have made some car tires that never blow up, clothes that never get old, houses that never collapse, and many others, but they need to keep workers in their job only to be there:

These bastards have invented plastics by which they could make houses that last forever. And tires. ... Same with clothes. They can make clothes that last forever. They prefer making cheap goods so's everybody'll have to go on working and punching timeclocks and organizing themselves in sullen unions and floundering around while the big grab goes on in Washington and Moscow. (Kerouac, 2003, pp. 149-150).

Here Old Bull Lee admits that factories, as institutions, have been established by the state to make goods as their secondary aim as they can make products that will last almost forever; their primary aim is, however, forging environments that people have to go to 'work', 'punch timeclocks', 'organize themselves in unions', all of which aims at normalizing: "It was a question of distributing individuals in a space in which one might isolate them and map them" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 144). Working in factories for the American government has a lot of advantages; on the one hand, factories are places that have actualized a new type of surveillance which was, unlike before-modern surveillance forms, intense and perennial which did not account for merely the production process but also "it took into account the activity of men, their skill, the way they set about their tasks, their promptness, their zeal, their behavior" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 175.). The surveillance carried on in factories leads to development in the production and, along the same line, becomes a technology of power in disciplining individuals.

According to Foucault, power, in the modern world, is wielded both through the public and the private spheres in any society (Ransom, 1997). For Foucault, the disciplinary forms of many institutions are highly influential in coercive technologies employed to affect behavior. Listed along institutions such as the army, the workshops or factories, the school, and the judicial system, Foucault contends, family is a major force in eliminating behaviors that are not normal and ordinary (Foucault, 1975/1995). Along the same line, on more than one occasion, Dean and Sal become parts of a family. During their time in Denver, they live with the Okie family which they remember as their 'sweet little family'. One of the main functions of the institutions becomes coercing, shaping, and training; the roles that parents and members of families take are manifold as they become judges of normality, teachers, officers, and, thus, they end up following the roles that governments have set for them. When Foucault likens the institutions of prison, school, army, and family, parents become the same prisoners that take charge of prions. It is no coincidence that the last institution that renders almost all the characters feckless and without any determination to pursue their freedom, at the end of the novel, is family.

As the fourth part of the book opens, Sal is seen starting to travel alone without Dean as he is living with a family with his wife, Inez, and a small child and working at a parking garage in New York. Before setting off, Dean and Sal talk about their lives and there Dean says that he is happy with his life now. He believes that Inez has made a difference in his life and now it is the time he wants to get old like this with a family. While saying goodbye, Sal tells Dean that he wishes that one day they could have their families live on the same street: "All I hope, Dean, is someday we'll be able to live on the same street with our families and get to be a couple of oldtimers together." (Kerouac, 2003, p. 169)

Family becomes a prisonlike structure which reproduces the productive norms of discipline set by the government to disseminate conformity in the society. Family is, thus, a fatal, closed institutional circuit "for the effects of a normative matrix" (Raffnsøe et al., 2015, p. 144). The head of the family acts similar to all other institutional agents in disseminating governmentality—making individuals governable.

Normalization: Representation of American Lives

The matrix was a term used by Foucault to characterize a structure of various distinct materials aimed at controlling and seducing, resulting in asserting control over individuals and rendering them unconscious so as keep them under the control of all pervasive powers from institutions. The power of these interwoven institutions is actualized through the matrix that explains "the elaboration of a whole range of techniques and practices for the discipline, surveillance, administration and formation of populations of human individuals (Foucault, 1977/1980, p. 329). Although most individuals want to escape from the imprisoning power of an institution to gain freedom, they simply exchange one institution for another; there is no outside the matrix, as Foucault would say.

Dean, for instance, who has recently been released from a reform school, thinks that he is now totally free in his life. On the surface, however, he is true; he embarks on different journeys throughout the United States. However, the first institution that emerges immensely powerful is the institution of law as, with the beginning of the novel, it becomes obvious that Dean has spent long stints of time in reform schools due to breaking and violating laws and, consequently, he needs to follow laws as he will be punished again and again in case of disobeying it. Reform school is another dominant site which overlaps with the institution of law in creating obedient subjects. However, the matrix that has started with the institution of law and reform school gives way to the institution of family which imprisons him from another aspect; having affairs with two different women and married to both of them on different time spans makes him even more entangled in a web from which there is no escape. The police force, as an institution, has also made him completely mad as he is constantly watched and intervened through his trips by officers who try to make others conform to their arbitrary rules and regulations. The matrix has also incorporated the institution of prison which "with its systems of insertion, distribution, surveillance, observation, has been the greatest support, in modern society, of the normalizing power" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 304). Dean has spent five years in prison which has had a profound effect in making him conform to the norms; however, the right to live for Dean has transitioned to the right to conform.

In the second part of the novel which starts almost a year after the beginning of the friendship between Dean and Sal, Sal starts by saying that he had stayed the whole time at home, finishing his book, and that he had started going to school on the GI Bill of rights. Arriving in San Francisco after his time in Los Angeles, Sal stays with Remi Boncoeur, an old friend from college, and his girl Lee Ann. After a short time, he decides that he wants to work there and Remi finds him a job as a guard, a part of the police force, in the shipyard barracks. This is probably the only and best place Sal can find a job; however, the guards there have formerly been mostly police officers who have devoted their entire lives to enforcing the law and maintaining order and status quo; in their free time, they go on telling each other stories of the way they have arrested people on different occasions. One of the tasks that Sal needs to undertake is to establish order in barracks which are too noisy; instead of remaining an abnormal individual in the society, he becomes part of the guardians of the society who try to keep everything normal. When Sal starts his work as a guard in California, not only is he under the surveillance of other guards who used to be cops themselves, but he has also becomes one of them who have the responsibility of maintaining order. Sal's life has been limited by the matrix of institutions that started with that of academia, was under perennial surveillance of the institutions of police and law throughout his life, maintained by that of serving as a guard which was a branch of police working alongside many

other ex-police officers, and ended with that of family; along with Dean and Henry, Sal becomes an institutional man by the institutional matrices of academia, police, and family.

On his way from New York to Denver, Sal makes friends with a boy called Henry Glass. He starts talking about his days in prison and argues that he was in solitary confinement much of the time and, during all that time, he was given a Bible to read. He goes even before that to the time when he was thirteen; as he was watching a movie, someone said a four lettered word about his mother and he used a jacket to kill him although people did not let him do it. From then on, he argues, he had been in reform schools and prisons almost the whole time. When Sal starts talking, he first tells him that he should be more careful and stop doing such perilous activities to which Henry agrees and says that he is going back to his family as his brother has found him a job: "He was on his way to live with his brother and sister-in-law; they had a job for him in Colorado. His ticket was bought by the feds, his destination the parole" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 257).

Henry's life illuminates all the normative strategies and forms of institutional dominance brought about by chockfull matrices through which "we are promised normalization and happiness" (Dreyfus & Rainbow, 1983, p. 196). Under the rules of the institution of law, he has lived most of his life in reform schools and prisons, and in such institutions he has been made to read, learn, and memorize Bible. As the institution of family is ready to welcome him, he is sent home to be under the surveillance of another institution where he will start working in a system that makes him all the more normal. The trajectory of transitioning abnormal into governable subjects becomes finished when he is bound by a spectrum of institutions that have been at issue for other members of the society in the same way. In a predictable ending to an otherwise shocking advice, Sal acts as a government agent when he tells him he must stop being abnormal so as to lead a happy life: "You better take it easy from now" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 257). After they arrive in Denver, Henry tries to sell his suit but the pawnbroker does not accept the deal as he knows he has been a prisoner and will never come back for his suit; not surprisingly, "All of Larimer Street was overrun with ex-cons trying to sell their prison-spun suits" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 257).

Foucault opines that the purposes of institutions are "to produce bodies that were both docile and capable" (Foucault, 1975/1995, p. 294). These institutions turn out people who are educated, reformed, cured in some way, and then they will be docile and manageable but also capable and strong to do what society needs them to do (Foucault, 1975/1995). Foucault's sinister view on the way that institutional control extends throughout modern society comes completely true in the novel as he refers to modern society as a carceral one which is an institutional prison in a way that individuals willingly submit to this kind of control of body and soul.

While the novel starts with telling the lives of two people who are on the

verge of exiting two institutions of reform schools and universities, it ends with the two protagonists transitioning from one institution to the other which is that of the family at the fifth part of the novel. Sal talks about Dean's life and how he left Inez for Camilla to live with her and his two daughters forever, something that Sal is happy about as Dean starts to settle down finally with his family: "So Dean's life was settled with his most constant, most embittered, and best-knowing wife Camille, and I thanked God for him" (Kerouac, 2003, p. 306).

Finally, Sal follows the same path in finding the family as the last haven; Remi Bonceor has invited Sal and Laura, the girl Sal had always wanted to be with, and it is the time that Dean must leave. Dean asks Sal to take him but Remi disagrees and says that he does not want Sal's idiot friends. The two needs to part as Sal sat in the back of the Cadillac and waved at him:

Dean, ragged in a moth-eaten overcoat he brought specially for the freezing temperatures of the East, walked off alone, and the last I saw of him he rounded the corner of Seventh Avenue, eyes on the street ahead, and bent to it again. (Kerouac, 2003, pp. 306-307).

The protagonists along with many other Beats have now normal lives with their families and some of them, including Sal, go back to either school or college and drive Cadilacs, all of which characterize a bleak reunion with the normal and the ordinary people and way of life at the end of the novel.

CONCLUSION

Political philosophers and writers have allotted much of their writing to the question of people being affected by the governments in making them follow the established footsteps set for them. The 1950s was one of the critical decades when both dissenting voices along with conformists came into prominence. An overwhelming urge by the state and its corroborators at normalizing individuals is a dominant theme in Foucault's political theory which stands out in most of his major works. In the same vein, On the *Road* depicts the same characteristics that Foucault had attributed to all modern states where different institutions, along with other satellite institutions, work in tandem in transitioning all abnormal individuals into institutionalized men who fit in their conformist society.

The findings of this study demonstrate that Sal Paradise and Dean Moriarity's lives are strictly limited by the matrices that American government has forged by the chockfull institutions that have undertaken the task of shattering the identity of the abnormal. Sal's life is strictly administered by a wide spectrum of institutions that starts with a college, the supervision of the police force and the law, working for the police force, and that of family. Along the same line, Dean starts with a reform school and prison, is controlled by the police, and the family, which he finds the only way to lead a normal life and be as normal as other people. Other people that Sal and Dean encounter such as Henry, coupled with almost all others, follow the same logic in their lives

where they end as simpletons, meek, and docile individuals whose lives characterize the fall of individuality in America.

On the Road provides but one example of a literary work that seeks to represent political, social, and cultural climate of the immediate years after the Second World War; the novel has been singled out to demonstrate that climate despite the fact that many other works of the Beat Generation and other works of that decade could have served equally well. The relationship between the government and the people continues to be a major occupation in literature and literary studies; despite the fact that this study has been limited in its analysis of only one novel of the decade, it will, however, open horizons for all researchers who think critically to have an opportunity to engage other political theories of reading as well as other literary works of the time in surveying, analyzing, and investigating the political, social, and cultural climate of the era.

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Postmodern Feminist Perspectives in Eat Pray Love

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ABSTRACT

Postmodern Feminism is the epitome of two massive movements, Postmodernism and Feminism, in literature. It inculcates the features of Postmodernism into Feminism, hence urging feminism to confront and reconstruct its framework. Elizabeth Gilbert's memoir, *Eat Pray Love: One Woman's Search for Everything across Italy, India, and Indonesia* (2006), deserves scholarly attention as it allows us to apply the notions of the theory on the text and analyze it in the light of the theory. This paper evaluates the points of similarities and/or differences found during the discourse analysis of the chosen text with a focused emphasis on the aspects of 'Non-Essentialism', 'De/Reconstructing the Female Self', and 'Breaking free from the boundaries of cliché Feminism'. The study reveals results which satiate the expectations of a Postmodern Feminist in the form of the protagonist, Elizabeth Gilbert. Gilbert breaks free from her 'Essential' mundane life and embarks on her inward and outward journey of self-discovery and in the process Deconstructs and Reconstructs one's own self.

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INTRODUCTION

Elizabeth Gilbert is an American writer who is widely acclaimed for her memoir *Eat Pray Love: One Woman's Search for Everything Across Italy, India and Indonesia* (2006) which was also adapted into a movie in 2010 starring Julia Roberts. Gilbert's memoir presents an enlightening journey

ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 (literally) of her life which occurred right after her divorce. Her journey to three different countries to seek her lost self serves the purpose of exploring (in Italy), seeking (in India), and finding (in Indonesia) herself.

Gilbert's journey has been deconstructed and re-read variously by critics and scholars exploring different aspects like spirituality, food symbolism and how it affects gender identity, travel narratives and the like. Discussion and emphasis on Gilbert's travelling part fail to entirely decipher the reason and socioeconomic background of the author which leads her into taking this journey. This paper attempts to lay a thorough focus into the factors which lead an independent white middle-class woman to still seek emancipation. The theory of Postmodern Feminism has been applied to seek the answers that bring to notice the alluding characteristics of anti-essentialism and that of the protagonist and the relinquishing of pre-defined gender roles by her. Judith Butler's theory of Performativity has been applied because of Gilbert's subversion of the power structure of gender and challenging her pre-defined gender roles and thereafter establishing the point of Performativity by embarking on her journey towards self-discovery.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Prior researches conducted on Gilbert's memoir mainly surround critical aspects like Travel Narratives, Consumerism, Spiritual Quest, Food Symbolism, Post-Feminism and the like, leaving the study of the book in the light of Postmodern Feminism unexplored.

In a research article "Mysticism Meets Lifestyles: Elizabeth Gilbert" written by Dilge Kodak (2011), the scholar considers Elizabeth Gilbert as portrayed in the movie Eat Pray Love as a postmodern consumer and the paper "examines the postmodern consumer's relations with mystic experiences." (p. 39) The aspects of postmodernism, individualizations, mysticism, and the New Age Trend vis-à-vis the protagonist in the movie Eat Pray Love have been discussed. Discourse Analysis of the movie has been done keeping in mind the above aspects. The paper discusses the aspect that the modern consumer and the marketplace have been made to correspond to each other which in turn benefits both. The mystic lifestyles and culture of different places (Italy, India, and Indonesia, in this case) have been depicted as corresponding to the postmodern self that Gilbert now is.

Another scholarly article, "Food, Sex, Love, and Bodies in Eat Pray Love and Black Swan" by scholars Janani Subramanian and Jorie Lagerwey (2013) discusses the literal embodiment of the female protagonists, in *Eat Pray Love* and *Black Swan*, of the "... contradictory claims of Post-feminism in relationship to consumption, specifically the regulation of bodily appetites through either extreme discipline or a strictly delimited indulgence" (Subramanian & Lagerwey, 2013, p. 1). This paper focuses on the different eating patterns as showcased by two women; Elizabeth Gilbert in the movie *Eat Pray Love* appreciates and indulges herself into deliberate eating when she travels to her first destination, Italy and on the other hand, the protagonist in the movie Black Swan deliberately puts herself into a calorie deficit diet for attaining the body required to be the prima ballerina. The paper further moves on to discuss the impact of the popular culture of cinema and post feminism on the depiction of the relationship between female protagonists and food, sex, love, and their bodies, "ostensibly offering choice, but still requiring women to operate within strict, 'balance', boundaries of the acceptable when it comes to food, sex, love, and bodies" (Subramanian & Lagerwey, 2013, p. 17).

The aspect of 'woman' has been discussed about in various ways; in a research article, "Food Symbolism, Sexuality, and Gender Identity in Fairy Tales and Modern Women's Bestsellers", Natalia Andrievskikh (2014) discussed the food imagery prevalent across fairy tales and contemporary literature, which alluded to women. The scholar compared the affinity of the novel with the ancient folklore's portrayal of the female protagonist's search for self-fulfillment and romantic love thus discussing the journey of Gilbert and the emancipation it provided her with.

The reading of Postmodernism and Post feminism has been conducted mostly on the film adaptation of *Eat Pray Love* exploring the theme of consumerism and the impact the movie has had on the travel industry of the three countries that it talks about, talking about the altered consumer behaviour and such leaving unexplored the study of the book in the light of Postmodern Feminism which this paper has set out to do.

METHODS

To establish the notions of Postmodern Feminism into *Eat Pray Love*, a critical analysis of the text was conducted by the researchers. The theory required studying and analyzing various other prevailing thoughts around it by prominent theorists. The study investigated various aspects of Postmodern Feminism as it is such a wide concept and selected the aspect of 'Non-Essentialism' that forms the major standpoint of the theory. Prominent points from the text were picked and fit into the realm of the theory.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Relating Essentialism to Postmodern Feminism and *Eat Pray Love*

Often, we feel the obligation to perform in society in a specific way in our everyday lives. This 'specific' way is already predefined many times by the society while other times it is the result of our own continued behavioural patterns over a period. When we act, people expect us to act that way again. Also, there are certain premonitions about how a specific gender must behave, act, and for that matter, live his/her life. Hereon, the concept of essentialism comes into play. Essentialism is the view that things have 'essences', specific traits which define an entity/object what it fundamentally is, thus having the view that every entity/object must conform to its definition with all the specific characteristics to qualify as that particular entity.

Essentialism in everyday aspects also includes Gender Essentialism, which is the kind the researchers will here be talking about. Gender Essentialism sets specific characteristic traits to specific gender adhering to which they are fundamentally termed as masculine/feminine, meaning that there are certain rules ascribed under the concept of Gender Essentialism for being a 'man' or a 'woman'. Considering feminist theories and gender studies, it can be said that Gender Essentialism attributes a specific 'essence' to femininity. Feminist theorist Elizabeth Grosz (1995) states in her book, Space, Time and Perversion: Essays on the Politics of Bodies, that Essentialism

entails the belief that those characteristics defined as women's essence are always shared by all women. It implies a limit of the variations and possibilities of change- it is not possible for a subject to act in a manner contrary to her essence. Her essence underlies all the apparent variations differentiating women from each other. Essentialism thus refers to the existence of fixed characteristic, given attributes, and ahistorical functions that limit the possibilities of change and thus social reorganization. (pp. 47-48)

"I was trying so hard not to know this, but the truth kept insisting itself to me" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 10). What was that thing that the protagonist was "trying so hard" (Gilbert, 2006, p.10) not to know? Why did she not want to acknowledge the truth? Why was the truth insisting itself to her so much? The above sentence, extracted from the novel, said by the protagonist and followed by an internal monologue – "I don't want to be married anymore" (Gilbert, 2006, p.10) clearly gives the preliminary reader the hypothesis that the protagonist is, obviously married and is no longer happy in her marital relationship.

Elizabeth Gilbert was raised in a small countryside farm in Connecticut. She lived a common countryside life where the only time her parents would not ask her to do regular chores was when she and sister would be reading. Gilbert had been and lived the essentialist life since her childhood; her mother got married at twenty-four and had two kids, her sister got married at twenty-four and had two kids and Gilbert got married at twenty-four and suffered anxiety attacks when it was 'time' for her to have kids. In the memoir, Gilbert is seen daunting overturning thirty as it was ostensibly the right time to have kids and settle down. She says, "...that deadline of THIRTY had loomed over me like a death sentence, and I discovered that I did not want to be pregnant" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 13). Though Gilbert along with her husband had anticipated that she would want to "settle down and have children" (2006, p. 13), one of the major reasons why she thought she would want this life was because she had seen her mother and sister do the same, though following their lifestyle, as she eventually discovered, was not in unison with her desires.

The meaning of the phrase 'settling down' has a rather Post-Structural approach to it, implying that its meaning is different in the context of men and women respectively. For men it has an economical connotative, getting a good job and getting married is when a man gets settled. On the other hand, it's meaning in the context of women means getting married and specifically having kids. Irrespective of a woman's flourishing career and financial independence, she is asked to 'settle down' i.e. to get married and eventually have kids. Gilbert had a fairly good job which had kept her and her husband afloat, she was the permanent earner of the family, her husband is seen switching jobs, exploring, and not taking any job dedicatedly. Even after being financially independent, being the consistent earner of the family, she was still expected to 'settle down' i.e. have kids.

The above argument leads to the understanding that gender and text (in this case a phrase) showcase similar characteristics. Post-structuralists argue that a text doesn't have a fixed meaning and for it to possess meaning it needs to be repeated continuously, also its meaning is context-specific. Likewise, gender also has no fixed meaning since its meaning is given to it by social construct hence making it vulnerable to change. As Pramod K. Nayar (2009) states in his book, *Contemporary Literary and Cultural Theory*,

Postmodern theories of gender argue that gender is not a fixed or stable category across the world. Gender, like a text, is a performance, the playing out of roles, that has to be repeated ('cited') and validated within specific social and cultural contexts, but which is also opened to contest and negotiations. (p. 130).

The researcher, during a personal interaction with the author, put up this question of the kind of pressure the author felt from the society and she answered,

The 'settling down' is not even pressure, it is beyond that. It's intrinsic, in drinkable; it's not that there was ever one source that I would say officially put this pressure on me. The entire culture, the entire structure of the culture; it's the assumption that this is what you do, and it's very rarely cut struck...(E. Gilbert, personal communication, January 23, 2020).

During this conversation, Gilbert does not fail to mention how she has known only one right way of doing things by witnessing her mother and sister doing it like it is supposed to be.

Essentialism does not just limit itself to things and gender(s), rather every single aspect about the civilization has been essentialised. Sigmund Freud's notion of Civilization in his book, *Civilization and its Discontents* (1930) and Butler's idea of Anti-Essentialism in her feminist texts like *Gender Trouble* (1990) and *Undoing Gender* (2004) reflect coherence in their ideas and thoughts. Freud (1994) tells us in his book that, Civilization is based on the renunciation of instinct/desire, and this is what is happening here with the protagonist, Gilbert, when she can be seen denunciating her instincts and her desires of not wanting to be in a marital relation any longer. So, can this be said that Civilization has been essentialized?

In the process of becoming more and more civilized and sophisticated, we have been made to conform to a specific way of living our lives, a specific time period which must be kept in mind when we are taking significant steps in life. This specificity takes the form of Essentialism and this is what Postmodern Feminism doesn't conform to.

Postmodern Feminism rejects any kind of restraining force that causes hindrance or pulls back a woman from taking necessary (in this case emergency) actions to free herself from this disguised oppression in the form of essentialised Civilization. The protagonist is a modern woman living in a first world country, she is working, in fact, the breadwinner of the family, despite possessing all these features which make their way to the list of 'prerequisites for being an independent, successful woman', Gilbert finds it terribly difficult for herself to simply acknowledge this fact that this wasn't the kind of life she wanted and she wanted to break free from it. It is often difficult for white-middle class women to acknowledge their oppression because they are at the top of the Western feminist thought, "Western feminist thought has taken the experiences of white middle-class women to be representative of the experiences of all women" (Spelman, 1988, p. 6). This makes her skeptical before realizing her desires. She is seen doubting her instinct because

breaking away from a marriage isn't the true essence sub-consciously prevailing in the society following Essentialism. Looking at such things happening to an apparently independent woman- the slow, unconscious, and unintentional harmliving in a first-world country in the 21st century is quite saddening and alarming. It transports us way back to the revolution of the Second Wave Feminism when women recognised that the only problem behind inequality was not just discrimination but also oppression in the form of unequal job opportunities, limited options in education, and various other everyday issues they had to face when going out in the men's world. The movement of Feminism has come a long way, winning basic rights and equality for women, from the First Wave up till contemporary feminist thoughts like Post Feminism and Postmodern Feminism, but looking at the protagonist here, this can be very well said that the movement requires an addition in the existing domain which requires keeping in consideration the needs of the middle-class whitewomen. Since these women are at the top of the hierarchy of the category of 'woman' so they are assumed to be free of problems of any sort. Elizabeth V. Spelman (1988) in her book Inessential Women: Problems of Exclusion in Feminist Thought says,

...some of the differences among women carry with them differences in privilege and power. Such differences may become problematic for the privileged women as the occasion for fear, shame, and guilt. In such circumstances, the "problem of difference" is really the problem of privilege. (p. 90).

The irony about being a first-world oppressed woman can be seen in the form of Gilbert's embodiment of it, where seemingly she is happy because she has got everything that a third world woman deeply desires for, but the fact remains that she is still oppressed, and she is not happy. This phenomenon is identified by the researchers as "Disguised Feminism". Spelman talks about how Western feminist thought has taken into consideration the lives of middle-class whitewomen as the pedestal for estimating gender oppression on "other women", without even realising they generalise the entire category of 'women' by doing it. Also, in this process it is often forgotten that the privileges of the middle-class white women also damage her in certain ways, "...such privilege damages (albeit in different ways) both the women who have it and those who do not..."(Spelman, 1988, p. ix).

The problem identified by Spelman regarding the generalisation of the category of women and considering middle-class whitewomen to be representative of the entire category of women in turns essentialises the roles, lifestyles, and the thought process of middle-class whitewomen thereby taking away from them the true essence of equality and freedom. Gilbert finds it extremely difficult to acknowledge her desires in the fear of breaking the social code and hence, goes through a whirlpool of emotions of shame, guilt, fear, and anxiety.

Exploring Butler and Her Theories Concerning Performativity

The inability of women to accept their true, actual selves is mainly because of the continuous repetition of specific gender roles ascribed upon them by the society. When Simone de Beauvoir (1984) claims, "one is not born, but rather becomes a woman" (p. 267), she is emphasising and reinterpreting this doctrine of constituting acts from the phenomenological tradition. This behavioural inconsistency of the gender is mainly elaborated by Butler, for the first time, in her seminal text, Gender Trouble (1990), and in her essay, "Performative Acts and Gender Constitution: An Essay in Phenomenology and Feminist Theory" (1988),

In this sense, gender is no way a stable identity or locus of agency from which various acts proceed; rather, it is an identity tenuously constituted in timean identity instituted through a *stylised repetition of acts*. Further, gender is instituted through the stylization of the body and, hence, must be understood as the mundane way in which bodily gestures, movements, and enactments of various kinds constitute the illusion of an abiding gendered self. (Butler, 1988, p. 1).

Gilbert's behaviour towards understanding her own passion and desires can very well be understood using Butler's theory of Performativity. According to Butler (1999), there is no easy way to separate the life of gender from the life of

desire (paraphrasing). Our identity is very much affected by our passions and desires. In Merleau-Ponty's (2002) reflection in The Phenomenology of Perception on the body in its sexual being he takes up the issue with such sexist elaborations of bodily experience and claims that the body is a historical idea rather than a natural species. This claim is furthermore carried forward by Simone de Beauvoir (1984) in The Second Sex when she claims that 'woman,' and by extension, any gender, is a historical situation rather than a natural fact. Associating a biological female with feminine qualities provides the essentialist aspect to the framework of a female. Butler's theory, her ideas, her perception, all comes to play in the book Eat Pray Love portraying a woman who is trying to run away from the naturalized conception of gender. When Gilbert chooses to follow her desire, she constitutes her gender differently, thus establishing Butler's view that gender is constructed through performance and most importantly, if gender can be constructed by the society in a naturalized way then it can be constructed differently.

Charting the Course of Postmodern Feminism

In social sciences, 'agency' is the capacity of individuals to act independently and to make their own free choices. By contrast, structures are those factors of influence (such as social class, religion, gender, ability, customs) that determine or limit an agent or its decisions. And as such, Agency is a vex subject for Butler because she does not want to rely on a concept of the self that sees the self as an author of everything that happens in the world. She wants a self, or an agent, that is not just a victim or an effect of norms. The self is never outside of cultural influences but is not/should not simply be determined by those influences. By reading Gilbert, it has been observed that she had been trying to strike a balance between her Agency and the Structures surrounding her. She states this over and over in the preliminary pages of the book, "I was supposed to want to have a baby" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 10); "My husband and I had built our entire life around the common expectation that, after passing the doddering age of thirty, I would want to settle down and have children" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 10); "I'd been attempting to convince myself that this was normal" (Gilbert, 2006, p.11). It takes a whole lot of anticipation and speculation by Gilbert to fully take control of her agency and let go of the structures binding herself and her agency. The structure can be considered not too brutal in the case of a first world country woman, but the struggle as can be understood by reading Gilbert is clearly due to continuing norms of Gender Essentialism which has been continuing and still prevailing in the society so much so that it has become a default way of living in the society. Gilbert questions her agency and instinct because she has seen her mother and sister do the same thing that she is now expected to be doing and, she herself couldn't know why she desired something else when she had put efforts into the making of the clichéd way of life (approved by the society).

De Beauvoir (1984) stated in The Second Sex that the woman was designated as the 'Other'. The 'Other' is termed so because women have continually been subservient to the male. Their actions must be dependent on their male counterparts, they are like the other hand of the compass which draws the circle while the hand at the center is stable and directs the other hand, just like the metaphysical conceit made by John Donne (1633) in Valediction: Forbidding Mourning. No option has been given to explore the dimensions of her own feelings, thoughts, wishes because the way a woman is "supposed" to feel is incorporated into her through the culture she grows up in, by her family values and by assessing other women in her family who are already bound into the essentialist lifestyle. Meaning that the first space where essentialist traits are inherited is the home. "The significance of place and its relationship to gendered identities...rely(ies) on a fundamental and essentialist binary distinction that maps onto gender divisions" (Eagleton, 2008, p. 12). The roles of men and women have already been predefined according to their gender roles; "men were the idealized rational, full participants as workers in the public arena of the economy and politics, women were dependents, to be protected and kept close" (Eagleton, 2008, p. 12). The first power structure is witnessed, and accepted as true, by both genders at home, "For most women, the home is a site of social relations that are structured by power and inequality" (Eagleton, 2008, p. 15). Learning from the lives of her mother and sister when Gilbert builds her house and is expected to promote herself to the role of a mother, she experiences withdrawal from her lifestyle she says, "We'd only bought this house a year ago. Hadn't I wanted this nice house? Hadn't I loved it? So why was I haunting its halls every night now... Wasn't I proud of all we'd accumulated- the prestigious home in the Hudson Valley, the apartment in Manhattan...?" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 12). But without Gilbert's realization her house had become another structure of power in her life which made her realize every now and then that she needed to serve the purpose of having a big house – have kids.

The home is also, as Foucault (1976/1978) argued so persuasively, "the location of self-surveillance that ensures that even in the most private of acts the capillary structures of power in a modern state make certain that most behavior conforms to societal norms" (p. 15).

The researchers would like to talk about the concept of 'The Eternal Feminine', first introduced by Goethe (1994) at the end of Faust, Part 2 with reference to its relativity with the ongoing study. The Eternal Feminine propagates Gender Essentialism by having certain specific beliefs regarding particular 'essences' being possessed by male and female which cannot be altered by time or environment. De Beauvoir considered this as a myth and was adamant to shatter its ideology. She claimed that this myth was formed over time and produced by human civilization. The Eternal Feminine attributes qualities such as inferiority, gentleness, and emotionality to women and

assumes them to be innate and fixed. For de Beauvoir, on the other hand, no essential characteristic should determine how one becomes a woman (Chaudhuri, 2006). De Beauvoir (1984) discussed at length about this aspect in her book The Second Sex. This is further elaborated by Betty Friedan (1963) in her book The Feminine Mystique which became the reason for the upsurge of the second wave feminism. Freidan wrote about, "the problem that has no name" (p. 3), which basically discussed the increasing melancholy in American housewives despite having every material comfort and possessing everything that a woman is supposed to achieve in her life (getting married, having children and being an all-rounder housewife). The detrimental effect induced by this image was that it narrowed women into the domestic sphere and led many women to lose their own identities. Friedan, in the conclusion of the first chapter says that, "We can no longer ignore that voice within that says: 'I want something more than my husband and my children and my home."" (Friedan, 1963, p. 32).

Studying and analyzing the feminist revolution since de Beauvoir, the struggle and evolution of women can be noted; the researchers believe that the process of a woman's struggle and achieving liberation at the end is still working out like the same way in the 21st century as was at the start of these revolutions. A woman is still considered as 'The Eternal Feminine' who must do all the feminine chores and seek fulfilment and happiness in the roles assigned to her by the society, as the protagonist here Elizabeth Gilbert was doing; next she has been identified as 'The Feminine Mystique' who is unhappy and dissatisfied with her life which is supposed to be perfect and blissful as it conforms to society's regulations, the embodiment of which can be seen in and as Gilbert, who is questioning herself and why her perfect life is not able to give her the happiness which it was supposed to provide her with.

To overcome all these feminist issues, which Friedan rightly calls 'the problem that has no name', Postmodern Feminism comes into play. Postmodern Feminism propagates having no boundaries, no 'Feminist' name tag because ultimately that name tag also limits women to being beyond or outside the horizons of Feminism, dropping the burdens of Gender Essentialism, Gender Stereotypes, and Gender Dichotomies. The Postmodern Feminist lets go of the 'performances' that bind her into certain gender norms. Because Gilbert had seen and learnt from her mother and sister a way of living, where females are meant to grow up, get married, fulfil all the responsibilities that come with getting married, bear children when 'she comes of age', and always cater to the needs of her husband and her family, even she succumbed to essential gender norms and tried her best to live her life in an 'essentialised' way. Gilbert has a conversation with her mother right before she was leaving for Italy where she thinks of her mother as this very strong, self-sufficient woman,

What I grew up watching in my household was a mother who would receive her husband's love and affection whenever he thought to offer it but would then step aside and take care of herself whenever he drifted off into his own peculiar universe of low-grade oblivious neglect. (Gilbert, 2006, p. 86).

But living in a postmodern world, Gilbert soon started realising what her true desires were and that she could never find solace in the materialistic things around her which were supposed to provide her happiness. After a lot of speculation, questioning herself, and self-loathing, she finally takes the step to end her marriage and seek out herself, spend some time just with herself without the emotional presence of any man in her life.

'Representation' plays a dual role. Butler (1999), in Gender Trouble, talks about "Subjects of Sex, Gender, and Desire" in chapter one. Here, she talks about the representation of women. In the political arena, it serves as the operative term within a political process that seeks to extend visibility and legitimacy to women as political subjects. "On the other hand, Representation is the normative function of a language which is said either to reveal or distort what is assumed to be true about the category of women" (Butler, 1999, p. 1). If the theory of 'the center shift' by Derrida is applied here as woman is always striving to be the subject as her role is always been compared with her relation to a man, her role has always been that of an object because men has already taken up the role

of the subject. Postmodernism sure does incorporate and features 'Otherness', but women still feel as the object and constantly try to make the center shift and be the subject. Butler, in this context has the view that "the qualifications for being a subject must first be met before representation can be extended" (1999, pp. 1-2). Woman becomes an impossible category in this kind of a discursive situation because a woman can never be in complete conformity to that certain parameter because that parameter is very phallogocentric in approach. So, women will always be short of the permitted qualities. Butler (1999) further said, women were not substance, rather they were the 'difference'; because they differed from the normative angle. Women are always excluded from the domain. But women cannot be simply negated from the domain, they cannot be termed as the 'other'. Woman is the 'difference' in the identity, they are not the 'other'. 'Other' is an identity while 'difference' is a process which produces the otherness. Thus, Butler totally withdraws woman from this race of being the subject or the other stating that woman is the 'difference' because the parameters are set as such that women will never be able to take the pivotal position as the foundation of such operations have been laid by men making it entirely phallogocentric.

The researchers would like to quote an example from the Netflix series, *Dead To Me* which is an American black comedy web series created by Liz Feldman (2019), where the female protagonist laments how she gave up her desires so that she could earn a

decent living for her children and her nonworking husband. Exactly like Gilbert, she finds her petty desires to be too silly to be put into actualization now. The protagonist (Jennifer aka Jen) is in conversation with her friend (Judy):

Jen: Did I tell you Laguna is his hometown, right? It's where he wanted to live, where he felt safe. It's, like, I just had to figure it out how am I gonna make money, feed four mouths.

Judy: But you did, you made a beautiful life.

Jen: What life? This isn't my life. This is his life. I worked to support him and his dreams. I had my own dreams.

Judy: Your dreams, what were they?

Jen: They're stupid now.

Judy: No!

Jen: No! It's embarrassing.

Judy: C'mon.

Jen: I wanted to be a dancer. I was pretty good too. But it just... seemed like his career was taking off and I'm the one with the uterus and I've gotta be the grown-up here and for what? (S1, E4).

The continued usage of the word 'petty' for addressing the desires of both Gilbert and Jen (protagonist in *Dead To Me*, 2019) has been done to bring into notice the actual minuteness of the desires of both the female characters. One of them simply wanted to buy a "pencil box" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 24) for herself while the other one wanted to be a dancer. Perhaps, Gilbert did not desire a pencil box per se, she just wanted to speak out her desires out loud. She explains how initially she did not even dare to answer the question, "What do *you* want to do, Liz?" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 24) And when she began answering this question, she could not dare realizing bigger desires rather she started with the little ones, she says, "And when I finally started to answer, I did so cautiously. I would only allow myself little baby-step wants" (Gilbert, 2006, p. 24).

CONCLUSION

After analysing the above arguments of Gender Essentialism and the theory surrounding Gender difference (female as the 'Other', male as the 'Subject') it can be said that Gender Difference propagates Gender Essentialism and vice versa. The 'Difference' is 'Essentialised' to such an extent now that it doesn't seem to be coming the wrong way. The legitimisation of the difference has taken place so much so that it is now the accepted and apparently the right way to do things. The realisation of the difference taking place in the lives of women is dormant now; they have accepted the state of things and have started to believe in them. Gilbert's uncertainness regarding her marriage has already been discussed in the above pages. She continually questions her premonitions about her failing marriage; she considers leaving her marriage a sin and continually loathes herself for considering doing it. According to her life experiences till now, seeing her mother and sister and various other women being good wives and bearing children at the right age and taking

good care of the entire household is actually the right way for a woman to live her life and what she is doing totally contradicts that way. Various societal norms and the widely accepted 'essentialised' way of life led her to believe that what she's doing maybe right in her perspective but is certainly not the desirable way. This directly alludes to Freud's thought in his Civilization and its Discontents (1930), where he says that civilization creates rules against what we want, these rules exist out of a civilizing function that in order to have peace and some sense of security in the society we need to renounce desire and instinct. The society governed by civilizing principles have created rules which renounce the basic instinct and desire of Gilbert disallowing her to follow her heart and instead accept the normal 'essentialised' and 'civilized' way of existing as a woman.

Talking in terms of gender and sexuality, when one renounces one's basic desire and instinct, one is in turn giving in to the expectation of a civilized society which leads to certain performativity performed by specific genders. Hence, it can be said that "...gender identity is a performative accomplishment compelled by social sanction and taboo." (Butler, 1988, p. 520) propagated by the civilization of the society. Butler's theory of Performativity claims that the roles of sex and gender are not prescribed at birth rather they are formed over time by certain performances of the sex. In Butler's essay, "Performative Acts and Gender Constitution: An Essay in Phenomenology and Feminist Theory" (1988, p. 519), she

says, "In this sense, gender is in no way a stable identity or locus of agency" (p. 519). When Gilbert performs out of her gender roles by deciding on not having kids, getting a divorce and travelling to the places she wanted to, she establishes Butler's point that gender is itself the effect and not the origin or cause hence establishing its claim of no stable identity.

Butler distinguishes 'Performance' from 'Performativity' saying that 'Performativity' means an act that not only communicates but also creates an identity. Performative acts of gender do a similar kind of work, not only communicating to others some aspect of identity, but constructing that very identity, only they do that work through repetition. This can be noticed in Gilbert's behaviour as well, she rejects her gender roles by not conforming to society's norms and moving away from already accepted female gender roles of 'settling down' which means marrying, having kids, and living in a respectable household by a certain age.

The aspect of Postmodern Feminism has been explored within the chosen text with the establishment of certain common and strong aspects prevalent in both. The memoir by Elizabeth Gilbert proves to be a suitable platform to propagate the concepts of Postmodern Feminism which exists even in the lives of first world independent women. Butler's Performativity, the aspect of Non-Essentialism, basically the standpoints of the theory are given justice to in Gilbert's text. This research paper has aimed to bring into light the issues still faced by women in the world by taking the example of Elizabeth Gilbert and her journey towards self-discovery.

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The Conflict of Virtue and Corruption in Shaw's *Major Barbara*: A Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on analyzing the conflict between good and evil, and to ascertain the importance of justice and rights in society through a crucial factor that touches all people – poverty and wealth. It aims to detect the measure of the Islamic hints of George Bernard Shaw with particular reference to one of his great plays, *Major Barbara*, which focused on economy, money, and poverty. The paper begins with a general introduction about some social and dramatic philosophical indications of George Bernard Shaw. After that, it shifts to shed light on (1) the perspective of the dramatist, Bernard Shaw, on the contrastive concept of Good against Evil and (2) the analysis on the central part of the study illustrating the perspectives of the play. Then the paper ends with a summary on the results and discussion of the study to be followed by the conclusion. The study applies the *deductive*, critical, and analytical approach as a suitable method of literary research.

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INTRODUCTION

The religionism of George Bernard Shaw has been conventionally treated with a sense of uncertainty, as though he has nothing to do with faith. Bernard Shaw is well acknowledged as a great dramatist, a freethinker, a humorist, a social scientist, and an economist. However, critics have neglected, to a great extent, the religious ideas of Shaw's nature. The investigation on his religious thoughts is either poor or just an unavailable thought about his belief in diverse practices. Shaw has spoken his faithful thoughts in the prefaces to his plays as well as in his plays even indirectly. Most likely, the reason for neglecting his spiritual side as believed is because Shaw is a religious man but his ways was covered with an immoral shield.

George Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) is one of the most successful dramatists. He is a "leading literary figure mostly interested in the drama" (Dahami, 2017b, p. 103). As a writer, he came through different works of art, drama and dramatic criticism, journalism, and music under the inspiration of his mother. At the beginning of the twentieth century, Bernard Shaw acquired sufficient knowledge as a dramatist. He produced successful plays such as Passion, Major Barbara, Man and Superman, Heartbreak House, Caesar and Cleopatra, Saint Joan, and many others. Altogether, he wrote critical prefaces about the plays. Many critics say that Shaw is more significant than Shakespeare is. "The point is that Shaw's talent is not merely for conversation but also for dramaturgy" (Bentley, 2010, p. 151). He wrote his first play Passion in 1878 and continued his literary craft with rare pause. This continued until his demise in 1950 till the age of 94, thus ultimately producing more than fifty plays. Bernard Shaw is "a moralist with an insatiable and

inextinguishable sense of comedy: a more painfully and utterly inharmonious blend of characteristics" (Gilman, 1907, p. 284).

George Bernard Shaw is a polemic social reformer, a poor yet courteous household of Dublin. His mother rooted in George, her son, affection for music and literature because she was an eminent singer. Shaw became a principal member of the inexperienced Fabian Society, where he authored several pamphlets on a variety of political and social concerns. He started his career through writing novels, but some of the novels were received with limited success. Thereafter, he shifted his disposition towards drama where he found great success.

Bernard Shaw is a writer of polemics, as Einstein appears to have experienced when he related the undertaking of Shavian discussion to Mozart's music. His polemics are thus the more serious,

for polemics are nothing but the art of skilled deception. A prime deice of polemics is the either/or pattern, against which so much has been said in recent times, often by great polemics. Shaw is a great polemicist in his skilled deployment of antitheses. He always forces upon his opponent an alternative which the opponent never wanted to be confronted with and sometimes did not deserve to be confronted with. (Bentley, 1987, p. 146).

His plays changed the attention of audiences from idealistic travails to real problems of society. According to Griffith (2002), Shaw "needed also to look again at the institutional focus of his socialism, in particular to reconsider his position with regard to the Fabian Society" (p. 99). The critic, additionally, adds that Shaw "was, in effect, the chief polemicist, star speaker, literary editor, mediator between competing factions, troubleshooter and heart-throb: the virtuoso of every public Fabian performance" (Griffith, 2002, p. 46).

Bernard Shaw produced several dramas that were greatly valued during his first ten years, such as Candida, Mrs. Warren's Profession, and Arms and the Man. He "invented 'Drama of Ideas or The Discussion Play' ... in which he discarded the old convention type of plots and incarnated a modern spoof with a serious plot that ushered discussion in the last act of his plays" (Afrozuddin, 2014, p. 9). In 1904, new management for the Court Theater in Chelsea appeared where Bernard Shaw's dramas found a warm reception among people fascinated in a new drama. It is a sort of drama that "was written by dramatists such as Shaw, Arthur Pinero and Henry Arthur Jones, which was influential in London's theatres" (Dahami, 2017a, p. 30). At this time, Shaw had the ability to direct his plays and then he rapidly became prosperous because of their success, concluding with the making of Pygmalion in the main theater of London in 1914. At the end of World War I, he restarted writing plays with a series of five-play on progression called Back to Methuselah and the fabrication of Saint Joan, which guided him in winning the Nobel Peace Prize in 1925. During this date, his dramas have been performed and acted throughout the English-speaking world. He "had the depth and breadth of his eight decades as critic and playwright, spanning the demise of Victorianism and the rise of modernism, to sustain a serious, long-term theatrical venture" (Herren, 2012, p. 199) until his death. Shaw passed away in his home in 1950.

METHODS

As a literary study, this paper applies the critical, analytical, and descriptive methods as its tools for measuring the events of the study. It is divided into three sections. The first section deals with some crucial standpoints, views, and assessments on the dramatist George Bernard Shaw as a philosopher playwright. The second section covers the main part of the study. Here, the play, Major Barbara, evaluated the concepts of conflict between good and evil as well as poverty and wealth and their consequences in societies. Furthermore, this section focuses mostly on the relationship between the two distant characters, the father and the daughter, Undershaft, and Barbara. The third section summarizes the argument and discussion of the study.

The amalgamation of approaches is essential to understanding. It provides material that would have been apparent for scrutiny of the textual structures in isolation. These are important, particularly in the case of deductive analysis, as there is an inclination to focus on social features of the play, Major Barbara. Therefore, this confirms a true methodological analysis putting in mind both visual metaphors and the amalgamation of image within the play. Furthermore, the viewers/critics are not passive; they dynamically will evaluate how the analytical modes unite. In this context, critical-analytical technique can be convenient as it reflects how the analysis will be influenced by both the expected social norms and the public elements.

The study uses the *deductive* method, which is applied to sufficiently formulate the scheme that accounts for the outcomes obtained via direct observation and reflection to enable logical prediction. Also, there are further effects and impressions to be verified or disproved by theoretical evidence. I feel the importance of comparison between the author and the main character was necessary to correlate the existing sorting method. Analysis and synthesis are employed to recognize the relations between Shaw and Barbara regarding the level relation. The induction supports the review of the prospects for the importance of social issues such as the conflict between good and evil, as well as the significant correlation of wealth and poverty. Qualitative analysis is used to estimate the relationship.

Shaw's Perspective

George Bernard Shaw justifies reasonably his perspective on Islam, saying that

If any religion had the chance of ruling over England, nay Europe within the next hundred years, it could be Islam. I have always held the religion of Muhammad in high estimation because of its wonderful vitality. It is the only religion, which appears to me to possess that assimilating capacity to the changing phase of existence, which can make itself appeal to every age. I have studied him - the wonderful man, and in my opinion, far from being an anti-Christ, he must be called the Saviour of Humanity. (Gandapur, 2009, p. 52).

Such a paragraph proves that Shaw has an excellent admiration, approbation, and respect for Islam and its principles that are faultless, flawless, perfect, ideal, and fit for all humanity everywhere and all over the ages. Shaw has not stopped his thoughts, but he articulated them through his writing and discussable dramas. One of his eminent dramas is Major Barbara, which symbolizes its protagonist as the name of the title. Major Barbara can be recognized as a significant play in the history of modern English drama. Also, it is considered to be one of the most provocative of the works of Bernard Shaw, "a discussion in three long acts" (Crawford, 2005, p. 88). It is a magnificent play in which it is written at the time when Shaw was fifty years of age. When Shaw wrote the play, he was estimated as a Godless man. It is a means for expressing Shaw's political viewpoint, and it is thought by many critics to be a parody resting on a 'salvation army¹.' The play "deals with the corrupting effects of power" (Stafford, 2013, p. 74).

¹ An imaginative spiritual camp as opposed to the real concrete word "army" in which this camp is constructed to support and sustain the poor and weak people.

Bernard Shaw links the play with economics rather than showing religion as a single unit because he believes that the economic situation for a person determines and affects the rest of life, especially the religious principles that are estimated as an organic relationship. Shaw's "religion is above the church, above the cross, above the so-called religious organisations, and also above the traditional religious ethics" (Pathak, 1981, p. 107). However, the religion according to Pathak is Christianity. According to Pathak, religion "cannot have an isolated existence away from the main streams of man's day-to-day economic problems. Religion, according to him, should cover every aspect of man's life. The religion that ignores the economic issue of a man's life is basically anti-man; and it cannot bring about his real progress" (Pathak, 1981, p. 104).

In his vision, Bernard Shaw appreciated the 'Salvation Army' because it ensures and warrants more useful moral assistance than churches. "Shaw's treatment of the Salvation Army in Major Barbara showed that he knew more about religion than some of his churchly critics" (Slosson, 1917, p. 48). The Salvation Army is not an army camp. At the same time, it is not a church neither is it a sheer secular or absolute religious, which means that its name is mixed between secularity and divine. This is proved by a name such as the 'Salvation Army,' which is united from both combinations and shows disparity. The expression 'salvation' refers to redemption, deliverance and rescue, whereas the term 'army' means armed forces, military, and fighting. It can be conceived that Barbara has her own purposive salvation army; similarly, her father Undershaft has his salvation army, but it is for a different purpose. Consequently, "the Salvation Army regards itself as engaged in a continual fight against evil" (Lyall, 1927, p. 31). As it is in Islam, evil should be eradicated by true continuous fight, which is spiritually integrated factually.

The Play's Perspective

The play, Major Barbara, focuses on the issue that paucity, poverty, and lack are the key factual corruption. This shows that salvation or deliverance is needed to save humanity by the pledge to provide people what they necessarily need to subsist securely. "The Shaw play insists on the corrupting power of institutions" (Nelson, 2014), mainly the one controlled by the father of the hero. The protagonist Major Barbara, "despite lack of money, tries to save the soul of people" (Jain, 2006, p. 109). The weaponries factory mentioned in the play is just a conspiracy scheme to pry the protagonist, Barbara free from inhuman morality, which Bernard Shaw loathed.

One of the main issues the play attempts to tackle is poverty. *Major Barbara* is a controversial play by George Bernard Shaw. The protagonist, Barbara – a mouthpiece of Shaw – has faith in serving the public via what she calls the Salvation Army; she, in her endeavor, tries to protect them from indulging in prohibited and illegal actions because of poverty. It is advantageous to bring to the mind The Countess Cathleen of Yeats, who has similar conduct and virtue with Major Barbara. "Cathleen ... sacrifices her soul to save the poor" (Dahami, 2016, p. 1192). The case is comparable with the Countess Rosmarin of Christopher Fry, who accepts to "leave her house; the Countess portrays the concept of sacrifice to redeem and deliver others. She disbelieves in vehemence and confrontation as a means of reaching human delivery" (Dahami, 2018, p. 27).

Barbara trusts herself that she can help poor people and remains true to her belief only by receiving donations from benefactors who earn their income in the right way, which denotes an Islamic direction. The play, Major Barbara, is a drama about an officer working in the Salvation Army. The main character, Major Barbara Undershaft, is disappointed by social harms, evils, and misfortunes. Her values prevent her to receive money from armament producer who chances to be her father Undershaft. "Through this play, Shaw has tried to focus attention on a great social evil. Not only is poverty the greatest of social evils, but it is also the root cause of all other evils and crimes" (Reddy, 2010, p. 107). Bloom (2005), adds, "It is a crime to endure it, a crime to be content with it, and it is the mother of all crimes of brutality, corruption, and fear" (p. 169). Barbara sheds light on the point saying: "There is no wicked side: life is all one. And I never wanted to shirk my share in whatever evil must be endured, whether it be sin or

suffering. I wish I could cure you of middleclass ideas, Dolly" (Shaw, 2002, p. 80).

For Shaw as stated by Undershaft, poverty is a crime. It is confirmed through the discussion between Undershaft and Cusins. Undershaft insists upon his position by saying:

Cusins: Do you call poverty a crime?

Undershaft: The worst of crimes. All the other crimes are virtues beside it: all the other dishonors are chivalry itself by comparison. Poverty blights whole cities; spreads horrible pestilences; strikes dead the very souls of all who come within sight, sound, or smell of it. What you call crime is nothing: a murder here and a theft there, a blow now and a curse then: what do they matter? They are only the accidents and illnesses of life. (Shaw,1992, p. 137).

Moreover, Shaw shares his view about the poor people saying, "they do not want a revolution, they want a job... a job or even a meal will stop them at any time" (Murdoch, 2014, p. 78) from indulging in any unlawful activity. Poverty "is the worst crime" (Patterson, 2002, p. 109), which is one of the most imperative thoughts of Bernard Shaw in *Major Barbara* that negotiates a very dangerous topic, which Islam pays great concern to. One of its cures is simply in paying *zakât*-charity from rich people to those starving. However, what is *zakat*? Allah Almighty says:

"إِنَّمَا الصَّدَقَاتُ لِلْفُقَرَاءِ وَالْمَسَاكِينِ وَالْعَامِلِينَ عَلَيْهَا وَالْمُؤَلَّفَةِ قُلُوبُهُمْ وَفِي الرِّقَابِ وَالْعَارِمِينَ وَفِي

سَبِيلِ اللَّهِ وَإِبْنِ السَّبِيلِ فَرِيضنَةً مِنَ اللَّهِ وَاللَّهُ عَلِيمٌ حَكِيمٌ"

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– As-Sadaqat (here it means Zakât) are only for the Fuqara' (poor) and Al-Masakin (the poor) and those employed to collect (the funds), and to attract the hearts of those who have been inclined (towards Islam), and to free the captives, and for those in debt, and for Allah's Cause, and for the wayfarer (a traveller who is cut off from everything); a duty imposed by Allah. And Allah is All-Knower, All-Wise" (Quran, 9:60, from Al-Hilali & Khan, 1997, p. 254).

In Islam, it is a duty imposed by Allah, The All-Knower, that poverty should be lessened in the society via taking a very little specific portion from the rich to be given to the poor. Such a case is processed on the condition that the rich people must deal and gain their wealth and money by legal and lawful ways - against Andrew Undershaft, Barbara's father, and all those who behave like him. "The people of misguidance and its leaders are rambling along with the guidance of the devil in his perversion; they portray the right image as falsehood and the falsehood as right. They try to philosophize falsehood and strenuously try to demonstrate ... falsehood to delude those who do not have sufficient knowledge that their saying is indisputable true" (Al Ashqar, 1997, p. 321). Furthermore, the argument is supported by Undershaft declaring:

The more destructive war becomes the more fascinating we find it. No, Mr Lomax, I am obliged to you for making the usual excuse for my trade; but I am not ashamed of it. I am not one of those men who keep their morals and their business in watertight compartments. All the spare money my trade rivals spend on hospitals, cathedrals and other receptacles for conscience money, I devote to experiments and researches in improved methods of destroying life and property. I have always done so; and I always shall (Shaw, 2002, p. 16).

This condition is the same belief that Barbara struggles to achieve but in an antithesis to her father. Poverty is a very ineffective and devastating habit in society. For that reason, Prophet Mohammad (Prayers and Peace be upon him) regularly used to seek refuge from it, saying, "O Allah! I seek refuge in You from disbelief and poverty" (Hamid, 2003, p. 83). Such supplication from the Prophet PBUH indicates its significance. Thus, the poor should be given from the *zakat*. However, the rich people,

who refuse to pay the Zakât-Charity are not only liable to chastisement in the Hereafter; they also place their worldly wealth and assets at great risk of loss; for they have willfully deprived the poor and the eligible of the right they hold in their wealth (*The Zakât handbook*, 2007, p. 7).

Opposite to Doctor Faustus, who mentioned the seven deadly sins, Undershaft mentions other deadly seven elements. However, these elements are to increase his views towards such worldly means. He comments: "Yes, the deadly seven... Food, clothing, firing, rent, taxes, respectability, and children. Nothing can lift those seven millstones from Man's neck, but money; and the spirit cannot soar until the millstones are lifted" (Shaw, 2002, p. 72). This demonstrated his deviated direction towards evil and the devil. Undershaft neglects his moral responsibility leaving his house and wife to make his massive prosperity by selling mortars. "That's Andrew all over. He never does a proper thing without giving an improper reason for it" (Shaw, 2002, p. 53). Besides, "Undershaft jabs away at religion, government, and morality" (Suskin, 2003, p. 22).

He does not care whether his money comes from lawful conduct or not. Undershaft's business is "the tearing apart of men's bodies which is the effect of the munitions that Undershaft supplies to the world's battlefields" (Herren, 2012, p. 197). He confirms,

I am not one of those men who keep their morals and their business in watertight compartments. All the spare money my trade rivals spend on hospitals, cathedrals, and other receptacles for conscience money, I devote to experiments and researches in improved methods of destroying life and property. I have always done so; and I always shall. (Shaw, 2002, p. 16).

This proves that he does not care about anything except personal benefits. He adds,

your Christmas card moralities of peace on earth and goodwill among men are of no use to me. Your Christianity, which enjoins you to resist not evil, and to turn the other cheek, would make me a bankrupt. My morality - my religion - must have a place for cannons and torpedoes in it. (Shaw, 2002, p. 16).

Shaw draws on Barbara, as his mouthpiece, to present his faith. She makes it clear, illuminating how the relationship between God and his creatures should be. Barbara orates:

you know, and I know that God is with us always and everywhere. We do not need a cathedral to worship Him in. Here in this old shed no less than beneath God's open sky, we can draw nearer to Him. Some of you feel Him near you even now, and feel, too, how much you need Him. Won't you let Him come into your life now, today, as so many have done before? You want His strength, His guidance, His comfort: you need His forgiveness and friendship. Some of you turn away from Him in bitterness at the hardship of your lives, saying that you do not want God: you want happiness and beauty. God will give you both. There is no beauty like the beauty of the newly saved who has found the unspeakable happiness that only the consciousness of God's presence and love can give (Shaw, 1951, p. 39).

The previous passage significantly demonstrates Shaw's philosophy and perspective, which, to a reasonable extent, is identical with a principle in Islam. In Islam, Muslims believe that God is with us always and everywhere. All true believers feel Him near them every time and everywhere. They feel that people need His blessing and support. All humanity, consciously or unconsciously, wants His strength, His guidance, and His satisfaction as well as His forgiveness, compassion, and clemency. There is no real happiness or beauty for those who go astray from God.

Barbara superficially realizes her belief that the closing influence in the presentation may be an inspiration for the spectators in the face of the protagonist's eventual honesty. An understanding of Shaw's contradictory viewpoint on the way to the explanations of well and evil in consort with an understanding of his profound and hopeful belief in the control of life and its force, need to make critics, readers, and audiences cautious of whichever account climaxes in misery. Shaw is moving in the direction of a combination of the observations in his theoretical description of the life and its force that, to his belief, "nothing is more sacred than human life" (Dey, 1985, p. 154), which confirms his religiosity but not Christianity.

Behind the traditional marital theme, the critics, readers, and audiences' glance at the more profound implication. Andrew Undershaft has a "watchful, deliberate, waiting, listening face, and formidable reserves of power" (Shaw, 1951, p. 57). He steadily discloses his power as he counters all his wife's moves through his cunning meekness, presenting a disposition of rebellion contrary to her control by which some members are motivated. Charles Lomax runs to bring his musical part to cheer the uncomfortable assembly. Cusins orates on the significance of Greek scholarship, whereas Barbara is invigorated to elucidate the attraction of her task to help those starving.

Barbara pays attention to her father with increasing interest and pleasure, like her newly appeared father. He has swiftly presented his concern of her profession to which Barbara devoted her life. Salvation, as an ingenious subject, is thrown back and forth in a traditional performance. The pedestrian style enlarges and hastens into the first proposition of image and representation. Undershaft mockingly states: "I am rather interested in the Salvation Army. Its motto might be my own: Blood and Fire" (Shaw, 2002, p. 15) in which Undershaft understands the meaning negatively or according to his devilish spirit to mean that the army is fighting an armed camp and salvation refers to death.

Undershaft declares his mischievous spirit and intent stating that

The Government of your country! I am the Government of your country, I and Lazarus. Do you suppose that you and half a dozen amateurs like you, sitting in a row in that foolish gabble-shop, govern Undershaft and Lazarus? No, my friend, you will do what pays us. You will make war when it suits us and keep peace when it doesn't ... When I want anything to keep my dividends up, you will discover that my want is a national need. When other people want something to keep my dividends down, you will call out the police and military. And in return you shall have the support of my newspapers and the delight of imagining that you are a great statesman-Undershaft, the armament maker, in Shaw's Major Barbara (Neumann, 1938, p. 194; Shaw, 2002, p. 59).

Furthermore, McCormick (1965), shares ideas about the nature of Undershaft and his devilish craft presenting that Undershaft is only a representation of the waste immoral society which is better described by T. S. Eliot in his sophisticated poem The Waste Land

It has been denied that either Vickers, or Zaharoff, had much influence with British governments, or government departments and Mr. J. D. Scott writes that in 'dealing with the legend of basil Zaharoff ... Britain was quite outside his sphere of influence. It is over the foreign dealing that the legend of Undershaft-Zaharoff hangs thickest. It would be naïve to imagine that the standards of business ethics in the Balkans and in South America in the seventies and eighties were the standards of Whitehall, or the Bank of England. Bribery was not accidental, or occasional, but essential and systematic in every field of commerce. It would be equally naïve, however, to imagine that when Zaharoff paid bribes, the money paid appeared under a ledger of entry of 'Bribes' in the books in London. The

evidence, what there is of it, is quite of another kind, of inferences from notes of expenses, of guarded phrases in private letters' (McCormick, 1965, p. 116).

The Father, Undershaft, comments: "My religion? Well, my dear, I am a Millionaire. That is my religion" (Shaw, 2002, p. 30), which discloses his secular desire and belief is money. His heart is busy with wealth and riches but no place for mercy, compassion, or clemency for the poor or those in need. Opposite to Shaw's belief, Undershaft's religion is money, which denotes that his target is to obtain money by any means, legally or illegally, validly or criminally and this is against the rules and principles of Islam, which orders Muslims to behave according to the preaching and instruction of Islam. Trade and commerce should deal with lawful actions, words, or deeds. The Prophet Mohammad says: "Do not cause harm or return harm "لا ضرر ولا إضرار) (Ibn Hanbal, 2008, p. 693).

Consequently, such affirmations and statements set Undershaft evidently in disagreement and incongruity with his daughter and this associated him with her in an outlandish company. However, for a dissimilar motive, Andrew Undershaft permits all men his explanation of decency. Furthermore, Hadfield has commented that Undershaft is a Mephistophelean bearer of excruciating communal realities. Besides, "Undershaft's maxims and belligerent deductions do more than amuse the audience" (King, 2012, p. 165). This is because amusing is a sort of positivity, but his action is negative, deleterious, and undesirable.

According to Barbara, when the discussion transforms from money to humankind, she counters her father declaring, "There are no scoundrels" (Shaw, 2002, p. 17). Barbara's words are slang and prosaic, but the quality is forceful, and she runs into rhythm and regularity as she develops her elucidation of good and evil. Shaw, "though skeptical both of Hugo's emotional excess and of Christian theology and religious organizations in general, presents the Christian concepts of sin and salvation as inseparable from the concrete human world of politics and money" (Christian, 2015, p. 1). Here, Barbara stands against her father's immorality, depravity, and corruption: "There are neither good men nor scoundrels: there are just children of one Father; and the sooner they stop calling one another names the better. You needn't talk to me: I know them" (Shaw, 2002, p. 17).

Together, Barbara and her father realize the wager, and everyone hopes to attract the other to her/his side. In such a point, it is observed that the martial account of the combat locations indicates that Barbara innocently warns her rival father that his acceptance of the challenge may end in his relinquishing mortars for the benefit of the salvation of souls. However, on the contrary, he confirms that she might give up the Salvation Army for the benefit of mortars and weapons, believing in fighting and aggression. They end with shaking hands. It is a mistaken notion in the belief of the father, Undershaft, "that a munitions factory might be the gateway to social reform" (Hadfield & Reynolds, 2013, p. 52).

Concerning the particular aspect of the plot, an enormous percentage of the action of the play is consumed in the first Act. Centrally via this Act, it might be obvious that the fight for settlement money is gained since Andrew Undershaft starts his reintegration with the family by a tricking question: "Now what can I do for you all?" (Shaw, 2002, p. 14). Here, the question shows intricateness. The mother, Lady Britomart, who explains the past squabbles with Andrew Undershaft on the topic, suggests such action since the conventional arrangement. Hence, both the 'birth-mystery' and the Undershaft legacy subject require the attendance of a foundling.

Barbara challenges beast violence and fetches it into a condition of humiliation and trepidation to the degree of tears. At this degree of ostensible triumph, Undershaft enters to watch her system of alteration of Bill's brutality to Jenny Hill. Barbara paradoxically requests her father to combat for his redemption. The control is almost full as Undershaft is called "to brave manhood on earth and eternal glory in heaven" (Shaw, 2002, p. 32) when the crisis moment is devastated by the drum's Dionysiac hitting. The power of Barbara is smashed before herself and the audiences without realizing that fact or its reason. Cusins, the rhythmist, sticks down the incident.

For Undershaft, control and the inclination to abolish anything that threatens authority is the root of wealth, power,

and better life. All other merits are just superfluities fabricated upon this root. Andrew Undershaft has perceived the forte of Barbara's principles. He scrutinizes those of Cusins, who says, "The business of the Salvation Army is to save, not to wrangle about the name of the pathfinder Dionysus or another: what does it matter" (Shaw, 2002, p. 36).

In the second act, Andrew Undershaft has assumed gallant merits. However, he is undoubtedly connected with what might traditionally be explained as malevolent for the reason that he is a foundling who did not get estimation and respect from his family or the society as a legitimate born. When Major Barbara came back from the stimulating meeting, it demonstrates that she relies on money, and Andrew Undershaft creatively formulates the way for his disloyalty to her by praising her magnanimity. Barbara's recognition with Islam is defined at the level where Barbara rejects and refuses the money offered by her father, the war inflamer, and the killer.

At this instant of self-assured affirmation, the soldiers are approaching the garden of the Salvation Army, and Mrs. Baines brings delightful news for Major Barbara. Lord Saxmundham, the owner of Bodger's whiskey and the devastation of slums, is going to bid the Salvation Army a grant of five thousand pounds. Mrs. Baines admits that another similar sum will be offered by Andrew Undershaft who raises the pen to write the cheque, encircled by an appreciative troop. Barbara, simultaneously, moves the far side of the place and shockingly stands to observe as a reaction to her refusal of the process. She tries to struggle against the money that, in her belief, is murky and has come from a prohibited means and protests. She loudly declares her refusal of the granted polluted money, saying: "Stop." (Undershaft stops writing: they all turn to her in surprise.) Mrs. Baines: are you really going to take this money? (Shaw, 2002, p. 45)

The start of the second act serves as both a plot link and an interval of prosaic soundness following the forceful emotionalism of the previous happening. It decelerates the moving in tone. The action proposes little of the figurative nature and intensification of Undershaft's authorities as a leader of darkness. Before the end of the act, a discussion between the three main characters divulges the track towards the closing action of the play. When the family is arranging to go to see the factory of armaments, Barbara commented: "I have always thought of it as a sort of pit where lost creatures with blackened faces stirred up smoky fires and were driven and tormented by my father" (Shaw, 2002, p. 61).

Skillfully, indeed, the actors acted out their given parts in a play of comic antitheses that, ideologically, balanced around the armaments maker's Andrew Undershaft and the Salvation Army mademoiselle, his daughter Barbara Undershaft, a believer of God. The actors "touched off the polemic fire in Shaw's lines. Yet in the performance they retained many imaginative aspects of the unique, the individual, in their characterization of England's elite and cockney social types of the late Victorian era" (Miller, 2010, p. 343).

In a deep situation of despair, downfall and sadness, Barbara recollects the seed of revival and recovery confirming, "There must be some truth or other behind all this frightful irony" (Shaw, 2002, p. 62). It is this voracious energy of life, the cause of her spirituality, which leads others to love Barbara, making Cusins ascribe to her the exuberant soul of Dionysus. At the same time, the father, Andrew Undershaft, distinguishes her authority to renovate humanity. Lady Britomart spontaneously articulates an answer to the ethical predicament.

In this play, Barbara struggles not to lose her veracity for the sake of worldly authority and prosperity even to face one of her dear members of the family, her father. She also intentionally abandons her fiancée, Cusins, to face the interrogation alone. This is precisely because he abandoned her at a time of purification. Andrew Undershaft makes the duties unblemished. The proprietor of the foundry should have the honesty of nobility using the authority in his hands somewhat, knowing that its significance as a tool of welfare upon the mystical pyramid may be constructed. He says, "I had rather be a thief than a pauper. I had rather be a murderer than a slave" (Shaw, 2002, p. 74). "Poverty is almost disbelief" (Al-Qarni, 1999/2005, p. 215). Paucity and captivity might be eradicated by such influence, but it should be wisely used. For the most significant use of authority and for its ingenious use, the dreamer must become a monarch.

The good and evil methods of God and the devil are perceived to be aspects of divine authority, which can be interpreted by the contrast negotiation between the hand of well, Barbara, and the gape of evil symbolized by her father, Andrew Undershaft. The negotiation starts as an insightful divergence on the nature of morality but concludes in an integrated revelation. Cusins responds to Barbara about her spiritual influence, saying: "You cannot have power for good without having power for evil too" (Shaw, 2002, p. 79).

Major Barbara, on the one hand, declares an idea in this play that, "in one of those passages of singular eloquence in which Mr. Shaw betrays the poet of whom he is lurkingly ashamed: My father shall never throw it in my teeth again that my converts were bribed with bread" (Harvey, 1907, p. 287). On the other hand, "the scenes between Barbara and every other character unfold a constant thickening, doubling, and complicating of any simple sense of virtue, vice, right, wrong, salvation or damnation" (Herren, 2012, p. 197). The influence used for material happiness, as Barbara understands, will make humanity do away with physical loads to liberate their emotional state for greater struggle. The combat that Major Barbara has persisted against complacent pride, until the end, shows that she "does not mince her words" (Ollevier, 2012, p. 47).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part represents a sort of argument on the play and playwright as two integrated or inseparable sides. Several of Shaw's plays are acknowledged for their involved arguments, and *Major Barbara* is no exception. George Bernard Shaw himself called the play "a discussion in three long acts," but it is of great controversial influences, quarrels, and estimations. Much of the action in the play consists, actually, of words. The action or the conflict is seen mostly through the mouth instead of a blade or gun. As soon as the play was issued in 1907, Shaw added a lengthy preface with several of his plays, providing further argument about the play *Major Barbara*.

The drama Major Barbara copes with the contradictory and paradoxical state. The efforts of the Salvation Army are to dry and rub down social evil problems. Unfortunately, Major Barbara realizes that desiccating and wiping out social evils can only be done via the charity of those whose financial and monetary support is responsible for making such evils and harms. This social drama concentrates principally on the theme of money, and on the societal behavior of the individual in the society, along with the denunciation and condemnation of poverty. Therefore, this reveals the materialistic cynicism and pessimism of George Bernard Shaw who takes into consideration poverty as the foundation of all vices, immoralities, and evils.

Furthermore, the play is distinguished for its eccentric attitudes toward principles in addition to its irony, sarcasm, and satire as well as comicality. Irrespective of the serious disposition of the issues observed in this drama - trade, and religion, wealth and shortage, cynicism and idealism - it is uncomplicated to oversee the fact that the play is actually filled with humor and farce. George Bernard Shaw uses *Major Barbara* to entertain his spectators, making them laugh while considering questions that are as significant nowadays as when it was first produced.

CONCLUSION

The substance of *Major Barbara*, nevertheless, is obviously and earnestly concerned with a theoretical religious question staged in near tragic-comic terms, regarding the aspects of human morality. There is a probability of some stable figurative association between the incongruent elements of good and evil. Through *Major Barbara*, George Bernard Shaw shows an end not of depression but of prolific conciliation, the nature of which shall go on with showing the conflict between good and evil. Good and evil are presented through two members of the same family.

The character Major Barbara represents goodness with all its virtue and various positive meanings. Her father is an example of evil in one of the most prominent faces of life using money and its treatments as methods of gaining and, at the same time, showing the importance it expends. Shaw utilized Barbara to be his mouthpiece in fighting evil even to face the dearest parent, her father. It is a principle and belief. George Bernard Shaw is not a Muslim, but through his play, *Major Barbara*, it is found, to a great extent, that the play deals with some tangible Islamic examples or perspectives. One of the most crucial issues Shaw tries to work out is the conflict between good and evil, and the importance of justice and rights in the society through a crucial factor which touches all people e.g., the economy and money. He, through *Major Barbara*, alleviates a moral perspective that is identical to the Islamic one.

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The Transformation of Ice-Candy-Man: Account of Partition Trauma in *Cracking India*

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ABSTRACT

This article aims to unveil the capricious transformation of the key figure, Ice-Candy-Man (named Dilnawaz) and the riotous traumatic impact of the Partition of India on his personality in *Cracking India*. The most arousing, poignant, efficacious figure Ice-Candy-Man of Bapsi Sidhwa's magnum opus *Cracking India* traps the mind of the readers. Sidhwa, the original mark and a victim of the Partition in 1947, had sensed the brutal incidents which impaled her heart with pathos and enforced her to pen it down by presenting vivacious, colorful characters with autobiographical touches. The Ice-Candy-Man appears with a different disguise each time. Why did Sidhwa characterize him in such a specific and dynamic manner? His gestures, speech and even his transition stages and his every next footstep are the symbols and metaphors of the changing society during the traumatic events of Partition—they denote how an individual turns his course of life. His act of transformation is the core to unlocking Sidhwa's magical world. Without analyzing the

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*E-mail address*es: archanasatish7973@gmail.com (Archana Katariya) priyanka.chaudhary@jaipur.manipal.edu (Priyanka Chaudhary) *Corresponding author Ice-Candy-Man, all endeavors to interpret Sidhwa's messages are futile.

Keywords: Bapsi Sidhwa, *Cracking India*, Ice-Candy-Man, Indian society, partition, transformation, trauma

INTRODUCTION

India was under the rule of the British Crown from 1858 to 1947, eventually gaining independence on August 15, 1947 at the cost of getting divided into two

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separate nations-India and Pakistan. The partition of India saw massacres and much bloodshed because the people were not mentally prepared to leave their homeland and families. What led to the partition was not so much the country's independence as it was the Colonizers' divide and rule policy. There are various fundamental assumptions on the division of the subcontinent by many authors. Historians' opinions differ on why the partition actually took place, but it is a general view that the 'divide and rule' policy of the British was predominantly responsible. Cracking India is one of its kind which represents Parsi-Pakistani perspective of Partition by a diasporic Pakistani-American female author.

The Fundamental Notions behind the Partition of India

India got independence at the cost of its partition. According to theorists, after the Britishers' declaration of freedom for India, Muslims were not in favor of this autonomy—they wanted a separate nation for themselves because they felt that they would be in danger in independent India. Muslims and Hindus, they emphasized, had diverse cultures, traditions, languages and lifestyles. Majid and Hamid (2014) talked about the Muslim League,

...which alone had the right to represent the Muslims of India. They have always taken it for granted mistakenly that Muslims are a minority. He said Muslims are a nation by any definition of a nation. Hindus and Muslims belong to two religions, philosophies, social customs and literature. They neither inter-marry nor inter-dine and belong to different civilizations based on conflicting ideas and conceptions; their concepts of life are different. As such, they must have their homeland, their territory and their state. (Majid & Hamid, 2014, p. 180).

Shamsul Islam (2018), author of Muslims Against Partition of India, stated that in 1933, Choudhry Rahmat Ali, a Punjabi Muslim student at the University of Cambridge, first propounded the two-nation theory which later acquired a more concrete shape. This theory was later propagated by Muhammad Ali Jinnah, who went on to become the first Prime Minister of Pakistan. A more recent study (Sreenivas, 2017) had shown that Jinnah, wary of the political upheavals in the Hindu-majority India, required a separate homeland for the Muslim community while Nehru and Gandhi wanted a united India. The British wanted to separate themselves from this situation, which was why the date of Independence promised by Clement Attlee was declared one year prior. Proceeding with these ideas, Sreenivas (2017) had said,

With the clock ticking, in a radio address broadcast on June 3rd across British India, Nehru, Jinnah, Baldev Singh (as the representative of the Sikh community), and British Viceroy Lord Louis Mountbatten announced the plans for independence. These plans accepted that a partition must occur and that it would divide the provinces of Bengal in the east and Punjab in the northwest. The British civil servant assigned the monumental task of mapping this divide, Sir Cyril Radcliffe, was given just six short weeks to determine India and Pakistan's new borders. (Sreenivas, 2017, p. 13).

A study by Ahsan, the author of *The Indus* Saga and the Making of Pakistan,

the Indian subcontinent is made up of two civilizations, Indus and Indic (or Gangetic), and 'Indus has been one large, independent, politico-economic zone for the past countless centuries (...) [It has had] a rich and glorious cultural heritage of its own (...) [and is] a distinct and separate nation. (Ahsan, 1996, as cited in Roy, 2010, p. 14).

Some historians believe that imperialism tears the country into two parts. According to the study by Roy (2010), some of India's most notable historians like A. K. Banerjee, Sumit Sarkar, and Bipin Chandra believe that "this was a political strategy that the British had hit upon from the time of the Partition of Bengal in 1905 and had pursued with a single-minded zeal ever since" (Roy, 2010, p. 14). Both theories are more important and supported by many historians. Jalal stated:

The Partition was forced upon Jinnah by the Congress High Command in the penultimate phase of the British rule in India. According to her, the actual reason behind the Partition was not the scheme of the British but the constitutional tussle for greater representational power in the government that had gone on for close to four decades, between the Congress and the Muslim League. (Jalal, 1985, as cited in Roy, 2010, p. 14).

Hence, as we have seen, there are many prevalent theories propounded by different thinkers about the partition of India.

The terrors of partition left even the coming generations with wounds that can never be healed. Both soldiers and civilians experienced deeply traumatic events during the partition. Banyard said,

Ward and Carroll (1997), Safer, Christianson, Autry, and Osterlund (1998) and Mechanic, Resick, and Griffin (1998) presented discussions of ways in which trauma might lead to differences in the cognitive processing of events. Spiegel (1997) discussed links between dissociation and memories for traumatic events and Van Der Kolk and Fisler (1995) presented preliminary findings that suggested that traumatic memories might be stored in sensory-motor rather than narrative form, thus making them less accessible using conventional memory retrieval strategies. (Banyard, 2000, pp. 1-6).

Hunt (2010) said,

Many current theories of PTSD suggest that trauma is the result of

enduring maladaptive responses which have impacted on the individual's autobiography or life story (e.g. Brewin & Holmes, 2003; Brewin et al., 1996; Foa and Rothbaum, 1998; Nemeroff et al., 2006). Autobiographical memory is organised primarily around narrative structures, so if traumatic events impact on autobiographical memory, they inevitably impact on narrative and narrative development. (Hunt, 2010, p. 119).

When the partition of India was about to settle, the people filled with distress and trauma, as also narrated in Jadein ('Roots') by Ismat Chughtai and Toba Tek Singh by Saadat Hasan Manto. According to Urvasi Butalia, sectional violence settled with these movements on a large scale. Many migrants died of deficiencies, "malnutrition, contagious diseases" (Butalia, 1998, p. 3). For example, the figure varies from 200,000 (contemporary British figure) to two million (a later Indian estimate) (Butalia, 1998, p. 3). Butalia said about 75,000 women (Butalia, 1998, p. 3) were captured and raped by men known to them-men of the same religion, their neighbors. They were crossing the borders sometimes by car, bus, cart and train, and mostly on foot in large groups called kafilas.

The trauma of these haunting memories is so profound that many authors like Saadat Hasan Manto, Ismat Chughtai, Salman Rushdie, and Khushwant Singh have talked about it in their writings. Misra (2018, pp. 20-22) said that migration was not very easy-migrants struggle with their identity and face starvation, poverty and degradation in their new city or state. According to Shah (2018),

The partition of India hangs on the map of history like a chapter past the course of time- a diary of events with a partial vision of facts, uncertain data and the unavailable or half-narrated stories of individual experiences by seniors who were actual spectators to the painful trauma. (Shah, 2018, p. 150).

METHODOLOGY

The change in the persona, behaviour and attitude of Ice-Candy-Man was analysed through the critical interpretation of the novel by observing the impact on his psyche through postcolonial perspective. Documents published by the Governments of India and Pakistan had been used as a primary and secondary source like 'Two-Nation Theory'.

Representation of the Partition in *'Cracking India'*

Having witnessed the partition of India herself as a young girl, Bapsi Sidhwa was deeply affected by its events and portrays these images on the canvas of her masterpiece, *Cracking India*. She described the changing society from a Pakistani perspective. Sidhwa belonged to one of the smallest religious communities in the world-Parsis or Zoroastrianists. Said novel was first published by the title *Ice-Candy-Man* (1988) in Pakistan; later, for publishing in America, the editor of the Milkweed Journal suggested that she changed the title to *Cracking India*.

Cracking India is a postcolonial novel on the partition of India. The partition cataclysm provoked the soul of indigenous. The lofty ideals of nationalism, solidarity and patriotism are pummelled in the light of communal turmoil which resulted in desolation. Socio-political harmony was seeming to be altering kaleidoscopically that time. Only religion has become the subjectivity and identity of the natives. Opportunisms, religious chauvinism and unjust oppression were observer by powerholders. It was not just partition but struggle for power and rule. Communal hysteria, holocaust, rehabilitation, uprootedness show vulnerability of structure of society in the name of nationhood. This disharmony and intolerance and hunger of power were transferred from the Britishers to the naive natives. This is 'doubleness'of belongingness and not-belonging and the natives started questioning as insider, outsider to their own people like East-West dichotomy. Hindu/Muslim binarism is seen as orient/occident dichotomy. National history and identity are shown through subverting collective trauma.

Sidhwa employed the character of Lenny, a polio-ridden Parsi girl, as an unbiased narrator for the purpose of innocent storytelling. Lenny was the shadow of Sidhwa, who witnessed India before its cracking. Zoroastrians were known for gelling well into new communities and remained unbiased. Thus, through Lenny, the author recounts the events objectively and without manipulating them. Lenny was an intelligent, precocious eight-yearold with a photographic memory. Gautam (2015, p. 519) said,

Lenny narrates the story of her changing world with sophistication and wonder and her child narrator status endows her account with reliability. Lenny does not report the happenings; She also interrogates various things, people, motives and emotions to comprehend their fullest meanings. The narrator of the child facilitates the author to look at things from an unbiased angle and place the narrative to multiple interpretations. (Gautam, 2015, p. 519).

As Sigmund Freud noted, creative writing, like daydreaming, is the window into the repressed feelings, thoughts and desires accumulated in the author's unconscious mind. Parapraxis and Freudian slips are also signs of the opening of the unconscious. Cracking India addresses history, memory, trauma, the predicament of women, and social crisis in the form of identity. Filmmaker Deepa Mehta's direction Earth 1947 was based on Cracking India. Visser (2011, p. 272) explained, "Trauma thus denotes the recurrence or repetition of the stressor event through memory, dreams, narrative and/or various symptoms known under the definition of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)." Even today, many people's minds have not recovered from the traumatic memories of the partition. IceCandy-Man, Ayah and even little Lenny are all deeply affected by its events.

The Ice-Candy-Man (Dilnawaz) and his transformation is the key to unlocking Sidhwa's magical world that is *Cracking India*. Banerjee (2015, p. 142) said, "Bapsi Sidhwa's Ice-Candy-Man represents the story of Independence leading to Partition with the feminist point of view." Sidhwa's goal was to authentically portray the conditions of that period, and the character of Ice-Candy-Man was the perfect way to do it. Corresponding to this, Phogat and Attri (2013) said,

The portrayal of women by Sidhwa can be seen as a reaction against the negative portrayals of the local culture by the colonizers. Exploring the themes of struggles for independence, cultural conflict, displacement and feminism in their local settings was not accidental but a deliberate phenomenon. (Attri, 2013, p. 145).

At several instances, Ice-Candy-Man disguises himself and appears in front of the readers in different forms. From the beginning to the closing stages of the novel, he depicts various aspects of the fluctuating societal circumstances.

Postcolonial literature depicts the political and cultural subjugation of people in general and women in particular. Women have been oppressed by men in developing and colonized countries. As said by Virginia Woolf, women are viewed as sex objects and the second sex. Women's marginalization intensifies when they are commoditized through prostitution and pornography, as we also see in the case of Shanta. Concerning the role of feminism, Pandey (2003) said,

Feminism in literature refers to a mode that approaches a text with foremost concern for the nature of female experience in it. The fictional experience of characters, the rational, intuitional or imaginative capacity of an author, the experience implicit in language of structure that interrogates the cultural prescriptions, that subordinate and trivialize women and treat them as inferiors are the primary concerns of female fiction writers from a feminist perspective. (Pandey, 2003, p. 1).

From the beginning of the novel, Lenny narrates how Ayah is leered at by her admirers in a sexual manner.

Up and down they look at her. Holy men, masked in piety, shove aside their pretences to ogle her with lust...Ayah is chocolate brown and short. Everything about her is eighteen years old and round and plump... Full-brown cheeks, pouting mouth and smooth forehead curve to form a circle with her head... And, as if her looks were not stunning enough, she has a rolling, bouncing walk that agitates the globules of her buttocks under her cheap, colorful saris and the half spheres beneath her sariblouses. (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 13). Ice-Candy-Man, too, is attracted to Ayah and wants to marry her, but when the riots of the partition begin, every friend turns a foe and everyone starts being viewed as only a Hindu or a Muslim.

When Ice-Candy-Man finds the maimed bodies of his sisters on the train arriving from the other side of the border, he is deeply traumatised. Consequently, he abruptly takes on a completely different personality and exacts revenge on his love interest Shanta (Ayah) and starts seeing every friend of his as belonging to the other community. Ice-Candy-Man was a goodnatured person, but his twisted behaviour is an example of reaction formation in defense mechanisms. McLeod (2019) stated, "Defense mechanisms are psychological strategies that are unconsciously used to protect a person from anxiety arising from unacceptable thoughts or feelings." Ice-Candy-Man (Dilnawaz) first relates to Ayah's group-Sher Singh, Masseur, Hari, Butcher, Imam Din, Lenny and Ayah herself. 'Dilnawaz' means an attractive, loving and soothing heart. His name matches his personality perfectly and embellishes his character. Describing the character of Ice-Candy-Man, Bhaskar (2015, pp. 55-56) said, "Ice-Candy-Man possessed chameleonlike qualities. He poses himself as a Sufi, telephoning Allah and earning money with the help of such antics."

In the opening lines of the novel, the society is peaceful; all the diverse communities dwell in harmony and do not want the country to be divided. Pandey stated: Partition's legacy is 'an extraordinary love-hate relationship' bifurcated between 'deep resentment and animosity, and the most militant of nationalism' and 'a considerable sense of nostalgia, frequently articulated in the view that this was a partition of siblings that should never have occurred'. (Pandey, 2001, as cited in Chambers, 2014 p. 2).

Ice-Candy-Man sells frosty, sweet popsicles to children and these popsicles are identical to his temperament. His cool nature symbolizes the harmony and affection that the inhabitants have in their hearts for other communities, as also their willingness to shield their friends from the impending problems. Jagjeet Singh, "If need be, we'll protect our Muslim brothers with our lives" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 65). Chaudhary declared, "I am prepared to take an oath on the Holy Koran... that every man in this village will guard his Sikh brothers with no regard for his own life!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 65). The rapidly changing situation of the nation and the idea of partition now takes a back seat. The British liberate India, but it is about to be divided. This evokes profound worry in the citizens, who are apprehensive about their future. The Ice-Candy-Man now presents a new form, disguising himself as a birdseller. He sits behind the Lahore Gymkhana to attract the English memsahibs with his antics. He coaxes them by threatening the birds: "I break your neck, you naughty birds! You do too much chi chi! What will the good memsahibs think? They'll think I no teach you. You like jungly lions in zoo.

I cut your throat!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 35). When the English women talk to him about his mistreatment of these innocent birds, he says, "Them fresh parrots, *memsahib*. They do not learn dirty words yet. I catch them today... They only one rupee for two birds" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 35).

The English memsahibs buy all the birds and free them. The birds in the cages symbolize the subjugated colonized Indians, wanting to be free of British rule. Ice-Candy-Man's dialogues metaphorically unveil the psyche of the Indian people. The guileful Ice-Candy-Man wants the memsahibs to free the birds and for them to realise the importance of freedom, and he probably succeeds. Unfortunately, the British leave India divided. There is a sort of parallel between the Occident (the British) and Dilnawaz, in the sense that the British divide and create a fence through the Orient in the form of the Radcliffe line just as Dilnawaz captures the birds to earn money.

Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims develop negative feelings towards each other. The communities, once united, now start detesting each other. Ayah's group used to visit the Queen's Garden and share their opinions but they develop ill thoughts for other communities and religions. Thus, the Orient-Occident dichotomy can be seen in Indians as well.

The next mask of the Ice-Candy-Man as a prophetic character serves to depict the absurd breakdown of the society and highlights its hypocrisy. He now appears with a trident-shaped iron rod with bells, wearing a long, sleeveless green garment that reaches his hairy calves. He has several different beads hanging around his neck. He shouts "Ya Allah!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 106) and addresses God as 'tu' instead of a respectful word. He covers his upper arms with beads and claims that he can speak to Allah directly through a phone. Some people approach him, saying, "Sufi Sahib, we have four daughters and my wife has a desire of a son." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 106). He dials the number 786 and pretends to be speaking to God. He instantly produces a spark by connecting the electric wire that covers his neck before responding to them. His ash-smeared face petrifies the children. In this way, he tries to deceive the crowd. The Ice-Candy-Man says, "Wah, Allah... There is no limit to your munificence! To you, king and beggar are the same! Ah! The intoxication of your love! The depth of your compassion! The ocean of your generosity! Ah! The miracle of your cosmos!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 108).

We observe that like Ice-Candy-Man, the society too is full of people deceiving other naive citizens. The sparks from the copper wire symbolize the intensity of the frenetic fire blazing in their hearts. The thumping of the trident-shaped iron rod is a dire prognostication of the impending difficulties that the Indian society must be prepared to face. His ornaments, clothes and facial expressions represent the society's hypocrisy; his ash-smeared face hints at the dreadful events that will transpire in the coming future. His exceptional manner of conversation is full of menace and his overall disguise acts as a warning and paints a picture of the society during this time. He said, "Haven't you heard her pray?... He's been busy of late... You know; all this Indian independence business." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 108).

Ice-Candy-Man points out the grim conditions of the nation as he says that no other problem is as significant to God as the partition and He is also very solemn and sad. The hostile partition of the nation is extremely dreadful and all the communities—Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs-suffer brutalities which force them to migrate. Pandey stated,

The violence of 1947 'created new subjects and subject positions.' After Partition families and communities remade themselves in new settings, rebuilt new histories, new identities and new memories. But they have not been able to cast aside the memory of violence and the memory of their prior homeland. (Pandey, as cited in Khan, 2018, pp. 15-16).

The ghost train arrives, and all the Ice-Candy-Man finds are dead bodies. There are two sacks filled with the chopped breasts of women, on seeing which he turns rigid, cold-blooded and vengeful. He takes interest in arson and brutality. The maimed bodies of Muslim women replaced those of Hindu and Sikh women. This dreadful event totally changed his lifestyle. Talking about the atrocities inflicted on women, Hussain (2017, p. 11) said, "The women were not only killed but first tortured, raped and then butchered like animals. Through this event,

Sidhwa questions the hypocrisy of people who glorify the image of the Indian women and worship them as goddesses."

Ice-Candy-Man starts wearing a Jinnah cap, made from the fur of the Karakul breed of sheep and named after Muhammad Ali Jinnah who represents a staunch belief in the Muslim community. Talking about the discussion of Jinnah in Sidhwa's novel, Thakur (2013) emerged that she invoked the image of Jinnah to provide an objective view of Jinnah.

The intensity of his desire for revenge is abundantly clear from his facial expressions. When Ayah (his beloved) and Lenny scream with fear of arson of Hindu colonies, Ice-Candy-Man says, "What small hearts you have... You must make your hearts stout! ... The fucking basterds! They thought they'd drive us out of Bhatti! We've shown them!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 147).

In fact, he wishes to show them the violence of the city. His heart was on fire with hatred; he wants to hurt everyone and even unites with the looting rioters who rape Sher Singh's sister. This is in sharp contrast to when, in the pre-partition period, he says to his friend Sher Singh, "I'm first a friend to my friends... And then a Mussalman!" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 131). A sweet, romantic and amiable man becomes a jealous, devilish so-called 'Allah man' walking the path of staunch Muslims, believing he is serving his God. He thinks he is doing right by his religion because the Taliban is misrepresenting the Koran

and call themselves *Jihadis* in Afghanistan. He wants to scare Ayah by showing her the exploding bombs: "I only want her to see the fires. You will see a tamasha." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 146).

Ayah and Lenny were terrified of Ice-Candy-Man's transformed habits and perilous intentions. Ice-Candy-Man knows of the intimate relationship between Ayah and Masseur. When Ayah rejects Ice-Candy-Man's proposal, his heart is filled with abhorrence for the both of them and he murders Masseur to exact revenge. Masseur's corpse acts as a perfect reflection of Ice-Candy-Man's hatred because the two men were once friends.

Every time Ayah and Masseur meet, Lenny senses Ice-Candy-Man's presence around them. She said,

Where Masseur is, Ayah is. And where Ayah is, is Ice-Candy-Man. I sense his presence. While Masseur's voice lures Ayah to the dizzy eminence of one minaret, it compels Ice-Candy-Man to climb the winding stairs to the other minaret. On the riverbank, I sense his stealthy presence in the tall clumps of pampas grass. He lurks in the dense shade of mangoes in the Shalimar Garden and in the fearsome smells skirting the slaughterhouse... He prowls on the other side of artificial hills behind the zoo lion's cage and conceals himself behind the peacocks when they spread their tail feathers and open their turquoise eyes: he has as many eyes, and they follow us (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 130).

In his study, Purohit observed, "It also attempts to analyze the reasons behind the difference in the perspectives of the male and the female novelists in projecting women as the prime targets and victims of this history of death, destruction, defilement and destitution." (Purohit, 2012, p. 435).

Ayah wishes to go to Amritsar on seeing the deteriorating circumstances around her, but Masseur consoles her, saying:

"You don't need to go anywhere. Why do you worry? I'm here. No one will touch a hair on your head. I don't know why you don't marry me!" To this, Ayah replies, "I'm already yours. I will always be yours." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 168).

After murdering Masseur, Ice-Candy-Man believes he is free to treat Ayah the way he fancies. This incident is Sidhwa's way of showing the victimization, objectification and marginalization of women.

Due to the havoc caused by the partition, there are very few groups left in the park, and the friendship between different communities is as good as dead. Ice-Candy-Man's behaviour, thus, serves to represent the upheavals in society. Tripathi (2015, p. 142) states, "While Sidhwa in *Cracking India* portrays multiple and playful forms of the desire of the body and the violence on men and women's bodies during the Partition, Mehta's *Earth* features violence against the bodies within the matrix of nationalist violence."

In the concluding chapters, Ice-Candy-Man takes on the most dangerous face of the pimp. He trades abducted women at Hira Mandi (*kotha*) for the aristocrats that visit the brothel and whom the prostitutes entertain with their music and dance. Ice-Candy-Man assists the Muslim community in abducting his love interest Ayah and taking her away to Hira Mandi where she is raped by multiple men. Talking about Hira Mandi, Chambers said,

The area was originally built as a sanctuary for the illegitimate sons of Moghul emperors and their tawaifs, also known as nautch-girls or courtesans, who during the Raj era at least were mostly Muslim women from North India. The exploitation of women, many of them from the countryside, went hand in hand with an attempt to dress this up in glamorous ways. (Chambers, 2014, p. 9).

Readers are made to wonder why Ice-Candy-Man waits three months to marry Ayah instead of marrying her right away. He weds Ayah after satisfying himself with vengeance. Ice-Candy-Man comes forward as a terrible lover and a fraud. He wants to appear as though he is doing Ayah a favor by marrying her. People close to Ayah take advantage of her adversities and betray her. At last, Ayah is rescued and sent to the Recovered Women's Camp on Warris Road, but again, Ice-Candy-Man always hovers around the camp. The Sikh guard of the camp threatens and beats them up but he returns, this time in a new disguise-the poet. He recites Zauq: "Why did you make a home in my heart? Inhabit it. Both the house

and I are desolate. Am I a thief that your watchman stops me? Tell him, I know this man. He is my face." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 287).

Ayah wishes to escape the tragic memories of Hira Mandi and of her lover Masseur's brutal murder. Ice-Candy-Man starts selling popsicles again and once, he scatters flower petals in admiration of Ayah. He recites Galib: "My passion has brought me to your street—Where can I now find the strength to take me back?" (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 288). Kleist (2011) said, "I acknowledge that the female characters in *Cracking India* experience oppression, I assert that they do not operate solely as victims; rather, Sidhwa's women possess distinct forms of power."

Again, he recites Zauq: "Don't betray me, beloved, I'm God-intoxicated! I will wrap myself around you; I'm mystically mad." (Sidhwa, 2006, p. 288). We now see that Ice-Candy-Man is filled with remorse and knows that he will never be able to attain Ayah's attention like before. The fact that he has started selling popsicles again shows that he is trying to distribute sweetness and peace. Ayah is unable to forget her bitter memories of Masseur and Hira Mandi. According to Kumar,

After Partition the line of Control is visible but the pain remains hidden in memory; it is read in the eyes of the victims. We see a different side of Ice-Candy-Man's character, postcolonial social hitches and the trauma faced by women and created by the anarchy that ensued as a result of the partition. (Kumar, 2018, p. 285). Praising Sidhwa's characters, Hajiyeva said,

Bapsi Sidhwa's characters in this regard, usually come from a different cultural background, she also tries to explore women's position in multicultural societies where they face double pressure, who are regarded not as part of events but as symbols on which violence is acted and her position as a multicultural writer enables her to explore these issues from a neutral and more objective point of view. (Hajiyeva, 2016, p. 141).

According to Chambers (2014, p. 11), "Personifying the city as a fading but still attractive, somewhat tawdry figure, she evokes Lahore's loss of its multicultural identity after partition, which is also reflected in *Cracking India*."

When a country undergoes a partition, not only one but both the sides are on the receiving end of the pain of separation, dislocation and the quest for identity. We fight for our borders even today, but we do not know how long this chain will continue. We need to draw inspiration and learn from important writings. *Cracking India* proves that war never has a happy ending for a nation; it is merely the beginning of countless difficulties.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study is based on the transformation of the protagonist, Ice-Candy-Man, which symbolizes the societal circumstances of the partition period in Sidhwa's masterpiece *Cracking India*. The findings of this study are noteworthy as it highlights that war and partition are detrimental to societal peace and harmony. Sidhwa focuses on the brutal and vicious actions of the characters, predominantly the character of Ice-Candy-Man. His character shows his deep trauma through the various transformations his personality goes through over the course of the novel. His trauma was caused by the mounting social crisis and constantly changing society during the partition of India.

Events like this can lead people to undergo temperament-related transformations. Ice-Candy-Man changes from a friendly, jolly fellow to a wicked, immoral one, and we see his virtuousness change into crookedness. Human nature is such that one never wants to leave one's relatives and the land of one's forefathers. The above study unzipped the portrayal of atrocities on the women of the partition periods. The interpretation of 'Kotha' or 'Hira Mandi' focuses on the weird mentality of the people who understand a woman a source of their entertainment. Women suffered many hitches during the partition because she is known as the creator of the new generation in this world. According to the critical-thinking of the chaotic element, if they eliminate women, a new generation will destroy itself, that was done on both sides. Bapsi Sidhwa went through this agony and suffering in childhood, forcing him to study the novel. According to Din (2010), "Ice Candy Man truly reflects how the child narrator (Lenny) perceives the world around her and is haunted by the psychological

outbursts of the brutality of the events". (p. 208).

According to Sarkar "In *Mourning the Nation* (2009), Bhaskar Sarkar speaks of a "proleptic melancholia" of the nation. The postcolonial nation is born in loss, he argues. It represents "the death of a collective dream at the moment of birth." (Sarkar, 2009, as cited in Mitra, 2015, p. 134). Throughout this study, we have worked with psychoanalytical and postcolonial perspectives.

CONCLUSION

This study analyzes the character of Ice-Candy-Man. Each entry of Ice-Candy-Man with a new personality was full of suspense and takes the premise forward, showing the different aspects of the everchanging society. Through the character of Ice-Candy-Man, Sidhwa portrays the agony Indians faced during the partition. He is also a portrayal of untrustworthy statesmen who are self-centric and do not care for the nation's betterment. Kumar (2014, p. 148) said, "Ice Candy Man gives us a glimpse into the events of turmoil on the Indian subcontinent during Partition." His brutal personality is the outcome of the tumultuous times India has seen. Hence, through Ice-Candy-Man, Sidhwa shows the changing patterns of communal discord. The author shows how Ice-Candy-Man's trauma impacts him and how it is reflected in his actions. He uses crude language, and rebels against social norms. Ice-Candy-Man is opportunistic, accumulating power and fame through his repeated incarcerations.

He is indisputably a symbolic representation of the disturbing circumstances of society.

Thus, I should say that Sidhwa's roguish and fascinating character Ice-Candy-Man is an everlasting companion of the readers and illuminates this novel.

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Examining Duffy's Textual Space in "Water" and "Cold" through the Unnatural Ecopoetics Concept

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ABSTRACT

Unnatural ecopoetics presents new directions for poetry scholars. It is a theoretical lens that studies how texts use self-reflexive language and formal experimentation to create a textual space where material and nonmaterial environmental elements are uncovered. The term material stands for all physical objects and places, whether man-made or occurring naturally in the world. Nonmaterial, on the other hand, refers to the invisible emotional, historical, political, and personal elements that influence the speaker's experience of space and the translation of it to the textual space of a poem. Post-modernist poet Carol Ann Duffy has played a pivotal role in contemporary English poetry. While many studies have dealt with her poetry, few have examined Duffy's poetry in light of the unnatural ecopoetics concept. In this paper, the reader is invited to read within the textual space of Duffy's "Water" and "Cold" (2011) through the lens of unnatural ecopoetics. This article argues that Duffy's experience and memories of her mother's last days configured nonmaterial elements fused with material elements of her environment. The findings of this study provide a new way of analysing contemporary poetry through ecopoetics reading by delving into literary texts and examining all the environmental elements and situations around a persona in a poem or the poet.

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INTRODUCTION

Due to her dexterity and prolific production of poetry, Carol Ann Duffy has been known as one of the most pivotal British poets of the late twentieth century until our present day. As a Scottish, feminist, bisexual poet,

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most of the prevalent themes of her poetry have been female identity, gender and sexual desire. However, since having a baby girl, Duffy has dedicated much of her poetics to themes of love and poems for children and about childhood. Many critics and authors have reached a consensus on her talent as a poet, underscoring her originality. Jane Dowson (2016) conducted an expanded study in her book Carol Ann Duffy: Poet for Our Times to elucidate almost all the aspects of Duffy's personal life and career. During the last thirty years, Duffy has published many collections and received many awards, such as the Scottish Arts Council book award for Standing Female Nude (1985), the Somerset Maugham Award for Selling Manhattan (1987), and the Forward and Whitbread for Mean Time (1993), while the most prestigious of the prizes was the T. S. Eliot Prize for her collection Rapture (2005) (Dowson, 2016).

After many years of ruling her out for the laureateship, in May 2009, Carol Ann Duffy was named as Britain's Poet Laureate. With that, the first Scottish, female, bisexual poet then held the position. At first glance, a reader who contemplates Duffy's poetry may notice that an essential change in her poetry and discourse seems to predominate her latest collections. Nature is often considered "either as a substance, as a squishy thing in itself, or as essence, as an abstract principle that transcends the material realm and even the realm of representation" (Morton, 2007, p. 16). In this digital and materialistic age, Duffy's poetry has crystalized into poems composed from the poet's consolidation of material elements of nature with nonmaterial elements. This fact has been foregrounded in one of her latest works, The Bees (2011), which includes the poems "Water," and "Cold," which are under consideration in the current study. Traditionally, the most familiar and foremost studies about Carol Ann Duffy's poetics (e.g., Tosun, 2012; Twiddy, 2011) traced the themes of female identity, sexuality and desire in selected poems, while other scholars (e.g., Seiler-Garman, 2017; Taylor, 2017) analysed her poems, often comparing them with other poets' poems, with much concern on the themes of masculinity and sexuality, especially in her The World's Wife (1999), and themes like love, gender and identity in Duffy's collections Standing Female Nude (1985), Feminine Gospels (2002) and Rapture (2005), which were also under consideration by researchers (e.g., Michelis & Rowland, 2003). The gap identified in these previous studies is that hardly any study examined Duffy's selected poems through the lens of unnatural ecopoetics. Most of the studies which have related to The Bees (2011) explained Duffy's political discourse in this collection. However, until today, few studies have been conducted to examine this collection from an ecopoetics perspective. Moreover, most studies focus on specific poems, such as Scheffe's (2016), which examined Duffy's ekphrastic poem "The Falling Soldier" from her collection The Bees (2011) in which the poet explored Robert Capa's famous photograph.

Duffy's The Bees (2011) juxtaposes the idea of materiality through mixing materialism with ecocriticism. The blend

of these movements is optimized in Sarah Nolan's (2017) concept of unnatural ecopoetics, which is considered a new trend in ecopoetics. Nolan argued that her unnatural ecopoetics emerged from Donna Haraway's material concept of "nature cultures." Building on the growing movement of ecocriticism theory toward materiality, Nolan has developed her concept to break down all the limits between human and natural spaces (Nolan, 2017). In this regard, the selected poems from Duffy's (2011) The Bees seem to share similarities concerning the notion of space. Furthermore, it is assumed that space is a flexible term and can refer to a sophisticated set of ideas (Tuan, 2001). In this sense, Duffy's "Water" and "Cold" will be studied to examine the textual space and the material and nonmaterial environmental elements which are intertwined in the poems. In fact, the literary text is a space foregrounded from the poem's context and seems to be the poet's realm stretching from the real environment surrounding the poet either mentally or physically and homogenized with her/his inclination, which gives the poet inspiration to portray it in a poem.

METHODS

The methodological approach taken in this study is a mixed methodology based on thematically selecting from Duffy's poems those which share the theme of mother's death and depending on the poet's experience, memory and observations as well as examining the textual space of the poems. Moreover "Duffy's experience, memory and feelings created her nonmaterial environment which affected her poetic imagination in interacting with nature" (Mhana et al., 2019, p. 101) and influenced the poet's work of configuring a non-material environment in her poems. By analysing Duffy's selected poems, the study argues that the aforesaid environmental elements have merged with the material environment in the textual space of these poems. What is new in this paper is that it presents the textual space of Duffy's work as an amalgamation of her experience, memories, and observations along with the real environment surrounding her. Furthermore, the study analyses the textual space of Duffy's selected poems, which "can be understood in terms of the content of the text; its semantic and syntactic meaning. It stands for the open dimension of the literary work of art which can be experienced and re-experienced over time" (Bushell, 2010, p. 8). In fact, the text is a space that is represented in a poem's context and seems to be the poet's realm, which stretches out from the real environment that surrounds him/her. It is homogenized either mentally or physically with his/her inclination, which gives the poet the inspiration to portray it in a poem. The above assumption along with the explanation of textual space are parallel with the unnatural ecopoetics concept which realises a space out of the connection between nature in its nonmaterial (which refers to the poet's experience, memories, observations, feelings) and material aspects, through a textual space (Nolan, 2017). Instead of focusing on the natural environment, unnatural ecopoetics, as a concept of ecocriticism theory, has concentrated on the poet's mental and physical environment, which can be effective in analysing an ecopoetics poem. Textual evaluation is conducted on the selected poems that have the same theme and share the same aspect of being configured out of the poet's experience mingled with material and nonmaterial environmental elements.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The ecocriticism movement, started in 1980, defined in the introduction of Glotfelty and Fromm's The Ecocriticism Reader: Landmark in Literary Ecology (1996) as "the study of the relationship between literature and the physical environment" (Glotfelty & Fromm, 1996, p. xviii), has more recently experimented with a new trend, which is ecopoetics. Since the inception of ecopoetics in the early 2000s, many philosophers, theorists, and scholars have attempted to provide a concise clarification or definition of ecopoetics theory. It is rhetorically exceptional by making use of poetic devices as a means of conveying the function of nature through poetry. In the historical context of literary genres, it approximately dates back to Romanticism, when poets detached themselves from rationalism and expressed interest in emotions and how emotions exemplify the influence of ecology upon the human psyche. In the contemporary context, ecopoetry prospered at the end of the twentieth century as a literary subgenre highlighting ecology as the sole tenet of its pertinent themes (Dewi, 2018).

Ecopoetry is characterized by its mode of personal sensitivity and sense of responsibility. In this regard, poets universalize their subjective experience. Therefore, ecopoetry undergoes two inextricable phases. First, when poets deal with an ecological problem, they profoundly feel it and perceive its earnest quality, responding to this through poetry. In this phase, ecology is treated locally and is fabricated by the poet. The poet does not share this experience with other people. There are different features of this phase, including subjectivity, solitude, individual experience and environmental serenity. The second phase, however, is universal. Poets perceive ecology at specific moments and express these perceptions via their poetry, which ultimately becomes available to readers. When these readers use their own reading empathy, their response to the ecology described in the poetry tremendously resembles the poet's personal response to that ecology. As a matter of fact, the reader and poet's experiences become universal in that they share the same experience, and poetry is the connection between them. Poets, furthermore, insert their ethical messages in the context of their poetry, which readers grasp differently since there is an abundance of ecological poetic purport amidst the lines of poetry. The poet's personal sensitivity, thereupon, becomes wide in scope. The ultimate objective of ecopoetry is to change society. Ecopoets explore genuine themes and poetic modes as metaphorical embellishments of their poetry. They deliver reformatory messages

to the members of society, exhorting them to maintain ecological principles. This is because society, over time, advances its urban expansion at the expense of ecology, which implicates crucial geographic demarcations of the environment (Jafni et al., 2016).

Ecopoetics, on the other hand, is the study of ecopoetry. Poetic compositions dealing with ecological concerns are appraised under ecopoetics. There are three principles of ecopoetics: first is the concept of wilderness (Khosravi et al., 2017). The conceptual nature of wilderness prefigures the inevitable inclusion of the notion of the sublime. Morteza Malakshah and Behzad Pourgarib (2018) argued that the core conceptual indication of the sublime was the reduction of people's infringement upon wild expanses such as thick forests, vast animal habitats and the hydrosphere. People do not acknowledge the significance of these wild places; therefore, ecopoetics necessitates the proper perception of wilderness areas to make them remarkable.

The second principal of ecopoetics is its concept of the pastoral environment. The issue of pastoral conceptualization is closely associated with wilderness; however, it includes human beings. Ecopoetics enthusiastically advocates encouraging people to immerse themselves in diligent and co-operative agendas to protect ecology through literature. However, lax people, such as hunters and poachers, blithely endanger Earth's unique fauna, let alone its fascinating flora. They inevitably hinder the anticipated proliferation of species in the pastoral environment. The reason behind their arbitrary actions against nature is attributed to several conspicuous factors, among which are overgrazing, deforestation, and pollution (Jafni et al., 2016).

Deep ecology represents the third principal of ecopoetics. It is related to aspects of environmental menace posed by devastating conditions like air toxicity. This issue touches on the crux of ecological existence. It influences the viability of the hydrosphere because water is a part of the Earth's whole lithosphere. Polluting the hydrosphere results in acid deposition, commonly known as acid rain, which can result from the evaporation of contaminated water. In winter, such water precipitates back with highly polluted elements. Consequently, it is useless for drinking, irrigation, and aqua-medication. Ecopoetics relies on these environmental segments as the embodiment of ecology, and all its contiguous items, in ecological literary contexts (Ahmed & Hashim, 2015).

Jonathan Bate is one of the most notable scholars worked on clarifying nebulous ideas over the mixing between ecopoetics and the poetry of nature. The work of Jonathan Bate (2000) produced the first example of ecopoetics that differentiated it from ecopoetry theory. Bate's book *The Song of the Earth* (2000) is considered as representative of the first phase of ecopoetics. The main idea that lies behind Bate's (2000) writing is the rapid development of technology and its ramifications on human relations with the natural world. In addition to that, Bate believed in the writer's ability to facilitate in connecting culture with nature through-composed literary works.

Subsequently, many influential books were produced to be standard texts for ecopoetry and ecopoetics scholars and their readers. In these new fields, M. Jimmie Killingsworth and J. Scott Bryson are among the most notable authors who gravitated numerous readers to their writings. In his book, Walt Whitman and the Earth: A Study in Ecopoetics (2004), Killingworth chose the poetry of Whitman to study the usage of language in figuring out the binary relation between humans and the Earth, justifying his selection of Whitman's poetry because it was rich material for ecopoetics study (Killingsworth, 2004). J. Scott Bryson, in The West Side of Any Mountain: Place, Space and Ecopoetry (2005), conducted a study on ecopoetry and dealt with the idea of space and place from an ecological standpoint. In his coverage of ecopoetry, Bryson examined selected poems of American poets and focused on how they responded to and articulated the concepts of place and space in their poems. The poets chosen by Bryson demonstrated the divergent voices among ecological literary works (Bryson, 2005).

The most spectacular publications related to ecopoetics and ecopoetry appeared after 2010, crystalizing in the studies of Scott Knickerbocker and Ann Fisher-Wirth. Kinckerbocker (2012), in his *Ecopoetics: The Language of Nature and the Nature of Language* (2012), examined the poetry of modern poets such as Sylvia Plath, Elizabeth Bishop, Richard Wilbur, and Wallace Stevens with consideration of their figurative language. On the other hand, Ann Fisher-Wirth is more modern in her considerations and exegesis of the poems she examined. She argued that ecological poetry has the ability to mingle with poststructuralist and postmodern poetry with full and sensitive expression (Fisher-Wirth, 2013). It is worth mentioning that, with the rapid development of the ecocriticism movement, in general, and ecopoetics, specifically, many scholars have appeared as either charting their own way in this field or completing and expanding upon previous scholars' hypotheses.

Unnatural Ecopoetics

Unnatural ecopoetics is another phase of ecocriticism which offers an author the opportunity to employ two poetic devices: self-reflexivity and technical experimentation. Through the use of selfreflexivity, the author's voice is implicitly embedded in the poem. Experimentation involves the author's utilization of new forms and techniques in poetry in order to produce certain effects. Thus, such experimentation underpins the creation of new environments in light of the author's urban and cultural background (Nolan & Slovic, 2017).

Sarah Nolan (2015) conceptualized an unnatural ecopoetics hypothesis in which she argued that her concept stretched away from or beyond the traditional conceptualization of the bioenvironmental sphere and nature corresponding to Timothy Morton's contention in which he said, "Ecocriticism

is too enmeshed in the ideology that churns out stereotypical ideas of nature to be of any use" (Morton, 2007, p. 13). Nolan also argued that unnatural ecopoetics pushed toward pointing to the breakdown of the limits between nature and culture and bridging the gap between them. She used the terms material and nonmaterial elements of the environment frequently in her study. Nonmaterial elements of the environment, from Nolan's perspective, refer to the speaker's subjective experience, emotion, observation, language, and ideology which influence him/her in a specific place and are translated in the poem's text, while material elements of environment refer to the physical objects in the poet's surrounding sphere. She argued that both of the elements can be reflected in the textual space of the poem in an intertwining way (Nolan, 2015).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Carol Ann Duffy's Textual Space in "Water"

Following her mother's death, Duffy conducted a fine elegy illustrating a strong, passionate recollection of memories of her mother. "Water" is a short poem consisting of four stanzas in the form of free-line verse and composed of different numbers of lines. Nature imagery in "Water" is infused with the poet's feelings of grief about the loss of her mother. Sometimes the material and nonmaterial images are intertwined, while at other times, Duffy's feelings overcome images of nature in the poem's textual space. Duffy's text has the flexibility to enclose wide natural experience in a malleable involvement of environments. Moreover, choosing Duffy's poetry to be examined in light of this conceptual theory occurred because her textual space seems to be configured out of mingling various environmental elements, "What is notably absent, however, is criticism on Duffy's ecopoetics - despite poems such as 'Atlas', 'Parliament', and 'Virgil's Bees' which explicitly engage with crises of the natural world" (De Wachter, 2019, p. 10). This fact will be clarified through exploring Duffy's "Water" according to unnatural ecopoetics concepts. Duffy's dexterity in this poem has been elucidated in mingling her subjective experience of nature with her memory and emotions, which is what the current study will exemplify in light of Nolan's unnatural ecopoetics. Nolan argued, "The human experience of a space is partly nonmaterial and utterly subjective, based entirely upon the observer's position, memory, aesthetic preference, attentiveness, while also hinging on material factors of objects, weather, movement and the presence of the other beings" (Nolan, 2017, p. 7). Since space seems a flexible word and bears many meanings, and as Yi-Fu Tuan stated, "space is an abstract term for a complex set of ideas" (2001, p. 34), building on this kind of thought, the textual space of "Water" is examined through focusing on various ideas such as the poet's experience, memory, and themes and the language reflected in the poem.

The poet opened her poem by conjuring up her mother's last word, "water," before passing away. One may observe that, from

the beginning of the poem, Duffy used the possessive pronoun "your" in reference to her mother and addressed her mother as if she were alive. Moreover, in line with this, Duffy used repetition and alliteration as a way of expressing her grief and sorrow. The figurative language extends through the following lines with more descriptions and senses of words. In addition to that, many nonmaterial objects are visualized in the third and fifth lines ("plastic cup" and "the chair") in an interacting way with memories and emotions, as shown in the fourth and fifth lines: "your lips," "your smile," "halfsmile," "sight" and "fell asleep." The poet remembers all the small details concerning her mother's facial expressions and the objects around her in those moments. It can be said that the textual space of the poem seems to be the poet's realm, which stretches far into her memory and mind.

Water

Your last word was water, Which I poured in a hospice plastic cup, held To your lips-your small sip, halfsmile, sigh-then, In the chair beside you, fell asleep. (1–5)

The poet's memories and her deep anguish, which are introduced in the opening stanza, are continued in the second stanza through repeating the same words which appeared in the last line of the previous stanza, "fell asleep." Duffy's dexterity in language and composing poetry have been exemplified in the textual space of the poem in which various actions, feelings and sensations like "fell asleep," "thirsty," "hear," "see," and "swallow" in the poem are intertwined and woven together with material elements of nature in an incredibly visualized way. This is what motivated the current study's examination of Duffy's poem through the unnatural ecopoetics concept. According to Nolan (2017), unnatural ecopoetics specifically

offers a critical lens that focuses on the methods by which poets express nonmaterial cultural, historical, political and personal elements of environmental experience alongside material objects and spaces through self-reflexive language and experimental form, which foreground textual space where multiple elements are shown to shape environmentally. (p. 8).

Actually, Duffy was aware of material and nonmaterial elements of the environment in that moment and referred to all of them in relation to her mother's situation. She started her reference from the number of hours her mother slept until the full cup of water. Also, the image of her mother while sleeping and then awakening thirsty became stuck in Duffy's mind. That memory, which is a nonmaterial element, is fused with the material elements of the environment around her like "magpie," "Dawn," and "the full cup."

Fell asleep for three lost hours, Only to waken, thirsty, hear then see A magpie warn in a bush outside – Dawn so soon- and swallow from your still-full cup (6–9)

What can be considered as an attractive merit of this poem is that the more the reader moves through the textual space of "Water," the more he/she realizes its vastness. This fact is illustrated in the third stanza, in which the poet introduces the mother-daughter relation through recalling her mother's picture when Duffy was a child and asking her mother for water in the darkness of the night. Again, she opens her stanza with the word "Water," and ends it with a reference to the same word in "A good last word." The first thing that comes to mind for the reason behind this repetition is the idea that the poet is contemplating the power of water, which is the source of life for all beings and nature. In addition to that, in this stanza, Duffy is highlighting the idea of social cohesion through the binary relation between a mother and daughter and how they support each other.

Water. The times I'd call as a child For a drink, till you'd come, sit on the edge

Of the bed in the dark, holding my hand,

Just as we held hands now and you died.

A good last word. (10–13)

In the last stanza, instead of being an introverted or dismal person, Duffy turned her discourse in another direction through thinking of her own daughter. Three generations are introduced in this stanza, Duffy's mother, Duffy, and Duffy's daughter, and the connection is water. The mother's image of suffering, which was striking in Duffy's memory in the first stanza, is scattered gradually in the last one. Although the poem flows out of sad memory and experience, it ends with a moral lesson and a sense of hope. What Duffy got from her mother when she was a child is now supposed to be delivered to her own child and will return to Duffy later when she is aged.

Nights since I've cried, but gone To my own child's side with a drink, watched Her gulp it down then sleep. *Water*. What a mother brings through the darkness still To her parched daughter. (14–18)

The poet infused her poem with the repetition of the term "water" as a natural element, which has a symbolic reference to the continuity of human life and the lives of all beings. Although water has this symbolic meaning, the poet would not have been affected in the same way if she saw water flowing in a river or water dropping from the sky while raining. These natural incidences would not have affected the poet's memory and mind in the way that it did when she saw her mother asking for water to quench her thirst. This assumption goes parallel with Sarah Nolan's expression of her concept in which she stated,

... my conceptualization of unnatural ecopoetics focuses on the

ways in which individual memory, personal experience, ideology and the limitations of the senses play a role in how individuals experience material elements of the world and, just as importantly, on how new forms and experimentation with language can work to express these facet of experience. (Nolan, 2017, pp. 8-9).

From the context of this poem, Duffy seemed to be highly affected by her mother's death. But the notable fact is that what Duffy experienced at that time instilled in her feelings of motherly responsibility toward her daughter, which is shown in the fourth and fifth lines of her last stanza. In addition to that, she experimented with various feelings such as life, death, and thirst through her mother's last word "Water." De Wachter explained this fact by stating that,

"Water" depicts the final suggestively autobiographical interactions between a dying mother and her daughter, as the latter fetches a cup of water that is never finished. "Water, then, does not simply shape history; to Duffy, it shapes personal history, as a medium that can both reaffirm the rituals and meanings of said history" (De Wachter, 2019, p. 23).

However, as a masterful poet, Duffy succeeded in transferring all her cares, memories, and emotions into the textual space of "Water." "Duffy's poetry demonstrates fervently that language cannot be comprehended as a static element; rather, it continuously and self-reflexively re-invents itself" (De Wachter, 2019, p. 18).

Carol Ann Duffy's Textual Space in "Cold"

While in the poet's "Cold", the real meaning of a poem is not lying about on its surface;

The poem tells of the poet's thoughts and feelings; it represents some aspect of the poet's sensibility... Thus it reflects the idea that poetic language is a means to recreate memory, and can itself become memory with the potential for recreation. (Pullinger, 2019, p. 42).

In one of her most touching elegies, Duffy mourned her mother's death with a sensitive emotional poem in the form of a sonnet. She succeeded in connecting her subjective observations of cold weather to recall her childhood memories, and later compared her feeling of cold weather with the feeling of coldness when she kissed her mother's brow after she had passed away. The poet proved her dexterity in this sonnet in which, from the first moment, the keen reader cannot help imagining the "Winter" sonnet by William Shakespeare in which all the small details are described the cold weather, except that Duffy's sonnet is not exactly about weather as much as about her mother's death.

As an unnatural ecopoetics reading of Duffy's poem, the main focus of the current study will be on the textual structure,

language and the poet's personal feeling depicted in "Cold." The poet started her poem by recalling a sweet personal memory when she was a child enjoying her time and playing in the cold weather while her mother was preparing food in the kitchen. So, from the beginning of the poem, it seems quite suitable for ecopoetics reading since the poet's memory in a specific time in the past finds its way to the poet's present writing moment and is reflected in the poem's textual space. These memories elucidate the intertwined binary relation between the material elements of the environment represented in real nature and the nonmaterial elements represented in the poet's feelings, memory and grief upon her mother's death.

It felt so cold, the snowball which wept in my hands, And when I rolled it along in the snow, it grew Till I could sit on it, looking back at the house, Where it was cold when I woke in my room, the windows Blind with ice, my breath undressing itself on the air. (1–5)

The poet's subjective experience in the cold weather fused with material objects in her memory of such weather like the snowball, the cold house, the ice on the windows and the snowman. Moreover, these images in Duffy's mind have become fused out of the sorrowful feeling over the loss of her mother and have succeeded in forming a tight connection between the outer material elements of nature and her own experience at her mother's deathbed. After kissing her mother's brow, Duffy grasped the real coldness, and all the memories of cold weather scattered in her mind. The poet in the following lines "compares her childhood memories of playing in the snow while her mother peeled vegetables in cold water with kissing her dead body in the Chapel of Rest, balking at the coldness of her skin" (Dowson, 2016, p. 69). Moreover, the closing couplet makes the poem beautiful and meaningful in that the ending rhyme of 'old' and 'cold' emphasizes the finality of death, offering the creative completion with which the elegy consoles. In addition to that, nature in the form of real and physical images seems to intertwine with the poet's sensations in the textual space of the poem.

Cold, too, embracing the torso of snow which I lifted up In my arms to build a snowman, my toes, burning, cold In my winter boots; my mother's voice calling me in From the cold. And her hands were cold from peeling And polling Potatoes into a bowl, stooping to cup Her daughter's face, a kiss for both cold cheeks, my cold nose. But nothing so cold as the February night I opened the door in the Chapel of Rest where my mother lay, neither young, nor old, where my lips, returning her kiss to her brow, knew the meaning of cold. (6–14)

An attractive fact of this poem is that Duffy has experienced the coldness in different ways, one of them was real weather or environmental cold while the other was through her mother's body and its feeling after she had passed away, which altered the poet's understanding of the meaning of the word cold. This poem intensely proves how the poet's memory fills and deepens the holes of loss. and how the beauty of the nature may reflect another picture in the mind of the poet according to momentary reactions to nature.

CONCLUSION

From the poems' textual space analysis and the discussion forwarded, Carol Ann Duffy's "Water" and "Cold" seem suitable to be read as unnatural ecopoetics poems. This finding is indeed a valuable contribution toward developing the criteria of ecopoetics poems, which are mainly studied from an ecological perspective. The present study has expanded the scope of reading the poetry of contemporary poets through offering an ecopoetics reading, which is more specifically accomplished through the lens of unnatural ecopoetics theory.

This study investigated how a poet's experience of various material and nonmaterial elements of the environment such as memory, ideology, physical objects in nature, and personal observations in a specific space can be reflected in the textual space of a poem. Moreover, this study aimed to examine how these elements can be intertwined and how the result of this blending can configure a new kind of experience for the observer through his/her subjective experience. Since the poet had observed her mother's death, this incident configured in the poets mind another sense of the material and nonmaterial elements of the environment surrounding her. The poet succeeded in transferring her subjective experience and observations into synthesized lines composed of material and nonmaterial elements of environment. "Indeed, the nuances of the connection Duffy makes between water and language prove her to be acutely aware of the ecopoetical implications of her metaphor" (De Wachter, 2019, p. 20).

The study also has the potential to motivate researchers to conduct in-depth analyses of other contemporary poems which are not considered as ecopoetic texts. It is undisputed that "the ideas of unnatural ecopoetics are best suited to contemporary texts because contemporary poets do not live in a world where nature is distinguishable from culture" (Nolan, 2017, p. 15). Accordingly, special attention can be paid to the poems which seem to be out of the range of ecopoetics poems.

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Rewriting the Feminine Construction of a Nation in *Comfort Woman* by Nora Okja Keller

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ABSTRACT

This essay highlights the way Keller's novel, Comfort Woman (1997) explores the connection between women's sexual bodies, colonialism and Korean nationalism. Through the resistance of heroic women characters against patriarchal definitions and feminization of a colonized nation, Keller narrates subversive feminist resistance to humiliating inscriptions of patriarchy and colonialism onto the sexual bodies of women. The text is closely analysed using tools of literary devices, in particular, subversive strategies and the idea of silences as a tool and a theme to convey the unspoken and the unspeakable. Soon Hyo's passive silences as a comfort woman in the comfort camps and her transformation later to paranormal articulations as a shaman is interpreted as powerful forms of resistance against patriarchy's inscription upon her body. Her silent passivity, re-interpreted as a form of active resistance becomes more meaningful as she wrestles back the identities and recognition for the thousands of comfort women that would otherwise be forgotten. Comfort Woman inquires into the links between languages, silences and subjectivity, colonial domination and Korean nationalism, sexuality and nation, resisting any attempts at separating the links. Keller invoked the power of performance and silences in the form of "strange" articulations and tropes which were culturally specific as subversive means of re-telling her story and inscribing new meanings onto women's sexual bodies, thus rewriting the feminine constructions of a nation.

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INTRODUCTION

Historically, Japanese war crimes against women in China, Korea and elsewhere have long been documented. The brutal and horrific rapes that occurred in Nanking in December 1932 had caused concern around the world. To prevent further atrocities, reduce sexually transmitted diseases and ensure a steady supply of prostitutes to satisfy Japanese soldiers' sexual appetites, Emperor Hirohito ordered the military to establish "comfort stations".

Colonial Korea was part of Imperial Japan since 1894 and this rationale was used to justify Korean women contributing to the war as 'volunteer corps'. According to Yang (1997), since colonial women's bodies were not clearly located in the position of enemy, they were treated as a form of "military supply" (Yang, 1997, p. 65), seen as necessary for the protection of the Japanese soldiers from venereal disease.

When Japan began to lose the war, many of these women were killed in unimaginably cruel ways to prevent them from giving evidence against the war crimes committed on them. As a result, there has been silence surrounding the comfort women's tales and existence for 50 years, both in Japan and in Korea and other places (Indonesia, China, Philippines), until some survivors of these camps identified themselves publicly as former comfort women in the early 1990s, demanded apologies and compensations¹, breaking the long official silence regarding the systemized rape of colonized women during World War II.

METHODS

Textual analysis was applied to written historical and literary texts to interpret and investigate nuances, ideas and themes related to the issue of comfort women during World War II. The interpretation of the text is rooted within the historical, social and cultural understanding of the place and time in which the events took place. The selected literary text reflecting the relevant historical events was closely analysed using tools of literary devices, in particular, subversive strategies and the idea of silences as a tool and a theme to convey the unspoken and the unspeakable. This is done in order to deepen understanding of authorial intentions and strategies.

RESULTS

This essay portrays the ways Keller in *Comfort Woman* demonstrates resistance to humiliating perception with regard to Korean women's sexuality. Through various subversive techniques, Keller contests the feminization of Korea and rewrites the feminine construction of a colonized nation by creating women characters who proclaim themselves as the nation itself.

DISCUSSION

Women's Sexuality, Colonialism and Korean Nationalism

Rape is often employed as a weapon of war, used as a method of torturing and destroying, signifying the subjection of one nation to another. Rapes that occur between ethnic and/or religious groups

¹ Recommended reading: In her excellent book entitled *The Comfort Women: Sexual Violence and Postcolonial Memory in Korea and Japan*, C. S. Soh (2008) probed the historical issue of Comfort Women and the atrocities of sexual slavery perpetrated by the Japanese army during World War II.

in times of war signify that women's bodies are the possession of men. Rape symbolizes possession of the enemy's property (Yang, 1997) and institutionalized rape is a deliberate act of conquest, which causes national humiliation and shame.

This sense of humiliation and the fear of emasculation cause the comfort women issue to be viewed as a national embarrassment and relegated to just "woman's problem" – silenced from collective memory until 1991. The women are living symbols that remind the nation of its "patriarchal weakness and paternal failure"– the failure of Korean men to protect the lives and bodies of their wives, daughters and sisters (Yang, 1998, p. 94).

In Korea, this humiliation and shame form core national sentiments surrounding the topic of comfort women. The representation of sexually violated Korean women as "damaged" and "disgraceful" results in subordination and silencing of the former comfort women (Kim, 1997, p. 92).

According to Duncan, some Korean men are angry that Korean women's sexuality, regarded as rightfully belonging to them – has been seized by Japanese soldiers, thereby "robbing Korean men" (Duncan, 2004, p. 180). The national humiliation associated with being "robbed" is reflected in a letter, written in 1992 by a Korean man who claimed that the history of Japanese colonization and the comfort woman system "amounts to an act in which the Japanese throw their dirty sperm bucket into our Korean people's face" (Yang, 1998, p. 130). Yang rightly pointed out that his reader's letter thus exemplified that males were the only subjects involved in questions of nation and sexuality. The nation is gendered. Women's sexuality is nationalized. "Nation is equated with male subject position, and women's sexuality is reified as property of the masculine nation" (Yang, 1998, p. 130).

Giving Voice to the Voiceless

The silences of the comfort women were given a voice in Nora Okja Keller's (1997) *Comfort Woman*, winner of the 1998 American Book Award. Keller had felt the intense need to exorcise the nightmares which had been haunting her when she first attended a talk given by a former Korean comfort woman, Keum Ja Hwang.

Comfort Woman is the fictional story of one woman, as shown in the singular noun of the title. Keller said, "I can only speak from this one body, this one mind, this one life's experiences"², yet she may have inevitably rendered the private public by her imagined narration of the gruesome experiences of the women in the comfort camps during World War II. In order to re-narrate history, Keller kept the narrative as close as possible to the autobiographies of the former comfort women as she reconstructed patriarchal ideas of women's sexuality and showed the transcendence of Soon Hyo over her traumatic past.

Comfort Woman is an unsettling tale that interweaves the voices of a Korean American mother, Soon Hyo and her daughter, Beccah. Soon Hyo is haunted

² Keller, N. O. (1997). A penguin readers guide to Comfort Woman. *In Comfort Woman* (p. 3). New York, USA: Penguin Books.

by her harrowing experience as a comfort woman during World War II; an experience so agonizing it caused her to live the rest of her life straddling between the world of the living and the dead and the spirits, barely living nor dead. The novel focuses on the fraught relationship between mother and daughter. The complex structure shifts back and forth in time and space, from Soon Hyo's childhood in Korea, to the World War II military camps, to Hawaii in the 1980s and 90s where Soon Hyo grapples with her traumatic past.

Through the resistance of Soon Hyo against patriarchal definitions, Keller narrated subversive feminist resistance to humiliating inscriptions of patriarchy and colonialism onto the sexual bodies of women. Soon Hyo's passive silences as a comfort woman and her transformation to paranormal articulations later as a shaman can be interpreted as powerful forms of resistance against patriarchy's inscription upon her body. Her silent passivity, reinterpreted as a form of active resistance became more meaningful as she wrestled back the identities and recognition for the thousands of comfort women that would otherwise be forgotten.

Keller invoked the power of silences in the form of "strange" articulations and tropes which were culturally specific as subversive means of re-telling her story and inscribing new meanings onto women's sexual bodies, hence re-creating them as national heroines, transcending their victim status. The dominant idea of this article is that "passivity" can be a form of active resistance.

Narrative Technique - Conflicting Parallels and Paradoxes

Keller began the novel by establishing a setting in which mysticism ruled and continued to dominate throughout the novel. Beccah's narration of the direct 'confession' of her mother to her father's murder at the beginning of the novel was casual, matterof-fact and dispassionate, during an activity of preparing a meal to honour his memory. The loaded statement "I killed your father" (Keller, 1997, p. 1), gave no hint to the themes that were possibly contained in the simple declaration. The 'killing' of Beccah's father was symbolical of Soon Hyo's release from patriarchal and sexual domination and condemnation and her subsequent union with the spiritual world which Beccah could not comprehend. The seemingly insignificant 'confession' held the key and the defining moment of Soon Hyo's life when after years of oppression, like Induk, she finally forsook all control as she danced in the rain in front of her helpless, pleading husband on a night Beccah could faintly recall.

Beccah's skepticism and fear were not towards the confession per se but she thought her mother was slipping into one of her trances. As Beccah was unable to differentiate between the mystic, spiritual part of her mother and the physical, human side of her, there was an inability to distinguish the spiritual ramblings with other languages her mother used to communicate with her. The mother's attempt at revelation, though scarce, was regarded by Beccah as one of her out-ofthe-world ramblings. Failing to identify with the fact that the "frail, wild-haired lady with pajamas throwing a handful of pebbles into the crowd" (Keller, 1997, p. 87) was her mother, Beccah remained for the most part, an outsider to her mother's life.

Unable to see beyond the physical and the mundane, Beccah's sense of the 'truth' was muted. "I'm teaching you something very important about life", Akiko says as she tries to pass on the spiritual dimension with its masked messages to Beccah who failed to see the significance. In Beccah and her mother's unique relationship, Keller posed the conflict between the reality of the unseen/silenced and intangible versus the seen/spoken and tangible with the scales tipping in favour of the former.

Comfort Woman is about the training Beccah underwent before she finally was able to really know her mother and the significance of her ramblings. Though she thought her mother was insane, she had to proclaim the contrary – "She's not crazy" (Keller, 1997, p. 7). Her proclamation was intended to silence the 'truth' she thought she knew. The distinction between truth/ untruth, normal/abnormal, fantasy/reality, sanity/insanity was obscured by Beccah's inability to comprehend exactly who her mother was as a result of her traumatic and shameful past.

The multiple narrations of Soon Hyo and Beccah in the novel reveal the fragmentation of the relationship between mother and daughter as the "mother's secrets, madness, and lies" are "powerful metaphors for the consequences of Japan's (and subsequently the United States') control and occupation of Korea" (Duncan, 2004, p. 183). Beccah was temporally and emotionally detached from her mother's traumatic experiences although her molestation by her father provided a glimpse of the horror her mother must have endured in the comfort camps. Until the death of Soon Hyo, Soon Hyo and Beccah were culturally 'other' to each other, separated by their different versions of history. Though their stories are intricately interconnected, they are presented as opposing perspectives between daughter and mother written in the first-person narrative, which projects sentiments of isolation and alienation of both mother and daughter. Akiko's isolation was caused by her traumatic past which was too shameful to be spoken except through alternative discourse in her trances. Beccah's isolation was caused by her lack of understanding of her mother's strange behaviour which caused her to label her mother "insane".

The line between 'truth'/fiction was erased as Akiko constantly obfuscated and mute reality by offering alternate versions to her stories. During the moments when Akiko communicated the "truth", it was subjected to Beccah's unreliable interpretation. Beccah's struggle to reconcile what she knew of her mother (the explicit/spoken/ demonstrated) and what was unknown (the hidden/masked/silenced) formed much of the trajectory of the novel.

The struggle of Beccah, to "start imagining" (Keller, 1997, p. 26) her mother's life resonated the challenge Keller posed to her readers to imagine the comfort women's lives as she reconstructed their memories. While mother-daughter relationship was fraught with differences and marked by a distinct sense of otherness, the discovery of Beccah at the end of her mother's tragic past formed the gel that fused mother and daughter across distinct boundaries of which had once alienated them from each other. The extraordinary journey of Beccah to understand her mother through her strange articulations, a journey which was fraught with confusion, anxiety and fear was a journey that Keller invited her readers to undertake in *Comfort Woman*.

Comfort Woman thrives on conflicting parallels and paradoxes, blurring of differences between opposing ideas and concepts. Established ideas/concepts and Korean myths are rewritten in order to inscribe new meanings onto women and their national subjectivity. Keller's narrative techniques problematize and reconciles normally conflicting and opposing concepts such as death and life, spiritual and physical, articulation and silences, sanity and madness, the fantasized and the real, the normal and the abnormal or paranormal, man and woman, woman and woman relationship, purity/holiness and lust, the rapist soldiers and the religious missionaries. Keller constantly juggled the paradoxical positions of exposing and obscuring, muting and telling, in order to create a tension between the real and the unreal, the normal and the abnormal and juxtaposed them in order to abolish the binaric opposites between them to challenge the meaning of gender and nation.

Keller first blurred the lines between madness and sanity in the case of Induk. "Induk didn't go crazy. She was going sane. She was planning her escape" (Keller, 1997, p. 21). Unable to bear the endless rapes in the comfort camp, Induk, one of the comfort women "cracked", snapped out of her silent existence and would not stop talking, "yelling at them to stop their invasion of her country and her body". She reclaimed her identity and her nationality by shouting "I am Korea, I am a woman, I am alive. I am seventeen, I had a family just like you do, I am a daughter, I am a sister" (Keller, 1997, p. 20), finally ending her life by taunting the soldiers till they killed her, paraded her body, "skewered from her vagina to her mouth, like a pig ready for roasting" (Keller, 1997, pp. 20-21).

While Soon Hyo was truly 'free' when she abandoned the encumbrance of her abused body and shift to the spirit realm, Beccah ironically pleaded with the spirit of her dead father to free her mother from the "vengeful ghosts" (Keller, 1997, p. 12) that were holding her captive, demonstrating the extremely limited knowledge Beccah had of her mother's past. Beccah failed to understand that it was only through connection with the spirit world that her mother could escape from the demons of this life. The grip of the 'demons' was what released her from the reality of her unspeakable experiences as comfort woman as her erased identity was only found in her connection with the spirit world. She was herself only when she was with the spirits, for the unendurable pain and agony of the

comfort camps could only be 'forgotten' when she entered another dimension -a spiritual one.

Akiko's past and her loss of agency and subjectivity were too intangible for Beccah to connect with. The many mutual misconceptions and misunderstandings typical of mother-daughter relationships made Akiko's communication of traumatic experiences to Beccah even more difficult. What Akiko recounted was always either untruths or half-truths.

Songs of wailing and lamentations mask Akiko's past agony. Her expressions of agony were disguised in the form of songs consisting of "long wails of complaints and demands and wishes for the dead" (Keller, 1997, p. 27). Beccah's hope of singing 'Rudolph the Red-Nosed Reindeer' at the school's Xmas Xtravanganza (Keller, 1997) was in opposition to her mother's wailings as Keller enhanced the sense of irony by juxtaposing the mother's dark secret with Beccah's childish glee and hope. Similarly, Beccah's embarrassment at her mother's 'insanity' signified a denial of her own 'Koreanness" as "[t]he very fact that Beccah thinks her mother is insane gestures to a lack of cultural knowledge that would give her the hermeneutic tools to make sense of Akiko's behaviour" (Chen, 2005, p. 120). Ironically, she said "You're not yourself" (Keller, 1997, p. 12), not knowing that Soon Hyo was most herself when she's 'insane' to others; she was in the process of reclaiming her self-identity, albeit a different one from the one she had lost.

The web of silencing was reinforced between mother and daughter as Akiko's connection to reality was severed by the extreme violence she had endured. Beccah had to mask her mother's past by her own make-belief stories that her parents had met when her mother was a famous singer in Korea. The absent truth was replaced by stories conjured up from her own favourite movies to fill in the gaps as stories and fantasies were juxtaposed with the feeling that there was a reality somewhere that Beccah could not seem to access. What's the truth? Unknown to her, this was the pertinent question she would ask for the rest of her adult life until she could undo the silences, and interpreted the messages concealed in her mother's chantings, wailings and songs. Beccah had to re-imagine the past when the mother's stories constantly changed, contradicting previous tales. The "truth" was elusive, subjective and fragmented to Beccah through much of the novel and the "truth" remained her quest until her mother's death.

In Beccah's fantasy, her father was her saviour, saving her and her mother from Korean ghosts and demons. Just like her mother's life and her past, the 'actual man' her father was vague to Beccah, dimmed by 'smoke and ash' from the Monopoly money and paper-doll clothes. The ceremonies for Beccah's father demonstrated a rejection of Western culture and the continuation of traditional cultural practice as Soon Hyo/ Akiko continued to re-inscribe Koreanness onto Beccah, ensuring her culture lives on.

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Perhaps the ultimate insult and humiliation was the Monopoly money, paper-doll clothes and offering of food to the dead appear stark and in contrast to what the man, the Christian missionary was and represented. That he was accorded a Confucian honour though he was a Christian missionary signified the taking over of his identity and control. The rendering of Taoist rituals in 'honour' of her Christian missionary husband resulting in the masking of his memory and identity was Akiko's way of exacting revenge on patriarchy, symbolizing an erasure of patriarchal identity and colonialism.

Sexuality is often the vehicle of oppression as the commodification of the female body for rape and sexual abuse implies the eradication of the victim's subjectivity and individuality. In *Comfort Woman*, the women are nameless and replaceable commodities. Soon Hyo was named Akiko 4, after the comfort woman whose identity and stall in the camps she replaced, and once her virginity was auctioned off to the highest bidding soldier, she became a "free for all" (Keller, 1997, p. 21).

Akiko's ultimate victory over patriarchy and colonialism was symbolized in the death of her husband which she took credit for: "I wished him to death ... Every day I think, every day I pray, 'Die, die', sending him death-wish arrows, until one day my prayers were answered" (Keller, 1997, p. 12). This achievement by Akiko/Soon Hyo spoke of resistance of patriarchy, colonialism and enactment of nationalism.

Soon Hyo's and Beccah's narrative perspectives are located ambiguously between the intersections of Asia and America, East and West. The motherdaughter relationship becomes the site at which Korean spirituality and superstition clashes with American rationality. Unknown to Beccah, Soon Hyo was her link to the ancient world of her ancestors in Korea. Schultermandl (2007) pointed out that the topic they were most reluctant to talk about the sexual abuses they went through becomes "a basis of mutual identification" (p. 85). The mother-daughter relationship oscillated between identification and alienation as both narrative perspectives offer controversial, opposing ideas with regard to women's sexuality and its reconstruction. Beccah considered her mother weird and unable to integrate into American society and seek to distance herself from the image of womanhood that her mother conveyed in relation to mainstream American culture. Nor do the two women talked about Beccah's sexual molestation by her father which were merely hinted at and obscured by the blurring of Beccah's memories.

The novel treats Beccah's experience of sexual abuse by her father as unspeakable in the sense that Keller did not write about it openly. She depicted Beccah's experience through a recurring nightmare:

But when he rolled me into the sweater, binding my arms behind me, my father opened his eyes not on the demons but in me. And the blue light from his eyes grew so bright it burned me, each night, into nothingness. (Keller, 1997, p. 2).

The intertextuality of the sets of firstperson narratives, however, amplifies the hidden message of Beccah's own experience of sexual abuse and thus connects her to the experience of the comfort women. It is only after Akiko's death that Beccah learns about the origin of her mother's trauma and her unorthodox behaviour, such as her fits of melancholy and anger in which her trauma continues to manifest itself.

The valences of speaking and silences are shown in the relationship between the silent and unspoken history of Soon Hyo's life and her Americanized daughter. After six years as a writer of obituaries, words are mere "words and statistics that need to be typed into the system" (Keller, 1997, p. 26). The production of words is cold and clinical, matter-of-fact, devoid of all feelings and sentiments - "count how many inches" to fill, "computing how many names and death dates" to be processed and records of death are merely formulae "templated" in the brain. Her mother's life is more than "name, age, date of birth, survivors, services" (Keller, 1997, p. 26). Language is inadequate to describe the depths and layers of her mother's life and deaths as Soon Hyo concealed and erased her unspeakable past so well that Beccah felt that "it did not occur to me that my mother had a life before me" (Keller, 1997, p. 26). As she wrote of other people's death, she was unaware of the meanings of her mother's multiple deaths and her multiples selves and identities.

Silences as Subversive Strategy

Comfort Woman inquires into the links between languages and silences and subjectivity, colonial domination and Korean nationalism, sexuality and nation, resisting any attempts at separating the links. By presenting a deranged character who speaks a paranormal language which requires utmost attention, or rather inattention to the normal in order to ascend a higher, spiritual plane in order to comprehend. Keller appeals to the world to pay attention to their silences, and 'stop concentrating' on their articulation.

Keller represented the female body as unmistakably political and public because it was determined and defined by sexism and colonialism. The renaming of the women to Japanese names symbolizes not only colonial domination and suppression of differences, but objectifies the women as replaceable and thus "renamable", dictated to by commands of "close mouth" and "open legs" (Keller, 1997, p. 16). From the silencing at the comfort camp where the comfort women were only taught enough words to service the soldiers and not expected to understand and were forbidden to speak any language at all, to her silent existence at the missionaries, Akiko had shown triumph over language by capitalizing on silence as an effective discourse, ranging from "eye movements, body posture, tilts of head" or "rhythmic rustlings between our stalls" (Keller, 1997, p. 16).

Having been given a new identity as Akiko, and violated as comfort woman Soon Hyo had to re-invent herself, spoke a new language, which was the language of silence at first. Comfort women were treated as tools for the soldiers to use, degraded to inanimate objects. They were dehumanized in order to make inhumane treatment acceptable, and these women accepted this idea of their inanimate selves in order to cope with the ordeal. Akiko had flown out of her body and her life, escaped from herself and entered into the world of the spiritual and the intangible. Her life, like her language, is no longer intelligible on the normal realm. In this physical realm which her daughter and others belong, Akiko is silent, not because she is not speaking; but her chosen discourse becomes her empowering tool.

Cheung (1993) argued that silence itself could also be subversive rhetorical strategy for agency. Throughout the novel, Keller characterized language as consisting of both articulation and silences. Just as the desire to speak is a subversive act against sexual oppression, so is the resolution to maintain silence. Both Akiko's articulations of the abuse the comfort women underwent in the comfort camps and her narratives of her own abuse and her silences towards her daughter serve in the novel as empowering tools of resistance and deconstruction of ideas related to women's sexuality. Language in the form of articulation and silences is paradoxically employed both as a bridge of cross-cultural connection and as an obstacle between Beccah and her mother. It is only upon her death, when Beccah learns

to transcend the physical and enter into the spiritual that she is able to unravel her mother's mysteries, thus "un-silencing" her. Ironically, it is only when Beccah "stopped concentrating" that she realized that her mother was "singing words, calling out words, telling a story" (Keller, 1997, p. 191).

Scorning "normal" and earthly languages, Akiko learnt languages of touch and spiritual language. Akiko tried to save her daughter from being dictated and defined by language. She touched each part of her body so that "she knows that all of what I touch is hers and hers to name in her own mind" (Keller, 1997, p. 22) as naming is a way of domination and control just as she was named 'Akiko' by the Japanese soldiers and "Mary" by the Christian missionaries. By teaching her daughter to name parts of her body before "language dissects her into pieces that can be swallowed and digested by others not herself" (Keller, 1997, p. 22), Akiko is giving the keys of the power of language and silences to her daughter. To Akiko, language has the ability to destroy, to dissect her daughter "into pieces" (Keller, 1997, p. 22) and she passes on to Beccah the language of silence which Soon Hyo recognizes as the only "true" language which consists of silent alertness, attentiveness. It is through her alert silences that she communicates with Beccah: "I watch her with a mother's eye, trying to see what she needs - my breast, a new diaper, a kiss, her toy - before she cries, before she has to give voice to her pain" (Keller, 1997, p. 21).

Keller's interrogation of the reliability of language informs my reading and investigation of the way she complicated the symbol and meanings of women's sexual bodies to a colonized nation by demonstrating the resourcefulness of Akiko in keeping silent and appropriating silence. The 'language' that was enforced in the comfort camps is working for Akiko when she was rescued and brought to the missionaries. During her stay with the missionaries. Akiko had encased herself in a world of silence as she watched the missionaries' chattering mouths but could not make out what they were saying (Keller, 1997, p. 63), similar to the comfort camps when she had understood very little of what the Japanese soldiers were saying. As much as she was silenced in the camps, she was silencing herself, thinking that as long as she was quiet, she would be overlooked and "allowed to die in darkness" (Keller, 1997, p. 65). Akiko's outer silence was in contrast to the sounds at the comfort camp that she could not shut out from her mind - the sounds of women crying, Japanese soldiers laughing, grinding of trucks delivering more soldiers. Akiko's silence was not understood by the missionaries but the reader, who has access to her mind, understands that her outer silence was as potent as the noises she keeps hearing within.

Shocking parallels are drawn between the comfort camp and the missionaries' place not only to evoke the poignant reality that she is again given over, sold, betrayed and abused over and over again but more significantly, to fuse religious intentions and military aggression. The women's sleeping quarters are compared to the stalls at the comfort camps as "not much bigger", drawing a parallel between two seemingly dichotomous places.

The 'holy' missionaries are equated with the lustful soldiers as Keller paraded two contrasting ideas and drew a parallel between them. The sound of the missionary slapping on the pulpit was associated with "the sounds of women's naked buttocks being slapped as they paraded in front of new arrival of troops" (Keller, 1997, p. 70). The double speak of Soon Hyo's recollection cannot be ignored: "(a)s the missionaries pulled at my hair, my clothes, my arms ... I turned my eyes away and gave my body to them" (Keller, 1997, p. 63). Although the close identification with the comfort camps speaks of the extreme extent of Akiko's haunted memories, this sharp association is also Keller's way of critiquing and equating the ways the Western world spreads their gospel, culture, philosophy to the Eastern world as similar to the rapes that took place in the comfort camps by the Japanese during World War II.

Akiko's silence did not fail to attract the missionary to her who sees in her the exciting Eastern exoticism and mystery, misinterpreting her silences as submission and meekness. Keller's technique results in a clear display of the missionary's lust. The urge of the minister – "Just give yourself to Him" is a sexual pun as his reference to himself and God is interchangeable and he likens himself to God – "do not forsake me or the one true God" (Keller, 1997, p. 94). "Trust in Him. And me", he pleaded. "Please Akiko, welcome the Lord - and me-we who wait for you with open arms." Such doublespeak, using the name of God is personified to oppress, mislead and coerce, is a form of masking of evil intentions as he desperately tries to exert sexual control over her, ironically in the name of God, "searching for words that would split open" her silence (Keller, 1997, p. 94), which is a form of pun for sexual conquest. Akiko could see through the intentions behind those words, recognizing the lust in his "hooded eyes, in his breathing, sharp and fast, in the way his hands fluttered about his sides as if they wanted to fly up against my half-starved girl's body with its narrow hips and new breasts" (Keller, 1997, p. 95). The missionary is comparable to the Japanese soldiers who had raped her without speaking and prohibited her to speak.

With descriptions that carry strong connotation of sexual slavery, similar to the violence she had experienced at the comfort camps, Akiko's baptism was carried out in the name of God: she was pulled "by the hand and the hair" (Keller, 1997, p. 103) and "(w)et up to the chest, one hand clutching my hair, he delivered me unto the Lord" (Keller, 1997, p. 103). The lustful desire of the Christian minister for her was masked by proclamation of noble intentions as he claimed that "this girl ... has no place to go, no one to guide her ... God is giving me a chance to save her, to guide her into the flock by yoking her to its shepherd" (Keller, 1997, p. 101). The white dress given to her by one of the missionary ladies because she was "going to be reborn in the Spirit" (Keller,

1997, p. 102) and to be married symbolizes purity which was ironical in Akiko's case. What the Christian missionaries did not see but given privy to the readers was that Akiko had "died" and had been reborn in a very different sense.

Akiko's initiation into her roles as wife and Christian was narrated in a way which likens it to initiation into bondage/slavery, full of connotation of sexual violence. There were hints that he had coveted the mysterious Eastern exoticism in her. For instance, on their wedding night: "It is better to marry than to burn, he whispered, and I am burning for you. There is something about you – the way you look so innocent, yet act so experienced – that makes me on fire for you." (Keller, 1997, p. 106)

The first sexual act with "the minister husband" was heavily suggestive of a lamb led to a slaughter house. He assumed she had had no experience and proceeded to tell her about pain and bleeding the first time. Her silence conceals her thoughts that she "knew what it felt like to stretch open for many men ... about blood with the first and with the hundredth, and about pain sharp enough to cut your body from your mind" (Keller, 1997, p. 106). "Don't worry sweetie, my little lamb. I will be gentle", "he said, - then he bit my neck" (Keller, 1997, p. 106, emphasis mine). The metaphor of the deceptive wolf devouring a helpless lamb enhances the effect of this patriarchal masking and disguise. The implication of marital rape is enhanced through metaphors and parallels as the husband's body is equated to the "bodies of innumerable men" (Keller, 1997, p. 106).

Akiko goes through the rituals she needed to survive or to feed the perception of accommodating but in the end, in secret, and in her appropriated silences, she remains unconverted. Akiko's performative acts of being silent like a lamb become an act of defiant empowerment. In the "darkest part of the night", it is not to the Christian God, or any other gods, but to Induk whom she calls out to. Her silences empower and contain her secret communion with her woman lover, Induk. The silent compliant of the outside is countered inwardly with her communion with Induk as she prays and pines for Induk to return to her (Keller, 1997, p. 92). Akiko's prayers are subversive performances; performed to re-inscribe what had been inscribed onto her body and identity. Her by now strategic silences are enhanced by chantings of Induk's name. While her oppressor/protector lusts after her, she shuts out the patriarchal world and the world of imperialism by pining after and aligning with Induk, who is not only Korean but as she declared before dying, Korea itself.

Even as her silences can be interpreted as passivity and signifying consent, gradually, Akiko's empowerment is achieved through appropriating the performative silences which becomes her lethal weapon. Her "passivity" becomes a triumphant performance in the scene when her husband was eventually driven to his knees as his commands for her to fulfil her role as wife were only met with stubborn silences as he resorts to beg, "Please, please, at least help me tidy up" (Keller, 1997, p. 112).

CONCLUSION

Rewriting the Feminine Construction of a Nation

Keller in *Comfort Woman* demonstrated resistance to humiliating perception with regard to Korean women's sexuality through the main Korean women figures in *Comfort Woman* – Induk and Soon Hyo who resisted male-defined definition of a nation and the *feminization of a nation*, and re-invented ideas and concepts of Korean national identity through various subversive techniques. In *Comfort Woman*, women's sexuality is reconstructed – disrupting conventional, male-centred narratives through employment of tropes that are ethnic-specific to re-write the meanings of women as subjects and national heroines.

Through the deployment of heroic women as national subjects, Keller contested the feminization of Korea and rewrote the feminine construction of a nation. Resistance is shown through Induk, by proclaiming aloud her identity as not merely a Korean, but Korea itself and Soon Hyo, by aligning her soul and body with that of Induk, that is, Korea (Duncan, 2004). Keller re-wrote the feminine construction of a colonized nation by creating women characters who represented not feminization of a colonized nation but who proclaimed themselves as the nation itself, transcending the perception of women as commodities to be looted or to be protected against looting. Keller's narrative effectively posed a challenge to and revised patriarchal definition and notion of the meaning of a nation.

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A Causal Relationship Model of Primary Public School Students' Achievement: A Multiple Group Analysis

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ABSTRACT

This research aimed to examine the causal relationship model of primary school students' achievement. The coverage included all types of primary public schools, namely formal and extended primary, in urban and rural areas, respectively, throughout Thailand. A survey was carried out with 1,200 school administrators and teachers from 600 schools with the intention of testing the goodness of fit of the causal relationship model with the empirical data. Results disclosed that the causal relationship model of students' achievement were identified as congruous with empirical data, with χ^2 =58.381, df = 45, χ^2 /df = 1.307, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 0.999, RMSEA = 0.016, and SRMR = 0.007. In addition, the three main variables, namely teachers' collective efficacy, transformational leadership, and professional learning community, significantly affected students' achievement, directly and positively. On top of that, transformational leadership significantly affected both the variables of teachers' collective efficacy and professional learning community; the professional learning community affected teachers' collective efficacy directly and positively.

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 Finally, the test of invariability of the linear causal relationship model of students' achievement indicated that the two models, in either formal primary school or extended primary, were found to have the goodness of fit with the empirical data. Results contribute significantly to knowledge by proposing the causal relationship model to provide a connection between the three key factors, namely transformational leadership, professional learning community, and teachers' collective efficacy, to improve primary school students' achievement.

Keywords: Professional learning community, students' achievement, teachers' collective efficacy, transformational leadership

INTRODUCTION

Current educational reforms have been focused on improving instructional quality and student learning through teachers' collective efficacy (Goddard et al., 2007), transformational leadership (Prasertcharoensuk & Tang, 2016), and professional learning community (Ariratana et al., 2016; Somprach et al., 2017). Therefore, innovative strategies must be identified to improve the quality of Thai primary school education, particularly to serve the needs of individuals as well as those of Thai society. This is because primary school students' capabilities for competitiveness and creative cooperation will strengthen Thailand's international competitive position. Although Thailand has embarked on an ambitious series of reforms. schools and teachers have not always been given the support and skills they need to implement the recommended new approach. Thailand has a comprehensive system of standardized national assessments. namely Ordinary National Educational Tests (O-NETs), but it lacks the capacity to ensure that the O-NET tests reinforce the aims of the curriculum and support reform efforts rather than undermine them (OECD/ UNESCO, 2016). This is because school

administrators and teachers are required to have the capacity to gain knowledge and understanding, and, accordingly, develop their school systematically to promote student achievement (Sirisooksilp et al., 2017).

Goddard et al. (2007) suggested that collective efficacy benefited teachers' practice in various ways, which in turn affected students' achievement indirectly. This is further supported by recent studies (Daly et al., 2010) which have demonstrated that strong teacher networks for school conditions can enhance student achievement. Furthermore, education reforms can be motivated by indications that strong professional development communities of teachers, indeed, produce student learning (Newmann et al., 2000). As a result, collective efficacy is a concept that merges these benefits, as it articulates shared perceptions of a group's ability to achieve collective goals, and is a mechanism that can explain how configurations of teacher networks affect student learning or achievement (Goddard, 2002; Goddard et al., 2004).

According to Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) and McKibben (2013), principals are rated second to teachers in the improvement of student achievement and they account for up to 25% of the variance in student learning. As a result, Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) suggested that principal preparation programs must provide a comprehensible focus on leadership practices and theory that would improve student learning. Previous research indicated

that effective and capable transformational principals were essential to produce the success of educational reform efforts (Al-Omari & Sharaah, 2012; Pugh et al., 2011). This is because transformational principals are able to generate positive school cultures (MacNeil et al., 2009) and strengthen their culture through celebrating successes and reinforcing the established standards and values (Turan & Bektas, 2013). Moreover, Prasertcharoensuk and Tang's (2016) hierarchical linear modeling findings showed that the effects of teachers' teaching behavior potentially emerged and, added together with the transformational leadership of school administrators, particularly in intellectual stimulation and contingency reward dimensions, would provide the greatest impact on teaching efficiency.

Stoll et al. (2006) emphasized that teachers' individual and collective capacity in a professional learning community, and its link with school-wide capacity, enabled the promotion of students' learning. They also argued that developing a professional learning community appeared to hold considerable promise of capacity building for sustainable improvement. Andrews and Lewis (2007) found that a professional learning community not only enhanced teachers' knowledge base but also had a significant impact on students' learning in Australia. Somprach et al. (2017) proposed that essential leadership styles would guide school principals in promoting teachers' participation in a professional learning community, which, in turn, would improve students' learning. They also found that there were four significant predictors, namely learning, transformational, collaborative, and individual leadership styles, which together contributed 55.6% of the variance in teachers' participation in a professional learning community.

The O-NET is administered annually by the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS) to Primary 6, Grade 9, and Grade 12 students according to the Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008 in Thailand. The O-NET aims to assess students' academic proficiency, provide information to the schools to improve teaching and learning activities, and evaluate the quality of education at the national level. However, as reported in the article 'O-Net scores still disappointed' of Online Reporters (2018), the ONET results taken by around 372,000 Grade 12 students were worse than the previous year, with average scores falling in all five key subjects tested in the 2017 academic year.

Basic education in Thailand is divided into six years of primary schooling (Grade 1 to Grade 6), followed by three years of lower secondary (Grade 7 to 9) and three years of upper secondary schooling (Grade 10 to 12). In 2003, compulsory education was extended to nine years (Grade 9), with all students expected to complete Grade 12 (Ministry of Education, 2007). Owing to some remote areas of Thailand not having any secondary schools, the existing primary schools have had to extend their educational service to lower secondary Grade 9, the so-called extended primary

school. This mainly aims to help students in remote areas to complete their compulsory education of nine years in order to fulfill the Thai Education Policy of 2003. A total of eight core subjects form the Thai National Curriculum: the Thai language, mathematics, science, social studies, religion and culture, health and physical education, arts, careers and technology, and foreign languages. However, teachers are encouraged to integrate local wisdom and culture so that it is consistent with the set learning standards of each of the core subject groups. The promotion of thinking skills, self-learning strategies, and moral development is at the heart of teaching and learning in the Thai National Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH AIMS

Even though past researchers (Goddard et al., 2007; Prasertcharoensuk & Tang, 2016; Somprach et al., 2017), as discussed above, had explored and proven that there were significant relationships between the independent variables such as transformational leadership, collective efficacy, and professional learning community toward the dependent variable that was students' achievement but the researchers would like to apply Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to determine whether a model which consists of all study variables is valid. The strengths of using SEM in our research were to derive unbiased estimates for the relations between latent constructs because SEM allows multiple measures to be associated with a single latent construct. In other words, an SEM implies a structure of the covariance matrix of the measures. Since the model's parameters have been estimated, the resulting model-implied covariance matrix could then be compared to an empirical or data-based covariance matrix. If the two matrices are consistent with one another, then the SEM could be considered a reasonable explanation for relations between the measures. Hence, the researchers utilized a multivariate analysis to calculate the relationship of the dependent variable with each of the independent variables, while controlling for the effect of all other independent variables in the causal relationship model; this would be the major contribution on how to enhance student achievement.

The main aim of this research was to test the causal relationship model of transformational leadership, professional learning community, teachers' collective efficacy, and students' achievement. First of all, the researchers validated the appropriateness of the causal relationship model of students' achievement according to the evident data. This was followed by examining the direct, indirect, and overall effects of the causal relationship on student achievement. In addition, the researchers also studied the invariability of the constructed linear structural model when comparing the formal primary schools (Kindergarten to Grade 6) and extended primary schools (Kindergarten through Grade 9).

The variables included in this research, namely transformational leadership, professional learning community, teachers' collective efficacy, and students' achievement are elucidated in Figure 1. Transformational leadership is defined as a paradigm in which the school administrator influences the teachers to perform beyond expectations by making them more aware of the importance and value of goals (Prasertcharoensuk & Tang, 2016). Prasertcharoensuk and Tang (2016) found that transformational leadership acted at the macro-level with five dimensions that could be used to explain 81.76% of teaching efficiency variance. As a result, the researchers proposed five dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and creation of supportive school culture. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) provided support for the hypothesized factor structure of the measures selected to assess these dimensions, and also provided support for the discriminant validity of the dimensions with each other. Idealized influence in this study means the ability of the school administrator to elicit pride, faith, and respect from their employees (Covin et al., 1997). Inspirational motivation refers to the degree to which a school administrator articulates the vision that is appealing and inspirational to employees (Bass, 1999). Intellectual stimulation is defined as the behavior of a school administrator who develops the teachers' ability and inclination to think about problems in a new way (Rafferty & Giffin, 2006). Individual

consideration refers to paying attention to each teacher or dealing with his or her problems (Bass, 1999). The creation of a supportive school culture means a number of behaviors including articulating an ideology that enhances goal clarity, task focus, and value congruence by the school administrator to create a supportive school culture (House, 1977).

The professional learning community model, which was proposed by Borman (2012), was utilized in this research. There are six characteristics in this professional learning community model, namely shared vision and values, supportive and participatory leadership, cooperating and applying learning power, cooperating in good practice, relation/structural supporting condition, and outcome-orientation and continuous development. The shared vision and values characteristic means that all school staff, including the school administrator, are instrumental in the development of the school's mission and vision statement. The supportive and participatory leadership characteristic refers to a school administrator and teachers illuminating and cultivating norms among themselves regarding quality standards for student performance and taking cooperative responsibility for the students' achievement. Cooperating and applying the learning power characteristic refers to teachers who focus on student learning as the end consequence, and on teaching as the means to achieve it. Cooperating in the good practice characteristic is a school practice that is co-constructed from beliefs and

knowledge of the entire staff relating to how it can best assist the school's students. Next, the relation/structural supporting condition characteristic means a group of collaborative teams who share the collective purpose to improve instruction and learning. Finally, the outcome-orientation and continuous development characteristic refer to all the school staff routinely sharing expertise and perspectives on teaching and learning processes, examining student data, and developing a sense of mutual support and shared responsibility for effective instruction (Somprach et al., 2017).

Collective efficacy is conceptualized as a group-level phenomenon that links learning and the functioning of the teacher

groups. Bandura (1997) defined collective efficacy as a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the teaching actions required to produce the given levels of achievement. As such, collective efficacy in this research encompasses the teaching actions such as instructional analysis, instructional competency evaluation, experiences from the success of oneself and others, social influence, and emotional condition. The dependent variable of this study is the students' achievement, which is measured by their O-NET score in the five core subjects: mathematics, sciences, social studies, Thai language, and English.

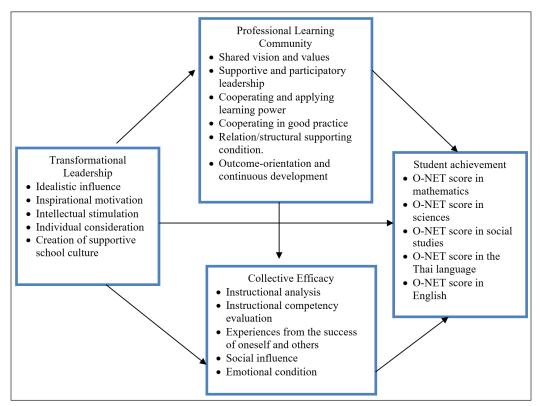


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

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METHOD

The researchers employed causal research, or so-called explanatory research design, to investigate the cause-and-effect relationships. This study was based on the premise that transformational leadership was performed as an external latent variable, while the professional learning community, teachers' collective efficacy, and students' achievement were the three internal latent variables. Meanwhile, the professional learning community and teachers' collective efficacy were the two mediating latent variables. In order to determine causality, it is essential for researchers to observe variation in the variables (transformational leadership of school administrator, professional learning community, teachers' collective efficacy) assumed to cause the change in the other variable (students' achievement), and then measure the changes in the students' achievement. Other confounding influences must be controlled for, so they do not distort the results, by using a statistical method. Multiple regression was employed as a group of related statistical techniques that control for various causative influences other than the ones being studied. If the data showed sufficient variation in the hypothesized explanatory variable of interest, its effect, if any, upon the potentially influenced variable can be measured (Brains et al., 2011).

Multistage sampling was employed as a sampling method that divided all the primary public schools in Thailand into clusters for conducting the research. The sampling method is suitable as the population is too vast and samples were from different types of primary schools located throughout Thailand. The samples were chosen randomly by regions, with 30% being selected from each region. This was followed by cities and educational service area offices with two different types of primary public schools. Schools were the unit of analysis. The researchers referred to the rule of thumb of Marsh et al. (1998) to determine adequate sample size (N) for a particular application of CFA; this included, but was not limited to $N \ge 200$, the ratio of N to the number of variables in a model (p), $N/p \ge 10$; the ratio of N to the number of model parameters (q), N/q \geq 5; and an inverse relationship between construct reliability and adequate N. In this case, there were 52 parameters, four latent variables, and 21 observed variables. As a result, the selected target group consisted of 1,200 school administrators and teachers who worked in the 600 schools under the administration of 23 Primary Education Service Areas Offices throughout Thailand. These 600 schools comprised 300 formal primary schools and 300 extended primary schools. The proportion of school administrators to teachers was 1 to 1, giving a total of 600 samples from each target group. Table 1 shows the distribution of the samples.

The researchers utilized a survey questionnaire as a method to collect quantitative data. The Thai language survey questionnaire instrument comprised 276 items and divided into three sections. A fivepoint Likert scale was used. Section A was intended to collect information pertaining to respondents' perceptions of transformational

Region	Cities	Educational Service Area Offices	Total Primary Public Schools	No. of Formal Primary Schools	No. of Extended Primary Schools
North	Chiang Mai	1	93	8	8
	Utradit	1	177	15	15
	Phayao	1	100	9	9
Northeastern	Khon Kaen	5	259	22	22
	Bungkan	1	215	18	18
	Ubon Ratchatanee	1	252	22	22
	Chaiyaphoom	2	268	23	23
	Udonthani	3	214	18	18
	Sakon Nakhon	3	182	16	16
Central	Samutprakarn	2	71	6	6
	Saraburi	1	128	11	11
	Aunthong	1	152	13	13
	Nakhonprathom	1	127	11	11
	Supunburi	3	128	11	11
	Nakhonnayok	1	134	11	11
	Phetchaboon	2	161	14	14
East	Trad	1	111	9	9
	Prajenburi	1	127	11	11
West	Prajubkenekan	1	122	10	10
South	Ranong	1	85	7	7
	Chumporn	1	119	10	10
	Nakornsrithumrat	4	142	12	12
	Suratthanee	3	157	13	13
6	23	23	3524	300	300

Table 1

Distribution of samples using a multi-stage sampling method

leadership practice. There were questions about the five transformational leadership dimensions: idealistic influence (22 items), inspirational motivation (24 items), intellectual stimulation (20 items), individual consideration (31 items), and creation of supportive school culture (20 items), giving a total of 117 items. Section B was specifically designed by the researchers to gauge professional learning community practice at their schools. There were a total of 85 items encompassing shared vision and values (11 items), supporting and participatory leadership (12 items), cooperating and applying learning power (12 items), cooperating in good practice (13 items), relation/structural supporting condition (19 items), and outcomeorientation and continuous development (18 items). Section C of the instrument was used to gauge information about the teachers' collective efficacy. This section consisted of 74 items including instructional analysis (17 items), instructional competency evaluation (20 items), experiences from the success of oneself and others (14 items), social influence (8 items), and emotional condition (15 items).

This questionnaire was sent to five experts for comments and feedback on content validity. Following the receipt of feedback, the content validity index values were ranged from .80 to 1.00. This was followed by the reliability pilot testing of the questionnaire with 30 schools under the administration of the Primary Education Area Office 1, Lampang, using the same ratio of school administrators and teachers in the actual study, i.e. 1 to 1, giving a total of 60 pilot study candidates. The high Cronbach alpha values of .97, .98, and .99 were obtained from Section A to C, respectively. The researchers concluded that the instrument was valid and reliable to use because the content validity index and reliability values were high.

Researchers distributed questionnaires to 1,200 research schools with assistance from the officers in the Primary Educational Service Area Offices throughout Thailand in the first round of data collection. Researchers received 879 schools' responses, which was equivalent to 73.25%. Researchers continued with a second follow-up and successfully received an additional 321 schools' responses, giving a total of 1,189 schools: the response rate was 99.08%.

Structural Equation Modeling, which is a combination of factor analysis and regression or path analysis, was utilized in this research, as it implies a structure for the covariance between the observed variables. SEM is often used on theoretical constructs which are represented by the latent factor. This implies a structure for the covariance between the observed variables. The M-plus 7.30 program was utilized to allow the model to be specified in a graphical way, by letting the user draw the path diagram directly in an interactive command window. CFA is a part of SEM and plays an important role in measurement model validation in a path or structural analysis (Brown, 2006). SEM was used to obtain estimates of the parameters of the model, for example, the factor loading, the variances and covariance of the factor, and the residual error variances of the observed variables. This was followed by assessing the fit of the model, for example, to assess whether the model itself provided a good fit to the data.

RESULTS

The results of this research are presented in accordance with the research aims indicated above. The initial results are factor loading and the validity of observable variables to test the goodness of fit of the constructed linear structural model with the empirical data. This is followed by examining the direct, indirect, and collective effects of causal factors that affect primary public school students' achievement. Finally, the researchers present the invariability of the constructed linear structural model between formal primary public schools and extended primary public schools, thus comparing the different effects of the three groups of variables.

Goodness of Fit of the Constructed Linear Structural Model with the Empirical Data

The result of the initial phase aimed to obtain estimates of the parameter of the constructed linear structural model, the factor loading, and the validity of observable factors of primary public school students' achievement. As indicated in Table 2 below, factor loading of all the primary public school students' achievement factors was statistically significant at .01; the exception was the creation of supportive school culture, which was statistically significant at .05.

Table 2

Factor loading, validity of observed variables, and coefficient of prediction

Components of measuring model		Fac	tor loadir	ng matrix	
-	b	β	SE	t	\mathbb{R}^2
Transformational leadership					
Idealized influence	1.000	.977	.003	369.008**	.954
Inspirational motivation	.982	.967	.003	309.761**	.935
Intellectual stimulation	1.170	.995	.000	4526.207**	.989
Individualized consideration	1.191	.990	.000	2345.147**	.980
Creation supportive school culture	1.150	.998	.000	13110.357*	.996
Professional learning community					
Shared visions and values	1.000	.977	.003	335.820**	.955
Supporting and participatory leadership	.874	.978	.003	312.754**	.957
Cooperating and applying learning power	1.034	.991	.001	1092.332**	.982
Cooperating in good practice	1.019	.997	.000	7537.137**	.994
Relation/structural supporting condition	.945	.989	.002	577.815**	.978
Outcome-orientation and continuous development	.985	.974	.003	330.700**	.949
Collective efficacy					
Instructional analysis	1.000	.992	.000	3074.535**	.984
Instructional competency evaluation	1.139	.977	.002	498.219**	.955
Experiences from the success of oneself and others	1.037	.944	.005	171.969**	.892
Social Influence	.966	.997	.000	6963.286**	.993
Emotional condition	.428	.125	.027	4.573**	.016
Student achievement					
O-NET score in mathematics	1.396	.808	.012	67.462**	.652
O-NET score in sciences	1.146	.791	.013	62.899**	.625
O-NET score in social studies	1.307	.888	.009	103.240**	.788
O-NET score in Thai language	1.000	.870	.008	102.745**	.756
O-NET score in English	1.216	.761	.014	53.344**	.579

 R^2 of SEM of student achievement (F4) = .792

 R^2 of SEM of teachers' collective efficacy (F3) = .888

 R^2 of SEM of professional learning community (F2) = .922

Note: *p<.05; **p<.01

Factor loading is basically the correlation coefficient for the primary school students' achievement model and each factor. Factor loading shows the variance explained by the variable on that particular factor. In the SEM approach, as a rule of thumb, 0.7 or higher factor loading represents that the factor extracts sufficient variance from that variable. As a result, each factor in the primary public school students' achievement model had been taken into consideration. The co-variance with primary public school students' achievement factors was 79.2%. The factor with the highest factor loading was transformational leadership. This was followed by the professional learning community. The factor that had the lowest factor loading was collective teacher efficacy. As a result, all the latent variables were found to be important constructs of primary public school students' achievement.

The linear SEM of factors affecting the primary students' achievement was found to have goodness fit with the evident data or well corrected with empirical data, with $\chi^2 = 58.831$, df = 45, *p*-value = .080, CFI = 1.000, TLI = .999, RMSEA = .016, SRMR = .007, and $\chi^2/df = 1.307$. This result revealed that the structural model was valid and correlated with the CFI value and TLI value, which were close to 1, the RMSEA value < .06, SRMR value <.08, and χ^2/df

Effects of Causal Relationships on Students' Achievement

The direct effect results showed that: (i) teachers' collective efficacy, transformational leadership, and professional learning community have significant, positive and direct effects on student achievement at .01 significant level, with the coefficients of effect sizes being .760, .140 and .01, respectively; (ii) professional learning community and transformational leadership also have significant, positive and direct effects on the teachers' collective efficacy at .01 significant level, with the coefficient of effect sizes at .880 and .064, respectively; and (iii), transformational leadership was found to have a significant, positive and direct effect on the professional learning community at .01 significant level, with the coefficient of effect size at .960.

In addition, the indirect effect results indicated that: (i) professional learning community and transformational leadership have significant, positive and indirect effects on students' achievement via the teachers' collective efficacy at .01 significant level, with the coefficients of effect sizes of .669 and .049, respectively; and (ii), transformational leadership has a significant, positive and indirect effect on students' achievement through the professional learning community at .01 significant level, with the coefficient of the effect size of .845.

Finally, the overall effect showed the highest coefficient of effect size, for example, 1.620, which was statistically significant at .01 level. The overall teachers' collective efficacy showed the highest coefficient of effect size, followed by the professional learning community and transformational leadership, with the overall effects of .760, .670, and .190, respectively, at a .01 significant level.

The results from the coefficient of prediction (R^2) revealed that: (i) transformational leadership, professional learning community, and teachers' collective efficacy jointly accounted for 79.2% of the variation in the students' achievement; (ii) transformational leadership and professional learning community can explain 88.8% of the variation in teachers' collective efficacy; and (iii), transformational leadership accounted for 92.2% of the variation in the professional learning community. Table 3 shows the direct, indirect, and overall effects of the causal relationship model, while Figure 2 shows the empirical model of the structural relation model in all types of primary schools.

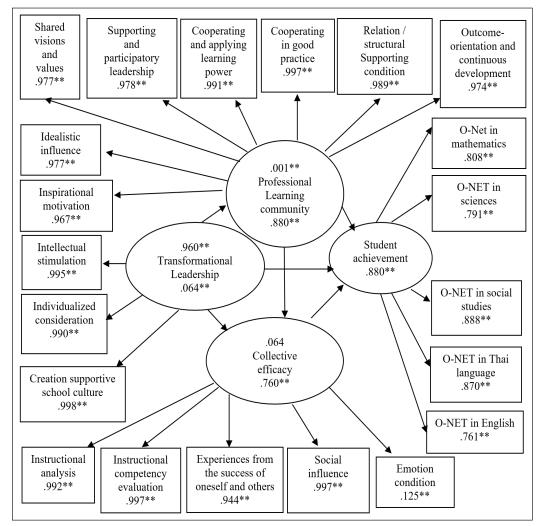


Figure 2. Empirical structural relation model of students' achievement for all types of primary schools

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3014

Predicting variables		Student achievement (F4)	wement (F4)		Teac	hers' collect	Teachers' collective efficacy (F3)	(F3)	Profession	Professional learning community (F2)	community
	DE	E	[1]	OE	DE	I	Ε	OE	DE	Ε	OE
		F3	F2			F3	F2				
Transformational Leadership (F1)	.140**	.049**	.001**	.190**	.064**	1	.845**	**606.	**096.	1	**096.
Professional learning community (F2)	.001**	.669**		.670**	.880**		, ,	.880*	1		ı
Teacher collective efficacy	.760**			.760**		ı	1				ı

Causal Relationship Model of Student Achievement

Test of Invariability of the Constructed Linear Structural Model between Formal Primary School and Extended Primary Schools

The test of invariability of the constructed linear structural model between the formal primary schools (Kindergarten to Grade 6) and the extended primary schools (Kindergarten to Grade 9) was invariable, with the following parameters: $\chi^2 = 204.649$, df=124, p=.00, CFI=.99, TLI=1.00, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .03, and χ^2 /df=1.65.

Although the value of χ^2 was statistically significant (p < .05), χ^2 /df was still lower than 2; CFI and TLI were 1; RMSEA was lower than .07; and SRMR was lower than .08, which were all in the acceptable range (Hooper et al., 2008). This implies that the model had the goodness of fit with the empirical data and correlated with the assumption. The details of the results are presented in Table 4, Table 5, Figure 3, and Figure 4.

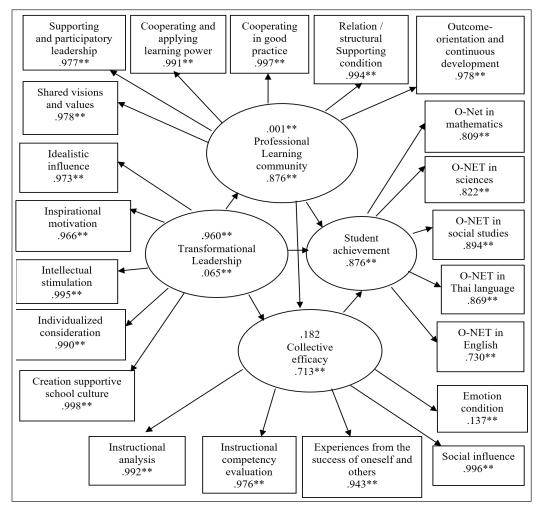


Figure 3. Empirical structural relation model of student achievement for formal primary schools

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Table 4

Comparative results of factor loading, validity of observed variables, and coefficient of prediction

Components of the constructed		Types o	of schools	
linear structural model	Formal Primary	/ School (ELE)	Extended Primar	y School (EXT)
	β	R ²	β	\mathbb{R}^2
Transformational leadership				
Idealized influence	.973**	.947	.979**	.959
Inspirational motivation	.966**	.934	.967**	.935
Intellectual stimulation	.995**	.989	.995**	.989
Individualized consideration	.990**	.979	.990**	.979
Creation supportive school culture	.998**	.996	.998**	.996
Professional learning community				
Shared visions and values	.978**	.956	.976**	.952
Supporting and participatory leadership	.977**	.954	.978**	.957
Cooperating and applying learning power	.991**	.983	.991**	.982
Cooperating in good practice	.997**	.993	.997**	.994
Relation/structural supporting conditions	.994**	.987	.983**	.967
Outcome-orientation and continuous development	.978**	.956	.970**	.942
Teachers' collective efficacy				
Instructional analysis	.992**	.984	.992**	.985
Instructional competency evaluation	.976**	.953	.980**	.960
Experiences from success of oneself and others	.943**	.889	.948**	.898
Social influence	.996**	.993	.997**	.993
Emotional condition	.137*	.019	.113*	.013
Student achievement				
O-NET score in mathematics	.809**	.655	.798**	.637
O-NET score in sciences	.822**	.676	.736**	.541
O-NET score in social studies	.894**	.800	.867**	.752
O-NET score in Thai language	.869**	.755	.859**	.739
O-NET score in English	.730**	.533	.784**	.615

Note:

***p*<.01; **p*<.05

 R^2 of SEM of student achievement in ELE (F4) = .778

 R^2 of SEM of student achievement in EXT (F4) = .806

 R^2 of SEM of collective efficacy in ELE (F3) = .882

 R^2 of SEM of collective efficacy in EXT (F3) = .890

 R^2 of SEM of professional learning community in ELE (F2) = .922

 R^2 of SEM of professional learning community in EXT (F2) = .922

Predicting variables		Student ach	Student achievement (F4)		Tea	chers' colle	Teachers' collective efficacy (F3)	(F3)	Profession	al learning (F2)	Professional learning community (F2)
	DE		IE	OE	DE		IE	OE	DE	IE	OE
		F3	F2			F3	F2				
Formal Primary School GETEN											
Transformational Leadership (F1)	.182**	.047**	.001**	.230**	.065**	ı	.841**	.906	**096.		**096.
Professional learning community (F2)	.001**	.624**	1	.625**	.876**	ı		.876*	1		
Teachers' collective efficacy (F3)	.713**		,	.713**		ı	1	,	I		1
Extended Primary School (EXT)											
Transformational Leadership (F1)	.007**	.056**	.001**	.064**	.063**		.848**	.911**	**096.		**096.
Professional learning community (F2)	.001**	.786**	,	.787**	.883**	1		.883**	I	1	1
Teachers' collective efficacv (F3)	.890**	I	ı	.890**	ı	ı		I	ı	, ,	ı

Ś FCENTA ltinla ς Table 5 Results o

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Thanomwan Prasertcharoensuk, Jenphop Chaiwan, Keow Ngang Tang and Pattrawadee Makmee

Causal Relationship Model of Student Achievement

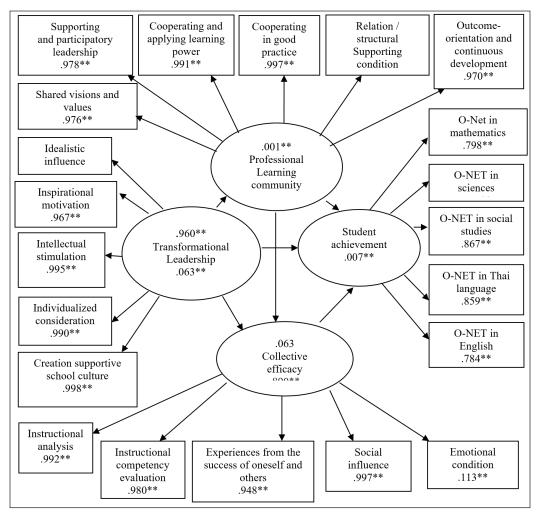


Figure 4. Empirical structural relation model of students' achievement for extended primary schools

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of this research revealed that the proportion of variance of students' achievement in all types of primary schools in Thailand could be explained by the causal relationship model, which comprised transformational leadership, professional learning community, and teachers' collective efficacy, at 79.2%. This implies that all the latent variables of this causal relationship model were found to be the important construct of the causal relationship model of primary public school students' achievement. On top of that, the causal relationship model showed the goodness of fit, which could be described as how well it fits a set of observed variables. The measures of goodness of fit, in this case, are typically summarized in the discrepancy between the observed values and the values expected under the causal relationship model are acceptable. On this line of reasoning, the researchers found the attempt to fit the causal relationship model to the observed data was well-matched with the empirical data.

In addition, teachers' collective efficacy had the highest direct and indirect effects on students' achievement. This implies that those teachers who are practicing their collective efficacy such as conducting self-assessment, developing teaching competency, having good group influence in teaching and dedicating, doing their research, analyzing their job, seeking for new knowledge, and using new teaching methods to improve their capabilities could affect their students' achievement. This result is in accordance with Eells's (2011) and Voelkel's (2011) results. Eells (2011) conducted a meta-analysis regarding the correlation between teachers' collective efficacy and student achievement from 26 research studies; they highlighted that the teachers' collective efficacy such as shared beliefs had a direct positive impact on students' achievement. This is supported by Voelkel's (2011) study, which found that teachers' collective efficacy had the highest effect on student achievement compared to other factors.

Furthermore, the result further showed that the professional learning community had both direct and indirect effects on students' achievement. This result supports Somprach et al.'s (2017) findings. They mentioned that teachers who worked in a professional learning community shared decision-making about educational issues in their school, and they learnt together to concentrate their efforts toward student learning improvement, which positively impacted students' achievement. Further, the result correlates with those of Brooks (2013), Claycomb (2014), Lomos (2012), and Wiseman and Arroyo (2011). For example, Wiseman and Arroyo (2011) carried out a meta-analysis study on 13 theses done from 2008 to 2010; they found that nine out of the 13 studies showed a significant correlation between the professional learning community and students' achievement.

Finally, the results of this research showed that transformational leadership not only had its direct and indirect effects on students' achievement but also on professional learning community and teacher efficacy. The results were congruent with those of Chen (2014) and Prasertcharoensuk and Tang (2016) in terms of the significant relationship between transformational leadership and students' achievement. Chen (2014) found that the transformational leadership of school administrators had improved the students' achievement scores in the Californian standardized test. Moreover, Prasercharoensuk and Tang (2016) indicated that teachers' teaching behaviors were potentially merged and structured together with the transformational leadership of school administrators; in return, this improved students' achievement. The effects of transformational leadership on the professional learning community were found to be parallel with the findings of Chen and Yu (2014) as well as Somprach et al. (2017). Both studies found that transformational leadership was a significant

predictor of the professional learning community. On top of that, the result of the effect of transformational leadership on teachers' collective efficacy was in agreement with the study of Dussault et al. (2008). They found that 487 teachers from 40 public schools perceived the transformational leadership was correlated positively and significantly with teachers' collective efficacy.

Despite the government's rhetoric in support of Education for All (EFA), particularly universal primary education, the EFA framework never became an integral part of planning within the Ministry of Education. Given Thailand's development status, the National Education Reform of primary education (93%) is problematic, as are the disparities among the continued disadvantage of remote areas such as extended primary public school students and the system's poor performance in ONETs (Shaeffer, 2018). Therefore, the entire results of this research, i.e. the causal relationship model, will help to solve the above problems by giving more attention to teachers' collective efficacy and professional learning community from the teachers' perspective, and transformational leadership from the school administrators' perspective. The ultimate problems such as the low capacity of teachers trained more in content than in pedagogy (Manmai et al., 2020), inequality among teachers (Tang & Lim, 2015), and school administrators seeing themselves more as civil servants than transformational leaders (Somprach et al., 2016), will be automatically dissolved by this causal relationship model.

Based on the aforesaid discussion, the Thai primary school administrators and teachers should comprehend and be aware of the significance of the causal relationship between transformational leadership, professional learning community, and teachers' collective efficacy toward students' achievement. Following this line of reasoning, educational directors of Primary Educational Service Areas should provide all the necessary training and program development to school administrators and teachers to maximize their instructional potential and outcomes.

The researchers would like to suggest that the Thailand Ministry of Education utilizes the results of this research in preparing school administrator preparation or teacher teaching professional programs so that the future primary school administrators and teachers are well equipped with the knowledge and skills of transformational leadership, professional development, and collective efficacy. Through heightening awareness of a school's capacity for organizing and implementing effective interventions in the three essential latent variables of this causal relationship model, student achievement is a powerful concept for both leadership and the successful implementation of reform.

In conclusion, the results of this study could be related to the global education context, like Ross and Gray (2006) also found that transformational leadership had an impact on the collective teacher efficacy of a school; teacher efficacy alone predicted teacher commitment to community partnerships, and transformational leadership had direct and indirect effects on teachers' commitment to school missions and commitment to the professional learning community. In this line of reasoning, the empirical models of this study can be applied not only in Thailand but also across global educational contexts.

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SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

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E-Moderation Skills in Discussion Forums: Patterns of Online Interactions for Knowledge Construction

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ABSTRACT

Discussion forums have the potential for enabling knowledge construction during online interactions, especially when facilitated by a skilled e-moderator. Unfortunately, most e-moderators are not provided training for facilitating discussions, and hence may only summarise information and deliver factual knowledge without encouraging elaboration or reflection among the learners. Hence, this study focused on developing e-moderation skills in discussion forums by investigating the patterns of interactions among 24 students in an undergraduate course. This study employed one group pre-test and post-test experimental group design to measure student's interaction patterns after undergoing training for e-moderation. After moderating online discussion forums, a content analysis of the

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 transcripts of the discourse in their forum was conducted to understand the nature of the interaction patterns and the quality of the discussions. The results revealed that training had contributed to a significant increase in domains of social interaction, sharing information, egocentric elaboration, allocentric elaboration, application and transfer, coordination, and reflection. The skillset in this study can be applied by e-moderators to effectively facilitate online learning for knowledge development. It is recommended that instructors in higher education institutions be equipped with skills to scaffold students in constructing knowledge.

Keywords: Discussion forum, e-moderator, interaction pattern, knowledge-construction

INTRODUCTION

Higher education institutions are delivering more courses in the blended mode of instruction, using asynchronous and synchronous computer technologies for communication (Tseng et al., 2016). Learning Management Systems (LMS) are now being used as platforms for an ubiquitous learning experience to assign tasks and facilitate learning online (Ain et al., 2016).

One of the tools widely used for interaction in LMS is the discussion forum (Kent et al., 2016). Discussion forums can replace the interactions of a face-to-face class with interesting learning opportunities (Orooji & Taghiyareh, 2015). While it can be used for knowledge generation, the quality of interactions within the forum depends on the task assigned and the skills of the e-moderator (DeWitt et al., 2016). The e-moderator manages the online learning environment and facilitates the interactions (Salmon, 2012). Although the role of the e-moderator is important, students at higher education institutions are not exposed to e-moderating skills.

The Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) emphasizes on online learning as an integral part in higher education for lifelong learning and recommends 70% of programmes utilise blended learning for the transformation of undergraduate courses (MOHE, 2015).

Blended learning is seen as the impetus for innovation. Hence, having a framework for developing e-moderation skills to facilitate interactivity in discussion forums in the higher education is important. A comprehensive e-moderator training program can improve the nature and quality of e-moderation (Ghadirian et al., 2016).

The Five-Stage Model of Online Teaching and Learning (Salmon, 2012) dives the e-moderation process in the following stages: access and motivation, online socialization, information exchange, knowledge construction, and development. Each stage requires the e-moderator's involvement and commitment, from monitoring the course participants' actions and contributions to intervening to give advice and guidance (Salmon, 2013; Schökler, 2015).

E-moderator skills such as understanding the online processes, having content expertise, suitable personal characteristics and technical and online communication skills are needed for competency (Salmon, 2013). In addition, Ng et al. (2009) developed e-moderation techniques which could contribute to sustaining discussions: thanking others, clarifying/elaborating, setting new directions, considering others' ideas, asking open-ended questions, and encouraging contribution. E-moderators should also acquire organizational, intellectual, social, technological, and pedagogical skills (Sallán et al., 2010). In addition, Smet et al. (2008) also stated that e-moderators needed to be motivators, informers, and had knowledge constructor skills in an online environment.

However, most e-moderators only summarize information and do not elaborate or encourage reflection, leading to the delivery rather than development of knowledge as students' only focus on factual knowledge (Roscoe & Chi, 2007; Schökler, 2015). Hence, e-moderators need to be equipped with the skills to support reflective knowledge-building in online learning environments.

Previous research have focused on discussion forums as a writing tool (Biasutti, 2017; Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016) on thread growth patterns (Ghadirian et al., 2016; Kent et al., 2016; Park, 2015), the role of instructors (Cho & Tobias, 2016; Ertmer & Koehler, 2015; Hew, 2015), patterns of interactivity among students (Hou et al., 2015; Marbouti, 2012; Park, 2015; Wei et al., 2015) and the knowledge building process (Lai, 2015). Some studies investigated the use of collaborative tools for discussion such as wikis (DeWitt et al., 2014), interactive walls, Padlet (DeWitt & Koh, 2020), and resources such as e-books (Noor et al., 2015).

There has not been much research done on developing skills among e-moderators especially among undergraduates in Malaysia. Hence, this study investigates the difference in the patterns of interactions in a discussion forum before and after e-moderation training among undergraduates. It is important to measure the patterns of interactions as this would indicate the quality of the online discussions. The research questions are:

- 1. What are the patterns of students' interactions in the discussion forum without any e-moderation?
- 2. What are the patterns of students' interactions in the discussion forum after training for e-moderation was given?
- 3. Are there any significant differences in the students' interaction patterns before and after the training for e-moderation?

SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY

Learning occurs through collaboration when knowledge, skills, and attitudes arising from group interactions develop the social experiences among students (Fu & Hwang, 2018).

Social interaction and culture during collaboration in authentic contexts, such as discussion forums, encourage learning with peers and instructors (Lemke, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978).

Interactions contribute to the exchange of knowledge among peers. However, knowledge exchange alone is insufficient as students need to combine their existing knowledge with new information to create new knowledge (Xie & Ke, 2011). Deep learning and conceptual changes happen during discussion and argumentation (Xie & Ke, 2011; Yang, 2016). Hence, higher mental functions (attention, sensation, perception, and memory) using mediator tools and signs (spoken and written words) enable the students to advance cognitively within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Lemke, 2001; So & Brush, 2008; Wertsch, 1998). Hence, interaction with more capable peers and suitable learning tasks can improve the ZPD (De Wever et al., 2010).

Cultural tools such as discussion forums can be used to internalize for higher thinking skills during interactions to be personally meaningful for students (Bruner, 1966; Brunings et al., 1990; Vygotsky, 1978).

e-Moderation in Discussion Forums

Discussion forums normally have a textbased, topic-centred interface where students can explicitly express their thoughts (Hou et al., 2015). The forum, available 24-hours-a-day 7-days-a-week regardless of geographical location, makes it convenient to access (Kent et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2009). Students who are physically isolated in online classes face obstacles in learning. Hence, interactions in discussion forums help students feel connected (Xi & Ke, 2011). Forums creates opportunities to enhance students' learning through collaboration (Hew & Cheung, 2013; Kent et al., 2016).

There is equal opportunity to participate in discussions and create collective knowledge when sharing, elaborating, and exchanging ideas (Cho & Tobias, 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Yang, 2016). Social interaction enhances learning (Biasutti, 2015; Hou et al., 2015) as students interact to construct shared experiences and understanding of the world (Carceller et al., 2015; Jones & Ryan, 2014).

Although there are many benefits of discussion forums, it can only be optimized if students participate, interact and invest considerable mental effort in the learning activities (Asterhan & Schwarz, 2010; Kent et al., 2016).

Unfortunately, students have difficulty in sustaining discussions. The computerconferencing interface which typically concentrates more on recent postings and less on the older messages impedes discussions (Chan et al., 2009). Other issues are inappropriate behaviour of the participants (Hewitt, 2003), design of the discussion topic (Guzdial & Turns, 2000), and students characteristics (Xie, 2013; Xie & Ke, 2011).

Hence, a skilled moderator can encourage participation, and foster interactions in an online discussion forum (Chan et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2009; Hew, 2015). Salmon (2012) stated 'a moderator is a person who presides over a meeting, electronic meeting or conferences with a wider range of expertise' (p. 3). The moderator requires skills in keeping the discussion on track (Martinho et al., 2014), giving encouragement (Martinho et al., 2014; Sloan, 2015; Xie & Ke, 2011), helping students overcome technical difficulties support (Salmon, 2013; Xie & Ke, 2011) and establishing ground rules (Yeh & Lahman, 2007). The moderator needs to know psychology and use problem-centric, curiosity-arousing words when initiating discussions (Ng et al., 2009), and be able to draw students' attention to opposing perspectives (Yeh & Lahman, 2007).

Salmon's Five Stage Model

The Five Stage Model has a structured developmental process and can be used across different education levels for both online and blended learning (Salmon, 2002, 2012; Schökler, 2015). The role and competencies e-moderators require are specified and can be used to design a training module to build expertise (Salmon, 2012; Yang et al., 2012). Stage one, emphasizes access to the LMS for working remotely and motivation for learning as e-moderators need to welcome students and provide support. Stage 2 is familiarization with the new online environment as one builds a new online identity and forms relationships within the group. E-moderators monitor the discussion and ensure students' comfort.

Stage 3 is access to information. Information exchange occurs freely among group members as they share their personal experiences and co-operate to achieve common goals. E-moderators guide the discussion, encourage contributions, highlighting and summarizing discussions to ensure continuity.

Stage 4 is synthesis of knowledge. Students exchange knowledge with their peers and synthesize the knowledge. E-moderators support the knowledge construction process and encourage students to widen their viewpoints and appreciate differing perspectives. Stage 5 is reflection and self-evaluation of their learning and peers' thought process. Students integrate their online experiences and begin the knowledge-building process (Koh et al., 2014). E-moderators facilitate the process by giving constructive feedback and allow students to take responsibility for their learning.

Different e-moderation skills are required at each stage as the interactivity and activity differs. The final stage requires more self-regulated and individual learning experiences.

Interaction Patterns in Online Learning Interaction Model

The Online Learning Interaction Model analysis scheme is a framework for identifying patterns of interactions in a discussion forum. There are three domains: social interaction, knowledge construction, and regulation of learning, and several subdomains: sharing information, egocentric elaboration, allocentric elaboration, application and transfer and coordination, reflection, and technical issues (Xie & Ke, 2011). Social interaction is essential to ensure knowledge creation occurs at the later stages (DeWitt et al., 2014). Sharing greetings and integrating emotions ensures students' engagement and motivation (Xie, 2013).

Knowledge construction begins occurs when students construct new knowledge after receiving input from peers (De Wever et al., 2006; Smet et al., 2010; Weinberger et al., 2007). Activities such as discussions and projects encourage different

viewpoints (Hou & Wu, 2011) while social interactions encourages peer learning (Hou et al., 2015). Students express their own personal experiences, conveying their newly constructed knowledge among the community, making learning meaningful in egocentric elaboration (Sun et al., 2018; Xie & Ke, 2011). Allocentric elaboration processes enable students to develop critical thinking skills by synthesising and developing arguments based on their peers' comments or ideas (Xie & Ke, 2011). Students are able to compare multiple perspectives as they interpret and reorganize the information (Gašević et al., 2015; Kent et al., 2016; Xie & Ke, 2011).

Elaboration processes enable students to integrate newly constructed knowledge through the application and transfer of knowledge in higher-level cognitive interactions in the discussion forums (Gunawardena et al., 1997; Xie & Ke, 2011). Students who are more self-regulated, reflect upon their own learning, and facilitation in the form of technical and managerial skills are important during this learning process (Xie & Ke, 2011; Zumbrunn et al., 2011).

The Online Learning Interaction Model is a comprehensive analytical framework for examining students' learning in online discussions as compared to other coding systems (Gunawardena et al., 1997; Newman et al., 1995; Schellens & Valcke, 2006).

METHOD

Design of the Study

A quasi-experimental design was used in this

study as random selection and assignment of participants to control and experimental groups was not possible (Cohen et al., 2011). An experimental intervention where training for e-moderation (X) was introduced and online learning interaction patterns before (O_1) and after the intervention (O_2) was measured. The difference between prescores and post-scores contributed to the effect of the intervention.

Sample

The sample was 24 first-year undergraduate students in their first semester enrolled in a counselling course at a public higher education institution. There were 19 females (79.2%) and 5 males (20.8%) volunteers aged between 20 (96.0%) and 21 (4.0%) years. The students were digital natives who used social microblogs (e.g. Facebook). However, they did not have any exposure to using discussion forums for learning.

Procedure

The study was conducted over five weeks. During the first week, the students participated in the first set of forums on "Cyberbullying and Online Predators". The students explored the discussion forum platform and continued the discussions online for a week. In the second week, e-moderation training was conducted over a period of two weeks where students were briefed face-to-face on the LMS to familiarize with the learning platform as they had no prior experience with the concept of e-moderation. The expectations on the quality of discussions shared the fivestep e-moderation model. The e-moderator's role was scripted and modelled (Salmon 2002; 2012; Ng et al., 2009; Thormann, et al., 2013). A mock discussion forum with groups of six members, was set-up for practice as students took turns being the e-moderator.

On completion of the training, students were assigned to discuss on "ICT Usage in the Field of Counselling". Students would be randomly assigned as e-moderator and take turns to manage discussions over three weeks. Students posted their ideas in the discussion forum while the instructors supported when necessary.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

A content analysis of the transcripts of the discussion in the 6 forum groups was conducted to understand the nature of the interaction and the quality of the discussions (Xie & Ke, 2011). Individual interaction patterns were also measured based on the frequency of elements in a domain. A minimum score of 1 was given the elements were rarely demonstrated and a maximum of 4 when frequently demonstrated. The scoring rubric was validated by two content experts who had 5 to 10 years of experience in teaching with online collaborative tools. Pre and post mean scores for each domain were used for the analysis. In order to ensure the consistency of the content analysis, the content was blind-coded by two researchers independently. The inter-rater reliability Cohen' Kappa (.90) was acceptable (Viera & Garrett, 2005). Any differences in coding

were moderated for agreement. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Patterns of Students' Interactions in the Discussion Forum Without e-Moderation

After a week, the students had generated a total of 213 posts which were classified according to the codes (see Table 1). Example of quotes identified with pseudonyms, are presented to highlight the pattern of student interaction. The highest number of posts was on sharing information (K1) (67 posts, 31.4%) probably because students could easily add factual content through internet search. There was no opinion or questions raised throughout the posting, as in the examples:

Online predators are criminals using the Internet to steal personal information or find prey. They are involved in crimes including identity theft, extortion, kidnapping, and sexual abuse of children [May:11-13]

The next highest domain was social interaction (S) (66 posts, 30.9%) where greetings were exchanged without evidence emotions as in the example:

Peace be upon you...Kids who are cyberbullied are more likely to.... [Yue:1-2]

A few students (40 posts, 18.7%) elaborated on points and shared knowledge (K2) without evidence of peers asking for explanations or clarification, example: As a counsellor, I think these two acts (Cyberbullying and Online Predators) are serious and should be controlled. This is because people should be more alert on what they are doing and don't shareanything which will harm you! [Joane:1015]

Around 12.2% (26 posts) reflected team collaboration (L1). Only new postings were responded to by peers and the older messages were ignored as students tended to forget previous postings and seldom extended the discussion. No summary of previous discussions was done.

There was little on K3, compared and synthesized or provided judgment on peers' multiple perspectives (4.69%, 10 posts). Students merely agreed on information provided by others without elaboration. There was no comparisons of ideas against peers' perspectives as in the example:

I agree with what been shared by others on cyberbully and online predators [Rose:6-7]

Similarly, for students evaluating their own learning (L2), only 1.41% (4 posts) reflected students' understanding of the topic discussed, example:

Thank you for the complete information. Before this, I might not be able to visualize clearly the issue of cyberbullying and online predators [Wein:10-11]

No evidence of interaction was found in two domains of K4 (application and transfer) and L3 (technical issues) of students applying new knowledge for future or hypothetical scenarios and students questioning on technological problems or assignment clarification, respectively.

Hence, before e-moderation, there were fewer students' posts. There were more posts on K1 and S, with some K2, followed by L1. There was very little on the higher levels of knowledge construction (K3 and K4) and self-evaluation and self-regulation of learning (L2 and L3).

Patterns of Students' Interactions in the Discussion Forum After Training for e-Moderation

After three weeks on the discussion forums, students generated a total of 323 posts according to the different domains (see Table 2).

Students continued to have social interactions (S) (26.9%, 87 posts) and shared information (K1) (26.6%, 86 posts). Students also appreciated and confirmed contributions, using humour and emoticons to display their feelings and also asking questions. Team collaboration (L1) had increased (17.6%, 57 posts) as the e-moderator coordinated the discussion, highlighting relevant contributions of passive participants.

Students not only elaborated their own points/arguments and concepts in detail but also used examples from personal experience when prompted by the moderator for K2 (17.0%, 55 posts). Besides, peers also asked for explanations and clarification. Students demonstrated more effort in contributing and accommodating peer perspective

E-Moderation Skills: Patterns of Interactions

	S	K1	K2	K3	K4	L1	L2	L3
Group 1	10	11	5	1	0	5	2	0
Group 2	12	12	8	2	0	0	0	0
Group 3	13	10	7	3	0	2	1	0
Group 4	13	11	6	1	0	11	0	0
Group 5	10	16	7	2	0	4	1	0
Group 6	8	7	7	1	0	4	0	0
Total of posting	66	67	40	10	0	26	4	0
Percentage (%)	30.99	31.46	18.78	4.69	0.00	12.21	1.41	0.00
Mean	11.00	11.17	6.67	1.67	0.00	4.33	0.67	0.00
SD	2.00	2.93	1.03	0.82	0.00	3.72	0.82	0.00

Table 1
Distribution of domains of interactions without e-moderation in groups

Note: Domains: Social Interaction (S), Sharing information (K1), Egocentric elaboration (K2), Allocentric elaboration (K3), Application and transfer (K4), Coordination (L1), Reflection (L2), Technical issues (L3)

5 5		5			0 0 1	t i		
	S	K1	K2	K3	K4	L1	L2	L3
Group 1	21	15	14	4	1	8	1	0
Group 2	18	9	6	8	1	8	1	0
Group 3	11	13	7	2	4	10	0	0
Group 4	8	15	9	7	1	9	2	0
Group 5	17	13	10	2	1	14	1	0
Group 6	12	21	9	0	0	8	2	0
Total posting	87	86	55	23	8	57	7	0
Percentage (%)	26.93	26.63	17.03	7.12	2.48	17.65	2.17	0.00
Mean	14.50	14.33	9.17	3.83	1.33	9.50	1.17	0.00
SD	4.93	3.93	2.79	3.13	1.37	2.35	0.75	0.00

Table 2Distribution of domains of interactions after e-moderation in training in groups

Note: Domains: Social Interaction (S), Sharing information (K1), Egocentric elaboration (K2), Allocentric elaboration (K3), Application and transfer (K4), Coordination (L1), Reflection (L2), Technical issues (L3)

through synthesising and elaborations (K3) (7.12%, 23 posts) as the e-moderator asked for summaries, content explanations, and clarification, rather than just agreeing or disagreeing with the comments.

The application and transfer domain (K4) had increased (2%, 8 posts) after the e-moderator played devil's advocate and invited the students for further reflection. Students demonstrated their understanding of the topic by integrating newly learned knowledge with their prior experience.

Students evaluated their own learning during the discussions (L2) (2.17%, 7 posts)

more frequently when the e-moderator provided constructive feedback on their sharing but no evidence of interactions on technological problems (L3). The e-moderator skills and examples generated from the transcripts are in Table 3.

After the e-moderation training, the number of posts had increased (see Table 2). There was more evidence of higher order thinking with attempts in evaluating others' discussion posts and providing judgment, and more application and transfer of learning, self-evaluation and self-regulation of learning.

Table 3

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Examples of	E-moderator	skills from	the	interactions	in the	P discussion	torum
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Domains	Skills	Examples
social interaction (S)	greetings	Greetings everyone, Wow, what a great start to our forum today. As a moderator, I welcome all of you to join this interesting discussion, and don't hesitate to share your opinion and thoughts! [Moderator 1: 1-4]
	informal talk	Hi Jen, how was your holiday? You must be happy traveling back home after a long time? [Moderator 2: 8-9]
	appreciating and confirming contributions	<i>Hi Ann, the definition given pertaining to counselling is very interesting. Short and simple. Excellent. I love it!</i> [Olive: 13-15]
	humour	Please feel free to say your mind because I can't bite you online, hehe! [Moderator 5: 2-3]
	use emoticon/emojis	Ara, what is your opinion in regard to We can't wait to hear from you [Luke:12-15]

E-Moderation Skills: Patterns of Interactions

Table 3 (Continued)

Domains	Skills	Examples
sharing information (K1)	providing opinion	I totally agree with you that ICT usage help counsellor communicate with their clients an all time [Moderator 3:19-21]
	asking questions	However, have any of you done any research on whether Malaysia has in existence e-counselling service? How doencourage e-counselling in Malaysia?[Jen:12-16]
collaboration (L1)	coordination and planning	I see that our group only focuses on since our discussion topic is so, any other ideas on how? [Moderator 5:34-36]
	summarizing discussion	We are heading to the end of the discussion, would like to conclude all the point. we had discussed [Moderator 7:26-29]
	highlight contribution	So, the point May is trying to tell us that am I right to say so? Can you rephrase [Moderator1:22-26]
	invite for team collaboration	What about you, Han, do you agree with the opinion given by our friends? Maybe you ca share yours! [Sue: 6-7]
Egocentric elaboration (K2)	giving feedback	Since there are many disadvantages of ICT, hence we as a counsellor, to add extra information, we can also[Moderator 5:23-25]
	adding personal experiences/opinion	I would like to add one more facility available on the Internet whereby counsellor can use software like Microsoft PowerPoint to present their counselling material to be more interactive [Thevi:18-20]
	introduce other relevant information	I think Joe's opinion on email security needs more explanation. I don't think a big company like Google would allow intruders to access our data easily! [Moderator 4:26- 27]
Allocentric elaboration (K3)	asking for elaboration	However, for the telephone service do you mean they talk through the phone? It would be nicer for you in the future to elaborate on [Moderator 6:24-26]

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Table 3 (Continued)

Domains	Skills	Examples
	providing judgment	I agreed with Elvena opinion about however, Tiresa and Maalini think in the opposite way that in this situation, my stands are[Susie:16-18]
		I like what you said previously, but I think the theory you mention nothing related to [Lim: 13-15]
	asking for clarification and explanation	It would be nice that someone can explain the reason behind this[Moderator 7: 30-33]
Application and transfer (K4)	playing devil's advocate.	I can see you feel that we should change according to surrounding to upgrade ourselves with technologies, however, have ever if you wonder how one who does not know to use a computer ever get online counselling? So, do you still think that online counselling is still conducive? [Moderator 1 27-30]
		Since online counselling is very possible, schools should develop a platform to the platform should be interactive and user friendly [John:28-31]
Reflection (L2)	archiving information	In the previous discussion, now can each of you share your understanding from a school perspective? [Moderator 4: 15-16]
	constructive feedback	I have noticed that all of you do not is there any reasons why we are not looking toI would love us to focus more on [Moderator 3:13-18]
	self-evaluation	I may not understand this correctly but e-counseling in school should that is the best solution [Amy:16-20]
	promote self-regulation	"I prefer to use interactive tools to support for example, lots of pictures on the platform [Ray, 31-34]

Relationship Among the Domains of Online Interactions

Correlation analyses were performed to examine the relationship among different domains. The results indicate that S was significantly correlated with K1, K2, K3, and L2. K2 was significantly correlated K4 while K4 was significantly correlated with L1 and L2. No correlation was found between L2 and L3 with any other variables (see Table 4). The results indicated that students with more social interaction were more likely to share information, elaborate their own arguments by comparing and contrasting peer multiple views. Knowledge constructed from elaborating, comparing, and synthesising led to an environment whereby students integrate new knowledge to prior learned knowledge to improve their understanding of specific content. Students' learning experiences also changed

Table 4

Correlation matrix of the knowledge construction patterns

	S	K1	K2	K3	K4	L1	L2	L3
Social Interaction (S)	-	1.000**	.669**	.632**	.285	.101	548**	-
Sharing information (K1)		-	.669**	.632**	.285	.101	548**	-
Egocentric elaboration (K2)			-	025	.452*	.367	.030	-
Allocentric elaboration (K3)				-	175	228	688**	-
Application and transfer (K4)					-	.769**	.457*	
Coordination (L1)						-	.514*	-
Reflection (L2)							-	-
Technical Issues (L3)								-

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

to self-regulated since in discussion forums students work as a team in planning, coordinating, and collaborating during the learning.

Throughout the semester, the e-moderation in the discussion forums had contributed to a significant increase in social interaction, knowledge construction at different levels from simply sharing facts, opinions, and experiences, to elaborating one's own or others' ideas, to applying and transferring knowledge in practices and finally regulate the collaborative learning processes.

These findings are consistent with those of past studies that e-moderators should display social interaction (greetings, jokes, and compliments) to create a pleasant and friendly climate which encourages participants to become involved (Sallán et al., 2010; Tirado et al., 2012;). Social presence is considered very important to motivate students to sustain the discussion in the forums as a fun and positive social learning environment promotes learning (Westerlaken et al., 2019).

Students who are comfortable with the platform and online environment are more actively involved in elaborations on concepts compared to passive students (Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Chang & Chang, 2014; Smet et al., 2008). The e-moderator ensures that everyone feels respected and values the opinions of others (Sallán et al., 2010; Salmon, 2002).

The e-moderator supports the discussion by considering others' ideas, asking for explanations, summarizing, comparing, and synthesizing multiple perspectives and encouraging active participation in mutual knowledge construction (Ghadirian et al., 2016; Xie & Ke, 2011).

The e-moderation training had shown remarkable changes in students' knowledge construction as social interactions consistent with other studies (Oh et al., 2018; Ghadirian & Ayub, 2017; Xie et al., 2010; Zhong & Norton, 2019).

E-moderators keep forum discussions on track (Ghadirian et al., 2016; Martinho et al., 2014) by asking questions, rewriting the question when discussions are out of the subject, making clarification, and providing summaries of the discussion (Chen et al., 2019; Ng et al., 2009).

Students are more likely to evaluate their own learning in the discussion when the e-moderator provide feedback on their sharing. Positive feedback encouraged development of ideas that led to the negotiation of knowledge and understanding (Chen et al., 2019; Lai, 2015; Ng et al., 2009).

There were no significant results in terms of technical issues and technology problems, and assignment clarifications were not detected in the forum discussions.

Differences in the Students' Interactions Patterns Before and After the Training for e-Moderation

A null hypothesis was formulated based on the third research question:

H₀: There is no significant difference in student's interaction patterns before and after the training for e-moderation The skewness and kurtosis for prescore and post-score were examined as recommended in a small sample, values greater or less than 1.96 are sufficient to establish normality of the data (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The null hypothesis was rejected as there is no significant difference between the pre-score and post-score before and after the training for e-moderation (see Table 5). The *t*-test analysis showed there is a statistically significant difference in the pre-score (M=1.10, SD=0.14) and post-score (M=2.18, SD=0.54) with t(23) = -11.646, p=0.000. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Thus, student's interaction quality improved after the e-moderation training. This indicates that the e-moderator training effectively developed students' e-moderating skills for knowledge construction.

Table 5

Paired Sample t-test j	for students	<i>interaction</i>	pattern
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Paired Differences						
	Mean	Ν	Std. Deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test Post-test	1.10 2.18	24 24	0.14 0.54	-11.646	23	.000

Note: *p<0.05

CONCLUSIONS

The overall results of this study imply that a skilled e-moderator can facilitate fruitful online discussions in forums. Even though the students in this study were novice users of the discussion forum and were also unfamiliar with online discussion and the collaborative process of learning, they did not seem to face many difficulties and managed to maintain an online presence.

The results more specifically indicate that e-moderator facilitation skills as such greetings, informal talk, appreciating and confirming contributions, humour, show continues support, adding facts, opinion, asking open-ended questions, bringing in other content information, elaborate and illustrating the contents with examples, personal views, and concepts, considering others' ideas, asking for content explanations and clarification, asking for summaries, comparing and synthesizing multiple perspectives, invite for further reflection, playing the devils' advocate, organizational arrangements and planning, provide constructive feedback and giving encouragement to promote self-regulated learning, had influenced students to sustain participation and interaction in the discussion forum. E-moderation training may be an effective strategy to support cognitive development in online discussions, support interaction of a collaborative task, promoting a sense of community among students, and eliciting more meaningful interactions. Hence, e-moderators training should be emphasized so that e-moderators can effectively facilitate discussions in online learning environments using specific skillsets which lead to developing knowledge, rather than just delivering knowledge, which often results in disappointing online discussions.

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Professional Learning Communities Assessment – Revised: A Measure of Schools as Learning Organisations

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ABSTRACT

Recent years showed a much stronger appeal for transforming schools, among other organisations, into learning organisations. More than two decades into the coining of the term learning organisations, researchers are still in pursuit of proper tools for measuring the construct. The present investigation aims to evaluate the appropriateness of Professional Learning Communities Assessment – Revised (PLCA-R) for assessing schools as learning organisations. Data gathered from 224 elementary teachers were analysed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to validate the dimensionality of the selected tool in an organisational context. The results provided reasonable model fit and validity for the hypothesised six-factor model indicating that PLCA-R is a suitable tool for assessing schools as learning organisations. The findings imply that all the dimensions of PLCs have to be given equal consideration when implementing PLCs in the context of learning organisations.

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INTRODUCTION

Gone are the days when schools' role is limited to a 'house of transmitting knowledge' to the minds of future generations. In order to prepare future generations for a rapidly changing world, schools have to develop into a 'laboratory of inquiry' for continuous improvement. Hence, the call for transforming schools into learning organisations is becoming stronger (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2016; Senge et al., 2000). A learning organisation is one in which the individuals, teams, and the entire organisation as a whole continuously learn so as to improve their practices (Holyoke et al., 2012). But what exactly does a school look like when it can be regarded as a learning organisation? What are the measures that can be used to assess schools as learning organisations?

Previous studies attempted to validate scales that can assess schools in terms of indicative characteristics of learning organisations (see, for example, Bowen et al., 2007; Higgins et al., 2012). However, these measures are short of certain essential elements that should be in place in a learning organisation. For instance, the leadership aspect of school, which is critical for facilitating learning within the organisation (Hord, 1997) is not significant in the scale compiled and tested by Bowen et al. (2007). Similarly, the aspect of shared vision and goals, which is fundamental to a learning organisation (Senge, 1990), is not incorporated in the scale adapted by Higgins et al. (2012). Thus, a comprehensive measure of school as a learning organisation is required. To this end, the current study aims to test and validate a scale for measuring schools as learning organisations in an Asian context based on Professional Learning Community Assessment - Revised (PLCA-R), a scale developed by previous

researchers (Cormier & Olivier, 2009; Olivier, 2009; Olivier et al., 2010). Such a scale would assist schools, policymakers, and researchers in assessing schools as learning organisations, specifically in the Asian context, which could then promote learning among professionals in schools.

Defining and Measuring Learning Organisations

After nearly three decades since Senge's (1990) invention of the term learning organisation, the concept is still blurred and needs conceptual clarity (Örtenblad, 2018). One reason for the continued misconception is, perhaps, due to the interchangeable use of a very closely related term - organisational learning, which has a much older history than the former (Turi et al., 2014). Consequently, scholarly debate on clarifying the concept falls into two broad schools; (i) that propagates that learning organisation and organisational learning are distinctive (Argyris, 1999; Tsang, 1997), and (ii) that propagates that they are not entirely independent of each other whereby learning organisation is regarded as a special case of organisational learning (Easterby-Smith, 1997) – despite they are concepts on their own right. Nevertheless, we take the stance that organisational learning is a special case (rather a result of) learning organisation (Örtenblad, 2018) as we believe that organisational learning could only take place in an organisation where learning of its members as well teams take place. As a result, we are inclined to using the term learning organisation as opposed to organisational learning as the former is more compatible with our understanding of the concept.

According to Örtenblad (2018), there are four broad descriptions of learning organisation identifiable in the existing literature - they are; learning at work, climate for learning, learning structure, and organisational learning. Learning at work is similar to job-embedded learning whereby employees learn in the workplace on aspects that are closely related to their work. Climate for learning is associated with certain conditions that are either necessary or encouraging for learning to occur. These include shared responsibility and accountability, provision of time and resources, an opportunity for experimentation, social as well as relational aspects among employees (Mikkelsen & Grønhaug, 1999), and emotional aspects such as support, recognition, and jobsatisfaction (Tran, 1998). Learning structure may be translated as the organisation being composed of teams whereby each member of the team learns to perform tasks that are usually done by other members (Örtenblad, 2018). The final description, which is known as organisational learning views the organisation, akin to individuals, as the entity of learning. Of the two opposing opinions on this, as stated before, we regard organisational learning as a sub-version of learning organisation (Örtenblad, 2018).

Interestingly, speaking in the context of education, particularly about schools, all the four descriptions above seem to perfectly match with professional learning

processes that take place within schools. First, learning at work is very common, and in fact advocated, in schools, which can be analogous to the in-service training that is conducted in schools. Such training, however, can only be considered jobembedded if the training is authentic (Hunzicker, 2011). Next, the role of leadership, structural, and relational support - which are encompassed within the climate for learning - in collaborative professional learning in schools is highlighted by Hord (2005). Third, the description of the learning structure perfectly aligns with the functions of subject departments in schools. Fourth, once an organisation fits into all of the first three descriptions, it can be claimed that learning is actually taking place in the organisation. Consequently, these organisations would fit into the description of organisational learning, which is regarded as an outcome of learning organisation (Örtenblad, 2018). Hence, we argue that a measure for assessing schools as learning organisations should incorporate all the four descriptions, at least, to a reasonable level. Accordingly, in this study, school as a learning organisation is defined as one in which individuals as well as teams of staff members learn in a climate that is conducive for their learning.

Earlier Research

With respect to our aim of validating a scale to measure schools as learning organisations, we first provide a review of some of the existing tools that are developed and tested for this (or similar) purposes. We begin with the School Success Profile Learning Organisation (SSP-LO) by Bowen et al. (2006). According to the authors, a learning organisation is:

"associated with a core set of conditions and processes that support the ability of an organisation to value, acquire, and use the information and tacit knowledge acquired from employees and stakeholders to successfully plan, implement, and evaluate strategies to achieve performance goals". (pp. 98-99)

The authors argued that these conditions and processes could be used in assessing schools as learning organisations and were composed of (i) specific tasks that were carried out in learning organisations (actions) and (ii) some intangible aspects required to carry out those tasks (sentiments).

As claimed by the authors, the action domain consisted of six dimensions that were identified from previous literature. They were; (1) team orientation, (2) innovation, (3) involvement, (4) information flow, (5) tolerance for error, and (6) results orientation. Likewise, the sentiments domain was also comprised of six dimensions. These were; (1) common purpose, (2) respect, (3) cohesion, (4) trust, (5) mutual support, and (6) optimism. The study found that the two-factor construct was a valid and reliable measure for assessing schools as learning organisations.

The second tool we wish to discuss is the tool adapted by Higgins et al. (2012). Higgins and colleagues' construct was more inclined to the definition of organisational learning whereby it was defined as a higher order of collective learning that extended beyond a single individual; individuals within an organisation thus learnt from one another and/or in groups. Based on the model of Garvin et al. (2008), Higgins et al. (2012) chose an integrated approach of combining cognitive and sociocultural dimensions of organisational learning. They found that a 3-factor model provided a significant model fit to explain organisational learning. The factors were "psychological safety", "experimentation", and "leadership that reinforces learning" – confirming Garvin et al.'s (2008) model.

We examined the above two measures in terms of their representativeness of the broad descriptions of learning organisations explicated before. This was done by investigating the actual items that were included in those tools. Careful interpretation of the items revealed that none of the two measures could adequately address all the four descriptions of learning organisation. In this regard, the proposed tool by Bowen et al. (2007) mainly incorporated the descriptions which are more in line with 'learning at work' and 'climate for learning'. However, there was an insufficient focus on 'learning structure' and 'organisational learning'. Likewise, the tool offered by Higgins et al. (2012) has a limited emphasis on 'learning at work' and 'learning structure' though it has reasonably covered aspects of 'climate for learning' and 'organisational learning'. Hence, the search for a more inclusive assessment of schools as learning organisations is indispensable.

A Comprehensive Approach

A quick search of the literature reveals that there already exists a structure for teacher collaborative learning in schools. In view of this, collaborative learning is defined as a philosophy of learning based on the sharing of authorities and acceptance of responsibility which takes into account the abilities and contribution of group members (Panitz, 1999) who maintain a shared understanding of a problem (Roschelle & Teasley, 1995). Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) is a structure for promoting collaborative teacher learning in schools (and other similar institutions) that has been in place for over two decades. In its broader sense, PLCs is defined as "a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an on-going, reflective, collaborative, inclusive, learning-oriented, growth-promoting way" (Stoll et al., 2006, p. 223). In the context of schools, PLC is defined as one in which "teachers in a school and its administrators continuously seek and share learning, and act on their learning... [in order to]... enhance their effectiveness as professionals for the students' benefit" (Hord, 1997, p. 1).

Over the years, several tools were employed in assessing PLCs. Of these, School Professional Staff as Learning Community Questionnaire (SPSLCQ) by Hord (1997) is found to be the most comprehensive tool that incorporated a fair share of organisational aspects into assessing schools as PLCs. Not surprisingly, the creator of the tool related her experience of schools that operated as PLCs to her previous experience of learning organisations (Hord, 1997). Examination of the items as well as the dimensions in this tool shows that it may be more applicable to assess schools as learning organisation as it seems to incorporate all the four descriptions of learning organisations (Örtenblad, 2018) to a reasonable level. Years after the development of SPSLCQ, based on the same dimensions, a new tool known as Professional Learning Community Assessment (PLCA) emerged (Cormier & Olivier, 2009). In this study, we used the revised version of the tool, PLCA-Revised (PLCA-R) by Olivier et al. (2010) for investigating its suitability to measure schools as learning organisations.

The PLCA-R is based on the five original dimensions identified by Hord (1997) which make up PLCs. These dimensions, also known as characteristics of PLCs, are; (1) shared values and vision, (2) supportive and shared leadership, (3) collective learning and application of that learning, (4) shared personal practices, and (5) supportive conditions (Hord, 1997, 1998, 2008). The fifth dimension was later broken down into two dimensions; (i) supportive conditions - structure, and (ii) supportive conditions - relationship. The existence of these dimensions is acknowledged by a number of researchers. For instance, the importance of a set of common values and vision was stressed by Stoll et al. (2006) and integration of such values into the culture of learning in schools was stressed by Morrissey (2000). Moreover, an extensively shared leadership (Kastner, 2015) and teacher empowerment are necessary (Zhang & Pang, 2016) for the sustenance of PLCs. Additionally, PLCs should ideally promote collective learning (Hairon & Dimmock, 2012) and facilitate collaborative practices (Johnson, 2015). Furthermore, the role of PLCs in opening up for sharing and interrogating teaching practices (Hord & Tobia, 2012) and its impact on changing pedagogy is also significant (Sai & Siraj, 2015). Finally, it is stressed that PLCs should be associated with a supportive condition in terms of 'structure' and 'relations' (Kilbane, 2009; Olivier & Hipp, 2010). Hence, we believe that PLCA-R is a comprehensive measure to assess schools as a learning organisation, which embraces all four descriptions of learning organisations.

METHOD

Measures

We employed a survey design whereby a pre-validated instrument was employed for data collection. The tool, Professional Learning Community Assessment - Revised (PLCA-R; Olivier, 2009) is composed of six dimensions and has been used in a number of previous studies (see for Burde, 2016; Guerrini, 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Marx, 2015; Stamper, 2015). These dimensions are in line with the five universal dimensions of PLCs identified by Hord (1997). The tool had undergone stringent content validity procedures (Olivier, 2009; Olivier et al., 2010) and the Cronbach alpha reliability of its subscales are reported (Olivier, 2009) as given in Table 1.

Although the original tool has a varying number of items (see Table 1), we selected only five items for each dimension to be included in the survey. This was done by pre-testing the items in terms of (i) its clarity, (ii) relevance to the context and (iii) relevance to the corresponding dimension. During the pre-testing stage, five potential respondents were interviewed by the principal investigator to check their understanding of the statements and obtain their opinion on the coverage of the content. They were also asked to rank the items for each dimension according to the relevance of the items to the associated dimension. The five top-ranked items (as given in Appendix A) were then chosen to be included in the survey.

Despite its extensive use in research, construct validation of PLCA-R is not reported by its creators. However, a recent study in the Turkish context has assessed the validity and reliability of the tool confirming the validity of the constructs as they are given in the original tool (Dogan et al., 2017). According to the authors, the six-factor model provided adequate fit to data ($\chi^2(965) = 2533$, p < .001; RMSEA = .048, CFI = .907; TLI = .900; SRMR = .044; AIC = 54293; BIC = 55034) and also evidence for convergent validity of the constructs (AVE ranged from .49 to .61). However, the discriminant validity analysis in the study was weak to confirm the distinctiveness of the factors. Hence, it necessitated reasons to carry out validation of the construct of PLCs, in general, and as a tool for measuring schools as learning organisations, in particular.

Table 1

Dimensions of PLCA-R

	Numł	per of items	— Cronbach	
Dimensions	Original tool	Adapted tool	alpha	
Shared and Supportive Leadership (SSL)	11	5	.94	
Shared Values and Vision (SVV)	9	5	.92	
Collective Learning and Application (CLA)	10	5	.91	
Shared Personal Practice (SPP)	7	5	.87	
Supportive Conditions – Relationships (SCR)	5	5	.82	
Supportive Conditions – Structures (SCS)	10	5	.88	

Sample Profile and Research Context

The survey was administered to elementary English language teachers working in public schools of Brunei Darussalam who participated in PLCs. Unfortunately, it was difficult to obtain the exact number of English teachers as teachers at the primary level are not specialised in teaching specific subjects. Despite this difficulty, it was estimated that the total population of primary English teachers would be between 300 to 400. Due to the limitations in the total population size, the survey was sent to all the public elementary schools based on the principles of total population sampling (Etikan et al., 2016). A total of 241 surveys were received back via the online survey form which was later reduced to 224 after data cleaning. Although fewer than expected, the sample size is deemed adequate based on the minimum recommended sample sizes of 100 to 150 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Muthén & Muthén, 2002), and 200 to 400 (Jackson, 2001) for structural equation modelling. Table 2 presents the

profile of these participants based on three demographic variables.

As indicated in the table, with reference to all demographic variables (gender, educational qualification, and school cluster), the greatest percentage of teachers were reported to be engaged in PLC activities for a few hours per month. In this regard, 42.4% of males and 52.4% of females while 61.5% of 'no Diploma', 50.0% of 'Diploma', 48.2% of 'degree' and 60.0% of 'Master's degree' teachers were involved in PLCs for a few hours per month. Additionally, with regard to the school clusters, the greatest number of teachers in all the clusters except for cluster 3 was engaged in PLCs to a duration of a few per month. The corresponding percentages for cluster 1, 2, 4 and 5 were 50.5%, 64.5%, 57.4%, and 62.5% respectively. For cluster 3, the greatest percentage of teachers (38.8%) was engaged in PLCs for a few hours per week. Given the context of the study, these levels of engagement in PLCs are normal as teachers come together as a

team usually once a month. The activities of the PLCs revolve around finding the solution to the research problem which the team had identified in the beginning. These activities typically follow an action research approach. In the monthly meetings, teachers discuss the progress they have made so far in their research. The PLC activities for a given year-end with a culmination meeting of all PLCs of the same cluster where they present their final research report.

Table 2

Respondent profile

Attribute				Time spe	ent in PLCs	,	Tatal
Auribule			1	2	3	4	– Total
Gender	male	Ν	4	14	13	2	33
		%	12.1%	42.4%	39.4%	6.1%	100.0%
	female	Ν	32	100	43	16	191
		%	16.8%	52.4%	22.5%	8.4%	100.0%
Educational	no	Ν	2	8	2	1	13
Qualification	diploma	%	15.4%	61.5%	15.4%	7.7%	100.0%
	diploma	Ν	9	36	21	6	72
		%	12.5%	50.0%	29.2%	8.3%	100.0%
	degree	Ν	19	55	31	9	114
		%	16.7%	48.2%	27.2%	7.9%	100.0%
	masters	Ν	6	15	2	2	25
		%	24.0%	60.0%	8.0%	8.0%	100.0%
School Cluster	Cluster 1	Ν	6	16	7	3	32
		%	18.8%	50.0%	21.9%	9.4%	100.0%
	Cluster 2	Ν	5	20	4	2	31
		%	16.1%	64.5%	12.9%	6.5%	100.0%
	Cluster 3	Ν	11	22	26	8	67
		%	16.4%	32.8%	38.8%	11.9%	100.0%
	Cluster 4	Ν	7	31	12	4	54
		%	13.0%	57.4%	22.2%	7.4%	100.0%
	Cluster 5	Ν	7	25	7	1	40
		%	17.5%	62.5%	17.5%	2.5%	100.0%
Total		Ν	36	114	56	18	224
		%	16.1%	50.9%	25.0%	8.0%	100.0%

Note: 1, less than a few hours per month; 2, a few hours per month; 3, a few hours per week; 4, more than a few hours per week

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Data Analysis

Prior to validation analysis, data were examined in terms of data entry errors, missing values, and suspicious responses using the straight lining method (Hair et al., 2017). While no missing values were identified 17 cases were identified as suspicious and were subsequently deleted from the data set. Moreover, the distributional characteristics of data (for the remaining 224 cases) were assessed using univariate skewness (ranged from -1.41 to -0.35) and kurtosis (ranged from -0.54 to +4.80) which are within acceptable ranges of -2 to +2 and -7 to +7 for skewness and kurtosis respectively (Curran et al., 1996). Multivariate outliers were examined using AMOS 21 as a measure of assessing the multivariate normality, which revealed the presence of some multivariate outliers. They were, however, used in the analysis as their deletion would be more detrimental to the results. Finally, following stringent recommendations not to do both Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on the same data (Kline, 2015; Ramayah et al., 2018), only CFA was carried out in this study as the study employed an existing factor structure. Based on the minimum requirements suggested by Kline (2011), five types of indices were involved in evaluating the CFA model; they were (i) chi-square (x^2) , (ii) comparative fit index (CFI), (iii) root mean square error of estimate (RMSEA), (iv) standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), and (v) minimum discrepancy divided by degree of freedom (CMIN/DF).

In addition to this, the threshold values for the selected indices employed in this study were $p(\chi^2) > .05$ (Kline, 2015), CFI $\ge .90$ (Byrne, 2016), RMSEA $\le .1$ (Maccallum et al., 1996), SRMR $\le .08$ (Byrne, 2016), and CMIN/DF ≤ 5 (Wheaton et al., 1977).

In order to test the factorial validity of PLCA-R, three *a-priori* models were hypothesised based on Hord's (1997) dimensions of PLCs. Model A is composed of the original six dimensions as given in the PLCA-R questionnaire while Model B and C were made by merging various constructs. In this regard, Model B merges the dimensions of CLA and SPP as these two dimensions collectively represent the actual engagement of teachers in PLC activities. Similarly, Model C is formed by the integration of SCS and SCR (in addition to the CLA-SPP integration). The SCS-SCR integration is justified as both the dimensions measure the same construct of supportive conditions within the organisation (Hord, 1997).

FINDINGS

The *a-priori* Models A, B, and C were assessed based on the thresholds we embraced in this study for fit indices. The initial models consisted of all five items for all the latent constructs (SSL, SVV, CLA, SPP, SCS, and SCR). None of the initial models depicted adequate fit to data based on the employed fit indices. The models were then modified by deleting potentially weak items and drawing covariances. These modifications, however, were stringent so that the assumptions of a confirmatory analysis were not violated. In this regard, the deletion of items was kept to a minimum, not exceeding the recommended 20% limit (Ramayah et al., 2018). Furthermore, covariances were only drawn between items belonging to the same latent construct – they were not drawn across different constructs despite such modifications were suggested by AMOS. Figure 1, 2, and 3 represent the final models after minimum possible modifications to Models A, B, and C respectively.

The associated fit indices for the final Models A, B, and C are shown in Table 3.

According to the results in Table 3, Model A (x^2 (232) = 563; RMSEA =.080; CFI =.917; SRMR =.049) as well as Model B (x^2 (237) = 575; RMSEA =.080; CFI =.918; SRMR =.048) depicts a reasonable fit to data (Byrne, 2016; Maccallum et al., 1996; Wheaton et al., 1977). Model C, however, portrays a mediocre fit to data (x^2 (240) = 631; RMSEA =.085; CFI =.910; SRMR =.047). As none of the models can be discarded for having a poor fit to data, they were all considered for further evaluation by convergent and discriminant validity.

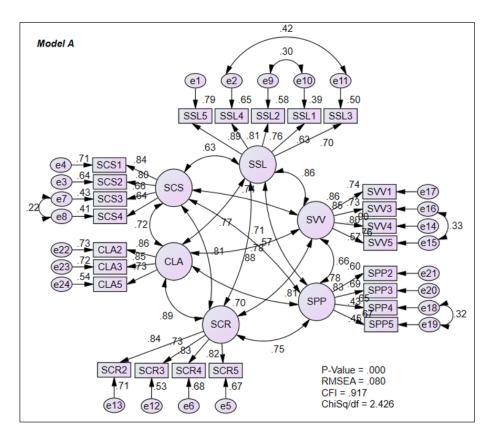


Figure 1. Hypothesised Model A (6 factor model)

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Professional Learning Communities as Learning Organisations

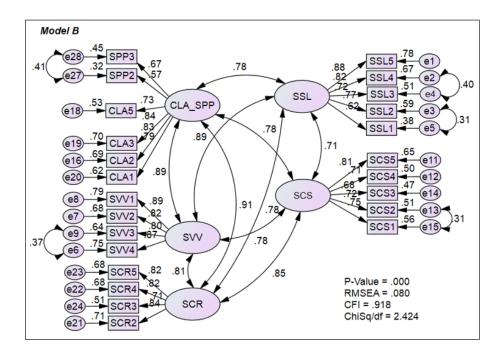


Figure 2. Hypothesised Model B (5 factor model)

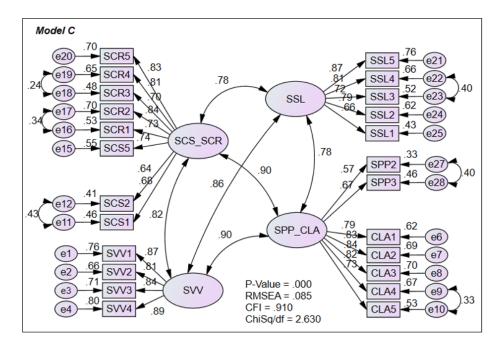


Figure 3. Hypothesised Model C (4 factor model)

Model	x^2	df	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Model A	562.921	232	2.426	.080	.917	.049
Model B	574.510	237	2.424	.080	.918	.048
Model C	631.197	240	2.630	.085	.910	.047

Fit indices for the final models

Table 3

In the present study, convergent validity was examined using Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) while discriminant validity was assessed using correlation among the latent factors. The thresholds for acceptance of convergent validity are CR \geq .70 (Raykov, 2004) and AVE \geq .50 (Kline, 2015). For discriminant validity, the inter-factor correlation \leq .90 was considered as the cut-off (Byrne, 2001). Table 4, 5, and 6 display the obtained values for CR, AVE, and correlations for the three models evaluated in this study.

According to the results in Table 4, model A passes the assessment of both the convergent and discriminant validity based on the above criteria. Particularly, the CR was between .824 and .907 while the AVE ranged from .541 to .709 for all the dimensions. Furthermore, none of the correlations between the dimensions is above .90.

Factors	CR	AVE	SSL	SCR	SVV	SPP	CLA
SSL	.874	.584					
SCR	.880	.647	.778				
SVV	.907	.709	.864	.812			
SPP	.824	.541	.567	.751	.662		
CLA	.855	.664	.767	.886	.876	.698	
SCS	.826	.547	.629	.812	.741	.706	.721

Table 4Construct validity for Model A

In contrast, as indicated by the results in Table 5, model B passed the assessment of convergent validity but not discriminant validity. The CR for each factor was above .70 while AVE was above .50. However, the correlation between two of the dimensions

of CLA/SPP and SCR was above .90 indicating that they measured constructs that were too similar. Hence, construct validity for model B could not be confirmed.

Similarly, results in Table 6 revealed that model C, as well, could not pass the test of discriminant validity despite achieving acceptable convergent validity. The CR for all the factors were above.70 and AVEs are above .50. However, the correlation between two pairs of dimensions (SCS/SCR with CLA/SPP and SVV with CLA/SPP) are above .90 indicating that these measures were not truly distinct from one another. Hence, construct validity for model C could not be achieved. The results indicate that Model A which was composed of the original six dimensions of PLCA-R is the best model to assess PLCs in an organisational context. Although both Model A and B showed a reasonable fit to data, only Model A could pass the discriminant validity assessment. Hence, the findings show that PLCs in schools is a multidimensional construct. Specifically, the findings provide supporting evidence for the existing six-factor structure of PLCA-R. Subsequently, based on the theoretical justifications present before, PLCA-R can be employed to assess schools as learning organisations.

Table 5Construct validity for Model B

Factors	CR	AVE	SSL	SVV	SCS	SCR	
SSL	.875	.586					
SVV	.910	.716	.886				
SCS	.853	.538	.715	.780			
SCR	.879	.645	.776	.809	.850		
CLA/SPP	.879	.552	.778	.890	.783	.914	

Table 6

Construct	validity fo	r Model C
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Factors	CR	AVE	CLA/SPP	SCS/SCR	SSL	
CLA/SPP	.902	.571				
SCS/SCR	.910	.561	.904			
SSL	.881	.599	.776	.781		
SVV	.916	.733	.903	.822	.857	

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DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study intended to construct validate the tool PLCA-R for measuring schools as learning organisations. We found that the six-factor as well as the five-factor models provided a reasonable fit to data. However, only the six-factor model could provide discriminant validity for the dimensions. Previous studies that carried out the validation of PLCA-R in other contexts reported empirical support for the six-factor model (Dogan et al., 2017). At the same time, PLCA-R incorporates a wider span of concepts that reasonably match with all four descriptions of learning organisations reported in the literature (Örtenblad, 2018). Furthermore, the close association between operations of learning organisation and PLCs reported by Hord (1997) provides theoretical support for our argument that schools operating as professional learning communities are analogous to learning organisations. Hence, we claim that the validated version of PLCA-R (Olivier et al., 2010) as reported in the current study is appropriate to assess schools as learning organisations.

The six factors in the validated model correspond to six dimensions of PLCs. These are shared and supportive leadership (SSL), shared values and vision (SVV), collective learning and application (CLA), shared personal practice (SPP), supportive conditions – relationships (SCR), and supportive conditions – structures (SCS). The findings suggest that each of these dimensions is an essential constituent of schools that may resemble learning organisations.

First, leadership in schools must be distributed widely in such a way that duties and responsibilities are shared among teachers. When leadership is shared, teachers feel empowered and encouraged to take initiatives in advancing teaching and learning (Zhang & Pang, 2016) eventually promoting the school as a learning organisation. In addition to having a distributed-leadership that supports the day-to-day learning engagement in schools, these activities need to be guided by a set of shared norms, values, and vision (Morrissey, 2000) whereby such norms place high importance on the increased student as well as teacher learning (Hord, 1997; Stoll et al., 2006).

The next two dimensions, 'collective learning and application' and 'shared personal practice', represent the real actions of teachers learning as an organisation. The notion of collective learning ceases the legacy of a one-room school house (Glickman et al., 2010) promoting collaborative learning of teachers at grade and school level (Hord, 2008). The essence of this dimension is not only learning together but also applying that learning (Morrissey, 2000) so as to continue the cycle of learning and application of that learning. In doing so, teachers share their instructional practices by means of peer observation and critical review of one another's practice (Hord & Tobia, 2012) which is pivotal to teacher learning and improving classroom teaching (Sai & Siraj, 2015).

The final set of dimensions refers to the structural and relational conditions in schools that must be in place in order to sustain a learning organisation. Structural conditions include such aspects as time, resources, facilities, policies, and procedures, all of which must be aligned to facilitate collaborative learning of professionals in schools (Hord, 2008; Kilbane, 2009; Stoll et al., 2006). Specifically, there must be time designated and protected for learning, the procedures must allow teachers to observe and provid feedback on one another's teaching, and school facilities must be conducive for teachers to come together and learn in groups. Finally, relational aspects such as trust, openness, and interdependence among staff are cultural elements that is essential to foster learning of professionals in schools (Gray et al., 2016).

Having stressed the importance of the six dimensions of the validated model, we acknowledge the slightly less incorporation of the description of 'learning structure' (one of the four descriptions of learning organisations explicated before) in the model. Examinations of the questionnaire items reveal that those that specifically measure the extent to which a learning structure exists are limited. Hence, we suggest that the measurement of schools' readiness to cover-up the duties of team members when they are not able to perform theirs (Örtenblad, 2018) needs to be better integrated into the model. Such a structure of implementing PLCs has already been proposed by Sather (2009). The author proposed a practical guide for implementing PLCs via Professional Learning Team (PLTs) which were equivalent to subject departments in schools. The integration of this aspect into PLCA-R could prove a better representation of the said description (learning structure) of learning organisations in the model.

Implications

The findings of the present study provide implications for research, literature, and practice. First, the analyses provided adequate convergent and discriminant validity for the constructs. Hence, it implies that PLCA-R with the six dimensions of SSL, SVV, CLA, SPP, SCR, and SCCs could be used to assess schools as learning organisations. Researchers may wish to use the shorter version of PLCA-R that is reported in this paper, properly acknowledging the original source of the tool.

Second, given the limitation of PLCA-R in addressing the aspect of learning structures in PLC-schools, researchers may endeavour to develop items in order to capture the specific concept. The new items should assess schools' capability to perform the duties of staff who may be unable to perform theirs for some reason. These new items may be incorporated into relevant dimensions in the existing model or may appear as a separate dimension in a new model depending on the results of appropriate statistical analysis.

Third, schools wishing to function as learning organisations should strive to perform well in all the six dimensions that were incorporated in the validated model as these were found to be significantly different aspects of schools as learning organisations. Hence, in addition to the professional learning aspects (represented by CLA and SPP) attention must also be paid to those dimensions that are specific to organisational context, namely 'shared and supportive leadership' and 'supportive conditions - structure'. Likewise, equal importance must also be given to 'shared values and vision' and supportive conditions - relationship'.

Limitations

The present study is constrained by certain limitations. Firstly, the small sample size due to the stringent choice of teachers teaching a specific subject limits the generalisability of the findings. As such, large-scale studies with bigger sample sizes and a wide range of subject teachers are necessary to confirm the findings of this study. Secondly, the interpretations of the results from the present study might have suffered from, to some extent, violation of the assumption of multivariate normality as few multivariate outliers were included in the analyses. Although this may not have significantly affected the present findings, as it was based on total population sampling, researchers who might employ the model

in the future are advised to be cautious. Finally, this study did not investigate the amount of teacher-learning that resulted in teachers' engagement in PLCs. It only measured what teachers did and what they saw as characteristics of their respective schools as PLCs. Consequently, we could not comment on whether a school that may be labelled as a learning organisation (based on the six dimensions) does really promote the learning of its teachers. Hence, it is recommended that future research should extend the model to include a construct in the questionnaire to measure the amount of learning that takes place in the organisation.

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APPENDIX A

Code	Statements
SSL1	Staff members are consistently involved in discussing and making decisions about most school issues.
SSL2	The principal incorporates advice from staff members to make decisions.
SSL3	The principal is proactive and addresses areas where support is needed.
SSL4	The principal shares responsibility and rewards for innovative actions.
SSL5	Leadership is promoted and nurtured among staff members.
SVV1	A collaborative process exists for developing a shared sense of values among staff.
SVV2	Shared values support norms of behaviour that guide decisions about teaching and learning.
SVV3	Staff members share visions for school improvement that have an undeviating focus on student learning.
SVV4	A collaborative process exists for developing a shared vision among staff.
SVV5	Policies and programs are aligned to the school's vision.
CLA1	Collegial relationships exist among staff members that reflect a commitment to school improvement efforts.
CLA2	Staff members work together to search for solutions to address diverse student needs.
CLA3	Staff members engage in dialogue that reflects a respect for diverse ideas that lead to continued inquiry.
CLA4	School staff members learn together and apply new knowledge to solve problems.
CLA5	Staff members collaboratively analyse student work to improve teaching and learning.
SPP1	Opportunities exist for staff members to observe peers.
SPP2	Staff members provide feedback to peers related to instructional practices.
SPP3	Staff members informally share ideas and suggestions for improving student learning.
SPP4	Opportunities exist for coaching and mentoring.
SPP5	Individuals and teams have the opportunity to share the results of their professional practices.
SCR1	Caring relationships exist among staff that are built on trust and respect.
SCR2	A culture of trust and respect exists for taking risks.
SCR3	Outstanding staff achievement is recognised and celebrated regularly in our school.

Visal Moosa, Sallimah Salleh and Lukman Hamid

APPENDIX A

Code	Statements
SCR4	School staff and stakeholders exhibit a sustained and unified effort to embed change into the culture of the school.
SCR5	Relationships among staff members support a discussion of confidential data to enhance teaching and learning.
SCS1	Time is provided to facilitate collaborative work.
SCS2	The school schedule promotes collective learning.
SCS3	Appropriate instructional materials are available to staff.
SCS4	Resource people provide expertise and support for continuous learning.
SCS5	Communication systems promote a flow of information among staff members.



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Fulfilling the Demand for Workplace Communication Skills in the Civil Engineering Industry

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ABSTRACT

Human resources today must be nurtured with the skills needed at the workplace in preparation for future challenges. Many engineering graduates nowadays are facing difficulties in adapting themselves to the workplace. They are highly dependent on academic qualifications and underestimate the need for skilled workers who are not only technically proficient but have high competencies of soft skills, especially communication skills. The ability of graduates to communicate effectively can have a significant impact on their career development. Therefore, technical graduates need to equip themselves with knowledge of their future workplace's communication needs. The objective of this study is to qualitatively explore the elements of communication skills demanded at the civil engineering workplace. Five participants consisting of experts from academia and industries were involved in semi-structured interviews. Data were hand-transcribed and analysed. Four themes

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*E-mail address*es: adliq@yahoo.com (Masadliahani Masduki) norma@uthm.edu.my (Normah Zakaria) *Corresponding author emerged from the data and identified as oral communication, written communication, interpersonal communication, and visual communication. Thirty-four sub-themes appeared from the analysis and have been discussed accordingly.

Keywords: Communication skill, engineering, interpersonal, oral, visual, written, workplace

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INTRODUCTION

The main issue and challenge in the Industrial Revolution 4 (IR4) is the mismatch of graduates' skills and knowledge with the demands of the industry in which the mismatches include good social and communication skills (Department of Polytechnic and Community College Education, 2018). Communication is a medium for conveying information and as a tool to get decisions, especially during discussions regarding organisational duties and policies (Quintero et al., 2019). Proper communication can have a significant impact on productivity and work quality. Communication generates productivity because individuals interact and work together to achieve the organisation's goals (Maciulyte-Sniukiene & Butkus 2020).

In the civil engineering industry, communication skills have been identified as a critical job skill, especially for recruitment purposes. Yusof et al. (2018) argued that a career in engineering relied heavily on communication skills because effective communication between employees was crucial and became the success factor of a project at the construction site. Yusof and Misnan (2019) argued that communication was among the crucial elements in terms of safety at construction sites. Various approaches need to be modified to ensure that safety culture can be socialised in the construction industry through effective communication systems.

A career in engineering is highly dependent on communication skills. According to Ceric (2010), excellent communication between employees is essential for a project's success. In contrast, poor communication is one of the most common project risks. Communication in construction projects is a multifaceted phenomenon that encompasses various disciplines, various levels of the organisation, and various perspectives and interpretations where participants need to collaborate, share, consolidate, and integrate large amounts of information to realise project objectives (Ceric, 2010).

Abdullah (2016) emphasised that in addition to technical education, students should prepare for 21st-century career skills where they needed to equip themselves with a wide variety of skills, both technical and non-technical skills. Among the nontechnical skills that the industry desperately needs are workplace communication skills. Communication skills are an element of soft skills that students need to master because excellent communication skills ensure a high degree of self-confidence among students in their field after graduation (Carter et al., 2016). Therefore, to compete in the industry of the 21st century, university education today needs to assist students to develop communication skills that are similar to the communication used at work (Bhattacharyya, 2018).

Workplace communication skill is pivotal for students to achieve their career development goals. Opinions and information can only be conveyed effectively through excellent communication skills. Previous studies have shown that engineering graduates are unable to meet their workplace communication needs (Kovac & Sirkovic, 2017; Lenard & Pintarić, 2018). A study by Saleh and Murtaza (2018) found that communication skill was the most crucial skill reported by the industries, but most engineering graduates lacked this skill. This study is supported by Mustapha et al. (2014), who reported that most employers found that the greatest weakness of engineering graduates was the lack of communication skills.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is ample evidence from past studies indicating that communication problems are a global issue faced by most students and graduates. According to Danielewicz-Betz and Kawaguchi (2014), 88% of engineering students in Japan have poor communication skills. Rajprasit et al. (2015) found that engineering students in Thailand had a low level of English language communication skills. The industries in the United States reported that 52% of engineering graduates had low levels of workplace communication skills (Kirkpatrick, 2011). In Malaysia, 81% of companies said that the major weakness of most graduates is poor workplace communication skills (Ibrahim & Mahyuddin, 2017). These results are similar to those reported by the Department of Industrial Training (2013), which found that communication in English was the weakest aspect of polytechnic engineering students during their industrial training.

According to the study of Husain et al. (2015), the communication skills of polytechnic engineering students are frail and need to be improved, especially in terms of oral presentation. This study is supported by the Department of Polytechnics and Community college Education (2018), which reported that 58.3% of the 59.4% unemployed polytechnic graduates in 2016 required additional training in communication skills, especially in English. Based on industrial surveys, the common problems faced by civil engineering graduates are poor oral communication skills, inability to understand questions, and lack of interaction skills (Saleh & Murtaza, 2018). These reports indicated that the communication skills of engineering students need to be improved before they enter the world of work.

Communication problems often occur in a civil engineering environment. Among the issues listed are failure to hear correctly, inability to give and receive correct orders, error in transferring non-verbal cues, failure to communicate well to others, lack of control, limited communication skills in information technology, and false communication of information (Misnan et al., 2009). The problem of communication in the workplace is due to the failure of graduates to develop the current needs of communication skills (Saleh & Murtaza, 2018).

Students should develop relevant communication skills that are applicable in the industry while they are still studying so that they become effective in the workplace. This is because students' ability to communicate effectively has a significant impact on their future career development. However, most students underestimate the importance of communication skills in the workplace and consider technical skills to be sufficient for their career preparation (Mangkau, 2012). Lenard and Pintarić (2018) held the view that employers often complained that local graduates were proficient in technical skills but lacked practical communication skills.

Workplace communication skills can be explained through communication theories. Thus, the use of genre theory and interpersonal communication theory in this study helps us to develop a deeper understanding of workplace communication skills.

Genre Theory

Humans use genres to simplify their life, to meet expectations (goals), and to save time. Genre has the power to aid or hurt human interaction, to facilitate communication or to deceive, to enable one to speak, or to prevent someone from saying something different (Gaffney, 2010). Genre does not exist separately from the person who uses it; it is created through interactions where dynamic reciprocal relationships exist between genres and communities and are emphasised in the genre's ability to influence the actions of others in the community (Devitt, 2009). In the field of civil engineering, genre evolves through interactions between employees, employees with leaders, employees with clients, and vice versa.

Genres do not exist in humans and must be studied. As students learn about genre through their exposure, they also learn about what is expected from them in the discipline of their choice. Genre represents a complex understanding of communication, which must be learned in order for students to fully engage in the chosen discipline (Gaffney, 2010). The oral and written genres are where students learn about the rhetorical context in which they interact. When engineering students decide on different construction procedures, they constructively develop an understanding of engineering.

Any theme can appear in any genre (Bordwell, 1989). In engineering, communication genres such as team presentations, project progress reports, and group decision-making may be relevant genres to help students learn to explain technical material to the general public in a language they can understand (Dannels, 2001). Genres provide specific meaning and functionality to the communities in which they exist. The genres used in the workplace need to be exposed to students at institutions of higher learning so they can become competent in the workplace (Gaffney, 2010).

It can be concluded that genre is a communication event that takes place in a particular situation to achieve the desired communication goal where the genre represents the elements of communication used in a social setting. Therefore, genre theory is a comprehensive theory and corresponds to the communication skills required in a civil engineering workplace because it emphasises the elements of communication that need to be used in a social place (workplace). According to Giltrow (2002), genre creates categories to promote organisations. In the workplace situation, genre theory classified communication into a few genres and sub-genres. In this study, genre explains the communication events (sub-genres) in the workplace of civil engineering which are grouped into the oral genre, written genre, and visual genre.

Interpersonal Communication Theory

Interpersonal communication occurs when people begin to exchange ideas and thoughts with each other (Dainton & Zelley, 2017). Interpersonal communication is a form of communication in which individuals communicate their feelings, beliefs, emotions, and information openly with other people, whether verbally or non-verbally (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1974). Interpersonal communication is not just about what is being said, but also about how it is said, how body language is used, and how facial expressions are presented. In short, communication between two people is referred to as interpersonal communication. Interpersonal communication skills can be enhanced with practice, knowledge, and feedback (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1974). Interpersonal communication occurs when two people are in the same place and aware of each other's presence (Dainton & Zelley, 2017).

There are five components of effective interpersonal communication according to Pfeiffer and Jones (1974): (i) adequate self-concept, which is the most important factor influencing communication with others; (ii) the ability to be a good listener; (iii) the ability to express ideas and ideas clearly, which many people find difficult to do; (iv) dealing with emotions, especially anger, and expressing them in a constructive manner; and (v) willingness to disclose to others honestly and freely. Interpersonal communication in the workplace is pivotal to ensure a conducive and healthy working environment.

Problem Statement

Previous research reported a gap in communication failure in the workplace and in higher institutions whereby the percentage of communication failure in higher institutions was different compared to the percentage of communication failure in the industry (Bhattacharyya et al., 2009; Donnell et al., 2011; Saleh & Murtaza, 2018). Thus, the industry has recommended higher institutions to provide students with communication skills that are in line with the communication needs in the workplace (Bhattacharyya et al. 2009; Donnell et al., 2011; Hudin et al., 2018).

Despite the emphasis on communication in the workplace, few studies have examined the relevant elements of workplace communication that students need to master before they enter the world of work. Furthermore, there are gaps identified by the industry that indicate the need for more studies in this area. Most studies in the area of workplace communication have only focused on certain constructs. For instance, Bhattacharyya (2018), Bhattacharyya and Zainal (2015), and Darling and Dannels (2017) emphasised the importance of oral communication in the workplace. Moore and Morton (2017) and Knoch et al. (2016) emphasised writing demand in the workplace. The work by Chan (2019) highlighted the importance of English in oral and written communicative events at the workplace, while Omar et al. (2012) included interpersonal communication in soft skills demanded by employers. Moreover, most of the studies investigated workplace communications in various other areas without paying much attention to the civil engineering industry.

In order to extend our knowledge of current engineering graduates' workplace communication skills, this study will explore the communication skills demanded at civil engineering workplaces qualitatively.

METHOD

This study aims to explore the workplace communication skills needed by the civil engineering graduates in Malaysia to fulfil the communication demands of the industry. To accomplish this objective, semi-structured interviews were carried out to attain an understanding from the perspective of academic professionals and industry experts.

Interview Protocols

The review of the interview protocol was first done with the first author's supervisor, who is a senior lecturer in a local university. Then, the interview protocol was examined thoroughly by three experts. The first expert was a senior lecturer from the Faculty of Technical and Vocational Education in a public university in Malaysia with more than ten years of experience in qualitative research. The second expert was the Head of the Department of Civil Engineering in a Malaysian polytechnic, with over ten years of experience in civil engineering. The third expert was the Head of the Department of Engineering from the Faculty of Technical and Vocational Education in a public university in Malaysia who had more than ten years of experience in career development.

Due to the objective of the study which was to explore the workplace communication skills, the interview protocol was more to inductive probing questions like, "Can you explain the types of communication that are much needed in the civil engineering workplace?" and "How are these communications used in the workplace, whether in the office or on a construction site?"

Participants

There were five respondents (three academic professionals and two industry experts) involved during the one-on-one in-depth interview sessions:

i). Two experts in the civil engineering industry with at least ten years of experience in the field. These two experts are skilled in training employees and accepting students to undergo industrial training in their company.

ii). Two liaison and industrial training officers with at least five years of experience.iii). A senior lecturer cum head of the civil engineering department at a polytechnic with over ten years of experience.

These participants were chosen as the respondents of this study because of their experiences in their fields, whereby they could respond to the interview questions with various inputs according to their experiences.

Data Collection

The interviews took around 40 minutes to one hour. All conversations were recorded and transcribed to obtain the constructs of communication skills for the engineering workplace. Then, participants were given their interview transcripts to review and approve the details they mentioned during the interview session.

Analysis

This study used the three steps of qualitative analysis proposed by Miles and Huberman (1983), which consisted of i) data reduction, ii) data display, and iii) making and verifying conclusions. During data reduction, data is converted into text form and coded to form categories and themes. Then, the categories and themes were arranged in the form of tables during data display. The final step in this qualitative data analysis involved the interpretations of the results by the researcher.

RESULTS

This section summarises interesting discoveries gained from the interview sessions. Four significant themes appeared from the transcribed data and categorised into oral communication, written communication, interpersonal communication, and visual communication. There were 34 sub-themes of communication skills identified from the interview sessions with five experts, concerning the civil engineering workplace (Table 1).

Table 1

Elements of civil	l engineering wo	rkplace communication o	btained from t	he interviews
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No.	Civil Engineering Workplace Communication	Frequency
Oral Con	imunication	
1.	Oral presentation	3
2.	Meetings	5
3.	Speaking in English	3
4.	Telephone conversation	2
5.	Briefing	4
6.	Giving/receiving instructions	4
7.	Discussion	3
8.	Asking questions	1
9.	Express idea	3
10.	Giving respond	5

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Table 1 (Continued)

No.	Civil Engineering Workplace Communication	Frequency
B. Writte	en Communication	
11.	E-mail/ letter	2
12.	Writing in English	2
13.	Report	5
14.	Memo	3
15.	Note taking	1
16.	Tender	2
17.	Documentation	2
18.	Social media	4
19.	Mathematical skill writing	2
C. Visual	Communication	
20.	Marketing (brochure/advertisement)	1
21.	Technical drawing	5
22.	Illustration/ photo/picture	1
23.	Charts	2
24.	Schedule/ table	4
25.	Catalogue	2
26.	Specification	3
27.	Demonstration	2
D. Interp	ersonal Communication	
28.	Social skill	1
29.	Cooperation (teamwork)	4
30.	Listening	2
31.	Conflict resolution	2
32.	Self-concept	2
33.	Emotional management	1
34.	Non-verbal signal	2

DISCUSSIONS

The discussions are based on the four emerged themes, which are oral communication, written communication, interpersonal communication, and visual communication.

Oral Communication

All participants emphasised that oral communication skill was mandatory for a professional or junior civil engineer because engineers needed to give instructions frequently to the general workers. If they could not deliver clear instructions, there would be misunderstandings that could lead to bigger mistakes. This finding is supported by the study by Yusof et al. (2018), who argued that most problems that arose during the implementation of a project at the construction site were due to the shortcomings and weaknesses of the communication system, especially in the dissemination of information and instructions.

"Oral communication is widely used because engineering is more to projects with site supervising work which need to make inspections. So, there is a lot to communicate. Civil engineering graduates are sometimes involved in controlling the general workers in which they become the supervisors. They need to know how to give proper instructions." (P1)

The above statement verifies the genre theory that communication exists through interactions and influences of other people's actions within the community. Participants also suggested that graduates needed to present their ideas clearly and master good phone conversation skills to prevent miscommunications. Bhattacharyya (2018) agreed that technical verbal presentation was one of the communicative events in engineering workplaces, which meant students who were highly competent in presentation skills tended to get employed once they graduated. Meanwhile, Bhattacharyya and Zainal (2015) in their study found that telephone conversation was a common practice of workplace communication.

"As junior engineers, they need to master oral communication. They must know how to communicate in public, make presentations. Phone conversations are a must, right. If you can't talk on the phone, how to communicate with clients or superiors at work to share information or messages? It is really important." (P2)

Graduates also need to be involved in team discussions in which they must ask questions to clarify matters or issues which are unclear. Graduates must have the confidence to ask questions and engage actively in team discussions to develop their generic skills (Zakaria et al., 2018).

"Verbal is widely used, for example, if we want to distribute the works, or ask something that we do not understand, or when we need to check our work with the superior whether it is correct or not." (P3)

"Oral communication. Team discussion happens almost every day. I think, like, we are a small company, we have many workloads, so if they want to learn more, they have to be proactive. They have to ask what they can do, what they can learn." (P4)

Participants in this study revealed that briefings conducted during toolbox meetings were vital and engineers who attended these meetings must respond appropriately to better understand the topics discussed. "...thus, listening and giving response are important." (P4)

"Briefing. We must have toolbox meetings every day, so verbal is very important...We cannot just sit and listen during meetings or briefing that we should respond something. If not, then we might come out with the wrong work." (P5)

Four participants highlighted the importance of speaking in English, especially for those working with big companies as English was the international language, and they needed to engage with people from different races including foreigners. Previous research by Chan (2019), Saleh and Murtaza (2018), and Zahari et al. (2016) also found that engineering graduates who spoke fluent English could positively develop their careers and were able to compete in the industry.

"In terms of language, if it is a big company, English is essential, so it depends on the company." (P1)

"If you want to become an engineer, you must speak good English." (P3)

"Then, speaking in English is vital because sometimes our client is a GLC client whose culture is in English like UEM." (P4)

"What I can see here is that English is extremely important. If you want to work with a private company, you need to communicate with all staff of different races like Chinese and Indians. Moreover, sometimes we are dealing with an overseas company so we must speak full English." (P5)

Written Communication

Our findings show that written communication is a part of the genre theory, which explains that genres are derived through contexts or situations combined with forms of communication. All five participants highlighted the importance of written communication skills in the civil engineering workplace. From the five, four participants were concerned about writing through social media (WhatsApp). Some of the benefits of writing using WhatsApp, according to the participants, are i) work, tasks, and instructions can be distributed within seconds; ii) easy to manage the employees/workers; and iii) information can be communicated in time, outside office hours or without the need to wait for face to face meetings. This finding is supported by the study by Turner et al. (2010), which argued that instant messaging provided a medium for collaboration and idea-sharing within the workplace environment.

"Mmm... WhatsApp. What kind of communication is this? Written communication. It is important right now. Anything we use WhatsApp. Fast, like... instructions." (P1)

"WhatsApp is not just important. It is very important. WhatsApp is just like we sit in a control room. The management using WhatsApp group or 'pm tepi' (personal message). Even all information is communicated to all the subordinates via the WhatsApp group. Quick and too fast." (P2)

"Then, short instruction is necessary because I noticed that when I want to check the drawings or specs (specifications), but I am outside like at the sites, I need to use WhatsApp." (P4)

"WhatsApp group now is used in work. This social app group is a social media platform, but now people are using it for work, so we cannot avoid that, and we have to act professionally." (P5)

Participants in this study also talked about the importance of writing in English, which was an advantage for graduates if they worked in big companies. They suggested that reports, which included progress reports and general reports, letters, and e-mail, should be written using the lingua franca. The study by Chan (2019) found that e-mail, minute, and report writing were frequent written communication events in the workplace, which needed to be done in English even in non-native countries because it was the international language. Yusuf et al. (2018) argued that English writing skills were an important element in today's global workplace, especially in writing memos, e-mails, notices, minutes and agendas, contract documents, reports (technical, daily, problem reports), and contracts.

"One more thing, written...even to reply letters, e-mails, are all in English, so if they can write in English, it is an advantage." (P4) "They need to master written communication skills. It is for official e-mail or memo, or letter. Indeed, fully English, even reporting all fully in English." (P5)

Participants also mentioned tender writing, which happened in civil works, writing memos or notices, contract documents, and taking notes using short forms. Furthermore, preparing documents for projects, completing reports, and writing meeting minutes are activities related to writing skills used in the workplace (Saleh & Murtaza, 2018). Participants also revealed that besides writing reports, e-mails, contract documents, and memos, Mathematical skill was the primary skill that graduates needed to master if they wanted to thrive in the engineering industry.

"Sometimes, they are not involved at the sites (construction), but they do management works, which involve tender writing, reports, and e-mails. In our experience, for civil engineering, they must write a regular report, which is the progress report (project). Sometimes they are involved with... what is the name... quotation...tender." (P1)

"We are not going to train them to become secretaries. If they can write and calculate, they can be junior or assistant engineers. Usually, a junior or assistant engineer needs to edit contract documents. Contract documents are standard documents. The only difference is the type of project and taking off. Besides, how to help with our verbal is... what we put on that wall? Memo or notice." (P2) *"Written. They need to make reports and sometimes need to pass over the works." (P3)*

"Then, we must take notes during meetings. It is important to get input from the meeting. Then if you need to make a minute, you can use that note. All instructions must be written in notes so that we will not forget what to do, and we must be good in short forms." (P5)

Interpersonal Communication

Participants in this study also mentioned interpersonal communication directly and indirectly. Cooperation, tolerance, and listening skill were perceived as interpersonal communication. These are essential, especially in teamwork, so that they can prevent miscommunication and conflicts. As stated by Azmi et al. (2018), teamwork skills such as cooperation and toleration guaranteed engineering graduates could function effectively both individually and in teams. Lenard and Pintarić (2018) proposed that active listening was vital as it was a tool to understand and interpret oral and non-verbal communication.

"Interpersonal is also crucial, like... cooperation. Then, listening skill, be a good listener among colleagues." (P1)

"Interpersonal. Cooperation is important, and then toleration" (P4)

Social skill is also vital in the workplace because graduates need to mix around and involve themselves in various interactions, especially when working in teams. Fareen (2018) agreed that social skills like understanding others, developing rapport, and team support were crucial interpersonal skills in a workplace. Hess et al. (2016) suggested that empathy and care in social skills were valuable in building relationships, trust, and respect at engineering workplaces.

"Okay, and then, environment. Social. Yes, social. To me, social is very important... what we call it? Interpersonal...yes, interpersonal. In terms of body language, facial expressions when talking to people. They are all interpersonal." (P2)

"Interaction with staff... avoid sharing personal matters, need to show positive communication and avoid the negative one...Interpersonal." (P3)

"We work with our superior, and we work with the general workers. So, our interactions with our subordinates and our communication with our superiors are very important." (P5)

A d d i t i o n a l l y, n o n - v e r b a l communication, such as body language and facial expressions, is considered as interpersonal communication by a participant (P3). According to the participant, non-verbal communication is crucial to avoid misunderstanding. Lenard and Pintarić (2018) argued that non-verbal communication was a clue about a person's feelings or intentions. Other than that, emotion and self-concept also played essential parts in this kind of communication skill. This study is in line with the study by Masek and Masduki (2017), who found that a low level of self-concept and being emotional would affect skill performance.

One participant (P5) suggested conflict management as an interpersonal skill without mentioning the construct directly. This finding supports the study by Kovac and Sirkovic (2017), who justified that the skill to resolve conflict was desirable in a workplace in order to become a productive team member. According to Mehrabian (2008), 7% of individual communication is verbal communication that contains content and meaning, 38% is non-verbal communication, such as voice, intonation, and tone, while 55% of communication contains body language communication.

"That's why I said that the tone of voice is important when we mix with others so that there is no misunderstanding. Sometimes we are emotional, but we are not impolite, but people think we are rude. Then, selfconfidence is important. They need to reveal their talent to express their ideas." (P3)

"When there is a problem or conflict, we need to find the solution, to see the ideas how we can solve it." (P5)

The above statements show that the interpersonal communication theory is the best theory to explain workplace communication, which not only involves speech, but may also be explained by gestures, expressions, or body language (non-verbal).

Visual Communication

Civil engineering and visual communication cannot be apart. In civil engineering organizations, visual communication is particularly important in engineering presentations and drawings where it needs to be well understood in order to avoid misinformation, misrepresentation of tasks, and misunderstandings. This can be proven by statements from the participants of this study, although three participants (P2, P4, P5) did not mention the core skill directly. In the field of civil engineering, genres such as drawing plans are intended to provide guidance and information to engineers, technicians, and workers on important things that need to be done on the construction site, including materials that should be used along with the right specifications. Thus, plan and drawing are the most revealed elements of visual communications in this study.

According to all participants, civil engineering graduates must have the ability to read and draw plans in order to build the exact structures, which are their core business. Husain et al. (2015) in their study revealed that polytechnic engineering students must know how to communicate with drawings and to use Auto-CAD as it was a necessary employability skill. Graduates must also be familiar with the specifications used in the plans or drawings. Only one participant did not mention the work schedule, which was pivotal in tracking projects' progress and making sure the project was completed on time. "Besides, visual. Graduates must be good at making specifications, schedules, draw and read plans." (P1)

"They communicate with drawings and plans. They must have the ability to read plans and drawings because they need to know how to transfer the drawings to sites." (P2)

"Graduates need to master the work schedule because once they work, they need to supervise practicum students and become supervisors. They also need to be good at drawing, know how to draw, and read the drawing, AutoCAD. Then, they should know how to take pictures and make reports. These are what we call? Image or what? Visual." (P3)

"I think for construction, we are dealing with structures, so they need to prepare BQ, catalogue, and drawing, because even though we are talking about the same things, but others' perceptions are different. The work schedule is important for us to check our progress." (P4)

"If you want to manage projects, you need to know how to read and draw plans. You must master the standards. Assistant or junior engineers should manage the project based on the work program (work schedule)." (P5)

One participant (P2) mentioned the importance of demonstration, which was a useful tool to show how to perform specific tasks at the site to the general workers. Demonstrations are one of the best and effective methods to show others how to perform a task or skill (Selamat et al., 2012). Other than that, respondent P5 stated that graduates needed to have the skill of referring to the catalogues to make sure the exact materials were used in the project.

"Besides, we need to bring samples. Sometimes the general workers do not know what we want, for instance, to bend iron. So, let us bring some iron, and do the bending in front of them. Demonstration... yes, demonstration." (P2)

"Another example is, to make piling, you need to know how to refer to the catalogue in order to approve the supplier." (P5)

Respondent P3 in this study added the skill in making brochures as a valueadded skill for graduates who worked with developers. Yusuf et al. (2018) emphasised that designing advertisements or brochures as one of the essential skills that should be done in English. Besides that, charts are used as a project's schedule (Gantt chart) and during presentations as a tool that helps to support the verbal explanation.

"Sometimes they need to make brochures because they are multitasking, especially if they work with developers." (P3)

"Usually, there are presentations, maybe using PowerPoint, or present using charts... Charts are not necessarily for presentations. Sometimes it is necessary to create a Gantt chart or flow chart for a project." (P1)

CONCLUSION

This study has shown that oral communication is the most widely needed communication skill for civil engineering graduates, whereas written communication is compulsory in the workplace. Interpersonal communication, although it seems to be neglected by many graduates, is a highly demanded communication skill by the industry. Civil engineering graduates and visual communication cannot be separated because the field depends tremendously on drawings and plans to manage projects. Both at the individual and team level, graduates will find it challenging to work in the industry if they do not develop mutual agreement through communication to support their work activities. Although there are communication courses for students, these are mainly focused on communication skills at the higher learning institutions and do not pay full attention to the workplace communication skills that students will use during their industrial training and when they join the industry after graduation.

The findings of this study have a few important implications for future practice. Universities and colleges should synchronise the communication courses to the demands of the industry and provide a workplace learning environment so that students can effectively learn workplace communication skills in a more practical way. The communication courses for engineering students should not only include oral and written communication but need to incorporate interpersonal and visual communication, which focuses on all the workplace communication elements mentioned in the finding of this study.

Limitations of the Research

Due to the small number of participants in this study, the researchers could not make any generalisation about the experts' perceptions regarding workplace communication skills. Notwithstanding the relatively limited sample, this work offers valuable insights into the demands of the industry concerning civil engineering graduates' communication skills at the workplace.

Recommendation for Future Research

Future research should investigate workplace communication skills with a more significant number of participants, both qualitatively and quantitatively. The present study lays the groundwork for future research into the effectiveness of communication courses at higher education institutions from the perspective of employers to meet the demand of the labour market.

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The Appraisal System in Greenpeace Food Campaigns

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ABSTRACT

Since food is a necessity for human life, there have been many innovations aimed at speeding up food production. However, these innovations can have negative effects on the environment and, thus, the overall food system. Greenpeace, a non-governmental organization, creates food campaigns that include online materials touting a better food system, naming bad corporations, and asking readers or supporters to join the campaigns. This study analyzes Greenpeace's attitude in evaluating the environment using Halliday and Matthiessen's transitivity system and Martin and White's appraisal framework. The research was conducted using UAM CorpusTool software to perform a quantitative analysis of the data in terms of transitivity and appraisal. The results show that Greenpeace's food campaigns contain judgments as the most frequent appraisal in material clauses and relational clauses. These judgments concern how entities, processes, and innovations affect the environment.

Keywords: Appraisal, discourse, food campaign, Greenpeace, transitivity

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INTRODUCTION

Food is a necessity for sustaining human life, and our dependence on it has inspired various forms of food production, including genetics innovations and innovative food processing methods. However, innovations in food production do not always have positive impacts on human beings as they can have negative impacts on the environment, which in turn affect human life. In response to environmentally unfriendly food production, world organizations seek to improve food management and replace food systems that damage the Earth with ones that are environmentally friendly and sustainable. One of the world organizations campaigning on food is Greenpeace. This environmental organization spreads food campaign messages on its official website.

A campaign is usually triggered by human's activities which affect the environment (Scherrer, 2009). According to Trampe (2001), Greenpeace campaigns usually raise environment issues such as toxic materials, pollution, waste, destruction of natural habitats, extinction of species, and nuclear energy. The campaign slogan is Our Food, Our Future, which is inseparable from Greenpeace's evaluations of food management practices concerning their environmental conditions, character, and impact. They clearly state the enterprises and the industry that contribute in degrading environment. Therefore, they evaluate certain entity in their food campaign.

Greenpeace's campaigns also define the conservation which is important to preserve the environment. Therefore, the campaigns use some lexicons that relate to conservation. Yuniawan et al. (2019) stated the functions of those lexicons in the campaign were (1) an instrumental function to state a movement; (2) a representation function consisting of: (a) giving names, (b) describing characters, (c) describing activities (d) referring to places, (e) stating art diversity, (f) describing situations, (g) stating types; and (3) personal function to express compliments. Thus, the words or phrases in Greenpeace's campaign can express the act of Greenpeace whose aim is to be easily understood for the readers. Furthermore, the readers can implement the steps to protect environment.

The evaluation can be analyzed by appraisal. Appraisal plays an important role in ecolinguistics which includes ecology discourse since it can influence the mindset's of people about environment such as negative or positive evaluation (Stibbe, 2010). Moreover, the writers or the speakers can share their value by appraising (Hunston & Thompson, 2000). Therefore, appraisal in ecology discourse can lead people to act and preserve for the environment by stating which things are good or bad for the environment.

The appraisal on the ecology discourse has been studied by Bednarek and Caple (2010). They applied the theory of appraisal of Martin and White (2005) to analyze the environmental reporting in the Australian newspaper, The Sydney Morning Herald. The study of Bednarek and Caple (2010) particularly found out the appraisal on image and the heading which only focused on appreciation and graduation aspect. Nurdiyani (2019) had also conducted a research of ecology discourse. She studied the appraisal of environmentalists relating to the issue of the capital move of Indonesia. She figured out that the environmentalists mostly criticized by expressing negative appreciation. However, another aspect of the appraisal is required to investigate the author's way to evaluate environment.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine how Greenpeace evaluates various entities in its food campaigns. We applied Martin and White's (2005) appraisal framework, which described the linguistic aspect in evaluating objects, things or phenomena as one part of language meta-function, namely, the interpersonal function. The framework also describes the subjectivity of the author of a text, seen how the author expresses his or her opinions and aligns them to the readers (Martin & White, 2005). Particularly, by conducting this study, readers can recognise which are the good or bad side of food system for the environment. Furthermore, this research could expose the ideology of Greenpeace in the food campaign which was the evaluation might have influenced the readers' value. Hence, the readers are aware of bad food system such as agriculture, pesticides and large food factories.

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Appraisal Framework

Martin and White's (2005) appraisal framework identifies attitude, graduation, and engagement as the different domains of appraisal. Each is defined below.

Attitude describes how writers or speakers judge something, and it consists of three aspects, namely, affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin & White, 2005). Affect is concerned with emotions or feelings, including positive emotions like happiness and negative emotions like sadness (Martin & White, 2005), which are respectively divided into un/happiness, in/security, and dis/satisfaction. Bednarek (2008) identified a new domain within affect, surprise, which according to Martin and White's (2005) appraisal framework is included in the negative feeling of insecurity. Bednarek (2008) considered that a new category was needed since suprise was not interpreted as negative meaning rather than neutral meaning.

A *judgment* is an evaluation shown by praising, criticizing, blaming, or admiring (Martin & White, 2005). Judgment can be divided into five aspects, namely, normality, capacity, tenacity, veracity, and propriety (Martin & White, 2005). Normality deals with usual and unusuality traits, such as whether something is natural, odd, lucky, or obscure. Capacity refers to capabilities, such as whether a person is powerful, weak, robust, sick, or successful. Tenacity deals with dependability, such as whether someone is un/reliable, un/dependable, or wary. Veracity deals with honesty, including traits such as truthfulness, lying, or dishonesty. Propriety deals with ethics, such as whether someone is im/moral, fair, or greedy.

Meanwhile, *appreciation* is divided into reaction, composition, and valuation. Reaction is concerned with the impact phenomena or things have on people's feelings, such as whether they are fascinating, boring, dull, or exciting. Composition is concerned with the balance or complexity of phenomena or things, while evaluation is concerned with the worth of phenomena or things, such as whether they are valuable, priceless, worthless, or useless.

White (2015) clearly mentioned the assessment of positive and negative within appraisal's theory. The positive and negative of affect can be constructed by using the state of emotion such as *happy* is considered as positive and sad is considered as negative. While the positive and negative of judgement refer the behaviour of human which is in this study towards environment. The appreciation's dichotomy of positive and negative is based on the quality of phenomena or objects. In this case, the phenomena of food system which cause the destruction of environment is considered as negative appraisal. Yet, the act of preserving environment is positive.

Besides positive and negative, the appraisal can also be divided into inscribed and evoked. According to Oteíza (2017), inscribed appraisal means the evaluation is expressed directly whereas the evoked appraisal means the evaluation needs to be implied. the inscribed is usually realised by lexical items. on the other hand, evoked is expressed by metaphorical expression.

The graduation indicates the strength or weakness of an evaluation (Martin & White, 2005). This domain is divided into force, which is the lexical realization of attitude, and focus, which is the lexical realization providing strong or weak effects of an appraisal. Force relates to intensity as shown through repetition; adverbs such as extremely, very, slightly, and greatly; and quantity as expressed by words like a few, nearby,small, large, and many. Meanwhile, focus relates to semantic categories that are not scalable, represented in expressions such as real, sort of, true, really, and kind of (Read & Carroll, 2012). Hence, graduation clarifies and emphasizes the author's intention in a text.

Finally, *engagement* is an appraisal with two domains: how writers or speakers position themselves and how they position certain entities (Martin & White, 2005).

Among these domains within the appraisal framework, this study focuses only on attitude and graduation.

Transitivity

Language reflects its social context (Halliday, 1985, in Haratyan, 2011). One function of language is to describe events or phenomena that can be represented by ideational clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Here, the transitivity system can elaborate clauses that represent an experience by describing the process, participants, and circumstances (Santoso, 2008). Transitivity involves at least two participants and an action that affects one participant (Hopper & Thompson, 1980). Thus, transitivity includes in the domain of ideational metafunction explains what is happening and also the role and state in a clause. The transitivity analysis in this study identifies agents and their impacts on the environment by focusing on features such as processes, participants, and circumstances.

This study follows Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) classification of process type. There are six processes: material, behavioral, mental, verbal, relational, and existential. The material process marks an action and something that is happening. Then, the behavioral process marks the behavior, while the mental process interprets things that are perceived by someone or something. The verbal process takes place in the spoken domain, the relational process relates to attributive and identifying while the existential process indicates that a particular entity exists. These process types are summarized in Table 1.

In this study, each process type corresponds to a clause type. Material clauses describe actions and environmental impacts. Meanwhile, relational clauses provide characteristics or attributes of entities mentioned in the food campaigns. Mental clauses mark that there are a set of considerations, reasoning, and emotions associated with food. Verbal clauses indicate the appraisal items that evaluate entities related to food. They present speech delivered by a particular entity about food or food systems. Existential clauses note the presence of the current food system. Thus, by identifying the participant, process, and circumstance, transitivity helps to construe experience of evaluating the environment (Mayo & Taboada, 2017).

Table 1

Transitivity: process, meaning, and participants (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014)

PROCESS	Category	Participants,	Participant,
TYPE	meaning	directly involved	Obliquely Involved
material:	'doing'	Actor, Goal	Recipient, Client;
action	'doing'		Scope; Initiator;
event	'happening'		Attribute
behavioural	'behaving'	Behaver	Behaviour
Mental:	'sensing'	Senser,	Inducer
perception	'seeing'	Phenomenon	
cognition	'thinking'		
desideration	'wanting'		
emotion	'feeling'		
Verbal	'saying'	Sayer, Target	Receiver; Verbiage
relational:	'being'		
attribution	'attributing'	Carrier, Attribute	Attributor;
identification	identifying	Identified,	Beneficiary,
		Identifier, Token,	Assigner
		Value	
Existential	'existing'	Existent	

METHOD

Data Collection

The data in this study are the evaluation items contained in the food category of online text for Greenpeace campaigns. The data were taken from Greenpeace International's official website, https:// www.greenpeace.org/archive-international/ en/campaigns/agriculture/. There were 11 articles on the food category which were categorized into problem and solution. Only written data were collected, meaning that any food-related items mentioned in videos or visuals (and not also mentioned in the website text) were not analyzed.

The text of pages from Greenpeace's food campaigns was copied and transferred to Microsoft Word to facilitate the annotation step. Next, the data were annotated and categorized by appraisal domain such as affect, judgment, and appreciation. Whereas, the analysis of graduation is based on Martin and White's parameter of lexis.

Data Analysis

The study used corpus linguistics as an empirical method to analyze and describe the language data using statistical inference (Crystal, 1992; Jackson, 2007, in Cheng, 2012). UAM CorpusTool was the software used for the systemic-functional analysis concerning transitivity and appraisal (O'Donnell, 2014). That is, UAM CorpusTool was employed to identify the appraisal tendencies in Greenpeace food campaigns.

The analytical framework of the study was appraisal and transitivity, which is part of systemic-functional linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The first step was identifying the type of processes, participants, and circumstances in the clauses. The second step was describing the appraisals contained in the clauses. Then, in the third step, the appraisals were annotated based on the domains contained in the clauses (e.g., attitude and graduation), which show Greenpeace's attitude in evaluating the various entities.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Attitude in Clause Types

The data show Greenpeace's attitudes and evaluation of various entities. Table 2 presents the frequency of each attitude type by the clause categories.

Table 2		
Attitude	by type	of clause

Type of clause	Type of attitude	Number	%	
Material	affect	1	0.85	
	judgment	103	88.03	
	appreciation	13	11.11	

Type of clause	Type of attitude	Number	%	
Relational	affect	13	11.30	
	judgment	52	45.22	
	appreciation	50	43.48	
Mental	affect	1	5.88	
	judgment	6	35.29	
	appreciation	10	58.82	
Verbal	affect	2	50.00	
	judgment	0	0.00	
	appreciation	2	50.00	
Existential	affect	0	0.00	
	judgment	1	100.00	
	appreciation	0	0.00	

Table 2 (Continued)

As Table 2 shows, judgment is the most common attitude overall, followed by appreciation and then affect. In relational clauses, judgment is also the most common attitude type, followed by appreciation and then affect. In mental clauses, it is appreciation, then judgment and affect, in that order. Meanwhile, in verbal clauses, affect and appreciation are equally frequent attitudes and there are no instances of judgment. In existential clauses, the data show only one instance of judgment.

Material Clauses

Material clauses are the most common clause type in the Greenpeace food campaigns. Clause 1-4 present examples of the material clauses that contain appraisals. Clause 1

The current broken food system	is devastating	our planet.
Actor	process: material	goal

Clause 1, contains the material process devastating and indicates that there is a devastating action done by the current broken food system that has an impact on the goal, our planet. In other words, the clause represents the impact that an agent, namely, the current broken food system, has on Earth. Furthermore, the use of past progressive (is devastating) indicates that the impact is still in progress. Thus, the clause shows that *the current broken food system* is able to perform an action that Greenpeace appraises as negative against *the broken food system*, through the material process of *devastation* (i.e., negative capacity).

Clause 2

Eco-farming	combines	<i>modern</i> <i>science</i> and innovation	with respect	for nature and biodiversity.
actor	process:	target	circum-	client
	material		stance:	
			comitative	

Clause 2 is a material clause that identifies the role of eco-farming. In the clause, eco-farming is the actor performing the action; combines is the material process followed by the target, modern science and innovation; with respect is the circumstance because this phrase comes along with the target; and nature and biodiversity is the client. The clause defines the action of eco-farming, namely, combining modern science and innovation. Since this process of combining science and innovation is done with respect for the environment in order to preserve nature and the diversity of living things, eco-farming maintains environmental sustainability. The process

explains the action done by eco-farming as well as the method and objectives of the process, namely, *with respect for nature and biodiversity* as an action that emphasizes the importance of the environment. *with respect for nature and biodiversity* is an appraisal since the phrase states the function of ecofarming's method. The method contains a *positive propriety* that evaluates eco-farming positively. Subsequently, the item *with respect for nature and biodiversity* confirms that *eco-farming* is a *positive* appraised item because it fits with Greenpeace's vision and mission, such as preserving and protecting the environment.

Clause 3

Six corporations, Monsanto,	control	75% of the World
DuPont, Dow, Syngenta, Bayer,		market pesticides.
and BASF,		
actor	process:	goal
	material	

Clause 4

Only four corporations, control ADM, Bunge, Cargill, and Dreyfus actor process: more than 75% of the global grain trade.

goal

material

Clause 3 and 4, respectively, are material clauses with *control* as the verb. The actors in Clause 3 are *Mosanto*, *DuPont*, *Dow*, *Syngenta*, *Bayer*, *and BASF*, whereas the actors in Clause 4 are *ADM*, *Bunge*, *Cargill*, *and Dreyfus*. The target of the action in the form of a thing that is possessed by the enterprises is75% of the world pesticides market in Clause 3 and more than 75% of the

global grain trade in Clause 4. The actors have the same ability to dominate different goals, namely, controlling pesticides in Clause 3 and controlling the grain trade in Clause 4. The two material clauses, therefore, contain negative appraisals of Mosanto, DuPont, Dow, Syngenta, Bayer, BASF, ADM, Bunge, Cargill, and Dreyfus.

Clause 5

GMO crops	have gone	only	in the past 20
		mainstream	years.
actor	process: material	scope: process	circumstance: time

Clause 5, is a material clause that contains a material process in the form of *gone*. The material process is modified by the auxiliary verb *have*, indicating the action has taken place. Meanwhile, the scope of the clause, *mainstream*, is a noun as a signifier that expresses conventional's activity. The material process *gone* is a process that creates changes, while the time circumstance *in the past 20 years* indicates the state of the process. The actor is *GMO crops* (GMO: genetically modified organism) as an innovation aimed at producing crops in high quantities. Accordingly, the clause describes GMO crops as an entity that has become common in the last 20 years, but emphasizes that this is fairly recent. In other words, GMO crops are indicated to be *mainstream* which is an appraisal. *Mainstream*, therefore, is a judgment appraisal of *positive normality* for describing the state of GMO crops.

Relational Clauses

Clauses 6 to 15, respectively, are relational clauses that contain appraisals.

We	literally	have

Clause 6

owner

literally	have	the power	to change the world.
circumstance:	process:	attribute	target
quality	relational		

Clause 6 is a relational clause that consists of *we*, which refers to the readers and Greenpeace as the "owner" or possessor; *literally*, which is the circumstance of quality; *have*, which is a possessive relational process indicating ownership of something; and *the power to change the world*, which is an attribute of the relational process. The power is a noun that means a capability of a person to control things. In other words, the relational process brings a conclusion in the form of *we*, which is the owner of power.

In addition, the clause contains an appraisal in the attributes of *the power to change the world*, indicating that the power we own can be used to change the world. Therefore, the item is categorized as *positive capacity*.

Clause 7			Clause 8		
It	advances	technologies	that	are	locally available and free or inexpensive for farmers.
actor	processes: material	goal	conjunction	process: relational	attribute

Clause 7 is a complex compound sentence that contains a material clause in the main clause. In the material clause, the pronoun it refers to eco-farming, followed by the verb advances as the material process that marks technologies as an action or deed. This clause indicates that the clause that are locally available and free or inexpensive for farmers, is the target of eco-farming. Meanwhile, Clause 8 is a relational clause in which the *carrier* refers to the main clause. namely, the technology of eco-farming, while are is a relational process that gives the characteristics of locally available and free or inexpensive for farmers as the carrier. The word available consists of verb avail and suffix -able which means able to used. This clause explains that eco-

farming technology is available locally and cheaply for farmers, such that eco-farming promotes technologies that provide benefits for farmers. The relationship of Clauses 7 and 8 shows a representation of ecofarming by the undertaken action in the form of *advance* and the applied attribute locally available and free or inexpensive for farmers. Therefore, the attribute applied in Clause 8 contains Greenpeace's appraisal of eco-farming in the form of locally available, which indicates that the technology can be gained for the farmers locally; thus, the appraisal has a positive capacity. Meanwhile, free or inexpensive for farmers is the appraisal item indicating the value of eco-farming technology; thus, the item has a positive valuation.

Clause 9

It	is	also	environmentally
			irresponsible.
carrier	process: relational	circumstance: additive	attribute

Clause 9, is a relational clause that contains *it* referring to *golden rice*, which is given the attribute *environmentally irresponsible* by the relational process *is*. the word irresponsible is an adjective that modifies golden rice as a noun. in other words, golden rice is identified as a thing that does not show responsibility. Environmentally is an adverb that modifies adjective; irresponsible. In addition, the adverb explains the impact of an irresponsible act to the environment. Thus, this attribute is an appraisal of *golden rice*, and since *environmentally irresponsible* is not in accordance with Greenpeace's value of protecting the environment, the appraisal item is a judgment of *negative propriety*.

Clause 10			
Cattle	are	responsible	for up to 80% of
enterprises			Amazon deforestation.
carrier	process:	attribute	circumstance: reason
	relational		

Clause 10, is a relational clause with *are* as the verb that explains *responsible* as the adjective attribute, and *for up to 80% of Amazon deforestation* as the circumstance. The carrier *cattle enterprises* are considered to have responsibilities concerning the

Amazon rainforest. Hence, there is an appraisal toward the *carrier* in referring to the attribute *responsible*, namely, *positive propriety* because it defines the obligation of cattle enterprises for the environment.

Clause 11		
Industrial	is	a system with an expiration date.
agriculture		
Carrier	process:	attribute
	material	

Clause 11, is a relational clause with the relational process *is* as a marker, *industrial agriculture* as the carrier, and *a system with an expiration date* as the attribute. *the phrase a system with an expiration date is a noun phrase which is a complement of industrial agriculture. A system with an expiration date* is a characteristic of *industrial agriculture*. In other words, the agriculture industry has a limit in food management. This characteristic of *industrial agriculture* contains a value appraisal, namely, a negative *valuation* as the evaluation of the nature of the agricultural industry.

Clause 12

Using GE crops to try to solve	is	simply the wrong
problems of malnutrition		approach and risky
		distraction.
Carrier	process:	attribute
	relational	

Clause 12, is a relational clause with *is* as the realization of the relational process to connect *using GE crops to try to solve the problem of malnutrition* to the attribute *simply the wrong approach and a risky distraction*. Using GE seeds, therefore, is not the solution to overcome malnutrition, because GE is considered dangerous. This characterization of the attribute toward the carrier is an appraisal. The words wrong and risky are inscribed appraisal since

wrong means not correct action and the latter is the possibility of environmental danger. In other words, the attribute *simply wrong approach and risky distraction* is the Greenpeace evaluation of GE crops as an incorrect step of using GE crops, which is an appreciation of *negative valuation*. On the other hands, risky is a negative capacity because it defines the dangerous possibility to the environment by using GE crops.

Clause 13		
Livestock	is	the most significant contributor to nitrogen and phosphorus pollution of streams, rivers, and coastal waters.
carrier	process: relational	Attribute

In Clause 13, *is* constitutes a relational process that identifies *livestock* as *the most significant contributor* of *to nitrogen and phosphorus pollution of streams, rivers, and coastal waters*. The clause thus describes that livestock contributes to river pollution. The word significant is an adjective which identifies livestock as sufficiently great

causal of pollution. Accordingly, *the most* significant contributors to nitrogen and phosphorus pollution of streams, rivers, and coastal waters have the attribute of a negative valuation appraisal since there is an evaluation of the livestock characteristics, namely, that they adversely affect the environment.

Clause 14		
Food	is	happiness.
carrier	process: relational	attribute

Clause 14, is an attributive relational clause with *is* as the relational process. The

relational process characterizes *food* by the use of *happiness*. Happiness is an inscribed

appraisal because it depicts the emotion of the state of being happy. Therefore, it is a positive feeling. In other words, happiness is an attribute of food, and it contains an appraisal of the affect of *happiness*.

Clause 15		
It	ensures	healthy farmingand healthy food.
carrier	process:	
	relational	attribute

Clause 15, is a paratactic clause from the previous clause, *Eco-farming combines modern science and innovation with respect for nature and biodiversity*, where the pronoun *it* refers to *eco-farming*. The clause is a relational clause in which *ensures* is the attributive relational process that confirms that the attribute *healthy farming and healthy food* is associated with *ecofarming*. In other words, *eco-farming* can produce *healthy farming* and *healthy food* because there is certainty realized from the relational process. Therefore, *ensure* is a verb that defines the act of making safe which characterizes the eco-farming as a safe method to the environment. Hence, ensure is an appraisal item which is included to affect *security*.

Mental Clauses

Mental clauses in the food campaigns refer to entities perceived in different ways by Greenpeace, as follows.

Clause 16

Grown chemically, pumped with additives, preservatives and flavor enhancers, and synthetically manufactured farmed food

phenomenon

doeswiththenothealthiertaste-alternativetallyreality.process:circumstance:mentalcomitative

Clause 16, includes the mental process of perception taste-tally involving the human senses. Meanwhile, the phenomenon indicates that food that exists today is grown chemically, pumped with additives, preservatives and flavor enhancers, and synthetically manufactured farmed. The negation in the process does not indicate that the phenomenon is not in line with expectations. The circumstance in the clause offers a comparison of the idea of processed food with the reality that this food is not healthy. The role of the senser is not filled in the clause, but Greenpeace, as the carrier of the campaign, could, therefore, be called the senser. The clause contains an

appreciation, namely, a *negative reaction* that can be explained by the presence of a mental process, mainly the perception of artificial food, which is not compatible with reality. Meanwhile, grown chemically, pumped with additives, preservatives, and flavor enhancers and manufactured and synthetically farmed food are phrases that contain an appraisal of *negative composition*. In this case, Greenpeace articulates that artificial food is not good food.

Verbal Clause

Clause 17 is a verbal clause that contains an appraisal.

Clause 17

Clause 18

Say	"No "	to industrial
process: verbal	verbiage	target

It is an imperative clause, which means it issues a command. *Say* is the verbal process, *no* is verbiage, and *industrial agriculture* is the target. The subject or *sayer* is the reader, although this is not expressed overtly. There is an appraisal in the verbiage *no*, which indicates that products and techniques developed by the agricultural industry should be avoided. Thus, the appraisal item falls within the *negative propriety* domain.

agriculture

Existential Clause

An existential clause in the Greenpeace food campaigns identifies the existence of an entity.

There	is	a better system.
subject	process: existential	existent

In Clause 18, *is* is the existential process indicating that the entity (*system*) exists at present. The clause has a parataxis connection with *The fact that the current broken food system is devastating our planet*. In other words, the existential clause means that apart from the current, damaged food system, there is a better food system. The clause then becomes an opening to a new narrative on this better alternative food system. Thus, the existential clause contains an appraisal indicating that there is a better food system for the environment, such that the appraisal item has a *positive capacity* judgment.

Summary on Clause Types

The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis show that judgment is the most common form of appraisal in the campaign, especially in material clauses. Judgment as the valuation indicates that the actor performs actions that cause change or have impacts on the environment. The appraisal judgment items are capacities that emphasize the ability to do something, propriety that identifies actions that should be done, and normality indicating the prevalent conditions. Meanwhile, judgment in the relational clauses indicates the character of the item's appraised behavior, while judgment in the mental clauses describes the evaluation of what Greenpeace perceives as being for or against the food system.

In the appraisal system, appreciation is found the most in relational clauses, which contain evaluations as characteristics or identity in the food campaigns. Meanwhile, in the material clauses, appreciation appears in relation to phenomena that are considered changes or actions by an actor. In the mental clauses, appreciation shows Greenpeace's judgment or evaluation concerning the food system, while in the verbal clauses it signifies the things uttered in the Greenpeace food campaigns.

In this data, the negative forms refer to industrial agriculture, genetic engineering for crops, and livestock, which are characterized as having the capability of yielding harmful effects on the environment, performing actions that have consequences for the environment, and being out of line with the principles of Greenpeace, such as maintaining and preserving the environment. Greenpeace evaluated entities such as large enterprises as contributors to environmental damage.

Meanwhile, the positive forms refer to eco-farming, a type of farming that is done ecologically and takes into account innovation and respect for the environment. Thus, Greenpeace judges that innovations in food systems such as industrial agriculture, livestock, and genetically modified crops are destroyers of the environment, while it considers eco-farming a system that respects the environment and is, therefore, the right approach.

Graduation in Greenpeace Food Campaigns

Graduation is an appraisal subsystem that analyzes the high and low intensity of the appraisal. That is, it may be used to reinforce or weaken an evaluation. Below is an analysis of graduation items in the Greenpeace food campaigns.

Force: Quantification. The data contain various examples of quantification.

- (1) <u>365-day</u> supermarket availability
- (2) crams hundreds of animals
- (3) generates as much as

In (1), the quantification of *supermarket availability* is strengthened because the scale is a number (*365-day*) that refers to the frequency of the entity. In (2), *hundreds* is a number that quantifies the noun. Then, in (3), *as much as* is a graduation that modifies the verb, which is a form of number quantification included in *upscaling*.

(4) can feed the world for generations

In (4), the graduation is a proximitytime quantification (upscaling). The phrase *for generations* as time proximity reinforces the idea of a long-term effect. Therefore, the quantification on food's campaign vividly describes the extent of effect the entity to the environment. The numbers that have been mentioned make the evaluation stronger.

Force: Qutensification. Examples (5) to (8) demonstrate force, or intensification, in the text of the food campaigns.

- (5) mean more and more
- (6) *more meat aware*
- (7) *the more we can do to change it*
- (8) eating <u>less</u> meat

More and more in (5) is a form of repetition, which is the intensification mode. More is used to modify the verb mean. Since the word more shows a degree of comparison (i.e., something is more than the other), the degree is upscale. Meanwhile, more in (6) is an intensification that reinforces the adjective meat aware. Then, the comparative in (7) the more we can do to change it contains a quality intensification that reinforces the verb. The phrase less meat in (8) is a form of graduation involving reduced quantification of the noun.

(9) grown <u>chemically</u>
(10) <u>simultaneously</u> tackling
(11) <u>locally</u> available
(12) <u>especially</u> vulnerable

The graduation items in (9) to (12) are intensifications whose scale are increasing, meaning they confirm the appraisal. In (9) and (10), respectively, *chemically* and *simultaneously* modify verbs, while in (11) and (12), *locally* and *especially* modify adjectives by adding attitudinal tone. In addition, *especially* in (12) is a *maximization*, which assigns the highest possible intensity to reinforce the appraisal of importance.

(13) <u>the most</u> effective
(14) <u>precious</u> water supply

In (13), *the most* is a superlative, so the phrases have a rising intensification. Then, in (14), *precious* is an intensification of quality with *upscaling*. It modifies the noun

water supply by adding an attitudinal tone.

The intensification in the food campaign have shown that Greenpeace emphasizes on the quality. In other words, Greenpeace wants to influence the readers by using intensity degree which makes the readers understand the quality of appraised items.

Focus. In addition to force, instances of focus are found, such as in (15) and (16).

(15) We <u>literally</u> have the power to change the world.

(16) the <u>real</u> long-lasting solution populations affected by Vitamin A Deficiency need

In (15), *literally* describes the power of the readers and Greenpeace to have an impact on the food system. In (16), *real* is used to point to eco-farming as a solution to cure Vitamin A deficiency (VAD). Both examples use sharpening to emphasize an entity's impact on the environment, whether it is good or bad. Moreover, these instances of sharpening clarify Greenpeace's intention to protect the environment.

Thus, the graduations found in the Greenpeace food campaigns are intensifications concerning the degree of the intensity evaluation and sharpening. The graduations modify the verbs, nouns, and adjectives that emphasize evaluations. Upscaling or rising scale serves to demonstrate a strong position in order to align Greenpeace's evaluation with readers. Meanwhile, the *downscale* found in the data provides an opportunity for readers to examine the position of the Greenpeace campaigns and instances of sharpening make the campaign more convincing.

CONCLUSION

This study discusses the attitude appraisal contained in the clauses identified by transitivity in the text of Greenpeace food campaigns. The results show that material clauses have the most appraisals related to impacts or changes to the environment caused by actors. Meanwhile, relational clauses identify the characteristics of the Greenpeace food campaign. For example, the appraisal of effect reveals Greenpeace's feelings about the environment. Moreover, judgment, particularly capacity, is the most frequent appraisal, as indicated by the modal can and processes in the clauses such as control, have, and make. Capacity in the clauses depicts that an entity's characteristic or action has an impact on the environment.

On the other hand, graduation in Greenpeace's food campaigns is mostly upscaling that intensifies attitudes. This graduation is primarily achieved through lexical forms such as comparative and superlative degrees. In particular, Greenpeace uses sharpening to convince readers of the food system's impact on the environment. Hence, Greenpeace makes evaluations by appraising the impacts that an entity has on the environment with rising attitudinal tone.

Thus, Greenpeace's attitudes in assessing various entities in its food campaigns manifest through affect and appreciation judgment. Entities that are appraised positively include ecofarming, the campaign, food, humans, and Greenpeace. These entities are seen as positive because their actions have a positive impact on the environment in accordance with Greenpeace's vision and mission. On the other hand, entities that are appraised negatively include industrial agriculture, livestock, GE, pesticides, and large enterprises, as they can damage or threaten the environment. Since some innovations aimed at improving food productivity have yielded negative effects, Greenpeace emphasizes the real or potential harm they could inflict on the environment.

This study has potential limitation of which is not including another subappraisal; engagement. Since most of the source the evaluation is from Greenpeace's site therefore we suggest the next researcher to find out all aspects of appraisal in another ecology discourse.

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Qualities of Language Teachers and its Implications to Teacher Orientation Program Development

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ABSTRACT

Anchored on the greater premise that students have preconceived ideas of qualities and characteristics of a good language teacher, this study investigates language teacher preferences of freshmen Thai learners and its implications to the development of teacher orientation programs. For this purpose, diaries of Thai learners enrolled in an intensive English program (IEP) were subjected to content analysis using explorative design to be able to formulate new category systems inductively. The result revealed seven major theoretical constructs that summed up the qualities expected by Thai learners from their language teachers: language proficiency, organization and communication skills, character and personality, pedagogical knowledge, socio-affective skills, IT/ICT skills, and cultural competence. On the other hand, an interview regarding the present teacher orientation program among 3 new teachers for the IEP course revealed that the present system was fairly addressing the concerns of the students with its limited topic, activity, and participation of teaching staff.

Keywords: Language teachers, learner diaries, qualities of teachers, teacher orientation program

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INTRODUCTION

Teacher evaluation by students is crucial to any teaching-learning process. Where students highly evaluate their teachers, it reflects effectiveness on the part of the teacher and meaningful learning on the part of the students. There were times, however, where experienced teachers may be evaluated as ineffective, while less experienced educators may be given

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an exemplary rating. This means that the evaluation can sometimes suffer from a lack of accuracy and reliability (Lama et al., 2015). In Thailand, language teachers have raised concerns over this issue as it significantly impacts their chances of promotion or renewal of employment contracts. Prior to their evaluation, no signs were suggesting that the students are dissatisfied with their performance. Many teachers who received low ratings claimed that their students had been mostly happy in their classes as evident in their frequent smiles and quite positive reactions in class. Confident with their performance and the good relationship they think they have established with the students, foreign teachers expect high ratings only to be surprised in some instances with an abysmal result.

Thailand is home to thousands of foreign English language teachers. In 2014, the Thai Immigration Bureau recorded 10, 053 English-speaking foreign nationals who filed for a teaching visa in Thailand (Perez-Amurao, 2019). From 2007-2015, the Teacher's Council of Thailand -Khurusapha also identified the top ten foreign Englishspeaking teaching personnel as coming from the Philippines, Great Britain, US, Canada, Australia, China, India, Japan, New Zealand, and France, respectively. The diversity of foreign teachers into the country requires a more personal understanding of Thai students' preferences and the qualities they seek from foreign-English teachers. Focusing on the characteristics valued by the learners because learners have

ingrained ideas of what good teachers are and these criteria are what they look for when evaluating teachers (Stronge, 2002). Additionally, the student's race or ethnicity significantly correlates to the student's rating of their teachers (Darling-Hammond et al., 2012). These elements, together with several other factors, create the learner's distinctive "criteria" of what quality teaching and quality teacher is. It is in this context that this study was conceptualized.

- a) What qualities do Thai learners look for in ESL/EFL teachers in Thailand?
- b) How is the teacher orientation program conducted among language teachers?

According to Garrison (2005), teacher orientation program should include topics that will address the needs of the intended teachers. For instance, education in health care organization whose goal is to empower faculty members to be advocates for students in the areas of cultural competence, victimization, and professional development, should prioritize in their orientation program training for cultural competency, sexual victimization and student behaviors (Nelson et al., 2016). Also, a nurse orientation program may include topics such as communicating with individuals from diverse cultures, the use of social media in the workplace, health literacy, teaching strategies, and diverse activities (Green, 2016). This will provide teachers an immediate connection to the organization's aims and it will help build their confidence knowing that the organization is ready to support and equip them with the necessary skills they need to realize their potential as new members of the organization. In this study, therefore, the researchers have identified the target teachers as the language teachers who are responsible for teaching the intensive English program (IEP) – a tenweek preparatory course for students who want to study a degree program in English. It is conducted during the semestral break (March-May) in many international colleges and universities in Thailand.

Teacher Characteristics

Teacher characteristics have long been noted to influence and affect the teaching-learning process; hence, it is not surprising that it has been the subject of many investigations in the field of education. In 2006, Park and Lee identified three major categories for effective English teachers as perceived by students and teachers. These qualities include English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-affective skills. These major categories include constructs as follows: reading, speaking, grammar skills for English proficiency; preparing the lesson well, providing interesting activities and teaching tailored to students' proficiency levels for pedagogical knowledge; arousing students' motivation and self-confidence for socio-affective skills.

In 2008, two more studies were conducted on the same subject. The first was the work by Nikitina and Furuoka (2008) which focused on the use of metaphors to elicit the characteristics of language teachers as perceived by Malaysian learners. In their study, three major concepts of language teacher emerged: teacher as caretaker, teacher as giver, and teacher as essential elements were three most recurring themes in the students' descriptions of the language teacher. The second was the study on effective language teachers from the perspective of Turkish students by Arikan et al. (2008) which showed three principal aspects of language teachers which were held vital by the students -personal qualities, professional qualities, and pedagogical skills. Personal qualities essential to the students include being friendly, young, enthusiastic, creative, humorous, and fair. For professional qualities, Turkish students favor fluent Turkish English teachers and one who incorporates games and the formal teaching of the English language. For pedagogical qualities, effective grammar teaching is highly valued together with correct pronunciation and the ability to create a positive learning environment.

Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) explored the desirable characteristics of effective English language teachers as might be perceived by teachers and learners. The result showed that teachers put more weight on the pedagogical knowledge of teachers as more desirable qualities while students gave more importance to the personal characteristics of teachers. This study concluded that teachers had more informed preferences while the students were more realistic about their responses. Additionally, Wichadee (2010) added new dimensions of looking into the qualities of a good language teacher. Her study comprised four categories of teacher characteristics that included English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, organization and communication skills, and socio-affective skills. In this study, organization and communication skills included constructs as preparing the lesson well, organized presentation, stress important points, use easy language, speak clearly, vary speaking speed and tone of voice, use of non-verbal behavior to get the attention of the learners. The socio-affective skills, on the other hand, included qualities as having an interest in students, a good sense of humor, able to alleviate students' anxiety, listens to students, approachable, friendly, helpful fair, and patient.

Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011) identified qualities of successful language teachers which were reflective of previous studies with new additional constructs that included: following syllabus tightly, sticking to administrative rules and regulations and teaching techniques, well -dressed, knowledgeable, more sociable, assign homework, teaching English in English, alleviating students' anxiety, provide learners with more opportunities to use English via meaningful tasks and activities and try to arouse the learners' motivation for learning English.

Mahmoud and Thabet (2013) explored the perception of good language teachers among Yemeni students. Their top ten characteristics were classified under four main categories: 1) subject knowledge (English proficiency), 2) pedagogical knowledge and skills, 3) management, organization and communication, and 4) socio-affective skills. The most recent study by Zamani and Ahangari (2016) concluded that the most important points for language teachers were: the ability to develop proper relationships with students; build students' confidence; ability to maintain discipline in the classroom, ability to create an entertaining atmosphere to carry out the class activities; listen to students' points of view and opinions and let them express themselves; promote communicative language learning through activities and discussion; ability to make courses interesting and being smart to deviate the attention of students from everything else to the topic.

Studies conducted on language teacher characteristics from 2006 until 2016 showed a constantly evolving notion of what good language teachers should be. Overall, the qualities of a good language teacher can be classified into personal characteristics, English proficiency skills, pedagogical knowledge, socio-affective skills and management, organization, and communication skills.

Teacher Orientation Program

Teacher orientation is an integral aspect of a teacher in-service education program (Morin & Ashton, 2004). However, some hiring institutions have paid less attention to it due to time constraints, lack of financial resources, and limited staff to facilitate the program. If and when a teacher orientation program is organized, it is too shallow in terms of coverage, lacking in some areas, poorly organized, no or unknown objectives, and unhelpful in addressing the needs of new faculty teachers (Garrison, 2005). Often, the topics only include introducing the institution to the new teachers primarily on the aspect of organizational structure and providing basic information regarding the school premises. The activities are also less engaging and do not reinforce to hold the participants' attention. Often, it includes presentations on the educational framework, course management, process of assessments and evaluation, school rules and policies as well as teacher standards (Hand, 2008). Diaz et al. (2009) also noted that faculty orientation depended mostly on non-faculty professionals as main speakers. Administrators and non-teaching staff often take a major role in the program and serve as primary resource speakers.

METHODS

To answer problem 1, a qualitative content analysis research method was employed in this study. The objective was to systematically analyze texts for its content and the context of communication (Mayring, 2004). This means taking into consideration the learners, the content of their diaries, and the Thai socio-cultural background. The use of content analysis in research studies has many advantages (Babin & Zikmund, 2016; Kyngäs, 2019). First, it allows for a systematic description of research phenomena. Second, it provides meaningful characterizations, interpretations, and expressive descriptions of people's experiences and perspectives in the context of their personal life settings. Last, it can be applied to various types of documents such as diaries, speeches, interview transcripts.

Using convenient sampling, the researchers identified 2 sections during the IEP to be part of the study. Each section had 45 students; thus, it was expected that a total of 90 students will yield 90 diaries. However, upon initial inspection, some diaries were inadequate to be included in the study. For instance, some diaries were too short; others were difficult to comprehend because the writer lacked English skills, and; 2 students did not have written output from the assigned topics. As such, only 77 incoming freshmen students with their respective diaries became part of the study. Before the researchers had selected the participants, a request letter to conduct the study was made and approved by the dean of the faculty. The letters were then given to the teachers responsible for the two sections identified for the study. The letters were read to both classes prior to writing the first essay to inform students that their essays would be part of the study. Further to this, the students were given the option to inform their respective teachers if they were unwilling to participate in the study. For ethical considerations, all the information and personal details from the student participants in this study were treated with the utmost confidentiality.

In this study, the data was obtained from learner diary entries. Daily diary writing was an essential requirement among the incoming freshmen students during the IEP. Each day, a topic was given for the students to write in English. These topics were part of the syllabus prepared for the course. The written output from two topics, "My favorite

English teacher" and "Learning English," were utilized for the study as part of the research instrument. Three major stages of coding schemes were conducted. These crucial procedures include initial coding, focused coding, and theoretical coding (Sbaraini et al., 2011). Initial or open coding involves identifying statements that describe the nature, characteristics, and attributes of a language teacher. Focused or axial coding, on the other hand, is recognizing keywords or key phrases that sums-up the idea expressed within the statements. Lastly, selective coding - keywords and phrases were grouped, assigning theoretical constructs that the entire group of data represents (Table 1). Additionally, the explorative design was utilized to be able to formulate new category systems inductively out of the written diaries of the students (Mayring, 2014).

For problem 2, an informal interview was conducted among 3 new faculty members for IEP 2019. The interview revolved mainly on their experiences during the 2019 IEP orientation program for new lecturers. In the interview, open-ended questions were asked from the lecturers to elicit information about the following: the activities that they have participated in; the topics discussed during the event; and the organizers, speakers or staff and their respective roles during the orientation program. Probing questions were also used to explore the lecturers' feelings during the orientation.

RESULTS

Qualities of Language Teachers

Of the 77 diaries analyzed for this study, 207 relevant statements were identified for the initial coding. The analysis resulted in seven major theoretical constructs that sum up the qualities preferred by IEP learners from their language teachers. In most of these constructs, narrative descriptions revealed the state of learners as they seeked for more nurturing, friendly, and affectionate teachers and their apparent low self-esteem in the use of the target language.

English Proficiency. The students had highlighted two of the four major language skills (speaking, and writing) as essential components of a language teacher's proficiency. In speaking, for instance, "unclear pronunciation" and "strong accent" tended to impede their understanding while the ability to explain theoretical and practical underpinnings of assigned writing tasks motivated the students. They also emphasized grammar competence as they surmised that sufficient knowledge in

Table 1Coding scheme process

Initial Coding (Statements from Student's Diary)	Focused Coding	Theoretical Coding
If a teacher is friendly, students will not be scared to tell him his ideas or opinions.	friendly	personality

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English grammar was a key factor to succeed and an expert teacher would significantly improve their chance of acquiring the same skill. They also expressed the importance of the teacher's handwriting. As Thai learners were not taught and exposed to cursive writing, they struggled in decoding the words written by their teachers.

Accent is hard for me. Sometimes I know the word but I hear different word. Extract 1

I like teachers that explain grammar very well. I think my writing will improve if I understand the grammar. Extract 2

The teacher wrote many things in my diary but I do not understand it because the writing is cursive. Extract 3

Organization and Communication Skills.

Students feel "stressed" learning with English as the medium of instruction; hence, the need for language teachers to be "systematic". Creating a system enables students to focus and prepare for their lessons adequately. The students feel overwhelmed by the workload each semester and a systematic teacher will be valuable to guide them. Also, they find language teachers who can "teach clearly" and "explain the lessons well" effective and highly motivating. They feel more confident to participate in class activities and commit to the accomplishment of assigned classroom tasks. On the contrary, classes that are too difficult discourage them to submit their output on time. The "use of relevant examples" also appeared crucial among students. For them, the simplicity of lectures that were grounded on local ideas and information would make the lessons interesting and fun to learn. Lastly, the students cited "non-verbal means to convey meaning" as valuable. Students had lauded teachers who went to the extent of using hand gestures, facial expressions, and bodily movements or acting to explain topics to their students.

There is so much homework in English class. But my English teacher guides us well so we can finish them all on time. Extract 4

My teacher speaks of the universe but I know only the earth. I do not understand her examples because I did not go to other countries. I know only Thailand. Extract 5

We do mime game with my favorite teacher so we can learn English words. Extract 6

Character and Personality. Students in the intensive program were impressed by the diversity of teachers in their school. While foreigners are a common sight in Thailand, the students remained distant and reluctant whenever they met foreigners. Consequently, students looked for "humorous" more than strict disciplinarian teachers. Humorous teachers lighten up the tension in the learning environment. Initial coding under this category yielded keywords as "fun," "comedy," "jokes," "enjoyable," and "lively." They also prefered teachers who were "understanding," "kind," and "good-hearted" as these characteristics provided a feeling of comfort and a sense of security while the students adjusted to their new environment away from their homes. "Flexibility" and "patience" were also mentioned as critical for when the students committed mistakes or fail to grasp the lessons in class. This was evident in the students' anticipation of problems and challenges even at the very start of the intensive program. Finally, "enthusiastic," "passionate," and "responsible" teachers had been noted to develop a sense of confidence among the learners.

In my class, we have many funny jokes and short comedy videos to watch. It is good because our class is very long. Extract 7

I like my English teacher. I think she is very kind. She does not get angry if we do not know the answer. Extract 8

Latiacto

In English class, the teacher is very happy all the time. She smiles to everyone and she likes English very much. I like her a lot. Extract 9

Pedagogical Knowledge. Included in the pedagogical knowledge are six focused responses. First, students identified "effective methods and strategies in teaching" which accordingly can be obtained if teachers attend seminars and conferences on a regular basis to be informed of salient issues and current practices in the teaching profession. Students have also expressed their worries when classes are conducted mostly through lecture type and teacher-centered approach where students are mainly expected to listen. While listening is relatively one skill they hope to acquire, so do the other language skills. They consider sufficient practice and exposure in the four macro-skills beneficial. Also, teachers must have a "clear purpose" in teaching and "specific goals" for their lesson. Students gave an example for when they were in elementary school where the goals of the lesson were outlined on the board. The practice enabled them to focus their attention according to the objectives of the lesson. Another concern was "giving clear directions" in written examinations, performance tests, or simply instructing students in classroom tasks because they felt anxious when they could not follow the class and they cannot answer the questions correctly. In their experience, some teachers tend to be too verbose causing low performing students to rely heavily on their peers for further explanations and guidance. Lastly, teachers need "management skills to conduct classroom activities effectively." Students claim that many teachers have great ideas for classroom activities but fall short in implementing their ideas effectively. Reasons for such incidents vary from big classroom sizes to misbehaving students including lack of training and confidence on the part of the teacher.

I learned English by watching Youtube. It is good and easy. Maybe teacher can use same style in class to teach English. **Extract 10**

We do a lot of listening in class. But I like to practice speaking more because I need it for my job in the future. Extract 11

I think the exam in English is very hard. The instruction is long and many difficult words.

Extract 12

Last time, we had role play. The class was very noisy so I did not enjoy it. Extract 13

Socio-affective Skills. Majority of the students regard a "friendly" teacher as key to developing a calm and stress-free learning environment. It is this quality that gives some students the courage to express their feelings and be open with their opinions and ideas in class. The next responses described the teacher on a more personal level. Teachers who "take care" of the students on and off-campus, or "help" them and "extend support" whenever needed were crucial qualities learners look for in a language teacher. As an incoming freshmen students, they also hoped for teachers who would not only focus only on the content of the lessons but also showed concern over the well-being of their students; hence, the students' preference for teachers who also "give advice" or "counsels" their students in difficult and troubled times in their lives. When students made mistakes

or poor choices, the preferred teacher was someone who was "compassionate" and "empathetic."

I enjoyed learning English because foreign teachers are friendly. I like talking to them in English. **Extract 14**

It is very hard to learn in English but my favorite teacher advised that I continue and not give up on my studies. Extract 15

I did not like English at first but I got inspired when my English teacher helped me to write my speech for a contest. Extract 16

IT/ICT Skills. In the respondents' compositions, language teaching has been viewed as effective when teachers are able to utilize interesting and meaningful IT/ICT applications in class. This was apparent in the students' narrative description of their favorite teacher showing videos in class, using social media for project submissions, online voice recording for pronunciation classes, and even online assessment of work output.

I hope teacher can give work online because I usually use computer. Extract 17

My favorite teacher use online quiz for vocabulary. I like it very much. I learned many words and I can remember them more.

Extract 18

Cultural Competence. Having been enrolled in an international college, the respondents were highly sensitive to cultural diversity and differences. Initially, they found foreigners confusing and obviously different from them. But as time goes by, they realized that differences were not always hindrances to understanding each other, but a way to celebrate uniqueness amidst diversity. Hence, they held the idea that an "open-minded" teacher was very important in classroom discussions where they had to share their personal experiences as Thai learners. Subsequently, they favored teachers who had experience teaching Thai students or someone who had stayed in their country for a certain period of time. It was their belief that teachers with this background were "familiar with Thai culture" and would understand them better than someone new in the country. They also prefered "teachers who can speak Thai" to some degree. They believed that if a teacher could translate some aspects of the lesson for them, they would have less difficulty understanding the lessons in class. Similarly, the teacher would be able to understand them in cases where they could not express their ideas in the target language.

Several teachers in my college know many things about Thailand. They stayed here long time so they use many stories that we know very well.

Extract 19

My English is not good. I am scared because I do not understand many

things. If the teacher can explain in Thai, I can understand. Extract 20

Sometimes I use Thai words when I speak in class because I do not know the English word. Before, I am worried if I do that. But now, it is ok because my teacher can understand some Thai words.

Extract 21

Present Orientation Program

The institution where this study was conducted holds teacher orientation programs for every new lecturer. The orientation program is held in a designated room for one day from 8:00 am to 5 pm. From the informal interview conducted among 3 new faculty members for IEP 2019, they described their experience in the orientation program as follows:

All three lecturers recalled being welcomed by the Vice President for Academic Affairs to the institution. She was assisted by the Head of the Human Resource Office. When asked about the topic they could remember from the morning session, they mentioned the following topics: an introduction of the school administrators and staff, and explanation of the institution's academic policies, and rules and regulations to be observed by lecturers as member of the institution. To the new lecturers, the morning session was something they were familiar with having attended faculty orientation programs in their previous schools back in their respective countries.

Another activity worth mentioning was listening to a talk by a representative from the Human Resource Office. Although the talk was brief, they felt more excited about the topics as it concerned mostly practical information regarding working in Thailand. They remembered the talk about Thai culture, practical guide to living in Thailand, visa matters, and applying for work permit in Thailand. As all three teachers were new in Thailand, they found the topics from this session very useful and informative.

The last activity the lecturers experienced during the orientation program was a brief lecture by a representative from the IT Department. All three lecturers did not expect this part of the orientation program. They said this is the first time they experienced a teacher's orientation program with IT personnel as main speaker. In their respective countries, they often experience this kind of talk in a special IT seminar or workshop. They recalled the bulk of the presentation was on the use and features of the school's Management Information System (MIS) and how to accomplish Thai Qualification Framework 3 (TQF) forms online. For them, this part of the orientation was the most challenging not only because it requires the use of computer but also because of the new concepts they needed to learn in the process. Overall, the three lecturers found the event well organized but somewhat tedious due to the long talks and the lack of more engaging activities, especially in the morning session.

DISCUSSIONS

Results of the analysis are similar to previous studies conducted on language teachers where English proficiency, organization and communication skills, character and personality, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-affective skills are qualities valued by IEP students (Arikan et al., 2008; Mahmoud & Thabet, 2013; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008; Park & Lee, 2006; Wichadee, 2010; Zamani & Ahangari, 2016). This implies that teachers are no longer just a provider of knowledge but they are also regarded as a friend, a nurturer, entertainers, storytellers, and joke tellers (Farrell, 2011; Torghabeh et al., 2009). In these new roles, they are expected to listen, empathize, and give advice to the students on matters of academic or personal concerns at the same time lighten up the tension in the learning environment with their sense of humor. Aside from new roles, there are greater expectations from the language teachers. The pedagogical factors imply that language teachers need to continually upgrade themselves by attending seminars and conferences on a regular basis to be informed of salient issues and current practices in the teaching profession. This response is indicative of the students' higher consciousness and level of awareness with reference to the constantly evolving and changing educational milieu. Additionally, they are expected to be proficient in the English language. This corroborates the findings of Wiriyachitra (2002) which considered teacher's English skills as a key factor in English teaching. In this study, the students found English proficiency of

the language teacher a prime concern for they strongly believed that the teacher's ability correlated to effective teaching and better learning. Some teachers are aware of this reality and they sometimes feel less competent in their teaching skills (Yilmaz, 2011). To this date, existing literature has still to confirm the direct relationship between effective teaching and language proficiency (Van Canh & Renandya, 2017). The study further introduced cultural competence and IT/ICT skills as new qualities preferred by the learners. In earlier studies, the IT/ICT skill was subsumed under the pedagogical skills; however, as a great percentage of the student values this skill, a separate categorization is deemed necessary for this study. Furthermore, the relevance of technology in language teaching is continuously growing and becoming a significant part of the contemporary language teaching for purposes of fun, student motivation, collaboration, and classroom explorations (Meighan, 2019; Poláková & Klímová, 2019; Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). On the other hand, cultural competence is vital in addressing the growing diversity in education. Teachers will need to work with students from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Cultural competence, therefore, will enhance communication and help in building a good relationship in the classroom despite differences in value systems and beliefs (Colombo, 2007; He, 2013; Keengwe, 2010).

As regards to the faculty orientation program, the result showed that the current program was fairly addressing the concerns of the students. First, the topics are limited and barely sufficient to equip teachers with the necessary skills expected by the IEP learners. As experienced by the new teachers, there were only three primary sections of the present orientation program: the general orientation, the HR orientation, and the IT orientation. This implies a need for developing a new program that includes topics that are highly valued by IEP learners such as: English language proficiency, classroom management and organization, and language teaching methods and approaches. Although IT Department had initiated steps to introduce the use of MIS and online TOF forms to new teachers, this is not enough because the students are more focused on the use of technology in the classroom rather than for documentation purposes. Similarly, the HR Office can provide training not just on culture but other subjects such as personality development, managing organizational communication, and socio-affective strategies for teachers in Thailand. Second, the activities in the present orientation program focus on formal talks and presentations. The teachers mentioned mostly of "talks", "speech", or "lecture" as activities they had in the orientation program. In this regard, institutions can provide more practical, interactive, and engaging activities for the new lecturers. For instance, instead of an IT/ ICT lecture, the IT Department may hold a hands-on IT/ICT training in the computer laboratory. Lastly, the teachers identify three active departments in the conduct of the orientation program: the administration as represented by the Vice President on

Academic Affairs, the HR Office staff, and the IT department staff. As there are more topics expected to be explored during the orientation program, there is a need to involve the active participation of the different departments in the institution such as the library section, the research office, including the language teaching staff. The different offices can also find ways to collaborate and work hand-in-hand in training new teachers. For instance, the IT Department and HR Department may use digital media to build an understanding of Thai beliefs and practices. Most importantly, language course coordinators should take a lead role to impart their knowledge and skills in teaching English to Thai learners. Although new teachers may have had extensive experience from teaching in other countries, Thailand has its own unique challenges and the best way to navigate the journey is to learn from senior lecturers that have learned to adjust their teaching styles according to the Thai context.

CONCLUSION

Thai learners in this study have identified the qualities and characteristics of language teachers they admire and would most likely to study with. The study revealed seven major theoretical constructs that sum up the qualities expected by Thai learners from their language teachers. These constructs include language proficiency, organization and communication skills, character and personality, pedagogical knowledge, socio-affective skills, IT/ICT skills, and cultural competence. In most of these constructs, narrative descriptions revealed the state of learners as they seeked for more nurturing, friendly, and affectionate teachers. Moreover, they had apparent low self-esteem in the use of the target language which was revealed through their narrative descriptions and discussions during the focus group. The current faculty orientation program is limited in terms of scope and topics as well as a variety of activities. Additionally, organizers include mostly administrators and non-teaching staff.

Recommendations

Taking into consideration the above qualities expected of Thai learners from language teachers and the current state of the teacher orientation program, a proposed orientation program was developed. It included: two more major sections (language teaching and campus tour); more relevant topics; more engaging activities; and a lot of collaborative work from the different departments in the institution. Each of the programs may be conducted for 2-3 hours for a one-day orientation program to a whole-day event for a week-long orientation program.

a) General Orientation program to be conducted by school administrators to welcome new lecturers. Topics to cover include the organizational orientation that includes the introduction of the school administrators and staff, school mission and vision, academic policies, rules, and regulations of the institution including job orientation and expectations.

- b) Human Resource Office Orientation will address concerns on character and personality, socio-affective skills, and cultural competence. Topics to be covered may include talks on personality development; film showing and brief talks on topics related to cultures such as morality and ethics, cultural competence, Thai culture, practical guide to living in Thailand, visa matters and other pertinent documentation required for working in Thailand (collaboration with IT Department); and socio-affective training through community engagement. It may also last for several hours to days depending on the duration of the orientation planned.
- c) Information Technology Orientation would be conducted by the Information Technology Department (IT) to train teachers to enhance their IT/ICT skills. Lecturers will be going to the computer laboratory for handson practice in using MIS and accomplishing TQF3 online followed by a workshop on the use of IT/ICT tools such as SmartBoard or Smart Classroom and online sources and other teaching technologies for IEP teachers (collaboration with language teacher coordinators).
- d) Language Teaching Orientation may be conducted by language program course coordinators to respond to the issues on organization

and communication skills, English proficiency, and pedagogical knowledge. Specifically, this orientation is aimed at sharing experiences by senior lecturers on topics such as materials for teaching the course, effective strategies, and methods of teaching including appropriate disciplinary actions for misbehaving learners.

e) *Campus tour* is intended to familiarize teachers with the school grounds and facilities available within the school campus. This is also to develop the new teacher's socio-affective skills as they interact for the first time with their fellow lecturers and the Thai staff during the tour.

This study is not without its limitations. First, the sample size is not sufficient to make a generalization of the qualities of language teachers according to Thai learners. It also included a single teacher orientation program from one educational institution in Thailand. Future studies should include a greater number of respondents and observation of teacher orientation programs in different schools in Thailand. Second, it utilized only content analysis of learner diaries. Researches may consider triangulation to further enrich the discussion and analysis of future studies. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study reports essential preliminary data regarding the qualities of language teachers and their impact on teacher orientation program development.

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Performance in Nonword Repetition Tasks among Mandarin-English Bilingual Children in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

The nonword repetition (NWR) task has been used to measure children's expressive language skills, and it has been argued to have potential as an early language delay/ impairment detection tool as the NWR task can be conducted rather easily and quickly to obtain a quantitative as well as a qualitative measure of children's attention to lexical and phonological information. This paper reports the performance of two NWR tasks among thirty bilingual Mandarin-English preschoolers between the age of four through six. The study indicated that performance in the NWR tasks showed a developmental trend with older children performing better than younger children. Word length also had a significant effect on performance, possibly an effect from better short-term memory capacity as the child grew older. The children also performed better in the Mandarin NWR task compared to the English NWR task. These findings suggest potential clinical applications for diagnosis of children with language impairment or at risk of language development delay. However, further studies should improve on the tasks to verify its efficacy and to obtain norms for performance with a larger sample of children at various age groups.

Keywords: Bilingualism, language development, Mandarin-English bilingual children, nonword repetition, simultaneous bilinguals

INTRODUCTION

The nonword repetition (NWR) task has been used to measure children's expressive language skills in normal and abnormal language development. Researchers often use the NWR task to study the mechanisms

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of phonological short-term memory (STM) underlying children's language development. The NWR task has been recognized as a potential psycholinguistic tool to identify children with specific language impairment (SLI). SLI is considered a neuro-developmental disorder that affects language development among children; but diagnosis of these children remains challenging. Children with SLI show language ability below the language skills expected for their age, but they have no hearing impairment, neurological damage nor motor problems that affect speech production (Leonard, 2000). In addition, they also do not exhibit any clinical indicators of autism, and they have normal intellectual abilities (Leonard, 2000). The protocol followed by speech language pathologist to identify SLI children involves a series of tests and the language assessment tool is only one of the tests used.

The process of identifying children at risk of SLI at an early age is challenging even among monolingual children. Often, it is difficult to differentiate normal developmental delay from SLI which implicates language impairment. The problem is even more challenging in Malaysia as many Malaysian children are brought up in a bilingual or multilingual environment from a very young age (Lim, 2018; Lim et al., 2015). Most assessment tools that are used are either not normed or normed mainly on monolingual children and may not be suitable for identifying SLI among bilingual children. (Lim, 2018; Lim et al., 2015). Currently, there are only three published child grammar tests for the Malay and Chinese children (A Razak et al., 2016; A Razak et al., 2014; A Razak et al., 2018). These language assessment tools are language dependent and there has yet been a study exploring the use of the nonword repetition task to compare performance of simultaneous bilingual children in the two languages in their repertoire. Devising language assessment tools that are languagespecific such as Mandarin and English are highly desirable since professionals (e.g. speech-language pathologists) dealing with the Malaysian children are from diverse language backgrounds (Ibrahim et al., 2019).

Malaysia is a multilingual country with most Malaysians speaking at least two languages but many particularly the ethnically Chinese may speak as many as five languages (see discussion in Yap et al., 2017). As discussed in Lim et al. (2015) and Lim (2018), Malaysian Chinese children typically receive regular exposure to Mandarin and English from birth, at home, in the kindergarten and from the community at large (e.g. through interactions with neighbours, at the playground, or shopping complex). They also receive robust exposure to Malay once they enter the kindergarten sometimes from as early as 2-3 years old. Therefore, strictly speaking, the focus of this study is on simultaneous Mandarin-English bilingual children who have started to learn Malay once they enrol in the kindergarten. But for this study, we did not focus on the development of Malay since it is the first study conducted using the NWR task in

the Malaysian context, and the children in this study are likely to be more dominant in Mandarin and English compared to Malay.

Since Malaysia is so linguistically diverse, the potential use of the NWR task as an assessment tool is an attractive option as it is not bound to vocabulary knowledge in the specific language. However, before such a tool can be developed, an understanding of the performance of such tasks with typically developing children is needed to provide baseline information to interpret the results of this task with children exhibiting atypical development. Furthermore, there are no substantial language research on simultaneous Mandarin-English bilingual children in Malaysia. Hence, in this paper, we present results from a study conducted with Mandarin-English bilingual children to examine the feasibility of the NWR tasks as potential language assessment tools.

Nonword Repetition Tasks

The NWR task have been used in the past twenty years by psychologists and researchers to study the mechanism of phonological short-term memory (STM). The task requires participants to listen to a nonword and to repeat it verbatim. The NWR task taps a range of perceptual, cognitive, and motor processes, which are widely acknowledged. Evidence from monolingual and cross-linguistic studies on performance of NWR tasks are related to linguistic knowledge (Archibald & Gathercole, 2006; Chiat & Roy, 2007; Gathercole et al., 1991; Graf Estes et al., 2007; Messer et al., 2010; Vitevitch & Luce, 2005), vocabulary knowledge (Chiat & Roy, 2007; Gathercole & Baddeley, 1989; Gathercole et al., 1999; Hoff et al., 2008; Masoura & Gathercole, 1999, 2005; Summers et al., 2010), and grammatical knowledge (Dispaldro et al., 2011; French & O'Brien, 2008). As argued in these studies, NWR is linked to language learning; hence typically developing children are able to repeat nonwords more accurately compared to those with some form of developmental delay or language impairment. Thus, it is reasonable to believe that NWR has the potential to identify children with language impairment.

NWR task has been widely proposed in English as a potential psycholinguistic assessment tool to detect SLI children from their typically developing (TD) peers (Archibald, 2008; Bishop, 2004; Coady & Evans, 2008; Conti-Ramsden et al., 2001; Dollaghan & Campbell, 1998; Ellis-Weismer et al., 2000; Gathercole & Baddeley, 1990; Graf Estes et al., 2007). These studies found that SLI children were extremely weak in the NWR task, possibly due to impairment or a capacity limitation of the phonological component of working memory. According to Baddeley (2003), working memory (WM) is a cognitive system that involves a combination of storage and cognitive processes and operations involving linguistic information. The multi-component model of WM developed by Baddeley explained how memory and linguistic knowledge influence the repetition task. Baddeley's model of the WM is comprised of four components: 1) phonological loop, 2)

visuospatial sketchpad, 3) central executive, and the 4) episodic buffer. The phonological loop comprises a phonological store, which can retain information for a few seconds before it decays and an articulatory rehearsal system, which can refresh and rehearse the information. The visuospatial sketchpad is responsible to maintain visual and spatial information for a short period. The central executive contains a set of cognitive processes that interact with other components and long-term memory (LTM). The episodic buffer behaves like a backup store, with a limited capacity capable of reinforcing the phonological loop or the visuospatial sketchpad, and to integrate information from many different sources. It also links STM to LTM.

A meta-analysis of studies investigating different NWR task performance reported across different studies between children with or without SLI carried out by Graf Estes et al. (2007), showed that children with SLI performed significantly lower than children without SLI on longer nonwords (3- to 4syllable nonwords) than shorter nonwords (1- to 2- syllable nonwords). Gathercole and Baddeley (1990) viewed the repetition difficulties as a reflection of the capacity limitation of the phonological component in the working memory. Therefore, a deficit in the capacity of phonological STM may lead to difficulty in repeating nonwords with more syllables. The relationship between poor performance in the NWR task and language impairment has also been found across different languages: Spanish (Girbau & Schwartz, 2007; Windsor et al., 2010), Italian (Bortolini et al., 2010), Dutch (De Bree et al., 2007; Rispens & Parigger, 2010), French (Thordardottir & Brandeker, 2013), Japanese (Kosaka, 2009), and Mandarin (Chi, 2007). Chi (2007), who investigated phonological memory on NWR performance among Taiwanese Mandarinspeaking children with SLI found that the children with SLI in the study performed poorly in two-, three-, four-, and fivesyllable nonwords compared to their TD peers. She concluded that the children with SLI in the study did in fact have difficulties in the NWR task.

Cross-linguistic studies of the performance on NWR tasks and word learning among bilingual children from different linguistic backgrounds have been reported to rule in or rule out bilingual children with or without language impairment. Girbau and Schwartz (2007) also used the NWR task with bilingual Spanish-English children with and without SLI. The result showed that SLI children performed lower in the NWR tasks compared to their TD peers. Thordardottir (2017) found that second language (L2) learners of Icelandic language could also obtain high NWR scores, which was important in terms of the use of NWR tests for the purpose of ruling in or ruling out language impairment in this population. In contrast, only one study (Stokes et al., 2006) had reported findings that argued against the potential utility of NWR tasks. Their results demonstrated that Cantonese-speaking children with SLI did not perform significantly lower compared to their TD peers. They further argued that

when only phonological working memory skills were tested, the SLI children's ability to repeat nonwords did not differ from the TD children. It is evident that more studies are needed to determine the efficacy of the NWR task as a diagnostic tool to help identify children with language development delay or language impairment such as SLI.

In the context of Malaysian children, as mentioned earlier, there has been no substantial studies conducted to document the language development milestones of simultaneous Mandarin-English bilingual children. Lim et al. (2015) and Lim (2018) examined the error patterns in terms of phonological development of multilingual Malaysian children in three languages: Malay, Mandarin and English using real words that were either monosyllabic, disyllabic or trisyllabic as the target group for that study was 2-4 year old children. Therefore, there is a need to examine the language developmental milestones for simultaneous bilingual children in the preschool age range and to examine the effect of word length in the novel nonword repetition tasks. The study reported in this paper was part of a larger study conducted to examine how typically developing simultaneous Mandarin-English bilingual children in Malaysia would perform in NWR and sentence repetition tasks conducted in English and Mandarin across the different age groups. However, due to space limitation, this paper will report only the findings from the NWR tasks (see Woon (2015) and Woon et al. (2014) for a discussion of the sentence repetition

tasks). Specifically, this paper addresses the following questions: 1) Is there a significant difference in the performance of Mandarin-English bilingual children across the different age groups on the Mandarin and English NWR tasks? 2) Is there a word length effect in the performance of the Mandarin and English NWR tasks across the different age groups? and 3) Is there a significant difference between the performance of the children in the Mandarin NWR task compared to the English NWR task?

METHOD

Participants of the Study

The participants were selected using purposive sampling with specific inclusion and exclusion criteria. As the study is interested in simultaneous bilingual children, only children who fit the above criteria were recruited. Information about the children's ability in both languages were determined by the report provided by their teachers which were available to the principal of the kindergarten. The principal of the kindergarten selected the children to take part in this study based on the teacher's recommendation which were made based on the children's assessment at the kindergarten. Children were only included if they had not been referred for speech and language therapy, and they had no hearing loss, no history of neurological impairment, developmental disorders or social, emotional or behavioral difficulties as reported by their parents or teachers.

The children were recruited from a kindergarten in Kuala Lumpur. The kindergarten was selected from among the kindergartens in the Klang valley as it was a large kindergarten with about 5 classes for each age group. The children from the kindergarten had regular exposure to the two target languages: English and Mandarin since they had started attending nurseries from the age of 2;00 to 3;00. The children were dominant in both English and Mandarin as reported by the teachers and parents and as observed by the researcher who conducted the tasks. Research information, consent forms, and a parental questionnaire were distributed to the parents whose children were selected for the study; informed consent were obtained prior to the data collection sessions.

Thirty typically developing (TD) children from ages 3;9 to 6;5 years were recruited for the study. Fourteen of the children were boys and sixteen were girls. For the purpose of data analysis, the children were divided into three groups according to their biological age: 4-year-olds, 5-yearolds, and 6-year-olds. Table 1 presents the demographic information of the participants.

All the participants were ethnically Chinese. They all spoke Mandarin and English. All children were reported to have early exposure to Mandarin and English before the age of three. They are early simultaneous Mandarin-English bilingual children following the lenient cut-off age criteria, namely regular exposure to two or more languages before three (Lim, 2018; Lim et al., 2015). Information about their language use and family background was obtained from a parental and teacher questionnaire adopted from Gutiérrez-Clellen and Kreiter (2003).

English Nonword Repetition Task

The Children's Test of Nonword Repetition (CNRep), developed by Gathercole and Baddeley (1996) was adapted for use in this study. The CNRep consists of 40 nonwords, from two to five syllables (e.g. /'hampənt/, /'brastərə/, /stopə'gratık/, /prıstər'akʃənl/). Half of the nonwords contain syllables with either initial or final consonant clusters (e.g., /bl/, /nt/), and the other half contain syllables with simple onsets and codas. The CNRep contains high word-like nonwords with existing English derivational morphemes, such as, -ing in /'glIstərıŋ/, -ist in /kəntrampənist/, -ic in /wugəlæmık/. After the pilot study, which was conducted with six children, two children from each age group, the five syllable nonwords were omitted. The children in the pilot study

Table 1
Demographic information of the participants

Group	N	Age range (year;month)	Gender (boys/girls)	Mean age (month)	SD
1	10	3;9-4;6	6/4	49.7	2.63
2	10	4;7 – 5;5	4/6	60.1	3.93
3	10	5;9-6;5	4/6	73.7	3.16
Total	30	-	14/16	-	-

were found to have difficulty in repeating five-syllable nonwords and they lacked confidence and patience. The final version of the task consisted of only 30 nonwords. The English nonword stimuli were recorded by a Malaysian English teacher. The stimulus items were read with the usual Malaysian accent to ensure that the nonwords did not sound too foreign to the children.

Mandarin Nonword Repetition Task

The Mandarin Nonword Repetition (MNWR) Test that was developed by Chi (2007), was adapted for use in this study. The test incorporated Mandarin lexical knowledge in the same way done in CNRep to ensure that the test items created were high word-like nonwords. A word in Standard Mandarin is a set of monosyllables, represented by one or a combination of monosyllables. The original MNWR test from Chi (2007) contains a total of 55 nonwords: 10 two-syllable nonwords (e.g. gu1tong2姑同), 11 three-syllable nonwords (e.g. ge2ba1tian2 格八甜), 13 four-syllable nonwords (e.g. ben4kui4rou2bao3 笨 愧柔跑), 8 five-syllable nonwords (e.g. pei4tuan2ben3zuo4jiu1 佩团本作 纠), and 3 six-syllable nonwords (e.g. huai2zhi4shu1jiao1li3te4 怀直书交李特). In order to match the ENWR task which had only 30 nonwords, the five- and sixsyllable nonwords were omitted from this study. In addition to the selection of words, the nonwords were also selected to match the number of items for each word length found in the English test.

The Mandarin nonwords were recorded by the first author who is also a Mandarin-English bilingual speaker. The recordings were done using a Sony ICD-UX513F Digital Voice Recorder. The MNWR task was also piloted with the same six children. None of these children were recruited for the actual study as there were substantial differences in the NWR task as well as the sentence repetition task that were conducted.

Procedure

The participants were tested individually in a quiet room at their kindergarten. All sessions were audio-recorded. Before each test, the children were given two examples to practice with. The children were told that they would listen to some made-up words, and were asked to repeat the words exactly the way they heard them. Each word was presented once, followed by a three second pause during which the participants were required to repeat the word heard. The children were allowed to listen to each nonword only once. When a child was not able to repeat a word within the three seconds, the audio file was stopped and he or she was given time to make a response. The children were praised for any attempt at repetition. The participants were required to wear a microphone headset. No reply and live-voice was presented by the examiner. The audio files were presented on a laptop computer in a fixed random order from two to four syllables. The participants' responses were recorded using the same voice recorder mentioned earlier. The NWR tasks in each language took around three minutes to complete for each child.

Scoring

The whole word scoring method was adopted in this study. The nonwords were scored offline with each correct response awarded with one point and no points were awarded for an incorrect production. The nonwords were pronounced correctly when there was no omission, substitution or addition of phonemes. The phonetic variation of a particular phoneme was not counted as an error if that variation was not pronounced like any other phonemes. Only a few instances of tone errors were found in the MNWR task as also shown in Lim (2018) who found that tone errors were rather rare. The only instances of error found in the study were the change from the falling-rising tone to the rising tone, for example, zao3 (早) to zao2 which can be regarded as a slip of the tongue.

Inter-Rater Reliability for Scoring and Transcription

Audio-recorded responses from the participants were scored and transcribed by a second rater, who was a postgraduate student and a Mandarin-English bilingual speaker. After comparing the scores and transcriptions, both raters discussed and resolved any discrepancies by listening again to the audio-recorded responses. The Cohen's kappa (k) statistic was used to measure the inter-rater reliability score and the agreement between the two raters was high (ENWR: k = 0.926, p < 0.001; MNWR: k = 0.963, p < 0.001).

Data Analysis

As the sample size for each age group in the study was small, the non-parametric tests were used in the analyses. Within language group differences for overall task accuracy and word length effects on the NWR tasks were examined for each language version of the NWR task.

RESULTS

To answer the first research question about group differences in the NWR tasks, the group differences were examined using the overall task accuracy for each NWR task. Table 2 presents the performance of participants in the various age groups. The results show that the older children performed better than the younger children.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to evaluate the difference among the three age groups (ages 4, 5, and 6) on median change in the performance of the English nonword repetition task (ENWR). The results of the analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in performance

Table 2Performance of Nonword Repetition Tasks by age

NWR Task -	4-yea	r-old	5-yea	r-old	6-year-old		
IN W K TASK -	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Mandarin	11.1	3.2	15.6	2.4	15.4	3.7	
English	8.8	2.9	11.9	4.0	14.1	3.4	

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of ENWR between the three age groups, in the medians, $\chi^2(2, N=30) = 9.02, p = 0.011$, with a mean rank of 9.30 for age 4, 16.20 for age 5, and 21.00 for age 6. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the three groups using the Mann-Whitney *U* test. The results indicated a significant difference only between the 4-year-olds and the 6-year-olds [U = 11.5, p = 0.002]. The comparison between the 4-year-olds and the 5-year-olds [U = 26.5, p = 0.075] and between the 5-year-olds and the 6-year-olds [U = 33.5, p = 0.218] were not statistically significant as shown in Table 3.

With regard to the Mandarin nonword repetition task (MNWR), there was a significant difference between the median of the groups [$\chi^2(2, N = 30) = 9.91, p = 0.007$] with a mean rank of 8.40 for age 4, 19.55 for age 5, and 18.55 for age 6. The pair wise comparison using the Mann-Whitney Test as shown in Table 4 also found a significant difference only between the 4-year-olds and the 5-year-olds [U = 12.0, p = 0.003] and between the 4-year-olds and the 6-year-olds [U = 17.0, p = 0.011]. The difference in the performances between the 5-year-olds and the 6-year-olds was not statistically significant [U = 47.5, p = 0.853].

To answer the second question, the group differences in NWR tasks of both languages were examined for overall task accuracy for each word length. A Friedman test was conducted to evaluate the differences in median among the children's performance with different word lengths in the ENWR and MNWR. Table 5 presents the means, standard derivation, and median for different age groups and different word lengths for the ENWR task.

The results indicated that there was a significant difference among the three group with different word length [age 4,

	Age 4 – Age 5	Age 4 – Age 6	Age 5 – Age 6
Mann-Whitney U	26.500	11.500	33.500
Wilconxon W	81.500	66.500	88.000
Ζ	-1.787	-2.926	-1.260
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	0.074	0.003	0.208
Exact sig. [2*(1-tailed sig.)]	0.075	0.002	0.218

Table 3Pairwise comparison for the ENWR task by age group

Table 4

Pairwise comparison for the MNWR task by age group

	Age 4 – Age 5	Age 4 – Age 6	Age 5 – Age 6
Mann-Whitney U	12.000	17.000	47.500
Wilconxon W	67.000	72.000	102.500
Z	-2.884	-2.509	191
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.012	0.849
Exact sig. [2*(1-tailed sig.)]	0.003	0.011	0.853

 $\chi^2(2, N = 10) = 14.76, p = 0.001;$ age 5, $\chi^2(2, N = 10) = 14.22, p = 0.001;$ age 6, $\chi^2(2, N = 10) = 14.80, p = 0.001.$] Followup pairwise comparisons were conducted using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test with a Bonferroni correction applied, resulting in a significance level set at p < 0.017. The results indicated that there was no significant differences between the two- and three-syllable nonwords [age 4: z = 2.360, p = 0.018; age 5: z = -2.200, p = 0.028] or between the three- and four-syllable nonwords among the age four and age five groups [age 4: z = -2.372, p = 0.018; age 5: z = -2.336, p = 0.019]. However, there was a significant difference in the performance of the two-syllable and the four-syllable nonwords [age 4: z = -2.827, p = 0.005; age

5: z = -2.842, p = 0.004]. For the six-yearolds, the results showed that the children performed significantly better with the twosyllable nonwords compared to the foursyllable nonwords [z = -2.825, p = 0.005] and between the three- and four-syllable nonwords [z = -2.555, p = 0.011], but there was no significant differences between the two- and three-syllable nonwords [z =-1.552, p = 0.121]. Figure 1 presents the mean scores of the subjects for both the English NWR tasks.

Like the ENWR task results, the children's performance for the MNWR task was also influenced by the length of the nonwords. The tests indicated that there was a significant difference between groups with different word lengths [age 4: $\chi^2(2, N)$]

Table 5

Mean, standard deviation and median of ENWR scores by age and word length

Word		Age 4			Age 5			Age 6	
length	M	SD	Median	M	SD	Median	M	SD	Median
2 syllables	4.2	1.14	4.5	5.5	1.35	5.5	6.1	1.66	5.5
3 syllables	3.0	1.33	2.5	4.1	1.45	4.5	5.2	1.48	4.5
4 syllables	1.6	1.07	2.0	2.3	2.00	1.5	2.8	1.32	5.0

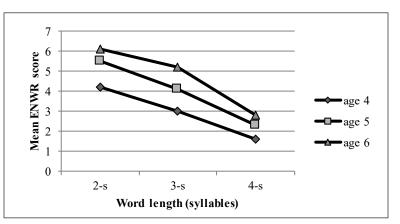


Figure 1. Mean scores for English nonwords by word length and age

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 $= 10) = 10.06, p = 0.007; age 5: \chi^{2}(2, N =$ 10) = 18.20, p = 0.000; age 6: $\chi^2(2, N = 10)$ = 13.63, p = 0.001]. Follow-up pairwise comparisons were conducted using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test with a Bonferroni correction applied, resulting in a significance level set at p < 0.017. The results indicated that among the age 4 and age 6 groups, there was no significant difference between the two- and three- syllable nonwords [age 4: z = -2.259, p = 0.024; age 6: z = -2.322, p = 0.020] or between the three- and foursyllable nonwords [age 4: z = -1.734, p = 0.083; age 6: z = -2.263, p = 0.024]; however, there was a significant difference when comparisons were made between the two- and four-syllable nonwords [age 4: z = -2.620, p = 0.009; age 6: z = -2.825, p= 0.005]. In contrast, for the 5 year-olds,

Table 6

there was a significant difference between the two- and three-syllable nonwords [z =-2.676, p = 0.007] and between the threeand four-syllable nonwords [z = -2.821, p =0.005], and also between two- and foursyllable nonwords [z = -2.820, p = 0.005]. Table 6 presents the overall mean scores, standard deviation, and median for the MNWR task. Figure 2 presents the mean of MNWR performance with different word lengths for different age groups.

In order to answer the third question, the overall task accuracy for each language was examined with the Mann-Whitney U test to determine the effects of the language (Mandarin vs English) on the NWR tasks. The results showed that the children performed better in the MNWR task compared to the ENWR task [MNWR: M =

Word		Age 4			Age 5			Age 6	
Length	M	SD	Median	M	SD	Median	M	SD	Median
2 syllables	5.4	1.35	5.0	7.7	0.95	8.0	7.6	1.43	7.5
3 syllables	3.2	1.69	3.0	5.2	1.40	5.0	5.1	2.45	5.5
4 syllables	2.5	1.58	2.0	2.7	1.16	2.5	2.7	1.34	2.5

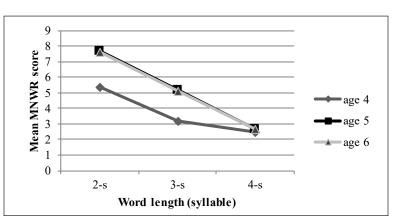


Figure 2. Mean scores of Mandarin nonwords by word length and age

14.03, SD = 3.66; ENWR: M = 11.60, SD = 4.01). Table 7 presents the mean rank and sum of ranks for the Mandarin and English NWR tasks. The analysis of Mann-Whitney test presented in Table 8 shows that there was a significant difference between the performance of these two language tasks. It can be interpreted that the performance in MNWR was better than ENWR (U = 285.5, p = 0.015). Figure 3 shows the mean scores of the ENWR task and the MNWR task by age groups.

Table 7Performance of NWR in Mandarin and English

NWR tasks	Ν	Mean rank	Sum of ranks
Mandarin	30	35.98	1079.50
English	30	25.02	750.50

DISCUSSION

Overall, the older children (5- and 6-yearolds) in this study performed better than the four-year-olds, and the children performed better in Mandarin compared to English. The overall results are consistent with earlier findings (e.g. de V. Hage & Grivol, 2009; Gathercole & Baddeley, 1989; Hoff et al., 2008; Stokes et al., 2006) where older children performed better than younger ones. The mean scores in both NWR tasks increased with age of the participants.

Table 8

Comparison of performance in the Mandarin and English NWR tasks

	MNWR - ENWR
Mann-Whitney U	285.500
Wilcoxon W	750.500
Z	-2.440
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	0.015

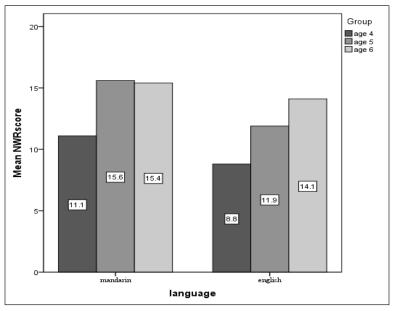


Figure 3. Mean scores of MNWR and ENWR tasks by age

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The NWR tasks involved listening to segmental speech sounds presented in a sequence, remembering them, and repeating them. Hulme et al. (1984) found that the development of phonological STM, which increased with age, could be connected to the increased speed and accuracy of recall and it was related to the development of speaking skills. Hoff and her colleagues (2008) explicitly pointed out that children who were more advanced in phonological development had more phonological representations. This could imply that performance in the NWR task relies on phonological STM, as phonological development is indexed by age; the older children are, the better they are expected to perform in remembering new word forms.

The results of this study also support the idea that performance in the NWR task reflects language development of children at different age groups. Although the 4-year-old children performed poorly on the NWR tasks, they had no difficulty in completing the task. This is not the case with the sentence repetition task which requires stronger language skills and knowledge of the grammatical system. Also the performance of the NWR for both languages showed that the children did not reach ceiling level performance even with the 6-year-olds in both language tasks, as compared to the sentence repetition tasks reported in Woon (2015) and Woon et al. (2014). This suggests that the NWR task has better potential in being used as a diagnostic tool since it is a relatively easy task to conduct and it does not require the child to

have acquired the grammatical system of the language.

The accuracy scores also revealed that the participants had more difficulties with the longer nonwords than the shorter ones. Earlier studies had suggested that memory span was related to word-length effects (e.g. Archibald, 2008; Baddeley et al., 1975; Gathercole, 2006), and this explained why the longer words were more poorly recalled compared to the shorter words. The phonological loop proposed by Baddeley and Hitch (1974) gives a comprehensive explanation about the wordlength effect. Working memory can only hold a phonological form for a very short while. Therefore, performance in the NWR task is expected to be affected by time-based decay effects. Longer nonwords require more time to be presented and repeated. The phonological representation of longer words may decay at a greater extent before the participants could repeat and rehearse it in their mind. Furthermore, the children could not resort to guessing as semantics could not be called upon to assist them in remembering as the stimulus items were all nonwords. Thus, the children's performance in the NWR tasks for both English and Mandarin were affected by the length of the nonwords counted in terms of number of syllables.

Previous studies found that the accuracy rate of NWR was related to word-likeness, phonotactic probability, articulatory complexity, and other linguistic factors (e.g. Archibald & Gathercole, 2006; Chiat & Roy, 2007; Graf Estes et al., 2007; Messer et al., 2010; Vitevitch & Luce, 2005). In fact, the lack of support of STM or the inability to create a long term memory representation resulting from very limited lexical knowledge in a particular language could lead to difficulty in repeating uncommon phoneme sequences (Archibald, & Gathercole, 2006). Furthermore, Gathercole (2006) suggested that familiarity of constituent segment influenced the accuracy of NWR performance. It is therefore not surprising to find the Malaysian bilingual children performing better in the Mandarin task compared to English task as it may be possible that despite our effort to identify children who were simultaneous bilinguals with exposure to both languages from before the age of three, there could be variability in the sampling which cannot be avoided in the absence of an accurate tool to measure exposure to the two languages.

Apart from the children's phonological STM capacity, the performance of the children in the NWR tasks could also be influenced by inherent differences in the two languages: Mandarin and English. As discussed in Duanmu (2007), there are two important differences between English and Chinese words. Most Chinese words are monosyllabic, while only 13% of English words are monosyllabic; most words in English are polysyllabic. Therefore, it may be possible that phonological STM plays a more prominent role in the learning of English words while semantic knowledge may be used to help children remember longer sequences of compounding available in Chinese words. Thorn and Gathercole

(1999) argued that phonological STM functioned in a highly language-specific way. This could possible explain why the performance of the children in the Mandarin NWR task reached a plateau and there was no difference between the performance of the 5-year old and the 6-year olds for all categories of word-length. Nevertheless, this remains an open question for now that needs to be addressed in future studies as the removal of the 5 and 6-syllable nonwords could have impacted on the findings.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous discussion led to the following conclusions. First, the NWR tasks can be used to assess language development among the Malaysian Mandarin-English speaking children. The tasks show that the MNWR task was able to distinguish the four-yearolds from the five- and six-year-olds, but it was not adequately sensitive to distinguish the five-year-olds from the six- year-olds. The ENWR task, on the other hand was only able to distinguish the four-year-olds from the six-year-olds. The results also suggest that the NWR tasks are challenging as the older children did not reach the ceiling level unlike the sentence repetition tasks reported in Woon (2015). Hence, they show some potential in being used as diagnostic tools even with the younger age group and before evidence of syntactic knowledge is evident in the child, as is often the case with children experiencing language development delays or language impairment. This is important as early detection of potential language delays or language impairment could guarantee that the child will receive the much needed attention.

Secondly, the results suggest that the phonological STM plays an important role in the repetition task, but familiarity with the language influences the performance in the NWR tasks. For typically developing children, the NWR task used in this study which was limited to only two to four syllables may not be sensitive enough to discriminate the development of five and six year old children. An in-depth analysis of the errors would be needed to determine the reason(s) why these children were all performing poorly with the four-syllable nonwords. Such an analysis would help further development of the NWR tasks. It is also important to evaluate the consistency of children's performance to further determine its utility as a diagnostic tool for Mandarin-English bilingual children in Malaysia.

The current study was conducted on a very small group of children. To test the efficacy of the NWR task further, a larger sample of children should be involved in future studies. As correctly pointed out by the anonymous reviewers, the children from this study were recruited from only one kindergarten. Coupled with the fact that the sample size is small, the results may not be generalizable to the population of Mandarin-English simultaneous bilingual children in Malaysia. Nonetheless, the current study has shown that the NWR task is an easy task to conduct, and it has potential to be developed as a diagnostic tool to obtain information about bilingual

children's language development level without directly tapping the use of specific and explicit grammatical knowledge of children growing up in a complex linguistic environment in Malaysia. This study has only taken the first step towards this goal. More study involving a bigger group of children (typically developing children and children with language development delay as well as language impairment) are needed before any decision can be made about the suitability of this task for diagnosis of children with language impairment.

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Psychoactive Substance Use among Nigerian Secondary School Students: A Review of Current Literature

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ABSTRACT

Substance use is a global health issue that may lead to engagement in other risky behaviours, addiction, accidents and non-communicable diseases. In Nigeria, this risky behaviour is becoming an emerging trend among secondary school students. This review was thus carried out to gain an overview of the prevalence and risk factors of substance use among secondary school students in Nigeria. A literature search of articles in Scopus, PubMed and other online databases was conducted for articles published between 2009 to 2019. Sixteen studies met the inclusion criteria. Overall, psychoactive substance ranged from 21% to 87%. Alcohol consumption was the highest, while the use of tobacco, cannabis, and cocaine was low. The mean age at initiation ranged from 11 to 15 years. Male gender, peer influence, parental factors, individual factors and knowledge on the dangers of psychoactive substance use were common factors associated with substance use among Nigerian secondary school

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 students. School-based interventions should be multifaceted and holistic. More research should be theory-based and conducted in the Northern parts of Nigeria. Future studies should measure other psychological factors that may influence these behaviours to provide more insight into interventions.

Keywords: Adolescent, alcohol, risky behaviour, substance use, secondary school students, tobacco

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INTRODUCTION

Adolescence comes with biological, cognitive and emotional changes. It is a period of experimentation and discovery and the adoption of new interests and behaviours (Patton et al., 2016). Some of these behaviours include risky behaviours like the use of substances such as tobacco, alcohol and drugs. Studies have reported that substance use in adolescence can be sustained into adulthood, leading to health effects that develop later in life (Patton et al., 2016; Viner et al., 2015).

Psychoactive substance use includes the use of licit substances like alcohol and tobacco, as well as illicit substances like cocaine, codeine/tramadol, and cannabis. There is enough documented evidence on the dangers associated with substance use. For instance, alcohol consumption is associated with alcohol dependence, accidents, diabetes, liver disease, and cancers (Rehm, 2011), while tobacco consumption is linked with tobacco dependence, lung disease, and cardiovascular diseases (Bartal, 2001). Codeine, marijuana and cocaine are addictive and can negatively affect mental health (Henry, 2000).

Among adolescents, the developmental changes occurring during adolescence lead to unique and differential effects among substance users. For example, cocaine has been reported to be more addictive among adolescents due to their neurochemical makeup (Izenwasser, 2005). Alcohol use among adolescents also leads to marked and deleterious changes in brain functioning like memory, attention, and speed in processing information. Marijuana has been linked with poor learning performances and reduced cognitive functioning (Squeglia et al., 2009). Other effects of psychoactive substance use among adolescents include truancy, vandalism, poor academic performance, accidents and injuries, risky sexual behaviour, and life-long addiction (Center for Substance Abuse Treatment, 1999; Whyte et al., 2018).

Despite the damaging outcomes of substance use, there is an increasing rate of substance use among young people globally (Center for Substance Abuse Treatment, 1999). Research conducted in several parts of Nigeria about this phenomenon has shown that Nigeria is no exception. Considering these, the authors aim to design and implement a school-based intervention to reduce the prevalence of this risky behaviour among Nigerian secondary school students. However, there is no current paper summarising and organising findings from the numerous existing studies on psychoactive substance use among Nigerian secondary school students.

This review paper was, therefore written to gain a general overview of the current status and risk factors of substance use among secondary school students in the country. This will provide insight into the effective development and implementation of school-based substance use interventions and be an excellent resource for other academicians and researchers.

METHODS

Literature Search

A thorough search of PubMed, Scopus, AJOL and Google scholar was conducted to find articles on psychoactive substance use among secondary school students. The authors searched titles and abstracts of literature using a combination of related terms and keywords ("risk behaviour", "smoking" "cigarette" "alcohol" "substance use" "psychoactive substance", "adolescent", "teen", "teenager", "young", "secondary school" youth, Nigeria,) and appropriate Boolean terms. The authors also manually searched references of other studies to find related literature. Figure 1 shows a flow chart of the literature search conducted in this study.

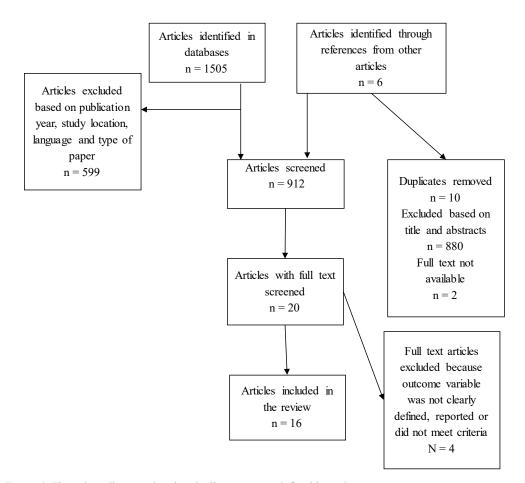


Figure 1. Flow chart diagram showing the literature search for this study

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Selection Criteria

The authors selected studies that measured the lifetime or current use of one or more of the following psychoactive substances; alcohol, tobacco, codeine, cocaine, and cannabis. The authors reviewed only studies published from 2009, conducted in Nigeria, and among secondary school students. Studies that reported the risk factors of any of the above-mentioned psychoactive substances were also included. The authors excluded reviews, letters, meta-analyses, studies conducted in non-English languages, in multiple countries, focused on one gender and where the full text was not available even after a thorough internet search. Finally, articles with obvious methodological flaws, e.g. failure to define how the outcome variable was measured were excluded.

RESULTS

Study Characteristics

Sixteen articles met the inclusion criteria for this review. Table 1 shows the characteristics and findings of the studies reviewed.

Psychoactive Substances Measured in the Studies

Seven articles measured tobacco or cigarette use (Arute et al., 2015; Chinawa et al., 2014; Itanyi et al., 2018; Odukoya et al., 2013; Okagua et al., 2016; Raji et al., 2018), one article measured both alcohol and tobacco use (Olugbenga-Bello et al., 2014), and eight studies measured the use of any of alcohol, tobacco, cocaine and cannabis as psychoactive substance use (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Idowu et al., 2018; Igwe, 2009; Manyike et al., 2016; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Oshodi et al., 2010).

Data Collection Instruments

Four authors used a modified World Health Organization (WHO) Student Drug Use questionnaire as their data collection tool (Igwe, 2009; Manyike et al., 2016; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Oshodi et al., 2010). Four authors used the Global Youth Tobacco Survey questionnaire to collect data on tobacco consumption (Itanyi et al., 2018; Odukoya et al., 2013; Okagua et al., 2016; Raji et al., 2013). One author used the Health Kids Colorado Questionnaire (Chinawa et al., 2014). The remaining authors structured their own questionnaires (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Idowu et al., 2018; Odey et al., 2012; Olugbenga-Bello et al., 2014).

Study Population

In ten studies, data was collected from students aged between 10 to 19 years (Chinawa et al., 2014; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Igwe, 2009; Itanyi et al., 2018; Manyike et al., 2016; Odey et al., 2012; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Okagua et al., 2016; Olugbenga-Bello et al., 2014; Raji et al., 2013). In five studies, data was collected from students aged between 10 to 20 years and above (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Odukoya et al., 2013). For one study, the age range of the study participants was not indicated (Idowu et al., 2018).

eviewed articles Locatio 21 South V 19 South E	istics of reviewed articles Age Locatio group 10 – 21 South V years Jeans years	n Data collection Theory Prevalence Mean Age at Risk factors tool used initiation	WHO Global None Lifetime 14.2 +/- 2.1 Youth Tobacco tobacco use: Survey 9.7%	WHO None questionnaire for Student Drug	Use Surveys tobacco: 10.3% Age Current use of Religious participation Lifetime use of Parental alcohol use	Current use of Parental education cannabis: 0.4%
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Psychoactive Substance Use among Nigerian Secondary School Students

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Table 1

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Risk factors	Male gender Parental history of smoking	Poor knowledge of harmful effects of smoking	High Socio-	class									
Mean Age at initiation	12.47+/- 3												
Prevalence	Ever use of tobacco: 7.1% Current use of tobacco: 3.3%		Tobacco use for 9 days or less: 5.0%	Tobacco use for 10 days or more: 3.7%	Cigarette use: 16.7%	Alcohol consumption: 23.1%	Overall lifetime substance use: 87.3%	Ever use of tobacco: 5.2%	Current use of tobacco: 3.0%	Ever use of alcohol: 9.2% Current use of alcohol: 8.9%	Ever use of cannabis – 4.4%	Current use of cannabis – 3.3%	Ever use of cocaine: 3.8 Current use of cocaine: 1.9%
Theory used	None		None		None		None						
Data collection tool	WHO Global Youth Tobacco Survey		Health kids	questionnaire	Semi-	su uctured questionnaire	WHO	for Student	Surveys				
Location	South South		South	East	South	WCSL	South West						
Age group	10 -19 years		10 - 19	ycars	10 - 19	ycars	11 - 20	ycars					
Author	Okagua et al. (2016)		Chinawa et	aı.(2014)	Olugbenga	Cl al.(2014)	Oshodi et	a1.(2010)					

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Table 1 (Continued)

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Risk factors	Male gender				Male gender	C)				Male gender
Ris	Mal				Mal	Age				Mal
Mean Age at initiation										
Prevalence	Lifetime use of tobacco: 11.4%	Lifetime use of alcohol: 32.2%	Lifetime use of cocaine: 4.7%	Lifetime use of cough medicine: 33.2%	Overall lifetime nsvchoactive substance	$p_{symptotic formula}$ use -29.5% ,	Current tobacco use: 14.3%	Current alcohol use: 31.6%	Current cannabis use: 4.1%	Current cigarette use: 6.4%
Theory used	None				None					None
Data collection tool	Semi- structured	questioniaire			WHO duestionnaire	for Student	Surveys			Semi- structured questionnaire
Location	South West				South East					South South
Age group	9 – 18 years				10 to 19 vears	c ma k				10 – 18 years
Author	Famuyiwa et al. (2011)				Igwe (2009)					Odey et al. (2012)

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Table 1 (Continued)

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Author	Age group	Location	Data collection tool	Theory used	Prevalence	Mean Age at initiation	Risk factors
Raji et al. (2012)	10 – 19 years	North West	WHO Global Youth Tobacco Survey	None	Cigarette use: 8.3%		Friends that smoke Buying cigarettes
Idowu et al. (2018)	I	South West	Semi- structured questionnaire	None	Lifetime use of psychoactive substances: 26.3% Lifetime use of alcohol: 21.7%		Received formal lectures on the dangers of substance use
Ogunsola and Fatusi	10 – 19 years	South West	WHO questionnaire for Student	None	Overall psychoactive substance use in urban areas: 65.7%		Mother's tertiary education
(01107)			Drug Use Surveys		Overall psychoacuve substance use in rural areas: 66%		Approval of adult use of substances
					Lifetime alcohol use in urban areas: 62.3%		Friends use of substances
					Lifetime alcohol use in rural areas: 58.3%		Parental disapproval on substance use
					Lifetime tobacco use in urban areas: 6% Lifetime cocaine use in urban areas: 2%		Private school
					Lifetime cannabis use in urban areas: 3%		

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Table 1 (Continued)

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Author	Age group	Location	Data collection tool	Theory used	Prevalence	Mean Age at initiation	Risk factors
Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013)	10 to > 20 years	South West	Semi-structured questionnaire	None	Ever use of psychoactive substances: 52.1%		Parental use
					Current use of psychoactive substances: 30.5%		
					Lifetime use of alcohol: 15.2%		
					Current use alcohol: 8.3%		
					Current use of tobacco: 14.3%		
					Current use of cannabis: 16.7%		
					Current use of cocaine: 6.4%		
Arute et al. (2015)	11 to >20 years	South-south	Semi-structured questionnaire	None	Ever cigarette use: 7%		
					Current cigarette use - 3.5%		

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Table 1 (Continued)

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Alex-hart 1	Age group	Location	Data collection tool	Theory used	Prevalence M A in	Mean Age at initiation	Risk factors
5)	12 to 24 years	South South	Semi-structured questionnaire	None	Current alcohol use: 30.6%		Going out in the evening for fun
					Current tobacco use: 3.2%		Academic grade
					Current marijuana use – 3.9% Lifetime cocaine		
	10	Couth Boot	Clobal Vanth	Nord	use: 5.2% Error 110 of		المصامع المسام
(2018) y	10 – 19 years	SOULLE EASE	Tobacco Survey		Evel use of cigarettes: 28.9%		Male gender
					Ever use of other tobacco: 11.7%		
					Ever use of smokeless tobacco: 26.8%		
					Current use of tobacco:19.4%		

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Table 1 (Continued)

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Study Location

Seven studies were carried out in the South-Western part of Nigeria (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Idowu et al., 2018; Odukoya et al., 2013; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Olugbenga-Bello et al., 2014; Oshodi et al., 2010). Four studies were conducted in the South-South part of Nigeria (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Odey et al., 2012; Okagua et al., 2016), four studies in South-Eastern Nigeria (Chinawa et al., 2014; Igwe, 2009; Itanyi et al., 2018; Manyike et al., 2016) and one study in North-Western Nigeria (Raji et al., 2013).

Prevalence of Psychoactive Substance Use

The prevalence of lifetime psychoactive substance use was found to be high among secondary school students. Oshodi et al. (2010) reported the highest prevalence of psychoactive use among secondary school students at 87.3%. In a different study, about 66% of students had used at least one form of a psychoactive substance in their lifetime (Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017). High lifetime use of substance use was also reported by Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) at 52.1%. Igwe (2009) reported a lower prevalence of psychoactive substance use at 29.5%. Idowu et al. (2018) reported a lifetime substance use of 26.3%, although his definition of substance use did not include alcohol.

Alcohol Consumption

Several studies reported alcohol as the most used psychoactive substance among secondary school students (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Igwe, 2009; Manyike et al., 2016; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Oshodi et al., 2010).

In the study by Ogunsola and Fatusi (2017), lifetime alcohol use among urban and rural secondary school students was 62.3% and 58.3% respectively. Manyike et al. (2016) reported a similarly high lifetime alcohol use of 59.3%. Other authors reported lower lifetime alcohol use at 32.2% (Famuyiwa et al., 2011), 21.7% (Idowu et al., 2018), 15.2% (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013) and 9.2% (Oshodi et al., 2010).

On current alcohol consumption, Igwe (2009) reported that 31.6% of secondary school students used alcohol in the last 12 months with continuing use within the last 30 days preceding the survey. Other authors reported that 8.3% to 30.6% of secondary school students consumed alcohol within 30 days preceding the survey (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Manyike et al., 2015; Oshodi et al., 2018). In the study by Olugbenga-Bello et al. (2014), 23.1% admitted to consuming alcohol regularly.

Overall, the prevalence of Nigerian secondary school students who had ever consumed alcohol at least once in their lifetime ranged from 9.2% to 62.3%, while the prevalence of current alcohol consumers ranged from 8.3% to 30.3%. However, only two studies reported current alcohol use of less than 10%.

Tobacco Consumption

Generally, lifetime use of tobacco consumption was lower than lifetime alcohol use. Itanyi et al. (2018) reported the highest lifetime prevalence of tobacco use among Nigerian secondary school students as 28.9% of the students had ever smoked cigarettes, 11.7% had ever used other forms of tobacco and 26.8% had ever used smokeless tobacco. Other studies reported lower lifetime prevalence of tobacco consumption ranging from 5.2% to 11.4% (Arute et al., 2015; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Manyike et al., 2016; Okagua et al., 2016; Oshodi et al., 2010).

On current tobacco consumption, the highest prevalence of tobacco consumption in the last 30 days preceding the study was 19.4% (Itanyi et al., 2018), while two studies reported a prevalence of 14.3% each (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2015; Igwe, 2009). Other studies reported lower prevalence rates ranging from 2.9% to 3.5% (Arute et al., 2015; Manyike et al., 2016; Okagua et al., 2016). Chinawa et al. (2014) reported that 5% of the students used tobacco for 9 days or less in the past 3 months before the survey, and 3.7% of them used tobacco products for 10 days or more in the past 3 months before the survey.

Three studies reported on the prevalence of cigarette smoking among Nigerian secondary school students, and thus did not measure other forms of tobacco consumption. Studies by Raji et al. (2013) and Olugbenga-Bello et al. (2014) reported that 16.7% and 8.3% of secondary school students were cigarette smokers respectively. Odey et al. (2012) reported that 6.4% of the students smoked cigarettes in the week preceding the survey, and Alex-hart et al. (2015) reported that 3.2% of the students were current cigarette smokers who had smoked cigarettes 30 days before the study.

Overall, the prevalence of Nigerian secondary school students who had consumed a form of tobacco at least once in their lifetime ranged from 5.2% to 28.9%. The percentage of current tobacco consumers ranged from 2.9% to 19.4%, however in majority of the studies, the prevalence of current tobacco consumption was below 5%.

Cannabis Use

The lifetime use of cannabis was low compared to lifetime tobacco and alcohol consumption. Igwe (2009) and Oshodi et al. (2010) reported that 4.1% and 4.4% of secondary school students had used cannabis at least once in their lifetime, respectively. Alex-Hart et al. (2015) reported a lifetime cannabis use of 3.8% and Ogunsola and Fatusi (2017) reported lifetime cannabis use of 3%. Manyike et al. (2016) reported the lowest lifetime prevalence 0.8%.

On current cannabis use, Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) reported that 16.7% of secondary school students had consumed cannabis within 30 days preceding the survey. Other authors reported lower prevalence rates of between 3% to 4.1% (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Igwe, 2009; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Oshodi et al., 2010). Manyike et al. (2016) reported the lowest prevalence of current cannabis use at 0.4%.

Overall, the prevalence of lifetime cannabis use among Nigerian secondary school students ranged from 0.8% to 4.4%. The prevalence of current cannabis use among Nigerian secondary school students ranged from 0.4% to 16.7%, with majority of the studies reporting current cannabis use below 5%.

Cocaine Use

Studies reported low use of cocaine among secondary school students. Lifetime cocaine use was 4.7% and 3.8% as reported by Oshodi et al. (2010) and Famuyiwa et al. (2011) respectively. Alex-Hart et al. (2015) reported a higher prevalence of lifetime cocaine use at 5.2%.

The percentage of current cocaine users who used cocaine within 30 days preceding the survey was 6.4% (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013) and 1.9% (Oshodi et al. 2010).

Mean Age at Initiation of Substance Use

Of all the studies reviewed, only studies that measured tobacco use reported the mean age at initiation of tobacco or cigarette use. The study by Okagua et al. (2016) reported a mean age of initiation of 12.47 years. In the study by Odukoya et al. (2013), the mean age at initiation of tobacco use was 14.2 years. Raji et al. (2013) reported the highest mean age at initiation of cigarette use as 15.26 years.

Risk Factors of Psychoactive Substance Use

Sociodemographic characteristics were reported by the reviewed studies as a risk factor for psychoactive substance use among Nigerian secondary school students. Gender was a risk factor mentioned in several studies. In all these studies, males were significantly more likely to use psychoactive substances (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Itanyi et al., 2018; Odey et al., 2012; Odukoya et al., 2013). Age was another sociodemographic characteristic associated with psychoactive substance use. Igwe (2009) however reported that middle aged adolescents were more likely than older and younger adolescents to use psychoactive substances, while in the study by Manyike et al. (2016), adolescents aged 15 to 17 had a significantly higher prevalence of psychoactive substance use compared to those aged 18 and 19 years.

Parental characteristics were a predominant risk factor of psychoactive substance use among Nigerian secondary school students. Secondary school students whose parents used a form of psychoactive substance were significantly more likely to use a substance as well (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Manyike et al., 2016; Odukoya et al., 2013; Okagua et al., 2016; Raji et al., 2013). Ogunsola & Fatusi (2017) reported that parental disapproval of substance use was a risk factor for substance use among secondary school students. Parental education was another parental characteristic reported to be a significant risk factor of psychoactive substance use (Manyike et al., 2016; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017).

Peer influence was another risk factor associated with psychoactive substances as adolescents with a friend that uses substances were also more likely to use substances (Odukoya et al., 2013; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Raji et al., 2013). The reviewed studies also reported certain individual characteristics as risk factors of psychoactive substance use. Religious participation was reported by Manyike et al. (2016) as a risk factor of psychoactive substance use. Students with poor academic performance were more likely to use psychoactive substances (Alex-Hart et al., 2015). Additionally, students with a positive attitude towards smoking were more likely to use cigarettes (Odukoya et al., 2013), and students who approved of adult's use of substances were more likely to use psychoactive substances (Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017).

Knowledge of the dangers of substance use was a risk factor reported by two studies. In the study by Idowu et al. (2018), those who received formal lectures on the dangers of smoking were less likely to use substances. In the study by Okagua et al. (2016), students with poor knowledge of the harmful effects of smoking were more likely to use cigarettes.

Other risk factors reported by authors were advertisements on tobacco (Okagua et al., 2016), buying cigarettes (Raji et al., 2013), socioeconomic class of the students (Manyike et al., 2016), going out in the evening for fun (Alex-Hart et al., 2015), being in a private school (Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017), and living in a rural area (Itanyi et al., 2018).

In several studies, students stated their reasons for using psychoactive substances. They were to have more friends (Raji et al., 2013), to be more intelligent or active (Idowu et al., 2018), to have fun/good time with friends (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Idowu et al., 2018), to be happy/to feel good (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Idowu et al., 2018), peer pressure (Idowu et al., 2018; Okagua et al., 2016), to get relief from stress/forget about worries (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Oshodi et al., 2010), to stay awake at night to study/academic purposes (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Oshodi et al., 2010), to be physically fit (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013), to get sleep/to relax (Alex-Hart et al., 2015), media influence (Okagua et al., 2016), experimentation (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Okagua et al., 2016), family influence (Okagua et al., 2016), and because they were hooked (Alex-Hart et al., 2015).

DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to determine the status and risk factors of substance use among secondary school students in Nigeria. The authors also aimed to identify research gaps and recommend strategies for schoolbased interventions.

There were varying differences in methodological definitions of substance use, alcoholic and tobacco consumption across various studies. For example, some studies measured only lifetime use without measuring current use (Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Idowu et al., 2018; Odukoya et al., 2013; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017). Some studies had varying definitions of current use, with one study defining current use as substance use in the 12 months preceding the survey with continuing use within the last 30 days (Igwe, 2009), or as substance use within 30 days preceding the survey (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Manyike et al., 2016; Okagua et al., 2016; Oshodi et al., 2010). Additionally, while some studies measured the use of all forms of tobacco (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Chinawa et al., 2014; Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Igwe, 2009; Manyike et al., 2016; Odukoya et al., 2013; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017; Oshodi et al., 2010, 2010), others measured only cigarette use (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Odey et al., 2012; Okagua et al., 2016; Olugbenga-Bello et al., 2014). These variations posed a challenge in comparing the prevalence rates of the use of the various psychoactive substances across studies. However, studies that used the WHO Student Drug Use questionnaire provided a form of uniformity in measurement and definition of substance use and allowed for easier comparison.

The studies reviewed reveal a high prevalence of substance use among secondary school students in Nigeria, which is particularly worrisome because substance use can have long-lasting and devastating physical, social, and emotional effects. Accidents, violence, truancy, risky sexual behaviour, poor academic performance, cardiovascular health effects and addiction are some of these effects (Bartal, 2001; Rehm, 2011; Whyte et al., 2018). Thus, it is important that substance use prevention programmes must implemented in secondary schools to prevent its adoption and discourage its use among users.

Several studies reported alcohol to be the most used psychoactive substance among secondary school students. Lifetime alcohol use ranged from 15.2% to 32.2%, and current alcohol use ranged from 8.3% to 30.6%. In Nigeria, alcoholic companies sponsor several youth-related events, with young celebrities paid to promote alcoholic drinks. These promotions can influence young Nigerian students who view these celebrities as role models. Moreover, there is currently no written alcohol control policy to regulate the availability of alcohol to adolescents (Dumbili, 2015). As a consequence, secondary school students have unlimited access to alcohol and can easily purchase them without presenting any form of identification as done in other countries.

Although the prevalence of tobacco consumption or cigarette smoking among Nigerian secondary school students is not as high as alcohol consumption, its prevalence is still worrisome. Tobacco is highly addictive and a known risk factor for several cardiovascular diseases and cancers (Bartal, 2001). Moreover, the dangers of second-hand smoke have been well documented (Naeem, 2015). Therefore, the use of tobacco may not be high, nevertheless its use among secondary school students have an impact not only on the smokers themselves, but their friends or peers who may be in close vicinity of those who smoke. The low prevalence of tobacco use could be due to its general unacceptability in Nigeria, as society still perceives cigarette smoking as an act of truancy in Nigeria.

The use of cocaine and cannabis was similarly low. However, considering the highly addictive and dangerous nature of cocaine, it is incredibly worrisome that cocaine is being used among secondary school students.

Mean Age at Initiation

The review revealed that the mean age at initiation of psychoactive substance use ranged from 11 to 15 years. In the study by Manyike et al. (2016), the majority of the students reported that their age of first use of alcohol and tobacco ranged from 11 to 14 years. In the study by Arute et al. (2015), it was also reported that the age at initiation of cigarette use was highest between 12 and 15 years. These findings highlight that substance use is initiated early among secondary school students in Nigeria.

Risk Factors of Psychoactive Substance Use

Parental use of or norm on substances is a risk factor for the use of psychoactive substances among secondary school students. Children are likely to imitate their parents' behaviour, and parents who do not use substances will probably be more likely to disapprove the use of these substances and educate their children on its associated dangers (Ebersole et al., 2014). Additionally, parents who use psychoactive substances may feel like they have poor sources of information on substance use because of the distinction between their attitude and their practices (Raji et al., 2013)

Gender is another unsurprising risk factor for substance use among secondary school students. In Nigeria, males are more likely to experiment and generally have more freedom to leave the house compared to females (Kågesten et al., 2016). This freedom implies less supervision, making it easier for them to adopt the use of psychoactive substances. Additionally, alcohol consumption is generally more tolerated among males in several Nigerian communities but heavily frowned upon when carried out by females (Mamman et al., 2002).

Having a friend that uses a form of psychoactive substances is a risk factor for substance use among secondary school students. Furthermore, having a good time with friends, having fun, peer pressure or wanting to have more friends were reasons secondary school students stated for engaging in substance use. During adolescence, the approval of peers gains more importance, and in secondary schools, adolescents spend more time with their peers than with others (Albert et al., 2013). Hence, they are inclined to adopt similar habits with their or be pressured into adopting these behaviours to fit into a social group.

This review also revealed that knowledge on the dangers of substance use is a risk factor of psychoactive substance use among Nigerian secondary school students. In the study by Oshodi et al. (2010), only 27% of the secondary school students knew the complications of psychoactive substance use. Additionally, reviewed studies revealed that students used psychoactive substances due to false myths and beliefs such as wanting to be more intelligent (Idowu et al., 2018), believing it is a good way to relieve stress or avoid worries (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Oshodi et al., 2010) and stay awake (Atoyebi & Atoyebi, 2013; Oshodi et al., 2010). These beliefs highlight the importance of proper and

health education on psychoactive substances in schools.

Students cited reasons for using psychoactive substances such as to relieve stress and be free from worries (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Arute et al., 2015; Oshodi et al., 2010), be happy, have fun (Alex-Hart et al., 2015; Idowu et al., 2018). More positive and healthy ways of having fun should be promoted in schools. Secondary schools in Nigeria have begun to de-emphasise extracurricular activities and play. Adolescents need a way to express their playful and creative sides to relieve the stress that comes with school learning. Schools need to involve students in engaging, and healthy activities to discourage them from resorting to psychoactive substances to gain these benefits.

Research Gaps

The authors identified several research gaps while conducting this review.

There were fewer published studies conducted on the use of substances by secondary school students after 2009, implying that there are fewer current studies on this topic in the country. With the current development of the tobacco control policy, the banning of codeine, the observed rising trend of shisha and the westernisation of values, there is an urgent need for more research in this area. Additionally, only two studies reported the use of cough medication among Nigerian secondary school students (Famuyiwa et al., 2011; Ogunsola & Fatusi, 2017). Currently, there is a rise in the abuse of cough medication by Nigerian youths, with various media houses reporting on a codeine and tramadol crisis overtaking Nigerian youths (BBC, 2018a). This led to the recent ban on the importation and production of codeine by the Nigerian government (BBC, 2018b). It will be interesting to see if this strategy leads to a reduction of its use, hence the need for more recent research on codeine and tramadol use among adolescents.

This review highlights a huge regional gap in the study of psychoactive substances among secondary school students, with few published studies conducted in Northern Nigeria. Northern Nigeria has a different predominant religion and culture from the Southern parts of the country. This cultural and religious climate may influence the use of the varying forms of psychoactive substances. For example, Islam is the predominant religion in Northern states, and it forbids the consumption of alcohol, which may affect the use of alcohol in these regions. Hence, whereas this review reported alcohol as the most abused form of psychoactive substances, it may be a completely different scenario in the Northern states. There, therefore, needs to be more studies on psychoactive substance use in these parts of the country to provide a balanced and comprehensive evidence on the current status of psychoactive substance use in the country.

Another significant gap observed was the lack of use of a theory to guide any of the studies reviewed, although the study by Raji et al. (2013) used a theory to support its findings. Several theories explain the use of

psychoactive substances among adolescents and can help guide the researchers on the variables to be studied. The lack of use of theory to guide research may be the reason many of the studies focused mainly on sociodemographic variables. While knowledge on the relationship between sociodemographic factors and psychoactive substances is necessary, there is a need to look beyond these factors and study psychological, school-related and community-related factors as well. Perhaps risk factors such as self-esteem, religiosity, confidence, resilience, and efficacy may influence on psychoactive substance use in Nigeria, and it is when we know their effects that interventions can begin to address them. Hence, future research should endeavour to study these possibly related factors.

Finally, all the studies reviewed were cross-sectional studies hence a temporal relationship between independent and outcome variables cannot be ascertained.

Recommendations for School-Based Interventions in Nigeria

Based on the findings from the reviews, we recommend the following for school-based interventions.

Interventions should focus on all forms of substance use among adolescents. Although this study reports that alcohol is the most consumed psychoactive substance among Nigerian secondary school students, other dangerous psychoactive substances are still consumed. The early age at initiation of substance use highlights the importance of early interventions that target young children yet to initiate the use of psychoactive substances and encourages early users to quit before they get addicted.

There is also a need for interventions to include a family-related component, as the study shows that parental factors influence the use of psychoactive substances. These interventions should inform parents of the need to discourage its use among their children or wards. It is also essential for school-based interventions to include a health education component that addresses the myths associated with the use of psychoactive substances, as some students reported that they used psychoactive substances to become more intelligent, to stay at wake at night and to be active. Finally, school-based interventions should incorporate fun, interactive sessions and teach students healthy ways to relieve stress and have fun.

Study Weaknesses

This review may have missed relevant studies; however, a thorough literature search of major databases was conducted to minimise this possibility. Additionally, unpublished studies were not included in the review. Finally, not all types of psychoactive substances were included in the review as other forms of substance use such as kola nut and paracetamol were not included.

CONCLUSION

There is a high prevalence of substance use among Nigerian secondary school students, with an early age at initiation. Gender, age, parental factors, peer factors, individual factors, and knowledge on the dangers of substance use are risk factors of substance use among secondary school students. School-based interventions need to be multifaceted and include peer education, family-based, health education, and interactively fun components. There is a need for more research on psychoactive substance use among Nigerian secondary school students, as well as in Northern parts of the country. Future research should be theory-based and measure other psychological and school-related factors.

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Women Barriers and Empowerment Opportunities in The Nigerian Context

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ABSTRACT

This study examines women barriers and empowerment opportunities in Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria. The study design was exploratory using quantitative and qualitative data. Data is obtained from 660 women from Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State. The research used a multi-stage sampling technique. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency tables, while the Chi-square was used to test the significance of relationship between the two hypotheses stated. The findings of the study revealed that 58.3% of the respondents' report that they were aware of the availability of women empowerment programmes in their community. While, 31.9% of the respondents reported the provision of agricultural facilities as the widely available empowerment programme for women, 38.4% indicated that non-governmental organizations were the major benefactors of women empowerment programmes. The findings of the study further showed that 39.5% of the respondents

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 acknowledged that they had benefitted from women empowerment programmes. Equality for all can be achieved when women are allowed to make their own decisions on issues that concern them and act on those opportunities without fear.

Keywords: Education, empowerment opportunities, patriarchy system, women barriers, women empowerment

INTRODUCTION

Women have over time been relegated to the background in many societies of the world. All over the world, women have suffered various degrees of abuses, discriminations, marginalization and deliberate denial of their rights, but the dimension differs from society to society (Fiderikumo et al., 2017; Okeke, 2018). Even in the 21st century, women suffer battery, they are falsely accused of practicing witchcraftcy, they are lynched for indulging in sexual activities and they are also raped and tortured while the perpetrators of these crimes move about freely in the society (Uyang et al., 2016). Women are usually given minor roles to play, they are treated as second class citizens and are mostly paired as servants to the men (Fiderikumo et al., 2017). Women have thus, been deprived socially, culturally, economically, politically and psychologically (Cornwall & Edwards, 2010; Onyebuchi & Rafiu, 2020). Syed (2018) observed that in southcentral Asia, women suffered cultural, racial, regional, economic, political and religious deprivations, stigmatizations and abuses. In Pakistan particularly, women are less educated compared to men, they are prone to sickness and they occupy the lowest social, political and economic status in the society (Raphel, 2014; Syed, 2018). In African culture, women remain silent while the men talk and take all the decisions that would be binding on women (Bako & Syed, 2017). In Ghana, women are denied access to land, and they are also not entitled to credit facilities, they are not permitted to register

as members of farmers' organisations, the same women are not allowed to access agricultural extension services and training (Atuase, 2018; International Centre for Research on Women, 2013). That is even on a lighter note. In most communities in Africa and Nigeria in particular, women are not allowed to attend extended family meetings, let alone to contribute to family matters. The domineering actions of men have conditioned women in traditional African societies into accepting their deprivations as their fate which cannot be altered (Bayeh, 2017; Oke, 2015).

In Nigeria, women are faced with a great challenge, as they constitute the poor and illiterate majority (Ayevbuomwan et al., 2016). Their productive roles are considered as a share of their domestic responsibilities (Eze et al., 2016). The men are still responsible for the key management decision making even though the women constitute about 60 to 80 per cent of the agricultural labour force in Nigeria, and they produce about two-thirds of the food crops for the family (Alese, 2013; Obayelu, & Chime, 2020). These women who occupy a critical place in our economic development are in most cases ignored, underestimated, relegated to the background and rendered voiceless when production and management decisions are made even within the household (Ilavbarhe & Izekor, 2015). There is no empirical evidence to show that in human history men have been subjected to such dehumanizing and agonizing treatment like the women. Unfortunately, most women now resign themselves to the culture of silence as a result of ignorance of what constitutes their rights in the family and the society at large (Amaechi, 2019; Duke, 2010). Literature in developing economics further highlights how class and gender has long been regarded as an important indicator in determining the patterns of oppression experienced by the women. For example, Armstrong's (2020) research on "Marxist and socialist feminism" reveals how class relations of capitalism enforced the gender hierarchies that anchored women's oppression. Elizabeth (2015) and Fasina's (2017) works on gender suggest a similar pattern whereby gender status becomes an important predictor of women oppression and travails. Though studies such as these underscore the important effects of class, gender status and women deprivation and oppression, the question that readily comes to mind is whether these relations remain constant for all women.

However, different factors have been identified as adversely affecting the process of women's all-around empowerment. These factors include the psychological make-up of women, their reproductive responsibilities, their total personality and external environment-categorized into the social, economic, educational, political and psychological and cultural values by which societies make the differentiation between men and women (Bako & Syed, 2017; Mandal, 2013). These impediments are sustained by the male-dominated social structure, high rate of poverty among women, and gender division of labour (Bako & Syed, 2017; Onyishi, 2011). Equality for all can be achieved if women are no longer treated as domestic workers, if they are liberated from all forms of generational discrimination, if the women are allowed political inequality with men, if the women are allowed full control over material resources accruable to them, if they are also given full protection against subtle male violence, male intimidation and male control (Bayeh, 2017; Onyishi, 2011). Put differently, empowerment, according to Amaechi (2019) and Fiderikumo et al. (2017), requires the transformation of the structures of subordination through changes in the law, changes in property rights and changes in other institutions that reinforce and perpetuate male domination. This could be done by improving the educational, political and economic status of women to enable them to participate actively in the socio-economic development of the society. The role of women empowerment programmes in achieving equality for women and liberating them from all forms of institutionalized discriminations, and pull them out of economic servitude, is still a subject of debate among scholars. Thus, this study empirically examined existing women empowerment opportunities and determine their strength in facilitating the achievement of equality for all women in Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria.

Explaining the Link

Participatory Approach. The participatory model propounded by Fiorino and Bowels (2001) advocates for a support system

which ensures that the women themselves get involved in the planning, execution and implementation of women empowerment programmes which will enhance and impact their lives for an all-round empowerment and development. The participation of women in the structural process of the women empowerment programmes is generally supported due to its potential for providing cost-effective and beneficial measures for the government. This approach is in agreement with the views of Fiderikumo et al. (2017), who opined that women empowerment programmes would increase the acceptance of such programmes and strengthen the confidence of the women in government decisions, with regards to empowerment programmes and the impact it would make in the lives of the women. The contention is that, the empowerment of women in Nigeria should be a function of the women themselves this will enable them to take their destinies in their hands in order to improve their socio-economic conditions (Onyebuchi & Rafiu, 2020).

However, socio-economic dynamics such as power differences and gender social relations have been identified as factors affecting women's participation in project planning and implementation. In addition to that, ineffective communication networks and inadequate capacity building among leaders are also identified as barriers to good flow of information and planning (Oke, 2015). The aim of women empowerment is to enhance the socio-economic status of women through creating an economic culture that will address the technical know-how in the pursuit of women's multifaceted roles, retooling them with various economic ventures as well as enhancing the emancipation of women from poverty. This is because women are "generally poor" and constitute majority of the population thus, targeting them will be a fundamental prerequisite for any poverty reduction strategy to be effective (Akpan, 2015; Danjuma et al., 2013).

METHODS

Study Setting and Population

The study was conducted in Yakurr Local Government Area (LGA) of Cross River State, Nigeria. It is one of the 18 local government areas that make up Cross River State. Yakurr LGA was created out of Obubra Local Government in 1987. Yakurr LGA headquarters is in Ugep. The area lies between latitude 5°40' and 6° 10' N and longitude 8°2' and 6° 10'E and 120km North of Calabar. Geographically, Yakurr shares boundaries to the West with Obubra LGA, to the East with Biase LGA, to the North with Abi LGA and to the South with Akamkpa LGA (Ugal, 2015). The major language spoken by the people is "Lokaa". The area comprises 13 wards and is inhabited by the people of Agoi, Ibami, Assiga, Mkpani, Ekon, Nko, Ugep and Idomi. The dominant language is Yakurr. The people of Yakurr LGA celebrate their new yam festival and the most pronounced festival in Yakurr is "Leboku" (Ibok et al., 2015). The choice of Yakurr LGA is because of the perceived high rate of patriarchal tendencies and low quality of life among the women, especially, in the rural area. The target population to be studied was 158,674 women. The target population of the study was made up of women from 18 years and above residing in Yakurr L.G.A, comprising the married and the unmarried, the educated and the uneducated, the employed and the unemployed.

Design and Sampling

Quantitative data was obtained from 622 respondents, using a multi-stage sampling technique which in this study entailed the selection of community clusters, streets, villages, housing units and respondents through simple random and purposive sampling technique. Qualitative data were collected from six participants, purposively selected in houses for In-depth Interview (IDI), and thirty-two (32) participants were selected purposively for Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Six (6) participants were purposively selected for the In-depth Interview (IDI). This brought the total number of respondents to 660. For the indepth interview (IDI) three women leaders and three chairpersons of cooperatives were selected. These categories of people were selected due to the vital position they occupy in the area and also their experiences. For the Focus Group Discussion (FGD), four FGD sessions were conducted with adult women who were 18 years and above; the FGD was made up of four groups. Sixteen (16) female participants were selected purposively from both wards in the urban area and 16 female participants were also selected purposively from Idomi

and Mkpani, which are rural areas. The combined approach is drawn from the potential strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data and it facilitates different avenues of exploration which enrich the evidence and enable research questions to be answered more deeply.

Ethical Consideration and Data Collection Procedure

The research complied with all known ethical principles guiding Social Science research. These include disclosure policy, informed consent, safety protocols, anonymity and confidentiality. Before the main instrument was administered, 10% of the sample size was used to conduct a pre-test in different locations not selected for the study. The instrument was also subjected to content and face validity. The researcher administered the questionnaires with the help of four research assistants who were fluent in English and Yakurr dialects. The test-retest reliability was adopted to determine if the responses were reliable. For the IDI and FGD, a researcher conducted the interview and discussion sessions using a recorder with the permission of the participants, while, one of the research assistants operated the recorder and took down notes as well. The respondents were duly notified and appointment scheduled before the interview. This was to avoid meeting them unprepared and to create a conducive environment that enhanced their full participation and also to guarantee the quality of information to be generated during the session.

Data Analysis

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. The quantitative data from the questionnaire were coded, computer-processed and analyzed using version 20 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency tables were used in presenting the results. The qualitative data were transcribed first in the local language and translated into English but the local language versions carry the same meanings with the English language version. In going through the transcription, phrases with special meanings were identified. They served as illustrative quotes to complement the statistical data.

RESULTS

A total of six hundred and twenty-two (622) copies of the questionnaire was distributed in the selected communities of the study area (Yakurr LGA) and 612 copies of the survey instrument were validly completed and retrieved which put the response rate at 98.4% response rate, while, 1.6% (10) were unusable because they were uncompleted and some were not returned. Table 1 shows that 50.2% of the respondents are from Ugep community. Other communities sampled were Mkpani (12.6%), Asiga (12.6%), Idomi (12.4%) and Ekori (12.3%). Fiftytwo (52.0) % of the respondents were 45 years and above, 19.9% were within the age bracket of 36 – 44 years. This was followed by those aged 27 - 35 years (17.8%), while, those aged 18 - 26 years were the least (10.3%). This implies that majority of the respondents sampled were mature-(45 years and above). The marital status distribution showed that respondents who were married were noticeably more than those in any other category and they made up 55.7% of the sample, this was followed by singles (20.4%) and widowed women (18.0%). Divorced women were 3.3% and those who were separated (2.6%) were the least sampled. Data regarding the educational qualification of respondents revealed that 33.8% of the respondents had

S/N	Variables	Options	Response rate	Percentage
1.	Community	Ugep	307	50.2
		Mkpani	77	12.6
		Asiga	77	12.6
		Idomi	76	12.4
		Ekori	75	12.3
		Total	612	100

Socio-demograph	hic data a	of respondents	(N = 612)
Socio acmograpi	ne aana e	<i>j</i> respondents	(11 012)

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Table 1

S/N	Variables	Options	Response rate	Percentage
2.	Age	18-26 years	63	10.3
		27-35 years	109	17.8
		36-44 years	122	19.0
		45 years and above	318	52.0
		Total	612	100
3.	Marital status	Single	125	20.4
		Married	341	55.7
		Divorced	16	3.3
		Separated	20	2.6
		Widowed	110	18.0
		Total	612	100
4.	Educational qualification	No formal education	84	13.7
		Primary education	155	25.3
		Secondary education	166	27.1
		Tertiary education	207	38.8
		Total	612	100
5.	Residential area	Rural	305	49.8
5.	Residential alea	Urban	305	50.2
		Total	612	100

Table 1 (Continued)

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

completed their tertiary education, 27.1% had obtained their secondary education certificate. Also, 25.3% were done with their primary education, while, 13.7% had no formal education. Urban dwellers made up 50.2% of the respondents, while, 49.8% were rural dwellers.

Knowledge of Women Empowerment Programmes

The results in Table 2 shows that a greater percentage of the respondents (58.3%) reported that they were aware of the availability women empowerment programmes in their community, 6.9% revealed that they were not aware of any

available women empowerment programme in their community, while, 34.8% indicated that they did not know if there was any available women empowerment programme in their community.

A trader at Ugep market during the IDI interview had this to say about her awareness of any available women empowerment programmes in her community:

Yes, there are various types of empowerment programmes in my community, but what is available is not adequate for everybody. Only a few people from the community have benefitted from some of the existing empowerment programmes in the community. (IDI/Trader/Ugep community).

One of the beneficiaries of women empowerment programmes in an IDI interview reported that:

I am aware that from time to time philanthropists, religious organisations, even politicians come to my community to specifically empower women, mostly, those who are helpless and vulnerable. In my church women are taught how to make soap, detergents, pastries and other things which they can start up with small capital. (IDI/woman leader/ Mpkani community).

An excerpt from an informant in an FGD session who shared a contrary opinion about the knowledge of existing women empowerment programmes in her community:

I cannot categorically confirm to you whether empowerment programmes exist for women or not. But I have not seen anybody from this community that has benefitted from any empowerment programmes, be it woman or man. During the 2019 elections, some group of politicians from my community attempted empowering women but could not continue with the programme for reasons best known to them.

Table 2

Percentage distribution of respondents on the awareness of any available women empowerment programme in their community

Available programme	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	357	58.3
No	42	6.9
Do not know	213	34.8
Total	612	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

Existing Empowerment Programmes in Yakurr

Data in Table 3 reveals that the most commonly mentioned empowerment programmes was the provision of agricultural products (31.9%), followed by skill acquisition/development (29.4%). Another 25.3% reported clearing of farm roads, 24.5% said establishing of smallscale businesses, while, 21.7% mentioned renovation of market stalls. A total of 14.5% respondents said the availability of adult literacy programmes, 12.9% mentioned of the availability of scholarship programmes for children of widows, 5.9% said there was the availability of micro-credit facilities, while, only 1.5% had other views.

Table 3

Percentage distribution of respondents by the type of women empowerment programme available in their community

Available programmes	Mentioned	Not mentioned	Total
Micro-credit facilities	36 (5.9)	576 (94.1)	612 (100.0)
Renovation of market stalls	133 (21.7)	479 (78.3)	612 (100.0)
Clearing of farm roads	155 (25.3)	457 (74.7)	612 (100.0)
Establishing of small-scale businesses	150 (24.5)	462 (75.5)	612 (100.0)
Scholarships for children of widows	79 (12.9)	533 (87.1)	612 (100.0)
Provision of agricultural products	195 (31.9)	417 (68.1)	612 (100.0)
Skill acquisition/development	180 (29.4)	432 (70.6)	612 (100.0)
Adult literacy	89 (14.5)	523 (85.5)	612 (100.0)
Others	9 (1.5)	603 (98.5)	612 (100.0)

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

An indication of the availability of women empowerment programmes as reported in the study is evident from the response of a woman leader:

I have heard of many women empowerment programmes such as microcredit facilities (loan). It is an empowerment programme by Ugep community bank designed to help women access loan to carry out their small scale businesses. Also, Livinus Ofem foundation is a religious organization saddled with the responsibilities of empowering women, especially, widows by giving scholarships to their children. (IDI/Female/30/Urban/ Chairlady of Cooperative society).

An excerpt from the view of a participant of the availability of women empowerment programmes is transcribed below:

Women in my community have had access to different empowerment programmes, which has boosted their productivity, increased economic diversification and income equality. Agricultural products like fertilizers, farm seedlings etc., have been provided to women farmers, especially, the vulnerable among them. Training has also been organised for widows on how to increase their yields, how to apply the fertilizers and other chemicals given to them. Money has also been distributed to widows to enable them to hire labour and get other things, which they may need during planting season. (FGD with a 43-year-old Civil servant in Mkpani community).

Benefactors of Women Empowerment Programmes

In Table 4 the greater percentage of respondents (38.4%) indicate that nongovernmental organizations have provided the empowerment programmes, 14.2% mentioned Government, 3.3% said philanthropists, while, 2.5% state others Faith-Based Organizations (FBO).

Data from FGD conducted in Mpkani buttresses this point. According to them, NGO's are the major providers of empowerment programmes in this community. A 45-year-old housewife

Table 4

Percentage distribution of respondents by the group that provides women empowerment programmes/projects in their community

Benefactors	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Government	87	14.2
Non-governmental organization	235	38.4
Philanthropists	20	3.3
Faith-Based Organizations	15	2.5
Not applicable	255	41.6
Total	612	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

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narrated how they benefited from scholarship "well we thank God that the Livinus Ofem foundation, which is a religious group, found us worthy of granting a scholarship for us since it was meant for children of widows, they empowered my children and today they are in school." Additionally, an IDI conducted in Idomi revealed thus:

.....some time ago in this community, I was among those that were privilege to have received training from Richard Foundation a non-governmental organization. We were trained on hair making for about one year and six months. Thereafter, we were given a sum of one hundred thousand naira each to set up our saloon and by the grace of God I am living well and meeting up my demands. (IDI/cooperative society leader/ Idomi community).

Access to Women Empowerment Programmes

The result in Table 5 reveals that a significant percentage of the respondents (39.5%) indicated that they had benefitted from women empowerment programmes. Unfortunately, only 58.3% said they had not benefitted from women empowerment programmes, while, a few 2.1% mentioned that they did not know if what they had benefited in the past was an empowerment programme or not.

Table 5

Benefited	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	242	39.5
No	357	58.3
Don't know	13	2.1
Total	612	100.0

Percentage distribution of the respondents on whether they had benefited from women empowerment programmes

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

Congruently, the FGD with the women of Ijom ward revealed that there were a few empowerment programmes women could benefit from. She said:

As for me, the only women empowerment programme I have benefited from is that

of the micro-credit facility sponsored by the Microfinance bank. As I am talking to you now I collected fifty thousand naira with less interest rate of one hundred naira per month. I used that money to open a restaurant where I sell food like garri and soup, rice, beans, etc. And I have been making a lot of profit out of the business. That money has helped me take care of my children, especially, as regards their feeding, education and health matters (FGD with a 41-year-old trader in Ijom ward).

Additionally, data from the FGD has a contrary view. Three participants indicated that they were yet to benefit from any women empowerment programme in their community. Below are excerpts of their responses:

These programmes when they come, are only shared among the women executives and their friends. We have not benefitted from any free skill acquisition or any other type of empowerment programme. We only hear about these things on the television but in reality, I have not seen or benefited from any of these programmes. The last time they asked us to pick up forms from the secretariat for skill acquisition programmes I did but no one called me. Even my application for a loan to help my business has not been attended to. (FGD session with younger women; 39-year-old trader in Idomi community).

Factors Hindering Women Empowerment Programmes in Yakurr

As can be deduced from the first row in Table 6, 97.2% of the respondents agreed that education affected women participation in empowerment programmes, while, 2.8% disagreed. In the second row, 56.2% pointed out that women who were educated partake more in empowerment programmes, while 43.8% disagreed. This is also the case with data presented in the third row, in which, 50.3% of the respondents agreed that women reproductive responsibilities had acted as a strong impediment to women empowerment. However, this was not upheld by 49.7% of the respondents who disagrees to that view. In the fourth row, 62.1% of the respondents agreed that the patriarchal social structure that favoured the men more than women was also a factor working against the empowerment of women. On the contrary, 37.9% of the respondents disagreed, noting that such was not applicable in their community. In the fifth row, 72.4% of the respondents agreed that the location of the women affected their participation in empowerment programmes. On the contrary, 27.6% of the respondents disagreed. The sixth row equally showed that majority of the respondents (85.7%) agreed that certain social norms, beliefs, customs and values in rural communities did not encourage women empowerment, while, 14.2% disagreed. In the seventh row, 93.1% of the respondents agreed that a high level of poverty among women works against their all-round empowerment but on the contrary, 6.8% of the respondents disagreed with that position. The last row equally showed that majority of the respondents 94.1% agreed that lack of employment opportunities for women prevented their empowerment, while, 5.9% disagreed with them. A summation of all data presented in this section shows that majority of the respondents are of the view that certain socio-economic cum cultural factors are working against the empowerment of women in Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria.

Table 6

Percentage distribution of respondents on factors hindering women empowerment programmes

Statements	Agree	Disagree	Total
Level of education does affect participation in women empowerment programmes	595 (97.2%)	17 (2.8%)	612 (100.0%)
Women who are educated partake more in empowerment programmes	344 (56.2%)	268 (43.8%)	612 (100.0%)
Women reproductive responsibilities have acted as a strong impediment to women empowerment	308 (50.3%)	304 (49.7%)	612 (100.0%)
The patriarchy social structure that favours the men more than women is a factor working against the empowerment of women	380 (62.1%)	232 (37.9%)	612 (100.0%)
The location of the women affects their participation in empowerment programmes	443 (72.4%)	164 (27.6%)	612 (100.0%)
Certain social norms, beliefs, customs and values in rural communities do not encourage women empowerment	525 (85.7%)	87(14.2%)	612 (100.0%)
High level of poverty among women works against their all-round empowerment	570 (93.1%)	42 (6.8%)	612 (100.0%)
Lack of empowerment opportunities prevent women from empowerment	576 (94.1%)	36 (5.9%)	612 (100.0%)

Source: Field survey (2020)

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One.

Substantive hypothesis (H_l) : Women with

a higher level of education are more likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those with a lower level of education *Null hypothesis* (H_0) : Women with a higher level of education are less likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those with a lower level of education

Table 7

Percentage distribution of respondents by the level of education and the impact of women empowerment programmes

Level of education	Feelings/impact pr	Total	
	Positive impact	Negative impact	
Low education	154 (64.4%)	85 (35.6%)	94 (100.0%)
High education	203 (54.4%)	170 (45.6%)	373 (100.0%)
Total	357 (58.3%)	255 (41.7%)	612 (100.0%)

χ²= 6.007^a df=1, p _ 0.014 critical/table value=3.841

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

The Chi-square test result in Table 7 shows that computed χ^2 is 6.007, while, the critical/table χ^2 value is 3.841 and df = 1. The test showed that there was a statistically significant relationship (P <0.014) between education and the impact of women empowerment programmes. From the decision rule, since the chi-squared calculated (6.007^a) is greater than the chisquared tabulated (3.841), we, thus, accept the substantive hypothesis which stated that women with a higher level of education were more likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those with a lower level of education, while, the null hypothesis which stated that women with a higher level of education were less likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those

with a lower level of education is, hereby, rejected.

Hypothesis Two.

Substantive hypothesis (H_1) :Women in urban communities are more likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those in rural communities

Null hypothesis (H_0) :Women in urban communities are not more likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those in rural communities

To gain clarity on the data presented in Table 8, given the computed $\chi^2 =$ 27.680^a and critical/table χ^2 value of 3.841; df = 1, the test showed that there was a statistically significant relationship (p \geq =0.000) between the place of residence and the impact of

Place of residence	Feelings/impact of prog	Total	
	Positive impact	Negative impact	
Urban area	147 (47.9%)	160 (52.1%)	307 (100.0%)
Rural area	210 (68.9%)	95 (31.1%)	305 (100.0%)
Fotal	357 (58.3%)	255 (41.7%)	612 (100.0%)

Table 8

DI	C . 1	7.	C		
Place o	t residence i	and imnact	of women	empowerment	nrogrammes

 χ^2 = 27.680^a df=1, p ≥ 0.000 critical/table value=3.841

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

women empowerment programmes. Therefore, we conclude that the substantive hypothesis which states that women in urban communities are more likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those in the rural communities is hereby accepted while the null hypothesis which states that women in urban communities are less likely to feel the positive impact of women empowerment programmes than those in the rural communities is hereby rejected.

DISCUSSION

The study showed that the majority (58.3%) mentioned that they knew about the women empowerment programmes available in the study area. Amongst the available women empowerment programmes, the majority (31.9%) mentioned the provision of agricultural inputs. On the issue of benefactors of the empowerment programmes majority (38.4%) mentioned non-governmental organizations. Furthermore, the majority (58.3%) of the respondents' stated that they had not benefitted from the available empowerment programmes. Their reason for this is traceable to the uneven distribution of these programmes when they arrive in the community. Findings from this study further revealed that the majority (97.2%) of the respondents strongly agreed that the level of education affected participation in women empowerment programmes.

The findings of Karabona (2015) indicates that adult education empowers women through the use of skills in various economic sectors, and for this case, adult education is relevant to women in generating income. It can be deduced from the study also that adult education does empower women and equip them with adequate skills that help generate income for them, which, if not in place will hinder their access to women empowerment programmes from making the intended impact in the lives of the women. A sizeable 56.2% said that women who were educated partook more in empowerment programmes. From the study of Hora (2014), it can be deduced that an improved educational status of women will aid their access to leadership and decision-making processes and access to empowerment programmes which is needed for their well-being. Of the respondents, 50.3% agreed that women reproductive responsibilities had acted as a strong impediment to women empowerment, while 62.1% of the respondents agreed that the patriarchal social structure that favoured the men more than women was a factor working against the empowerment of women.

According to Onah (2011) and Osita (2016), patriarchal societies ensure that the woman is under the control of some men in the image of her father, brother or husband. If a woman is not ruled as daughter or sister, she is of necessity, governed as a wife. Hence, marriages are still male-propelled in Nigeria. A total of 72.4% respondents agreed that the location of the women affected their participation in empowerment programmes, majority of the respondents (85.7%) agreed that certain social norms, beliefs, customs and values in rural communities did not encourage women empowerment, 93.1% of the respondents agreed that high level of poverty among women worked against their all-round empowerment, while, the majority of the respondents (94.1%) agreed that lack of employment opportunities for women prevented their empowerment. This is supported by the findings of Uwantege and Mbabazi (2015), and Mbara et al. (2015) as they reported that lack of employment opportunities or participation

in such opportunities encouraged abuse and prevented empowerment of the women. Their study concluded that employment opportunities would empower women and reduced the incidences of abuse and domestic violence.

The emphasis of the participatory model by Fiorino and Bowels (2001) is the active involvement of people (women) in the decisions that affect their lives; through initiating, planning, negotiating, and implementing programmes that have direct bearing to their development. The findings of the study reveal how women barriers can be eliminated by allowing women to take part in initiating, planning, executing and monitoring development programmes that directly affect their lives. The findings further show that women who have benefitted from empowerment programmes that boost their income and enhance their literacy level, easily overcome social barriers, and they attain self-fulfillment and gain the ability to achieve their highest personal aspirations and goals in life. This, by implication, means that involving the women for whom empowerment programmes are meant for in the planning, initiation and decision-making processes, will increase the overall impact of the women empowerment programmes.

More so, the test of Hypothesis One revealed that 54.4% of respondents with a high level of education indicated that empowerment programmes had positive impacts on them. This finding is in lieu with that of Sperling et al. (2016). From their finding, quality education was closely related to a woman's ability to access decent

work subsequently and effectively utilized any empowerment programme made available. Also, in the test of Hypothesis Two, 68.9% of the rural dwellers indicated that they had positive feelings towards women empowerment programmes and the chi-square value ($\chi^2 = 27.680^a$ df=1, p_ 0.000) showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between residence and positive impact of women empowerment programmes. Tabassum et al. (2019) reached some conclusions that corroborated with the above findings that the place of residence played a significant role in the women empowerment in Bangladesh. Similarly, Josephat et al. (2018) and Kazembe (2020), reported that the number of lived in years in the area (residence) and residence area positively influenced women empowerment.

CONCLUSION

Recommendations

The study examined women barriers and empowerment approaches in Nigeria, using Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State as a case study. Based on the empirical evidence emanating from both descriptive and inferential statistics employed in the analysis of the data, it has been observed that majority of the women (58.3%) were aware of the existing women empowerment programmes Although, the study found that majority of the women were aware of the existing empowerment programmes, the frequency of those that had benefitted was however reported to be low by almost half of the respondents (39.5%). However, women that had benefitted from various empowerment programmes in Yakurr Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria had had access to microfinance, skill acquisition, and agricultural programmes. These had helped in reducing poverty, increasing household income, reducing child mortality, and increasing education delivery in the study area. However, several factors such as psychological make-up of the individual woman and the socio-cultural, economic, educational and political realities that made up the external environment had served as impediment to women's allaround empowerment. The study, therefore, concludes that in order to have more women's participation in politics, eliminate gender inequality, and strengthen women economic power more support services should be made available and accessible to women. It, therefore, becomes imperative to create more awareness on the issue of women empowerment and men should be encouraged to take an active part in this campaign. Equality for all can be achieved when women are allowed to make their own decisions around issues that concern them and act on those opportunities without fear.

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Why Do Men Rape? Male Prisoners' Viewpoints through a Feminist's Review

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ABSTRACT

Rape cases have become more and more common nowadays. It is seen to be going rampant from day to day, with the number of victims increasing. A study to analyze the factors that lead to rape from adult rapists' perspective was conducted at Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison (PCMP), Kelantan. Feminist views and laws concerning rape are adopted in the explanation and comparison of the factors. Questionnaires were distributed to 44 adult males who were convicted of committing rape under Section 376 of the Penal Code where the offenders are sentenced to jail. The study found that the main factors for the males to commit rape were their desire for sex and inability to resist lust (75%), the influence of pornography and porn videos (47.7%), the seductiveness of a woman (52.3%) and women's attire (45%). The misconception of rape being assumed as sexual intercourse instead of a crime shows that the victims are often blamed for provoking rape. The implication of the study is discussed.

Keywords: Factors encouraging rape, feminist, Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison, rape, rapist

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INTRODUCTION

Rape is a very repulsive, incomprehensible and feared crime. It has a number of different interpretations depending on the theory and law, as well as community's belief. Rape can happen to men, women or children of all ages. The impact of rape includes physical and emotional injury. Rape involves forcing an individual to have sexual intercourse (Hamid & Naseer, 2008). FitzGerald also asserted that "rape is rape. Rape can occur to women at a certain age, in a marriage or in a relationship" (as cited in "When is it going to stop", 2019, para. 11).

In common law, rape involves unconsented sex committed by a man against a woman, whom he is not married to, or does not live with. Rape is often presumed as a crime or an evil act with intent, and is against the law. This offence causes harm physically, psychologically, or economically as well as threatens the community's quality of life by placing us in a frightful situation (Hamid & Naseer, 2008).

The effects of rape not only affect the victim's physical and emotional conditions, but also the whole being of a person (Brownmiller, 1975). Sachs-Ericsson et al. (2014) established that rape victims were most likely to suffer from various physical and psychological-health malfunctions, including lower self-esteem. The World Health Organization (2013) reported that "globally, one in three, or 35% of women will experience physical and/or sexual violence, including rape" (p. 3).

Rape also gets the attention of feminist researchers by looking at rape in a wider scope. Herman (1990) stated that rape "as resulting almost entirely from the normal cultural socialization of males" (p. 8). Baron and Straus (1984), asserted that "rape is occasioned by women's resistance, not by men's force; or, male force, hence rape, is created by women's resistance to sex" (p. 322). Feminist views should be taken into account in identifying the causes of rape and its impact on the society, especially rape victims.

PRESENT STUDY

Rape cases in Malaysia reported by the Women's Aid Organization (WOA), showed a decrease in the number of cases from 2011 (3301) to 2017 (1582), the statistical sources stated by WOA are based on the number of case reports received by Royal Malaysia Police. Nevertheless, many rapes and sexual assaults go unreported. Based on this report, it is possible that the actual statistics may be higher than what has been reported so far.

Against this background, the present study seeks to investigate the factors that incite rape from an adult rapist's perspective. Kelantan, one of the states located in the North-East of Peninsular Malaysia is governed by the Pan-Malaysian Islamic Party (PAS) for the past 26 years. The Islamic values that should be the mainstay and the main agenda of the political party should prevent the males from committing rape. However, according to the statistics from the Royal Malaysian Police, between 2001 and May 2014, the number of rape victims aged 13 to 15 totaled 149,260 cases. Meanwhile, the corresponding statistics for those aged 15 to 18 was 7,050 cases. Besides rape, cases involving gender-based sexual assaults, including incest, unnatural offences and molestation also recorded an increase in Kelantan (Royal Malaysia Police, 2014). Kelantan Police Chief Datuk Mazlan Lazim also stated that the crime against women in Kelantan was also increasing, including rape (Othman, 2016).

Although, the report from the Women's Aid Organization (WOA) for rape case statistics in Kelantan from 2015 to 2017 showed a decrease but Kelantan Police Chief, Datuk Hasanuddin Hassan said in 2019, cases involving sexual crimes, domestic violence and child abuse in Kelantan, were at an alarming level based on the reports received. Based on the statistics from January to October in 2019, a total of 594 cases were recorded, compared to 575 last year in the same period. Rape cases recorded the highest number of 54 cases, followed by obscenity (33), sodomy (4), pornographic gestures (6) and distributing pornographic pictures (4) (Zaidi, 2019).

Taken together, this research, however, looked into the rapist's perspective to investigate the factors that contributed to rape in Kelantan and explained the crime using a feminist framework. Rape victims are mostly women, therefore it is appropriate to discuss the findings by focusing on the importance of gender as a central element of social life and the changes that involve women's experiences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Malaysia Rape Definition

Definition of rape under Malaysian Law: Malaysian Penal Code (Act 574 as at 1st July 2015) states that "a man is said to commit "rape" who, except in the case here-in after excepted, has a sexual intercourse with a woman under circumstances falling under any of the following descriptions:

- a) against her will;
- b) without her consent;
- c) with her consent, when her consent has been obtained by putting her

in fear of death or hurt to herself or any other person, or obtained under a misconception of fact and the man knows or has reason to believe that the consent was given in consequence of such misconception;

- d) with her consent, when the man knows that he is not her husband, and her consent is given because she believes that he is another man to whom she is or believes herself to be lawfully married or to whom she would consent;
- e) with her consent, when, at that time of giving such consent, she is unable to understand the nature and consequences of that to which she gives consent;
- f) with her consent, when the consent is obtained by using his position of authority over her or because of the professional relationship or other relationship of trust in her relationship of trust, in relation to her;
- g) with or without her consent when she is under sixteen years old.

Explanation- Penetration is sufficient to constitute the sexual intercourse necessary to the offence of rape.

Exception - Sexual intercourse by a man with his own wife by a marriage which is valid under any written law for the time being in force, or is recognised in the Federation as valid, is not rape (p. 160).

Explanation 1- A woman –

- a) living separately from her husband under a decree of judicial separation or a decree *nisi* not made absolute; or
- b) who has obtained an injunction restraining her husband from having sexual intercourse with her,

shall be deemed not to be his wife for the purposes of this section.

Explanation 2 – A Muslim woman living separately from her husband during the period of 'iddah, which shall be calculated in accordance with the Law of Syara', shall be deemed not to be his wife for the purposes of this section (p. 161).

Probing into the rape definition in the Malaysia Penal Code, there are three clear explanations that may help protect men convicted of rape. First of all, rape is only taken into account in the event of penetration. Secondly, rape in marriage is not recognized in Malaysia and thirdly, penetration using objects during rape is not categorized under the definition of rape, but it takes place under Section 377cA.

The failure of the authorities to recognize marital rape as a form of rape is also a problem (Women's Aid Organisation, 2012). Pratap made this point: "women are reluctant to report such matters because they feel it is something that is within the family and they should maintain that" (as cited in "When is it going to stop", 2019, para. 16). This situation led to the fact that the domestic violence statistics is ignored because of the small number of such reports received by the authorities.

Feminist Rape Definition

Rape has also gained the feminist researchers' attention for decades. According to feminists, rape has been a part of human development, and in ancient times, rape occurred during times of war and violence. In this situation, women and children become the victims of violence and they are abused through male coercion (Rohana et al., 1997).

Thus, feminists change the definition of rape to insist that rape is not a sexual crime, but a heinous crime. Even rape is also interpreted as an "act of violence with sex" (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1974, p. 21). Polaschek et al. (1997) asserted that rape as an act of anal or vaginal penetration by a penis, finger or object penetration of the mouth or through the use of the penis. If a person is forced to penetrate another individual into the anus, mouth or vagina with their penis, it is also classified as rape.

National Institute of Justice (2010) had defined rape as "non-consensual oral, anal or vaginal penetration of the victim by body parts or objects using force, threats of bodily harm or by taking advantage of a victim who is incapacitated or otherwise incapable of giving consent. Incapacitation may include mental or cognitive disability, self-induced or forced intoxication, status minor or any other condition defined by law that voids an individual's ability to give consent" (p. 1).

Brownmiller (1975) asserted that "rape entered the law through the back door, as it were, as a property crime of man against man. Woman, of course, was viewed as the property" (p. 18). Rape is not just a crime but a social mechanism for men to dominate and control women (Murnen et al., 2002).

Overall, the definition implies rape as a crime committed against women, who are normally perceived as weaker individuals. Therefore, it is imperative to investigate the reasons why men commit rape against women so this crime can be minimized or better still, avoided.

Factors that Encourage Rape

Rape has a long history in the society. Most feminist researchers have conducted studies to find the cause of why it occurs in the society. Sex factors are among the factors that are often found in sexual crime studies, including rape. Mohammed and Hashish (2015) based on their study in assessing the magnitude of sexual violence against women, found that all women involved were exposed to some form of violence whether verbal, pornographic, sexual intercourse and rape. He also stressed that violence against women was considered a norm in the society.

Rohana et al. (1997) and Brownmiller (1975) in their study also claimed that women were seen as sexual objects that stimulated rape and fulfilled the men's needs. Studies conducted by Stille (1984) and Quackenbush, (1989) found that men believed more in sexual desire as the main motive for rape, while women saw power as the main motive for rape.

Rape is not just related to sex, even if it includes women's clothing and seductive

nature. Easteal and Territory (1993), in the results of the study explained that a raped woman was sometimes provoked by the perpetrator on the grounds that the woman initiated the attack due to the clothes she was wearing during the time the crime was committed.

Moor (2010) via on his studies related to clothing that attracted men's attention had found that there was no relationship between women's clothing style and the risk that women would be victims of sexual violence. However, the formation of fashion is seen to have accentuated the most vulnerable parts of the female body as well the fact that some clothes or attire is designed in the most sexual style.

The results of a study conducted by Amir (1971) and Brownmiller (1975) exposed that in most court proceedings, reasons such as women dressing "seductively", could technically be used to abuse women and defend men. According to Moor (2010) attitudes and characters possessed by women have been polemicised by men to place rape offences on women. Rohana and Samuel (2008), through the study, pointed out that 60% of rapists agreed that women were created to satisfy the desires of men through their seductive nature.

Pornography is clearly seen as containing sexually explicit media and in particular providing sex scripts for society (Dines et al., 2010; Paul, 2007). White and Kurpius (2002) stated that the results of the study had found that men tended to blame women or victims. Most societies live in cultures that rarely discuss sex as a form other than commodities. Mackinnon (1989) based on his study of pornography, patriarchy and sexuality asserted that pornography was associated with 'fantasy' and displays images of violence against women and a symbol of exploitation and even torture of women. Malamuth et al. (2000) asserted that men resorting to pornography were more likely to be violent and have a high tendency to commit rape.

Generally, the factors that encourage rape lean more on blaming the victim and there have been attempts to rationalize the actions of men in the society. Although there are several other motivating factors, the factors mentioned above are among the factors that are commonly found in most literature. Accordingly, a study to identify the rape factor was conducted in PCMP.

METHODS

Participants

Forty-four adult rapists who were serving their sentence in Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison (PCMP) subject to Section 376 of the Penal Code for committing rape with a mean age was M = 2.61 (SD = 1.061) years participated in the study. For age mean score was rated between 1= 21-30 years old, 2= 31-40 years old, 3=41-50 years old, 4=51-60 years old and 5 = 61-70 years old. The number of respondents involved in this study was based on the number of rape convicts recorded in the convict entry record in PCMP. All the participants were Malays. All participants were requested to respond to a close-ended questionnaire with five of them responding to both close-ended and

open-ended questionnaires. The justification for the selection of the five participants was done by the PCMP to ensure the researcher's safety and to avoid unwanted situations from happening. However, the selection was based on a few criteria, where they must be from various age groups between twenty and sixty years old, the sentencing periods were different which was between 11 years and 30 years. The justification for the selection of five respondents was also because the PCMP took into account the level of risk to the researcher as the researcher was a young woman.

Researcher Reflection on Data Collection Procedure

This research can indirectly give researchers an idea on how to deal with respondents of the opposite sex and also those constituted as 'risky group'. This situation is different from other studies because the researchers needs to prepare mentally and emotionally before conducting an interview session with the respondents. However, the PCMP has provided counseling and information services for the researchers. The compliance to the protocol that has been informed by the PCMP and the Prison Headquarters causes the required number of respondents to be limited. Although there are limitations in the qualitative data, the data are able to achieve the study objectives through quantitative data and open interview support.

Research Location

Kelantan is chosen as the location of the research. The justification for this is because,

firstly, many studies have been conducted to explore the reasons why men rape. However, there has been little discussion and literature about rape crime in Kelantan. Secondly, the statistics of sexual crime cases including rape is contradictory to the approach used by the Kelantan State administration. Not only rape, drug case statistics also shows an increase. Thirdly, gender issues that arise in Kelantan such as child marriage cases have also attracted the interest of researchers to choose Kelantan as the place of study.

According to the statistics provided by National Council Women Organization (NCWO), there is a total of 10,240 child marriages involving under aged Muslim girls between 2005 and 2015 in Malaysia. By state, Kelantan and Sabah top the list with almost 10% of child marriages recorded. Kelantan recorded 5.4% while Sabah recorded 4.34% of 10,240 cases (Chow, 2017). Fuziah Salleh, who is Deputy Minister in the Prime Minister's Department said, a total of 135 cases of underage marriage among Muslims were recorded in Kelantan during 2018 out of 841 cases recorded nationwide (Muhamad, 2020).

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were close and open ended questionnaire. The items in the close-ended questionnaire were adapted from previous studies such as respondent's demographic and definition of rape (Gan, 2007; Rohana & Samuel, 2008; Rohana et al., 1997); rape factors (McKibbin et al., 2008; Zaizul, 2012); patriarchy and myth of rape (Scully, 1990). Section A consists of eleven demographic items. A total of nine questions in section B were asked to assess the respondent's definition of rape (e.g., "rape can be defined as having sex without consent"). Another eleven questions in section C were asked to assess the factors that lead to raping (e.g., Men raped because they could not resist their lust). Section D consists of six items asking the respondents about the myth of rape. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

For the open-ended questionnaire, the items were adopted from previous studies such as respondent demographic (Gan, 2007; Rohana et al., 1997; Scully, 1990; Zaizul, 2012); male and women roles in society and family (Rozee & Koss, 2001; Scully, 1990; Walby, 1989); patriarchy and male domination (Brownmiller, 1975; Grant, 2006; Scully, 1990); pornography (Gan, 2007; Mackinnon, 1989; Scully, 1990; Zaizul, 2012); myth of rape (Grubb & Turner, 2012; Scully, 1990; Women's Crisis Centre Network, 2002; Westmarland, 2005).

The questions formed in the openended questionnaire are flexible and semistructured because some questions were formed during the process of data collection. This situation will provide comfort and less pressure to the researcher in getting a response from the respondent. Respondents were asked to respond to three questions such as "To what extent do pornography and pornographic videos stimulate a person to rape"?.

Research Procedure

Pre-Field Work and Ethical Approval. Permission to conduct the research was sought from the Malavsian Prison Headquarters (MPH). We began our data collection after we received the permission from the MPH (Permit No: UIM/API/ PENT/A(i)19(OKT14/15), JP/LTH/ Rd/102/3 Klt.68 (74), JP/LTH/Rd/102/3 Klt.70(50), JP/LTH/Rd/l10zl3 KIr.75 (18)). As this research is considered a high risk research, ethical approval was sought from several parties such as, University of Malaya (Arts and Social Sciences Faculty), Royal Malaysia Police (PDRM), Malaysia Prison Headquarter, and Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison (PCMP), Kelantan.

While Conducting Field Work. After obtaining the official approval from the MPH, the corresponding author presented the proposal to the Prison Officers (Sexual Crime) at the Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison (PCMP). This was done with the purpose to brief them on the nature of the research. The officers gave their feedback on the suitability of the questions.

Since the sequential case study approach requires the data to be collected quantitatively first, we then distributed the close-ended questionnaire to the respondents. Due to security reasons, data collection had to be done in a few stages. During the first stage, the questionnaires were distributed to twenty four respondents, with supervision from the wardens in the PCMP. The second stage involved twelve respondents, followed by eight respondents during the third stage.

For the open-ended questionnaire, five respondents chosen by PCMP were involved. Before continuing the process of distributing the open-ended questionnaire, a brief personal description of all the five respondents was provided to the researchers. This was deemed necessary because it would help to prepare the researcher mentally and emotionally. During the first stage of the open-ended questionnaire, all five respondents answered the questionnaire in writing. At the same time, the researcher also interviewed the respondents randomly. After receiving written responses from the respondents and analyzing the respondents' perspectives briefly, the researchers sought for advice and further information on the respondents from the warden in the PCMP.

The interview was conducted during the second stage of the open-ended questionnaire. The questions asked were based on the responses given in writing by the respondents in the open-ended questionnaire. The time and date for the interview session with the respondent was decided by the PCMP in order to ensure the safety of the researcher during the interview session. Refer to Figure 1 and Figure 2 for the exact location between the researcher and the respondents.

Distance Between Corresponding Author and Respondent During Data Collection. The distance and position between the corresponding author and respondent were determined by the PCMP by taking into account the risks and safety faced by the researchers.

Rape & Why

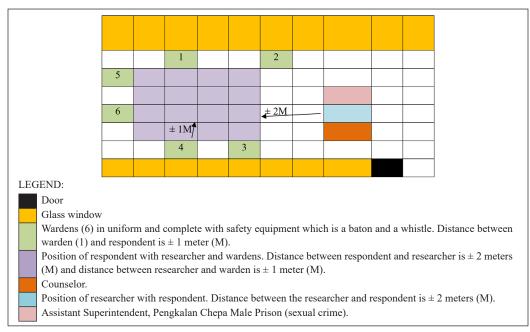


Figure 1. Sketch of the researcher's position and average distance from the respondent during the close-ended questionnaire session in Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison

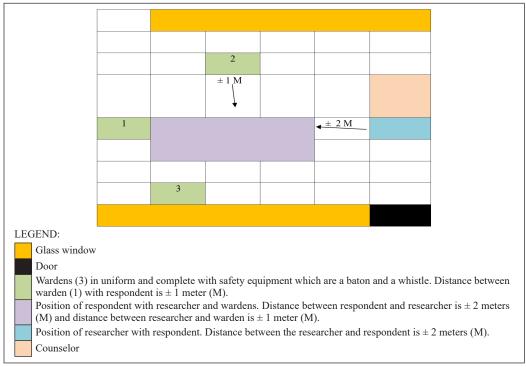


Figure 2. Sketch of the researcher's position and average distance between respondent during the interview session in Pengkalan Chepa Male Prison

Post-Field Work. The data obtained were analyzed using relevant software products. For quantitative data, the researchers used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23. Qualitative data were analyzed with NVivo software version 11 and verbatim.

RESULTS

Descriptive analyses were conducted to determine the profile of the rapists in PCMP. The results from the analyses had shown that 50% from the rapists who were serving sentence in PCMP were 21 to 30 years old, 6.8% were 18 years old, 27.3% were 31 to 40 years old, 9.1% were 41 to 50 years old, 4.5% were 51 to 60 years old and 2.3% were 61 years old and above. More than half (56.8%) of them were unmarried.

Their educational levels were as follows 4.5% never attended school, 2.3% had a diploma, 54.6% attended primary one to form three, 34.1% of the rapists had formal education until form five and 4.5% attended school until form six. Most of them, or 81.8% grew up in rural areas. Next, 50% worked in private companies, 6.8% worked in the government sector, 31.8% had served in the construction sector, 4.5% were jobless and 6.8% worked in other sectors with 47.7% of salary below MYR1000 when they were arrested. Another 22.7% between MYR1001 to MYR2000, and 29.5% received the salary between MYR2001 to MYR3000.

Regarding their last sentence, 50% of the total rape offenders were sentenced between 11 and 15 years. The current finding seems to be in agreement with the rapists' profile found in past research conducted by Rohana and Samuel (2008) where they reported that 28.9% of the rapists were between twenty one and thirty years old and 71.1% grew up in rural areas.

The findings of the quantitative PCMP via close ended questionnaire related factors that encourage rape, reveal that the sex factor and inability to control their lust was the main factor encouraging them to rape, which was 75%. Also, 47.7% agreed that men rape because of the influence of pornography and pornographic videos, 52.3% men chose to rape because of the seductiveness of the woman and 45% agreed that men rape because of women's attire.

For the justification of this study, the same question was posed to the respondents in PCMP in the open-ended questionnaire session aiming to provide a more detailed picture of sex and lust, women's clothing influenced by pornography and pornographic videos, as well as women's attitudes seen as one of the main factors why men commit rape.

Qualitative Analysis

To determine the factors that led the men to commit rape, the data was analyzed using verbatim and Nvivo 11 software. The results are tabulated in Table 1.

DISCUSSION

The results are tabulated in Table 1 regarding the questions such as:

1. Can pornography and pornographic video stimulate a person to commit rape?

Rape & Why

Factors	Respondent	Translation of the original dialogue into English
Desire for sex and inability to resist lust	2	"I failed in overcoming lust". "I did it only for sex, getting a 'bud that has not been touched' is a pleasure and I am lucky to have touched it"
	5	"lust exists naturally and should be fulfilled"
	3	"yes, I did because of sex, after I cannot withstand seeing the sexy and seductive body of the victim"
Women's attire	1	"revealing and sexy clothes that show the cleavage, body shape, and if it's covered, the beautiful appearance of the victim attracts men"
	4	"revealing and sexy clothes that show the cleavage and body shape. This can sexually stimulate men. Beautiful appearance can also encourage men to commit rape even if she is modestly dressed/covered"
Seductiveness of a woman	2	"women can seduce through words, sway of the body, and also touch"
	4	"besides the gentleness of a woman, touch can also arouse a man's lust"
Influence of pornography and porn videos	1	"pornography and porn videos can arouse men to have sex and if addicted, they can lead to rape"
	2	"my girlfriend and I once watched a porn video together and imitated the sex actions shown in the video and it was fun, we've tried different actions and positions. It involved breasts and also the bottom part of the woman's vagina, and also the mouth. It also involved the front and rear part of a woman (vagina and anus) or can be termed as unnatural"

Table 1Factors contributing to rape in Malaysian context

- 2. Does women's clothing arouse one's desire to rape?
- 3. Are you conscious when committing rape? What is the reason?

From Table 1, it can be seen that there are five factors contributing to rape.

Desire For Sex and Inability to Resist Lust

Results from the current study also showed that the major factor contributing to rape which was the desire for sex and inability to resist lust was 75%. This is evident from the quantitative data where seventy five percent or thirty three respondents agreed that sex encouraged men to commit rape. Data from the interview show that respondent 2, 3 and 5 raped because of sex and inability to resist lust (Table 1). The current finding is in agreement with findings from past research such as those conducted by Gan (2007) and Zaizul (2012), where they also reported that men committed rape because of their desire for sex and their inability to control their lust. Findings from past research had revealed that many respondents assumed rape as having sex and not a form of violence. In their viewpoint, rape is sex and does not involve control or force (Gan, 2007; Rohana & Samuel, 2008; Zaizul, 2012).

Is it true that men rape because of their desire for sex and inability to resist lust? Dean et al. (2007) asserted everyone had the right to have sex and men needed sex more than women. On the other hand, the problem arises when men think that they can pay for sex or have it without the victim's consent (Baker, 1997). However, this finding is challenged by the feminists' standpoint. The feminists argue that men rape not because of the desire for sex but because of the patriarchy and domination of women (Scully, 1990). In feminists' view, attitudes towards rape seem to be linked with the traditional gender role stereotypes, in particular those related to sexual behavior (Anderson & Doherty, 1997). In relation to that, women in patriarchy are viewed as sexual objects, whose function is to satisfy men's needs so much so that in some situations, sexual coercion is seen as a normal and acceptable in-role behavior (Check & Malamuth, 1983).

In another situation, Cinamon and Rich (2002), Harris and Harper (2008), Mintz and Mahalik (1996), Frieze and McHugh (1998), Rhoden (2003), Scherer and Petrick (2001), asserted that gender role attitudes refered to the beliefs about the appropriate role activities for men and women in all settings. In the meantime, Brownmiller (1975) asserted that rape was an oppression process by men who kept women in a state of fear. Thus, men use this 'fear' as one of the mechanisms to subdue and control women (Murnen et al., 2002).

According to Blackburn et al. (2004), lust can be defined as "an enthusiastic desire that infuses the body for sexual activity and its pleasures for their own sake" (p. 12). Based on this definition, it can be said that lust is the culprit that leads men to perform sexual activities in order to find pleasure. For instance, respondent 2 stated that he succumbed to his lust because he failed to overcome it and respondent 5 believed that lust comes naturally thus it needs to be fulfilled. The results of the current study are consistent with previous studies where Rohana et al. (1997), found that the rapists in their study raped because they could not control their lust. According to the study, "men's uncontrollable lust can be related to physiological factors such as the uncontrollable desire for sex. It is also most likely that the rapists think that the possibility for them to be punished for rape was low" (Rohana et al., 1997; p. 32). Feminist researchers have seen the idea that rape is an uncontrollable desire and that it should be satisfied, as a stereotype (Ben-David & Schneider, 2005). In this situation, Grubb and Turner (2012) asserted that traditional gender roles had been linked with more positive assessments of rape and more negative assessments of victims.

However, the current finding can also be explained using the view of feminist researchers. Goldberg (1974) asserted that, naturally, men had high sex drive and they usually looked for prostitutes and pornography to fulfill their sex appetite. Based on this view, it is possible that if they were not able to find "acceptable" means to release their sexual energy, they would resort to raping. Based on their interviews with the convicted sex offenders, Prah and Ayerakwa (2001) concluded that these rapists underestimated the severity of their actions and they were mainly concerned about satisfying their sexual urges, rationalizing their behavior by the myth that men could not control their sexual urges and needs.

Women's Attire

Forty-five percent of the men said that women's attire caused men to commit rape. This is evident from the interview's results (Table 1) where respondent 1 and 4 stated that men were not only incited to commit rape by the provocativeness of the women's attire, but also the appearance of the women. This finding is supported by past research conducted by several researchers (Rohana et al., 1997; Rohana & Samuel, 2008; Newhouse, 2006; Zaizul, 2012) where women's attire was not the main factor that contributed to rape, but other factors also come into the picture such as patriarchy and myth rape acceptance in society where the female was to be blamed when she was raped.

In support of the current finding, Norani (2006) stated that even if a woman was covered or dressed modestly, there was no guarantee that she would not be raped. A tragic murder of a computer engineer, Noor Suzaily Mukhtar fifteen years ago had brought Malaysians into shock. The 24-year-old girl was raped and strangled with her own headscarf, and she was dressed modestly in a long skirt (Mat Yacob, 2010). This shows that the way a woman dressed is not the sole factor that causes rapists to commit rape. Eng (2015), a prominent figure in the Democratic Action Party (one of the political parties in Malaysia) said that 50% of rape victims in Malaysia were below the age of 16. This somehow reflects the fact that rape occurs not only to those "who cover less" but more on 'the weak' being the prey in an unequal power relationship. In reality, rape involves more complicated dynamics than the failure to dress moderately. Many clinical and psychological studies have shown that power and anger are the most common motivations for rape. Manikam (2015) asserted that other studies had linked rapists' behavior with the intention to humiliate victims either physically, mentally and verbally, otherwise there was no empirical evidence to prove that dressing appropriately would reduce rape cases.

Nevertheless, a statement made by Olszewski (2005), established that "rape is a normal reaction towards the way a woman is dressed" (p. 4). In addition, a lot of studies on rape myth acceptance report the belief that a woman deserves to be raped because she is wearing or acting provocatively or she has the potential to be an immoral woman (Burt, 1980). The feminists also argue that men and the community tend to blame women when rape occurs by justifying that women deserve to be raped because they tend to dress provocatively (Keys & Bhogal, 2018). The premise behind this particular rape myth is that women dress in body-revealing attire in order to seduce men and convey their interest in sexual advances. Elegant or even provocative clothing is not an invitation to attack and it is a statement of identity, culture and personality. In this situation, women who wear provocative clothing are not out to get raped (Leslie, 2002). This is a widespread way for a perpetrator to justify his act and turn to the female body as a sexual object for male sexual lust (Muehlenkamp & Saris-Baglama, 2002; Shields, 1990; Slater & Tiggemann, 2002). With that, it has led to women's actual intent in dressing.

Seductiveness of a Woman

Out of forty four respondents, 52.3% agreed that women were seductive and that could lead to rape. A research conducted by Zaizul (2012) found that 75% of the respondents in Sungai Udang Prison, Malaysia stated that seductive women were one of the factors that could incite rape. This is supported by the interview results where respondent 2 and 4 stated that women could be seductive just by talking, swaying their body, touching and being gentle. According to Brownmiller (1975), males view female's breasts as an element of human beauty and the source of seduction. She said that not only that breasts were the source of female pride and sexual identification, they were also the source of competition, confusion, insecurity, and shame. She also justified that a woman with large breasts was usually assumed to be flaunting her sex or inviting attention, as a myth.

However, past studies had reported mixed findings. Researchers including (Baker, 1997; McCabe & Wauchope, 2005; Rohana & Samuel, 2008; Scully & Marolla, 1993) claimed that the seductiveness of a woman did not contribute to rape. This finding is aligned with the feminists' view that rape occurs not because a woman is seductive. Rohana and Samuel (2008) supported this view when they reported the findings that men raped because of three elements, namely authority, control and sex. They raped because they felt that they were more powerful than women, that they had more control over women, and that they wanted to fulfill their sexual needs.

Influence of Pornography and Porn Videos

Based on the quantitative results, 47.7% of all respondents agreed that men commited rape because of the influence of the pornography and porn videos. This is supported by the interview data from respondent 1 and 2 who stated that watching pornography and porn videos could arouse men and subsequently led them to have sex. Although numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of pornography and porn videos on sexual behaviors (Brownmiller, 1975; Gan, 2007; Mackinnon, 1989; Rohana & Samuel, 2008; Zaizul, 2012), conclusions could not be made due to the differences in culture, races and nations.

MacKinnon (1997) however, agreed that pornography did contribute to rape. She stated that "no pornography, no male sexuality" (p. 139). Some of the pornography and porno videos contain materials that exploited and tortured women. Images of women in these materials are frequently used as sex object where men are shown to hit women or treat women aggressively while they engage in brutal sex. In that regard, Sun et al. (2016) pointed out that pornography had become a sexual script that was important to the majority of the young men and women.

Therefore, Mackinnon (1997) agreed that pornography was a dynamic to women through sexual slavery. In a way,

pornography encourages violence against women (Ciclitira, 2004). Other than that, White and Kurpius (2002) asserted that sex was also deliberately commoditized or marketed. This situation can be seen when men can 'buy' sex; although most countries prohibit prostitution, it does exist because of (male) demand. Pornography also promotes sexual media by presenting sex scripts as a key medium for society (Dines et al., 2010; Paul, 2007). In addition, Sun et al. (2016) analyzed the content in pornographic materials showing that sex was one way for men to commit violence and dominate women. This situation is not only widespread in pornography, but has also been polarized by producing positive portrayals of female sexual satisfaction (Sun et al., 2016).

Burt (1980) asserted that this environment taught young women that sex was likely to be violent and violence was frequently the price one paid for being sexual. It is therefore possible that men commit rape because porn videos or pornography stimulates their sexual excitement. This sexual excitement needs to be fulfilled. They had to resort to raping if they had no acceptable means to fulfill it. This is supported by Malamuth et al. (2000) when they reported that in their research men who used porn more frequently and enjoyed more violent pornographic materials would be more likely to commit rape. With that, if rapists have a choice, they are more likely to use pornography because it is easier, less distressing and less harmful.

CONCLUSION

All in all, these results help to untangle why men committed rape. The results from the current research have shown that men commit rape because of their inability to resist lust, women's attire, women's seductiveness, the influence of pornography and porn videos and desire for sex. It is vital to understand the factors that encourage men to commit rape, so drastic actions can be taken by the relevant parties to minimize its occurrence. Greater awareness of why women became the victims of rape could help women to avoid being one of the victims. This study contributes to the existing literature in two ways. Firstly, most research on rape have used rape victims as the respondents and analyzed the results based on their perspectives. We, however, have used men who committed rape as our respondents and made the conclusions based on their responses. Secondly, since rape involves issues such as gender and power imbalance, we have incorporated the feminists' view when we were discussing the findings of this study. The feminists argue that the occurrence of rape is due to the patriarchal culture that holds the rape myth acceptance to blame the victims. They do not support the idea that men rape due to their inability to resist lust, women's attire, and seductiveness, the influence of pornography and porn videos and desire for sex. We acknowledge that this study is not without its limitation. First of all, the nature of the case study employed in this research limits the generalizability of the findings. It should be noted that it is possible that different findings can be found in a different research setting. Another limitation that should be addressed is the use of the closeended questionnaire as the data collection method. The data gathered using this technique is restricted in comparison to the data collected using the in-depth interview technique. Based on these limitations, it is suggested that future studies are to be conducted in several parts of Malaysia to increase the degree of generalizability, and to use an in-depth interview technique that will be able to provide richer data on the matter of investigation.

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The Concept of Legal Entity from the Islamic Law Perspectives

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ABSTRACT

Contrary to English law, classical *fiqh* does not have any clear discourse on the issue of the legal entity. In these modern times, however, it is important that this concept be given a jurisprudential review so that Islamic *fiqh* could keep abreast of the ever-changing and complex problems faced by Muslims. These include the imposition of zakat and the will on institutions and criminal liability of a company. A number of studies have been conducted on this issue and scholars have discussed their differing views. This study contributes to the literature through an analysis of the legal entity based on the views of classical and modern literature in relation to Islamic law and English law. For clarity and better understanding, the study provides a comprehensive picture of the concept by focusing on the notion of business accepted in English law. A qualitative approach had been adopted and the literature was synthesised inductively, deductively, and comparatively. The findings indicate a dichotomous view of the issues surrounding the concept of legal entity. Based on the analysis of the said discourse, it is found that such a concept has long existed and is embedded in Islamic law.

Keywords: Corporation, Islamic law, qualitative approach, syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah

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INTRODUCTION

The discourse of legal entity is not foreign in civil law since it is part of a discussion on entities apart from humans. Such discourse from the Islamic point of view, however, is still new. The discourse of legal entity seems to be missing in the classical *fiqh*, and recently, it has only been highlighted by contemporary scholars, such as Al-Qurrah al-Daghi (2009) and Nyazee (2003). Similar to other scholastic views, it has not been explicitly mentioned by the Islamic sacred texts. The discussions on this issue among contemporary scholars have also been considered as a dichotomy.

Meanwhile, the discourse and decisions regarding the concept of the legal entity, are timely because it has become an integral part of today's society and business system. The expanding social structure and civilisation have created many entities that have the same roles as human or act on their behalf. This has attracted a discussion among scholars in Shariah laws, specifically on matters related to such entities. A common question is whether the corporation or the manager should be responsible in the case of fraud involving a corporation (Taji & Babei, 2015). Similarly, there are concerns over the legal entity involved in business activities and production and who is responsible to pay the zakat, either the corporation or the shareholders who are the rightful owners of the company's wealth (Mohamad & Trakic, 2013).

Such a question can only be addressed by analysing the Islamic perspective on the concept of a legal entity, which is the origin of the issues. This paper attempts to give some insights into the concept of legal entity from the Shariah law perspective (*syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* which will be explained further in the proceeding sections) and analyses the views of contemporary scholars. The discussion deals in-depth on the concept of the legal entity of an enterprise as this helps to clarify other types of legal entities.

METHODS

This study used the qualitative approach and library data was used fully. The data was collected from books or *fiqh* literature, articles, papers, and websites that covered legal entity discussions, *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* and the concept of company in Islam. The data were then analysed using inductive, deductive, and comparative methods.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The discussion of this article will cover a number of significant objectives. These include identifying the concept of legal entity in civil law and explaining the views of scholars on the concept of legal entity or *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah*. The article will also discuss the concept of legal entity from the Islamic perspective.

The Concept of *Legal Entity* in Civil Law

The term 'legal entity', or known as legal persons, originated from *persona*, a Greek word that refers to a mask worn by theatre artists to hide their faces and present the acts played effectually (Bishop, 2007). Meanwhile, in the legal field, the word *legal entity* is used to differentiate an entity from an individual (Jaquet-Chiffelle et al., 2009).

Legal entity or persona comprises two aspects, first, it offers an individual a legal representative affecting the ways the rights are to be implemented, or certain skills and actions. It also concerns criminal and civil rights. Second, it provides a layer of opacity to transparency for individuals through distinguishing between the genuine and artificial roles played legally (James, 1993; Kantorowicz, 1997).

By regarding a legal entity as an individual who has her own legal merit, this has enabled an entity outside of humans to become a legal subject. Thus, a legal entity is no longer limited to an individual it also extends to corporations, states, public institutions, and other entities (Jaquet-Chiffelle et al., 2009).

Historically, according to classical theory, a legal subject under international law refers to an individual or a state. The limitation to the two legal subjects is influenced by the human basic rights theory that focuses only on the individuals and the state (Gotzmann, 2008; Kinley & Tadaki, 2004). Subsequently, the concept was adopted later into organisations, bodies, and corporations in response to societal advancement (Gotzmann, 2008).

The concept of the legal entity has been included in the definition of a company. According to civil law, a company is defined as a legal entity based on the "doctrine of separated artificial legal person" as decided in Salomon v Salomon & Co. Ltd. The case originated from a dispute between Mr. Salomon, the founder of a corporation, and the other shareholders in settling their owings to debtors. The value of the assets was inadequate to pay the debtors of the corporation as well as those that Salomon himself owed personally. Consequently, the creditors proposed the exclusion of Mr. Salomon from the liquidation share since he as the manager and deemed only

to have the right to control the activities of the corporation only (French et al., 2012; Hannigan, 2012).

The case was decided by the *House of Lords* which stated that while Mr. Salomon had the right to control the company, the company was not his representative nor his trustee. The company was acting on his own behalf and was a separate entity from his controller. Thus, the compensation paid to Mr. Salomon was valid and could be used to settle the debt, even if not all of the creditors would receive the pay given the shortages in the assets' value (Bourne, 1998; Brough, 2005).

Lord McNaughton in the case proceeding stated (Goddard, 1998);

The company is at law a different person altogether from the subscribers to the memorandum; and though, it may be that after the incorporation the business is precisely the same as it was before, and the same persons are managers, and the same hands receive the profit, the company is not in law the agent of the subscribers or trustees for them. Nor are the subscribers as members liable, in any shape or form, except to the extent and in the manner provided by the Act. (pp. 16-17)

The decision on the Salomon case determined the separate entity of a company. It also accorded the company with all attributes needed to perform business activities (Bonnici, 2013; Zuhairah & Hartinie, 2018). According to Gower, the separation between a company and shareholders as autonomous entities could no longer be argued after Salamon's case (Gower, 1992).

Such doctrine is termed as a *veil* that segregates the shareholders from the company and creates a unique legal personality (French et al., 2012). As a result, in any litigation, the court shall disregard the shareholder's authority in determining the company's decisions as the corporation herself is deemed to own a comprehensive personality and is independent of the founders, owners, or managers.

According to Arjunam (1998), the implications of the legal entity concept is the creation of an artificial legal person who is entitled to own:

- i. an authority to perform all functions and roles as an incorporated firm;
- an authority to sue and be sued on her own name;
- iii. wealth and dispose according to her wishes; and
- iv. own a capacity to own, acquire, move a movable or immovable property.

Hence, referring to the definition of a corporation in the civil law, it is clear that this personality has certain elements where it could become a separate legal entity distinct from those of human (Pickering, 1968). Tyagi and Kumar (2003) listed the definitions of a company given by several infamous persons and judges which confirmed the separate entity of a corporation from that of the human. For example, according to the

English law, the definition of a corporate personality is (Salmond, 1913);

A person is any being whom the law regards as capable of rights or duties. Any being that is so capable is a person, whether a human being or not and no being that is not so capable in a person, even though he may be a man. People are substances of which rights and duties are the attributes. It is only in this respect that person possesses juridical significance and this is the exclusive point of view from which personality receives legal recognition. (p. 272)

Defining a company as a *person* is considered as compatible and significant even if the entity has neither physical form nor emotions and needs like a human (Arthur & Machen, 1911). Tyagi and Kumar (2003) listed the definitions of a company given by several known persons and judges. These definitions confirmed the separate entity of a corporation from that of the human. According to Smith and Keenan's Company Law, the definition of a company is as follows (Wild & Weinstein, 2009);

A company is a corporation; it is necessary first to examine the nature of a corporation. A corporation is a succession or collection of persons having at law an existence, rights and duties, separate and distinct from those of the persons who are from time to time its members. (p. 2) The company law In Malaysia has adopted the doctrine of *separate legal entity* or *corporate personality* (Nazri & Zuhairah, 2019). The older *Company Act 1965* stated that a company should be deemed as a *body corporate*, able to undertake any function of an incorporated company, had the right to sue and be sued, and to own land. A company shall continue across generations despite the demise of the company's director or all of its shareholders, while their liabilities are limited to their shares or guarantees in the company (Halyani et al., 2012). This fact is stated in *Company Act 1965* (Act 125), section 16 (5);

On and from the date of incorporation specified in the certificate of incorporation but subject to this Act the subscribers to the memorandum together with such other persons as may from time to time become members of the company shall be a body corporate by the name contained in the memorandum capable forthwith of exercising all the functions of an incorporated company and of suing and being sued and having perpetual succession and a common seal with power to hold land but with such liability on the part of the members to contribute to the assets of the company in the event of its being wound up as is provided by this Act

In the latest *Company Act 2016* (Act 777), the doctrine of separate legal entity is stated in section 21 (1) and (2) as follows;

(1) A company shall be capable of exercising all the functions of a body corporate and have the full capacity to carry on or undertake any business or activity including -

(a) to sue and be sued;

(b) to acquire, own, hold, develop or dispose of any property; and

(c) to do any act which it may do or to enter into transactions

(2) A company shall have the full rights, powers, and privileges for the purposes mentioned in subsection (1)

A company's rights to purchase, lease, or perform any exchange have been clearly delineated for both movable and immovable properties (Zainal et al., 2009). Section 21 (2), Company Act 2016, states that a company has a right to do and enter into transactions.

Legal Entity as a Syakhsiyyah I'tibariyyah

The discourse on the concept of *legal entity* in Islam is complex. The Arabic term that carries the same meaning is *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah*, and at times, it is known as *syakhsiyyah ma'nawiyyah* and *syakhsiyyah qanuniyyah*. These terms were recently introduced by Muslim scholars and did not appear in any discussion among the classical jurists. The basic concept, however, could be gleaned from a few institutions that were established during the era (Zulkifli, 2013), such as the *baitulmal* and *waqf* institutions (Surtahman & Sanep, 2010).

Syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah refers to a group of individuals working together to achieve an agreed objective. It also refers to a portfolio of wealth that is managed for certain purposes. Thus, syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah escapes the common legal entrapments for individuals. It is a separate entity that is independent and distinct from individuals, and at the same time, mutually contributes to an activity or benefit. Examples of syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah are the state, union, institutions, and companies (Al-Badrawi, n.d.). In this regard, the entity is formed by either the individuals or wealth (Al-Dusuqi, n.d.). In this regard, it accords the characteristics of ahliyyah al-ganuniyyah (except that which is already meant for a person) to the company. The liability (dhimmah), however, shall differ from those of ahliyyah al-syuraka' (qualifications of partners) since a company shall have limited liability on its properties.

Basically, the concept of *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* appeared in *waqf* and *baitulmal* institutions as observed through the nature of their existence and operations. In waqf, once the endowed property is allocated as a *waqf*, the owner shall no longer maintain the ownership rights. However, these rights are not passed to the beneficiaries, but rather, are exclusively owned by God. Fundamentally, it becomes an entity of its own as it is no longer attached to a person but at the same time remains functional. The property will be continuously managed and maintained by an administrator who shall perform all the transactions on behalf of the waqf property (al-Qurrah al-Daghi, 2009). Further additions, whether through new produces, endowments, or purchases, shall become part of the *waqf* property. A good example is a mosque bequeathed as a *waqf*. New donations to the mosque shall become the property of the mosque. A similar concept is also applied for the assets purchased with donations. The mosque will own the newly acquired assets, thus, neither the community that originally bequeathed it nor the mosque's committee who are in charge of its administration. As such, the mosque has the ability to own and perform any transactions the natural abilities of any legal entity. In the meantime, the baitulmal is a place where all collected monies are congregated to be used for Muslims' needs and benefits. The fund comprises wealth from war bounty, treasure, Zakat, kharaj, and other forms of taxation. The wealth is not owned by any individual including the ruler but belongs to the baitulmal (Al-Jarid, 1427H).

Juristic Views Regarding the Concept of Syakhsiyyah I'tibariyyah

According to Taqi Usmani, the concept of *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* is present in *baitulmal* and the practices of *waqf*. A wealth endowed as *waqf* is no longer under the ownership of its original owner. While the wealth of the *baitulmal* will provide benefits and assets to the beneficiaries, they will never become an owner of the asset. Subsequently, Muslim scholars have positioned *waqf* as a separate entity. Other features that showcase *waqf* as a separate entity are exemplified by the following requirements of *waqf* administration (Usmani, 2007);

- 1. Goods purchased from *waqf* fund did not form new *waqf* but become an addition to the existing *waqf* fund signalling the ability to own an asset.
- 2. Muslim intellectuals explain that the money donated to the mosque (*waqf*) belongs to the mosque. It shows the mosque or *waqf* property is a *legal entity*.

Similarly, Al-Dardir (1986), a Maliki jurist maintained that a bequeathed mosque or bridge could be assumed as the counterparty of a *wasiyyah*, who enabled the recipients to own any *wasiyyah* granted to them. He said;

And a recipient of wassiyyah that is the person who is eligible to own the bequeathed asset (al-musa bih), even if they are a mosque, building, and bridge, the wasiyyah can be used for the benefits of the respective property. (p. 581)

In regard to the *baitulmal*, Taqi Usmani expounded that Imam al-Sarakhsi maintained in his al-Mabsut that when a stateman found that the *kharaj* fund in the *baitulmal* was not enough to pay the salaries of his army, he was allowed to use the zakat fund to pay the balance.¹ The money, however, was considered as a loan that must be paid through the *kharaj* fund later (Al-Sarakhsi, 1978). The example showcased the possibility of the fund to borrow from another fund, thus, equating the *baitulmal* to the rights and responsibilities of a person (*syakhsiyyah tabi* '*iyyah*).

The concept is also apparent in the account of allowing a slave to make a transaction (*`abd al-ma'dhun*) (Usmani, 2007). This occurred when the master gave his slave an amount of money as business capital and allowed him to perform any business transaction with the money (Al-Bujayrimi, n.d.). In this regard, the capital invested by the master belonged to him and whatever the profits and acquisitions earned by the slave would also be handed over to his master. Usmani (2007) mentioned;

If in course of trade, the slave incurred debts, the same would be set off by the cash and the stock present in the hand of the slave. But if the amount of such cash and stock would not be sufficient to set off the debts, the creditors had a right to sell the slave and settle their claims out of his price. However, if their claims would not be satisfied even after selling the slave, and the slave would die in that state of indebtedness, the creditors could not approach his master for the rest of their claims. (p. 159)

¹ Kharaj is a form of land tax collected by a ruler of the state from the fertile land of *kharajiyyah*. The tax was disbursed to those eligible as founded by

the ijtihad of the ruler for the betterment of society which includes the salaries of the armed forces (Syubayr, 1986).

Usmani (2007) further explained that the trade was owned by the master and the slave was only an intermediary. The liability of the master was limited to the capital injected and the value of the slave. After the demise of the slave, any creditor shall not be entitled to reclaim his debt from the master's other wealth.

Meanwhile, in the al-svirkah (partnership) concept, the contract will be automatically revoked with the demise of one of the partners (Malik, 1995). The jurists, however, compromised in cases where the partnership was among more than 3 partners. The termination then should be limited to the share of the deceased only while the partnership continued (Ibn 'Abidin, 2003). Similarly, when the deceased left behind an eligible partner among his near relative where in this instance the share shall transfer to his inheritor (Al-Bahuti, 2003). Thus, the continuity of al-syirkah even in the death of a partner indicates that the al-syirkah accords a separate liability (Dar al-Ifta' al-Misriyyah, 2013).

Muslim scholars have also acknowledged the sovereignty of the state, which is an indirect declaration of the state's *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah*. A good example is the acknowledgement of citizen's contribution to a country's development, regardless of a change in the ruling government (Mohamad, 2003). The state is also responsible to pay remunerations as compensation to her citizens that perform the aforementioned duties (Ibn 'Abidin, 2003) which is a state acts as a veil for her citizens. Any agreement made by the citizen on behalf of his country is considered as the country's covenant. In fact, it was derived from a tradition of the Prophet SAW who said,

Muslims are equal in respect to blood. The lowest of them is entitled to give protection (dzimmah) on behalf of them while the one residing far away may give protection on behalf of them. They are like one hand against all those who are outside the community. Those who have quick mounts should return them to those who have slow mounts, and those who came out along with detachment (should return to) those who are stationed. A believer shall not be killed for an unbeliever, nor a confederate within the term of confederation with him. (Ibn Majah, n.d.: Hadith 2683)

Notwithstanding the above, not all of the contemporary scholars accepted this concept of *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah*. According to Imran Ahsan, the association made between the concept of *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* and the concepts of *waqf*, *baitulmal*, and such was misleading. The concept of *al-syirkah* is no longer relevant to modern society. Imran Ahsan concluded that the acceptance of this concept will affect the *fiqh* principle and Shariah law in many ways (Nyazee, 2003).

On the other hand, the Mujlisul Ulama of South Africa (n.d.) rejected the concept of the legal entity. This is due to the presumed implications brought by capitalism, specifically the remobilisation of capital from investors and the protection of partners from a debt incurred. The council also refuted the views of Taqi Usmani above. Any purchases that used a *waqf* fund is not owned by the *waqf* fund but by God, the real owner of the *waqf* (Al-Haddad, n.d.; Al-Ramli, 2003; Al-'Uthmani, 1415H).

Similarly, they refuted the evidence of state sovereignty. According to the council, the ruler of a state has different responsibilities based on the states' arrangements. As the head of the state, he has full authority to use any of the funds for purposes not limited to the purposes approved by Islamic law only. Thus, the actions of the head of the state were not reflective of the *baitulmal* or related to it. In this light, the ruler acted on the responsibilities and authorities accorded to him by God Almighty and not by the *baitulmal*.

Discussion on the Concept of *Legal Entity* from the Islamic Perspectives

From the above discourse, there are two main scholarly views regarding the *legal entity* concept in Islam, the proponents, and the opponents. The proponents are those who accepted and acknowledged the existence of the concept legal entity. It could be argued that the proponent argument is more convincing.

On the other hand, the opponents justified their view based on the ultimate ownership of *waqf* and it could be refuted based on a few rulings regarding *waqf*. Undoubtedly, all creations belong only to the Almighty, and that the ownership of the endowed waqf asset shall revert back to the Almighty. If we dissect the bounties in the world, some could be privately owned while others remain to be collectively owned. Similarly, while some assets are outside of their reach due to certain Shariah prohibitions, beneficiaries could benefit from some of the assets (Zaydan, 2009). The notion that all creations belong to the Almighty is meant to showcase Allah's greatness as the creator and destroyer (Al-Zuhayli, 2006). A man remains to be empowered to manage the resources. Thus, in waqf, the ownership even though stated as belonging to the Almighty does not mean that man has freed himself from the responsibility to manage the fund. Only that, he has released his ownership of the waqf asset. As the asset is free from human ownership, the responsibilities attached to ownership have been granted to the assets themselves. Thus, syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah has the capacity to perform any shariahcompliant activities (Al-Zarqa', 1998).

Furthermore, the view that the 'khilafahship' on the baitulmal nullifies the existence of the baitumal's legal entity has been deemed as confusing. While the *Khilafah* accords mankind the rights to manage all of God's creations, but this does not necessitate automatic ownership of all creations. A leader is not entitled to borrow or dispose of the money in the zakat or *kharaj* funds, rather, he carries the responsibility and rights to manage the fund accordingly. Furthermore, such rights are not absolute and bounded by transactions allowed by the Shariah laws (Ash-Shiddieqy, 2002). Caliph Umar al-Khattab mentioned this relationship in his statement (al-Suyuti, 2003);

إني أنزلت نفسي من مال الله بمنزلة ولي اليتيم

I, hereby, position myself to the wealth of Allah as of my position as guardian of the orphan. (p. 237)

Al-Qurrah al-Daghi (2013) explained that *baitulmal* was a separate entity from the ruler, minister, or the Muslim community. The wealth of the *baitulmal*, according to Al-Mawardi (1989) belongs not to some specific individuals but to all Muslims. He reiterated this in his statement;

All wealth that is meant for the Muslims but cannot be determined the owners among them must be put under the baitulmal. For any such acquired wealth, it must become the baitulmal's even if it is not kept there physically. Baitulmal is not a place but is a body. Any right of the Muslims is a right that must be satisfied by the baitulmal. (pp. 277-278)

Apart from the arguments based on the principles of *waqf*, *baitulmal*, *syirkah*, and stateship, scholars also argued this based on a theory known as legal personality (*syakhsiyyah qanuniyyah*). Zahraa, described that this theory originated from the classical discussions on the rights of a foetus and a person who was declared as deceased due to long-term disappearance. Both the foetus and the deceased retained their rights towards inheritance, as well as ownership and authority over his wealth). Even though a person is declared as decreased, he could still reclaim his wealth and return to his legal wife (if still within the '*iddah* period) if he returned. Both of these cases do not fulfil the common requirements of a *natural person* but are referred to as *syakhsiyyah qanuniyyah* in Islam (Zahraa, 1995).

Similarly, the discussion on *syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah* as well is related to the theory of ownership. The question revolves around the rights of a company to full ownership of its assets. Classical Muslim jurists distinguish full and partial ownership based on the ownership of the asset and its benefits. Full ownership means that the owner has full rights on both the asset and its benefits while in partial ownership, the owner owns only either the asset or the benefits. Modern scholars, however, view ownership from a different angle, specifically on the rights that may be accorded to human or a corporate entity (company) (El-Gamal, 2006).

The concept of *legal entity* could also be seen from the discussion on the principle of *khultah* in zakat (Azman & Muhamad, 2013). *Khultah* refers to the sharing of ownership on livestock in the calculations of zakat. Instead of an individual obligation to pay zakat of his property, which exceeds the *nisab*, the livestock of more than one owner are calculated together to arrive at the *nisab*. Such treatment, however, applies only to livestock that is reared together, shared the grazing the same field, and drinking from the same water hole among others. *Khultah* has been accepted by the Malikis, Syafi'is and Hanbalis (Al-Syafi'i, 2001; Al-Basri, 2009; Mayyarah, 2008) based on several justifications such as the tradition of the Prophet pbuh which mentioned that;

Two who have mixed (livestock) must agree to be accountable based on their share of ownership. (Al-Bukhari, 2002: Hadith, 1450)

The concept of legal entity present in *khultah* as zakat is obliged on unified ownership and not on an individual's ownership. The unified ownership has become a veil that determines the obligation of zakat. As such, this new form of ownership, which obliges the payment of zakat as a new legal entity created through the corpus of the Islamic law (Rosele, 2016).

Based on the above discussion, we may conclude that the concept of a legal entity or syakhsiyyah i 'tibariyyah in Islamic law has long existed and acknowledged. The presented Islamic law examples have clearly verified that syakhsiyyah *i'tibariyyah* is an entity that owns and has full right to administer (milk al-tam) the acquired wealth through milk al-hiyazah and milk al-tasarruf, which exempt others from violating the assets (Lembaga Zakat Selangor [MAIS], 2007). Syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah also accords ownership over the rights to own and perform a transaction, similar to a person (syakhsiyyah tabi'iyyah) (Mawardi et al., 2018).

CONCLUSION

The concept of *legal entity* has been applied in civil laws, especially in relation to the companies' laws. In this concept, the company has the capacity to act like a human being. In Islamic law, this concept is still being discussed among Islamic intellectuals. Due to the capacity of a nonhuman entity to have responsibilities and burdens, whereas in Islam a responsibility and burden is basically borne by mukallaf. In the Islamic intellectual discourse, the concept of the legal entity is referred to as 'syakhsiyyah i'tibariyyah'. This concept is not explicitly discussed in classical Islamic texts, and scholars have been divided views on it, there are those who recognize this concept while others reject it based on their own arguments and reasons.

Following the analysis of the discussion on the concept of legal entity from the Islamic perspective, the study concludes that this concept has its own basis as observed in the systems of *baitulmal* and *waqf*. The concept has also appeared in the regulations and administrations of 'abd al-ma'dhun, alsyirkah, khultah, and stateship. Even if the debate on the recognition of this concept in Islam continues, it is becoming very hard to deny its position in Islamic laws. From the above discussion, this paper affirms the existence of the concept in the Islamic law. Consequently, further discourse on this matter is applauded and welcomed in line with the dynamics of figh that evolves with time and place.

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Concept Paper

Fintech In Malaysia: An Appraisal to the Need of Shariah-Compliant Regulation

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ABSTRACT

The implementation of financial technology (Fintech) in the Islamic finance industry has created a totally new phenomenon of banking and financial behaviour for the stakeholders, particularly in Malaysia. As part of the financial revolution, the Islamic finance sector ought to embrace Fintech to diversify the services/products offered as the digitalisation process is taking place in the Fourth Industrial Revolution era. In order to safeguard the assimilation of the technology into the existing traditional practice of Islamic finance, Shariah-compliant regulation is, therefore, necessary for governing the potential risks associated throughout the process of financial activities. Hence, this paper intends to analyse the need for Shariah-compliant regulation to govern Fintech-related activity in the Islamic finance industry. The article emphasises the need from several aspects such as the non-comprehensiveness of the Islamic Financial Services Act (IFSA) 2013; the increasing rate of financial inclusion and; the qualifications of the Shariah Advisory Council's (SAC) members in Malaysia. It also provides recommendations through the introduction of subsidiary legislation pursuant

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Keywords: Appraisal, Fintech, Islamic finance, Malaysia, Shariah-compliant regulation

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INTRODUCTION

Financial technology (Fintech) only acts as an enabler in modern financial activities, thus it is permissible in nature so long the Shariah guidelines to avoid the prohibited elements such as riba (usury), maysir (gambling), and gharar (uncertainty) are observed. It only becomes impermissible if there is clear evidence that the basic rules of the Shariah are violated. For example, the existing bitcoin, being a cryptocurrency, does not satisfy valid characteristics of currency in Islam according to the majority of Muslim scholars all over the world. Hence, the use of 'bitcoin' is highly impermissible for the time being to preserve public interest (Al-Bakri, 2018).

To boost the growth of the Islamic finance industry, Fintech starts to take place in the financial sector. In Malaysia, the steady growth of Shariah-compliant Fintech start-ups, which have achieved a lot in a short space of time, opens up more opportunities for the Islamic finance sector to capitalise on (Bain, 2016). Consumers especially the millennials and technoliterate would no longer physically go to the traditional banks to conduct their financial transactions, rather they carry it out online via mobile because it is easier and faster (Rahim et al., 2019).

In 2019, the Securities Commission (SC) introduced subsidiary legislation namely the Capital Market and Services (Prescription of Securities) (Digital Currency and Digital Token) Order 2019 to regulate cryptocurrencies and all initial coin offerings (ICOs) in Malaysia. By virtue of the law, cryptocurrencies and digital tokens are classified as securities. Cryptocurrencies are without a doubt considered the most controversial example of Fintech in Islam. As a result, this situation justifies the need to clarify the legal, regulatory, and Shariah issues relevant to such Fintech applications (Oseni & Ali, 2019). Besides that, the introduction of the Digital Management Framework in 2017 to set out the licensing and conduct requirements for the roboadvisory service in the finance industry. However, the conditions do not seek to ensure Shariah-compliance by the firms when providing the robo-advisory service. Fintech could also be applied to aspects of Shariah verification of transactions and Shariah robo-advisors. These unique features which might not be necessary for the conventional space of Fintech, necessitate the need to specifically address Fintech from an Islamic finance perspective. Alas, until this moment, no Shariah-compliant regulation is introduced to govern the Islamic Fintech industry.

This article undertakes a localised approach in practising Islamic Fintech, especially in Malaysia. As people would question the need for Shariah-compliant regulation in Fintech practice, this article intends to analyse further on that issue. The reason is to accommodate the legal changes required by the Islamic finance market, whether in the course of the significance of Fintech, Shariah-compliant regulation to govern Fintech activities is needed or not. Drawing from the prior statement, the next part of this article explains the needs of Shariah-compliant regulatory due to several aspects such as the non-comprehensiveness of the Islamic Financial Services Act (IFSA) 2013; the increasing rate of financial inclusion and; the qualifications of the Shariah Advisory Council (SAC) members in Malaysia. Then, recommendations are provided to justify the need for Shariahcompliant regulations in Islamic finance and how it could be properly met in Malaysia.

ISLAMIC FINANCIAL SERVICES ACT 2013 (IFSA) IS ONLY FOR TRADITIONAL PRACTICE OF ISLAMIC FINANCE

At present, the Islamic Financial Services Act (IFSA) 2013 acts as one of the important branches of the Shariah governance framework developed by the Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM). Malaysia seeks to enhance the Shariah governance and Shariah compliance effort of the Islamic financial services sector by legislating such Act. It underlines a complete Shariah compliance commitment of the Islamic finance industry across various dimensions namely the Shariah governance framework; Shariah standards for each contract used in Islamic financial transactions; pre-emptive measures to address issues of concern within Islamic Financial Institutions (IFIs) that may affect the interests of depositors and policyholders; and the effective and efficient functioning of Islamic financial transaction. Simply saying that the primary objective of the Act is to ensure all operations, undertakings, businesses, affairs, and activities conducted by the IFIs are in adherence with the principles of Islamic law at all times (Laldin & Furgani, 2018). The strict compliance of the IFIs with Shariah principles prescribed for such distinct contracts would secure the sanctity, righteousness, and legitimacy of Islamic financial transactions.

The rationale of the Islamic Financial Services Act 2013 (IFSA) is to substantially reinforce the foundation of a potent and transparent supervisory and regulatory framework to create a financial system that is competitive and susceptible to future challenges. But the surge of popularity towards Fintech and Islamic Fintech is a rapid and unexpected phenomenon to emerge. There is no doubt that the existing law is certainly extensive enough to encompass broad areas of the traditional banking and finance industry. However, current Shariah governance does not cover the recent modern financial activities which deal with technology such as cryptocurrency, blockchain, big data, crowdfunding, artificial intelligence, insurtech, and robo-advisory in the Islamic finance sector. Even though most IFIs actively engage with Fintech providers to diversify the features of their products and services in the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4th IR) era, no specific regulation has been enacted to ensure the conformity of Shariah principles in this field.

The reality that it was enacted through a fusion and evaluation of previous legislation concerning financial institutions supported the assertion that the current laws are deliberately designed for traditional institutions. For example, IFSA 2013 governs payment systems but consideration should be given to the fact that digital payment systems are subtly different from

their classical counterparts (Hui et al., 2019). For example, a smart contract is gradually gaining momentum in the Islamic finance market as the contracting parties no longer need a trusted third entity when performing a transaction. Instead, the transaction is selfexecuted once the pre-defined conditions are met and it is controlled completely by computers. However, it is noteworthy to highlight that the transaction is processed by the blockchain This is the point where the intervention of Shariah regulation is needed to ensure the performance of the technology in such transaction does not contradict the basic rules of *muamalat* jurisprudence in Islam. Unfortunately, IFSA 2013 does not specifically cater to the governance of Fintech in Islamic finance. As much as the traditional Islamic finance industry needs IFSA 2013 to govern the business activities, likewise the Islamic Fintech market.

Generally speaking, there are a lot of studies suggesting that banking performance - including bank financing - is coherently influenced by banking regulations (see, for instance, Barth et al., 2001; Naceur & Omran, 2011). This is relatively obvious knowing that a stable banking and financial system will stimulate long-term economic growth by allocating funds to more productive investments in comparison with a poorly functioning financial system (Nastiti, 2019). In particular, regulations have been an integral enabler in driving open banking. Clearly articulated regulations promote an environment conducive to the sustainability of the Islamic finance ecosystem and provide guidance on best practices (Capgemini, 2019).

The status quo requires the policymaker in Malaysia to continue assessing the appropriateness and adequacy of the regulatory framework governing Islamic finance matters. This is due to the fact that the implementation of Fintech has increased exponentially in this field from the past, with the goal of gaining benefits from the advantage and reducing the risks simultaneously. Thus, this situation actually demands not only the production of advanced technology-based deterrents and pro-active detection systems but truly efficient cooperation between the key players in the industry such as the regulators, Islamic banks and financial institutions as well as the Fintech providers is also needed to achieve the goal.

INCREASING RATE OF FINANCIAL INCLUSION

Financial inclusion appears to be a path channelling to the development goals which can reduce the percentage of global poverty and increase the standard of living worldwide (Baber, 2019). Islamic finance tackles the issue of financial inclusion from two angles; firstly, by promoting risk-sharing arrangements that offer a viable alternative to traditional debt-based funding, and second, by particular instruments of social wealth redistribution. Consequently, should the policymakers in Muslim countries are earnest to improve accessibility to finance or 'financial inclusion' in their country, they should leverage the maximum potential of Islamic instruments to attain this objective (Mohieldin et al., 2012).

According to the World Bank, 1.7 billion adults remain unbanked in 2017 (World Bank, 2018) while the unbanked adult population in Malaysia is recorded at 8% which represents 1.82 million adults from the total of 22.8 million adult populations nationally (Bank Negara Malaysia [BNM], 2019; Department of Statistics of Malaysia [DOSM], 2019). The religious obligation was established as one of the main factors of voluntary financial exclusion, especially for Muslims. Based on a survey conducted by the World Bank, 6% (102 million) of a total 1.7 billion unbanked adults mentioned religious concerns as a reason to not sign up for a banking account (World Bank, 2018). Furthermore, 12% of adults in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) have stated religious consideration as the sole reason for not having an account in a formal financial institution such as the conventional bank to avoid themselves from any usurious (riba) and uncertain (gharar) financial activities.

Islamic Fintech is somehow lagged behind and losing potential clients coming from the huge population of Muslim consumers. This is due to the strong attachment to Islamic values which has made it absolutely stringent to gain wealth through Fintech innovation. This is because Muslims always believe that assets are supposed to be acquired only by labour and risk. (Todorof, 2018) However, the presence of Shariah-compliant regulation may alter the typical perception. In fact, the large portion of the unbanked Muslim population can be taped by widening Islamic financial offerings (Malaysia International Islamic Financial Centre [MIFC], 2014) via the implementation of the Islamic Fintech system. With smartphone penetration being in the Muslim-majority countries, the demand for practical and digital Islamic finance solutions are emerging (DinarStandard, 2018).

Looking at the Southeast Asian (SEA) region, out of 600 million people, only 27% of the region's population own a bank account, and approximately 40% of the unbanked are occupied by the Muslims. The Shariah-compliant regulation should act as a driving force in contending with financial inclusion for Islamic Fintech. The increased accessibility of Shariahcompliant crowdfunding and peer-topeer (P2P) financing platforms creates opportunities for individuals and Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) who need funding or financing but are not yet qualified to obtain it from the traditional IFIs. For instance, in the case of Singapore-based Islamic Fintech company KapitalBoost, it provides short-term financing alternatives with a quick and friendly approval process at competitive rates for the SMEs, which are often at a disadvantage in accessing business expansion funds. The contract of financing is provided through Shariah-compliant structures namely Wakalah, Murabaha, and Qard (Hasan, 2017).

Malaysia is a Muslim-majority nation with enormous potential for more platforms to emerge that satisfy its strict desire to adhere to the values of the Islamic religion (Pikri, 2019). The Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM) reported that internet banking and mobile banking subscribers had a penetration rate of 91.9% and 33%

respectively in February 2019 (KPMG, 2019). It clearly reflects the participation in internet banking and finance activities has risen in Malaysia, a Muslim-majority nation. In 2018, over half of internet users use internet banking (54.2%) compared to 41.7% in 2016 (Malaysian Communication and Multimedia Commission [MCMC], 2018). Although cash is still the preferred payment mode for Malaysia, the increase of usage in electronic payment shows a positive upward demographic. Based on the transaction value data recorded by the BNM in 2018, internet banking transactions were valued at RM7.6 trillion; internet banking at RM100.1 billion, and e-money at RM11 billion (KPMG, 2019).

This definitely shows that more consumers in Malaysia are being receptive to the practice of internet banking which is part of Fintech as their daily banking and the percentage has increased from time to time. This suggested that substantial strides were taken to address the financial exclusion particularly among Muslims in Malaysia. With proper governance of Shariah-compliant Fintech via regulatory approach, more Muslims, even the non-Muslims would have trust and confidence in the Islamic Fintech market. Hence, this situation would increase the rate of financial inclusion, especially in Malaysia, a Muslimmajority nation.

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE MEMBERS OF SHARIAH ADVISORY COUNCIL (SAC)

Section 53 of the Central Bank of Malaysia Act (CBMA) 2009 provides that in any

event of appointing the members of Shariah Advisory Council (SAC), the members must be a person who has the qualification, knowledge, or experience in several fields namely Shariah, law, finance, banking or such other related disciplines. Meaning that any person cannot be appointed as a member of SAC unless he/she is well-equipped with the requirement under this section. It also clearly expresses the importance of possessing such qualifications as those traits are crucial in ascertaining Islamic law pertinent to the products or services offered by the IFIs.

As Fintech is all about the technology used in the financial system, it is essential especially for the members of SAC to equip themselves with the knowledge in this area. However, the CBMA does not give much importance to the said requirement when appointing the members of SAC. If one argues that knowledge or experience in technology may be included under the term 'other related discipline' in the section, a question arose as to why is there a need to specifically mention the fields of Shariah, banking, finance, and law, should the term 'other related discipline' may also cover the aforementioned disciplines of knowledge. The expertise and knowledge in the technology aspect must be expressly stated just like how the other fields are mentioned to show the necessity of having this trait as a member of SAC.

When the Central Bank of Malaysia Act 2009 was enacted, the implementation of technology in finance is not as rapid as in the meantime. With the rapid development of Fintech's technology and innovation, financial institution personnel may not be equipped with the necessary skills to prevent and detect fraud in Fintech (Bokanyi, 2016). That is why we need those who have expertise in technology to facilitate the SAC in ascertaining matters related to Islamic Fintech.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Shariah compliance is paramount when it comes to Fintech solutions in Islamic finance, and this should be subjected to the same principles applicable to commercial activities. Based on the discussion so far, the authors would like to provide some recommendations to satisfy the needs aforementioned.

First and foremost, new payment systems such as digital or online payments may be regulated through subsidiary legislation issued pursuant to IFSA 2013. In the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the financial regulators have officially introduced the initiatives to allow Fintech companies to participate and test their solutions in environments with lightertouch regulation. Following the introduction of its Fintech legislative framework, the Financial Services Regulatory Authority (FSRA) of Abu Dhabi Global Market (ADGM) opened its regulatory laboratory known as Regulatory Laboratory (RegLab). Likewise, the Dubai International Financial Centre (DIFC), the Dubai Financial Services Authority (DFSA) unveiled its Innovation Testing Licence (ITL) in 2017 that serves as a regulatory sandbox (Rizvi et al., 2019).

This will, however, require legal adaptation (takyif fiqhi) to address the peculiarities of Fintech, as there are no precedents to these disruptive innovations. This has been proposed recently by the Dubai Financial Services Authority (DFSA) which seeks to subject Shariah-compliant equity crowdfunding platforms to the original rules applicable to Islamic financial institutions. While in Bahrain, the governance of Fintech regulations is vested under the exclusive control and sole responsibility of the Central Bank of Bahrain (CBB). The nation has undertaken a number of regulatory initiatives since May 2017 to increase the importance of Fintech there. In the past two years, they introduced the regulatory sandbox and proceeded in the same year with the introduction of crowdfunding regulations and the launching of the Fintech and Innovation Unit (Fintechnews Middle East, 2019).

With regard to Islamic Fintech, the Shariah Advisory Council (SAC) could become the cornerstone to grow the industry of Islamic finance. The SAC should be given a more active role to promote the application of Fintech solutions in this field (Hui et al., 2019). Even though the involvement of SAC sometimes would incite controversy in the Islamic finance market, Section 51 of the Central Bank Act of Malaysia (CBMA) 2009 positioned the Council as the apex body in ascertaining Islamic finance matters. The law itself affirmed the highest status of the Council when it requires any reference made to the SAC pertinent to Islamic finance matters must be followed and its decision prevails in any event.

It is undeniable that the governing authority such as the BNM, every now and then provided guideline to the banking and financial sector with a view to strengthen and improve the security measures taken by all participating institutions. For example, the BNM had issued BNM/GP11 which provides the consumer protection guidelines on electronic fund transfers. This guideline describes the basic framework for assessing consumer and financial institutions' rights, liabilities, and their obligations directly related to Electronic Fund Transfer (EFT) (Miskam et al., 2018).

However, the mere guideline is insufficient to bind every IFIs. If it is not a binding regulation, the IFIs would feel less compelled to follow the guidelines. For instance, if the Fintech firms do not comply with the guidelines, their license would be confiscated. However, the authors feel that this mechanism is reactive in character. The aim of the regulation is supposed to prevent the occurrence of this event as the issue of Shariah non-compliance is seriously associated with religious belief. The non-compliance would not only result in confiscating the firms' license, but it would likely ruin the good reputation of the Islamic finance industry as a whole, thus losing the customer's confidence in the Shariah governance system. As known, law, and regulation should be the best mechanism to observe the compliance of Shariah principles by the industrial players throughout the financial activities from the beginning until the end. Therefore, this

situation reflects the need for the regulators to come up with Islamic Fintech regulations in Malaysia.

Secondly, the Central Bank of Bahrain (CBM) explicitly listed financial inclusion as the principal key objective in its sandbox (Jenik & Lauer, 2017). For this purpose, the Bank came up with crowdfunding, crypto-asset, open banking regulations to provide a wider range of financial inclusion in the country. Whereas in the UAE, the Regulatory Framework for Stored Values and Electronic Payment Systems 2017 set out the requirements imposed upon the micropayment payment service provider. The requirements must be fulfilled by the payment service providers who offer micropayment solutions facilitating digital payments targeting the unbanked and underbanked segments in the UAE (Murray & Sanni, 2017).

In order to protect the integrity of the Islamic finance industry, the Islamic Fintech companies/providers cannot simply claim to be Shariah-compliant without being licensed and accredited as such by the authorities. As a starting point, it is suggested for the BNM to work collaboratively with SAC in producing a regulatory sandbox framework, especially for Islamic Fintech firms. Just like how such Sandbox has been established for the conventional Fintech firms, it is time to shift the focus on the Islamic Fintech providers. A regulatory sandbox may enable the regulators to revise and shape the regulatory and supervisory framework with agility. The authorities such as the BNM and

SAC could come up with specific guiding principles on Shariah compliance and advise the participants of the proposed Sandbox. Thus, through this Sandbox, the regulators could ensure that the participants comply with Shariah principles when offering their products and services in the Islamic finance industry.

Thirdly, the SAC members play a big part in the ecosystem of the Islamic finance industry. If the members are not well-equipped with the knowledge and expertise in technology, this situation might cause hurdles and difficulties in the implementation of Fintech in the sector. The current status quo of the provision may delay the process of regulating Islamic Fintech through laws and legislations. Therefore, amending section 53 of the Central Bank of Malaysia Act 2009 by specifically requiring the knowledge and expertise in 'technology' would strengthen the workforce of SAC. However, it is noteworthy to highlight that this amendment is suggested to expedite the process of understanding the underlying principle of the technology used together with the financial activity. Although BNM and other financial institutions have competent IT personnel who could always assist the SAC with any technology-related questions that they may have, the final decision would be made by the SAC members. If the members do not have any background or knowledge about technology, they would possibly unable to appreciate the potential of Fintech as an enhancer in traditional Islamic finance transactions.

CONCLUSION

Malaysia is a leading nation in Islamic finance, yet more effort is required to lead Fintech development worldwide. Some interesting trends have developed, notably the acceptance of consumers on the implementation of financial technology in the financial business. It is praiseworthy that Malaysia is very committed to maintain our leadership in Islamic finance globally. Thus, this article has highlighted the reasons that the Islamic finance market is in need of Shariah-compliant regulation to govern modern financial activities. The existing regulations seem to be insufficient to cater to Fintech-related activities in the Islamic finance market. It is strongly recommended that the regulators to consider the launching of Shariah-compliant regulation to govern any Islamic financial activities which adopt Fintech. If not, this issue would be left unregulated and caused financial and economic loss to the nation. Looking at the status quo of this Muslim-majority nation on the positive reception of Fintech in Islamic finance, this is the right moment to come up with the said regulations.

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Quality Predictors and Clinician Performance in Using Health Information Systems: A Test of Mediating Effect

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ABSTRACT

Medical errors are prevalent barriers that negatively affect clinicians' productivity when using a health information system (HIS). In Malaysia, medication errors have critically increased in the past few years and this phenomenon requires immediate academic and managerial attention. This study aimed to determine whether the effective use of HIS could predict the effects of the system, records, service, and knowledge qualities on the performance of clinicians. A total of 1200 surveys were administered to clinicians in different health institutions with HISs. The mediation effects based on 817 usable data were analyzed using partial least squares (PLS). In the path model, results demonstrated that effective use had a positive effect on the outcome variable and partially mediated the positive effects of quality predictors towards enhanced user performance. In other words, effective use of HISs increased the performance of clinicians through the ease of system functions and features, well-organized contents, and minimal data entry errors in EHRs, onsite technical support, and efficiency of drug order entry and decision support tools usage. Future evaluation studies of HIS should integrate effective use, and hospitals must strongly consider this predictor for the system upgrade or new implementation to avert medical errors when the use of the system is compulsory.

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INTRODUCTION

Hospital computerisation through the implementation of a health information system (HIS) can minimise and overcome

ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 human errors obtained from traditional and manual systems (El-Kareh et al., 2013; Khajouei et al., 2018). System implementation has been shown to improve patient safety and the efficiency of care delivery worldwide (Strudwick et al., 2016). For instance, the successful HIS implementation in Africa saved millions of lives and improved the citizen's quality of life, considering the accuracy and reliability of health statistics that influenced sound decision making in health care systems (Musa et al., 2016).

The effective use of HIS can improve clinical workflows and prevent unnecessary care and medical errors (Bae & Encinosa, 2016; Walsh et al., 2018). Unfortunately, medical errors in Malaysian health facilities have significantly increased by 35% from 1427 cases in 2016 to 1923 cases in 2017 even though HIS was in place (Abu Bakar et al., 2017), which determined its ineffective use (Yusof & Sahroni, 2018). Furthermore, surgeons refused to use the system due to the incomplete data field pertaining to the provided notes and considerable typing mistakes, which could lead to medication errors that could harm patients (Salahuddin et al., 2018; Yusof, 2015). When these errors occur during treatment, they can cause patient dissatisfaction with the quality of the patient safety (Salahuddin & Ismail, 2018), which then produces low productivity of doctors. Hence, these situations require the effective implementation of HIS to enhance the performance of clinicians, ensure patient safety and maintain public trust towards the government health system (Rajasekar, 2015).

The current study tries to explain the quality of HIS, records, support service, and knowledge towards clinician performance that are predicted by effective use. Clinicians are the health care providers who deal directly with the patient care or services rather than being involved with non-surgical diagnostic and treatment like physicians (Bossen et al., 2013). Specifically, the objective is to understand how effective use of HIS significantly affects the relationship between system quality, records quality, service quality, and knowledge quality on the performance of clinicians in the developing country of Malaysia to improve the past theoretical model and to recommend new criteria for HIS upgrades in an effort to avert medical errors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

System quality is employed to measure the effective use and performance of clinicians against the technical characteristics of HIS functions (Yusof et al., 2008). A survey of 235 nurses in Canada reported that the use of HIS was effective in preventing medication errors, increasing patient safety and supporting medication administration, which contributed to the significant satisfaction in reducing many drug prescription errors (Smith et al., 2016). Similarly, adequate computers and high performance of nursing HIS positively changed the workflows and medication management safety of nurses, thus increasing their satisfaction and task benefits after six months of implementation (Tsai et al., 2016). Therefore, the effective use of HIS positively mediates the system quality and performance of clinicians (H1).

The quality of records depends on the timely access, consistency, standardised, accuracy, duplication prevention, and comprehensiveness of health records (patient notes, reports, prescriptions, images, laboratory test results, and discharge summaries) generated from an HIS that is employed to measure the effective use and performance of clinicians (Salleh et al., 2017). Based on a survey of 281 clinicians in Iran, the effects of integrated and standardised electronic health records (EHRs) generated from HIS accelerated diagnoses and treatments, increased productivity by minimising errors and repetition of clinical and lab work and enabled the doctors to produce considerable medical studies (Sadoughi et al., 2016). In South Africa, the simplified analysis of EHR is the main priority for user satisfaction and productivity outcomes, which allowed nurses to allocate considerable time for patient communication (Cohen et al., 2015). Therefore, the effective use of HIS positively mediates the quality of records and the performance of clinicians (H2).

Service quality refers to the overall technical support of the internal or external HIS vendor, and is used to measure the effective use and performance of clinicians (Yusof et al., 2008). The quality of IT support service has predicted high user satisfaction and intention to use HIS, which in turn, positively affected the quality and efficiency of work and patient safety in Netherlands (Kuipers, 2016). Service quality, which is obtained from the dedication and commitment of IT staff, has decreased error rates and produced many skilled physicians who can use HISs, thus leading to high quality care (Li, 2014). Therefore, the effective use of HIS positively mediates the service quality and performance of clinicians (H3).

Meanwhile, knowledge quality is defined as the degree to which a clinician perceives that the use of HIS will aid in increasing his/her medical knowledge and applying such knowledge in making the right decision in solving the problems of patients (Chang et al., 2012). In Sweden, the efficiency of a decision support system tool via HIS provided accurate recommendations that increased the knowledge of physicians on drug dosage for patients with renal problems (Shemeikka et al., 2015). The use of HIS, which complements nursing practice, improved the knowledge and skills of nurses on using IT as well as reduced time, work efforts and clinical errors (Adams, 2015). The quality of knowledge generated from medical research and clinical practice via the use of HIS also contributed to the high quality of care and productivity of clinicians (Shimizu et al., 2018; Tsai & Hung, 2016). Therefore, the effective use of HIS positively mediates the quality of knowledge and performance of clinicians (H4).

In most quantitative research, a mediator provides an effect to denote several causes by independent variables towards a dependent variable. In the proposed mediation model (Figure 1), Effective Use as a mediating variable (MV), refers to the achievement of accomplishing clinical tasks by clinicians

without significant medical errors (Salleh et al., 2017), and is used to measure their performance. Meanwhile, Clinician Performance as the dependent variable (DV) refers to the level used to determine whether the use of HIS contributes to either high or low performance of clinicians, which is predicted by independent variables [System Quality(IV1), Records Quality(IV2), Service Quality(IV3), and Knowledge Quality (IV4)], and a mediator of Effective Use (MV). Specifically, Effective Use mediated the positive effects of H1, H2, H3, and H4 on the performance of clinicians. The proposed model in the current study was adopted from the conventional theoretical framework for IS evaluation namely DeLone and McLean model (DeLone & McLean, 2003), and improved Actual Use with Effective Use due to mandatory HIS utilisation in local study sites rather than introducing a new variable called Knowledge Quality. Unfortunately, the User Satisfaction variable from the DeLone and McLean model was removed because it had high correlation with system quality, information quality, and individual

effect variables (McGill et al., 2003), which generated a low descriptive power (Sedera & Gable, 2004).

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Convenience sampling was applied to select the samples from hospital populations situated in different states; this was due to hectic schedules of clinicians serving in a busy clinical environment (Salleh et al., 2017; Salleh et al., 2016). The study protocol was approved by the Medical Research and Ethics Committee of the Ministry of Health in Malaysia. The survey draft was first reviewed by the National Institute of Health (NIH) before approval. Then, the draft was pre-tested through a focus group interview with several heads of clinical departments (Paediatrics, General Surgery, Anaesthesiology, General Medicine, Ward, Orthopaedic, Emergency and Trauma, and Nursing) arranged by the Clinical Research Centres of Kedah, Johor, and Pahang Hospitals as they had considerable experience in using HISs. Feedbacks were provided for further improvement to create

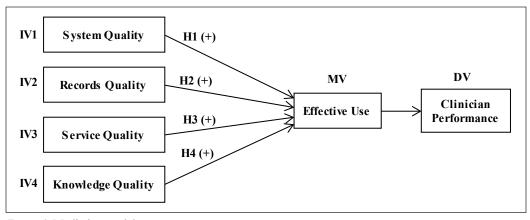


Figure 1. Mediation model

the final survey. Related comments are issued, including technical or complex IT terms and repetitive questions with similar meanings. They recommended restricting the number of questions to fewer than 50 items by refining three to five questions measuring each variable to promote accurate responses.

Subsequently, a total of 1200 printed surveys were distributed to medical officers and nurses in three large government hospitals with more than 500 beds and HISs in their clinics during their participations in the continuing medical education (CME) programs to ensure high response rates. An equal proportion was not assumed as non-probability convenience sampling was concerned because of clinicians' busy schedules and demanding workloads that limited the use of random sampling (Balappanavar et al., 2011). The questionnaire consisted of 25 adopted items from previous studies and 12 new untested items. Among the 817 completed responses, Kedah Hospital had the highest response rate with 41% (n = 334; 201 medical officers and 133 nurses), followed by Johor Hospital with 35% (n = 283; 122 medical officers and 161 nurses) and Pahang Hospital with 25% (n = 200; 101 medical officers and 99 nurses). Harman's onefactor test was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics Software to determine whether the survey data explained more than 50% of the total variance. The factor analysis results revealed that the measured survey items only explained about 32.6% of the total variance, indicating that common method bias did not affect the dataset (Conway & Lance, 2010).

RESULTS

For sample profiles based on 817 usable responses gathered from the three surveyed hospitals, 28% (229) of the participants were male and 72% (588) of them were female (375 nurses were female and about 213 medical officers were also female). More than half of the samples (66% or 542)were between 25–35 years old, followed by 15% (121) aged below 25 years old, 13% (109) aged between 36-45 years old, and 6% (45) aged above 46 years old. A total of 424 (52%) samples were medical officers who had a Medical Degree, and 393 (48%) were nurses who had a Diploma in Nursing. In using HIS, about 75% (619) of the samples had less than 5 years of experience, whereas 25% (198) had more than 5 years of experience.

Formative Model Analysis

In the formative measurement model, the System Quality variable consisted of four different components, such as Adequate IT Infrastructure with two indicators/ question items, System Interoperability with three indicators, Perceived Security Concerns with four indicators and System Compatibility with four indicators. Two System Interoperability items (sysi 1 and sysi 3), three Perceived Security Concerns items (secc 2, secc 3, and secc 4), and two System Compatibility items (syscom 1 and syscom 4) were adopted from the past related study (Salleh et al., 2016). Partial least squares-structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyse the formative and reflective models at the

same time (Hair et al., 2017). The first assessment started with the convergent validity in SmartPLS software 3.2.6 version for measured items. The results revealed that each System Quality item obtained a variance inflation factor below than 3.5, indicating that the items did not highly correlate with each other (Hair et al., 2011). The second assessment proceeded with the bootstrapping nonparametric procedure for outer weights. The results indicated that the items of adin 2, secc 1, secc 2, secc 3, and syscom 4 were not significant but that their loadings were significant at the 1% level, as depicted in Table 1. The results were justified by theoretical and empirical support to retain these items (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2011). Hence, the formative model was validated.

Reflective Model Analysis

In the reflective measurement model, knowqual_4 item was deleted because of low loading (0.584), which was below 0.7; recqual_2 and effuse_1 items were retained because their loadings were close to 0.7 (Hair et al., 2017), as tabulated in Table 2. The value of composite reliability (CR) for every variable was above 0.7, and the value of average variance extracted (AVE) for each measuring variable was higher than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2017), indicating sufficient convergent validity (Hair et al., 2011).

The assessment continued with the discriminant validity in Heterotrait– Monotrait, which showed that every variable scored below a threshold of 0.85 (Table 3), thus confirming no highly correlated variables to indicate no discriminant validity problem (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2014). Hence, the reflective model was validated.

Analysis of Mediation Effects

The analysis of mediation effects was performed with and without the mediator for every proposed hypothesis in the PLS-SEM. Using the same bootstrapping procedure (5000 subsamples, no sign changes and complete bootstrapping settings), the results indicated that the indirect effects among the measured independent variables, mediator, and dependent variable were statistically significant (Table 4).

The estimated path model suggested that Effective Use mediated the positive relationship between System Quality, Records Quality, Service Quality, Knowledge Quality and Clinician Performance at the 1% level (Figure 2). This mediation had a partial effect when three direct effects among the variable relationships were statistically significant (Hair et al., 2017). The predictive power (R^2) of clinician performance increased when a mediator of Effective Use was included in the analysis. Two variables that had the strongest effect on EHR system user performance in the path model with the presence of mediator were records quality (path = 0.087, p < 0.01) and service quality (path = 0.084, p < 0.01). Overall, all proposed hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, and H4) were empirically supported.

Mediation Analysis of Effective Use of Health Information Systems

Table 1

Significance assessment for outer weights and loadings

Component	Item/Indicator & Source	Outer Weights	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig.	Outer Loadings	<i>t</i> -Value	Sig.
Adequate IT Infrastructure	adin_1: Faster network access is critical for me to use HIS (Gray, 2014).	0.160	1.937	*	0.558	10.099	***
	adin_2: Adequate computer hardware is critical for me to use HIS (Gray, 2014).	0.085	1.127	NS	0.501	9.042	***
System Interoperability	sysi_1: I only need to enter and save data once, then use the system with multiple HIS (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.083	1.802	*	0.481	9.875	***
	sysi_2: The cost for patient's treatment is reduced with the use of HIS (Mansoor & Majeed, 2010).	0.123	2.555	**	0.456	9.110	***
	sysi_3: The connection between different HISs is critical to enable coordinated patient care (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.091	1.774	*	0.477	8.832	***
Perceived Security Concerns	secc_1: I believe my HIS does not allow unauthorized access (Yousafzai et al., 2009).	-0.021	0.354	NS	0.460	9.203	***
	secc_2: I believe my HIS protects patient's information (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.078	0.955	NS	0.536	11.539	***
	secc_3: I believe my HIS has a robust security control (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.038	0.480	NS	0.561	12.099	***
	secc_4: I feel secure and safe using HIS (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.174	2.206	**	0.653	14.959	***
System Compatibility	syscom_1: HIS fits my workflows (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.197	2.414	**	0.786	20.227	***
	syscom_2: HIS fits the way I work and my work styles (Tulu et al., 2006).	0.266	3.135	***	0.820	24.014	***
	syscom_3: HIS fits my clinical practices (Tulu et al., 2006).	0.133	1.722	*	0.780	22.208	***
	syscom_4: HIS fits my patients' needs (Salleh et al., 2016).	0.115	1.545	NS	0.736	17.504	***

Note. *** p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05, * p < 0.10, NS = Not Significant

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Variable	Item/Indicator and source	Loadings	CR	AVE
Records quality	recqual_1: Access to EHRs is timely (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.728	0.875	0.539
	recqual_2: EHRs are consistent when viewing from other computers (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.668		
	recqual_3: EHRs are available in a standardized format (Self-developed).	0.788		
	recqual_4: EHRs are accurate (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.780		
	recqual_5: EHRs avoid duplication of diagnostic tests (Self-developed).	0.735		
	recqual_6: EHRs are complete (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.700		
Service quality	servqual_1: IT support staff/vendor provides quick assistance when I face problems with HIS (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.834	0.900	0.691
	servqual_2: IT support staff/vendor is always able to solve my problems with HIS (Self-developed).	0.847		
	servqual_3: IT support staff/vendor provides follow-up service to HIS users like me (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.832		
	servqual_4: IT support staff/vendor provides adequate training for me to use HIS (Self-developed).	0.813		
Knowledge quality	knowqual_1: HIS is useful for learning new medical knowledge (Chang et al., 2012; Wu & Wang, 2006).	0.821	0.911	0.597
	knowqual_2: HIS is useful when researching or creating new medical knowledge (Chang et al., 2012; Wu & Wang, 2006).	0.819		
	knowqual_3: HIS is helpful when applying medical knowledge to my tasks (Chang et al., 2012; Wu & Wang, 2006).	0.850		
	knowqual_5: HIS provides knowledge that increases my ability to make clinical decisions (Self-developed).	0.728		
	knowqual_6: HIS provides knowledge that improves my ability to solve clinical problems (Self-developed).	0.781		
	knowqual_7: HIS provides a complete medical source that I can refer to for more information (Chang et al., 2012; Wu & Wang, 2006).	0.793		
Effective use	effuse_1: HIS enables me to complete my tasks successfully in a few easy steps (Self-developed).	0.694	0.845	0.648
	effuse_2: HIS allows me to prevent misdiagnosis (Self-developed).	0.864		
	effuse_3: HIS allows me to provide the right medications to patients (Self-developed).	0.845		
Clinician	clperf_1: HIS increases my time with patients (Self-developed).	0.810	0.902	0.698
performance	clperf_2: HIS enhances the safety of patient care (Self-developed).	0.816		
	clperf_3: HIS increases my work productivity (DeLone & McLean, 2003).	0.884		
	clperf_4: HIS increases my chances of obtaining better annual performance marks (Self-developed).	0.830		

Table 2Convergent validity for reflective measures

Mediation Analysis of Effective Use of Health Information Systems

Table 3

Variable	Clinician performance	Effective use	Knowledge quality	Records quality	Service quality
Clinician performance					
Effective use	0.540				
Knowledge quality	0.834	0.476			
Records quality	0.721	0.545	0.698		
Service quality	0.598	0.341	0.545	0.464	

Note. AVE values are on the bolded diagonal.

Table 4

Bootstrapping results for mediation effects

Hypothesis/ Relationship	Direct effect without mediator (IV -> DV)	<i>R</i> ²	Direct effect with mediator (IV -> MV)	Direct effect with mediator (MV -> DV)	R ²	Indirect effect with mediator (IV-> MV -> DV)	Effect size
H1: System Quality -> Effective Use -> Clinician Performance	0.559 (16.756***)	0.408	0.489 (15.600***)	0.153 (4.624***)	0.420	0.075 (4.322***)	Partial
H2: Records Quality -> Effective Use -> Clinician Performance	0.524 (16.304***)	0.375	0.421 (12.810***)	0.206 (6.253***)	0.408	0.087 (5.605***)	Partial
H3: Service Quality -> Effective Use -> Clinician Performance	0.427 (11.721***)	0.262	0.267 (6.896***)	0.313 (9.513***)	0.352	0.084 (5.752***)	Partial
H4: Knowledge Quality -> Effective Use -> Clinician Performance	0.688 (25.114***)	0.563	0.384 (11.255***)	0.161 (5.577***)	0.584	0.062 (5.067***)	Partial

Note: *** *p* < 0.01.

effuse_1 effuse_2 effuse_3 Effective Use β=0.153 β=0.489 15.600 673 *** 1.12 Q.322 0.96 clperf_1 0.423 2.218 2.218 3.070 syscom_2 1.759 yscom_3 1.528 1.837 yscom 4 2.61 0.423 β=0.559 1.020 clperf_2 16.756 ** 0.420 45.837 86.410 clperf_3 clperf 4 Clinician Performance ern Quality /scom_4 1.781 sysi_1 H1: System Quality->Effective Use->Clinician Performance effuse_1 effuse_2 effuse_3 18.847 51.315 47.621 Effective Use β=0.421 β=0.206 6.253 *** 12.810*** recqual_1 recqual_2 28.635 22.634 41.873 recqual_4 41.873 40.262 23.605 23.605 Re recqual_5 β=0.524 clperf 2 16.304 *** 0.40 6.122 3.181 clperf 3 clperf 4 Records Quality H2: Records Quality->Effective Use->Clinician Performance Clinician Performance recqual_6 effuse_1 effuse_2 effuse_3 Effective Use β=0.267 β=0.313 9.513*** 6.896 servicual 1 servqual_2 servqual_3 servqual_3 β=0.427 clperf 2 45.288 0.352 clperf_3 H3: Service Quality->Effective Use->Clinician Performance servqual_4 clperf 4 Service Quality Clinician Performance effuse_1 effuse_2 effuse_3 0.148 Effective Use β=0.384 β=0.161 11.255*** .577*** 48.768 20.768 49.086 40.086 B=0.688 37.352 clperf 2 25.114 *** 51.387 86.852 53.892 0.584 clperf_3 clperf_4 H4: Knowledge Quality->Effective Use->Clinician Performance Clinician Performance knowqual_7

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Figure 2. Path models of mediation analysis

DISCUSSION

The findings revealed that Effective Use of HIS became the trigger that caused a positive effect on system quality, records quality, service quality, and knowledge quality in driving clinician performance. In other words, system quality, records quality, service quality, and knowledge quality caused high clinician performance through the effective HIS usage, which increased the predictive power of this outcome variable. Based on the survey outputs, clinicians reported that HISs enabled them to complete their tasks successfully by following a few easy steps. The benefits gained from the system included simplified search and retrieval of patients' medical histories, wellstructured contents and reduced spelling errors in data entry with the autocomplete feature, which increased the quality of EHRs and effective use.

By contrast, the quality of technical support service increased due to the efficient follow-up activities of HIS vendors, thus confirming that user-reported problems like faulty computers and printers were fully resolved. In addition, HIS was easily customised with the creation of new fields. note templates and reports, combined with timely access to various types of health records with a single-click and the integration of computerised drug order entry and decision support tools. These tools assisted clinicians in making sound clinical decisions by preventing misdiagnosis and inaccurate prescriptions. These knowledge tools automatically generated alerts for allergies of patients to certain drugs or any

reactions to clinical procedures when the HIS stored a complete medical history in an EHR. In turn, the use of such tools increased effective use and eventually improved the task productivity of clinicians.

The results are also consistent with those of the relevant past studies. Efficient HIS utilisation is predicted by functional coverage, significant investigation, and ease of use, which are associated with the performance benefits of physicians (Handayani et al., 2018; Raymond et al., 2015). Effective HIS use also decreases the time required to perform clinical tasks, reduced operational costs, and increased the productivity of care providers by preventing medical errors, thus ensuring the quality of medical services (Bawack & Kamdjoug, 2018; Sultan et al., 2014). Effective system use increases the productivity and satisfaction of individual staff requirements, motivated the staff to fully utilise system capabilities and fosters collaboration among interdisciplinary working groups, including clinicians, non-clinicians, and patients (Hoerbst & Schweitzer, 2015). Besides, clinical staffs with positive experiences in HIS are highly satisfied with its operational reliability, response time, login, and support. Acceptable performance is expected from staff with positive experiences in HIS; such experiences included high satisfaction, changes in work processes and future benefits, such as increased loyalty of patients and good hospital reputation (Bossen et al., 2013). In one Malaysian tertiary care centre, clinicians showed effective and high task performance by

using time-saving tools in HIS, such as autocharting and rapid decision making with analytical aids. System usage also enhanced the efficiency of clinicians by reducing resource consumption and enabling health records access, capture, and management with automated tools. The quality of patient care increases when clinicians devote time with patients and become much IT savvy in system configuration (Salahuddin et al., 2018; Yusof, 2015). In addition, good quality staff training, constant technical assistance, and support service for computers and networks are critical IS services to promote EHR adoption and significant user performance (Nguyen et al., 2014).

CONCLUSION

This study investigates and tests an improved model that contains five contributing predictors of HIS user performance (system quality, records quality, service quality, knowledge quality, and effective use). In the local clinical context, the model focuses the importance of measuring predictors for contributing to an effective use of HIS. This is because of the facts that ease of HIS usage, fast records access and retrieval, better quality of EHR presentation and consistency, efficient technical support, and able to learn and research from HIS have enabled clinicians to complete their tasks timely and accurately thus, minimizing diagnosis and prescription errors. PLS is employed for data analysis that offers special uniqueness to the empirical work. In this sense, effect size between the measuring independent variables with the presence of a mediator is demonstrated, suggesting the importance of effective use as the main function and feature of HIS when its adoption is mandatory.

The present study provided theoretical implications to academic scholars and researchers. Effective Use as an improved dimension with new items should be integrated into the existing DeLone and McLean model in the mandatory setting because it can assist in preventing diagnosis and medication errors that eventually increased the task performance of clinicians. In the hypothesized research model, two variables have been validated empirically as the strongest predictors of clinicians' performance are records quality and service quality. Higher performance can be expected from those clinicians who are benefits from the quality of EHR usage and technical support from vendors when they faced problems with the systems. Overall, the findings show that system quality, records quality, service quality, and knowledge quality significantly improve the effective use of HISs that eventually increase clinicians' performance and therefore, effective use should be integrated into the future theoretical framework for any HIS evaluation or critical success factors study.

This study also provided practical implications for hospitals and clinicians. In particular, the findings can provide insights for the Ministry and hospitals with HISs to consider effective use functions concerning user-friendly interface with intelligent tools to assist better diagnosis and medication for future upgrades or a new implementation at

other health facilities. Hence, HIS vendors should design system functions and features in both patient and pharmacy modules that can support clinicians in performing their tasks successfully without any data entry errors, apart from improving drug order entry and decision support tools to prevent misdiagnosis and medication errors efficiently. Since EHR quality and service quality were singled out as the most contributing factors for HIS user performance, it is critical for the vendors to provide onsite or personal training to newly graduated clinicians as well as to appoint more experienced system users from senior clinicians or specialists to instruct the junior clinicians in writing EHR documentation completely and accurately that will allow for better patient care. If seniors train juniors effectively in the use of EHR systems and demonstrate the best practices aligned with clinical workflows, they will continue to use the systems and promote to their colleagues at other hospitals without systems. For beginners, the interactive video tutorial, which supplies only required clinical functions and features to be used by clinicians for EHR documentation can be provided in the systems. Thus, taking into account the importance of knowledge quality, further upgrades can be improved by installing data analytics tool so that the incidence reporting and statistics by different clinics can be easily generated in real-time that will enable clinicians to learn and improve their diagnosis and examination. When they can learn and conduct research via the use of EHR systems, the Ministry

should provide more clinical research grants to produce more medical scholars.

The study however is not without limitations. Firstly, the mediation model did not include the clinicians' profiles like years of clinical practice and experience using HIS that could predict the mediating effect of user performance between quality predictors (system quality, records quality, service quality, knowledge quality) and effective use. Secondly, the study data was gathered using a cross-sectional survey at a particular point in time. Thirdly, the research was conducted in a single country. Fourthly, there were only two clinician groups engaged as the respondents. To address these, future research can replicate the current study by conducting a longitudinal full-scale HIS evaluation study that extends the samples to specialists, pathologists, pharmacists, imaging officers, laboratory technologists, and radiologists in other Asian health systems because they are also HIS users with different demographic groups with different perceptions and levels of performance. To increase mediation effects for future models, effective HIS use can be further investigated to enhance the performance of clinicians in terms of task completion, misdiagnosis prevention, and accurate medication by different clinical specialties. Considering that the generalization of study results and limited access to clinics have also been identified as the study limitations, future researchers should plan a much effective strategy, such as the distribution of surveys during HIS training or medical education programs that are commonly attended by large groups of clinicians from various professions, in conducting random sampling from busy hospital environments. To the best of our knowledge, our study was the first to investigate the effects of high-quality HIS, EHRs, IT support service, and clinical knowledge on enhancing the performance of multiple clinicians in different Malaysian health institutions by integrating effective use.

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What Influences Urbanites' Mobile Payment Adoption? The Moderating Roles of Demographic Divides

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the moderating roles of demographic divides, such as gender, income, and education, on factors influencing mobile payment adoption among urbanites in Malaysia. An online survey questionnaire was used for data collection, which yielded 428 responses. PLS-SEM was employed to assess validity, reliability, hypothesis testing, and PLS-MGA of the study constructs. The findings of this paper revealed that perceived security, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and trust were significantly related to mobile payment adoption. Gender, income, and education were found to moderate the results. This research provides important information to service providers, banking institutions, and the government to understand factors influencing mobile payment adoption

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E-mail addresses: ongchoonhee@gmail.com (Ong Choon Hee) eeink.yuying@gmail.com (Koo Nyuk Ying) oktan@utm.my (Tan Owee Kowang) leeping638@gmail.com (Lim Lee Ping) *Corresponding author and consider demographic characteristics of gender, income, and education in mobile payment adoption. This study explains the moderating effects of demographic divides on mobile payment adoption among urbanites that are rarely addressed in Malaysia.

Keywords: Demographic divides, mobile payment adoption, technology adoption factors, urbanites

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INTRODUCTION

Smartphones can perform multiple functions like navigating websites, monitoring body fitness, purchasing goods, shopping online, paying bills, and many others. E-wallets and mobile payments are inexorable, although most Malaysians seem unwilling to accept the idea of going out without cash. Mobile payments are the norm in countries like China, Japan, and Korea. Around 90% of business transactions in China use mobile payments, but the opposite is true in Malaysia even though the government encourages the public to forego cash for e-wallets (Martin, 2019). The Central Bank is making extensive efforts to transform Malaysia into a cashless society. For instance, the Central Bank has authorized 49 non-banking companies to provide e-money services: 39 via e-wallet and 10 via online accounts or cards (Martin, 2019). Notable mobile payment or e-wallet platforms in Malaysia include Touch n'Go, GrabPay, and Boost ("Fitch Solutions", 2019). However, efforts should not only come from making cashless payment channels available but also to understand why people remain hesitant to use mobile payments instead of cash and physical wallets. Although mobile payment is the way of the future, Malaysian urbanites are not embracing the technology. As of June 2019, there were only 4.4 million users out of 32.66 million, or 13.5% of the total population, who were using mobile payment (Martin, 2019). These statistics do not come close to the likes of Japan, Korea, and China (Chua et al., 2020). Compared to the number of mobile phone users, the number of mobile

payment subscribers is still considerably low in Malaysia (Rehman & Zabri, 2020). For mobile payment to succeed, issues and concerns about security, trust, and usability among the users must be addressed. In addition, social disparity is still noticeable, leading to a digital divide or digital inequality. A digital divide is inevitable in any form of technology adoption in any country, and it seems to perpetuate, although we assume there should be no gap or inequality of technology adoption in this digital era (Rahman, 2015). For instance, the demographic divide persists, especially in terms of different individual characteristics among urbanites. A demographic divide is acknowledged as a major barrier to using mobile payments (Rahman, 2015). In Asian countries, demographic factors, such as gender, income, and education are regarded as important indicators of the nation's success in technology adoption (Quibra et al., 2003). Recognizing that demographic divide is critical to the success of mobile payment adoption. This paper intends to test the moderating roles of demographic factors toward mobile payment adoption among Malaysian urbanites so appropriate marketing strategies can be designed and implemented.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) are among prominent mobile payment adoption theories. The TAM, established by Davis (1989), is the most accepted model for measuring an individual's acceptance and usage of technology. TAM was originally built on the theory of reasoned action and introduced two factors, perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use, in specific information system (IS) usage (Surendran, 2012). Perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use are both related to IS adoption behaviors. According to TAM, both factors will lead prospective users to use the actual system eventually. Nevertheless, various researchers have attempted to add new determinants, on top of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use, to take a more appropriate approach to testing the model according to specific research settings. Past studies, including Chau (1996), Hu et al. (1999), Cheng (2011), and Escobar-Rodriguez et al. (2012) had used TAM extensions (Davis et al., 1989), like TAM 2 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000) and TAM 3 (Venkatesh & Bala, 2008) to explain users' intentions to use new technology. Apart from that, the UTAUT was further established by Venkatesh et al. (2003) to integrate the construction of all theories and formed a unified view since there were several similar constructions (Dwivedi et al. 2011). Many researchers have applied the UTAUT theory to understand the users' attitudes toward technology adoption (Rahi & Abd Ghani, 2018). The UTAUT model introduces four moderators (voluntariness, experience, gender, and age) and four determinants, namely, effort expectancy, performance expectancy, facilitating condition, and social influence. It emphasizes the roles of demographic moderators in explaining the variance of technology adoption (Venkatesh et al., 2003). From the discussion above, the two theories show that, even though some factors were critically related to technology adoption, the demographic divide issue has become a discussion topic for many researchers and policy makers when it comes to technology adoption (Rahman, 2015). Therefore, this study attempts to combine both theories of TAM and UTAUT to identify significant determining factors and moderators of the mobile payment adoption research framework.

Adoption of Mobile Payment. The growth of digital technology has led to the existence of various online payment systems. Mobile payment has received much attention with the emergence of e-environments. Mobile payment is defined as using mobile phones, equipped with necessary functions and applications, to enable moving of funds from the registered user's account to the payment account (Ng & Yip, 2010). Generally, the transaction is carried out via mobile applications provided by authorized service providers (Wang et al., 2013). Although mobile payment has been a topic of discussion since it was first introduced to the market, the adoption rate is not as high as expected. According to Martin (2019), those who use mobile payments only constitute about 13.5% of the total population in Malaysia. Nevertheless, it is predicted that mobile payment's market influence will increase in years to come (Schierz et al., 2010). Like it or not, the

cashless lifestyle is going to replace the traditional lifestyle massively. Therefore, understanding a broader perception of mobile payment adoption in Malaysia will certainly help all participants of the mobile payment ecosystem, such as developers, operators, vendors, and governments, design sustainable strategies to stay competitive in the market (Yap & Ng, 2019).

Perceived Usefulness. TAM is the main theory that has been widely used to explain the acceptance of new technology (Davis et al., 1989). TAM emphasizes users' behavioral and attitudinal intentions to uptake a new technology (Chanchai et al., 2016). Perceived usefulness is the key construct of TAM for analyzing user acceptance of the new payment technology (Susanto et al., 2016). In the context of mobile payment, perceived usefulness is operationally defined as how individuals believe mobile payment technology will enhance their payment transactions (Chanchai et al., 2016). Perceived usefulness will be low if individuals do not understand how mobile payment could be a more effective way to achieve payment outcomes. Teoh et al. (2013) found that a user's inclination to use mobile payment was highly influenced by perceived usefulness, especially in attaining task-related objectives. Likewise, Ramayah and Suki (2006), Chua et al. (2020) provided evidence that perceived usefulness was significantly related to the adoption of various technologies inclusive of mobile payment. Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between perceived usefulness and mobile payment adoption.

Perceived Ease of Use. Perceived ease of use is understood as the extent to which users believe that using mobile payment is easy and free of mental stress (Chua et al., 2020). Ndubisi and Jantan (2003) gave evident explanations that mobile payment users should communicate with the system and felt comfortable to conduct transactions. If the mobile payment service is tedious and troublesome, the perceived ease of use will be low. For example, if the application requires consumers to provide lots of information while processing transactions, consumers may perceive it as difficult to use. To facilitate users with the ease of use concept, a simple design should be created, with clear function keys and symbols on the mobile payment interface (Pagani & Schipani, 2008). Consequently, these ease of use concepts will attract more non-users to adopt mobile payment in the future. A study of Wang and Li (2011) has proven that the adoption rate will be higher when the mobile technology is easier to use. Further, Davis (1989) explained that, even though users understood the usefulness of mobile payment, the trouble with using mobile payment might stop them from using it. Therefore, if we can create simple applications and fit into the model of mobile payment, it will increase the adoption of mobile payment (Venkatesh, 2000). For instance, mobile payment should allow one click pay without having to enter details or provide passcodes for each transaction (Singh, 2019). Based on the above discussion, the following is hypothesized:

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between perceived ease of use and mobile payment adoption.

Perceived Security. Perceived security is defined as the extent where users believe using online mobile payment is secure (Vijayasarathy, 2004). It usually points to the subjective evaluation of mobile payment security (Linck et al., 2006). While mobile payment technology is emerging, Chen (2008) claimed that users still had concerns over security issues such as confidentiality, authentication, authorization, integrity, and non-repudiation. Generally, users are sensitive when it comes to the involvement of personal information, especially when cybersecurity threats continue to lurk on the horizon. Users will decline to use mobile payment if they perceive the level of the security features is low (Tsiakis & Sthephanides, 2005). Kurnia and Benjamin (2007) provided evidence that users' security concerns influenced their adoption of mobile payment. When users encounter security breaches during online transaction, they would reject the usage of a mobile payment system. Past studies (Khraim et al., 2011; Tsiakis & Sthephanides, 2005) had looked into the relationship between perceived security and user acceptance of mobile payment. It was found that perceived security was a significant driver of user's mobile payment adoption, especially when digital service providers provided extra security to keep the users' money secured from unauthorized access (Singh, 2019; Teoh & Md Nor, 2007). Hence, the following is hypothesized:

H3: There is a significant positive relationship between perceived security and mobile payment adoption.

Trust. Trust is explained as a cognitive process, where a person develops trustworthiness and willingness to conduct a payment transaction over the mobile network without having to monitor the mobile payment processes (Yang et al., 2015). Generally, users believe the network service provider is able to provide secure service and expect the online transaction to fulfill its obligations (Cao et al., 2018). However, owing to the presence of uncertainties, payment risks, and privacy and security issues, trust has become a significant factor for users to engage in mobile payment. Teoh et al. (2013) opined that users were generally inclined to use online payment from a trusted service provider. Gefen (2000) further explained that customer's trust in the mobile transaction was important because there was little guarantee that personal data and transaction activity were protected. Transactions conducted over the mobile network are vulnerable and at greater risk. While conducting transactions, customers pay for the services and want their personal information to be protected (Zhou, 2011). Customers with high trust levels over the service provider will use the online mobile payment without fear. Conversely, those with low trust levels will refrain from using it. Previous research, such as Chen and Barnes (2007), had reported that trust had a significant positive relationship with mobile payment adoption. Likewise, Dastan and Gürler (2016) concurred that trust had a positive impact on the adoption of mobile payment, and this notion was also endorsed by Mahad et al. (2015). In short, trust is an essential factor that is able to influence the usage of mobile payment systems (Mondego & Gide, 2018). Hence, the following is hypothesized:

H4: There is a significant positive relationship between trust and mobile payment adoption.

The Moderating Roles of Demographic Divides. According to Venkatesh et al. (2003), demographic variables are important factors to stimulate the adoption of new technology. Previous researchers, like Wei et al. (2009) found that gender was a significant moderator in technology adoption. Rosen and Maguire (1990) discovered that women generally had a higher level of information technology anxiety. Men and women were perceived to process information using different cognitive structures to make decisions (Bem, 1981). Therefore, gender plays a significant role in adopting new technology (Venkatesh & Morris, 2000; Yu, 2012). Recently, income has started to gain more attention in studies of online payment. According to Shiveen and Rahela (2017),

income determines consumers' spending ability. They postulated that high income group users were more likely to make online transactions than low income group users. Nevertheless, Mossberger et al. (2006) and Jung et al. (2001) introduced the role of education in technology adoption. The researchers explained that consumers with higher education levels might possess better understanding in using mobile technology. They are in a better position to adopt mobile payments than the lower education group users (Abeer et al., 2015). Thus, based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are established:

H5a: Gender moderates the relationship between perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived security, trust, and mobile payment adoption.

H5b: Income moderates the relationship between perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived security, trust, and mobile payment adoption.

H5c: Education moderates the relationship between perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived security, trust, and mobile payment adoption.

Research Model. In this study, the proposed research model was established based on the viewpoints from the literature review that link the determining factors, moderating variables (gender, income, education), and mobile payment adoption. The research model is depicted in Figure 1. Demographic Divides and Mobile Payment Adoption

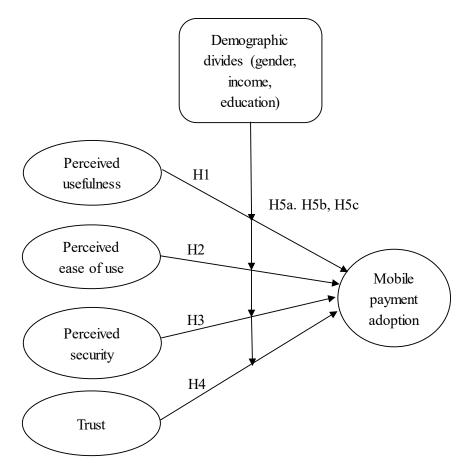


Figure 1. Research model

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sampling Method

The targeted population of this study was urbanites who lived in Malaysia. According to the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2019), there are approximately 32.66 million people living in Malaysia. Urbanites constitute 24.4 million of the population. Hair Jr. et al. (2017) suggested that the minimum sample size for a PLS-SEM research could be determined based on Cohen's (1992) four factors sampling criteria: a) the statistical power, b) the significance level, c) the smallest R^2 value expected, and d) the number of arrows pointing at the target construct. It is common for social science research to be conducted with a statistical power of 80%, a significance level of 5%, and an R^2 value of 0.25 (Wong, 2013). In accordance with the above criteria, the minimum required sample size for a research model of 4 arrows pointing at a target construct is 65. In this study, the researchers used a judgmental sampling method to obtain the samples from the cities of Kuala Lumpur and Johor Bahru. Judgmental sampling method was used because it was the researchers' purpose to select mobile users who lived in these cities (Saunders et al., 2009). The reason for selecting Kuala Lumpur and Johor Bahru as the research sites is that they are the first and second largest urban areas in Malaysia (Tey et al., 2019).

Measures

Measures for the study constructs were adapted from previous studies. Details of the measures are shown in the Appendix. A fivepoint Likert scale was used to indicate the level of agreement among the respondents.

Data Collection Procedure

This research used an online survey questionnaire to collect data and employed

cross-sectional research approach. Data collection was conducted via a pilot study and actual field study. Online survey forms were delivered to the respondents via emails and social networking sites. Respondents were selected based on their current residing locations in Kuala Lumpur and Johor Bahru. Completed questionnaires were collected via online platforms and data was prepared for subsequent analysis.

Pilot Study

A sample size of 30 was randomly selected to conduct a pilot test prior to the field research on a larger sample size. The pilot study results showed that the reliability coefficients were above 0.7 and considered reliable to proceed with mass data collection (see Table 1). The online survey questionnaire was then distributed to the respondents; 428 responses were obtained, and PLS-SEM was used to test the research hypothesis.

Constructs	Number of items	Cases valid	Cronbach's Alpha
MP	6	30	0.848
PU	6	30	0.848
PE	6	30	0.780
PS	6	30	0.945
Т	6	30	0.906

Table 1Reliability coefficients for the pilot study

Notes: n=30

RESULTS

Profile of the Respondents

The survey participants included 175 male respondents and 253 female respondents. Most respondents possessed a bachelor's degree (65.7%). Another 14.5% of the respondents possessed a Master's degree while others were having a Diploma (10.3%), a certificate (8.9%), or a Doctoral degree (0.7%). Given the urbanite samples, most respondents (40.4%) were reported to have a monthly income of RM3001–RM5000, whereas 7.5% of the respondents were earning below RM1000 per month. Details of their demographic profiles are shown in Table 2.

Table 2Profile of the respondents

Description (n=428)	Frequency	Percentage	
Gender			
Male	175	40.9	
Female	253	59.1	
Education			
SPM Certificate	38	8.9	
Diploma	44	10.3	
Bachelor's Degree	281	65.6	
Master's Degree	62	14.5	
Doctoral Degree	3	0.7	
Income			
RM1000 and below	32	7.5	
RM1001-RM3000	122	28.5	
RM3001-RM5000	173	40.4	
RM5000 and above	101	23.6	

Measurement Model Assessment

A two-step approach, recommended by Chin (2010), was used to assess this study's measurement and structural model. First, we examined the measurement model by assessing indicator reliability, composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The values of indicator reliability and composite reliability were all above 0.7, indicating that they were reliable. Next, convergent validity was evaluated by examining the outer loadings and average variance extracted values (AVEs). Those with outer loadings lower than 0.7 were removed from the list of the indicators. An indicator (PE2) was deleted due to low loading value. Other loadings of the study constructs were higher than 0.7 and the AVEs were above 0.5; thus, convergent validity of the model was established (Hair Jr. et al., 2017). The results of the measurement model are shown in Table 3.

Constructs	Indicators	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
MP	MP1	0.881	0.941	0.953	0.772
	MP2	0.861			
	MP3	0.885			
	MP4	0.903			
	MP5	0.848			
	MP6	0.895			
PE	PE1	0.824	0.875	0.909	0.668
	PE3	0.884			
	PE4	0.871			
	PE5	0.787			
	PE6	0.709			
PS	PS1	0.821	0.926	0.942	0.730
	PS2	0.883			
	PS3	0.868			
	PS4	0.867			
	PS5	0.824			
	PS6	0.863			
PU	PU1	0.852	0.919	0.937	0.711
	PU2	0.894			
	PU3	0.846			
	PU4	0.868			
	PU5	0.831			
	PU6	0.763			

Table 3Results of the measurement model

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Constructs	Indicators	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
Т	T1	0.834	0.929	0.944	0.737
	T2	0.861			
	Т3	0.849			
	Τ4	0.886			
	T5	0.873			
	T6	0.847			

Table 3 (Continued)

To assess discriminant validity of the constructs, Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT) was used. The HTMT criterion is a relatively new approach to assessing discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2014). According to Table 4, discriminant validity between any pair of the study constructs was established since all the HTMT values displayed were below 0.90 (Hair Jr. et al., 2017).

	MP	PE	PS	PU	TR
MP					
PE	0.688				
PS	0.560	0.414			
PU	0.760	0.758	0.329		
TR	0.683	0.568	0.762	0.501	

 Table 4

 Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) analysis

Notes: Discriminant validity was established at HTMT < 0.90

Collinearity Assessment

Collinearity assessment is necessary to ensure all the research model's path coefficients are not biased before structural model assessment is conducted. According to the variance inflation factor (VIF) guidelines, it is acceptable if the VIF values for the predictor constructs are less than 5, and the tolerance values stay above 0.2. Table 5 indicates that all the VIF values were lower than 5 and the tolerance levels were above 0.2, thus providing evidence of non-collinearity.

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connearny assessment			
Predictor Constructs	Tolerance	VIF	Target Construct
PE	0.469	2.132	MP
PS	0.495	2.020	
PU	0.501	1.995	
Т	0.411	2.432	

Table 5	
Collinearity	assessment

T 11 6

Notes: VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

Common Method Bias

To examine whether common method bias exists in this study, a collinearity test, suggested by Kock (2015), was conducted. The existence of a VIF greater than 3.3 was proposed as an indication of pathological collinearity, and also a sign to indicate that the model might be contaminated by common method bias. According to Table 5, all VIFs resulting from the collinearity test were lower than 3.3. Hence, the model is considered free of common method bias (Kock, 2015).

Structural Model Assessment

In the present study, the research model was tested, with 428 cases with subsamples of 5000 to estimate the significance of path coefficients using a bootstrapping procedure (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The predictor constructs could explain 65.2% $(R^2 = 0.652)$ of the total variance of mobile payment adoption. The coefficient of determination (R²) is considered moderate in this case (Hair Jr. et al., 2017). The hypothesis testing results showed that all the path coefficients were significant at the level of 1% (p < 0.01) (see Table 6 and Table 7). The lower and upper values of the confidence interval (95%) indicate that the value 0 (zero) does not fall within the intervals. Hence, H1, H2, H3, and H4 are supported. However, the effect sizes for most of the paths were small ($0.02 < f^2 <$ 0.15) except PU \rightarrow MP (f² = 0.305), which is moderate to large, as suggested by Cohen (1988).

Table 6
Structural model assessment and hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Path	β	Standard Errors	<i>t</i> -value	p-value
H1	$PU \rightarrow MP$	0.460***	0.041	11.296	0.000
H2	$\text{PE} \rightarrow \text{MP}$	0.127***	0.048	2.651	0.008

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Table 6 (Continu	ied)				
Hypothesis	Path	β	Standard Errors	<i>t</i> -value	p-value
H3 H4	$\begin{array}{c} PS \rightarrow MP \\ T \rightarrow MP \end{array}$	0.162*** 0.245***	0.047 0.055	3.444 4.492	0.001 0.000

Notes: ***t-values: 2.58 (1%)

Table 7

1 10

Structural model assessment and hypothesis testing (continue)

Hypothesis	Path	Confidence	Confidence Interval (95%)		Decision
H1	$\mathrm{PU} \rightarrow \mathrm{MP}$	0.373	0.543	0.305	Supported
H2	$\text{PE} \rightarrow \text{MP}$	0.042	0.218	0.022	Supported
Н3	PS MP	0.072	0.250	0.037	Supported
H4	$T \rightarrow MP$	0.136	0.349	0.071	Supported

Partial Least Squares-Multiple Group Analysis (PLS-MGA)

This research applied a non-parametric, or Henseler's, PLS-MGA to examine the categorical variables' moderating effects (i.e., gender, education level, and income). The subgroup of the doctoral respondents was discarded from the PLS-MGA analysis since it had only three respondents and caused a singular matrix error. Based on the guidelines provided by Henseler et al. (2009), if the p value of the path coefficients is smaller than 0.05 or greater than 0.95, then there is a significant difference between the groups. According to Table 8, the path coefficient of $PU \rightarrow MP$ for gender is significant, at a 5% error level, where the pvalue is greater than 0.95. Thus, there was a significant difference between the groups where the path coefficient for the females is

significantly higher than the males. Next, the path coefficients of $PU \rightarrow MP$ showed that there were significant differences between groups of education (G2 is higher than G3) (see Table 8) and income (G1 is higher than G2 and G3) (see Table 9). However, the path coefficients of $PS \rightarrow MP$ indicated that there were significant differences between groups of education (G1 is higher than G4; G2 is higher than G3 and G4) (see Table 8). Finally, the results revealed that there were significant differences between groups of education (G1 is higher than G4; G3 is higher than G4) (see Table 8) for path $T \rightarrow MP$. Therefore, from the results of PLS-MGA, it can be concluded that H5a, H5b, and H5c are partially accepted. The results for path $PE \rightarrow MP$ did not indicate any significant difference between groups of gender, education, and income.

Path	p value	<i>p value</i>	p value	p value	<i>p value</i>	p value	<i>p value</i>
	(G1 vs	(G1 vs	(G1 vs	(G2 vs	(G2 vs	(G3 vs	(male vs
	G2)	G3)	G4)	G3)	G4)	G4)	female)
$PE \rightarrow MP$ $PS \rightarrow MP$ $PU \rightarrow MP$ $T \rightarrow MP$	0.799	0.503	0.498	0.688	0.621	0.717	0.571
	0.869	0.058	0.013*	0.034*	0.002*	0.063	0.554
	0.373	0.651	0.868	0.023*	0.284	0.358	0.999*
	0.431	0.137	0.024*	0.756	0.112	0.028*	0.944

Table 8
PLS-MGA results for education and gender groups

Notes: G1 (SPM certificate), G2 (Diploma), G3 (Bachelor's degree), G4 (Master's degree)

*Significant differences between groups at 5% error level (p < 0.05 or p > 0.95)

 Table 9

 PLS-MGA results for the income groups

((G1 vs	(G2 vs	(G2 vs	<i>p value</i> (G3 vs
	/	- /	G4) 0.623	G3) 0.753	G4) 0.266	G4) 0.104
			0.010			0.629
10,111						0.593 0.501

Notes: G1 (RM1000 and below), G2 (RM1001-3000), G3 (RM3001-5000), G4 (RM5000 and above) *Significant differences between groups at 5% error level (p < 0.05 or p > 0.95)

DISCUSSION

Results Discussion

According to the analytical results of this study, all predictor constructs are significantly related to the target construct. The finding of PU \rightarrow MP ($\beta = 0.460, p < 0.01$) concurs with the study of Leon (2018), which perceived usefulness was said to bring a more effective way to the users in making mobile payment if they understood the usefulness of the payment technology. Likewise, the statistical results also revealed that perceived ease of use was significantly

associated with mobile payment adoption (PE \rightarrow MP, $\beta = 0.127$, p < 0.01). This finding supports the study of Teoh et al. (2013), who explained that mobile phone users usually corresponded to the ease of use of the services and minimal efforts required to perform transactions. To a certain extent, they found it easier to learn, use, and had control over the transaction processes. Next, the hypothesis testing results indicated that there is a significant association between perceived security and mobile payment adoption (PS \rightarrow MP, $\beta = 0.162$, p < 0.01).

This finding agrees with the studies of Seetharaman et al. (2017) and Khraim et al. (2011). These researchers provided empirical evidence to show that transaction information security generally guaranteed the system was safe in every transaction process. Nevertheless, the relationship between trust and mobile payment adoption was also found significant at the level of 1% (T \rightarrow MP, $\beta = 0.245$, p < 0.01). This result is consistent with the research finding of Chanchai et al. (2016). They asserted that trust was a significant factor that could not be ignored in raising mobile payment adoption.

When investigating gender as a moderator, the PLS-MGA results show that females significantly moderated the path PU \rightarrow MP, p = 0.999. This finding is in contrast to the studies of Venkatesh and Morris (2000) in which they found that males actually emphasized perceived usefulness when it came to mobile payment usage. However, our finding corroborates Goh and Sun's (2014) study, where they explained females were stronger than males in terms of perceived usefulness with regard to mobile payment. The plausible explanation for this finding is that females tend to use mobile payment because their level of consumption behavior is higher than males and they perceive mobile payment as highly convenient and useful (Susanto et al., 2016). Next, we examined the moderating role of education level toward mobile payment adoption. Education was found moderating most of the paths in the research model (i.e., $PS \rightarrow MP$, $PU \rightarrow MP$, $T \rightarrow MP$). According

to the analysis results, it shows that less educated users are significantly higher than those educated urbanites in using mobile payment. This finding disagrees with the study of Cao et al. (2018), who discovered that educated users tended to use more mobile payment owing to their ability to use the mobile device and technology. Inconsistency of this result could be attributed to the mobile payment system design that is more user-friendly, easy-tolearn, and hassle-free for most of the less educated users (Pagani & Schipani, 2008). Finally, the PLS-MGA results indicate that the lower income group (RM1000 and below) had higher perceived usefulness in using mobile payment rather than the other income groups (i.e., RM1001-RM3000 & RM3001-RM5000). This unexpected finding goes against the study of Ansari and Farooqi (2017) who mentioned individuals with higher earnings were more inclined to use mobile payment. The possible reason for this finding is that lower income groups may have higher adaptability to digital payment technology and perceived it as an efficient tool for making payments (Teoh et al., 2013). As for path PE \rightarrow MP, there is no moderating effect detected. Thus, there is no difference between perceived ease of use and mobile payment adoption among the groups of respondents.

Theoretical Implications

Although there are numerous studies in the field mobile payment adoption, few have examined the moderating effects of demographic divides on mobile payment

adoption in a developing country like Malaysia. This study attempts to examine the roles of gender, income, and education in understanding dissimilar patterns of urbanites in adopting mobile payment methods. The moderators were tested in a research model that integrated two wellknown theories of TAM and UTAUT. The results revealed that the proposed model has good explanatory power in predicting mobile payment adoption. For researchers, this study offers a basis in understanding how demographic divides affect the tendency of individuals to use mobile payment. Interestingly, some unexpected findings were discovered in this study; the lower income group has higher perceived usefulness in mobile payment, and less educated individuals are more likely to adopt mobile payment. These findings further confirmed that demographic divides lead to users' different behaviors and inclination to adopt new technology. Hence, this study provides new information for future researchers to include demographic factors as moderators in the research model when it comes to new technology adoption.

Managerial Implications

Based on the hypothesis testing results, perceived usefulness has the highest effect size at 0.305. Therefore, managerial actions should focus on perceived usefulness in this aspect. When considering the importance of perceived usefulness, the functional design of mobile payment application should prioritize the usefulness of the intended service. Mobile payment service providers should establish strategies in delivering value propositions to the users that meet their needs, values, and lifestyle. Extraneous processes and procedures should be avoided to bring more effective ways in making transactions (Chen, 2008). Perhaps service providers and banking institutions should work together to provide extra benefits to the users, such as reduced transaction costs and guarantee return of payment if the transaction is wrongly made. Apart from that, timely notifications and accessibility to relevant information are crucial in providing the sense of usefulness to the users as they are fond of instant gratification. Immediate acknowledgment apparently satisfies the users' eagerness of efficient feedback. Additionally, the payment system interface should be designed in tandem with the functionality of the application as users are expecting the device to make their lives easier. Extra efforts should be given to young female users who are often receptive to new trends of payment and transactions. Service providers are also advised to keep users informed about the advantages and extra features of mobile payment and personalize it according to their preferences. Moreover, the government and service providers could actually focus on certain groups of users (i.e., females, less educated, low income) to increase the usage of mobile payment. Special efforts should also assess the needs of other non-active users, such as paying more attention to their feedback, concerns, and other obstacles that distance them from using mobile payment. The assessment outcome is essential to identify the causes of hesitancy among the potential users in using mobile payment (Rahman, 2015).

CONCLUSION

Theoretically, this study has successfully examined the impact of demographic divides on mobile payment adoption in Malaysia. It highlights the moderating effects of gender, income, and education on the relationship between the determining factors and mobile payment adoption. Practically, it pinpoints perceived usefulness as the most important predictor construct for managerial actions. Thus, related parties, like banking institutions, mobile service providers, and the government should articulate the usefulness of mobile payment consistently to gain more participants in this payment technology. The findings of this study also suggest that focusing on the significant groups based on the moderating results should be able to increase the number of mobile payment users in the future.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations that need to be considered for future research. First, this study examined the adoption of mobile payment specifically among the urbanites community. The samples obtained cannot be generalized toward the rural population. It is suggested that future research should consider including rural areas as a research population. Second, the study was conducted in Malaysia; the findings may not be generalizable to other countries. Future studies may attempt to broaden the research scope across countries and conduct a comparative study. Third, the predictor constructs extracted from TAM and UTAUT in this study may not be adequate in predicting mobile payment adoption. Future researchers may consider using other predictor constructs, such as service quality, system quality, users' needs, and satisfaction to increase the research model's predictability.

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APPENDIX

Measures for the study constructs

Construct	Measures	Source
Mobile Payment Adoption (MP)	I am willing to adopt mobile payment in the near future. Given a chance, I intend to adopt mobile payments in the future. I foresee that I will adopt mobile payment services in the next 6 months. I plan to adopt mobile payment as soon as possible. I prefer to use mobile payment than any other payment method in the future. I will strongly recommend mobile payment to my friends.	Venkatesh and Davis (2000), Xin et al. (2013), Liu and Tai (2016).
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	 Mobile payment is useful for me to pay for products or services. Mobile payment makes it efficient for me to pay for products or services. Mobile payment saves my time for products or services payment. Mobile payment makes it convenient for me to make payment. I find mobile payment is very effective in making transaction. Mobile payment requires less effort and time compared to conventional payment methods. 	Bhattacherjee (2001), Van der Heijden (2004).
Perceived Ease of Use (PE)	It is easy to learn how to use mobile payment. When using mobile payment, it rarely confused me. It is clear and understandable to use mobile payment. I have no difficulty to use mobile payment. When using mobile payment, I rarely make mistakes. When using mobile payment, I rarely get frustrated.	Trivedi (2016)
Perceived Security (PS)	 It is secured to provide sensitive information over the mobile payment services. It is safe to provide personal information over the mobile payment services. I have confidence in using mobile payment because third parties are not allowed to gain access to my account. I find it secured to conduct transactions over mobile payment system. I have confidence and without fear to use my credit card over mobile payment system. I believe transaction information over mobile payment will not be used by irresponsible parties. 	Lwoga and Lwoga (2017), Aydin and Burnaz (2016), Yenisey et al. (2005).

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APPENDIX (Continued)

Construct	Measures	Source
Trust (T)	Mobile payment service providers always provide accurate financial update. Mobile payment service providers always provide reliable financial services. Mobile payment service providers always safeguard financial information. I believe mobile payment services. I trust mobile payment services. I believe mobile payment service providers are honest.	Lwoga and Lwoga (2017), Xin et al. (2013), Pavlou (2003).



SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

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Tourist Experience, Tourist Motivation and Destination Loyalty for Historic and Cultural Tourists

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty for historic and cultural tourists. A survey of 1,389 tourists who visited Sheqi, an ancient town in center China was conducted as the basis for empirical analysis. The results of this study revealed that tourists' experience influenced destination loyalty positively, and tourist motivation mediated the effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty significantly.

Keywords: Destination loyalty, historic and cultural tourism, mediating effect, tourist experience, tourist motivation

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INTRODUCTION

Both academics and practitioners attach great importance to service quality in service marketing and the same is true for tourism. Insufficient attention has been given to another related factor, the experience of the service. Service experience involves the subjective personal feelings and reactions consumers have when they consume a service (Chen & Chen, 2010). According to Pine and Gilmore (1999), besides

consuming products and services, consumers seek unique and memorable experiences during their consumption process. So it is necessary for service providers to shift their mechanism from the "delivery-focused" service economy characterized by offering high service quality to "staged" experience economy that creates distinctive and memorable experiences (Oh et al., 2007). For tourism services, most tourists travel because they want to enjoy experiences that are different from their daily life, so it is particularly important to pay more attention to the experiences that tourists can enjoy. A better understanding of tourist experiences may provide industry with a breakthrough opportunity needed to cause practitioners to perform better.

Historic and cultural tourism is a special area of tourism which has become more and more popular (Chen & Chen, 2010). In China, there are a lot of ancient cities and villages which have abundant historic and cultural tourism resources. Local government departments of these historic places develop historic and cultural tourism sites by making use of these historic resources to create employment opportunities and prompt the transformation and upgrading of the local economic structure. The revitalization of historic places led by tourism has driven the boom in historic and cultural tourism across China. After rapid development over several years, an apparent trend in historic and cultural tourism in China has emerged which is consistent with the general global trend. Most historic attractions have

changed from being product-centered sites that focus on exhibitions and exposition, to visitor-centered sites that highlight tourist experiences (Apostolakis & Jaffry, 2005). Since tourism, especially historic and cultural tourism, is basically a form of experiential consumption, the visitorcentered or experience-centered thinking provides the historic attractions with new approaches to differentiating themselves in an ever fiercercompetitive environment.

Although experience has played an important role in tourism, research on such experience has not been investigated in great depth. Most previous studies on tourist experience were focused on definitions of the tourism experience (Larsen, 2007; Palmer, 2005; Trauer & Ryan, 2005), dimensions of tourism experience (Uriely et al., 2002; White & White, 2004) and conceptual models of the tourism experience (Cohen, 2004; Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; O'Dell, 2007). Research on the experiences of specific tourism experiences at historic and cultural sites is very limited. In China, the issue of tourist experience has not been addressed at all from the perspective of historic cultural tourism. Most studies regarding Chinese historic cultural destination management have focused on preservation and tourism development (Cheng, 2017), tourism industry market development (Tong, 2017), tourism planning and development (He & Li, 2019) and evaluation of the tourism environment (Feng et al., 2013) of historic sites. The few studies in relation to tourist behaviour have centered on tourist expectations, service quality, perceived value and tourist satisfaction (Wang & Mei, 2006; Wang et al., 2009). It has been shown that a good tourist experience has a positive impact on destination loyalty (Lee et al., 2007). As a big country with an ancient civilization and long history, China has numerous historic cultural attractions. There are, for example, 291 historic cultural cities and 1,253 historic cultural towns and villages registered as of 2018. To increase visitors' destination loyalty, historic and cultural attraction administration should emphasize providing high quality, desirable experiences that can add the perception of value to visitors followed by relevant research on tourist experiences in this sector. As such, the main objective of this study was to explore the service experience of historic cultural tourists in China and the relationship between tourist experience, intermediary construct and positive behavioural intention, i.e. destination loyalty. Insight into these relationships will help historic cultural attraction managers better understand visitors and satisfy their needs in a more favourable way.

The body of this article consists of five parts. Part 1 introduces the background, necessity and main purpose of this research and is followed by the literature review, which investigates past research concerning the main variables, namely, tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty and illustrates the gap in knowledge to be interrogated by the research. Part 3 involves a description of the materials and research methods of this study. The results are presented in part 4. In part 5, the discussion and contribution to knowledge, as well as research limitations and future research suggestions are provided.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourist Experience

Tourist experience had become an important research issue in the 1960s and grew to be popular in the social science literature by the 1970s (Quan & Wang, 2004). However, at that time tourist experience was discussed fragmentarily. After the 1990s, systematic research approaches, from qualitative studies to quantitative studies, were used to study tourist experience (Andereck et al., 2006).

In tourism research, experiences are viewed as the totality of the emotional, physical, spiritual and intellectual state of being when a person interacts with an event or special place (Noy, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). This is a complex psychological process that is distinct from everyday experiences (Cohen, 2004). While defining tourist experience, both on-site experiences and past travel experiences are proposed and emphasized. On-site experience is defined as the interaction between tourists and attractions during the visiting process (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003). Past travel experience is defined as an event special enough that it can form a long-term memory for the tourists

(Larsen, 2007). O'Dell (2007) argued that tourist experience engaged not only the tourist but also the tourism industries that participated in the process of generation, staging and consumption of experience.

Though there are various definitions of the tourist experience, researchers had the common opinion that tourist experience was a subjective and personal concept (Li, 2000). Consequently, it can only be explained and understood by considering the specific individuals involved and the specific environment whence experiences derived (Jennings, 2006). Most of these definitions focus on the experiences on site, however, tourist experiences usually began before the visitation and developed throughout the visitation process and lasted after the trip in the form of the memory and communication of the events experienced (Clawson & Knetsch, 1966).

Motivation

Motivation is defined as psychological/ biological needs and wants which arouse, direct, and integrate a person's behaviour and activity (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Tourist motivation is the intrinsic power that directly promotes people's tourism behavior (Wang & Mei, 2006). In tourism research, tourists' motivations can be classified into two categories, namely push forces and pull forces (Dann, 1981). Push forces indicates the inner desires that cause people to travel, such as escaping reality, relaxation, exercising, adventure and exploration. Meanwhile, pull forces refer to the attributes of the tourism destination which attract the tourists, for example, natural scenery, leisure facilities, cultural atmosphere, events and catering (Crompton, 1979). Past research had shown that tourist motivation was related to tourist satisfaction (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and tourist behaviour (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984).

Destination Loyalty

Since customer loyalty was proposed as a concept by Copeland in 1923, there have been more than 200 definitions of customer loyalty. There are basically three categories of opinions in this regard. The first category of opinion on customer loyalty is behavioural loyalty as described by Jacoby and Chestnut (1978), who explained customer loyalty from the perspective of repeated purchasing. In their opinion, customer loyalty was measured by customers' degree of patronage, sequence of purchase and probability of purchase. The second typical opinion about customer loyalty concerns attitudinal loyalty (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Positive emotional attitude was believed to be an indicator of positive behavioural intention for product or service and was seen as customer loyalty. The integration of behavioural and attitudinal loyalty is the third opinion. Dick and Basu (1994) argued that true customer loyalty should be considered the repeated purchasing action with relatively high attitudinal tendency.

In the past three decades, the concept of customer loyalty has been incorporated into the tourism context (Jang & Feng, 2007; Mazanec, 2000). Consistent with the research studies in other sectors of service marketing, some researchers suggested that tourist loyalty was also bi-dimensional and comprised both attitudinal preference and behavioural revisit intention (Wang et al., 2009). The product in tourism is unique, tourists' motivations are complicated and tourism activities are influenced by time, distance and other objective factors. As a result, destination loyalty cannot be restricted to repeated visits only (Oppemann, 2000; Postma & Jenkins, 1997).

Relationships Between Variables

Undoubtedly, tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty are of great importance for historic cultural destinations. However, studies exploring the relationships between these variables are rare. In previous research, perceived quality, motivation and satisfaction were defined as the major antecedents affecting destination loyalty (Wang & Mei, 2006). However, in the tourism context, especially for historic cultural destinations, the concept of tourist experience is suggested to be more appropriate than perceived quality as a predictor of tourists' behavioural intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010). Kao et al. (2008) found that experiential quality had a positive relationship with tourist satisfaction, which affected visitors' behavioural intentions positively in a theme park study. Some other studies on nature parks and urban tours also found that tourist experience influenced tourist behavioral tendency positively directly and indirectly (Chen, 2015; Zhou, 2016). Although the impact of tourist experiences on loyalty for historic cultural destinations has been demonstrated, there are few research studies regarding tourist motivation for historic cultural destinations. Tourist motivation has been empirically demonstrated to have a positive influence on destination loyalty (Wang & Mei, 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which leads to the question, what is the relationship between tourist experience and motivation for historic cultural tourists? Further, what is the mechanism underlying the relationships between tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty for historic cultural attracts? This study tries to cast some light on this question. It seems reasonable that the motivation for particular visits may come from previous tourism experience. Thus, it was assumed in this study that tourist motivation would play a mediating role in the relationship between tourist experience and destination loyalty.

Based on past studies, the relationships between variables were proposed (Figure 1) and four hypotheses were put forward, as follows:

- 1. H1 Tourist experience influences destination loyalty significantly.
- 2. H2 Tourist experience has a significant effect on tourist motivation.
- 3. H3 Tourist motivation has a significant effect on destination loyalty.
- H4 Tourist motivation plays a mediating role in the association between tourist experience and destination loyalty.

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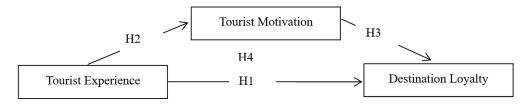


Figure 1. Proposed hypothetical model

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Questionnaire Design and Operationalization of Constructs

The three variables in this study are latent variables that cannot be measured directly; hence, observed variables were used in the questionnaire. The survey instrument was based on a thorough literature review and in-depth interviews with experts familiar with the peculiarities of the destination were also taken into account. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part A contained three sets of questions to measure tourists' experience, motivation and destination loyalty with a total of 27 items. A five-point Likert-type scale was used as the response format. Part B consisted of 11 questions reflecting the respondents' demographic characteristics and travel behaviour.

Operationalization of Tourist Experience.

There are no uniform measurements for the tourist experience. In the past, there had only been a few empirical research studies about tourist experience and the construct was measured in different ways. Wang and Mei (2006) used perceived quality of services received by tourists as the measurement of tourist experience. Otto and Ritchie (1996) developed a four-factor experience scale, consisting of hedonics, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. From a different point of view, Kao et al. (2008) suggested four different dimensions of tourist experience, i.e. immersion, surprise, participation and fun.

Based on Pine and Gilmore's (2011) four realms of experience, Oh et al. (2007) developed a questionnaire to measure tourist experience and used variables following Churchill's (1979) procedure for developing a measurement scale. The experience scales were proven empirically reliable and valid (Oh et al., 2007). The scenario of their research was similar to this study and, therefore, this study has adopted the measurement scale of tourist experience with minimal changes to reflect the specific offerings and circumstances of the specific destination.

There were four main sections to identify the dimensions of the tourists' experience of the attraction; namely, education, aesthetics, entertainment and escapism. Each dimension has four items (see Table 1). Respondents were required to determine the degree to which each statement reflects their experience of visiting the ancient town along a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

The total Cronbach α for the measurement was 0.963, which indicated good internal consistency of the construct.

Operationalization of Motivation. From the perspective of an anthropologist, tourists travel to escape the routine of daily life and seek authentic experiences (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). From a socio-psychological point of view, tourist motivation involves seeking and avoidance dimensions (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Several studies have used push forces such as the desire for escape, health and fitness, rest and relaxation, family togetherness and adventure, as well as pull forces such as cultural attractions, beaches, recreation facilities, entertainment, natural scenery, parks and shopping, to measure tourist motivation (Pyo et al., 1989; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Based on these studies and considering also the reality of the research object and the results of interviews with some tourists of historical and cultural attractions, eight items including both push and pull forces were utilised to measure tourist motivation (see Table 1) All items

used a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = not important at all to 5 = very important. The total Cronbach α for the measurement was 0.900, which indicated good internal consistency of the construct.

Operationalization of Destination Loyalty.

Many research studies viewed tourist loyalty as bi-dimensional, including both attitudinal commitment and behavioural revisit intention (Bigné et al., 2001; Hui et al., 2007). Revisit intentions and willingness to make recommendations have been shown to be reasonable measures of tourist loyalty (Wang & Mei, 2006). With the rapid spread of social media applications, more and more tourists have tended to share and find tourism information online and so word of mouth has played an ever more important role in the tourism industry. Consequently, three items, namely "Revisit," "Make positive word-of-mouth" and "Recommend it to others" were used to measure destination loyalty. Respondents were asked to evaluate these items along a five-point scale (1 =strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

The total Cronbach α for the measurement was 0.943, which indicated good internal consistency of the construct.

Table 1Measurement of the constructs

Constructs and Factors	Items
Experience	
Education (ED)	The experience has made me more knowledgeable
	I learned a lot

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Table 1 (Continued)

Constructs and Factors	Items
	It stimulated my curiosity to learn new things
	It was a real learning experience
Esthetics (ES)	I felt a real sense of harmony
	Just being here was very pleasant
	The setting really showed attention to design details
	The setting was very attractive
Entertainment (EN)	It's interesting to visit here
	It's boring to visit here
	It's enjoyable to visit here
	It's fun to visit here
Escapism (EC)	I felt I played a different character here
	I felt like I was living in a different time or place
	I completely escaped from reality
	I totally forgot about my daily routine
Motivation	
Push (PS)	I visit here to broaden my knowledge
	I visit here to relax
	I visit here to escape from daily routine
	I visit here to visit relatives and friends
Pull (PL)	I visit here to seek cultural identity
	I visit here to appreciate original and authentic ancient
	buildings and surroundings
	I visit here to enjoy the beautiful scenery
	I visit here to taste special delicious foods
Destination Loyalty	I will revisit here later
	I will make positive word-of-mouth
	I will recommend it to others

Sample Design and Data Collection

The questionnaire survey was conducted during May 2019 at an ancient town, namely Sheqi, a historic and cultural site located in central China. Since central China is the cradle of Chinese civilization and has abundant historic cultural tourism resources and Sheqi is a typical historic attraction with a well-documented history and valuable, well preserved heritage and cultural relics and has shown its ability to be sustainable over a long period of time. Although Sheqi has valuable heritage, it is not famous in China owing to inconvenient transportation and less developed tourism infrastructure. Only tourists from Henan province and a few nearby provinces have visited Sheqi ancient town. So the survey targeted Chinese tourists visiting the ancient town with a questionnaire in Chinese language. A convenience sampling method was adopted because of limited time and manpower. After a short training session concerning questionnaire survey skills given by the principal researcher, some experienced tour guides were asked to help distribute the questionnaires to different groups of tourists. The questionnaire was distributed at the exit and the service centre of the attraction. Visitors who had completed their visits were asked about their willingness to participate in the questionnaire survey. If they were willing, they were asked to complete the questionnaire either on paper or on the cellphone by scanning the QR code. Since structural equation modeling (SEM) would be used to test the hypotheses

later, according to the sampling principle of SEM and the average number of tourists visiting the ancient town, i.e. 30,000 visitors per month, a total of 1,500 questionnaires was distributed and 1,389 usable responses were obtained with 111 unacceptable questionnaires removed. The response rate was 92.6%.

Data Analysis Methods

In most applied research, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach has been used to test mediating effects. In recent years, however, many researchers of methodology (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Zhao et al., 2010) questioned the rationality of the causal steps approach. Subsequently, the bootstrap method has been adopted as a more effective approach to testing mediating effects (Wen & Ye, 2014). Consequently, the Bootstrap method has been used to test the significance of the mediating effect in this study.

The data collected were normally distributed according to the normal test and confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the validity of the measurement model. Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed to explore the associations between destination loyalty, tourist experience and tourist motivation. The Bootstrap method was used to test the significance of the mediating effect. Furthermore, SEM among latent variables was established to verify further the mediating effect with Mplus7.0 statistical software.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study found that there were slightly more female visitors (51.6%) than male. The majority of respondents were aged between 18 and 49 (91.6%), originating from Nanyang district and other districts of Henan province (70.8%) and had at least three years of college education (82.5%), with a monthly income of less than 5000 Yuan (72.5%). Many respondents knew about the ancient town through recommendations by family and friends (46.2%) and visited with friends and family members (64.9%).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis results

To test the discriminant validity of the three latent variables, namely destination loyalty, tourist experience and tourist motivation, confirmatory factor analysis was employed using Mplus 7.0 software. Considering that there were many measuring items corresponding to the variable of tourist experience, in order to improve the degree of fit of the model, the corresponding items of the latent variable of tourist experience were parceled to four observed entries (Wu & Wen, 2011). The results of confirmatory factor analyses in Table 2 showed that, compared with the single- and two-factor models, the three-factor model had the best fit. It suggested that the three latent variables used in this study were highly discriminated and the validity of the survey instrument was more than acceptable.

	,					
Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor model;DL;TE;TM	342.716	87	3.939	0.941	0.929	0.077
Two-factor model;DL+TM;TE	3961.506	89	44.511	0.831	0.800	0.177
Two-factor model;DL;TE+TM	4320.872	89	48.549	0.815	0.782	0.185
Single factor model;DL+TE+TM	5320.867	90	59.121	0.772	0.733	0.205

Note: DL means destination loyalty; TE means tourist experience; TM means tourist motivation

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Table 2

Common Method Deviation Test

All data of the research were collected from the questionnaires filled in by tourists independently, and the same-origin data may affect the reliability of the research conclusion. Harman's single-factor test was employed to assess the likelihood of influence of common method variance by entering 27 observed variables to the unrotated factor analysis (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The results showed that the eigenvalues of the three factors were greater than 1, and the variance explained by the first principle component was 18.322%, much lower than the critical value of 40%, indicating that there is no obvious deviation of common method which will not influence the reliability of the results.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analyses

The mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficient of latent variables were statistically analyzed using SPSS 24.0. As shown in Table 3, the mean and standard deviation of each variable were within the acceptable range. According to the correlation coefficient between variables, a significant correlation exists between destination loyalty, tourist experience, and tourist motivation. Tourist experience was positively correlated with destination loyalty (r=0.839, P<0.01), tourist motivation and destination loyalty had positive relationship (r=0.694, P<0.01), and tourist experience and tourist motivation also related to each other positively (r=0.751, P<0.01). The results of related analysis preliminarily illustrate the relationship between variables assumed, providing a basis for further data analysis.

Means, standard deviation, and correlation efficient for variables ($N=1389$)							
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Gender							
Education level	-0.068*						
Monthly income	-0.181**	0.369**					
DL	0.005	0.014	-0.033				
TE	0.014	-0.033	-0.084**	0.839**			
ТМ	0.020	0.031	-0.022	0.694**	0.751**		
Mean	1.620	3.010	1.590	4.061	3.971	3.773	
S.D.	0.486	0.887	1.069	0.88835	0.87733	0.88314	

 Table 3

 Means, standard deviation, and correlation efficient for variables (N=1389)

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Hypotheses Testing

Model 14 of the macro-program of PROCESS in SPSS software was employed to test the mediating effect of the relationship between tourist experience and destination loyalty under the control of gender, education level and monthly income. The results (see Table 4 and Table 5) showed that the positive prediction effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty was significant ($\beta = 0.853$, p< 0.01) and the direct prediction effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty was still significant when the mediating variable was included ($\beta = 0.746$, p < 0.01), which indicated that H1 was verified. It also could be seen that tourist experience had a significant positive predictive effect on tourist motivation ($\beta = 0.758$, p < 0.01) and

tourist motivation had a significant positive predictive effect on destination loyalty $(\beta = 0.141, p < 0.01)$, which suggested that both H2 and H3 were supported. Furthermore, the lower and upper bootstrap 95% confidence interval of the direct effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty $(0.703 \sim 0.789)$ and the mediating effect of tourist motivation (0.064~0.151) all excluded 0 (Table 5), thereby indicating that tourist experience could predict destination loyalty both directly through the main effect and indirectly through the mediating effect of tourist motivation. The main effect (0.746)and mediating effect (0.107) accounted for 87.46% and 12.54% of the total effect (0.853) respectively. Consequently, H4 was also verified.

Viable	DL			TM		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Constant	0.538	0.089	6.015	0.535	0.108	4.940**
Gender	0.002	0.027	0.063	0.033	0.033	1.004
Education level	0.032	0.016	2.066*	0.046	0.019	2.439*
Monthly income	0.022	0.013	1.643	0.022	0.016	1.396
TE	0.853	0.015	57.653**	0.758	0.018	42.359**
TM	-	-	-	-	-	-
R-square	0.841			0.752		
F	833.212**			450.565**		

Table 4
Mediating effect of tourist motivation

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Tourist Experience, Tourist Motivation and Destination Loyalty

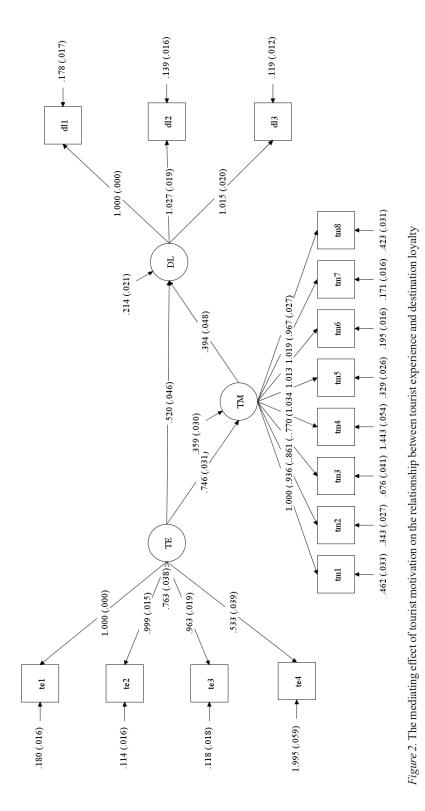
Viable	DL				
	β	SE	t		
Constant	0.463	0.089	5.203**		
Gender	-0.003	0.027	-0.109		
Education level	0.026	0.016	1.672		
Monthly income	0.019	0.013	1.420		
TE	0.746	0.022	33.772**		
TM	0.141	0.022	6.418**		
R-square	0.8456				
F	694.159***				

 Table 5

 Total effect, main effect and the mediating effect

Effect	Value of effect	S.D.	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval	Relative effect
Total effect	0.853	0.015	$0.824 \sim 0.882$	-
Direct effect	0.746	0.022	0.703~0.789	87.46%
Intermediary effect	0.107	0.023	0.064~0.151	12.54%

To measure further the relationship between tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty comprehensively and accurately, as well as eliminate the interference of measurement errors on the research results, Mplus7.0 was used to re-test the hypothesis model (Figure 2) (Fang & Wen, 2018). Considering that there were many measuring items corresponding to the variable of tourist experience and to improve the degree of fit of the model, the corresponding items of the latent variable of tourist experience were parceled in four observed entries, based on which the hypothesis model was developed. The results indicated that the model fitting was acceptable ($\chi^2/df = 3.973$, CFI = 0.941, TLI = 0.929, RMSEA = 0.077, SRMR = 0.038).



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CONCLUSION

Contribution to Knowledge

The empirical results of this study proved that the proposed hypothetical model designed to consider tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty simultaneously for historic cultural destinations in China was acceptable, thereby filling this gap in the literature. In past studies, researchers attached great importance to the individual construct and other variables influencing destination loyalty such as perception of quality, expectation, destination image, perception of value and tourist satisfaction (Wang et al., 2009; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, there has been a lack of focus on the construct of tourist experience, especially in terms of conceptual models and empirical studies pertaining to causal relationships among tourist experience, tourist loyalty and other constructs.'

Furthermore, this study provided empirical evidence that tourist experience had a positive effect on tourist motivation. Previous studies examine the construct of motivation as an antecedent of travel satisfaction (Wang et al., 2009; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, no research concerning variables that affect tourist motivation has been done so far as is known. Meanwhile, it was demonstrated in this study that tourist motivation had a significant impact on destination loyalty of historic cultural tourists, which was in line with the findings of Yoon & Uysal (2005).

The mediating effect of tourist motivation in the relationship between

tourist experience and loyalty was verified in this study, which provided a detailed explanation of the effecting mechanism of tourist experience on destination loyalty.

This study fills the theoretical gaps both in tourist experience research for Chinese historic cultural destinations and in relationships between tourist experience and tourist motivation. It was believed that this study had the capability of developing more precise studies and applications of tourism behavior, especially concerning the tourist experience, tourist motivation and destination loyalty.

Managerial Implications

The findings of this has managerial implications for the success of the marketing of Sheqi ancient town and other historic cultural destinations. With the rapid development of historic tourism in China in recent years, competition among historic destinations has become increasingly fierce. In China, there are more than 2,000 ancient towns which have developed or are developing historic tourism. However, the number of ancient towns that tourists can name is less than ten. Since so many ancient towns have marketed themselves in a similar way, they end up promoting similar buildings, activities and commodities. The results in tourist fatigue and lack of destination loyalty. As shown empirically in this study, if tourists obtain unique and memorable experiences about a specific destination, they will be willing to revisit it, make positive word-of-mouth about it and recommend it to other people. So, it is

worthwhile for historic cultural destinations to make significant investments in their destinations to enhance tourists' experiences and improve their loyalty towards the destination. Besides, this study found that tourist motivation mediated the effect of tourist experience on destination loyalty, which indicated that historic destination managers should give attention to tourists' motivation for travelling. As shown in Figure 2, for the specific destination in this study, i.e. Sheqi ancient town, the tourists' motivation to broaden knowledge, relax, seek cultural identity and appreciate original and authentic ancient buildings and surroundings should be stressed by the destination manager so as to enhance tourists' experience and increase the attractiveness of the destination.

Finally, the findings of this study also indicate that destination loyalty did not manifest only as revisit intention. Owing to the economic conditions of the family, diversity of travel motivation and limitation of travelling time, satisfactory tourist experiences alone could not ensure their revisit to a specific destination. However, they were willing to make recommendations and provide positive word-of-mouth, which could be seen as another aspect of destination loyalty. From this perspective, destination managers should comprehend destination loyalty from the twin dimensions of behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty. On the one hand, measures should be taken to encourage tourists to revisit the destination while, on the other hand, diverse platforms, such as social media platforms,

should be provided for tourists to provide positive word-of-mouth publicity and recommendations.

Although this research was conducted in one particular ancient town, Sheqi, the managerial implications for enhancing tourists' experiences and taking advantage of diverse platforms to facilitate positive word-of-mouth could be adopted by other historic cultural attractions to improve their marketing performances.

Policy Implications

The findings of this study also have some policy implications for the Chinese tourism industry. In 1982, 1986 and 1994, the Chinese State Council identified three batches of famous national historic cultural cities followed by subsequent supplementary batches. In total, there have been more than 2,000 famous Chinese historic cultural cities, town and villages registered in different areas of China as of the end of 2018. Now they are being used to encourage the development of the economy and society by developing the tourism industry in China and many historic cultural destinations are jumping on the tourism bandwagon. However, many historic cultural destinations have made use of homogenous approaches and lack distinctive attractiveness. This research found that the tourist experience played a very important role in tourist behaviour regarding its relations with tourist motivation and destination loyalty. Consequently, the policy makers should guide historic cultural destinations to build their own unique image and develop special

tourism projects based on their personal resources and characteristics so as to enhance the tourist experience. Moreover, professional tourism talent training programs should be launched to improve the qualities, skills and performances of tourism practitioners. Tourism policies should lead Chinese tourism industry development in a healthy environment and a highly professional way to transcend the low level homogeneous competition currently found. From this perspective, these findings could benefit other ancient cultural attractions across China.

Limitations and Future Research

In terms of the sample obtained, owing to the limitations of the research site, only tourists visiting the small ancient town of Sheqi were surveyed and most of the respondents came from the same province, which might not reflect the general conditions of destination loyalty to historic cultural attractions in China overall. Future studies may consider different historic cultural attractions such as Zhuxian ancient town, Shenhou ancient town, Jingziguan ancient town, Tiemen ancient town and Huimeng ancient town in central China, Zhouzhuang, Luzhi in eastern China and Pingyao and Luodai in western of China, for greater generalization. Secondly, destination loyalty was proven to be influenced by diverse variables (Wang & Mei, 2006) and this study focused on the impact of tourist experience and tourist motivation on destination loyalty for a historic cultural attraction. In the future, the tourist experience can be integrated into a more comprehensive destination loyalty model involving more variables, such as destination image, tourist expectation, perceived value and tourist satisfaction. This would further enrich the research model and conclusions by developing a more comprehensive tourist satisfaction model for historic cultural attractions and providing innovative approaches to upgrade the tourism industry in historic cultural destinations.

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Where to Eat: Exploring Silver Consumer Restaurant Dining Choice in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

Eating out among older adults are becoming the norm due to its convenience and potential for social interaction. Malaysia is expected to become an aged nation whereby 14% or more of its population will be 65 years and older by 2050. Very little is known about restaurant preferences and patronage behaviours of older adults in Malaysia even though there had been numerous researches done involving this population. It is important to acknowledge this age group not just because they are living longer; but also, because they are getting bigger in size and economic power. The purpose of this study is to determine the factors influencing Malaysian older or silver consumers' restaurant dining choices. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were done with Malaysian older people ages 55 and above. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed. Atlas.ti software (version 7) was used to complement researchers' analyses of interview transcripts and develop a visual

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 representation of qualitative data. Major thematic categories identified by older consumers in this study included food, service, and location. Data are visually mapped and relationships between different themes are presented. This study will be beneficial in providing more insights to restaurateurs in Malaysia to better meet silver consumer needs.

Keywords: Dining out, food away from home, older adults, patronage behaviors, restaurant preferences

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide demographic changes are transforming societies in developed and developing countries. The average life expectancy at birth globally had increased to 70 years between 2010-2015 (Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013). Furthermore, one out of four people in South-East Asia will be 60 years old and older by 2050; the world population is greying or in other words, growing old. Malaysia is expected to reach the "aged nation" status by 2050 (Hamid, 2015); whereby 14% or more of the population will be 65 years and older. Reduced fertility rate, increased life expectancy and good public healthcare have all contributed to the rise of the aged population. Despite the growth, relatively few studies have been conducted on older adults from a consumer perspective in Malaysia (Ganesan et al., 2019; Ong, 2012; Ong et al., 2008; Ong & Phillips, 2007). Furthermore, the allure of this segment is expected to grow since older consumers are expected to have higher education levels, income and lifestyle in addition to substantial disposable and discretionary income.

Although ageing is often associated with diminishing functional, mental, and physical capacity, older adults are an active consumer group (Gregoire, 2003; Mak & Caldeira, 2014; Ong & Phillips, 2007). In America, this age segment has high purchasing power compared to the younger segments (Wildes et al., 2001); however, marketers are focusing more on the younger generation and are risking overlooking the mature market segment (Gordon et al., 2002). The potential benefit that can be gained from marketing to older adult is huge not only because of the large population size but also because they are wealthy (Gordon et al., 2002; Knutson et al., 2006a).

Malaysia, like many countries in Asia are said to be "getting old before getting rich" (Hamid, 2015, p. 15). Despite this, it is wise to target this segment as they will soon be the only growing consumer segment in the future if the trend of declining birth rate and increasing life expectancy continues (Ong & Phillips, 2007). The growth of the older population is a global phenomenon that brings changes to many industries. Targeting the older people as consumer can be beneficial to marketers particularly for those involved in senior care and services like senior living, managed care, healthcare, death care, pharmacies and drug stores, travel and leisure, beauty and cosmetics, to name a few (Bank of America Merrill Lynch, 2014). Passive behaviour towards ageing is slowly disappearing especially in the growing and developing countries (Euromonitor International, 2019) because older people are becoming more self-sufficient and self-reliance than they previously were.

Researches on older adults in Malaysia mostly concern their welfare, with discussions about financial security, health care system and policy for mature adults. There is a general paucity in the literature on older adults dining out behaviour in Malaysia; even though, the third-highest monthly expenditure (expressed as a percentage of total expenditure) of older consumers in Malaysia was on food and beverage away from home; accounting for 11.4 percent of their monthly expenditure or an average spending of RM 148.20 (Ong et al., 2008). Apart from research which explored the barriers to visit restaurants among older adults in Malaysia (Ganesan et al., 2019), the restaurant preferences and patronage behaviours of older adults in Malaysia are recondite. The multiracial and multicultural nature of the older population in Malaysia makes them unique and worthy of research. Thus, this paper aims to investigate factors influencing older adults in Malaysia to dine out. The results from this study will provide the restaurant industry with meaningful implications in better serving the silver consumer market in Malaysia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the most widely used segmentation methods for the older people is based on the chronological age (Bone, 1991); however, there are many different limits or age ranges used to group the older people. Similarly, many terms are used to describe this group of people (Kinsella & Phillips, 2005). To date, there is still a lack of consensus on the term used to identify the older populations. Table 1 shows the list of terms and age ranges utilized to organize the older population worldwide.

The stereotypes held about older adults are that they are homogenous, senile, calm, sexless, stubborn, unproductive and uncreative, having difficulty learning new skills, cranky, lonely and more religious than the younger generations which cannot be further from the reality. It is possible to enjoy ageing and among the key to ageing well is to

Terms	Age	Authors
Pre-elderly	50-59	Institute of Public Health (IPH; 2018)
Elderly	55 and above 60 and above	Kang et al. (2013) Aqlili et al. (2018), Sun and Morrison (2007)
	65 and older	Mohd et al. (2016), Sun and Morrison (2007)
	75 and above	Abrahamson et al. (2017)
Young-elderly	60-75	Nikou (2015)
Older people	56 and above 60 and above 65 and above	Hassan and Md Nasir (2008) Annunziata et al. (2015), Nikou (2015) Hwang (2015)
Older adults Older consumer	55 and above	Chuan et al. (2014), Petry (2002) Annunziata et al. (2015), Moschis et al. (1993)
Mature consumer	50 and above 55 and above	Silvers (1997) Harris and West (1995)
Younger older people	50-70 60-64	Holliday et al. (2015) Hwang (2015)
Senior	50 and above 65 and above	Knutson et al. (2006b) Fox and French (1985)

Table 1

List of terms and age limit assigned for senior citizens by researcher.	5
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be physically and socially active; in addition to eating a healthy and well-balanced diet (Mak & Caldeira, 2014; Rodriguez, 2020). Despite the stereotypes, older people are as different from the younger generation as they are among themselves (Dychtwald, 1997; Moschis, 1992; Ong et al., 2008; Silvers, 1997). Researches have been done in various countries to study this growing market segment to further understand their restaurant dining choices (Kim et al., 2010; Moschis et al., 2003; Sun & Morrison, 2007) and dining experiences (Reynolds & Hwang, 2006; Wildes et al., 2001). Older consumers are not invisible consumers, they are ready and able to share their ideas and opinions regarding their needs and demands (Ong & Phillips, 2007). Consequently, the older person becomes the object of interest among researchers and marketers.

In Malaysia, researches on older adults tend to focus on their health status (Forsyth & Chia, 2015; Karim, 1997), financial status and economic growth (Ismail et al., 2015; Masud & Haron, 2008, 2014), and concerns for older adults (Leng et al., 2016; Poi et al., 2004; Tyng & Hamid, 2015). Few studies had focused on older adults as consumers. In a study looking into the consumption patterns of older consumers in Malaysia by Ong et al. (2008) over a decade ago, differences were found in gender, ethnicities, and age segments among the older consumers. They found that older male consumers spent significantly more on food and beverage away from home compared to older female consumers. Significant differences were observed among older consumers from three major ethnic groups in Malaysia; the Chinese spent more on food away from home, while the Indian spent more on beverage away from home. The Malay spent significantly less than the other two ethnicities on both items. In terms of age, there were significant differences in the expenditure patterns for three product categories: beverages and tobacco, medical care and health expenses, and recreation, entertainment, education and cultural services among the three different groups: 55-64, 65-74 and 75 years or older (Ong et al., 2008). In an earlier study by Ong and Phillips (2007) found gender differences in choices of eating outlets. Older males preferred coffee shops (n=447), followed by hawker centers (n=403) and restaurants (n=358); while older females preferred restaurants (n=305), coffee shops (n=282) and hawker centers (n=263).

Apart from those studies, marketers in Malaysia have generally overlooked this age segment (Ong, 2012); it is high time for marketers to shift their focus to this generation as they will represent a larger proportion of the population in the future. Furthermore, through the Malaysian National Development Program which has been implemented since the nation's independence there has been an increase in educational attainability and income (Masud & Haron, 2014; Ong, 2012); the present Malaysian population is different from that of past generation. More and more older people are working beyond 60 years old; well past the retirement age. Higher education attainment enables more woman to participate in the workforce thus increasing their purchasing power but reducing the time available to prepare food themselves (Jang et al., 2011). This automatically increases the demand for outside food. According to the Department of Statistics (2017), in 2016 Malaysian spent 13.4% of their monthly expenditure; which is MYR540.42 from the mean household expenditure of MYR4033; into restaurants and hotels which is an increase of 0.7% from the year 2014. It is time for the food and beverage industry in Malaysia to play a role in enabling Malaysian older adults to age healthily by providing meals and services tailored to their needs. Due to the segment's unique characteristics in addition to the ever-increasing number of the segment, and the potential for healthy ageing, it is imperative to investigate factors influencing older adult's restaurant selection criteria in Malaysia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A qualitative methodology, specifically faceto-face interviews using semi-structured questions were chosen as it allows in-depth exploration of the subject, flexibility to how and when the researcher can ask questions and how the interviewee can answer (Edwards & Holland, 2013).

Furthermore, the interview method was chosen as the interviewer is able to build rapport and trust with the interviewee, which was particularly important with the group of interest as they were suspicious of stranger. In fact, this study employed recruiters to identify informants for the research because although the older consumers are very friendly and happy to share their opinion. They do this only if the researcher is introduced by a friend in common.

The informants were chosen through purposive sampling with a pre-set criteria that fit the context of the study. This type of sampling is known as judgment sampling where the numbers of informants are not fixed, and the method does not need any underlying theories. In terms of the criteria, selected informants were at least 55 years old and resided in Klang Valley; they also must had patronized restaurants and were able to make their own dining out decisions.

This study was delimited to older adults aged 55 years and older because it included those five years prior to retirement age. Additionally, Klang Valley was chosen as the area of the study because it is densely populated, has numerous public transportation and houses a diverse variety of food establishment in Malaysia ("What exactly is Klang Valley?", 2014). Nine questions were formulated for the semistructured interviews.

- 1. With whom do you go to a restaurant usually?
- 2. How often do you visit a restaurant in a month?
- 3. Why do you visit a restaurant?
- 4. What type of restaurant do you prefer visiting?
- 5. Do you frequent the same restaurant all the time?
- 6. Tell me about the positive experiences you had when you have visited a restaurant.

- 7. Tell me about the disappointments that you had when you have visited a restaurant.
- 8. Have you stopped going to the restaurant you used to go before? Why?
- 9. Of all the things we've talked about, what is most important to you when it comes to choosing a restaurant?

Data Collection and Analysis

Fifteen interviews were conducted with 14 interview sessions recorded using a digital voice recorder. One of the interview sessions was written down verbatim at the request of the informant. Interim analysis of the data were carried out, whereby the process of collecting and analysis of data were done in a cyclical iterative or nonlinear manner. The data collection stopped when there are no new themes transpired from the interview sessions.

The obtained data were transcribed verbatim and translated to English as most of the interviews were either conducted in the Malay language or Tamil language. The translation was then validated through peer de-briefing by members of the research team. Final data or the transcriptions were then content analysed following the Six Phases of Thematic Analysis (familiarise with data, generating initial codes, search themes, review theme, define and name themes, produce report) as described by Braun and Clarke (2006). A codebook was developed to guide in the analysis of the interview data, in which both a priori and emergent coding were identified. Atlas.ti software (version 7) was used to manage and complement researcher's analyses of interview transcripts and develop a visual representation of qualitative data.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Profile of Informants

The informants age ranged between 56 - 68 years; and all of them were married. Over half of the informants were male (n=9). The informants represented the three major ethnicities in Malaysia; Malay (n=6), Chinese (n=4), and Indian (n=5). With regard to the education level, there were informants that completed primary education (n=4), secondary education (n=6) and tertiary education (n=5). Less than half of the informants were still employed (n=6) while the remaining were retired (n=8), and one was a homemaker. Among the retirees, less than half were still working (n=3).

Themes and Quotes

Eight themes influencing older adults in Malaysia to dine out was identified in this study. Figure 1 is the network view of the factors discovered. The following section will explain each of the themes identified with comparison to findings from previous studies.

Ageing. In relation to food consumption, the ageing effect was found to have a greater impact than the cohort effect (Wendt & Kinsey, 2007). The ageing effect causes physiological, psychological and sociological changes in life (Gregoire, 2003). Ageing causes diet changes due

Exploring Silver Consumer Restaurant Dining Choice

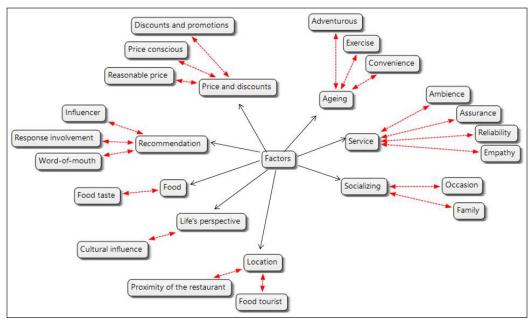


Figure 1. Visual representation of factors influencing older consumer dining out behaviour (Atlas.ti Version 7)

to factors such as food availability, new information, new cumulative experiences, and physiological changes (Wendt & Kinsey, 2007). As the body matures, physical limitation causes increasing demand for convenience of purchasing many services at a single location (Gordon et al., 2002) and also seen as a time-saving method, especially by those who have health conditions (Hu & Jasper, 2007). Older adults prefer to eat in a restaurant as part of another activity as it is more convenient for them.

If I go to a restaurant on my own, it would be to the one in front of my house. I would go there and at the same time would go to 99 Speedmart to buy grocery items before going back to house. (Informant 2). According to Reynolds and Hwang (2006), the older consumer prefers not to spend their time in the kitchen; as mentioned most by female participants as they eat out to avoid the "hassle of creating a meal, from grocery shopping to cooking, to clean-up" (p. 30). Similar concern was shared by the informant in this research.

Cooking in the house takes time. (Informant 11).

This does not mean that older adults do not like to cook; interestingly, older adults were found to favour convenience and enjoy cooking as well (Lee, 2016). Most of the time older adults opt not to cook when they are tired, travelling or if it is the holiday.

If I have time, I would rather buy the raw material and cook it myself. (Informant 10). Informants mentioned that they preferred doing exercise and other forms of physical activities rather than control their food intake as they believed that exercising could keep them healthy; this implies that they are very active food consumers.

Rather than reducing the food, it is better to exercise. I believe we would be in good health if we start to sweat. (Informant 1).

The multicultural characteristic of Malaysia has exposed informants to other cultural foods. Most of the informants stated that they were interested to try different types of food not consumed daily. Adventurous food consumers are people searching for uniqueness in the consumed food and will try foods that are unfamiliar and different from the norm (Lin & Wu, 2016). This contradicts with the finding that older consumers lack interest in trying newer food trends (Reynolds & Hwang, 2006). The stigma is that silver consumer was slow to exploring new food (Pederson, 1993); but, this is changing as older adults above 50 years were found to 'love to try new things' (Gordon et al., 2002). This was in line with the findings of this research as the informants mentioned different levels of willingness to try new foods. For some, it is based on their own choice; while others were influenced by their family members.

Sometimes [I] would feel like trying [the food in] certain restaurant. [I] just saw the restaurant. [I] want to know what type of cooking, so [I] will try. Just like that. (Informant 7). Usually, I will go for something different, not those that I can cook on my own such as curry. Usually will go for something different. (Informant 13).

I will try it. If any of my children said that it tastes nice, I would then try it. I would not go and try to eat something new on my own. (Informant 4).

Life's Perspective. Mak et al. (2012) found that culture and religion were the major factors affecting consumption behaviour. Goodenough (1971) said that culture could be defined as "a shared set of characteristics, attitudes, behaviours, and values that help groups of people decide what to do and how to go about it" (as cited in Mak et al., 2012, p. 929). According to Vabø and Hansen (2014), everyone forms sensory perception almost in the same way but this perception can be affected by surrounding social and cultural contexts. Being Malaysian, all the informants have been exposed to the cultural diversity especially in term of food. This makes them unique and serves a reason why Malaysian finds it easy to go for different cultural food. Even though living in a multicultural environment, Malaysian people do not lose or forget their cultural root (Omar et al., 2014), especially pertaining to the food they consume. Regarding the frequency of consumption, older people tend to have food from their own culture more.

We go to the Indian restaurants. I go to the Indian restaurant quite

often. She (informant's wife) likes having Indian breakfast. (Informant 1, Indian).

I frequent shop that serves 'Pantai Timur' (East Coast) food. I am from there. 'Nasi berlauk', 'nasi padang'... (Informant 5, Malay).

The mixture of different cultures in one nation has brought rise to a variety of food options. Having different cultural food is not something out of the norm in Malaysia. There may be few restrictions though, due to religious belief held. As much as they love eating food of their own culture, the older people in Malaysia are comfortable consuming food from different cultures daily.

Some if not most of the time I will go for Malay food. Malay food we must go once awhile. (Informant 11, Chinese).

I go for capati. I have been to Chinese Muslim restaurant. There is quite a lot of that type of restaurants here. If [I] feel like having Chinese style food, will go there. (Informant 13, Malay).

Exposure to different cultural food makes Malaysian more receptive of new food, especially foods that resembles Malaysian foods. For example, Thai and Indonesian food (resembles Malay food); Taiwanese, Korean and Japanese food (resembles Chinese food); Indian and Pakistan (resembles Indian food) as is evidence by the high number of Asian restaurants being operated in Malaysia with a market size worth RM8.0 billion in 2012 (International Euromonitor, 2013).

The Thai restaurant I went the week before and I went again this week. (Informant 12).

I think Korean and Japanese are also our favourite places. (Informant 14).

This shows that older adults in Malaysia are very well rooted in their culture and this is reflected in their eating habits; at the same time, they are willing to try different types of cuisines. These people are willing to try something new if they are familiar with it; in other word, adventurous with certain restrictions.

Socialising. Social factor is an essential determinant in food intake among elderly (Popper & Kroll, 2003). One of the strongest motivators for senior citizens to eat out is companionship (Knutson & Patton, 1993). Eating out is seen as an opportunity to socialise and a third of the respondent of the research had said that eating out gave them the opportunity to be with family and friends. This reasoning was used by both who were living alone or with family. Yamanaka and Almanza (2003) found that older people in their research ate out in a restaurant to socialise with friends and friendly people at their favourite restaurant. It is said that the most important reason for an older adult to dine out is so that they can

get together with friends and family (Sun & Morrison, 2007). These findings were consistent with the result of this research; almost all the informants eat out with either family members or friends but weighing more on the prior.

No, I don't usually go to restaurant during work. I will go to the restaurant with my family. (Informant 1).

I prefer going with family rather than with friends. I want my family to be together, that's why I like to go out (to eat) with them. (Informant 7).

I would prefer gathering as a family. Sometimes the children will suggest the food at a certain place to be nice, so will go there. (Informant 13).

Friends ah, maybe... once in two months. Once in two months la meet up. Usually family la. (Informant 14).

Other than that, the informants also mentioned another reason for dining out was to celebrate an occasion.

When there is someone's birthday (in the family), we would go to a restaurant. (Informant 3).

Previous research by Pederson (1993) found that older adults tended to dine out to celebrate special occasions while the younger adults dined out for social occasion and convenience. When asked why they liked to go out with family members to restaurant, the informants mentioned that it was fun and joyous experience for them. Thus proving the fact that older consumer view restaurant dining experience as a way to socialise (Yamanaka & Almanza, 2003).

When we go to a restaurant, we can sit as a family and eat. (Informant 1).

Sometimes with the people I (used to) work with and sometimes with the juniors that is still working there. They will sometimes ask me to join them, so I will join. With neighbours very seldom but the twice a month that I go I will go with my ex-colleagues. (Informant 6).

That's why is said that the ambience is important. Just to get along with ah... catch up with family members, children you know. So, chit chat with them. That's why I said the environment plays a role. Sometimes, as a family you sit there also talk about family matters to them... that kind of opportunities sometimes ah... is not present at home. (Informant 12).

Food. As much as the restaurant is able to provide conducive environment for their patron to socialise, the activity of indulging is still affected by food taste. Customers do not seem to compromise on food taste even though they are looking for convenient food

(Jang et al., 2011). The taste detectability of older adults is significantly lesser than the younger generation. This altered the need for food taste to be different from other consumer segments. Ageing affects the appetite, taste and smell of a person (Popper & Kroll, 2003) and this is seen as a possibility that might influence the restaurant visiting behaviour (Pederson, 1993). Even though older people are undergoing changes related to their sense of taste, the informants stated preference to visit a restaurant that served tasty food.

If the taste of the food matches my need, I will go there without my friends also. (Informant 5).

I swallow everything. As long the food is tasty. If western, I like the sauce of chicken chop. I find it delicious. For example, the black pepper sauce. If it is not spicy, I am not so much interested. (Informant 7).

Older consumers are uncompromising towards consistent and great tasting food (Kim et al., 2010); they are willing to pay more when served with good food.

I do not mind the price, but the food must be tasty. Sometimes when we eat, there is no taste. There will not be salt taste, spiciness could not be felt, and so it is useless. (Informant 7).

About the price being expensive is not a concern. As long as it is tasty.

No need to think about price and everything. (Informant 8).

Ageing can cause reduced digestive ability and the reason the preference for fish increase while the preference for meat and heavy foods decreases (Whitelock & Ensaff, 2018). Older adults avoid consuming food that is hard to chew and digest; hence, older adults prefer having fish compared to meat.

My favourite food in non-vegetarian food is fish. Fish and egg... Around four to five years I have reduced chicken intake. Before that I have been eating chicken quite a lot. It must have been four to five years. I start not to like chicken... (Informant 4).

But if the dishes, like for example I go out with my children as a family, let say we went for seafood. If they did not finish it, I will be the one to finish...I will usually go for 'roti', 'roti canai' or 'capati'. My favourite is 'capati' because it is non-greasy. That's it, other food I would not take. (Informant 6).

Service. A small gesture from the service staff such as communicating in a polite manner and greeting customers suffices as good service quality. This gesture of extending gratitude by the marketers are appreciated by the older adults (Gordon et al., 2002).

Aaa... let they have ... what was it ... ha, they have good service. They will ask us in a good and sweet manner. What you would like to eat and all. By the time we want to get out, they will greet us again by saying thank you for coming and please come again. We would feel like we must go there again. (Informant 8).

Service staff attentiveness and friendliness are influential in older adults' decision to patronize and to revisit a restaurant. The assurance-empathy dimension can be used to determine the revisit intention and word-of-mouth of older adults (Parks & Fu, 2016).

The staffs there take good care of us and talks very nicely. That is why we normally go there. (Informant 1).

Some informants had said that they were not afraid to venture and try new food; but they worry that they might make a mistake while ordering. This might be related to the level of education received and the medium they studied in. In a situation such as this, the role of service staff is very crucial. The staff must recognize these people and be knowledgeable about the menu so they could explain clearly to the older consumer. A knowledgeable service staff is able to increase the level of satisfaction among older adults (Wildes et al., 2001).

I have eaten in a restaurant inside a mall only with my children. Never eaten there at least once on my own. The main reason is that I do not know how to order food there. I don't even know how to say the name of the food there. Let say we go there and order something but the one that came was not the one we ordered, what can we do? We cannot do anything. (Informant 4).

Outdoor seating is favoured by the informants due to the spacious feeling that they get when dining in an open area; the noise level is significantly lesser. However, this preference depends on the location of the establishment. Specifically, they do not like to dine outside if it is near the roadside mostly due to health reasons.

I do not like a noisy environment. It must be quiet and open-air. Even if I go to a restaurant, I would not sit inside and dine. (Informant 1).

Because it would be breezy on the outside and we could enjoy the scenery while eating. (Informant 2).

He said that he will mostly go to Genting Highland. To him, the food offered there is good and at the same time he could enjoy the beautiful scenery of the place. (Informant 9).

Location. As people age, location becomes more important as they "lose some agility, dexterity, eyesight, and speed" in doing things (Knutson, 2002); thus preferring to doing things in one go. For example, older consumer prefers if the store or restaurant that they are visiting are near the other places that they patronize or the place they live or work (Moschis et al., 2011). Most of the informants prefered eating nearby their residential area; but some are willing to travel just to relish a certain food regardless of distance.

Sometimes will go up to Melaka to eat. If alone means, not often. I can always go with my wife if I want but I prefer going with everyone together. Fun. No matter how far it is. (Informant 7).

I am quite a traveller (laughs). I can go up to Melaka. I don't mind (the distance). As long as the food is good. If there is time for us to go, will go. Will have grilled fish in Melaka. I also go to a restaurant in Klang... what is the name...ha, Muara. I always go there. Its far am I right. For dinner will go there straight from home. (Informant 13).

There is one where it is just roti canai but because of the gravy, mutton and everything...I will go to Bahau. Sometimes, when we pass by the place will drop by and eat there since it is delicious. But yes, sometimes I will go there if I do not have any work. Will go there in the morning. Sometimes will go up to Tanjung Karang to have seafood. (Informant 15).

Age does not seem to slow or stop their adventurous spirit to try different types of food/restaurant and traveling beyond immediate neighbourhood to find great food. The informants mentioned that if they had the time, they were willing to travel for food. Some of the informants had mentioned that occasionally they were willing to travel quite a distance to eat, but mostly ate in places near to their house. Based on the result of this paper, we can deduce that older adults are getting more mobile in term of their food venture.

Price and Discounts. Older adults do not always consider food price as a major factor to visit a restaurant because they are willing to pay more if they feel they receive good food and service. This is consistent with the study by Kim et al. (2010) that found mature consumers gave more importance to taste and consistency of the food rather the pricing; thus giving restaurant managers flexibility in terms of food pricing. In today's economy, everyone is feeling the pressure to save money. The informants do spend their money dining out occasionally as dining out can be expensive.

When compared with other expenses, this food expense is high. The food is very costly. I would do the calculation on how much is the expenses. I would make sure my lunch expenses would be below RM10. If the expense goes more than that, I would only eat there once and would not go there again. (informant 4).

Now it is not cheap to eat out. Generally. Even hawker stall also is not cheap. If it is more than 20 (ringgit), I'll say it is too expensive for a meal. Then will see, what our budget is (at) that time. So, I think budget is the main factor that we need to consider because as a small family we are... we are cautious. (Informant 10).

Despite having a budget for dining out, older adults are willing to pay more for good service and quality food.

If going out with family, normally we go for quite an established restaurant. Why? Because the environment, the ambience alright. Ahh... the cleanliness of the place and ah... we don't mind the price as long as they serve healthy food la. (Informant 12).

I like going to Krathong and Sabaisabai. I like there. Why? Because when we go in their premise it is clean, the service is good and the ordered food taste delicious. Even though it is a bit expensive but when we give our feedback, they are positively responsive about it. I like that. (Informant 13).

The informants were not very keen with the idea of discounts as they questioned how much price cut the restaurant could provide. A 10% discount they felt would not make much difference on the amount they had to pay and that limiting their food option just to get the discount was not worthwhile. If the promotion was on their favourite food, they might consider it but said that it was not necessarily a factor to influence their decision. Likewise, Tsydybey et al. (2014) found that older consumer looked for price incentives on their special brand but did not switch if no incentives were provided.

I might consider. Depends on which item they are discounting on. If the dish is my favourite, then I will go. It is but that isn't necessarily because of that I would visit this particular outlet. But I will consider. If the discount is good and the food is good, why not. It could be a factor, right? (Informant 12).

No, promotions do not influence my decision. For me what is important is what I want to eat. It is because the promotion is not much usually. No as far as I know, it will not influence that much. It is because for me and my family the most important thing is the food. If I am there, I will ask for it. I won't go just because the promotion is available." (Informant 15).

The older adults in this research prioritize quality of food and service over discounts and promotions which is in line with the result obtained by Kim et al. (2010).

Recommendation. Recommendation or suggestion is a form of advice given regarding particular issue or behaviour. A recommendation can either be verbal (suggested by people) or non-verbal (such as from articles, books, blog, and social media). The reason people search for recommendations and suggestions are that they want to learn as much possible before making any purchase decision (Ahmad, 2014). Altobello et al. (2009) studied older adult's information search behaviour and found that those respondents with inability to search for information to choose the best service provider would ask for recommendation from their friends.

Word-of-mouth is a form of informal advertising that is usually spread by experienced friends, family or associates. In a study on consumer purchasing decision, 86% of respondents strongly agreed that they made a purchasing decision by consulting their family, friends and associates (Ahmad, 2014). The advice given is considered a reliable source of information because it is usually given based on experience and it comes from trusted people.

Usually my restaurant going choices is from the suggestions of friends and children. (Informant 7).

We have travelled there (Sabah). Yeah, we can (referring to the travel distance). But I feel that there is nothing special about it (the fish). But people said delicious, so we said okay (to travel and taste it) because of family. So, we fly there, and we just go and eat la. (Informant 14).

Word-of-mouth can be a liability to the marketers when mishandled because it has more impact on purchasing behaviour than any other advertising method as it is considered to be more reliable (Ahmad, 2014). Majority of the respondents (59%) agreed that they would not try any products that they had heard bad things about.

If someone says that they have experienced something unpleasant at the restaurant, I will think whether to go to the restaurant or not. I will not go. I could change my decision by not going to the restaurant. Yes, if other has complains about the shop, for instance they saw a fly in the food; I will not go to the restaurant. (Informant 4).

Older adults trust in suggestions and recommendations given verbally by the people they know; however, this is not the only way for them to obtain information regarding a product or service. Older adults are showing more involvement in purchasing behaviour now and this is known as response involvement. According to Leavitt et al. (1981) response involvement refers to 'a behavioural orientation which involves information acquisition and decision processes' (as cited in Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008, p. 10). In the context of this study, the decision process refers to the decision to visit a restaurant by older adults. Older adults are said to be more susceptible to informal sources of information such as a recommendation from friends or family rather than searching for information on social media. According to Weiss (2001), this behaviour is somewhat changing as the matures nowadays are more informed and are more active in searching for information before purchasing (as cited in Gordon et al., 2002).

Informants in this research had shown involvement in information search about a restaurant before going there. This behaviour is seen most prevalent when they are about to try a new restaurant. They gather information that they need from the internet, television program and from friends and family.

So, we don't ah... so called out of the blue and then just pop in to one (restaurant) and then without knowing anything. So, normally we try to find out what is nice in that particular shop; what is the so called the signature dish kind of thing. Then, we try the signature dish. That's all. (Informant 10).

I do survey as well. Will check the internet and see where nice (food) is. I follow TV program 'Jalan-jalan Cari Makan'. If I feel it (the food portrayed in the program) is nice, will invite the family there. But now, it is seldom. Seldom because the children had all grown up. When they were small, will follow the program and if it (the food) seem nice, will bring the family there. Like the 'Jalan-jalan Cari Makan' program, I will take down the information of the place mentioned in it. Then, will try the place suggested. Will plan out the trip. (Informant 13).

Cupcake Kuantan...the one in the Facebook, the popular one... it is because my son is very active in surfing the net. So, when we go to Kuantan we'll look for it. I remember where we went three times for a cupcake and only the third time the shop was open. And we were able to get what we wanted to eat. (Informant 15).

CONCLUSION

This study identified eight factors (ageing, life's perspective, socialising, food, service, location, price and discounts, recommendation) influencing the silver consumer dining out behaviour that is useful to the food operators in targeting silver consumer in Malaysia. Both local and international food establishments can benefit from this research to form their marketing plan to target this untapped segment. Among the eight factors identified, food, service, location, price and discounts, and socialising can be coordinated by the restaurateur, and as such recommended to be used to plan strategies to attract silver consumers.

Recommendation

In this study, good food and service are the keys to older adult's re-visit intention, and they are willing to pay more to experience it. It is recommended that service staff should pay attention to the service provided throughout the dining experience; from the moment the silver consumer enters the restaurant till they leave. They appreciate guidance when placing their order, especially if it is their first experience at the restaurant and because of the physiological changes related to vision and hearing associated with ageing.

A foodservice establishment that is located nearby other service providers or in a shopping mall has the potential to attract silver consumers because they tend to carry out multiple activities when they go out (e.g., grocery shopping, paying bills, then dine out). Dining out is usually an activity that they enjoy with their family or friends; enabling them to focus on socialising. New restaurant outlets should consider their location in order to benefit from the silver consumer segment.

Contrary to previous research, the informants of this study were quite adventurous with their food choices with consideration to religious requirements and similarity of food to their own culture. As such, Indonesian, Thai, Korean, Japanese and Indian cuisines were among sought out foods for the informants. Restaurateurs may benefit from this by introducing special menus featuring these cuisines to entice silver consumer to their restaurant.

Paying attention to the factors discussed in the paper will be beneficial to those targeting the older generations. As mentioned, silver consumers are more likely to dine out for socialisation rather than convenience, but their choice of food would be based on their experience and health. It is also important that the restaurant takes care of its customer well as word-ofmouth seems to influence the decision of this generation.

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Malay Narratives in Nanyang Travel

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ABSTRACT

"Nanyang"南洋was a general term used by the Chinese for Southeast Asia before World War II. After the 19th century, the Chinese moved to Nanyang in succession. Located at the centre of "Nanyang", the Malay Peninsula and Singapore became the gathering place of the Chinese at that time and they unexpectedly encountered the indigenous Malay civilisation, thus arousing cultural interaction and immersion. In the 1920s and 1930s, a large number of Chinese literati came to the south for various purposes such as seeking relatives and friends, travelling, investigating, or settling down for a long time, and they recorded the experiences of what they saw and heard in Nanyang in travel records or books. The "Nanyang Youji" 南洋游记 (Nanyang Travels) mainly recorded the customs and anecdotes of the Nanyang society. It is rich in content, diverse in subject matter, and large in volume. It also has a unique writing style, with great literary, historical, and even cultural anthropology value.

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E-mail addresses: wuehiong@upm.edu.my (Wue Hiong Ser) chweefang@upm.edu.my (Chwee Fang Ng) *Corresponding author Although the content of "Nanyang Youji" is mainly based on Chinese society and culture, many of them also contain records of the Malay customs and culture that the author personally witnessed which are thus, very precious. This article reviews several "Nanyang Youji" travel records to gain an insight into the Malay society and the Chinese-Malay cultural interaction from the perspective of the early Nanyang travellers.

Keywords: Chinese-Malay cultural interaction, Malay narratives, Nanyang travel

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INTRODUCTION

The term "Nanyang" 南洋 (South Ocean) is a unique feature in Chinese history that can be traced back to the Song Dynasty as early as 700 years ago. Initially, the views on "Nanyang" based on its geographical boundaries were unclear and varied. From the views of ancient navigators to modern folks, the definitions of Nanyang are not exactly the same over the years (Lee, 2006). However, "Nanyang" mainly refers to the southern area of mainland China and it also includes Australia and New Zealand in a broader sense. Up until the end of the nineteenth century, the concept of "Nanyang" was gradually determined. Conceptually, "Nanyang" specifically refers to Southeast Asia (including Hong Kong) and it has a close relationship with Chinese history. For instance, "Going to the Nanyang" was a dream of many generations of Chinese immigrants and it constitutes a collective memory in Chinese history. However, when the Chinese people from all parts of China withdrew their native citizenship and immersed into the local culture up until the 1950s, the name and concept of "Nanyang" gradually faded away and it was eventually replaced by the term "Southeast Asia" (Lee, 2006).

Nanyang was a world dominated by the Chinese. After the nineteenth century, Nanyang was gradually becoming the place where the Chinese gathered, which included Java Island, Siam, and Malaya. Among these regions, Singapore Island and Malay Peninsula have a huge Chinese population and boasts some of the most complete social structures as well as a developed culture and education. The earliest Nanyang immigrants were dominated by low-class labourers. In the early twentieth century, they were deeply influenced by China's political situation, especially the Chinese Revolution in 1911 (Yen, 1976) and the May Fourth New Culture Movement in 1919 (Choi, 2019) which strongly promoted social and cultural reformation in Nanyang. With the boom of Chinese schools in various places, a large number of literati and scholars traveled to the south to live and promote the Nanyang culture (Guo, 2019; Jin, 2013). Many of these scholars, through the recommendation of their relatives and friends, taught at Chinese schools and some worked as editors or writers for Chinese newspapers. Many of them also participated in cultural and educational programmes to promote cultural, literary, and artistic creations (Jin, 2013). There were also many people who came to Nanyang for sightseeing and to explore the area.

The 1920s and 1930s represented the peak period for literati who came to the south from China (Guo, 2019; Jin, 2013). Whether it was for long-term settlement or a short trip, Nanyang was always an interesting and new destination for these people due to its different landscape and unique customs that were much varied from their home country, China. Many of them fondly wrote about their experience of Nanyang and several of these texts had been used in travel journals or poems published in newspapers and magazines, while some were published in books. Although some of these publications were research-oriented, they were classified as travel documentaries (Xia, 2010). However, this documentary contains information of a rich cultural heritage, including its history, cultural anthropology, local chronicles, literature, and other related content. It has high academic value and contains important material for studying the Singaporean and Malaysian Chinese society before World War II.

The main purpose of this article is to investigate the description and perception of Malays and its culture by Chinese literati in the 1920s from the relevant records in Nanyang travel notes. This article will examine several aspects such as Nanyang scenery, the Malay folk culture, the Malay drama shows and Chinese-Malay cultural interactions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the preliminary statistics of Yan (2011), there are at least 262 kinds of Nanyang monographs left in the early years. Judging from the contents, they included history, geography, humanities, political economy, and natural sciences. If newspapers, magazines and other related articles are included, the number will be even more encouraging and impactful.

Among these plentiful Nanyang literature, travel documentaries are the main essential part. Some of the well-known travel documentaries are Hou Hongjian's (1920) 侯鸿鉴 Nanyang Lvxingji 南 洋旅行记 (Travel Notes of Nanyang), Liang Shaowen's (1924) 梁绍文 Nanyang Lvxing Manji 南洋旅行漫记 (The Travel of Nanyang), Song Yunpu's (1930) 宋蕴璞 Nanyang Yingshu Haixia Zhimindi Zhilve 南洋英属海峡殖民地志略 (British Straits Colony Chorography in Nanyang), Liu Xunyu's (1930) 刘薰宇 Nanyang Youji 南 洋游记 (Nanyang Travels), Huang Qiang's 黃強 (1930) Malai Hongxuelu 马来鸿雪录 (The Traces in Malaya), Xu Jie's (1931) 许 杰 Nanyang Manji 南洋漫记 (also known as "Coconut and Durian"), Zheng Jianlu's (1933) 郑健庐 Nanyang Sanyueji 南洋三 月记 (Nanyang In March), Zhao Guanhai's (1933) 招观海 Tiannan Youji 天南游记 (Tiannan Travels), Liu Renhang's (1935) 刘仁航 Nanyang Youji 南洋游记 (Nanyang Travels), Xu Han's (1937) 许瀚Nanyang Congtan 南洋丛谈 (Nanyang Talks) as well as many other articles, thus representing a large enough number to form a unique "Nanyang Youji" 南洋游记 (Nanyang Travels) documentary.

"Nanyang Travels" is mainly a description of what was seen and heard during their journey based on the author's distinctive emotions and personal perspectives. Although the subject is mainly focused on Chinese society, it contains records of the lifestyles outside of the Chinese society such as the clothing, food, shelter, travel, historical stories, customs, and myths of the Malays, and even the indigenous people (Orang Asli). The topics are quite diverse, and it can be used as research material for the Malay society and their culture during the early years. These records are valuable research materials that offer insight into their cultural heritage as well.

In the past ten years, the Chinese academic community realised the value of this travel material and started to conduct more studies on this documentary. However, the results were relatively sparse as it mainly focuses on relevant studies regarding the Chinese social culture, Nanyang outlook, and Chinese literature. For example, Xia Jing's (2010) Yuwang Yu Sikao Zhilv -Zhongguo Xiandai Zuojia De Nanyang Yu Yingmei Youji Yanjiu (Journey of Desire and Contemplation: A Study of Nanyang and England/America Travelogues by Modern Chinese Writers) uses Nanyang and Anglo-American travel notes to compare their extra-territorial imaginations; Xue Liqing's (2016) "Cong Danggui Dao Liulian: You Quyu Wenhua Fuhao Kan Nanyang Huaren De Bentuhua Licheng" ("From Angelica to Durian: Investigation on Localisation of Nanyang Chinese Based on the Culture Symbolisation") mainly discusses the topic of Chinese localisation from the travel materials; Zhong Shaohua's (2018) "Jindai Zhongguoren Yanzhong De Nanyang" ("Nanyang in the Eyes of Premodern Chinese") is a typical research of the Nanyang View of the modern Chinese scholars; Chong's (2018) "Youli Nanyang: Mahua Sanwenshi De Qidian" ("Traveling to the Nanyang: The Starting Point of the History of Prose in Malaysian Chinese") uses this type of travel records to explore the origin of the history of Malaysian Chinese prose. Although these studies make good use of the Nanyang Travels, information on

topics other than the Chinese society based on the Nanyang Travels documentary is sufficiently lacking.

METHOD

The purpose of this study is to gain a preliminary insight into the Malay social culture from the perspective of Nanyang travellers through the selected Nanyang travel records.

Content analysis was the main research method in order to analyze and interpret the relevant historical documents. By using content analysis, the data were systematically collected from relevant texts. The researchers discussed the related records of Malays, analyzed and commented on the characteristics of Malays and its culture, as well as the perceptions and meanings contained therein. On top of that, the researchers comprehensively examined the Malays images and also the cultural interactions between Chinese and Malay from the perspective of Chinese in the early twentieth century. Firstly, we used the four themes of Nanyang scenery, the Malay folk culture, the Malay drama shows and Chinese-Malay cultural interactions as the starting point for the discussion. Secondly, by observing the actual writing of the authors, we discussed their feelings towards Malay culture through their wording presentation and evaluation in the texts. Finally, we examined and analyzed the presence, meanings as well as the relationships between Malay images and the imaginations of authors in their writings, attempting to point out the meaning of the

images, ultimately drawing an appropriate conclusion on them.

As mentioned above, there are many published records about Nanyang travel notes, but this article mainly focused on two travel records, namely Liang Shaowen's The Travel of Nanyang in 1924 and Song Yunpu's British Straits Colony Chorography in Nanyang in 1930 as the main source of reference. This study also refered to other travel records for complementing and verifying Liang and Song's work when necessary. Liang and Song's work are exceedingly meaningful and representative. In addition to its deep value as travel notes on Southeast Asia, these two works intentionally record observations on Malay culture and customs, some of them are very well described in detail, and the two works were being produced almost at the same period of time. This would profoundly reflect the views of Chinese people on Malays and its culture in the early twentieth century.

In 1920, Liang Shaowen departed from Shanghai to the Malay Peninsula and travelled to Singapore, Malacca, Kuala Lumpur, Ipoh, and Penang as well as other places. During this period, he also visited Indonesia, Java, Sumatra, and other places to investigate the Chinese education and industrial profiles as well as visited representatives of business, education, and politics from all walks of life. In 1924, his travel experience was published as "The Travel of Nanyang". This book has been highly praised by the academic community because it records many first-hand materials obtained from investigation and review, as mentioned by A Ying, "This book was considered the best among the travel literatures at the time" (1935, p. 348). Thus, it has become a much-discussed work in academia. There are 103 chapters in the book, observation records on Malay culture are scattered among the chapters. Although the proportion is not huge, it is very precious and informative.

On the other hand, Song Yunpu went southward to the Malay Peninsula in 1925 to visit several states of the peninsula. He visited seniors from all over the country and collected cultural and educational information, historical customs, and other materials of the Chinese community as well as official statistics and transportation schedules. After three and a half years of travelling, he published the 'British Straits Colony Chorography in Nanyang' article in 1930 that also acted as a travel note representing a human geographical survey. This travel note is composed of three sections, each containing eight chapters. The first section is travel note of Singapore, the second is travel note of Penang, and the third is travel note of Malacca. From the perspective of historical data, this article is much more informative than The Travel of Nanyang. However, it has not been highly valued by the academic community. It is also worth mentioning that although this book is mainly based on the Chinese community, it contains many Malay social and cultural materials collected by the author himself.

In addition to these records which scattered from various chapters, there are even some chapters particularly on the Malays in the third section. This includes "A Brief Review of Malay Species", "Malay Nature", "Malay Life and Habits" (such as food, clothing, housing, weddings, funerals and Ramadan), "Malay weaving industry", "Malay sword manufacturing", "Malay pottery", "Malay metal products", "Malay sculptures", "Malay embroidery", and "Malay straw mat and basket manufacturing" (section 3, 24-35). This book may be considered as a brief review of Malay ethnography.

In short, the Malay social and cultural chapter in Liang's work is a random record of his experiences during the journey and it represents the Malay community from the perspectives of ordinary Nanyang tourists. And Song's work is a systematic collection of records which also expresses the personal emotions of the author. This study is mainly focused on text analysis rather a comparison of these two travel records. Based on the two writings by Song and Liang, it is thought that the information gathered can complement each other and present a better narrative of the Malay community based on the early Nanyang Travel Records.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Nanyang Scenery and Its Image

The ancient Chinese concept of "southern" was mainly referred to as the southern wasteland where the Nanman tribes lived. Its position gradually moved southward with the expansion of political territory and cultural geography during the past dynasties. The concept of "Nanyang" established in modern times extends far beyond the mainland, whereby it is farther away than the traditionally recognised "Within the Four Seas" 四海 (origins from "Changdi" 常棣, The Book of Songs 诗经 that refers to the land of enlightenment of the son of heaven). Therefore, the term "Nanyang" is said to represent the ultimate view of the South.

In the 1920s of the twentieth century, China experienced the baptism of the May Fourth New Culture Movement in 1919. The literati started to possess with international perspective and modern thoughts. At that time, China was politically divided by warlords, political darkness, social disruption, and the decline of the economy, the literati lost their confidence in their own culture. Meanwhile, the British colonized Malaya needed a lot of labor to open up, thereafter Chinese schools were established in various places, and cultural undertakings also flourished. These are the main factors attracting many literati and scholars to look for opportunities in Nanyang.

From the perspective of modern Chinese literati, "Nanyang" followed the concepts and understanding of traditional southern rural areas, despite having some differences. Although the Chinese literati who travelled to the south inevitably displayed a sense of cultural superiority to the southern ethnics, unlike the traditional concept, they no longer have the mentality of despising the South, they were always singing praises about the weather, scenery, and native people of Nanyang. The biggest difference between the modern literati and the traditional view of the South was that there was no longer an aim "to propagate and educate the South" as the indigenous people and their culture in Nanyang are regarded as "exotic customs".

Nevertheless, the "Nanyang" mentioned in these travel notes was first and foremost based on their natural phenology, whereby a tropical climate was described as well as fertile land and rich products. Let us take a look at the Nanyang phenology described by Liang Shaowen (1933):

Nanyang has a very good climate, with wind and rain. It has really good weather conditions for crops as I have mentioned previously. With a blessed and beautiful climate, the land is fertile and the production is extremely rich. There are betel nuts, coconuts, bananas, and millet everywhere, and there is not much of farm work needed to produce abundant crops. Other produce such as cereals and vegetables just need to be seeded and harvested. What a blessing as this does not happen elsewhere or in other places. (p. 43).

This is a typical image portrayed of Nanyang: "excellent climate", "fertile land", and "rich production". In the context of these three elements, even if you don't work, you can sit back and watch the harvest all year round. Compared to China where land was scarce and products were depressed at that time, this place is undoubtedly a paradise. Once again, let us refer to the Nanyang written by Chen Lianqing (1962) during the same period:

The scenery of the land here is not that discouraging. Look, the green coconut groves, thick rubber estates, flourishing plantains, and towering old trees look really lovely. Accompanying the rain-rich climate tropical life is an autumn weather "一雨便成秋yì yǔ biàn chéng qiū" ("a rainfall creates an autumn" and hence, whenever it rains, the temperature falls and it becomes an autumn climate, what a cooling and beautiful weather) which seems very poetic. (Chen, 1962, p. 35).

The Nanyang scenery described by Chen is quite similar to what was described by Liang Shaowen: coconut grove, rubber estates, plantain, old trees, tropical, and rainy. If durian, which is not previously mentioned by Liang and Chen, is added, it can form a group of distinct Nanyang symbols. In particular, coconuts and durian often became important representative symbols as described in Xu Jie's (1931) book that was even named as "Nanyang Man Ji" (also known as "Coconut and Durian").

When these Nanyang images were described based on the literati's emotions, they were inevitably expressed with a form of exotic romantic feelings. Chen said that the "lovely scenery" of the Nanyang land is compatible with the culture of Zhongyuan 中原 (Central Plains)¹ as both places are relatively poetic and beautiful. Tropical beauty and romance meet here, and after a long time of immersion, he fell in love with this land. In the "Nanyang Tour" travel notes written by Wang Bojin (1936) in the 1930s, many poetical illustrations were used in his work. He concluded:

I love Nanyang. Loving Nanyang and loving Jiangnan 江南² are based on different emotions; the love for Jiangnan is compassion, and the love for Nanyang is respect..... Nanyang is located in the middle of the endless sea. The weather displays the tenderness and warmth of nature, it has summer days throughout the year with "a rainfall creates autumn", that's truly Nanyang! The coconut tree is the most significant characteristic of Nanyang. A solitary stem is standing in the blue sky, with peacock hair gathering on the top, and thick and sparse long leaves with some giant coconuts between the petioles. Sometimes the thick green leaves sweep the sky into a clear shade, and between the petioles, there are some giant fisting coconuts. Sometimes the sparse shots stick into the clear distant sky, a unique style that is not observed in temperate countries. (Wang, 1936, p. 23).

By depicting the climate and coconut trees as important symbolic elements, the "That is truly Nanyang" tone is full of romantic sentiment and that is why the author fell in love with Nanyang. It is also worth noting here that the author used Jiangnan to compare with Nanyang, thus indicating the cultural comparability between these two regions. Song Yunpu (1930) also compared Nanyang with Jiangnan:

Far from the village, I saw some people transplanting paddy in paddy fields. The Malay women were wrapped in purple, yellow, and pink yarns, and they worked hard in the paddy field. From afar, they seemed charming and beautiful. Their tops (wrapping cloths) had attractive colours, reflected by the green rice seedlings. They were just as beautiful as the picture, and there is no difference from the painting. The women of Jiangnan in my country and the scenery of planting paddy, their beauty is incomparable. After a long observation of the beautiful paddy fields, I was truly happy and joyful. (section 2, p. 114).

In Song's trip to Bayan Lepas in Penang, he was deeply attracted and amazed by the

^{1 &}quot;Zhongyuan 中原 (Central Plains)" is the traditional view of Chinese people on humanistic geography, which means in the central of the world. The geographical area mainly in the middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River, it is the main birthplace of Chinese civilization and the essence of Chinese culture. This region symbolizes the orthodoxy of Chinese culture.

^{2 &}quot;Jiangnan 江南" is also a traditional Chinese view on humanistic geography, which mainly refers to the area of the south and the lower reaches of the Yangtze River. The climate is different from the northern "Central Plains", it's very unique and mild. Thus, this has formed a gentle, graceful, and romantic cultural scenery and geographical image.

scenery of the paddy fields there and he unknowingly compared it with the Jiangnan pastoral fields. Although the paddy field scenery is not unique to Nanyang, it was one of the images that described the beauty of Nanyang and it was often written in travel notes. While the Jiangnan pastoral fields were uniquely beautiful, the Nanyang fields were thought to be romantic and affectionate. Hence both were comparatively charming and undoubtedly brought praises and enthusiastic comments to the Malay pastoral scenery and farmhouse sentiment.

In short, although Nanyang is mainly known by the Chinese, it is the ecology of the Malay Archipelago outside the Zhongyuan (Central Plains) region; the landscape in the travel notes is full of Malay emotions and feelings. The two key images of Nanyang, namely "enthusiasm" and "prosperity" have also formed the basis of the Malay sentiment in the eyes of Chinese literati.

Graceful Malay Folk Culture and Malay Beauty

Under such natural conditions of material abundance, it presents a simple form of life that is indisputable. Regarding the Malay society and culture, Liang Shaowen (1933) wrote this statement: "Always going from simple to simple" (p. 44) This sentence can have two meanings, whereby one has a negative meaning that refers to the living conditions of Malays which depict the backwardness in their character, a trait commonly viewed by the European colonists at the time; the other is the meaning of appreciation that refers to the simple Malay life and it depicts characters of being contented and happy, simple and optimistic, and not being influenced by utilitarian; it is truly a model for mankind which is to be close to nature.

While the tropical weather represents enthusiasm, the abundant natural resources have made Nanyang a prosperous and comfortable place, despite the relaxing pace of life. Thus, these features have exuded a soothing and romantic charm. The feelings and imaginations of this beautiful sense were reflected in Nanyang Travels from time to time, and there is even full of appreciation displayed for the Malay folk culture.

The paddy fields around Malaya left a good impression on Song Yunpu (1930). He spoke highly of the scenery of paddy fields in his travel notes. While he was travelling in Malacca, he looked up and down along the paddy fields. To him, the paddy field was like a rolling rice wave and it made him think of the idyllic scenery in Jiangnan, China and praised the scenery and the people of Nanyang:

The islands of Nanyang are areas that are prone to rice production, with Malacca being one of the popular paddy producers in the world. The method of planting is to divide the land into fields, transplant the seedlings to the fields, and irrigate with rainwater. There is no need to ditch and draw as there will be rain in a few days' time.

Paddy fields belong to the native Malays, particularly to those who are

healthy, physically tough, and adaptive to nature. When working in the paddy fields, the women display their utmost diligence. During the transplanting or harvesting season, these Malay women wear colorful silk scarfs and work hard in the field. They focus on their work and have no time to look around. " 其劳动之勤奋,亦有不可及者 (qí láodòng zhī qínfèn, yìyǒu bùkějí zhé)", their diligence and assiduousness are incomparable to no one else. Malay women, with their tanned complexion, look beautiful and charming. Whether they stand up or rest, they always look beautiful and graceful from afar the paddy fields. Even when they sing, it was audible, and the melody was pleasant to the ears. This situation was similar to Jiangnan in my country. (Song, 1930, section 3, p. 64).

Song first pointed out that the Malaccan paddy fields had no artificial water conservancy and relied on wind and rain. This was a typical Nanyang climate and it was very conducive for planting. Subsequently, Song's writing was mainly focused on narrating Malay topics. The farmers in the fields were all Malays and the beauty of the Nanyang countryside was attributed to the values demonstrated by the Malay farmers, especially the hard-working Malay women in the paddy fields. Song spoke highly about them and promoted the diligence and hard work of the Malay women. According to him, the assiduousness of the Malays was incomparable to other ethnic groups. The image depicted in the Nanyang Travels was very different from the prevailing view of the laziness of the Malays.

In addition to the virtues of hard work and diligence, the Malay women were praised for their skills and talents in arts and their gracefulness was always featured in the Nanyang Travel notes. For example, Liu Xunyu's Nanyang Travels (1930) used a passionate description to praise the Malay beauties:

Malay beauties have their own characteristics...... In between two scenes of the Malay stage performance, there is always a dance performance. The so-called dancing is provocative, and it often creates a sense of beauty. Most importantly, they have a nice figure and shape, and their skin color is healthy and sweet. As for me, they are charming and incomparably attractive. The darker skin tone adds to the mystery of these women. On top of that, their thick black hair and eyebrows, as well as the big, clear eyes, also increase the strength of the tenderness and enchantment of these Malay women. Their lips are slightly thicker and wider, and their smile while dancing seems to be very sweet and seductive. Due to the well-developed muscles throughout the body, the whole body seems fit and the legs and natural feet allow for a stable posture. Additionally, there is a lot of tenderness and softness in them. What are the indispensable conditions for their beauty in the eyes of the Malays? I have no idea. What I feel is beautiful about her is her tenderness and strength. They represent the beauty between the East and the West, just like the place where they live, which is in between the east and the west. This may not be the best statement, but there is always a lot of truth in it and it makes sense! (pp. 40-41).

The author described the beauty of Malay women through their dancing performances. The beauty of this tropical atmosphere which is found in Malay women is very different from the Chinese aesthetics of the Northern Mongoloid women. The beauty of the Nanyang Malay women is all about their beautiful tanned body, thick hair, clear black eyes, mellow red lips, and graceful dance steps. They could not help but admired the skills and talents of these Malay women, and that was beyond all the words that could be described by the author, as it was either the beauty of the Eastern or the Western women with a standard feature of beauty, that is "softness".

The literati came to Nanyang with curiosity and they often wrote down what surprised and amazed them. Some of these include the folk customs of the Malay diet that are no longer practiced today. For example, the betel nut culture is one of the remarkable examples. Liang Shaowen (1933) once recorded this phenomenon:

They (Malays) are very fond of betel nuts and it does not leave their mouths

all day long, so their lips are always red. At first, I saw them all vomiting blood, gosh! Later, after a long stay, I realised that the red saliva that they spit was caused by eating the betel nuts. (p. 44).

It can be observed that the Malays had the habit of chewing betel nuts throughout their early years. Today, many indigenous people in the Malay Archipelago still have this habit, thereby indicating that this habit was a common ancient food culture in the region. Liang's description was just a general observation. On the other hand, Song Yunpu (1930) further described the background and reasons for this food culture:

The habit of chewing betel nuts by the Nanyang people has a long history. There are many types of protozoa and cholera bacteria in the tropical waters, and the natives are constantly drinking raw water due to the climate. Hence, the cholera epidemic is rampant and it often kills people. Since food is perishable, the residual dirt between the teeth is very suitable for the growth of bacteria and it will cause tooth decay after a long time. Chewing betel nut and a little bit of lime has the function of sterilising and protecting the teeth without harming the human body. Therefore, chewing betel nut is one of the sanitation methods used by the natives. (section 3, p. 17).

Song Yunpu's narrative is more specific and meticulous, and it has a scientific explanation, thereby emphasising that this is a method for people living in tropical environments to maintain oral hygiene. From this narrative, the characteristics and value of Song's travel notes can be observed.

Malay's Talent in Drama Show

The two elements of the Nanyang beauty presented in the Nanyang travel notes are the Malay women and their talents and skills in performing art. The Malay drama performance was the most convincing attribute that always received a lot of praises by the literati. It is evident that Liang Shaowen or Song Yunpu spent a considerable amount of time introducing the Malay dramas and gave very high evaluation and rave reviews about it. After watching the Malay dramas, Liang Shaowen (1933) described the following impression:

Their dramas (referred to as Malay dramas) won praises from many audiences and I have even mentioned that they were much better than the Chinese vernacular dramas! (pp. 182-183).

Judging from the phrase "praises from many audiences", Malay dramas gained a wide appreciation from the Chinese at that time. Liang also thought it was much better than the Chinese vernacular dramas. He specifically compared it with Chinese vernacular dramas, introduced the performance characteristics of Malay dramas, and highlighted its strengths. As for why Malay dramas were "more mournful and melancholic, but less heroic and chivalrous", Liang believes that this was "all because of their environment and ethnic opinion; they were under the supervision and the interference of conquerors. Under the intervention and interference, every script had to undergo an extremely strict inspection" (Liang, 1933, p. 183). Although there were only a few words written by the author, they inadvertently kept the records of the colonial official's rigorous examination of their folk culture.

As for Song Yunpu's (1930) comments for Malay dramas, he also praised them highly compared to the Chinese and Western dramas. There is a passage in the travel notes of him describing a raving comment that is very enthusiastic:

(Malays) They are good at acting, and those who have heard and seen their dramas will be touched, and they will fall in it, thus feeling reluctant to leave and always thinking about the show. I lived in Singapore for a long time and I have heard of Malay dramas. I watched them occasionally. At first, I was in doubt over it. However, after the first view, it changed my mind and I was deeply inspired by their performance. "视中国戏与西洋戏,有过之无不及 (shì Zhōngguó xì yǔ xīyáng xì, yǒu guò zhī wú bù jí) ", even the Chinese and Western dramas are far behind and they are incomparable to the Malay dramas. I enjoyed watching them from time to time and I appreciate the effort and enjoyment of their performance. (section 1, p.152)

Watching the Malay dramas can literally make people "fall in it, and yet feel reluctant to leave and keep thinking about the show" (section 1, p. 152). This is the charm of the Malay dramas. Additionally, Malays are not only capable of performing dramas, but they are also good at performing authentic Chinese dramas, which is both surprising and exciting. Let's take a look at Song's description below:

There are a lot of beautiful traits and strengths of the Malays. The Malays are talented in acting and they can even perform the Chinese dramas. Among the Chinese and foreign dramas, Malay dramas have their uniqueness. What is amazing is that the Malays can even perform Chinese dramas! Due to the majority audience being overseas Chinese³, one or two Chinese dramas have been played during the stage performance to cater to the Chinese audience, and this was very much welcomed by the overseas Chinese..... At the time of the performance, both men and women wore Shanghai-style fashionable clothes, sang Chinese songs, used Cantonese, and they became popular. The ability of the Malays to perform is indeed evident based on their profound talents. The audiences were very much amazed by their ability and talents... (Malays) are good at acting and the audiences were very fond of their dramas. Their dramas were always fascinating and entertaining. (Song, 1930, section 1, p. 150).

The Malays have performed Chinese dramas, wore Chinese costumes, and even used Chinese dialogues. It can be said that they are very skilful and talented in imitating. They are also popular, well known, fascinating, and admirable by all. Song praised the Malays. The Malays had a good talent for acting and this was believed to be the prevailing view of the people at that time.

Chinese-Malay Cultural Interactions

To cater to the Chinese audience, the Malay performing arts troupe played Chinese dramas that depicted a real image of Nanyang: a cultural field where the Chinese and Malay met. The Chinese-Malay civilisation met unexpectedly here, forged relationships, influenced each other, and learned from each other. This historical phenomenon has been faithfully recorded from time to time under the curious vision of the literati in the South.

Liang Shaowen's (1933, p. 145-148) The Travels of Nanyang has a section of "The localised Chinese" which describes his visit to Tun Tan Cheng Lock, a representative of Baba in Malacca. Liang also meticulously described the diets, clothing, and the lifestyle of the Baba. The writing provides a significant historical cultural essence of the Baba for future generations. Different ethnic groups in Nanyang lived together as the "Malay language is simple and it is an

³ The original text is "华侨" (huáqiáo), which means Chinese nationals living overseas. The English translation is generally translated as "Overseas Chinese". Please refer to Wang Gung Wu's discussion (Wang, 2005).

easy language to learn, and it is indeed the lingua franca of the community" (Song, 1930, section 3, p. 39). On the other hand, the Chinese dialect was also influenced by the Malay language, and some travel notes recorded the text or special sections, thus serving as a valuable material for studying the history of the Chinese language. To gain an insight into the cultural exchanges between the Chinese-Malay ethnic groups in the Nanyang community, here is one example of women's clothing in Nanyang described by Song Yunpu (1930). When he first arrived in Singapore, he noticed that the Chinese women's clothing and hair accessories were different from those in China:

When I first arrived in Singapore, I saw many of our overseas Chinese women who put up hair buns or coils on their heads and they dressed in neither Cantonese nor Shanghai costumes. I wondered and asked my friends and they told me that this is the Malay costume. Since we are now part of the natives of the country, we live and mix around with the Malays, and my children and younger generations imitate how the Malays dress up. (section 1, p. 70).

From this description, it can be observed that the Chinese women at that time loved Malay costumes and followed the trend. Moreover, Chinese society was greatly influenced by the Malay culture. Therefore, it can be summarised that the close relationship between the Chinese-Malay society was established since that time.

CONCLUSION

This article discussed the Malay narratives and images depicted in Nanyang's Travel records, a relatively new attempt in revisiting the cultural history of Nanyang. At present, the discussion of Nanyang Travels in the academic world is mainly focused on the issues of Chinese society. Hence, the Malay fragments in Nanyang Travels described through the writings were merely just a glimpse of their observations or experiences. Nevertheless, it reflects the customs of Nanyang from the perspective of Chinese literati in the early years as well as provides a perspective for observing the Malay culture. Hence, these narratives contributed significantly to this study.

The Malay image depicted from the Nanyang perspective is quite different from the Malay image derived from the perspective of Western "orientalism" of the same era. Although Nanyang is an "exotic" location for both China and the West, the Chinese came to Nanyang with different motives as compared to the Europeans who came to Nanyang. The Europeans came to Nanyang to explore, or to find resources or even to conquer and colonise. It is a spirit of conquest that is full of the hunt for adventure, prying, penetration, and conquering. On the other hand, the Chinese were domestically bankrupt in their home country and came to Nanyang purely to make a living. Although the literati and scholars had a sense of cultural superiority, they did not have the conquerors' dominance and power to control. Instead, they displayed an appreciation of the Malay civilisation from the perspective of outsiders. In short, the Nanyang Travels provides a more positive than a negative description of the image of Malays by the Chinese literati and is always accompanied by a bundle of praises.

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An Empirical Evidence of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) Microcredit Programme Participants' Quality of Life

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ABSTRACT

Since the inception of microcredit programmes, various studies have been carried out to assess their impacts. Earlier studies seemed to highlight this on the participants' income and consequently poverty. However, recent impact studies of microcredit programmes have been looking into participants' quality of life. Thus, this study attempted to investigate the impact of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's microcredit programme on the participants' quality of life and analyse the differences between the new and old participants. This study took on a different perspective by examining aspects of personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. In selecting the samples, a probability sampling (disproportionate stratified) technique was employed. The hypotheses were tested using cross-sectional data of 638 Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia participants. The findings of the study showed that all the hypotheses were significant and supported, where there was significant influence between participants' personal attitude and entrepreneurial intention, participants' subjective norm and entrepreneurial intention, participants' perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention, participants' perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial behaviour, participants' entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour, including participants' entrepreneurial behaviour and participants' quality of life. On the contrary, the findings of the study revealed no difference in the quality of life between new participants and old participants. This study may contribute to the policy implications of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's microcredit

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN 2231-8534 programme, especially in improving training and guidance.

Keywords: Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's microcredit programme, entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial intention, perceived behavioural control, personal attitude, quality of life, subjective norm

ARTICLE INFO

INTRODUCTION

A microcredit programme is one of the most innovative tools in poverty alleviation. In the past, some literature argued on the negative impacts which microcredit programmes have on participants' quality of life. Some of the arguments pointed out that these programmes develop dependency syndromes to the participants, as well as, become a financial burden to them due to high interest rates and administrative rate charges. In time, however, quite a number of literature have started to discuss the positive and significant impacts of microcredit programmes on participants' lives. As a matter of fact, an abundance of studies indicated positive differences brought by the credits offered through such programmes like improved living conditions, education, health, savings, and income.

In support of this, Ghalib et al. (2011) discovered that microcredit programmes possessed the potentials to alleviate poverty. Other studies also showed that participants of microcredit programmes had performed well economically than those who did not participate in the programmes. For example, a study by Tilakaratna et al. (2005) found that compared to non-participants, microcredit enabled the participants to improve the assets, expenditure, and income of their households.

Aside from the above, it is believed that microcredit programmes are capable to improve the quality of life among the poor. The study by Ghalib et al. (2011) too indicated that some studies in Pakistan exhibited that such programmes had brought significant impacts on the quality of life. On the same note, Khandker (2005) investigated the impacts of microcredit programmes and discovered similar positive welfare effects on all credit-receiving households. Additionally, Morduch (2000) and Rahman and Hossain (1995) claimed that the microcredit programme allowed their clients to achieve a better quality of life. In short, it intrinsically suffices to mention that microcredit programmes still bring about positive contributions to the participants' income and lives. Henceforth, to some extent, microcredit programmes are still relevant in improving the poor society's quality of life.

While the achievements of microcredit institutions in enhancing the income of the poor and alleviating poverty should be much-admired, it appears that most of these studies concentrated their investigations on the economic impact of microcredit programmes. This in turn has raised another interesting question: does the microcredit programme has an impact on a broader development goal, which is the participants' quality of life? Indeed, this question is relevant as argued by Murphy (2015) who stated that the use of microcredit programmes was not only limited to poverty alleviation but might also include other dimensions of development goals. As a case in point, participants' quality of life is more prevalent than poverty alleviation in the impact study of microcredit programmes in Malaysia due to the country's reduced poverty rate which was reported to be less than 1% in 2016 (Economics Planning Unit, 2015). Therefore, investigations of the impact of microcredit programmes on the participants must go beyond the poverty impact studies. With respect to this, greater attention must be given to improve the poor's quality of life.

Insofar, most of the studies mentioned earlier assumed a direct relationship between microcredit and participants' quality of life. Nevertheless, Hulme (2000) stated that there was either a direct or indirect effect between the impact of microcredit programmes and participants' quality of life. For this reason, this study attempted to investigate the impact of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's microcredit programme on the participants' quality of life via a different perspective by examining the aspects of personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, plus entrepreneurial intention and behaviour on participants' quality of life. Furthermore, this study analysed the differences in quality of life between the new and old participants.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

In general, the intervention of something can affect behavioural change and practices that lead to the achievement of desired outputs. In other words, behavioural change may not be the end goal, but a transition after an intervention that may enhance the result of other outcomes. This can also be drawn from the money that the participants receive from the microcredit programmes in assisting them to become entrepreneurs and start doing businesses. As a result, they can improve their quality of life.

In reference to behavioural change model, it can be seen that there is quite a number of literature in which behavioural change is theorised and conceptualised. From past literature, the most widely cited and applied theory of planned behaviour was developed by Ajzen (1991), i.e., the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). A search of the online database showed a large number of published studies using Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour. These studies addressed such areas relating to health and behaviour (Godin & Kok, 1996), predicting dishonest action (Beck & Ajzen, 1991), internet purchasing (George, 2004), understanding and predicting electronic commerce adoption (Pavlou & Fygenson, 2006), self-identity (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992), and many more.

The TPB proposes a model that predicts the occurrence of a particular behaviour; whereby this particular behaviour is intentional. As stated by Ajzen (2006), individual behaviour can be deliberative and planned. TPB is a useful method for identifying a particular influence on behaviour that could be targeted for a change. As stated by Ajzen (2006), human behaviour is directed by three main determinants. They are personal attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (see Figure 1). Ajzen (2006) also added that personal attitude yielded either a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the behaviour which were values of the behavioural outcomes. Subjective norms caused by perceived social pressure or by what other people think the person should do affect the person's perception (to engage or not to engage). In other words, the subjective norms are about the positive suggestions,

encouragements, or even advice from people surrounding the participants with regards to whether they should engage in the entrepreneurial intention. Finally, perceived behavioural control is an individual's perceptions of his abilities or feelings of self-efficacy to perform a behaviour. These three main constructs were used to predict the intention to perform a behaviour.

Meanwhile, in relation to the quality of life, literature has also shown that microcredit programmes bring a great impact on participants' quality of life. Chowdhury and Bhuiya's (2004) study of microcredit programmes in Bangladesh revealed that such programmes had a positive impact on human well-being, survival rate, and schooling of children. Similarly, another study by Khandker (2005) on the microcredit programme's impact in Bangladesh had found that the welfare effect was also positive for all households receiving credits. Much later, Ghalib et al. (2011) stated that a few studies in Pakistan had shown that microcredit programmes contributed positively to the poor's quality of life. Their finding indicated that out of four dimensions of study, asset accumulation tends to be a

better indicator of economic well-being. Later, Quraisy et al. (2017) reported that a microcredit programme of *BaitulMaal Wat Tamwil* (BMT) in Indonesia had a positive impact on its participants' quality of life. Henceforth, it intrinsically suffices to mention that microcredit programmes bring about positive contributions and improvement to the participants' quality of life.

To further support the above findings, Hossain (1988), Morduch (2000), and Rahman and Hossain (1995) claimed that microcredit programmes allowed their clients to achieve a better quality of life. Additionally, Hulme and Bhattacharya (1996) revealed the same result where they found that microcredit programmes helped improve the borrowers' well-being and standard of living by improving their income and food consumption.

In the past, Cummins (1996) proposed seven core domains of life in his study, namely material well-being, health, productivity, intimacy, safety, community, and emotional well-being. Deriving from this, Cummins (1996) was decisive with seven main domains – material well-being, health, productivity, intimacy, safety,

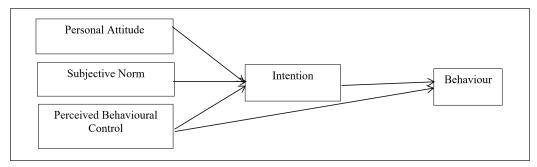


Figure 1. Ajzen's Model of Theory of Planned Behaviour

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community, and emotional well-being as important in assessing a person's quality of life. Cummins (1996) received favourable appraisal for his Comprehensive Quality of Life Scale (ComQol) where he stated that quality of life could be accessed through seven ComQol. Notwithstanding, his ComQol was abandoned in 2001 due to two main issues (Cummins, 2002). As a result of this, the Personal Wellbeing Index (PWI) was established to replace ComQol (The International Wellbeing Group, 2013). On the same matter, Malaysia introduced the Malaysian Quality of Life (MQL) in 1999 to examine the quality of life among Malaysians. The initial edition of the MQL index consisted of 10 components and 38 indicators. The more current version, however, consists of 11 components and 45 indicators. The components are income and distribution, working conditions, transport and communications, health, education, housing, environment, family life, social participation, public safety, as well as culture and leisure.

Nevertheless, due to its inability to effectively measure the impact of microcredit programmes on improving the participants' quality of life, a benchmark for the efficient measurement of microcredit programmes and participants' quality of life is urgently needed. Therefore, this study restructured the domains of life used in the key dimensions of PWI and MQLI to reflect the following dimensions: a) income earnings, b) health, c) productivity, d) friendship, e) personal safety, f) education, g) future security, h) food, i) housing conditions, j) personal savings, and k) spirituality in measuring the participants' quality of life. The selection of these key dimensions was based on the available studies on microcredit programmes and participants' quality of life discussing these dimensions. Thus, the key dimensions chosen are deemed as most acceptable for future studies on quality of life.

From the TPB theory and quality of life index, a model of the impact chain by Hulme (2000) (see Figure 2) was adopted.

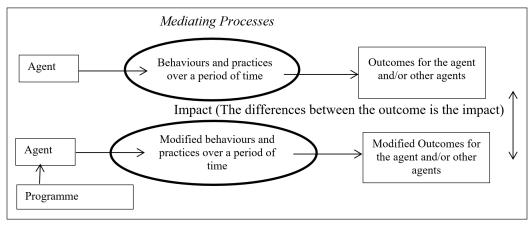


Figure 2. The conventional model of the impact chain *Source:* Hulme (2000)

Hulme's model describes that when the microcredit program is offered to the participants, it will possibly cause a change in participants' behaviours and practices that lead to the achievement of desired outputs. In other words, behavioural change may not be the end goal, but a transition after an intervention that may enhance the result of other outcomes.

Therefore, the TPB and the newly structured quality of life index were added into the model as established by Hulme (2000) to come up with the theoretical framework of this study as shown in Figure 3.

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

A study by Ghalib et al. (2011) indicated that microcredit programmes had brought some positive impacts on the households' quality of life in Pakistan. The same result also appeared in a study conducted by Chowdhury and Bhuiya (2004), Hossain (1988), Hulme and Bhattacharya (1996), Morduch (2000), Rahman and Hossain (1995), and Khandker (2005) who claimed that microcredit programmes allowed their clients to achieve a better quality of life.

Similarly, a study by Afrane (2002) revealed an improvement in the respondents' well-being after they received financial assistance. Furthermore, a study by Epstein and Crane (2005) reported that microcredit programmes significantly impacted the client's quality of life. In 2011, Al-Mamun and Adaikalam (2011) assessed the impact of microcredit programmes on participants' quality of life and concluded that participating in AIM microcredit programmes had indeed improved their life quality.

However, it appears that most of the above studies assumed a direct relationship between microcredit programmes and the quality of life of the participants. Therefore, this study argued that there are other factors that might influence the impact of microcredit programmes on participants' quality of life. These other factors are the participants' personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour. In parallel to

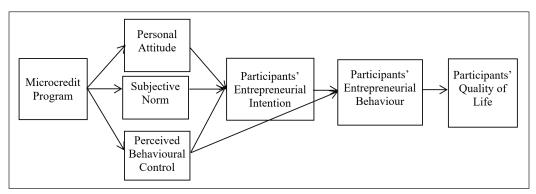


Figure 3. The theoretical framework of assessing the impact of a microcredit programme on participants' quality of life

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this, it is, therefore, hypothesised that microcredit programmes do have an impact on participants' quality of life.

For this study, a hypothesis (H1) was formulated to examine the impact of the microcredit programme on participants' quality of life:

- a) H1a: Participants' personal attitude has a positive influence on participants' entrepreneurial intention.
- b) H1b: Participants' subjective norm has a positive influence on participants' entrepreneurial intention.
- c) H1c: Participants' perceived behavioural control has a positive influence on participants' entrepreneurial intention.
- d) H1d: Participants' perceived behavioural control has a positive influence on participants' entrepreneurial behaviour.
- e) H1e: Participants' entrepreneurial intention has a positive influence on participants' entrepreneurial behaviour.
- f) H1f: Participants' entrepreneurial behaviour has a positive influence on participants' quality of life.

Furthermore, another hypothesis (H2) was also designed to analyse the differences in the quality of life of new and old participants. There are a number of studies that embarked on the same purpose. For example, a study conducted by Al-Mamun et al. (2010) reported that old participants seemed to have a better quality of life, where they tended to live in a bigger house with more rooms and better structural conditions, as well as used permanent housing materials to build their house. The study also revealed that compared to new participants, the old participants used environmentally less destructive cooking fuel and environmentally safe toilet facilities, as well as owned a refrigerator, a washing machine, and a television.

Consequently, analysing the differences in the quality of life of new and old participants will improve the understanding of the impact of microcredit programmes have on participants' quality of life. Thus, it was hypothesised that there are differences in the quality of life between new and old participants.

RESEARCH METHOD

Population

The population of this study was the participants of *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia* (*AIM*) in Kedah, Penang, and Perlis as at the end of 2013, 51,730 microcredit participants had been approved by *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia* (*AIM*) in these states. Based on this population, the minimum sample size required to conduct the research was 383. As cited in Sekaran and Bougie (2009), and Krejci and Morgan (1970), the decision was to ensure a good decision model is simplified.

Sampling Technique

However, the sample size must be larger than the calculated sample responses required to overcome the sample attrition

issue. Taking 80% as the estimated response rate as proposed by Mokhtar (2011), the calculated working sample size is required to avoid problems such as bias and incomplete responses. Henceforth, the appropriate sample size for this study was equivalent to 478 samples drawn from the total 51,730 participants. However, this study decided to distribute a total of 677 questionnaires to the participants of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia in Kedah, Penang, and Perlis (Table 1). To be more specific, 377 (55.69%), 200 (29.54%), and 100 (14.77%) questionnaires were distributed to the participants of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia in Kedah, Penang, and Perlis, respectively. The number of distributed questionnaires was sufficient to address any future problems pertaining to sample error and missing error.

Through several meetings with the heads of selected branches, it was agreed that they would select suitable centres to distribute the questionnaires. Among the reasons why these centres were selected were because of various unaccepted conditions, such as lack of attendance among respondents to the stated meeting, the low literacy level among respondents in certain centres, centres with a too small number of respondents, centres conducting confidential meeting which did not permit other agenda, and centres which refused to cooperate in completing the questionnaires without any reason.

Furthermore, this study attempted to make a comparison of the quality of life between new and old participants of *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM)*. In conjunction with this, the *AIM* participants were divided into two groups, old and new. Participants who took part less than or equal to 12 months were grouped into the new participants and those who took part more than 12 months were denoted as old participants.

However, as the researcher did not know the number of respondents who were new or old during the time of data collection, a disproportionate stratified sampling procedure was also employed. This was in line with the proposition by Sekaran and Bougie (2009) who posited the applicability of disproportionate sampling when the selected strata were too small or too large. Therefore, practically, this type of sampling technique enabled the study to distinguish between new and old participants under the programme. Thus, a disproportionate sampling method was an appropriate approach to select respondents from districts and groups to represent a sample.

Finally, the questionnaires were distributed during the *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia* weekly meeting and the researcher

State	Number of AIM Participants as at the end of 2015	Number of Samples	Number of Samples (%)
Kedah	40,807	377	55.69
Penang	6,463	200	29.54
Perlis	4,460	100	8.58
Total	51,730	677	100

Table 1Sample size for Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia participants in Kedah, Penang, and Perlis

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instantly checked for any unanswered responses. As some of the respondents were not willing to participate in the survey, only 638 out of 677 questionnaires were received and usable for data analysis in this study. Although 39 incomplete questionnaires with a response rate of 94.24 percent (638/677) were identified, the number was adequate and equivalent to previous studies which recorded response rates between 60 to 90 percent (Mokhtar, 2011). Thus, from the 638 completed questionnaires collected from the selected centres, 146 were recognised as new participants and 492 as old.

Measurement

The questionnaire development was adapted from the Personal Wellbeing Index (PWI), Liñán and Chen (2009), McGee et al. (2009), and Mokhtar (2011). Data were collected during the Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia weekly meeting and the researcher instantly checked for any unanswered responses. In this study, all eleven items of participants' quality of life were assessed using an 11-point Likert Scale. In the same way, an 11-points Likert Scale was used to measure the participants' personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as participants' entrepreneurial intention and behaviour in assessing the impact of microcredit programmes on their quality of life.

After the coding and editing process, data screening and cleaning were conducted. The final step was to conduct a descriptive analysis and an inferential analysis. Descriptive analysis was carried out using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 software while the inferential analysis was conducted using software SmartPLS version 3.0. PLS, which is a structural equation modelling (SEM) technique that tests both measurement model (relationships between indicators and their corresponding latent constructs or variables) and the structural model (relationships between the constructs or variables). This technique was considered adequate for the type of investigation carried out later.

RESULT

Evaluation of Measurement Model

In the measurement model evaluation, the convergent validity analysis was first examined. In order to assess the convergent validity, the factor loadings, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) must be assessed (Hair et al., 2014a). Hence, for the present study, the factor loadings of all constructs were examined where .70 or more are considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2014a). Table 2 shows that all factor loadings were higher than .70. Therefore, all factor loadings in the study met the minimum requirement. Secondly, the composite reliability (CR) was assessed. According to Hair et al. (2014b), the composite reliability values of .60 and .70 are considered acceptable where any value less than .60 indicates a lack of composite reliability. Nunnally (1978), on the other hand, suggested the composite reliability values of .70 or higher for basic research. Table 2 displays the composite reliability (CR) values for all constructs that ranged from .927 to .975 which were

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Table 2 Results of conve

Variables/Constructs	Items	Factor Loading (Loadings) (>.50)	Composite Reliability (CR) (>.70)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (>.50)
Participants' Personal Attitude	E1	.853	.961	.831
	E2	.923		
	E3	.915		
	E4	.942		
	E5	.922		
Participants' Subjective Norm	F1	.940	.927	.864
	F2	.919		
Participants' Perceived Behavioural Control	G1	.921	.960	.829
	G2	.941		
	G3	.914		
	G4	.917		
	G5	.859		
Participants' Entrepreneurial Intention	H1	.941	.975	.906
	H2	.964		
	H3	.956		
	H4	.947		
Participants' Entrepreneurial Behaviour	D1	.826	.931	.77
	D2	.913		
	D3	.881		
	D4	.888		
Participants' Quality of Life	C2A	.787	.948	.626
	C2B	.729		
	C2C	.809		
	C2D	.718		
	CDE	.830		
	C2F	.794		
	C2G	.846		
	C2H	.838		
	C2I	.829		
	C2J	.730		
	C2K	.779		

within the acceptable values. Finally, the average variance extracted (AVE) of the constructs was measured. According to Hair et al. (2014a), the ideal value of AVE should be more than .50. Table 2 too exhibits the AVE values within the range of .626 to .906, which met the minimal requirement of .50. From these assessments, the results showed that adequate convergent validity was achieved.

Once the convergent validity was assessed, the discriminant validity analysis was performed on the constructs. Discriminant validity is usually conducted to assess the extent to which a construct is different from one another. Ideally, it is conducted to compare the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations, requiring the square root of each construct's AVE to be greater than its highest correlation with any other construct. In doing this, the cross-loading values are examined to establish support for the discriminant validity. Similarly, the Fornell-Larcker criterion is also examined to establish support for the discriminant validity. These are in line with the suggestions made by Hair et al. (2014b) and Chin (2010).

As a result, the cross-loading values obtained from the present study showed that the diagonal values were higher than the other values in the column and row. In the same way, the Fornell-Larcker criterion values also showed that the square roots of AVE in the diagonal setting were higher than the correlations with the other constructs. Therefore, the constructs in this study were considered as well-discriminated. Table 3 and Table 4 present the acceptable square root of AVE in the diagonal setting.

In a nutshell, all the assessments established that the construct reliability and the validity of the measurement model met the minimum requirement. As such, it could be assumed that the structural model evaluation was reliable and valid.

The determination coefficient (R^2) denoted the percentage of variance explained by the model. Table 5 shows the percentage of variance explained by the model. It could be seen that the percentage of variance explained was between the acceptable ranges.

Evaluation of Structural Model

There were six hypotheses developed to test the direct relationship. From the bootstrapping procedure, the hypotheses results were obtained and examined. Table 6 shows the final results that exhibited the standard beta values of the path analysis and displayed the t-values of the path model significance.

Firstly, hypothesis H1a stated a positive and significant influence between participants' personal attitude and entrepreneurial intention, which was supported at a .01 level of significance (b=.369, t=5.656, p<.01). Secondly, hypothesis H1b asserted a positive and significant influence between participants' subjective norm and participants' entrepreneurial intention, which was supported at .01 level of significance (b=.154, t=3.649 p<.01). Thirdly, hypothesis H1c

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Table 3		
Results	of cross	loadings

	Participants' Quality of Life	Participants' Entrepreneurial Behaviour	Participants' Personal Attitude	Participants' Subjective Norm	Participants' Perceived Behavioural Control	Participants' Entrepreneurial Intention
C2A	0.787	0.534	0.500	0.419	0.523	0.379
C2B	0.729	0.477	0.463	0.365	0.439	0.381
C2C	0.809	0.510	0.500	0.441	0.528	0.399
C2D	0.718	0.500	0.500	0.467	0.511	0.421
C2E	0.830	0.485	0.513	0.435	0.489	0.445
C2F	0.794	0.496	0.476	0.384	0.493	0.408
C2G	0.846	0.487	0.473	0.428	0.498	0.424
C2H	0.838	0.478	0.474	0.411	0.489	0.424
C2I	0.829	0.479	0.443	0.383	0.437	0.344
C2J	0.730	0.460	0.402	0.351	0.443	0.348
C2K	0.779	0.508	0.466	0.448	0.429	0.401
D1	0.518	0.826	0.608	0.441	0.560	0.504
D2	0.595	0.913	0.715	0.543	0.658	0.595
D3	0.515	0.881	0.608	0.441	0.615	0.553
D4	0.559	0.888	0.705	0.529	0.655	0.582
E1	0.534	0.676	0.853	0.550	0.655	0.575
E2	0.553	0.708	0.923	0.619	0.720	0.682
E3	0.575	0.666	0.915	0.651	0.701	0.736
E4	0.555	0.708	0.942	0.663	0.733	0.727
E5	0.525	0.681	0.922	0.684	0.723	0.744
F1	0.500	0.528	0.686	0.940	0.612	0.646
F2	0.471	0.510	0.606	0.919	0.582	0.558
G1	0.542	0.662	0.722	0.587	0.921	0.688
G2	0.552	0.667	0.738	0.597	0.941	0.702
G3	0.539	0.635	0.707	0.602	0.914	0.682
G4	0.575	0.684	0.719	0.598	0.917	0.705
G5	0.563	0.582	0.642	0.542	0.859	0.670
H1	0.518	0.620	0.718	0.624	0.730	0.941
H2	0.467	0.608	0.737	0.616	0.731	0.964
H3	0.480	0.605	0.741	0.626	0.728	0.956
H4	0.451	0.595	0.715	0.609	0.694	0.947

indicated a positive and significant influence between participants' perceived behavioural control and participants' entrepreneurial intention, which was supported at a .01 level of significance (b=.372, t=5.646, p<.01). Fourthly, hypothesis H1d pointed to a positive and significant relationship between participants' perceived behavioural control and participants' entrepreneurial behaviour, which was supported at a .01

	Participants' Entrepreneurial Behaviour	Participants' Entrepreneurial Intention	Participants' Perceived Behavioural Control	Participants' Personal Attitude	Participants' Quality of Life	Participants' Subjective Norm
Participants' Entrepreneurial Behaviour	0.878					
Participants' Entrepreneurial Intention	0.638	0.952				
Participants' Perceived Behavioural Control	0.710	0.757	0.911			
Participants' Personal Attitude	0.753	0.765	0.775	0.912		
Participants' Quality of Life	0.624	0.504	0.608	0.601	0.791	
Participants' Subjective Norm	0.559	0.650	0.643	0.698	0.523	0.930

Table 4

Results of Fornell and Larcker Criterion

Table 5

Results of Determination Coefficient (R²)

Constructs	R ²	Predictive Power
Participants' Entrepreneurial Intention	0.664	High
Participants' Entrepreneurial Behaviour	0.528	High
Participants' Quality of Life	0.390	High

Table 6

Results of hypothese.	s testing
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Hypothesis 1	Relationship (Exogenous >Endogenous	Standard Beta	Standard Error	t-Values	p Values	Decision
H1a	PA -> PEI	.369	.065	5.656	.00***	Supported
H1b	SN -> PEI	.154	.043	3.649	.00***	Supported
H1c	PBC -> PEI	.372	.066	5.646	.00***	Supported
H1d	PBC -> PEB	.533	0.047	11.434	.00***	Supported
H1e	PEI -> PEB	.234	.046	5.076	.00***	Supported
H1f	PEB -> PQL	.624	.030	20.927	.00***	Supported

Note: ***p<.01

level of significance (b=.533, t=11.434, p<.01). Fifthly, hypothesis H1e established a positive and significant relationship between participants' entrepreneurial intention and

behaviour, which was supported at a .01 level of significance (b=.234, t=5.076, p<.01). Finally, hypothesis H1f showed that participants' entrepreneurial behaviour

positively and significantly influenced the participants' quality of life at .01 level of significance (b=.624, t=20.927, p<.01).

Multi Group Analysis

In this study, multi group analysis was also conducted to test the differences between path coefficients in the structural model across two groups of data. This was in line with Hair et al.'s (2014a) who claimed that a multi group analysis must be conducted to assess PLS path models between two groups to detect whether there were differences in parameter estimates for each group. In the context of this study, the different paths concerning the impact of AIM microcredit programme on its participants' quality of life can be revealed using the result of path coefficients across the two groups of data. As such, multi group analysis was conducted to observe the path coefficients across the two groups.

In order to conduct this assessment, the researcher divided the participants' length of years joining the AIM microcredit programme using SPSS analysis which created separate data sets of two groups; participants who joined the microcredit for less than one year (new participants=146) and participants who joined the microcredit for more than one year (old participants=492). A comparison between the new and old participants was analysed using the p-value.

Table 7 shows the results of multi group analysis in detail. Overall, the path coefficients between the two groups showed no difference in the quality of life of the new participants and the old participants. As shown in Table 7, the results of p-value at .181 indicated no significant difference in the effect of the participants' subjective norm on their entrepreneurial intention between the new participants and the old ones. Similarly, a p-value of .994 demonstrated no significant difference in the effect of the participants' perceived behavioural control on their entrepreneurial intention between the new participants and the old participants. In addition, the p-value at .881 indicated no significant difference in the effect of the participants' perceived behavioural control on their entrepreneurial

	New Participants (146 Respondents)		Old Participants (492 Respondents)				
	β	SE	β	SE	Diff	p-Value	sig
PA -> PEI	.550	.098	.322	.073	.228	.033	*
SN -> PEI	.219	.080	.134	.047	.085	.181	-
PBC -> PEI	.152	.082	.431	.074	.280	.994	-
PBC -> PEB	.446	.084	.564	.053	.117	.881	-
PEI -> PEB	.370	.080	.190	.051	.179	.032	*
PEB -> PQL	.588	.074	.637	.031	.049	.716	-

Table 7PLS multi group analysis results in details

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behaviour between the new participants and the old. In fact, the results of p-value at .716 also revealed no significant difference in the effect of the participants' entrepreneurial behaviour on their quality of life between the new participants and the old participants.

Although the overall path coefficients between the two groups showed no difference in the quality of life between the new participants and the old participants, there were only two relationships (path coefficients) that differed significantly across the two groups.

DISCUSSION

This study attempted to investigate the impact of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's microcredit programme on the participants' quality of life from a different perspective. The examined aspects involved personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. Besides, this study also analysed the differences in the quality of life between the new and the old participants.

In conjunction with investigating the impact of *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's* microcredit programme on the participants' quality of life, the path coefficients were examined. Firstly, the result supported hypothesis H1a which states a positive and significant influence of participants' personal attitude on participants' entrepreneurial intention. This finding is in parallel with the studies by Autio et al. (2001), Engle et al. (2010), Fayolle et al. (2006), Liñán and Chen (2009), Karimi et al. (2012), and Krueger et al. (2000) who claimed that personal attitude had significant effects on entrepreneurial intention.

Secondly, the result confirmed there is a positive and significant influence of participants' subjective norm on their entrepreneurial intention as indicated by hypothesis H1b. This finding is consistent with findings by Autio et al. (2001), Engle et al. (2010), Fayolle et al. (2006), Liñán and Chen (2009), Karimi et al. (2012), and Krueger et al. (2000) who revealed that subjective norm had significant effects on entrepreneurial intention.

Thirdly, Hypothesis H1c indicates a positive and significant influence of the participants' perceived behavioural control on their entrepreneurial intention. This finding is in line with the findings of Autio et al. (2001), Engle et al. (2010), Fayolle et al. (2006), Liñán and Chen (2009), Karimi et al. (2012), and Krueger et al. (2000) who agreed that perceived behavioural control had significant effects on entrepreneurial intention.

Fourthly, H1d hypothesis affirmed that a positive and significant influence of participants' perceived behavioural control on their entrepreneurial behaviour as supported by the result. Evidently, findings by Autio et al. (2001), Engle et al. (2010), Fayolle et al. (2006), Liñán and Chen (2009), Karimi et al. (2012), and Krueger et al. (2000) are in accordance with the study's finding where they revealed that perceived behavioural control had significant effects on entrepreneurial intention.

Fifthly, Hypothesis H1e is in tandem with the result where it shows that there is a positive and significant influence of participants' entrepreneurial intentions on their entrepreneurial behaviour. This finding is parallel with the studies conducted by Autio et al. (2001), Engle et al. (2010), Fayolle et al. (2006), Liñán and Chen (2009), Karimi et al. (2012), and Krueger et al. (2000) which unveiled that participants' entrepreneurial intentions had significant effects on their entrepreneurial behaviour.

Lastly, the result showed a positive and significant influence of the participants' entrepreneurial behaviour on their quality of life, which is consistent with hypothesis H1f. Hulme (2000) claimed that microcredit will cause changes in participants' behaviour which would end in another outcome. By the same token, Darnton (2008) stated that behavioural change would affect a person's quality of life rather than being the end outcome. In fact, this is also in line with Nader (2008) who stated that self-esteem and confidence were enhanced through microcredit which led to improvement in the participants' quality of life.

From the above findings and discussion, it is concluded that microcredit programmes will have an impact on participants' quality of life through their personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention, and behaviour enhancements. Hence, microcredits are offered to participants of microcredit programmes for selfemployment activities. The microcredits promote positive personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention and behaviour that boost income-generating activities to improve the participants' quality of life and take care of themselves and their families.

While, in order to analyse the differences in the quality of life between the new and old participants, the multi group analysis was conducted. In line with this, hypothesis H2 was tested to meet the study's objective. When comparing the two groups, i.e., new participants who joined the microcredit programme for less than one year (new participants) and old participants who joined the microcredit programme for more than one year (old participants), it was found that there was no difference in their quality of life. This finding lies in stark contrast with a past study conducted by Al-Mamun et al. (2010) where they reported different qualities of life between the new and the old participants.

Although the researcher expected to see a different quality of life between the new participants who joined the microcredit programme for less than one year and the old participants who joined the microcredit programme for more than one year, the present findings indicated that the old participants who joined the microcredit programme for more than one year might insufficiently expand their potentials and opportunities to achieve a better quality of life.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

AIM microcredit programme was established with the objective to reduce poverty among the households and provide low-income earners with microcredit facilities to improve their income earnings through income-generating activities. The establishment of the AIM microcredit programme was also with the objective to provide guidance and training to the poor. Despite the great achievement of the AIM microcredit programme, especially in poverty alleviation and improvement in the quality of life of the poor, this study revealed a new finding that suggests the need for further improvement in guidance and training in the programme.

The AIM microcredit programme is a great initiative for the poor. Therefore, this present study suggests for the AIM microcredit programme to set up and improve their training and development programmes for the participants. This is necessary to help facilitate the sustainable development of the participants. Providing participants with training and development programmes is compulsory because it is a significant strategy to monitor the effectiveness of the poverty alleviation strategy.

Discussion with experts from local universities may also help to facilitate the AIM's training and development programmes. Further discussion between AIM and the local universities should be conducted to see how the experts can bring a significant arrangement to the participants, especially in training and development programmes. AIM should take this opportunity as a continuing effort for a greater impact and sustainability.

On the other hand, an establishment of entrepreneurship mentoring programmes may also further increase the significance of AIM's training and development programmes. A mentoring entrepreneurship programme is a strategic concept of learning and development between mentors and mentees. The mentors will be able to help the mentees by advising and recommending necessary actions. This mentoring programme of entrepreneurship may perhaps help to contribute to the development of a talented pipeline for particular businesses among the participants.

CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to investigate the impact of *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia*'s microcredit programme on the participants' quality of life via a different perspective by examining the aspects of personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, as well as entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. From the findings, all the reported hypotheses were significant and supported. In short, they were influential to the participants' quality of life.

Furthermore, this study also analysed the differences in the quality of life between the new and the old participants. However, the present findings revealed no difference. In conjunction with this, *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia* microcredit programme, on that front, falls short. In response to this, new guidance and training programmes for the participants should be implemented as motivational, professional, and emotional support. These are the key links for the old participants to not attempt on businesses merely for survival but also to ensure that they improve and increase their productivity for their business success. Therefore, the *Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia* microcredit programme must initiate efforts for the sake of its participants.

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Examining Technological and Productivity Change in the Islamic Banking Industry

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ABSTRACT

Islamic banking dominates the largest market share of global Islamic finance assets. Thus, the performance of Islamic banks is crucial in shaping the future development of Islamic finance. This study aims to examine the performance of Islamic banks in the perspective of technological and productivity change based on the country level assessment. By adopting the Malmquist Index analysis, this study selected 44 Islamic banks from the top ten countries that had the largest Islamic banking asset for the period from 2015 to 2018. The findings reveal that the average productivity of Islamic banks has increased during the study period. Productivity improvements were supported by technological

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E-mail addresses: rindangnuri@uii.ac.id (Rindang Nuri Isnaini Nugrohowati) fakhrunnasfaaza@uii.ac.id (Faaza Fakhrunnas) hrazali@iium.edu.my (Razali Haron) *Corresponding author innovation, which significantly increased the level of productivity. Nevertheless, the high-tech expansion was not followed by an improvement in the efficiency level. This finding explains that the development of banking technology is not able to fully support the development of products and services.

Keywords: Islamic banking, Malmquist Index, productivity, technological

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INTRODUCTION

Islamic finance provides a different perspective on financial practice, prohibiting interest, gharar (undue hazard), and maysir (gambling) and other prohibited activities in its operation. These principles create a difference in the operation of Islamic financial institutions compared to others. Islamic finance has seen rapid growth in the last two decades: assets reached USD 1,760 bn in 2012, and grew to USD 2,524 bn in 2018, with accumulated growth of 43.4% during the period. This growth was mainly due to the growth in the Islamic banking sector, which constituted 70% of Islamic finance assets. Globally, there are 520 Islamic banks (IBs) operating across 72 countries (Thomson Reuters, 2018).

Figure 1 shows the top ten countries with the biggest Islamic banking assets (in billions of dollars, USD). Iran hosts the biggest Islamic banking sector among the Islamic countries, with USD 390 bn in total assets with 24 IBs. The high number of Islamic banks' total assets in Iran is due to the entire financial industry of the country operates only Islamic banking and finance unlike the dual banking system practiced in other countries (The Diplomat, 2015). Iran then is followed by Saudi Arabia and Malaysia, which had USD 214 bn and USD 194 bn with 16 and 38 IBs, respectively. Indonesia had USD 28 bn in total assets, with 34 IBs.

The future development of Islamic banking requires the adoption of high-tech solutions that enable greater competitiveness and profitability (Akhtar, 2010). In addition, Akhtar (2010) had argued that the adoption of cutting-edge technology in IBs would increase their productivity. Hence the role of innovation becomes pivotal for IBs: adopting new and better technology would increase business efficiency. Yildirim (2017)

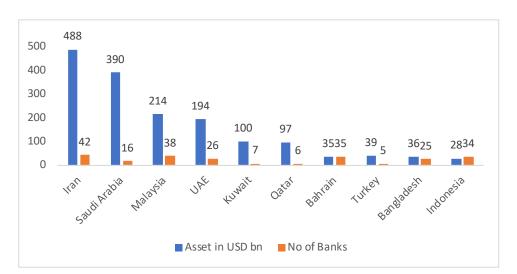


Figure 1. Asset size of Islamic banks in the top ten countries for Islamic Banking (Thomson Reuters, 2018)

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stated that efficiency would make IBs able to optimize inputs from funding and financing activities, thus generating more income from these activities. Therefore, by achieving a certain level of efficiency, IBs will be more productive in conducting their business operations.

Measures of banking efficiency had been developed by Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), Akhtar (2010), Fakhrunnas et al. (2018), Harahap and Nashihin (2014), Nartey et al. (2019), Sufian (2007), and Sufian and Haron (2008). According to these studies, the measurement of efficiency can be used to measure the technological development in the banking industry as well as the improvement of its productivity. In other words, it also means that the more efficient banks have better technology, and so this is an appropriate indicator for measuring banks' productivity.

Akhtar (2010), in his studies using the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA), found that Saudi Arabian banks' increased productivity was due to improvement in their technology, and this had increased the banks' efficiency score The finding implies that banks in Saudi Arabia, as intermediary institutions, were able to innovate new banking products that improved productivity. In contrast, Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017) stated that IBs in Qatar were not able to perform as expected due to low efficiency, especially technical and pure efficiency.

From the wider perspective, Sufian et al. (2008) found that IBs in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region became the most efficient IBs in the world during 2001-2006. The same study also found that this high efficiency indicated that IBs in MENA had the utmost developed technology compared to banks in other regions. Sufian and Haron (2008) found that Malaysian-owned IBs were more efficient and productive compared to the foreignowned IBs in Malaysia due to the locallyowned banks' improvements in technology.

Despite the many past studies on the efficiency of IBs, only a few have addressed the efficiency issue from the perspective of technological development and productivity. This study, therefore, attempts to contribute in two aspects. The first is to reconfirm the findings of previous studies; the second is to examine efficiency from the technological perspective at the country level so as to understand the Islamic banking development from the macro perspective (rather than at the level of individual IBs).

This introduction is to be followed with a literature review and then a statement of research methods. Next is the results and discussion; the final section offers conclusions and recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Efficiency and productivity are two indicators that can explain banks' performance (Abdul-Wahab & Haron, 2017). According to Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), *productivity* refers to units of inputs used to create outputs, while *efficiency* refers to additional outputs created while adding more inputs. In relation to this, Sufian (2007) described efficiency as a progressive transformation from input to output performed by the bank. A higher level of efficiency will present when the impact of adding one input creates a higher additional output progressively. In contrast, a lower level of efficiency will exist when there is no progressive additional output following new input (Abdul-Wahab & Haron, 2017).

To examine the banks' efficiency, the frontier efficiency approach is viewed as the most advanced method (Abdul-Wahab & Haron, 2017). This approach compares the business performance of two banks, expressing the comparison in terms of an efficiency ratio. The most efficient bank is taken to be at the frontier, and it will be the benchmark for other banks (Berger & Humphrey, 1997). Frontier efficiency can be established using a parametric or non-parametric approach. According to Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), the parametric approach employs econometrics as a foundation for determining an efficiency model; this is called Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA). SFA will have an error term in the model and a researcher must have good reason to use this method. In the nonparametric approach, Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) is utilized to measure bank efficiency. DEA performs a linear programming procedure that accommodates many inputs and outputs while not requiring price information. Furthermore, DEA tends to be used for small sample sizes while SFA requires a bigger sample.

Sealey and Lindley (1977) asserted that efficiency measurement in the banking sector had two approaches: the production and intermediation efficiency approaches. According to the *production efficiency* *approach*, the bank manages input such as customer deposits (funding activities) and progressively transforms it into output (financing activities). In contrast, the *intermediation efficiency approach* is grounded in the bank's function as an intermediary institution that channels funds from surplus sectors to deficit sectors.

Studies in banking productivity and efficiency have been carried out by many researchers, showing its importance with regards to the discussion of Islamic banking and finance. Staub et al. (2010) studied the efficiency of conventional banking around the world. The study found that banks in Brazil recorded lower economic costs compared to banks in Europe and the United States. DEA was employed and the study found that state-owned banks were significantly more cost-efficient than national private banks, banks with foreign ownership, and private banks.

Meanwhile, Adjei-Frimpong et al. (2015) explained that the banking industry in New Zealand had achieved an optimal level of efficiency. However, this is the case only with respect to scale efficiency, not pure efficiency. This finding could be contributed by the New Zealand banking industry, which only experienced a slight increase during the 2007-2011 period. The increase was due to improvement in banking technology as the use of inputs was made more efficient and the level of output productivity was increasing.

In line with Adjei-Frimpong et al. (2015), the effect of technology on efficiency level was also found by Nartey et al. (2019) on banking efficiency in Africa. They found that the decline in the productivity of African banks was mainly due to insufficient technological progress, with state banks reported to be more productive than foreign and private banks. Furthermore, their findings showed that non-executive directors, leverage, management quality, credit risk, competition, and exchange rates have a significant influence on bank productivity, however, neither ownership nor quality of CEO has any significant influence.

Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017) conducted a study on the banking efficiency in Qatar for 2007-2011. They discovered that the banking industry in Qatar was not optimal due to low efficiency. In general, conventional banking in Qatar recorded higher efficiency than Islamic banking in terms of both technical and pure efficiency. Nevertheless, Islamic banking in the country is better in terms of scale efficiency. Malmquist Productivity Index (MPI) is performed in their study and they found that the global economic crisis affected the efficiency of the local banking industry, with efficiency tending to decrease throughout the crisis. Maredza and Ikhide (2013) added that the global financial crisis was one of the key determinants of efficiency in the banking industry. Efficiency was affected by the banking crisis, as was productivity.

Further, Ahmad and Rahman (2012) performed a study on the efficiency of IBs in Malaysia and compared the performance of IBs with that of conventional banks. They used the intermediary approach, categorizing total employee salaries as capital and total third-party funds as input. Meanwhile, lending and financing activities, as well as total income, were measured as output. The study established that conventional banks were more efficient than the IBs because the conventional had better management and were larger in size. This makes them better able to utilize input to raise productivity than IBs.

In line with Ahmad and Rahman (2012), Fakhrunnas et al. (2018) concluded that IBs in Indonesia was not so efficient as their conventional counterparts. Their studies used total deposits, operational costs, and total financing as input variables while measuring bank income as the output variable. They concluded that although Islamic banking was less efficient, during the 2008 crisis IBs was less vulnerable compared to conventional banks. This is evidenced by the decline in the efficiency of conventional banks, which was higher compared to IBs during the crisis period.

Rusydiana (2018) explained that IBs in Indonesia had performed differently in terms of efficiency and found that eight out of eleven IBs in Indonesia had increased their productivity. The increase in productivity is an indicator of the development of banking technology that enables the management of inputs to become more efficient. The other three IBs, however, did not record an increase in productivity due to the decline or stagnation of technology.

In addition, Sufian et al. (2008) studied 37 IBs spread across 37 countries and used DEA for their analysis. They recorded that Islamic banking in MENA had higher average efficiency compared to other regions in the Asian continent. This is based on the higher technical efficiency value, which is strongly influenced by the pure efficiency value. The findings of their studies confirm the function of IBs as intermediaries where total deposits and assets are utilized as input for producing output in the form of total financing, income, and investment.

Akhtar (2010) recorded that the banking industry in Saudi Arabia experienced an increase in average bank productivity. This is primarily caused by technological changes, which in turn drive changes in efficiency. This is mainly caused by changes in technology relative to changes in efficiency. Banks in Saudi Arabia have managed to catch up by implementing the best banking practices, despite the technical efficiency (TE), on average was still below the optimal level. Using DEA, the results also confirmed that the role of banks as intermediary institutions in Saudi Arabia caused their ability to innovate effectively and thereby increase the level of productivity and efficiency. Innovations in

banking products and the technology used can certainly reduce banking operational costs (Raphael, 2013).

METHODS

This study used balanced panel data of 44 IBs from 2014 to 2018. The banks were selected from the 10 countries that had the largest Islamic banking sectors, namely Iran, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrain, Indonesia, Turkey, and Bangladesh. The selected countries above-mentioned represent the advanced development of the Islamic banking industry in the world (Thomson Reuters, 2018) and control about 85% of global Islamic banking assets (Islamic Financial Service Board [IFSB], 2019). The top 5 Islamic commercial banks (in terms of assets) were then chosen from each country to represent the Islamic banking development for each of the sample countries.

Table 1 lists the banks selected for the study. Only 1 bank was selected for Iran and 4 each for Turkey and Bangladesh due to the unavailability of data for other banks.

Table 1	
Research sample	

Country	Number of samples	Bank names
Indonesia	5	Bank Muamalat Indonesia, BRI Syariah, BNI Syariah, Mega Syariah, Syariah Mandiri
Iran	1	Bank Tajerat
Saudi Arabia	5	Al Rajhi, Banque Saudi Fransi, National Commercial Bank, Riyadh Bank, Samba Bank

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Table 1 (Continued)

Country	Number of samples	Bank names
Malaysia	5	Bank Kerjasama Rakyat, CIMB Islamic Berhad, Maybank Islamic Berhad, Ublic Islamic Berhad, RHB
UAE	5	Abu Dhabi Islamic Bank, Dubai Islamic Bank, Emirates Islamic Bank, Noor Bank, Sharjah Bank
Qatar	5	Commercial Bank, Doha Bank, Qatar International Islamic Bank, Qatar Islamic Bank, Qatar National Bank
Kuwait	5	Ahli United Bank, Boubyan Bank, Kuwait Finance House, Kuwait International Bank, Warba Bank
Bahrain	5	ABC Islamic Bank, Al Salam Bank, Albaraka Islamic Bank, Bahrain Islamic Bank, Khaleeji Commercial Bank
Turkey	4	Albaraka Bank, Halk Bank, Kuwait Turkish Participation, Turkiye Finans
Bangladesh	4	Islami Bank Bangladesh, First Security, Al Arafah Bank, Exim Bank, Social Islami Bank

This study applied an intermediation approach that considered IBs as intermediaries between surplus and deficit units. The intermediation approach uses deposits as input which will later produce output in the form of financing to those who need funds. This approach is considered appropriate for the performance evaluation of financial institutions in general due to the characteristics of IBs as financial intermediaries. In addition, the intermediation approach has also been broadly used in the banking efficiency research performed in many countries. The input and output variables selected are depicted in Table 2.

There are several stages in analyzing the banking performance using the Malmquist Index (MI) with the application of the DEA, together termed Dual Method Programming, as explained in previous studies (Abdul-Wahab & Haron, 2017; Akhtar, 2010; Nartey et al., 2019). In the first stage of this study, efficiency scores were estimated using DEA and then the measurement of bank productivity was performed. In determining the level of productivity, if MI > 1, there was an increase in the level of productivity. If MI = 1 then there is no increase in productivity or productivity is stagnant, and if MI < 1 there is a decrease in the level of productivity.

The second stage was a quadrant plot of Islamic bank groups sorted into two categories: firstly, changes in efficiency and secondly, changes in technological factors,

Variable	Definition	Reference(s)	
Input		Ahmad and Rahman	
Third party funds	The total amount of funds deposited by Islamic banking customers	(2012), Firdaus and Hoser (2013), Widiarti et al.	
Total assets	The total amount of assets in Islamic banks	(2015)	
Output		Ahmad and Rahman	
Financing	The total amount of financing given to the deficit unit of Islamic banks	(2012), Firdaus and Hoser (2013), Widiarti et al.	
Operational	The net income for operational activity	(2015)	
income	performed by Islamic banks		

Table 2Input-output model of DEA

with certain criteria. Quadrant 1 shows high technology and high efficiency: this is the category of IBs that is high in technical change and efficiency change. Quadrant 2 shows high technology and low efficiency: these are IBs that have high technical change but on the other hand, have low-efficiency change. Quadrant 3 exhibits low technology and high efficiency: IBs that have low technical change but high-efficiency change. Quadrant 4 shows low technology and low efficiency: IBs that have low technical change and low-efficiency change.

The Malmquist Productivity Index (MPI) was employed to measure banks' productivity. MPI was first introduced by Caves, Christensen, and Diewert (1982) by adopting the distance function methodology to describe technology and define input, output, and productivity indices. Measurement of changes in company productivity between two periods involves two production technology sets, namely S^{s} and S^{t} , respectively, for periods *s* and *t*. Each technology set involves the output vectors q_{s} and q_{t} , as well as the input vectors x_{s} and x_{t} .

For output produced in periods s and t, there is a technology that produces maximum output using x_s and x_t . For instance, if a bank in the period s produces 90% of its maximum capacity with the input vector x_s , and in period t can produce output 40% above its maximum capacity using the input vector x_t , then the change in productivity from period s to t is 1.40 / 0.90 = 1.26

MPI calculations with technological references in the period s are proposed by Caves, Christensen, and Diewert (1982) as follows:

$$m_0^t(q_s, q_t, x_s, x_t) = \frac{d_0^t(q_t, x_t)}{d_0^t(q_s, x_s)}$$

If it is assumed that the bank achieved technical efficiency (hereinafter referred to as *efficiency*) in the second period, then $d_0^s(q_s, x_s) = 1$ so that the above equation becomes:

$$m_0^s(q_s, q_t, x_s, x_t) = d_0^s(q_t, x_t)$$

Furthermore, for MPI with the technology reference in period t, the equation is as follows:

$$m_0^t(q_s, q_t, x_s, x_t) = \frac{d_0^t(q_t, x_t)}{d_0^t(q_s, x_s)}$$

Malmquist TFP Index calculation (MTFPI) is based on MPI measurements in period s and t so that the MTFPI calculation is the geometric average of the two indices in that period:

$$m_{0}(q_{s}, q_{t}, x_{s}, x_{t}) = [m_{0}^{s}(q_{s}, q_{t}, x_{s}, x_{t}) \times m_{0}^{t}(q_{s}, q_{t}, x_{s}, x_{t})]^{0.5}$$

$$MTFPI = \left[\frac{d_{0}^{s}(q_{t}, x_{t})}{d_{0}^{s}(q_{s}, x_{s})} \times \frac{d_{0}^{t}(q_{t}, x_{t})}{d_{0}^{t}(q_{s}, x_{s})}\right]^{0.5}$$

The MTFPI equation can be separated into two components: efficiency changes and technological changes, as below:

$$m_{0}(q_{s}, q_{t}, x_{s}, x_{t}) = \frac{d_{0}^{t}(q_{t}, x_{t})}{d_{0}^{s}(q_{s}, x_{s})} \left[\frac{d_{0}^{s}(x_{t}, q_{t})}{d_{0}^{t}(x_{t}, q_{t})} \times \frac{d_{0}^{s}(x_{s}, q_{s})}{d_{0}^{t}(x_{s}, q_{s})} \right]^{0.5}$$

$$Efficiency Change = \frac{d_{0}^{t}(q_{t}, x_{t})}{d_{0}^{s}(q_{s}, x_{s})}$$

Technical Change

$$= \left[\frac{d_0^{s}(x_t, q_t)}{d_0^{t}(x_t, q_t)} \times \frac{d_0^{s}(x_s, q_s)}{d_0^{t}(x_s, q_s)}\right]^{0.5}$$

The equation above is obtained because, in the real world, banks often operate at efficiency levels that are not optimal; in other words, banks operate in inefficient conditions, so: $d_0^s(q_s, x_s) \le 1$ and $d_0^t(q_t, x_t) \le 1$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Description of Results on Efficiency

Table 3 shows the average efficiency of IBs, which is not at the optimal level. Generally, IBs have not been able to optimize all of their resources such that they operate with maximum efficiency. The evidence can be seen in the efficiency values measured below 1. The table also shows that during the study period, Bangladesh had the lowest technical efficiency value (12.4% efficiency). The inefficiency of IBs in Bangladesh occurred due to the scale inefficiency instead of pure technical inefficiency. According to the result, the scale inefficiency value is 86.7%, while the pure technical inefficiency value is only 8.2%. This finding implies that IBs have not been able to achieve their optimal scale (they are either too large or too small). This result is in line with the study conducted by Adjei-Frimpong et al. (2015), who found that bank technical inefficiencies were caused by scale inefficiency instead of pure technical inefficiency.

In contrast, Qatar had the highest value of technical efficiency, at 71.7%. This means

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Table 3

Description of efficiency result

Country/Efficiency	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Indonesia				
Technical Efficiency	0.689	0.483	0.802	0.254
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.773	0.512	0.942	0.192
Scale Efficiency	0.788	0.625	0.992	0.074
Iran				
Technical Efficiency	0.408	0.258	0.579	0.064
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.821	0.372	1.000	0.316
Scale Efficiency	0.497	0.338	0.694	0.071
Saudi Arabia				
Technical Efficiency	0.544	0.231	0.763	0.198
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.774	0.586	0.865	0.051
Scale Efficiency	0.704	0.277	0.914	0.303
Malaysia				
Technical Efficiency	0.661	0.276	0.949	0.350
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.840	0.572	0.952	0.102
Scale Efficiency	0.788	0.313	0.999	0.369
UAE				
Technical Efficiency	0.593	0.265	0.847	0.236
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.743	0.535	0.860	0.066
Scale Efficiency	0.806	0.370	0.997	0.298
Qatar				
Technical Efficiency	0.717	0.338	0.904	0.225
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.873	0.832	0.921	0.006
Scale Efficiency	0.819	0.395	0.999	0.276
Kuwait				
Technical Efficiency	0.633	0.365	0.851	0.165
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.714	0.540	0.871	0.101
Scale Efficiency	0.892	0.679	0.979	0.062
Bahrain				
Technical Efficiency	0.630	0.438	0.729	0.056
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.868	0.793	0.910	0.010
Scale Efficiency	0.733	0.560	0.818	0.044

Country/Efficiency	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Turkey				
Technical Efficiency	0.334	0.149	0.457	0.058
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.379	0.152	0.527	0.089
Scale Efficiency	0.859	0.796	0.936	0.011
Bangladesh				
Technical Efficiency	0.124	0.045	0.229	0.018
Pure Technical Efficiency	0.918	0.880	1.000	0.009
Scale Efficiency	0.133	0.045	0.253	0.023

that IBs in Qatar can produce similar levels of output by reducing their inputs by 28.3%. In other words, IBs are able to produce identical levels of output using only 71.7% of the total input held. The measurement results indicate that scale inefficiency is higher than pure technical inefficiency, with small differences of 18.1% and 12.7%. This suggests that IBs in Qatar had not achieved their optimal scale and 12.7% of the total technical inefficiencies could be contributed by inefficient management of IBs (i.e. management that is less competent at using input resources). In addition, IBs also possibly do not practice proper management in their operational activities. This finding differs from Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), which revealed that the pure technical inefficiency of IBs in Qatar was higher than their scale inefficiency. The findings of the current study are also consistent with the efficiency of IBs in several other countries, such as Indonesia, UAE, Kuwait, and Turkey. The results

show that the technical inefficiency of IBs in each country is mostly caused by the less competent management of IBs— management that is less efficient at using banks' input resources.

Figure 2 describes the technical efficiency of IBs in the 10 countries that have the largest Islamic banking asset. It shows a declining trend during the period from 2014 to 2017 then an increase in 2018. The significant decline occurred in 2017, with technical efficiency on average at 0.364 or 36.4%, then increased in 2018 to 60.8%. Based on Figure 2, it appears that the scale efficiency is lower than pure technical efficiency, except in 2017 when it was the opposite. This finding is in accordance with studies conducted by Hassan (2006), which found that the inefficiency of IBs was caused by output (scale inefficiency) rather than input use (pure technical inefficiency). This implies that IBs have not been able to reach the optimal scale. Total assets or bank size is one of the reasons why IBs have not

been able to achieve the economics of scale. Larger bank sizes are often associated with higher scale efficiency as revealed by Hassan (2006). Meanwhile, Hassan and Sanchez (2007) revealed that one of the factors that could help banks reach their optimal scale was an improvement in technology.

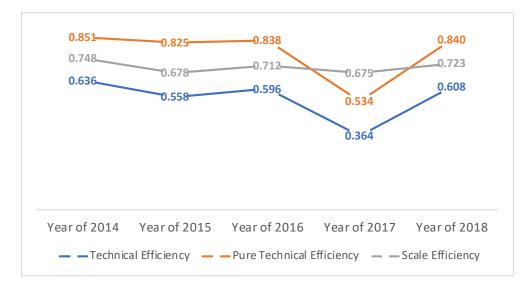


Figure 2. Islamic bank efficiency development, 2014-2018

Productivity Measurement Based on Malmquist Total Factor Productivity (TFP) Index

Based on the results, generally, IBs had increased their productivity, indicated by the average TFPCH value of 1.055. The increase in productivity by 5.5% (1.055) was supported by improvements in banking technology, which grew more advanced by 6.8% (1.068). These results are similar to past studies, such as those by Akhtar (2010) and Abd-Kadir et al. (2010), who revealed that the increase in banks' productivitydriven more by changes in technology, which in turn drove changes in efficiency. This suggests that the technology of IBs is improving and can stimulate incremental improvements in banking productivity. However, the technical efficiency change indicates a slight decrease, or tend to stagnate, with a value close to 1 (0.988). This implies that the efficiency of IBs tends to remain unchanged during the period of study.

Table 4 shows that during the period of 2014-2018, there were five countries that recorded increases in IBs productivity: Iran, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, and Turkey. The increase in productivity of IBs in these five countries was driven by technological improvements and banking efficiency improvements, except for Bahrain and Turkey, which were more supported by technological changes. Meanwhile, the productivity of IBs in Indonesia, Malaysia, UAE, Qatar, and Bangladesh tend to stagnate or slightly decline. The declining level of efficiency of IBs in these countries caused the banks to experience a decrease in productivity.

Country	Effch ¹	Techch ²	Pech ³	Sech ⁴	Tfpch ⁵
Indonesia	0.952	1.021	0.984	0.967	0.972
Iran	1.061	1.464	1.000	1.061	1.552
Saudi Arabia	1.046	1.039	1.027	1.018	1.087
Malaysia	0.995	0.998	0.999	0.995	0.993
UAE	0.979	1.021	0.985	0.994	0.999
Qatar	0.986	1.005	0.989	0.996	0.991
Kuwait	1.015	1.031	1.007	1.008	1.046
Bahrain	0.991	1.041	1.003	0.988	1.031
Turkey	0.944	1.097	0.985	0.958	1.036
Bangladesh	0.919	1.030	0.987	0.931	0.947
Mean	0.988	1.068	0.997	0.991	1.055

Table 4Islamic banks' productivity

Notes: ¹effch: efficiency change, ²techc: technological change, ³pech: pure efficiency change, ⁴sech: scale efficiency change, ⁵tfpch: total factor productivity change.

Figure 3 describes the productivity development of IBs which shows a fluctuating trend. During the period from 2015 to 2017, there was an increase in productivity, with values increasing by 6.8%, 13.2%, and 2.7%, respectively. But in 2018 the productivity of Islamic banks decreased by 12.3%. This was due to the technological change, which was the driving factor in increasing the productivity of IBs in the previous period (2015 to 2017). However, the massive technological changes were also followed by a 51% decline in banking efficiency. The phenomenon that occurred in 2016 showed that product innovation or technology development was able to drive improvements in the productivity of IBs by 13.2%, despite a substantial decrease Rindang Nuri Isnaini Nugrohowati, Faaza Fakhrunnas and Razali Haron

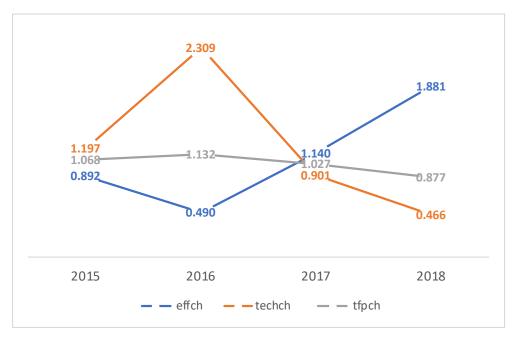


Figure 3. Development of Islamic bank productivity, 2015-2018

in efficiency scores in the same year. This result is consistent with the findings of Abd-Kadir et al. (2010) which revealed that technological advances allowed IBs to produce certain levels of output with fewer inputs. Despite this, technological advances can result in a decrease in average banking efficiency even with the increase in banking productivity. A possible explanation for this is, technology demands that banking personnel to learn new skills, adapt to new systems, and change their behavior. While a new iteration of technology may offer more capacity, productivity, or performance, those advantages are at least partly offset by the time banking personnel have to spend learning to use it, hence affecting the overall efficiency (World Economic Forum, 2018).

Interestingly, the reduction in inefficiency is primarily caused by a decrease in scale inefficiency. Thus it can be determined that the high-tech expansion that occurred in 2016 has not been able to spur the banking industry to reach optimal scale and that IBs are operating at the wrong scale (size, either too large or too small). One of the possible reasons is that not all banking customers have switched to digital banking services. As noted by Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), although most IBs provide online banking services, some customers do not utilize this service due to security reasons. Another factor is that existing information technology has not been able to support the products (services) development, hence causing the efficiency of IBs to be suboptimal. Abd-Kadir et al. (2010) suggested that large banks tended to successfully implement and operate technology in the banking industry. This is because to implement the technology, a large amount of funds is needed to buy machines and meet the recurring cost of recruiting trained staff. This possible reason is reinforced by the findings for 2018, which showed a decline in technological innovation of 53.4%, but a rise in banking efficiency of 88.1%. Even though IBs have increased their efficiency, they have not been able to increase bank productivity. This can happen because in general, the efficiency of IBs has not reached the optimal point (100%) despite the improvement in bank efficiency of 88.1% during the year.

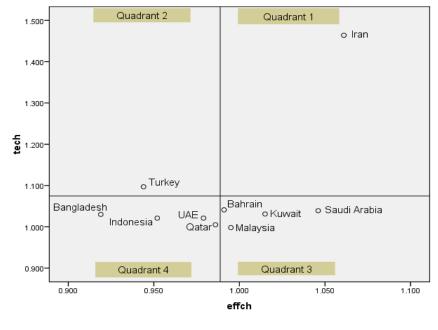
Islamic Bank Quadrant Grouping Based on Malmquist Total Factor Productivity (TFP) Index

To find out the level of productivity of IBs in each country, a quadrant plot of a bank group was conducted, consisting of two categories. The first category is the change in efficiency, represented by the X-axis, while the second category is the change in technology, shown on the Y-axis. IBs in each country were grouped into one of the four quadrants based on their placement in the Technical Efficiency Change (EFFCH) and Technological Change (TECH) categories.

Figure 4 shows the first quadrant is IBs that have high technical efficiency change and technological change. The banks in quadrant 1 have a high level of productivity. Iran is the only country included in the first quadrant, with an increase in productivity of 55.2%. The increase was driven by technological improvements and increased in bank efficiency, with a value of 46.4% and 6.1%, respectively. These results imply that Islamic banking in Iran is capable of making more than sufficient technological innovations (46.4%), which encourage a significant increase in productivity (55.2%). This is consistent with the findings of Akhtar (2010), which showed that the high levels of technology adoption in IBs could increase banking productivity. Conversely, improvements in the efficiency of IBs in Iran illustrate the improved management of input resources. The more efficient a bank is, the greater its ability to optimize all of its resources, as revealed by Yildirim (2017), which showed that efficiency would result in IBs' optimizing the utilization of inputs. It can be further established that the efficiency of IBs in Iran was driven by an improvement in the scale efficiency of 6.1%, which indicated that during the study period, the banks were able to optimize the economics of scale. This is inseparable from technological innovation, as noted by Hassan and Sanchez (2007). They suggested that banks could reach a more optimal scale when there was technological change. This view is supported by the findings of Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017), Akhtar (2010), Fakhrunnas et al. (2018), Harahap and Nashihin (2014), Nartey et al. (2019), and Sufian et al. (2008), who revealed that the efficient bank could describe the better development of banking technology.

The second quadrant is a category of countries where IBs have high technical

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Notes:

Figure 4. Islamic banks productivity quadrants

change but low-efficiency change. Turkey was included in the second quadrant and had experienced an increase in productivity of 3.1%, supported by technological improvements of 4.1%. This result is similar to Adjei-Frimpong et al. (2015), who found that changes in banking productivity were driven by changes in technology. However, banking efficiency in Turkey had reduced by 5.6%. In this case, the banks' inefficiency of 1.5% is caused by management that is less competent in using input resources or inappropriate utilization of input settings, while 4.2% is caused by banks not yet reaching their optimal scale. Meanwhile, Bahrain, Malaysia, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia were grouped in the third quadrant, which had a relatively lower technical change value but had a high rate of efficiency change. The IBs in this quadrant were the banks that were able to achieve optimal levels of efficiency even though the level of technological improvement was relatively low. In this case, the countries had experienced an average technological improvement; however, the value was relatively low compared to other countries. Kuwait and Saudi Arabia were countries that had increased their efficiency by 4.6% and 1.5%, respectively. Increased efficiency

¹Quadrant 1 (High TECH, High EFFCH) ²Quadrant 2 (High TECH, Low EFFCH) ³Quadrant 3 (Low TECH, High EFFCH) ⁴Quadrant 4 (Low TECH, Low EFFCH)

is supported by the better management of inputs (pure technical efficiency) and the optimization of banking operations (scale efficiency). Sufian and Haron (2008) and Sufian (2007) revealed that an increase in efficiency could encourage productivity improvements. In contrast, the productivity of IBs in Malaysia tended to be stagnant (i.e. not experience an increase). The likely causal factor is that the efficiency and technology level during the period decreased slightly, by 0.5% and 0.2%.

The fourth quadrant represents IBs with relatively low technical change as well as low-efficiency change. The countries included in the fourth quadrant were Bangladesh, Indonesia, UAE, and Qatar. Indonesia was one of the countries that experienced a decline in productivity of 2.8% during the study period. The decrease in productivity was caused by a 4.8% decrease in the level of bank efficiency. Several studies conducted by Ahmad and Rahman (2012) and Fakhrunnas et al. (2018) found that IBs in Indonesia were less efficient than conventional banks. Similar results were also recorded by Karimah et al. (2016), who found that Islamic commercial banks in Indonesia had not operated efficiently. The low efficiency of banks can affect their level of productivity, as revealed by Abdul-Wahab and Haron (2017).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of this study, generally, the level of technical efficiency of IBs is not optimal. The inefficiency of IBs is mainly caused by scale inefficiency instead of pure technical inefficiency. From the productivity perspective, the average productivity of IBs in the world has increased during the study period. Productivity improvements were supported by technological improvements, which significantly increased the level of productivity. However, from the perspective of productivity development, it shows quite an interesting result: during the study period, the high-tech expansion did not materialize in an increase in efficiency level. This illustrates that the development of banking technology has not been fully able to support the development of products and services.

This study has implications. There is a need for IBs to improve their efficiency especially in terms of scale efficiency. What banks need to do to achieve scale efficiency is to optimize technology utilization. Technology innovation can be optimized if supported by sufficient capital and competent human resources. In addition, support from regulators is also needed to encourage IBs to expand the scale of their operations. Besides that, literacy about digital banking also needs to be improved so that public access to banking technology increases. Once technological developments are supported by efficiency improvements, the productivity of IBs will be even greater, and they will be more competitive

This study has a limitation. The first is on its small sample size per country. Future research can extend to bigger sample size to make the study more impactful. Researchers may also consider comparing the level of productivity of Islamic banks between Muslim majority countries and non-Muslim majority countries. Second, we suggest that it is important to analyze the determinants of Islamic banking productivity both at the bank-specific and macro-economic level of the countries that operate Islamic banking.

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Contending and Compromising: The Formation of Eastern Indonesian Identity During the Revolution (1945–1950)

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the process of shaping the political identity of Eastern Indonesia in 1945–1950, which was a dynamic change due to Eastern Indonesia's pluralistic character and different historical experiences. The dynamic aspects were spurred by the competition between new national identities promoted after the Proclamation of Independence on August 17, 1945, wherein pre-national identities were merged, both local and regional, that were deeply rooted in society. Interestingly, the identity issue during this period has been freely and transparently discussed in the public sphere. The issue to be addressed is to what extent local political figures played a role in establishing process of political identity in Eastern Indonesia, so that it could be incorporated into the country's historiography, which had lacked space in Indonesia's national history for more than fifty years. The sources used included the speeches of local political figures published in local newspapers and magazines during the revolution and archives of the State of East Indonesia. Using the historical method these primary sources would be examined along with secondary sources. This study argued that among the people of Eastern Indonesia, the multi-political identities - national and pre-national - could co-exist harmoniously without contesting one another. This is different from the political identity supported by the Republic of Indonesia after the Proclamation of Independence, as pre-national identity was to be eliminated since it

> was considered as countering Indonesian revolution. This leads to the lack of Eastern Indonesian perspectives in Indonesia national historiography, particularly in the historiography of the revolution era.

> *Keywords*: Eastern Indonesia, Indonesian historiography, political identity, revolution period

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INTRODUCTION

During the Indonesian War for Independence (1945-1950) the very idea of Indonesia became part of the struggle, both politically, diplomatically and militarily. At this time, there were two main parties involved in the conflict, spreading their influence and political control: The Republic of Indonesia (RI) and the Dutch. RI wished to extend its political control throughout the former Dutch East Indies, while the Dutch wanted to retain their political and economic influence within an independent Federal State. In other words, the competition of ideas about Indonesia became a part of the political struggle during the revolution. On one hand, RI viewed Indonesia as an independent, unitary state in which there was a strong, centralized, government system and sought to reduce Dutch influence in the society. On the other hand, the Netherlands offered a form of a federal state of Indonesia wherein the Dutch continued to exert their influence but at the same time. local people were allowed to maintain their ethnic, cultural, religious and local identity autonomously.

The Revolution was also a time when competition between national and prenational identity was a very important issue, especially in Eastern Indonesia. In this period, competition was relatively open in terms of political mobilization and freedom of expression. At this time, Indonesia was divided into sixteen states under a system of federal political government promoted by the Netherlands, one of which was the State of East Indonesia (*Negara Indonesia* *Timur* [NIT]) covering most of Eastern Indonesia. Each state had political autonomy and sought to promote the identity of each region. This period added important elements to the discussion of how the NIT government and pro-republican groups in Eastern Indonesia championed national, regional and local identities. It is also important to analyze the extent to which there were efforts to promote the identity of Eastern Indonesia in addition to the local identities of each region. Within the federal system, it is possible for people to express their local identities parallel to regional and national ones.

During the time of 1945–1950, the development of Indonesia's national identity was challenged by the existence of prenational, regional and local identities. As far as we know, the conflict between RI and the Netherlands resulted in the recognition of the sovereignty negotiated at the Round Table Conference (Konferensi Meja Bundar [KMB]) in 1949. However, issues related to national and pre-national identity and regional autonomy were still not resolved within the KMB, but had continued to the present day to be beleaguered by regional resistance movements in Eastern Indonesia, such as the Andi Aziz rebellion (1950) in South Sulawesi, South Maluku Republic (RMS) (1950-1951) in Maluku, Kahar Muzakkar (1951–1961) in South Sulawesi and Pemerintahan Revolusioner Republik Indonesia/Perjuangan Rakyat Semesta (PRRI/Permesta) 1958-1962 in North Sulawesi (Soejono & Leirissa, 2009). Although these rebellions were suppressed, they demonstrated at the development of a cohesive national identity had yet to be completed.

The 1945–1950 revolution was also an important period for understanding the dynamic competition between national and pre-national identities. It is also important to analyze how this contest was debated relatively openly in the political life of Eastern Indonesia, in which no single party was more dominant than the others, either the Dutch, the NIT government, or pro-Republican forces. Competition between Indonesian, national and pre-national ideas and the struggle for political control became a part of public debate in the society of Eastern Indonesia.

There are two important concerns that make the Eastern Indonesian region appropriate for this research. First, in this region, there was a competition between two identities: national identity promoting the Republic of Indonesia, supported by pro-Republican groups in Eastern Indonesia on the one hand; and strong local identity on the other. Second, in this region there was also a competition between two versions of Indonesia: the centralized Republic of Indonesia and a system of federal states, wherein each enjoyed political autonomy, of which NIT was one of the largest and most powerful federal states in Eastern Indonesia.

According to Kahin (1985), at least when compared to Java and Sumatra, the nationalists in Eastern Indonesia have fewer opportunities in realizing an independent political position after the Japanese occupation. This was due to the strength of the Australian military that in a short time had occupied much of Eastern Indonesia and facilitated the re-establishment of the Dutch administration. Moreover, as Kahin (1985) argued, the history of the revolutionary period in Indonesia tended to be generalized and only reflected the perspective and attention of the national government alone. In other words, that lens opened an opportunity to write an assessment of Indonesia's struggle for independence from a regional point of view.

The nation-building agenda during the reign of Sukarno and Suharto attempted to minimize and set aside discussions relating to pre-national identity issues and regional differences, both in public discussion and in official national/government history. Sukarno (1945-1965) strongly promoted Indonesian unity starting from the Proclamation of Independence. Sukarno was convinced that the revolution had not been completed until the entire territory of the former Dutch Indies was under the control of the Indonesian Nation. This effort was followed by Suharto (1966-1998) by applying Suku, Agama dan Ras (SARA) i.e., ethnic, religious and race policies, which prohibited discussion of sensitive ethnic, religious and racial issues. Both Sukarno and Suharto used military force to control the insurgencies and other forms of resistance. After Suharto's rule, SARA's policies had been maintained, although some taboos may, at least, be more openly discussed, such as religious issue that was not used as a political term. Indonesia's political system became more open to discussions related to decentralization and local autonomy policies, which had

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grown tremendously since 1999, while the discussion of sub-national identity remained limited by the government, if not completely closed. By considering the background and the context discussed above, the main issue to be discussed was, to what extent did local political figures play a role in establishing a political identity in Eastern Indonesia. The central argument of this study was that among the people of Eastern Indonesia, multi-political identity, both national and pre-national, could be maintained together without opposing one another. This is different from national identity championed by the Republic of Indonesia after the Proclamation of Independence, which was to eliminate the pre-national identities that were considered as opposing the Indonesian revolution.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The approach for this research is qualitative in nature, pursued by critically using a wide range of primary and secondary historical sources, such as the NIT archives, local newspapers, the Dutch intelligence reports as well as relevant books, which had been less frequently used in mainstream national historiography. Hopefully, the internal point of view of the local political leaders may be derived from these kinds of sources to balance the Republic of Indonesia's government's point of view as generally reflected in national Indonesian historiography.

The research method used was historical, through four stages. The heuristic stage was used to collect relevant historical sources. This collection stage was based on a wide range of Dutch archives and Indonesian local newspapers as primary sources, while the secondary sources were derived from books and journals. The primary sources were mainly the material of Indonesian origin from that period (1945–1950). For instance, the Archives of Government of East Indonesia in Makassar: Notulen (Hansard) and speeches of the East Indonesian Parliament and regional councils; local newspapers and magazines, which contained not only news and articles on political issues but also stories, opinions and interpretations of Indonesians reflecting upon their experiences during the period.

In the criticism stage, the diverse range of primary and secondary sources were examined critically and skeptically. By having regard for the position, political and institutional interests of the writer, as well as the potential readers of both government and public documents, the data would be interpreted into useful facts that could support the paper. In the interpretation stage, all the selected data were verified and interpreted to develop facts to support the case that should be constructed logically and objectively. The last stage is historiography where the facts were reconstructed into an analytical and systematic writing.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

National and Pre-National Identities

In the period of the Indonesian struggle for independence, political identity was always associated with a political struggle (Soejono & Leirissa, 2009). After August 17, 1945, Indonesia's national identity-as a new national political identity-grew and developed through physical, diplomatic and political struggles. The existence of RI with its supporters in Eastern Indonesia, the formation of NIT and the presence of local political elements that were still very strong and real, shows that the formation of political identity in Eastern Indonesia involved some competition for political identity, both national and pre-national. Most of the political struggles in the region were packaged within the framework of an identity contestation, promoted by each group, namely the pro-Indonesian republican group, the federalist group, and local elites. Each competing group strove to promote their respective political identity to the people of Eastern Indonesia and to mobilize support for their political agenda. Although Eastern Indonesian area was not the center of the Indonesian independence movement, in almost all of its areas there were political groups favoring Indonesian independence. During the period of the War for Independence, the administration of the Eastern Indonesia region took the form of the federal government. Nevertheless, local political organizations in the region were still very strong in competing for power, both against the power of the RI government and the power of the Dutchformed government.

For Indonesia, national identity can be said to be a relatively new concept, when compared with local cultural, religious and ethnic identities. According to Elson (2008), there is no Indonesia before the twentieth century, either as an idea or as a territory. However, localism had already existed as an important key in political and cultural identity in Indonesia. Communities in Indonesia had a long history of the times of empires and sultanates and other political structures before the formation of colonial rule. Although the idea of Indonesia grew slowly after the turn of the twentieth century, Indonesia was successfully proclaimed to be a unified nation on August 17, 1945. Sukarno and Mohammad Hatta, who proclaimed Indonesian Independence, sought to unite the population of the Indonesian archipelago as a new nation. They sought to realize the national idea based on the differences of ethnic groups, languages, religions and cultures that already existed in Indonesia. This nation-building effort was continued by later presidential efforts.

According to Henley (1996), although some "dreamers" of the concept of Indonesia are not from Eastern Indonesia and in this region, there are a few branches of nationalist organizations before World War II, but Minahasa is an exception. The educated leaders of Minahasans managed to build and envision the concept of Minahasan nationalism within the larger framework of Indonesia. Henley (1996) stated that during the colonial period, regional nationalism was conditioned by the Dutch colonial experience and retained, although some of the Minahasans thought they were Indonesians. In the pre-war Minahasa case, the concept of regional nationalism did not conflict with the development of the Indonesian national idea (Henley, 1996).

He further argued that, in essence, naturally, these regions were relatively immeasurable when compared to the territory of the nation. This provided an opportunity for these regions to attain a certain quality of dynamism and flexibility that might take on a form of territorial patriotism and generated a regional political phenomenon.

The two identities, Indonesian national identity and NIT regional identity, both acknowledged ethnic, cultural, and religious diversity as Indonesia possesses rich cultural, ethnic, and religious diversity. The diversity is even greater compared to western parts of Indonesia. The similarity is today known as "Bhinneka Tunggal Ika" (Unity in Diversity). What significantly distinguishes the two is when identity is used in political terminology. The national identity supported by pro-Republican groups is unitarian as a form of state administration. However, the regional identity supported by pro-federal groups is the federal state. In a unitary state, the role of central government is very dominant. On the other hand, in the federal system, each Zelfbestuur region (self-local government/ kingdom) has considerable sovereignty while still supporting the federal-state system and does not mind being in it.

Promoting National Identity

At the end of the Japanese occupation of Indonesia, an investigative committee was established to prepare for Indonesian independence (*Badan Penyelidikan Usaha Persiapan Kemerdekaan Indonesia* [BPUPKI]), having been announced by the Japanese in March 1945. The leaders of Java became its members, who then reached an agreement for a new constitution in which Indonesia was designated as the Republic of Unity. Shortly before its independence, a new preparatory committee for independence was announced. Ratulangi and other representatives of the outer islands then became members. This committee had a function to proclaim the existence of a new Indonesian state (Schefold, 1995). The notion that the defeat of the Japanese by the Allies on August 15, 1945, led to a new Indonesian state supported by Japan, but it has no factual basis. Instead, prominent Indonesian figures gathered in Jakarta, took the initiative to declare Indonesia's independence on August 17, 1945.

The involvement of Eastern Indonesian representatives in Panitia Persiapan Kemerdekaan Indonesia (PPKI, which was the crucial committee replacing BPUPKI) in representing the interests of Eastern Indonesia was very important in the preparation for Indonesian Independence. The presence of Sam Ratulangi, who was appointed by the Republic of Indonesia as the governor of Sulawesi after the proclamation in Makassar, did not last long. This change was due to the Dutch Linggajati Agreement (NICA), which was considered legitimate outside of Java, Madura and Sumatra. The arrival of Australian troops on behalf of the Allies in Makassar was exploited by the Dutch to re-establish their power and administration in the region. In April 1946, Ratulangi and six members of the Partai Nasional Indonesia (PNI), who were members of the pro-Republican

group, were captured by the Dutch and exiled to Serui (Papua) until August 3, 1948 (Ministry of Information of The Republic of Indonesia, 1953). However, before they were arrested, Governor Ratulangi, the pro-Republican group in Sulawesi, used the opportunity to spread and campaign for the idea of the Republic of Indonesia throughout Sulawesi Island, particularly in Makassar and Minahasa, and to mobilize community support for the new republic. The formation of the People's Service of Indonesian-Sulawesi (Kebaktian Rakjat Indonesia Sulawesi [KRIS]) and the People's Security Force of Sulawesi (Pasukan Keamanan Rakjat Sulawesi [PKRS]) by pro-Republican organizations encouraged young people to resist the Dutch government's propaganda on the federal administrative system for Eastern Indonesia. One example of the Ratulangi campaign was depicted in his letter to the Minahasans while he was in Makassar. The letter was brought by a courier, Miss W. B. Politon, and then read in a meeting to announce the formation of Indonesian Youth Association (Perhimpunan Indonesia Muda [PIM]). The letter stated that Ratulangi called on the Minahasa people to avoid thinking about the province and that the people should unite in fighting for Indonesian independence as it did in Java. One of Ratulangi's statements to encourage people, especially the Minahasans, to defend the republic was to call themselves "Indonesians and not Minahasans" (Wowor, 1977).

Other efforts of local figures to build a national identity in Eastern Indonesia were conducted by I. H. Doko and H. A. Koroh Raja of Amarasi, Timor. At a meeting in Malino, Doko and Koroh were sent by Partai Demokrasi Indonesia-Timor (PDI-Timor) as Timorese-nationalist representatives. In the meeting of Malino and Denpasar, Doko demanded the right of self-determination (*zelfbeschikkingsrechts*) for the whole of Indonesia. He argued that regarding the format of Indonesia's future, be it a federation or a unitary state, Timor's representatives must leave the final decision to Sukarno and Hatta (Agung, 1993; Doko, 1981). As a temporary NIT member of parliament, Doko was affiliated with the National faction as the secretary. The faction aimed at sovereignty and independence in the Republik Indonesia Serikat (RIS). Based on his experience during the Japanese occupation, which indirectly promoted "Nationalism" within the framework of "Asia for Asia" and his political role in the early revolution in Java, the origins of Doko's nationalist sentiment were quite clear.

Regionalism as an Option

Similar to national identity, the development of regional identity in Eastern Indonesia was also relatively new. According to Chauvel (1996) *de Groote Oost* (the Great East), a new autonomous administrative unit in Eastern Indonesia, was formed by the Dutch in 1938 to support trade by promoting efficient governance. This act was likely to be sustainable with the formation of NIT (a.k.a. the State of East Indonesia) in the form of a federal government in 1946. However, there were rational differences

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underlying the formation of the two regional entities. NIT was established as a Dutch strategy in loading its political authority and influenced onto the territory of RI on August 17th, 1945, so that the Dutch were able to rerun their control in Eastern Indonesia. Meanwhile, *de Groote Oost* (the Great East) was formed as part of the Dutch administrative reform effort on the islands outside of Java.

The Denpasar Conference of 1946, which resulted in the creation of NIT in early 1947, offered a new regional identity as a state. However, the body of NIT still showed its dominant local identity and thus wanted to be maintained by its supporters within the NIT federal framework. This fact was evident from the hearing before the Denpasar Conference. The conference participants supported at least two different political aspirations, pro-Federal groups and pro-Republicans. Nadjamoedin Daeng Malewa, a representative from South Sulawesi, and Anak Agung Gde Agung from Bali, for example, represented the pro-Federalist position. Meanwhile, Tadjoeddin Noor from South Sulawesi and I. H. Doko from Timor supported the Republic. In addition, the interests of local and regional groups seem to be a strong choice. This was evident from the aspirations articulated by this elite political group, presented through their speeches (Van Goudoever, 1947). Prominent local leaders tried to accommodate local interests within the NIT governance structure. During the Denpasar Conference, local political elites in Eastern Indonesia wanted to respond to political change at national and international levels. Almost all parts of Eastern Indonesia were fully represented at the Denpasar Conference. However, the presence of local political elites at the conference might be considered to have represented groups deemed "agreed" with the formation of NIT—as planned by van Mook as the purpose of the conference.

Although, in general, the representatives of the special district at the Denpasar Conference could also have been divided into pro-Republican and pro-Federal categories, it should be noted that pro-Republican groups could be said to be relatively willing to cooperate with the Dutch federal idea, as evidenced by their willingness to be present at a conference whose idea was promoted by van Mook. This idea was reinforced by their later participation in the NIT cabinet.

On the other hand, the pro-Federal group at the conference was then willing to support the Republic and refused to cooperate with Beel's plans for a transitional government under an Indonesian-Dutch Union, after the Dutch launched its second military action against the RI in December 1948. Nadjamoedin Daeng Malewa, a local leader from South Sulawesi, was one of the examples of the pro-Federal group. As a member of the South Celebes Council, he was appointed to represent South Sulawesi at the Malino and Denpasar Conferences (Penjoeloeh Bali, 21 March 1947). Nadjamoedin was very enthusiastic about the concept of a federal state, a feeling which he expressed in his speech at the Denpasar Conference. Although this

concept did not involve secession from Indonesia, from his point of view the Federal State was the most appropriate form for the future of the people in South Sulawesi and for other Indonesians. He believed that a country of thousands of isolated islands should be managed by recognizing the diversity of all ethnic groups, especially in Eastern Indonesia. He argued that with the form of federal administration, the interests of each region would be assured. This sentiment was conveyed during his speech at the Denpasar Conference (General Government Commissariat for Borneo and the Great East, 1946) wherein the idea was later repeated at the first meeting of the NIT Parliament on April 22, 1947. Nadjamoedin ("Pidato P.J.M. Nadjamoedin... (Part 1)", 1947) said that:

[Translation: ...as a result of this geographical condition-our country is inhabited by those groups of diversified residents...in addition, for those who pay attention, there are so many religions in the country, they are certainly aware, that a country like this cannot be formed based on common similarities like it can in Java, for example...then, because it consists of several areas, it should be established on the basis of a federation and because of that the autonomy of these areas must be held in high respect. With that format of the state, the progress of each region can be guaranteed according to its nature and their own needs...We are a nation despite

of having the same feelings, but we also have a great desire to pursue our own needs. No Balinese wants to be ruled by the ideologies of the Minahasa, no Makassarese would submit to the Ambonese' notions, and *vice versa*. However, if each person saw that his authority was already guaranteed in their own backyard, the people of East Indonesia would shake hands with one another to work together in such a state...]. ("Pidato P.J.M. Nadjamoedin... (Part 1)", 1947).

Nadjamoedin's commentary reflected his view that different ethnic and religious groups needed to feel that they were wellrecognized in their respective political units because of the differences between the two sides. From his experience, he felt that any group like the Minahasans or the Balinese needed to have the most appropriate degree of autonomy within the federal system rather than reached a compromise on a set of agreed-upon principles for the whole of the proposed Republic. Our country in this speech referring to NIT and Nadjamoedin seemed to describe the centralized structure of NIT, of which thirteen regions had considerable autonomy. Through the character of Nadjamoedin we can see two identities that must be developed at once, namely strong local identity and the demands of the federal government that guarantee each local area its autonomy.

Participants of the Denpasar Conference then chose Nadjamoedin Daeng Malewa for the position of Prime Minister of the first NIT and, concurrently, Minister of Economics. He conveyed a political manifesto that suggested that the federal state system was the best solution for Indonesia. He came to this view based on his evaluation that various regions of Indonesia had improved economically through the application of centralized state structures applied by the Dutch since the beginning of the twentieth century. The great distances between central and regional governments significantly influenced the amount of power that could be delegated to the regions. He believed that the advantages of federal constitutional systems such as Canada, the United States and Australia were abundant. He argued that the federal state was a must to realize the ideals of a country's independence. Nadjamoedin argued that a stronger and more prosperous state would not have inequalities applied others. Accordingly, equality would be created not only in economics but also in culture, finance and law ("Pidato P.J.M. Nadjamoedin... (Part 2)", 1947).

Similarly, Anak Agung seriously considered the importance of maintaining the existence of *zelfbestuurder* (self-local government leader/*Raja*) in a modern and democratic NIT format. As one of the traditional elites who ruled Bali's Gianyar Kingdom, he realized that the King's traditional power rights would be reduced in the new format of Eastern Indonesia under NIT. Therefore, as his speech at the Denpasar Conference mentioned that by giving the mandate given by *Paruman Agung*, Anak Agung emphasized the important fact that 75% of Eastern Indonesians were governed by the traditional *Swapraja* government under *zelfbestuurder* (self-local government leader/*Raja*) and their existence should be accommodated within the NIT (General Government Commissariat for Borneo and the Great East, 1946). In other words, Anak Agung agreed to develop a federative idea for Eastern Indonesia.

As a representative of South Sulawesi in the Denpasar Conference, Tadjoeddin Noor ("Sidang Parlement", 1947) had a different political view from Nadjamoedin Daeng Malewa. He clearly supported the concept of a unitary state, and was thus pro-republic. He supported the Linggajati Agreement as a formula for the establishment of the RIS by arguing that NIT should be granted political rights at least until the establishment of RIS and, together with RI, NIT became a state component in Indonesia. He expressed his opinion in his speech while leading the NIT Parliament.

Although Tadjoeddin ("Sidang Parlement", 1947) claimed that a sovereign RIS was important and should be established soon, at least on January 1, 1949, he also believed that a sovereign NIT must be secured within the RIS. Tadjoeddin argued that the format of *bondstaat* (federation state) was better perceived to formulate a sovereign RIS than the *statenbond* (Unitarian state) format because in the *bondstaat* (federation state) format every state is unitary and has no sovereign rights, since the central and state governments would divide the authority. Meanwhile, in a *statenbond* (Unitarian state), several sovereign states agree to work together to safeguard mutual interests. In other words, every state of the federation of this type has sovereignty over its territory.

Localism as the Third Layer of Identity

The strength of the existence of local identity in Indonesian society must not be ignored during the development process of national and regional identity in the region. Old and strongly rooted local identity in the community is closely related to ethnicity, culture, and religion. This fact means that the development of a national identity varies greatly according to region. Local identities and political entities in Indonesia developed long before the Portuguese and Dutch came to Indonesia. For example, the Kingdom of Gowa in South Sulawesi, the Hindu Kingdoms of Bali, the Sultanate of Ternate and Tidore in Maluku. Even a completely new Bali administration was incorporated into the administration of the Dutch East Indies relatively early in the twentieth century compared to other regions of Eastern Indonesia that had been integrated first.

After the Denpasar Conference, the founding of the NIT (i.e., the State of East Indonesia) became a reality in December 1946. Internally, the NIT government implemented a democratic and modern government with the utmost promotion of educated government officials and policies convincing traditional elites to follow the will of the government. Modern and democratic governments were needed to prepare the NIT as part of the future RIS. However, there were concerns among traditional elites that their traditional rights over the territories would no longer be guaranteed under the administration of the RIS, whereas NIT would become a part of it. In connection with the effort to preserve their autonomy in their territory, the eighteen eastern kingdoms of Indonesia held a meeting in Malino, South Sulawesi in May 1948. It had been known as the Second Malino Meeting ("Senaat Sementara", 1949). Local traditional elites feared that their authority over their territory could not be maintained if the NIT had planned to modernize the government. They intensively discussed their political position if the NIT were to have become a part of the RIS.

Although the concept of a federal system for a new country in Eastern Indonesia was well-prepared by van Mook long before the meeting in Denpasar, it was undeniable that local identity, as a political aspiration, was widespread during the conference. The majority of regional representatives used the meeting to convey their aspirations about their respective regional autonomy through their speeches, arguing that regional autonomy is the people's right. This was stated among others by Katoppo and Wenas, representatives of Minahasa. Although both agreed with the idea of "The Netherlands-Indonesia Union," the self-determination of each region remained an important focus for the Minahasa representatives. Katoppo, in his speech, mentioned that the new status of the State of East Indonesia (NIT) had become strong inside and outside the country. However, he believed that inter-state power, especially between the Republic of Indonesia and the State of East Indonesia, should be applied equally. He also referred to Article 6 of the draft regulation that the respective determination of each region would be guaranteed by the state system of NIT. Meanwhile, Wenas wanted the State of East Indonesia to be composed of dozens of self-governing small kingdoms (*zelfbesturende rijkjes*) that directly controlled their territory and would strengthen the group within the state (General Government Commissariat for Borneo and the Great East, 1946).

Compromise Supplies the Solution

A key turning point occurred when the Dutch launched their second military aggression against the RI in December 1948. As a result, the capital of Yogyakarta was occupied by Dutch troops and the leaders of the Republic were arrested and exiled to Bangka. This aggression disappointed NIT leaders. On the one hand, the Dutch treatment of Republican leaders, especially Sukarno and Hatta, was deemed inappropriate and military action was seen as Dutch intervention against Indonesian sovereignty. On the other hand, Indonesia's reluctance to resolve diplomatic political relations with the Dutch resulted in a protracted negotiation process and did not reach the solution expected by both RI and the Netherlands. Dutch military action became the most obvious of changes in the political thinking of modern local leaders within NIT. Their views were different from the Denpasar Conference where local perspectives seemed to be very common. After the second Dutch military aggression and when the objectives of negotiations between Indonesia and the Netherlands became clearer about the formation of the RIS, The political identity developed by modern, educated local leaders seemed to be more nationalistic.

To resolve the conflict. RI and the Netherlands then agreed to achieve the best diplomatic solution by holding a Round Table Conference (Konferensi Meja Bundar [KMB]), which proceeded in August 1949 and was then signed in November 1949. International criticism and pressure on the Netherlands brought on the NICA, meaning that the Netherlands would not be staying long in Eastern Indonesia. That is, the Netherlands would leave Indonesia and Indonesian sovereignty would be recognized and transferred to RIS. This national political situation had an impact on changing the political thinking of the Eastern leaders of Indonesia to be in line with the political opportunities offered to them, especially, for those who were experienced in modern higher education and were involved in the administration of NIT compared to those who had been known as a traditional elite group. The concept of regional identity of this group was becoming more nationalistic. This local group of leaders came to a new understanding that the Dutch would not resolve its problem with the Republic of Indonesia (RI) diplomatically. In addition, this military action brought international attention to the internal political situation in Indonesia that had brought de facto support and recognition to the RI.

This situation urged the NIT leaders to consider that the main agenda at that time was to work together with RI, to unite Indonesians under the RIS. This was demonstrated in leaders' speeches on numerous occasions mentioned in several local newspapers and magazines, such as Negara Baroe (Makassar), Penjoeloeh (Bali), and Pandji Negara (Makassar) during 1945-1949. One of them was Anak Agung, who held his position as the Prime Minister of NIT. He promoted a synthesis policy as a political agenda of the NIT in international relations during preparation of KMB. Negotiations with both RI and the Netherlands benefited NIT. His political strategy was presented in his speech at Radio Makassar on February 23, 1949. Anak Agung ("Menudju Republik N.I.S.", 1949) was said that:

[Translation: ... Part III and the conclusion of the speech stated once again that the politics adopted by NIT that were to search for synthesis in all directions in the community, both toward the Netherlands and toward Indonesia, in the nation itself...This policy was used out of conviction that the life of the nation cannot and should no longer be seen as "between us alone." Inevitably, because of historical progress, it must also consider its relationship with the Netherlands. Therefore, including the absolute conditions of working together with the Dutch; however, it was not because of them that the interest of the nation itself

was undeveloped!] ("Menudju Republik N.I.S.", 1949, p. 2)

Anak Agung, as the Prime Minister, was keen to take an important role in the KMB to convey the political interests of NIT and reposition its political role after the second Dutch military aggression. This enabled Anak Agung to play an active role by forming the Federal Consultation Meeting (Bijeenkomst Federaal Overleg [BFO]), conducting an inter-Indonesia conference with his synthesis policy, and negotiating with Sukarno-Hatta in Bangka. Thus, it may be said that NIT, with Anak Agung as Prime Minister at the time, developed more national identity than ever before, with the aim of preparing an understanding with RI in facing the round table conference.

CONCLUSIONS

The formation of Eastern Indonesia's political identity had developed through a process of negotiation and compromise through local political figures, having adapted to political changes and political needs in the region. The process of its formation came with competitions between national, regional and local identities that were deeply rooted in local communities.

The identity that was then used and developed was not something that was "black and white" (and thus static) but rather dynamic in nature and having flexibility in accordance with the political developments that occurred. Thus, the identity of East Indonesian politics is not necessarily depicted by one identity alone, but instead has three layers of identity in which each tier can be more dominant than the others at any one time, depending on the political situation and the desired interest.

During the peak period of the establishment of the NIT, Eastern Indonesia's cultural, ethnic, and religious identity could be harmonized through federal state policies. They offered a bigger opportunity for local/ regional political interests and allow each region's identity and personality to develop. This compromise was offered as NIT also needed political support from these local elites. As long as regional interests can be accommodated by NIT, the harmony could be maintained. The situation changed when the Round Table Conference (Konferensi Meja Bundar [KMB]) in December 1949 resulted in an agreement that the Dutch recognized Indonesian sovereignty by the establishment of the Federal Republic of Indonesia, the Republic of the United States of Indonesia (Republik Indonesia Serikat [RIS]), in January 1950, and NIT was one of the states of RIS. To integrate regional identity within a national framework, Prime Minister Anak Agung made a compromise through an integrated policy, known as Synthesis. Synthesis policy had been slowly implemented since Anak Agung became the Prime Minister of NIT for 2 periods, from 15 December 1947 to 27 December 1949. Since the establishment of RIS, in which Anak Agung was appointed as Interior Minister in RIS Cabinet, the synthesis policy had been implemented by the NIT within RIS framework. NIT political policy was aimed more at the alignment of the NIT and RIS

government relationship rather than the NIT and the local powers in Eastern Indonesia. This led to the disappointment of the local elites, especially the pro-federal groups that carry regional and local identities. However, the harmonization was restored after the president of RIS, Sukarno, politically approached the local elites of Eastern Indonesia. Meetings were conducted with the Kings of different areas in Eastern Indonesia that eventually gained support towards RIS.

The connection with the historiography of the revolutionary period in Indonesia, with a deeper understanding of this multi-identity of Eastern Indonesian politics, as developed by local leaders, is expected to open up opportunities for franker, open discussion. In addition, despite the many important writings pertaining to the revolution in Indonesia, there has been a lack of attention to discuss the dynamics of political identity among local political leaders in Eastern Indonesia. Hopefully, this research sufficed to satisfy the deficiency.

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The Concept of Ali Abdul Halim Mahmud's Quranic Education: A Critical Analysis of 'Fundamentalist' Exegesis Paradigm

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ABSTRACT

The principle of the Quran's universal relevance is understood in various ways among scholars. Such principle has led to the emergence of various perspectives. On the one hand, some consider the Quran as an open text that can continuously be reinterpreted, while on the other hand, some consider it as the ultimate book that provides guidance concerning all matters of human life. Given this context, it is of great interest to critically discuss Ali Abdul Halim Mahmud's views that considered the Quran as a comprehensive source of guidance for addressing the various problems of life as well as a text filled with a myriad of educational prescriptions. This literary study focuses on Mahmud's exegetic works by applying the holistic method based on a content analysis and a textual investigation. In his works, Mahmud affirmed that the sole solution for Muslims was returning to the guidance of the Quran and the Sunnah. According to him, the Quran serves as the primary source in understanding Islam as a Divine system that is compatible throughout the ages. He had applied two models in elaborating the Qur'anic tenets: (1) selecting a certain surah, and (2) appointing a certain educational topic. Mahmud's conviction that the perfect Quranic education system exists had prompted him to interpret Quranic verses, in clarifying

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 and conclusive manners. His Quranic interpretation fully contains messages pertaining to morality, *da'wah*, and social movement in order to revive the glory of the Muslim, but frequently it lacks appreciation for critical-interpretation.

Keywords: Conclusive exegesis, education ideology, God's feast, the Quran's perfection

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INTRODUCTION

The Quran functions as the central text that its existence has been pivotal in determining the cultural formation and scientific characteristics of Muslims (Muslih, 2016). Thus, exegesis is a principal instrument in all efforts of knowledge production (Abu Zayd, 2000). Subsequently, various schools of exegeses had proliferated, given that there were differences in the epistemological preference of the exegetes and the methodological design being applied. The Quran's standing as the central text or the most authoritative text (Bennett, 2005) is supported by the principle that this Holy Book contains a comprehensive system of teachings to develop Islamic civilization (Al-Jundi, 1984). Despite its all-encompassing system of teachings, there are quite many Quranic verses that stimulate the human mind to dig deeper into various fundamental issues (Musa, 1985), because such system is not necessarily instantly ready-to-use.

One of the Quran's characteristics is its presence as an eternal marvel throughout the ages and as a source of guidance that we should abide by in order to overcome the various problems in life (Mahmud, 1994). Accordingly, Muslims are required continuously to explore the Quran's teachings and not be complacent with the actual results of exegeses. Unfortunately, the Quran's standing as a source of guidance in life has not been constructively appreciated due to a shallowing perspective. Firmly, Al-Ghazali (1997, p. 15) stated, "Muslims, particularly following the first century of Hijriyah, had put much emphasis on problems relating to Quranic recitals, correct recitation (*tajwîd*) principles, and were fixated solely on the memorization of Quranic texts." As a result of a shallowing perspective, Mahmud (2000a) considered that Muslims tended to demonstrate a partial attitude in their interaction with the Quran hence dissociating them from the Islamic *manhaj* (perfect way).

The teachings of the Quran are believed to remain relevant regardless of the time and place (Mahmud, 1998). The principle of the Quran's universal relevance is understood in various ways. Some scholars are of the view that the Quran is a living text or an "open" text (Al-Jabiri, 2007), keeping in mind that the ideas and verses in the Quran continually engage in a dialectical process with human reasoning and greets all Muslims through the ages (Izzuddin, 2006). This point of view considers the literal writings or text of the Quran remains the same, yet the contents of its meanings are highly dynamic, developing in line with the development of its exegete's reasoning, which is dialectical with surrounding life issues.

Meanwhile, some other scholars consider the Quran as an all-encompassing text ($j\hat{a}mi'$) (Al-Jundi, 1984). Like a God's feast, the Quran is bestowed to provide nourishment for Muslims willing to accept His invitation. Quran's guidance is ready to enjoy and is filled with educational prescriptions as a manifestation of His universal and perfect way (Qutb, 2004). No one is capable of saving the Muslim community from devastation unless Muslims themselves hold firmly onto His manhaj that is found in the Quran and the Sunnah (Mahmud, 2005). According to Mahmud, the Quran has a myriad of unique features, of which among them are: the Quran is a form of God's feast bestowed upon humankind to obtain sufficient nourishment; it is a system that is relevant throughout all generations of humankind. Based on that opinion, he affirmed these fundamental concepts: the Quran as a comprehensive system, and it is filled with educational prescriptions. In such context, this discussion aims to analyse Mahmud's frame of thought in interpreting the Quran and in explaining its educational prescriptions.

As a thinker, an ulama (Islamic scholar) at Al-Azhar University, and an activist of the Ikhwanul Muslimin (the Muslim Brotherhood) movement in Egypt (see Lav, 2012), with an expansive scope of influence, Mahmud actively voiced the importance of elaborating God's manhaj about education, which indeed had not been much formulated by scholars. In the context of Quranic exegesis on education, his approach with two models was regarded as a distinct formulation that was not created by other prominent figures such as al-Abrasyi (d. 1981), al-Nahlawi (b. 1876), and Nasih Ulwan (d. 1987). Even his numerous studies on the Islamic education have been supported as a new referential source, particularly to activists of Quranic studies and communities oriented towards "returning to the Quran," like the Purwokerto branch of KAMMI (Association of Indonesian Muslim Students Action) in Central Java with its movement

vision being much inspired by the work of Mahmud (1997) titled *Perangkat-Perangkat Tarbiyah Ikhwanul Muslimin* (Farida, 2014; Khalikin, 2012). From herein, the Tarbiyah movement community and the campus *da'wah* institution (Lembaga Dakwah Kampus) began to grow with their ideology of Islamism which has influenced the development of Islam in various universities. Such development was also followed by the expansion of the integrated Islamic schools' networking (Jaringan Sekolah Islam Terpadu) in Indonesia, and as a result, it contributed to strengthen the political Islam (Akmansyah, 2013; Fuad, 2019).

METHODS

As a literary study that attempts to construct the concept of Qur'anic education, the implementation of the holistic method, which is a method of critical thinking to capture the complete meaning, and not a mere "atomistic" meaning (Bakker & Zubair, 1990), is based on content analysis. It uses textual investigation on Mahmud's works beginning from the problems he sought the answers to, and then the scientific efforts to delve deeper into the problems through the process of incubation, illumination through creating a dialog between the problems and various concepts and actual phenomenon, explication with analyzing and clarifying the problems, and creative synthesis with formulating new insights that are creatively combined from various theoretical and textual elements (Moutakas, 1994).

In a hermeneutic analysis, there are at least three interlinked functions in the

efforts of understanding the contents of a holy text, namely: (1) the historical function, which is oriented to revealing textual meaning according to its historical context; (2) the meaning function, which attempts to explore its contextual meaning; and (3) the implicative meaning, which aims to elaborate the intended requirement for the current context (Gracia, 1995). Such hermeneutic analysis was utilized to observe the methodological steps of Mahmud in integrating the necessities of text meanings, the contexts, and the contextualization in order to formulate his educational exegesis. To reveal the meaningfulness of the text for education, the interpretive understanding of the Ouran's guidance needs to be based on the fundamental assumption relating to Islam, which is founded on two main pillars, namely: (1) to have faith in one God and self-submission to Him alone in accordance with the provisions conveyed by His messenger; and (2) obedience to all of His commands and prohibitions (Mahmud, 1999).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Educational Ideology of Mahmud

Prof. Dr. Ali Abdul Halim Mahmud passed away on Monday, March 10th 2014, at the age of 86. He was born in Tahta, the Province of Suhaj, Egypt, in 1928, and his parents were academicians at Al-Azhar University. He was an industrious writer who had written 56 books, and he was a prominent figure to the Ikhwanul Muslimin. From a young age, Mahmud had joined Ikhwanul Muslimin, and he had been a student under the care of Imam Hasan al-Banna (d. 1949), the founder of the organization (Basaer, 2019). In Indonesia, the ideology of Ikhwanul Muslimin, as an ideology that was expressed by Mahmud, has been proven to have an expansive influence (Khalikin, 2012).

No less than twelve of Mahmud's work have been published in three languages, and they have become a part of the references collection in 23 important libraries around the world. It is not easy to gain detailed information regarding the biography and life records of this figure, especially after the Mursi administration in Egypt that was supported by Ikhwanul Muslimin had fallen and been replaced by the administration of Fattah al-Sisi. Due to very similar names, some authors consider the figure of Mahmud is the same as Syaikh Abdul Halim Mahmud (or Syaikh Mahmud), who is an expert in spiritual mysticism (tasawwuf), who was the 40th Grand Imam of al-Azhar (see Andiko et al., 2015). Whereas, Syaikh Abdul Halim was born in 1910 and died in 1978, which is a different generation from Mahmud.

The role of education is considered as a vital and strategic part of human life. Without education, there is no dignity in human life (Mahmud, 2004). In line with the history of humankind's progress, education recognizes several schools of thought. In brief, Mahmud (2004) mapped out the schools of thought in education: the Moral School, the Intellectual School, the Religious School, the Naturalistic School, the School, the Political School, the Esthetic School, and the Pragmatic School. Based on those schools in education, Mahmud intended to place the distinctive concept of Islamic education within a broader spectrum. However, the concept of Islamic education was not much discussed within that spectrum; it was merely limited to revealing the excellence of Islamic education with some simple comparisons, instead of comparative analyses.

Some of his works about the core concepts of Islamic education are Al-Tarbiyah Al-Ijtimâ'iyyah Al-Islâmiyyah, al-Tarbiyah al-Jamâliyyah al-Islâmiyyah, Al-Tarbiyah al-'Aqliyyah, and Al-Tarbiyah al-Khuluqiyyah, which embody his reactionary response to the schools of education above. Occasionally, Mahmud (2001) mentioned the names of Western figures who were widely influential, such as J. J. Rousseau (d. 1778) and J. H. Pestalozzi (d. 1827), but they were not positioned as "dialogue partners." He had considered that their brilliant thoughts had only emerged in the 18th century, whereas Islam, through the Quran and the Sunnah, had formerly introduced an education system long before that century.

Mahmud's educational ideology is based on a "fundamentalist" paradigm, which refers to the uncovering of educational objectives, values, and basic principles by using the Quran and the Sunnah (Mahmud, 1996). According to him, such a paradigm is seldom used in books about education, while it is much needed by the Muslims in this modern era, which is an era for the revival of Islam and the revitalization of various religious issues. In this context, it is interesting to consider the statement made by Mahathir Mohammad (1997) that fundamentalism was a term that had been experienced a great deal of misunderstanding and it was deemed identical with terrorism, while the fact of the matter was that the best of Muslims were those who were necessarily fundamentalists, namely people who were strongly committed to following the basic tenets of Islam, such as peace.

In contrast to the concept mentioned by Mahathir, Herriot (2009) used the term fundamentalist to identify religious movements that had the following characteristics: (1) reactive since they believe that their religion is currently under the threat of modern secularism, (2) dualistic since they believe that their religious understanding is truth that stands in full opposition to enormous wickedness, (3) the supremacy of a religious source of authority (holy scripture) in regulating their beliefs and actions, (4) selective religious exegesis, and (5) millennialist historical point of view. In this case, Mahathir defined a fundamentalist as "returning to the basic principles or teachings of religion with full commitment" which had a positive connotation, while Herriot (2009, p. 2) defined it as "returning to the source of religion with one's exclusive, militant, and radical attitudes," which had a negative connotation.

Regardless of the difference in the definition of fundamentalist above, the fundamentalist paradigm (*Al-Ta'şîl al-Shar'î*) was utilized by Mahmud to mention his approach in formulating Islamic education that was grounded on the sources of Islamic

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teaching: the Quran and the Sunnah. Both of them are believed to be the basic structure in formulating a perfect, comprehensive, and universal way of life. Nevertheless, that does not mean that the practice of *ijtihâd* and the willingness to adopt positive traits and practices from other civilizations are no longer deemed necessary (Mahmud, 1995). His view on the need to adopt from other civilizations is asserted in his first book on the formulation of the Islamic education concept, Al-Tarbiyah al-Rûhiyyah, but its implementation is not much to be found in his subsequent publications. There are more or less finalistic, reactive, and dualistic features indicating his fundamentalist paradigm in elaborating the concept of Islamic education (Bruce, 2000).

Mahmud's point of view that considered the global world as being exceedingly unfair towards the Muslim community reinforced his belief of the urgency to have an Islamic education concept for the sake of humankind (Mahmud, 1995), and this is in line with the exclusive-reactive reasoning model that he developed as a response to the modernization of his community and the pressure of negative influences from the West. Modernization and negative influences from the West had led to two grave problems, namely the deideologization of Islam and the colonization of the Islamic world. Both of these problems have weakened and tormented the Muslims. These problems remain unmanageable on account of Muslims, not putting the Quran and the Sunnah to use as their guidance in life (Mahmud, 2001).

The model of Mahmud's reasoning was found its correlation and similarity in the fundamentalist ideology of Sayyid Qutb (d. 1966), one of the figures of Ikhwanul Muslimin, who firmly stated, "Islam does not allow Muslims to learn the bases of their creed and the basic tenets of its ideology; the interpretation of the Quran, hadith, or the history of the Prophet... the political manhaj and other similar fields, from non-Islamic references, even though they have an extremely consistent level of piousness and religiosity" (Qutb, 2009, p. 246). Mahmud and Qutb had developed a model of reasoning that was based on the underlying assumption that the Ouran and the Sunnah were the solutions to disputes among the various schools of thought, and that non-Islamic references were a representation of ignorance that was impossible to amalgamate with the two sources of Islamic teachings to conclude.

Mahmud's Approach to Interpreting the Qur'an

The Quran is widely believed to have a distinctive and unique status in the life of Muslims. It has prepared a comprehensive and perfect system (*manhaj*). Accordingly, every Muslim must explore and formulate this *manhaj* so that it can be utilized as a useful guide in living life and responding to all problems in life. Mahmud (1999, p. 214) firmly said, "the Quran and the Sunnah must be obeyed, keeping in mind that both are well-defined and comprehensible texts that neither neglect nor leave matters of life and death unexplained to the Muslim

community." Through such a statement, Mahmud (2005) had intended to build up people's faith in the Quran's perfection.

The belief of the Quran's perfection is embraced by the majority of the Muslim community, yet in practice, they tend to stay away or be alienated from the Quran. They would prefer other thoughts and ideologies that do not align with the teachings of Islam instead. One of the evidence for this is the fact that the Ikhwanul Muslimin movement, which firmly upholds this belief, has often been opposed and considered hostile. What this organization has to offer is analogous to drops of water that continue to drip and flow from its source, and they will inevitably fall upon an appropriate patch of land subsequently capable of cultivating remarkable plant life (Mahmud, 2005).

According to Mahmud (1999), Islam is a divine system and order. Elaborations of the system and order can be found in the Quran and the Sunnah. If the Muslim community, as of current, is still incapable of establishing a proper and comprehensive system of life, then this would, in most part, be caused by their attitude of alienating themselves and turning their back from the Quran and the Sunnah. Any actions conducted outside of the God-given way of life are clear indications of disbelief (kufr), and they may indistinctly be identified as hypocritical (nifâq). When interpreting surah Al-Mâ'idah/5: 44, for instance, Mahmud (1994) underlined the strong message in this verse, which was that people who had abandoned God's law were unbelievers for having denied God and His law. The

Muslim community is thus confronted with two options: to believe wholeheartedly or to deny entirely, and in this case, partial denial is considered as full denial (Mahmud, 1998).

Given that Islam is Allah's way (manhaj), then Islam surely has a manhaj for education. According to Mahmud (1995), the most fundamental problem confronted by the Muslim community on this day is the lack of an Islamic education system. The development of an Islamic education system must be based on the Quran and the Sunnah. Nevertheless, this does not mean that Muslim intellectuals are forbidden to gain benefits from other cultures, thoughts, and ideas of prominent figures, so long as it does not violate the provisions stipulated in the Quran and the Sunnah. Mahmud (2001) appreciated the significance of the empirical-deductive method in order to develop an Islamic education system, such as the descriptive method, experimentation, and the historical method that underlied the scientific investigation process. However, an additional aspect is required to appreciate those methods, namely the intention of obtaining Allah's blessing by considering Islamic morality, for instance: sincerity, honesty, and the goal of achieving a good life. Unfortunately, his thoughts regarding the possibility of adopting other cultures/ thoughts and the significance of appreciating the scientific method to develop an Islamic education system seem to be obscured by his tendency of reinforcing perspectives about the Quran's perfection.

Such opinion illustrates the model of ideological Islam he carried, which is

the aspiration of an Islamic group that has been fighting hard for the sake of upholding Islamic sharia. To this Islamic group, upholding Islamic sharia is no mere obligation; it is also a necessity in order to resolve the numerous problems afflicting the contemporary Muslim community. Returning to the Quran and the Sunnah is the first and foremost demand that continues to be advocated since it is believed to be the root of the solution and the basis of ideology. The narrow understanding of the slogan "Returning to the Quran and the Sunnah" advocated by the ideological Muslim group confronts various oppositions. Muhammad Imârah (2004), for example, criticized the ideological perspective of hakimiyyah ilâhiyyah (absolute sovereignty of God's law) which he considered "extreme" as it was unable to distinguish between definite, clear, and stringent (qat'iy) Islamic laws that were contained in the Quran and the Sunnah, and Islamic laws that were of *ijtihâdî* (reasoning) character. Concerning the first type of law, we cannot instantaneously consider those who do not abide by it as unbelievers, even more so concerning the second type of law.

As evidence of Mahmud's ideological perspective, we can conduct a slight comparative analysis between Mahmud's interpretation and Syaikh Abdul Halim Mahmud's interpretation (d. 1978), who had both elaborated the contents of Qs. Ali Imran/3. Syaikh Mahmud (2000) was willing to cite the opinions of several orientalists whom he regarded as objective individuals who affirmed the truth of the fundamental principle in the teachings of the Quran, namely that shari'a was enforced under principles of justice, morality was based on principles of love and affection, and faith was founded on principles of justice, love, affection, and comradery that were embodied in the teachings of *tawhîd* (oneness of God). In this case, Syaikh Abdul Halim underlined the basic principles of Quranic teachings that were substantive and inclusive.

Contrastingly, Mahmud (1998) in his elaboration broadly highlighted the Quranic teachings as a manifestation of Allah's way, which possessed exclusive uniquities, when compared to other holy texts, namely: (1) it is the ultimate and final text that God has guaranteed to be under His auspices to maintain; (2) it serves as a "control" and standard (muhaiminan) for the other texts; (3) it is the most perfect and comprehensive text; (4) all worldly and religious matters are contained in it; (5) the Quran was indeed set to be the ultimate holy text as a guidance for humankind; (6) the Sunnah functions to provide more detailed elaborations of the Quran's global contents; (7) the Quran is filled with educational prescriptions keeping in mind that it is God's feast, as ascertained in the Prophet's hadith narrated by al-Dârimî; (8) there is an education system within the Quran that is characterized as being derived from God, comprehensive, always relevant no matter the time and

place; and (9) introduction of the scope of Quranic education system that covers individual human, family, community, and nation.

Mahmud's perspective and orientation is to raise awareness among and move the Muslim community so that they would try and improve themselves together through joint efforts. Education and da'wah (religious preaching) are two critical media required in order to develop awareness and social movement, outside the realms of politics. In terms of hermeneutical analysis, Mahmud had the role of shaping and producing the meanings of the Quranic verses being interpreted (see Fa'âli et al., 2011). In terms of methodology, the role of producing the meanings of verses is supported by the view that acknowledges the need to carry out *ijtihâd* in two areas: in matters that no text is found and when no text description is found, implying that it is not clear and stringent or sarîh, which is required by the true principle of takwîl (text description) (Mahmud, 1999).

Most of Mahmud's interpretations of the Quranic verses were results of his hermeneutical process (*ijtihâd*) since concerning the interpretations, he attempted to elaborate and define the verses that have not been explicit according to the model that he employed. Interpreting one verse with another, associating them with relevant hadith narrations, and citing the opinions of some prominent *ulama* were a part of the methodological implementation of the said model. The ideological implementation is indicated by his interpretation that is oriented towards the efforts in raising the Muslim community's awareness to return to the path of Allah, in pumping their spirit of struggle to continue preaching and engaging in social movements, and in igniting their flame to incite in them the courage to fight all kinds of disbelief by prioritizing nonviolent approaches.

He continuously emphasized the existence of a consecutive (sequential and interconnected) relationship among Allah, the Quran, and the happiness of humankind. It means that in achieving happiness in life, human beings are required to return to the Quran, and the Quran is a manifestation of Allah's manhaj. In this opinion, Qutb (2004, p. 510), one of the figures of Ikhwanul Muslimin, firmly stated, "Living with the Quran is living with Allah...when a person lives with [along the path of] the Quran, that person lives with [along the path of] Allah... Thus, Muslims need to engage in interactions with the Quran bearing in mind that it is a guide for humans to live this life".

Based on such perspective, Mahmud and Qutb both underlined the importance of an education system capable of transforming belief into actual life behavior in order to achieve the goal of developing a Muslim community that was structured under God's law (Qutb, 2004; Mahmud, n.d.). It is an education system that can guide humankind to achieve their goals in life: (1) to believe in the oneness of Allah and to worship only Him by the guidance of sharia, (2) to abide by the *manhaj* of the Quran and the Sunnah in living life, and (3) to spread prosperity throughout the earth and advance towards a better life for humankind (Mahmud, n.d.). Here, Mahmud presented two kinds of argumentations on the urgency of Islamic education, namely: a positive-affirmative argument that declares the perfection of the Quran's *manhaj* as a basis for education and a contrary argument that tends to reject the adequacy of other sources which do not return to the Quran.

Application of Mahmud's Approach in Interpreting Quranic Verses

Islam is the religion of truth, guidance, tolerance, and good social relations. Accordingly, Islamic education is the pillar that supports those Islamic values. With a proper education system, Islam will be able to resolve the various problems of life faced by humankind (Mahmud, 2002). Such conviction had reinforced Mahmud's intent to try and formulate a comprehensive Islamic education concept because education is considered as a fundamental Islamic endeavor. As an individual who was active in *da'wah* activities in numerous places and the community of Ikhwanul Muslimin, Islamic education had seized his attention for nearly fifty years (Mahmud, 1995).

According to Mahmud (2001), the relation between Islam and the education system can be described through the Islamic teaching that calls to "Learn, Be Knowledgeable, and Teach," and the Islamic mission of producing a generation that can contribute to the development of Islamic human civilization. An education system can be considered as "Islamic" when it is enforced upon these three essential foundations, namely (1) a system of faith in monotheism, (2) a proper system of worship by provisions in the Quran and the Sunnah, and (3) a system of morality provisioned by Islam (Mahmud, 1995; see Embong et al., 2017). Based on this point, Mahmud (1995) viewed Islam as an eternal, universal, and ultimate teaching. The actualization of Islamic teachings requires an "Islamic" education system that aims to: (1) form proper faith, (2) teach proper worship, (3) cultivate the spirit of mutual understanding among human beings, (4) spread the spirit of mutual help, (5) work hard for the sake of making the earth prosperous, (6) teach people to have a firm attitude, (7) teach people to foster an Islamic household, (8) form a social spirit, (9) form individuals that are nationalistic, (10) form individuals that maintain Islamic ideology, (11) form individuals that actively engage in da'wah and (12) form individuals that can take part in Islamic movements.

As a system, Mahmud (1995) attempted to formulate elements of Islamic education covering its: (1) definition and feature, (2) objective, (3) means/media, (4) source/ foundation, (5) scope, and (6) method. Upon close examination of Mahmud's works, there are two approaches that had been used to formulate an education system based on the Quran, namely: (1) selecting a specific verse to interpret on its educational meanings, and (2) raising particular educational theme and describing relevant contents of Quranic verses. His assumption, there is not a single matter in human life overlooked by the Quran.

In line with the employed underlying assumption, i.e., Islam is an ultimate religion, and that there is no salvation other than Islam, Mahmud (1999, p. 160) interpreted the content of Qs. Ali Imran/3: 85 as follows, "And whoever desires other than Islam as religion, never will it be accepted from him, and in the Hereafter, he will be among the losers."

All adherents of any religion are required to embrace Islam that was brought by the Prophet Muhammad, as there is no other religion that is accepted except Islam. If they reject embracing Islam, in the Hereafter, they will be included among the losers and punished, as firmly stated in the Prophet's hadith narrated by Muslim. Following the advent of the Prophet, any religion other than Islam will not be accepted (Mahmud, 2000b). According to Mahmud, the Muslim community should always be cautious of the efforts made by a group of people, be it Muslims or non-Muslims, who intend to mislead the Muslim community with their idea that there is salvation outside of Islam.

Mahmud's interpretation is different from the interpretations of several contemporary Muslim thinkers, such as Shahrur and Husein Fadlullah. They interpreted Islam not merely limited to the followers of Muhammad PBUH (Shahrur, 1996). Generically, Islam encompasses all heavenly messages that demonstrate total submission to God, not only Islam, as the religion revealed by the Prophet Muhammad (Rakhmat, 2006). Meanwhile, Syaikh Mahmud (2000) and Hawwa (1981) interpret the word *Islam* in the above verse by not referring to a specific individual, a specific race, a specific place, and a specific time. The word *Islam* refers to a universal meaning, not solely limited to Muhammad's message. However, for the current context, the true manifestation of Islam is no longer found except within the Quran and the Sunnah (Mahmud, 1998), because the teaching of "Islam" revealed by the previous messengers had been forgotten or replaced (Hawwa, 1981).

Despite its exclusive interpretation, Mahmud did not justify acts of violence or compulsion in acceptance of religion. When interpreting the subsequent verses concerning the case of apostasy, he had not at all mentioned any possibility of death to apostates who has no intention of repenting as stipulated by the law formulated by most experts of Islamic jurisprudence. By using the perspective of da'wah and movement, Mahmud (1998) advocated the importance of sacrificing one's self or continuing the struggle using one's material wealth, time, sincerity, and perseverance in facing the challenges posed by the oppositions of Islam. In this case, he had put morality at the forefront so that the belief in the absoluteness of Islam does not cause people to judge others or react harshly to them quickly.

A firm and strict attitude to the enemies of Islam still needs to be shown. The obligation to engage in *jihâd* is gradually required (Mahmud, 2000b), which implies that it

should be understood comprehensively. In the final stage of the command to engage in *jihâd*, the Muslim community is required to fight against all unbelievers without exception in order to free humankind from shirk (polytheism) (Qs. Al-Tawbah/9: 36), and to uphold values of humanity through various means, among others: self-readiness and preparation, sacrificing one's wealth, body, and soul on the battlefield, education and da'wah activities (Mahmud, 2000b). Mahmud's elaboration regarding gradations in command of *jihâd* indicates that he did not interpret Quranic verses that called for war and Ouranic verses that contained messages of peace in the framework of naskh (abrogation) or the framework of particular and universal provisions. Jihâd, wherein one of the conducts is to fight against the enemies of Islam, is indeed an eternal obligation until the end of time (Mahmud, 2000b). The educational message, religious militancy development is necessary so that individuals have a high spirit of struggle in spreading the word of Islam with all the challenges that must be confronted (Mahmud, 1998).

When the condition of the Muslim community is weak and incapable of putting up a fight against the infidels, then there are only two options available: momentary dissimulation or denial of religious belief as long as it does not sacrifice truth, strengthen falsehood, and resemble hypocrisy (Mahmud, 1998). Aside from infidels, Muslims are also required to be ready to confront opponents of truth, namely (1) group of people who deny the truth of religious teachings, (2) group of people who deny the prophecy of Muhammad, (3) group of people who believe in Allah and the Prophet, but they have the opinion that the teachings of the Prophet only regulates religious, not worldly matters, and that he did not establish a government, (4) group of people who deny the teachings of the Prophet concerning the faith in the unseen, (5) group of people who deny the ability of the Prophet's teachings to overcome various problems of life (Mahmud, 1998).

Several core adages presented by Mahmud, for instance: jihâd (great effort for virtue), hijrah (departure from badness), taqiyyah (keeping faith a secret), and enemies of Islam, are concrete evidence that he did bear an understanding of Islam as an ideology that has various empirical manifestations, from those that are soft and academic to those that indicate extremist and terrorist features. Based on Desai's (2007) theory, Mahmud's understanding of ideological Islam is demonstrated by moral and political orientations. His moral orientation is apparent in his strong will to enforce a more pious lifestyle for the Muslim community, while his political orientation is described through his strategy of fighting for the glory of Islam and the enforcement of his system of teachings in regulating all aspect of human life (see Musa, 1980).

Mahmud's interpretation model of the Quranic verses can be seen as a manifestation of the hermeneutics of enquiry that attempts to explore the contents of the meanings in the Quran in order to elaborate its prescriptions and to formulate its educational perspective. His interpretation model is founded on the underlying assumption of the holy text's clarity, the ability of the holy text in providing a comprehensive system (see Thiselton, 1992), and the critical-corrective function of the teachings in the holy text regarding the existing education reality. Using this frame of thought, Mahmud had been proven to be successful in explaining the various aspects of educational contents in the Quranic verses through a conclusive interpretation model, i.e., a claim of sufficient interpretation to a Divine system that is comprehensive and applicative for human life.

In the hermeneutical analysis, conclusive interpretation should be given a critical note, bearing in mind that it does not pay much attention to the historical elements in the interpretation, even more so with "interpreted" historicity. Recognizing the historical aspect encourages open attitude towards contextualization, dialectics, and interpretation criticism so that no matter how a complete an interpretation model is, it will still be considered relative when situated within the context of the Quran's absoluteness. Recognition of the historical aspect sees the interpreted text as a living experience (tajribah havyah). Thus, it is not enough to merely have the ability of linguistic mastery and the context of the socio-cultural settings, because mastery in the aspect of dynamic Muslim community benefits is also required (Hanafi, 2004).

By referring to Dayyâb's (2005) opinion on the mapping of Islamic discourse, particularly in the Egyptian, into Radical Islam, Islam Left, Islamization of Knowledge, Islamic Hermeneutics, and Independent Islamism Groups, Mahmud's interpretation model can thus be categorized into the independent Islamism groups which are affiliated mainly with the Ikhwanul Muslimin (see Baker, 2003). That can at the very least be observed from: (1) his elaboration of some jargons of radical Islam, such as *hijrah* and *jihâd*, with a style of language that is relatively lenient as he employed a nonviolent approach (Mahmud, 1994), and (2) his elaboration on the Islamic education system is based on the Quran in order to renovate the modern education system that he considered as being muddled.

As a figure of Ikhwanul Muslimin, Mahmud (1997) appreciated the success of the organization in offering the concept and practice of Islamic education through a distinctive, particular, and unique education system compared to other organizations' education system. The issue of Christianization in Egypt, secularism, westernization projects, accusations of the Islamic system's inability to follow modern life, and various pressures on the Ikhwanul Muslimin had influenced his perspectives in describing the education system within the mind frame of Islamic teachings' universality, nobility, and perfection.

CONCLUSION

Mahmud persistently developed his conviction on the perfection of the Quran and the obligation that Muslims have to abide by it. He viewed that there was no other way for the Muslim community that was situated in the middle of a misleading, destructive, and flawed cultural, ideological suppression, except to return to the guidance of the Quran and the Sunnah. The Muslim community that has not been able to establish an excellent and comprehensive system of life is a result of their attitude, which is contrary to the guidance of the two sources above.

Mahmud used two models in elaborating the content of the Quran, namely: (1) selecting certain verses then the educational meanings were interpreted, and (2) raising specific educational themes and elaborate the contents of relevant Quranic verses. The two models originate from his fundamentalist ideology that affirms the excellence of an education system based on the noble, perfect, and universal path of God. By using the first model, he attempted to develop a theoretical framework by analyzing the main contents of Quranic verses. Meanwhile, using the second one, he tried to create a dialogue between issues of education and life using prescriptions from the Quran.

His educational perspective seems to firmly head towards reinforcing the function of the Quran as guidance for Muslims in dealing with all aspects of life. In line with such fundamentalist view, he was more inclined to develop a clarifying interpretation that responds to misunderstandings about the Quran and acts that discredit Islam, a semi-exclusive interpretation that elaborates the excellence of Islamic teachings in comparison to other system of teachings, and conclusive interpretation that promotes the perfection of the Quran and the Sunnah. Conclusive interpretation lacks appreciation for the historical aspects of interpretation that are necessary to establish an open attitude to contextualization and critical-interpretation.

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Case Study

Exposure to Unconventional Outdoor Media Advertising

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ABSTRACT

This study is aimed at examining unconventional outdoor media advertising, the visualization structure of advertisements, and how messages are displayed. The research method used was Norman Fairclough's critical discourse analysis, which involved the following: a) a text analysis, identifying the advertising visual structure; b) an analysis of discourse practices, which comprises how texts are narrated, modelled, produced and consumed; and c) a social practice analysis, which links advertising ideas and urban cultures. The research involved 30 respondents consisting of students, lecturers, and employees of Universitas Trisakti in a focus group discussion (FGD) to obtain public perceptions of visual attractiveness. Outdoor media advertising is attributed to the development of creative, short, readable messages, with simple visual structures that enable reading patterns from left to right or top to bottom.

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ISSN: 0128-7702 e-ISSN: 2231-8534 Based on observations of three research samples, it was found that there were novel ideas regarding outdoor media advertising creative strategies, namely, a) the novelty of advertising a new visual element structure by reversing outdoor media design principles; b) the intentional convention of reversed messages having evoked a more interacting public response; and c) advertising with sociocultural narrative content through the provision of advertised commercial products and services. The findings in this study show that there is a longer exposure level to unconventional outdoor media; therefore, the public's goal is to interpret the message delivered. Unconventional advertising is the new orientation of communication strategies. The findings in this study have practical implications in arrangement of visual structures to become more interactive.

Keywords: Critical discourse analysis, exposure, unconventional outdoor media, urban culture

INTRODUCTION

Outdoor media is a form of advertisement conducted in public space, although its existence does not necessarily repudiate the increasing use of social media. Its popularity tends to move from one place to another, and it is not always expected such advertisements be displayed on electronic media devices. At some point, people get bored of staring at the monitor or smartphone screen, particularly when it starts to hurt their eyes. Sometimes, the outside space seems to be more prevalent and attractive. This is the starting point for advertisers; therefore, they need to take advantage of this opportunity. Outdoor media complements or is an alternative for conveying commercial and social messages in public spaces.

Public spaces are defined as areas where there are usually gatherings such as crossroads, parks, markets, and family recreation facilities. Thus, traffic congestion tends to be a potential public space for advertising because it affords people more time to explore the messages on billboards, and posters on both sides of the road. Traffic congestion is a routine that is frequently experienced by urban communities (Babu, 2017).

Advertisers are always faced with the struggle for public attention, and they try to approach areas where the populace is concentrated. Moreover, they also respond to the trends of the various activities in contemporary urban society with characteristics such as novelty and the tendency to break free from old boring patterns. According to Struppek (2014), people are usually attracted to new and unusual visual designs. Therefore, there is a need for ideas that tend to make the advertisement more appealing, thereby attracting public attention (Buljubasic, 2015; Buljubasic et al., 2016).

The visual structure of each ad is basically hierarchical; however, some of its elements need to be highlighted, while some are intentionally not promoted. In outdoor media, the difference in proportion refers to the design principle, which is always based on a precise and legible message. Such ads are also positioned to dominate the wording in the visual appearance. Similarly, the pattern of reading needs to be reasonable, either from left to right or from top to bottom (Shareef et al., 2019).

Presently, people live in an information world. However, this causes individuals to feel that they are "overburdened with information," particularly when dealing with messages on commercial advertisements, which leads to the training of modern consumers on how to avoid and ignore such conventional communication. In 2018, three forms of outdoor media advertising were initiated in Jakarta: 1) the visualizing of texts with long narratives, 2) imagery rotated 180 degrees, and 3) the use of ornamental materials not commonly used in advertising. This unconventional visual approach raises curiosity as to whether the anti-mainstream creative strategy is attractive to consumers. In contrast, there are certain questions in accordance with the exposure to outdoor media, which tends to lead to unconventional advertisement visualization, which the writer needs to explore in-depth.

Unconventional Advertising

According to Buljubasic (2015), unconventional advertising is able to provide an alternative novelty of ideas in the competitive labour market, where consumers are faced with numerous advertisements that tend to be similar. Such advertising delivers messages in an unexpected form and even entertains people who are exposed to it. The term unconventional refers to curiosity, instability, inventiveness, originality, ordinariness, or alternation (Buljubasic, 2015). Therefore, unconventional advertisement comprises unusual, non-traditional, innovative, and inventive means, methods and strategies involved in promoting brands, products, and services (Jurca, 2010).

Unconventional advertising is able to protect penetrators from commercial messages with which they are bombarded daily (Buljubasic, 2015; Jurca, 2010). This occurs because unconventional advertisements are unpredictable, often captured in locations and situations where they are not expected to be advertised, as well as in conditions where their guards are let down. In addition, unlike traditional advertising, unconventional advertising does not use persuasive messages that try to convince an audience to purchase goods or commodities; instead, it is aimed at creating lasting impressive images of promoted brands in the subconsciousness of customers (Jurca, 2010).

This type of advertising emerged with the development of unconventional marketing, which is also referred to as guerrilla marketing (Buljubasic et al., 2016; Hutter & Hoffmann, 2011). This term was introduced by Levinson in 1984 and is defined as a type of marketing that places more emphasis on artistry rather than on money (Cova & Saucet, 2014). Unconventional marketing requires exceptional creativity and innovation to attract the public. It utilizes surprising, catchy, funny, witty, and spectacular effects as some of its strategies (Buljubasic et al., 2016). The essence of this approach is that it seeks to create surprises in unexpected situations and places to attract public attention and increase publicity. This concept has led to the emergence of unconventional advertising practices.

Several approaches are involved in classifying unconventional advertising. Kaikati and Kaikati (2004) identified six techniques: 1) viral marketing, 2) brand influencers, 3) celebrity marketing, 4) baitand-tease marketing, 5) marketing video

games, and 6) marketing pop and rap music. They are categorized into stealth marketing types. This strategy relies on the power of oral communication, and it is often referred to as a form of "undercover," "covert," or "hidden" marketing (Jurca, 2010). Furthermore, messages are conveyed in disguise and carried out in implicit and undetected ways. Moreover, in accordance with the placement area, it is a system of advertisement that tends to be conducted anywhere, such as in taxis, buses, elevators, and even bathroom stalls (Jurca, 2010). The categorization of this type of advertising varies; however, all techniques employed are intended to increase publicity.

Advertising Exposure

Advertising has been a part of urban culture for some time. Urban culture involves the way of life of modern society living in cities and comprises the norms, value systems, and social practices adopted by the community as a whole. Syah (2013) argued that the success of an urban civilization was directly linked proportionally to the competence and educational level of the community. Thus, the urban cultural patterns of a society can be formed from media that is consumed widely, including advertising.

The success of an advertisement can be measured by its visual impact or its exposure. The term exposure is derived from the word expose, which means analysing something to be clear. In certain contexts, it means showing off and leaving unprotected, exposed, and unfolding. Therefore, "advertisement exposure" simply implies the publicity of advertising media to create an impact.

The media has an influence on the knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour of the audience, while its impact depends on the number, type, and duration of its exposure to the public (Tamam et al., 2009). The duration of advertising exposure is the most influential element in the successful conveyance of the messages to viewers. Subsequently, further impacts are identified in the public's understanding of the advertisement, which also causes the media to boost brand awareness by creating a one-way communication link between potential consumers and advertisers (Ahmad et al., 2017). This is mainly because the lingual and para-lingual expressions of advertisers are not always effective. However, people's behaviour towards shopping is an indication of the success or failure in selling commodities (Naderi & Yazdi, 2018).

Unconventional Outdoor Media in the Midst of Urban Communities

Go-Jek is a multiservice technology platform that offers various services, such as transportation, payment of pensions, and food delivery. This multiservice platform displays outdoor media advertisements at locations where traffic often occurs. The ads are visualized with lengthy discernible narrative text elements and the use of relatively small fonts, as shown in Figure 1. Generally, this visualization differs diametrically from that of outdoor media, which uses short text that is easier to read. Furthermore, its image dominates the advertising media. The appearance of small font sizes and lengthy sentences as in newspapers arouses curiosity as to whether the public tends to read until the end of the sentence.



Source: https://marketeers.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Billboard-Kuningan.jpeg

Figure 1. Advertising billboard with non-colourful, white background. The media is filled with small sized text, which is different from the usual outdoor advertising practice of using a minimum number of words.

The second example is the Lazada outdoor media, which also displays advertisements with unusual visual styles. It is displayed on a billboard by rotating the visualization at 180 degrees, as shown in Figure 2. Therefore, this affects the reading position of the reader. In principle, texts are read from top to bottom; however, this technique is upside-down.

The third sample is the complimentary support offered by Go-Jek to Tolak Angin, a product of "anak bangsa". The visualization uses an imitation of a fresh flower arrangement, as shown in Figure 3. Generally, advertising sentences on billboards are written proportionally with characterized and neat fonts. However, this ad uses a distorted print type, similar to flowers constructed by craftsmen, which generally do not understand the aesthetics of the font face. This artificial flower looks colourful and fresh and resembles a congratulatory wreath attached to a Styrofoam board. Unconventional elements are popular on social media with an intense desire to determine their impact on the reading exposure of the target audience. This discovery reinforces the theory that the novelty of visualization encourages more viewers to read (El-Dali, 2019; Negm & Tantawi, 2015). Furthermore, there are several questions regarding the appearance of unconventional outdoor media. a) How is the structure of the visual novelty constructed? b) What is the public's response to the advertising designs used? c) How does its ideology influence urban culture? These three formulations are the subject of this research in accordance with the critical discourse analysis (CDA) method.



Source: https://s.kaskus.id/images/2018/09/21/8114157_20180921034704.jpg

Figure 2. Advertising billboard with 180° rotation visual. Notice the advertisement's word play; 50% shipping rate, not 50% of the product's selling value

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Source:http://strg.citrapariwara.org/2018/files/04.08.40/73_Kopiko-Tolak%20Angin-Kapal%20Api-Athletes%20-%202%20-%20loc.jpg

Figure 3. Advertising billboard with an imitation of a fresh flower arrangement. Looking fresh while visually resembling the real thing, it is unconventionally not modern. Notice that the font used is not in accordance with its typeface.

Aims of The Study

This study was aimed at examining the advertising exposure of unconventional design in outdoor media advertisements. Based on previous studies conducted on exposure by employing critical discourse analysis, this study focused on three dimensions: (1) text analysis, (2) discourse practice analysis, and (3) social practice analysis. First, the study examined the text to understand how unconventional visual design was structured. Second, the processes of production, distribution, and consumption were analysed. Finally, this research reviewed how discourse events shaped the nature of discursive practice.

METHODOLOGY

Fairclough, as shown in Figure 4, represents the stages involved in the CDA method as follows: a) text analysis; b) analysis of discourse practices, which comprises how texts are produced and consumed; and c) social practice analysis. The first stage, text analysis, examines structured unconventional visuals displayed by outdoor advertising media. In the second stage, an analysis of the discursive practices reviews how an advertisement is placed and the public's response to it. In the final stage, social phenomena that serve as narratives in advertisements affect cultural patterns, unless there is an ideology that inadvertently and continuously penetrates the public. The entire analysis leads to the concept of how unconventional billboards are constructed and patterned and the individual or organization involved (Fairclough, 2000). All analyses serve the purpose of exploring the relations among language, ideology, and persuasive power to encourage people to buy or use the services advertised.

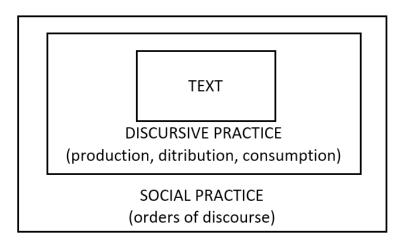


Figure 4. Fairclough's three-dimensional model (Fairclough, 2001)

This research examined the character of unconventional designs in three different case studies. The first was Go-Jek outdoor media advertising, as shown in Figure 1, which employed a narrative text design in the form of lengthy writing. The second case was Lazada's online shopping, which employed an advertisement design with inverted visualization, as shown in Figure 2. Third, the complementary support by Go-Jek to Tolak Angin, as shown in Figure 3, employed the visualization of artificial flowers. The selection of the three ads based on these criteria was intended to suit urban communities that tended to be attracted to new, fresh, and out-of-the-box designs (Miller & Nicholls, 2013). In addition, the three outdoor media advertisement samples were deliberately chosen due to the phenomenal conversations on social media about them, which was a novelty of the contemporary design.

This research involved 30 respondents consisting of students, lecturers, and employees of Universitas Trisakti in a focus group discussion (FGD). During the dialogue, three advertisement samples were projected onto a screen. In deeper dialogue, it was found that visual attractiveness, persuasive aspect, and the meaning of it inspire urban society's behaviours. The purposive sampling method was used to obtain data from 30 participants living in an urban area with a high level of traffic congestion in Jakarta. They were selected based on two criteria, namely, visual exposure to outdoor media advertising and the message conveyed in the advertisement.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to Hutter (2014), the use of unconventional advertising techniques has a more substantial impact on consumers' perceptions either in the form of behaviour or attention than on conventional advertisement. An in-depth explanation of the results from the Fairclough critical discourse analysis is described in several subsections below.

Text Analysis

Go-Jek Outdoor Media (The Media is Fulfilled with Text). In the concept of structural analysis, outdoor media advertising displays unconventional visuals in an organized and orderly manner, as shown in Figure 1. The appearance of this billboard media utilizes the visualization of ads with lengthy writing and small font sizes, deliberately designed to offer its effect on people. Billboards often show more colourful images, and this media involves black writing on a white background.

In this research, the most striking feature of this ad was the visualization of text ads without images. Instead of using colours and shapes, it used descriptive narrative black and white text, with small font sizes. A billboard unit contains full text without any trinkets, and this is a point of irregularity. Structurally, the simplicity of colours allows for the text to be more legible.

Lazada Outdoor Media (The Visualization Rotated 180°/Reverse). This billboard offers unique features for its readers, and it is rotated 180 degrees, as shown in Figure 2. The letters of the alphabet are usually read from left to right and sequentially from top to bottom; however, the reverse is the case with this ad. The billboard not only reverses the position of the image but also changes the fonts in the ad. Structurally, a short font type with striking numbers is readable even when it is rotated.

Tolak Angin Outdoor Media-visualization of a Garland or Wreath. This outdoor advertising media utilizes artificial fresh flowers aimed at changing the old traditions. Generally, outdoor media uses lighted billboards, simple drawings, and standard font faces; however, in this case, the form of visualization is set with a variety of "fresh" flowers, even though they are truly artificial. This adjustment certainly satisfies the tastes of urban people because they prefer antimainstream matters, even when they are brief. However, the features of advertising media in urban areas need to be designed in accordance with the rural environment (Anzabi, 2016). Therefore, colourful flowers offer a lively, natural, and fresh appearance, thereby attracting the attention of people to read the messages, even though the flowers are artificial.

Structurally, it is impossible to mount outdoor media of massive size placed in

a high position because of its tendency to be damaged in the long term; therefore, outdoor media tends to fund the construction of visual elements. The similarity of work details with congratulations boards sometimes fails to heed the type face font proportion, which reinforces the identity of the congratulatory wreath made by craftspeople, who sometimes lack aesthetic value sensitivity.

Synthesis of Text Analysis

These three outdoor advertising media show the structure of creative visual elements, which are called unnatural, odd, or unconventional by contrasting and reversing the establishment of design principles.

Discourse Practice Analysis

The focus in the discussion of discourse practice analysis is on the ways to communicate the contents of outdoor advertising media to promote products. The following findings are the results of interviews with 30 respondents about the three advertisement samples.

As shown in Table 1 and Figure 5, the majority of respondents perceived the fulltext visualization of Go-Jek as the most attractive, followed by Tolak Angin's flower arrangement and Lazada's rotated visual as the least attractive. However, Lazada was thought to have the most persuasive strength with its "discount" tag.

With discourse practice analysis, it can be synthesized that the basis for advertising design is an orientation toward public interaction. People are encouraged to tilt or shake their head, made to stare at a billboard with unusual texts, and stimulated to question and find the answer on the billboard.

The selection of visual style, content information, and diction in the above samples has succeeded in attracting people's attention to advertising messages. Based on research participants' responses, on several occasions, the media breaks people's expectations. This psychological shock is the main target of advertisers, making their messages more memorable and impactful. Turhan and Okan (2017) found that the use of rhetorical language and the right timing to use it were very potent in changing someone's understanding of social problems. Therefore, the advertising samples above mainly discuss the sociological aspect of human activity.

Table 1

Public response to the attractiveness and persuasiveness of advertising media samples

Advert. samples	Attractive-ness	Persuasive-ness
Sample 1 (Go-Jek)	16	9
Sample 2 (Lazada)	3	16
Sample 3 (Tolak Angin)	11	5
TOTAL	30	30

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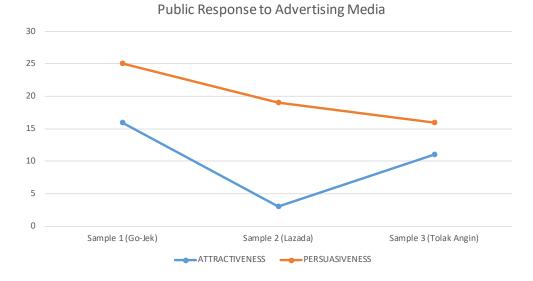


Figure 5. The public response to advertising media

Go-Jek Outdoor Media (The Media Filled

with Text). This advertisement is started by asking questions such as "Still stuck on the road?" Therefore, when the reader comes across the next paragraph, they are presented with various pieces of important information regarding transportation and traffic. The presence of this flowing and easily understood narrative becomes an interesting reason for them to read until the end.

Observation showed that the public response to Kompasiana, Instagram, Facebook, and other social media platforms in accordance with advertisements provided a longer reading time due to the opportunity to be able to read the entire narrative of the text from beginning to end. The feeling of curiosity used to determine the manuscript status became a public stimulus. This finding also reinforced the results of Moldovan et al. (2019), which stated that creativity was not enough to stimulate the response of urban society. An advertisement is required to fulfil the truth of information, which is the legitimate demands of the logical thinking of contemporary urban society. Terkan (2014) also stated that it was important to add persuasive nuances by manipulating the values and desires of potential customers.

Lazada Outdoor Media (The Visualization Rotated 180°/Reverse). This advertisement is a billboard rotated 180 degrees, which looks reversed, with the provision of information on the products offered on the online-based app store. The visualization of an inverted cell phone with a 50% discount promotion shows a low price moment that only lasts for a short time. Therefore, aside from being interested in large discount framing (McKechnie et al., 2012), many viewers try to tilt their heads to obtain information, which is considered unusual or not routinely informed.

The public was initially tempted by looking at the text "Free Delivery and 50% Discount," which was a novelty for reading unusual advertisements. The visualization of text and images rotated 180 degrees tended to attract the public. Respondents were able to read the reversed text because the font types dominated the media space.

In an effort to understand advertising messages, the public was deliberately invited to partake in motor activities by moving their heads. According to Steinhart (2012), this method is called an activation technique, which requires the reader to perform physical or mental activity. However, the results of the interpretation of the subject's response showed that the uniqueness of this media was only limited by the direction matter, with the meaning ultimately focused on a uniform conclusion.

Tolak Angin Outdoor Media-visualization of a Garland or Wreath. Moreover, on the third billboard media, outdoor advertisements are displayed with fresh flowers, and the billboard consists of text that symbolizes flattery and appreciation from an online-based transportation app company such as modern herbal medicine. Based on the interpretation of the subject's response to the billboard, it is concluded that it becomes a starting point for considering an advertisement's level of prevalence, which has exceeded general limits.

Synthesis of Discourse Practice Analysis

Based on interviews with 30 participants, 57% considered Go-Jek advertisements, which prioritized text rather than visuals as the most attractive advertisements, followed by Tolak Angin Outdoor Media with wreath visualization (27%) and Lazada with 17%.

In the discourse practice analysis, it is synthesized that the basis of advertising design is to create an interactive channel with the public. The public is invited to tilt their heads, stare longer with unusual reading methods, and raise new questions with the answers obtained by paying more attention to the advertisement. According to research carried out by Kenechukwu et al. (2013), advertisements are actually unnecessary, time-wasting, and misleading, with invalid information. However, the visual design, content, and choice of diction in the advertisement are used to attract people's interest in reading the presented messages.

Social Practice Analysis

Go-Jek Outdoor Media (The Media is Fulfilled with Text). Go-Jek's outdoor advertisement is used to minimize the increasingly widespread infrastructure development in Jakarta and the number of private vehicles. This advertisement is a satire criticism for the majority of road users who are reluctant to use public transportation. In fact, the use of private vehicles has drained energy, time, and money associated with parking fees. "Still stuck on the road? Online transportation is your solution," this is the initial teaser of advertising messages that offers a solution by inviting users to partake in a more frugal lifestyle. The nature of advertisements generally manipulates opinions and behaviour (Hayko, 2010) because of their social practice and is herded to one of the providers of online transportation (which is Go-Jek). As a form of social practice, ideological advertising has played the human subconscious by bringing up a dialogue that adopts social phenomena.

In this first billboard media appearance, the written content is a description of the various activities that are carried out, assuming that the public arrives at the destination on time. The target audience is also asked to anticipate their happiness, assuming that they returned home from work early. Advertising has the power to make the public continue to utilize online transportation services. Therefore, Mandiri E-money, BCA flash, and other cards need to be filled with sufficient funds.

Lazada Outdoor Media (The Visualization Rotated 180°/Reverse). In accordance with billboards with reversed content visualization, the public feels remorseful, assuming that they fail to tilt their heads to obtain the information displayed. Moreover, there is a persuasive copy, such as "Free Delivery, 50% Discount". Indeed, all advertisements refer to the same basis of manipulating consumer behaviour (Frolova, 2014). However, in this case, advertisements with reversed visual designs have succeeded in manipulating consumer behaviour.

The advertisement placed by Lazada is displayed and rotated 180 degrees. Ethically, it needs to be fair with regard to other brands; therefore, the chosen strategy is to perform billboard visualization. Through these patterns, the public is unconsciously led to possess consumptive and hedonic patterns (Gupta et al., 2013). In this social practice, it is seen that the ease of buying goods online is utilized by this advertisement, which affirms the legitimacy of public submission to power under online purchasing control.

Tolak Angin Outdoor Media-visualization of a Garland or Wreath. The third media billboard is an outdoor advertisement that uses fresh flowers. This accentuates the appreciation of the herbal brand, which despite its global and modern reputation, tends to use traditional Indonesian natural ingredients.

This advertisement coincides with Indonesia's Independence Day. Therefore, Go-Jek utilizes the momentum and the spirit of nationalism, supported by the visualization of garland to produce a more creative advertisement. This is an appropriate and conceptual reason. However, the majority of the public is not able to relate to this event (Okazaki et al., 2010). This social practice is understood by the community, which is limited to the perception that life is facilitated by the presence of Go-Jek as a means of transportation, order delivery, and payment. The idea of an artificial wreath as a congratulatory statement is a sign of Eastern cultural identity that produces public sensations in the midst of urban culture.

Synthesis of Social Practice Analysis

According to Lim (2014), physical public space has become an interdependent dimension with social movements. The findings in the analysis of social practice at the same time confirm the research of Nowghabi and Talebzadeh (2019), which stated that in urban society, billboards and visualization caused confusion in the minds of the community. This is considered a nuisance when viewed from a certain angle, and it is also called double disturbance. However, in terms of the ease of processing information, this kind of advertising method does not psychologically include interference. It is also worth considering the results of Cronin's (2006) research, which confirmed that outdoor advertising played an important role in adjusting to the urban rhythm and its society. The rhythm of the target urban society is typical of jobs and activities that are innovative, addictive and consumptive. In the FGD deeper dialogue session, we found the following reactions (Table 2) in each sample.

Table 2

Public interpretations of advertisement samples

Advertisement sample	Meanings interpreted
Sample 1 (Go-Jek)	Understanding the benefit of online transportation but realizing its relatively costly price
Sample 2 (Lazada)	Understanding the advertisement's word play; 50% shipping rate, not 50% of the product's selling value
Sample 3 (Tolak Angin)	Understanding the meaning of artificial fresh flowers as a national congratulatory icon, used in this case for inventing traditional <i>jamu</i>

Lazada and Go-Jek offered solutions by presenting the problems faced by ordinary people. This is in line with Abdelaal and Sase's (2014) research, which stated that advertisers always proposed a thesis to acquaint viewers with the necessary information. After the sensation is considered to appear, the advertiser provides an antithesis in the next sequence. This kind of marketing strategy is widely used, and subsequently, the problem that arises is the different ways in which to lock public attention on the product by using unusual visual displays.

Practically, the formation of a new synthesis of the social practice analysis

presented to the public is viral in the community because the closeness of the issue tends to ease the understanding of advertisements.

This finding is similar to the research conducted by Kaur et al. (2013), which stated that advertisers tried to manipulate the lifestyles of urban communities in certain contexts. They tended to form a new construction of knowledge and trust in shopping, communicating and transporting with the conclusion that people's minds are controlled by advertising using language. However, this research concludes that people's minds are formed and reconstructed through visuals.

From this analysis, it is seen that the narrative of advertising in the context of social culture is a solution used to respond to public needs. Furthermore, it examines the problems that require the ease of transportation services, as well as commercial purchasing systems, which are easy, practical, and inexpensive. Finally, the public has been made aware of the importance of advertised commercial products and services. Therefore, there is a dependence on a capitalist system, where convenience is easily obtained through payment. Furthermore, the marginal people still jostle using mass transportation and are still not aware of being vulnerable to being fooled by online shopping services.

CONCLUSIONS

Critical discourse analysis is chosen because it does not limit the advertisement study to visual signs and covers its meanings and interests behind each creative process. Advertisement has the ideological purpose of not only selling and attracting attention to products/service but also changing people's behaviour in using such products/services. Urban society has a certain tendency to use online systems for daily needs. People tend to be willing to spend money for the comfort provided by online systems, even if it may cost them more.

Visual irregularities in unconventional outdoor advertising media show that the public tends to stare longer while interpreting the message. The unconventional approach in designing advertisements is able to uncover consumers' reluctance to look at advertising media and at reading the message to the end. This success occurs because the visualization of advertisements has an unexpected nature, and it is present in locations and situations where they do not expect or suspect the awkwardness of the advertisement visualization. Generally, conventional advertisements try to convey persuasive messages and try to convince the audience to buy or use the services offered. This is in contrast to the visualization of the outdoor media advertisements that try to instil long-lasting monumental ideas in the minds of consumers. The public is invited to partake in dialogue with antagonistic text structures, stimulated to interact with some of their body movements, and to find solutions to public problems in the midst of urban culture.

An advertisement has also played on the public subconscious with a pattern related to capitalism in urban culture. It also has the power to make the public depends on its features, such as online transportation. Similarly, the ease of online transactions leads to consumptive patterns as the identity of urban cultural lifestyles.

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Several works by the same author in the same year	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Camilleri, 2018a, 2018b) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Camilleri (2018a, 2018b)	Camilleri, M. A. (2018a). Travel marketing, tourism economics and the airline product: An introduction to theory and practice. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-49849-2 Camilleri, M. A. (2018b). Understanding customer needs and wants. In Travel marketing, tourism economics and the airline product: An introduction to theory and practice (pp. 29-50). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3- 319-49849-2_2



Journals

Journals	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
Journal article with 1-2 authors	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2020) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Al-Shboul and Maros (2020)	Al-Shboul, Y., & Maros, M. (2020). The high and low-context communication styles in refusal strategies by Jordanian Arabic and American English speakers. <i>Pertanika Journal of Social</i> <i>Sciences and Humanities</i> , 28(3), 2063-2080.
Journal article with 3 or more authors	For all in-text references, list only the first author's family name and followed by 'et al.' Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Khajouei et al., 2018) (Yusop et al., 2020) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Khajouei et al. (2018) Yusop et al. (2020)	 Khajouei, R., Abbasi, R., & Mirzaee, M. (2018). Errors and causes of communication failures from hospital information systems to electronic health record: A record-review study. <i>International Journal of Medical Informatics</i>, <i>119</i>(January), 47-53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2018.09.004 Yusop, F. D., Ab Ghaffar, F., Danaee, M., Firdaus, A., Hamzaid, M. A., Abu Hassan, Z. F., Senom, F., Ebrahim, N. A., Bonn, B. Y., & Chen, Y. M. (2020). Two decades of research on early career faculties (ECFs): A bibliometric analysis of trends across regions. <i>Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities</i>, <i>28</i>(1), 325-342.
Journal article with more than 20 authors	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Tobler et al., 2017) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Tobler et al. (2017)	 Tobler, R., Rohrlach, A., Soubrier, J., Bover, P., Llamas, B., Tuke, J., Bean, N., Abdullah-Highfold, A., Agius, S., O'Donoghue, A., O'Loughlin, I., Sutton, P., Zilio, F., Walshe, K., Williams, A. N., Turney, C. S. M., Williams, M., Richards, S. M., Mitchell, N Cooper, A. (2017). Aboriginal mitogenomes reveal 50,000 years of regionalism in Australia. Nature, 544(7649), 180-184. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature21416



Journal article with an article number	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (De Rubeis et al., 2017) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): De Rubeis et al. (2017)	De Rubeis, J., Lugo, R. G., Witthöft, M., Sütterlin, S., Pawelzik, M. R., & Vögele, C. (2017). Rejection sensitivity as a vulnerability marker for depressive symptom deterioration in men. <i>PloS One</i> , <i>12</i> (10), Article e0185802. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0185802
Journal article with missing information	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Bajaj et al., 2014) (Jdaitawi, 2015) (Nastasa & Farcas, 2015) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Bajaj et al. (2014) Jdaitawi (2015) Nastasa and Farcas (2015)	 Missing volume number Bajaj, G., Deepa, N., Bhat, J. S., D'Souza, D., & Sheth, P. (2014). Self-efficacy and verbal fluency — does age play a role? <i>Healthy Aging</i> & <i>Clinical Care in the Elderly</i>, (6), 17-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.4137/HACCE.S14292 Missing issue number Nastasa, L. E., & Farcas, A. D. (2015). The effect of emotional intelligence on burnout in healthcare professionals. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i>, 187, 78-82. Missing page or article number Jdaitawi, M. (2015). Social connectedness, academic, non-academic behaviors related to self-regulation among university students in Saudi Arabia. <i>International Education Studies</i>, <i>8</i>(2). https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v8n2p84
Several works by the same author in the same year	Information prominent' (the author's name is within parentheses): (Ibrahim, 2019a, 2019b) Or 'Author prominent' (the author's name is outside the parentheses): Ibrahim (2019a, 2019b)	Ibrahim, M. H. (2019a). Capital regulation and Islamic banking performance: panel evidence. <i>Bulletin of Monetary Economics and Banking</i> , 22(1), 47-68. Ibrahim, M. H. (2019b). Oil and macro-financial linkages: Evidence from the GCC countries. <i>The</i> <i>Quarterly Review of Economics and Finance</i> , 72(May) 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.qref.2019.01.014



Newspapers

Newspapers	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
Newspaper article – with an author	(Davidson, 2018)	Davidson, J. (2018, January 9). CES 2018: Samsung vows to add artificial intelligence to
	Or	everything it does. Australian Financial Review. https://www.afr.com/technology/ces-2018- samsung-vows-to-add-artificial-intelligence-to-
	Davidson (2018)	everything-it-does-20180109-h0fdtd
Newspaper article – without an author	("Economics nudging," 2017).	Economics nudging people away from war. (2017, December 16). <i>The Age</i> , 33.
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	Use a shortened title (or full title if it is short) in Headline Case enclosed in double quotation marks.	

Dissertation/Thesis

Newspapers	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
Published Dissertation or Thesis References	(Solomon, 2016) Or Solomon (2016)	Solomon, M. (2016). Social media and self- evaluation: The examination of social media use on identity, social comparison, and self-esteem in young female adults [Doctoral dissertation, William James College]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing. https://search.proquest.com/ openview/7d66a63f277a84a64907db68fff991ba/ 1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y
Unpublished Dissertation or Thesis References	(Curry, 2016) Or Curry (2016)	Curry, J. (2016). A guide to educating single mothers about early gang intervention and prevention (Unpublished Master's thesis). Pacific Oaks College.



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Conference / Seminar Papers	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
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Conference proceedings published as a book chapter	(Morgan et al., 2017) Or Morgan et al. (2017)	Morgan, R., Meldrum, K., Bryan, S., Mathiesen, B., Yakob, N., Esa, N., & Ziden, A. A. (2017). Embedding digital literacies in curricula: Australian and Malaysian experiences. In G. B. Teh & S. C. Choy (Eds.), <i>Empowering 21st century learners through holistic and enterprising learning: Selected papers from Tunku Abdul Rahman University College International Conference 2016</i> (pp. 11-19). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-4241-6_2
Online	(McDonald et al., 2019) Or McDonald et al. (2019)	McDonald, E., Manessis, R., & Blanksby, T. (2019, July 7- 10). Peer mentoring in nursing - Improving retention, enhancing education [Poster presentation]. STARS 2019 Conference, Melbourne, Australia. https://unistars.org/ papers/STARS2019/P30-POSTER.pdf

Government Publications

Government Publications	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
Government as author	First in-text reference: Spell out the full name with the abbreviation of the body.	U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (2020). National comprehensive housing market analysis.
	U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (2020)	https://www.huduser.gov/portal//publications/ pdf/National-CHMA-20.pdf
	Or	
	(U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2020)	

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