ISSN 1911-2017 (Print) ISSN 1911-2025 (Online)

ASIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE



CANADIAN CENTER OF SCIENCE AND EDUCATION

Editorial Board

Editor-in-Chief

I-Tsun Chiang, National Changhua University of Education, Taiwan

Associate Editors

Alexander S Takeuchi, University of North Alabama, United States Nicholas Ruei-lin Lee, Chaoyang University of Technology, Taiwan Polly Yeung, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

Editorial Assistant

Bruce Gao, Canadian Center of Science and Education, Canada Jenny Zhang, Canadian Center of Science and Education, Canada

Editorial Board Members

Abd. Rahim Md. Nor Ibrahim Akman Peter Kien-hong Yu Abu Bakar Abdul Hamid Ilham Haouas Pramod Kumar Bajpai

Andrew Schumann Josefina Fernandez-Guadano

Anila Naeem Jun-Young Oh Anna H. Jankowiak K C Mishra Arezou Zalipour Kapil Jain Aydogan Kars Kimburley Choi

Ayfer Aydiner Boylu L.A. Sethela June Hamy Beris

Bahador Sadeghi Lau Teck Chai Basmah Issa AlSaleem Loris Vergolini Biswajit Satpathy M. J. Maghsoodi Tilaki

Cai Lian Tam Ma. Mercedes T. Rodrigo

Chanchal Kumar Sharma Mahdi Salehi Chen I Ju Maniam Kaliannan Cho-ying Li Marcin Waligóra **Christian Tamas** Maryam Ahmadian Chung-Jen Wang Mohamad Fazli Sabri

Chung-Khain Wye Mohammed S. Wattad Mohd Salehuddin Mohd Zahari Colin Wark

Constantino T. Ballena Muhammad Javed Cristina Fernandes Nabeel M. Althabhawi Daisy Inyingi Dimkpa Nawaraj Chaulagain David Aylward Nedal Sawan Deirdre M. Warren Nikos Amanatidis

Nooshin Sabour Esmaeili Dragoljub Todic

Emine Özmete Noraien Mansor Esmaeil Zeiny Normaliza Abd Rahim Fauziah Ahmad Olaoluwa Olusanya Femi Rufus Tinuola Ong Puay Liu Ornsiri Wimontham Fen-ling Chen Georgia Andreou Osman Chuah Abdullah

Ozgur DEMIRTAS

Hazlina Abdul Halim Pablo Zanor Parveen Kaur Hiba Qusay

Gulay Gunay

Paulito Valeriano Hilario Hyung Seok Lee

Punam Pandey R. K. Kavitha Rafael Leal-Arcas Ramajanaki Iyer Ramphul Ohlan Rickey Ray Rita Yi Man Li Rohana Kamaruddin

Ruth Sittichai Sabry M. Abd-El-Fattah

Safi Mahmoud Mahfouz

Sang-Bing Tsai Shiwei Jiang

Shobha Kulathakattu

Shruti Tewari Simin Ghavifekr Simon Friederich Stefan Stieger Stephen Healy Tapas Pal Tsui-Yii Shih Tugba Yilmaz

U-maporn Kardkarnklai

Vakur Sumer Victor G. Devinatz

Wan Izatul Asma Wan Talaat

Won-jun Lee Yung-Jaan Lee

Contents

Identity Threat, Resistance to Chance and Entrepreneurial Behavioural Engagements: The Moderating Role of Entrepreneurial Passion	1
Ahmed Jamil, Rozeyta Omar & Siti Aisyah Panatik	
Entrepreneurial Passion, Achievement Motivation Goals and Behavioural Engagements in Malaysia: Are There Any Differences Across Ethnic Groups?	17
Ahmed Jamil, Rozeyta Omar & Siti Aisyah Panatik	
Community Supporting Attitude toward Community-Based Tourism Development; Non-Participants Perspective	29
Sajad Ebrahimi & Zainab Khalifah	
An Examination of the Legal Nature of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent: The Approach of Iranian Contract Law	36
Mehdi Pirhaji, Mojtaba Nikdoosti & Mohammad Reza Eskandari- Pudeh	
The Impact of Leader's Cultural Intelligence on Organizational Commitment	45
Roya Anvari, Sobia Irum, Muhammad Ashfaq & Dauda Mohammed Atiyaye	
Exploring Service and Support Needs in Postgraduate Education towards the Higher Education Quality	52
Norhasni Zainal Abiddin & Affero Ismail	
An integrated Approach for Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Sustainability	57
Harshakumari Sarvaiya & Minyu Wu	
Varieties of Regionalism: Comparison of Europe and Southeast Asia	71
Fujian Li & Jinsha Deng	
Professional Deformations of a Lawyer and Deformations of Legal Mind: Connection and Interaction. Experience of Modern Russia	81
Yana V. Gaivoronskay	
Conditions and Problems in the Promotion of Youth's Behaviors in Accordance with the Islamic Way of Life by Muslim Leaders of Ban Sarong, Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province	85
Kasetchai Laeheem, Dolmananch Baka, Hasbullah Tahe & Sasuree Walee	
The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Firm Financial Performance by Moderating of Dynamic Capability	93
Majid Dadashinasab & Saudah Sofian	
Management Innovation Companies Based Business Cost Indicators	101
Nikolay Kuznetsov	
Why Workers Disengage? Factors from "Head" or "Heart" to Be Tagged on?	108
Normala S Govindarajo, Dileep Kumar. M & Subrahmanium Sri Ramulu	
Integrating Islamic Financing and Halal Industry: A Survey on Current Practices of the Selected Malaysian Authority Bodies	120
Nurul Aini Muhamed, Nathasa Mazna Ramli, Sumaiyah Abd Aziz & Nor Asiah Yaakub	
Improving TRIZ 40 Inventive Principles Grouping in Redesign Service Approaches	127
Nadhmi Gazem & Azizah Abdul Rahman	
The Mediating Effect of Financial Performance on the Relationship between Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness, Intellectual Capital and Corporate Social Responsibility, of Islamic Banks in Gulf Cooperation Council Countries	139
Anwar Salem Musibah & Wan Sulaiman Bin Wan Yusoff Alfattani	
Clothes and Image Analysis for Laywoman on the Mural of the North Wall in the 17th Grotto of Magao Grottoes	165
Ting Rong	

Contents

A Study of the Semiotic Understanding of Land Art	170
Farzaneh Najafi & Merza Abbas	
An Analysis on Shihab's Methodology: How do Pronouns Applied?	185
Muhd Najib Abdul Kadir, Abur Hamdi Usman, Mazlan Ibrahim & Mohd Akil Muhamed Ali	
Service Quality Dimensions of Electricity Services: Evidence from Electricity Board in Sri Lanka	194
S. Achchuthan, N. Sivathaasan & J. M. R. S. Jayasundara	
Relationship between Type of Risks and Income of the Rural Households in the Pattani Province of Thailand	204
Pha-isah Leekoi, Ahmad Zafarullah Abdul Jalil & Mukaramah Harun	
Adjective + Noun Collocational Competence of L1 Thai Learners: A Comparative Study of a Regular Program and an English Program	210
Paitoon Suwitchanphan & Supakorn Phoocharoensil	
The Meaning of Female Passivity in Traditional Malay Literature	222
Rahimah Hamdan & Shaiful Bahri Md.Radzi	
Identity Crisis of Teenagers with Hearing Impairment in Palestine	229
Suheir .S. Sabbah	
A Sociolinguistic Study of Miscommunication in Male-female Conversation	240
Chunqin Zhang	
The Two Mechanisms behind the Influence of Social Capital on Academic Development of English Teachers in Universities of China	244
Liu Hong	
Mediating Role of Personality Factors in the relationship between Internal Marketing and Customer Orientation: A Review	250
Gafar Olanrewaju Yusuf, Inda Sukati & Thoo Ai Chin	
Influence of Psychopathy and Cultic Disposition on Attitude toward Violence among Students of Tertiary Institutions in Ekiti State	258
Adebayo Sulaiman Olanrewaju, Olawa Babatola Dominic, Ogunleye Adedeji Julius & Ayeye Funmilola	
Avoidance in Processing English Non-restrictive Relative Clauses in Thai EFL Learners' Interlanguage	265
Sonthaya Rattanasak & Supakorn Phoocharoensil	
Middle Class: The Socio-Economic Stabilizer of the Country Development	278
Natalia Victorovna Kuznetsova & Artemiy Yurievich Tupitsyn	
Monitoring of Education Environment according to the Social-Psychological Safety Criterion	285
Pavel Aleksandrovich Kislyakov, Elena Aleksandrovna Shmeleva, Tat'yana Vyacheslavovna Karaseva & Ol'ga Aleksandrovna Silaeva	
Methodology Making Management Decisions Based on a Modified Ramsey Model	292
Maria Jakovlevna Parfenova, Vladimir Denisovich Babishin, Evgeny Vladimirovich Yurkevich, Vladimir Dmitriyevich Sekerin & Mihail Nikolaevich Dudin	
Reviewer Acknowledgements	302
Jenny Zhang	
•	

Identity Threat, Resistance to Chance and Entrepreneurial Behavioural Engagements: The Moderating Role of Entrepreneurial Passion

Ahmed Jamil¹, Rozeyta Omar¹ & Siti Aisyah Panatik¹

Correspondence: Ahmed Jamil, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia. E-mail: ahmed_jamil@comsats.edu.pk

Received: July 7, 2013 Accepted: July 24, 2014 Online Published: August 19, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p1 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p1

Abstract

This study validates the relationship between identity threat and entrepreneurial behavioural engagements through resistance to change with the moderating effect of entrepreneurial passion. The empirical results with utilizing SEM indicate that the identity threat is positively related to resistance to change, which further leads to performance goals. This study also validates that regulatory fit occurs under the identity threat condition, where performance avoidance goals are positively related to entrepreneurial behavioural engagements, and performance-approach goals induce a negative relationship with behavioural engagements. Furthermore, empirical data confirms that passion moderates the identity threat/resistance to change relationship, where harmonious passion dampens the relation and obsessive passion strengthens the positive relationship.

Keywords: identity threat, resistance to change, harmonious passion, obsessive passion, performance goals, personal values

1. Introduction

The Dualistic Model of Passion (Vallerand et al., 2003) posits that people's experience of effect, cognitive and behavioural engagement depends on their passion (i.e., harmonious or obsessive) predominance. Self-concept has been argued to be the building foundation for making the distinction between harmonious and obsessive passion (Mageau & Vallerand, 2007; Mageau et al., 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003). For example, Mageau et al. (2009) stated that:

People with an obsessive and a harmonious passion differ in the extent to which they rely on their passionate activity to derive their sense of self-worth (Mageau et al., 2011).

The objective of this study is to examine whether behavioural engagement and resistance to change differs between the two types of passion (i.e., harmonious and obsessive) when salient role identity is under threat. Specifically, in line with Vallerand et al. (2003), it was expected that the more obsessive type of passion entrepreneurs harbour, the more they should derive their sense of self guiding principles (self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity and distinctiveness) from their passionate activity and thus, the more resistance they should demonstrate under threat to their salient role identity. Furthermore, obsessively passionate individuals will choose performance and performance-avoidance goals that generate different levels of entrepreneurial behavioural engagement. These effects are not expected to occur in the case of harmonious passion.

1.1 Theory and Hypothesis

Past behaviour is well-recognized as a prognosticator of an individual's prospect actions (Ajzen, 1991), attitude and intentions (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). In addition, behaviour that generates positive experience is most likely repeated over time (Aarts, Verplanken, & van Knippenberg, 1998). This frequent behavior leads to habitual patterns. Furthermore, disrupting habitual behaviour can be difficult for an individual, as it may lead to resistance to change (Murtagh, Gatersleben, & Uzzell, 2012). Resistance to change is a psychological phenomenon that has attracted interest in many applied branches of psychology and is reportedly the most anticipated response to required change (Dent & Goldberg, 1999), a "universal tendency" (Rogers, 1965) and a "personality trait" (Oreg, 2003). At the same time, past research approaches place the concept on a paradigm, ranging from a barrier to overcome (Albarracin et al., 2008) to a resource with which to work (Ford, 2010). As

¹ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia

such, repeated behaviour was conceptualized as a component of resistance to change (Stoll-Kleemann, O'Riordan, & Jaeger, 2001).

Bovey and Hede (2001), however, proposed that resistance to change results from psychological factors more complex than merely behaviour patterns. Supported by the Psychological Reactance Theory (Brehm, 1966) that conceptualizes resistance more as an identity perception, a counter behaviour is elicited due to a perceived threat to identity. Based on the underlying argument that individuals maintain the belief that they are free to engage in a range of behaviour, reactance is experienced when a behaviour believed by the individual as free is prevented or threatened (Brehm, 1966). Furthermore, the Psychological Reactance Theory (Brehm, 1966) argued that an individual may vary in their experience of state and trait reactance (Pavey & Sparks, 2009). The strength of reactance is derived from the importance of threatening freedom to satisfy important needs (Murtagh et al., 2012). The lack of need's definition and the Reactance Theory's relation to other psychological conditions make it difficult to conceptualize (Murtagh et al., 2012). We propose that reactance theoretically overlaps with, and offers a partial explanation of a more general threat to identity.

1.2 Identity Threat an Alternative Perspective for Resistance to Change

Sparks and colleagues (Sparks & Guthrie, 1998; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992), in line with the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), proposed self-identity as a forecaster of an individual's intentions and behaviour. Other findings draw attention towards the current context, that is, the association of self-identity with resistance to change as part of an individual's behaviour (Murtagh et al., 2012). For example, Hansen, Winzeler, and Topolinski (2010) reported in a study that participants who rated smoking as important for their self-esteem were likely to rate smoking as a positive effect after exposure to warnings (e.g., "smoking kills"). In another study, Liberman and Chaiken (1992) reported high levels of defensiveness in response to identity threats targeted at some important parts of self-image (Giner-Sorolla & Chaiken, 1997; Tesser & Cornell, 1991).

A theoretical perspective on self-identity also argues that identities guide behaviours in a way that identity-driven behaviours are either chosen or resisted (Stryker, 1987). The Identity Process Theory (IPT) (Breakwell, 1986) especially conceptualizes the mechanism through which threats to identity could result in resistance. IPT-structured self-concept along two dimensions (i.e., content & value) as well as contents and values are modified through assimilation (Breakwell, 1986). Furthermore, new contents are added through experience and their attributed value works on a bipolar spectrum (i.e., from negative to positive). Furthermore, a threat is experienced if the guiding principles, such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity (a sense of continuity of self over time) and distinctiveness (sense of uniqueness) are undermined (Breakwell, 1986, 1988). Similarly, an identity threat is perceived as an attack or potential attack on an individual's self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity or distinctiveness (Murtagh et al., 2012).

Thus, the identity threat offers an alternative perspective to the phenomenon of reactance (Murtagh et al., 2012). Since the threat to freedom conceptualized in the psychological reactance theory shares similarities with the threat to self-efficacy, in the same fashion a threat to freedom implies reduced control and limited autonomy that in turn impact an individual's self-esteem. Threat to freedom also overlaps conceptually with the threat to continuity and distinctiveness, as previous-held freedom (autonomy) will challenge the individual's sense of continuity of self, and in addition put barriers to action that may prevent individuals from behaviour that expresses different aspects of distinctiveness (Murtagh et al., 2012). Thus, we propose that the identity threat provides an alternative, and theoretically richer, framework than reactance for examining resistance to change.

H1: The identity threat is significantly related to resistance to change.

1.3 Resistance to Change and Achievement Motivation Goals

The motivation underlying entrepreneurial behavioural engagement requires that the brain, body and responses (Russell, 2003) all engange in a coherent and coordinated pattern (Damasio, 2003) to face challenges posed by the external environment (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009). This means of coping may not be functional each time but might be blind and misleading (for instance obsessive passion) (Vallerand et al., 2003). Cardon et al. (2009) defined these actions as the brain's complex psychological responses. It is proposed in the present study that achievement motivation goals represent the psychological processes through which motivation contributes to entrepreneurial behavioural engagement. Several facets of achievement motivation goals make it relevant for understanding, first of which are entrepreneurs' achievement motivation processes that are vital to human agency (e.g., effortful and conscious engagement of the self) and human coping (e.g., mobilizing body and brain responses to overcome challenges). Secondly, achievement goals affect an achievement-related attitude (such as, task involvement and ego involvement). Third, human agency and coping phenomena act as

goal-directed processes, whereby entrepreneurs need only explore their opportunities and these goals will automatically manifest directions for further endeavour.

The trichotomous achievement goal theory (Elliot & Church, 1997) differentiates mastery goals (i.e., focused on task mastery and competence development) from performance goals (i.e., targeted to demonstrate competence relative to other individuals). However, performance-approach goals are directed towards achieving positive judgment of competence and performance-avoidance goals are directed towards avoiding unfavourable judgment of competence that undermines individual self-concept. Classic psychological motivation theories have conceptualized that achievement motives are influenced by positive or negative feedback, such that positive feedback increases favourable outcome expectation and thus encourages mastery motivation, whereas negative feedback (i.e., threats to salient identity) undermines positive outcome expectations and thus persuades performance motives (Atkinson, 1964; Lewin, 1935; McClelland et al., 1953). Thus, we conceptualize that resistance to change, which evolves negative feedback (undermines an individual's self-concept or identity), is related to performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals.

H 2(a): Resistance to change is significantly related to performance-approach goals.

H 2(b): Resistance to change is significantly related to performance-avoidance goals.

1.4 Achievement Motivation Goals and Behavioural Engagement

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) categorized entrepreneurial behavioural engagement in three sub-groups: (1) motivation to generate wealth and capital accumulation, (2) ability to recognize opportunities, and (3) identify which opportunity to chase. In accord with scholars (Herron & Sapienza, 1992; Naffziger, Hornsby, & Kuratko, 1994) we have no objection with these phases (i.e., motivation, intent and identification), although our view regarding the underlying contingencies (i.e., wealth creation and capital accumulation) does differ. The standing point in the present study is that entrepreneurial behavioural engagements are expressions of their deeper held needs (e.g., creativity and ambition). For example, a person's craving for autonomy is an imperative intrinsic motivation for anyone with an ambition to undertake entrepreneurial activities. Although, craving for autonomy itself does not instigate entrepreneurial behavioural engagements. A person with strong autonomous orientation may well engage in other activities (e.g., paid employment) provided his/her perceived autonomy is nourished in a real, authentic way (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

This argument regarding autonomy suggests there are other factors associated with entrepreneurial behavioural engagements. These factors are values, such as individuals' innate need for innovation, seeking challenge, or stimulation and creativity, that discern entrepreneurial behaviour from other managerial behaviours (Kasser, 2002; Shane, 2003). Thus entrepreneurial behavioural engagements are an individual's innate need for: creativity, referred to as the generation of novel and potentially useful ideas (Shalley, Zhou, & Oldman, 2004); ambition, which entails a desire to achieve a particular goal; and being daring, "to be adventurous and keen to take on or look for risk" (Oxford English Dictionary, 1995).

Past studies (Cury et al., 2002; Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Dweck, 2005; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliot & McGregor, 1999; Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999; Urdan, 2004; Van Yperen, 2003) proposed that performance-avoidance goals compared to performance-approach goals are relatively more associated with maladaptive achievement outcomes, such as anxiety, poorer performance, and loss of motivation and behavioural engagement. On the contrary, the present study hypothesizes that performance-avoidance goals will positively predict behavioural engagement under identity threat. The Regulatory Focus Theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) agrees that performance-avoidance goals may not be systematically maladaptive. The implication of the Regulatory Focus Theory in the current study is the argument that people may pursue two kinds of regulatory goals: promotion and prevention. When an individual is promotion-oriented, he/she pursues desirable outcomes (such as gain or success), but if an individual is prevention-oriented, they strive to avoid undesirable outcomes (for instance failure or loss).

Early work on Regulatory Focus (Higgins, 1997, 1998) in an achievement setting displayed a connection between prevention orientation and detrimental outcomes, such as low creativity thoughts (Friedman & Forster, 2001) and low persistence levels to difficult tasks or experiencing failure (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Later studies, however, proposed that prevention goals do not necessarily lead to negative outcomes. Evident from the regulatory fit phenomenon, when people are encouraged to use strategies (in line with regulatory goals), they exhibit advanced motivation and performance (Freitas & Higgins, 2002; Keller & Bless, 2006; Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) as well as report enhanced feelings (Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003; Higgins, 2000). For example, Keller & Bless (2006) showed in their study in an academic setting that motivation to avoid academic failure enhanced the academic performance of those individuals who were chronically

prevention-oriented. An increase in performance occurred because individuals were focused on information targeted towards avoiding failure and strategies trigged at preventing negative outcomes (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Thus, tasks that exhibited prevention shows sensitivity of prevention-orientation individuals for their loos that further increased their motivation and persistence with the task (Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998).

- H 3(a): Performance-avoidance goals are positively related to behavioural engagement under identity threat.
- H 3(b): Performance-approach goals are negatively related to behavioural engagement under identity threat.

1.5 Moderation by Entrepreneurial Passion

The Dualistic Model of Passion (DMP) proposes that passion is a strong inclination towards a self-defining activity that one likes (loves), values and in which he/she invests considerable time and effort (Vallerand et al., 2003). Accordingly, activities that are objectives of an individual's passion become primary features of their self-identity. It is suggested that harmonious passion evolves from an autonomous internalization (Deci & Ryan, 2000) of cherished activity into one's self, whereby such a situation occurs when a person feels free to value the activity rather than being pressured (i.e., internally or externally) to do so (Mageau et al., 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003). Thus harmonious passion endorses entirely volitional and flexible involvement in the cherished activity (Rip, Fortin, & Vallerand, 2006; Vallerand et al., 2003). Furthermore, harmoniously passionate individuals remain in harmony with their other life pursuits and over time their individual sense of identity is shaped. Harmonious passion is therefore associated with a relatively secure sense of self-identity, making an individual capable of facing identity-threatening information, people and circumstances non-defensively (Donahue, Rip, & Vallerand, 2009; Steele, 1988; Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002) and negatively related to resistance to change.

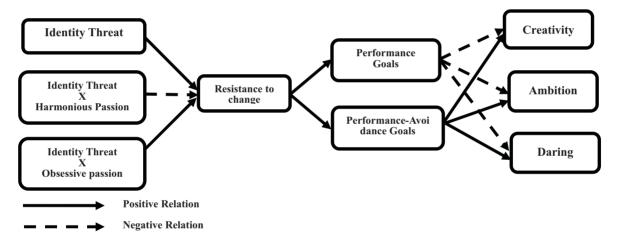


Figure 1. Proposed framework

On the other hand, obsessive passion is purported to evolve from a controlled internalization (Deci & Ryan, 2000) of a cherished activity into one's self. This occurs when the perception of self-esteem, social acceptance, or life satisfaction becomes associated with the particular activity (Mageau et al., 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003). Due to these ego-invested self-structures, people motivated by obsessive passion feel they are being controlled by the passionate activity (Hodgins & Knee, 2002). Thus, obsessive passion may be related to self-identity, which is highly vulnerable to the identity-threat condition, leading to conflict and a self-contingency ridden identity (Vallerand, 2010).

Since obsessively passionate individuals enter in conflict with other life activities (Vallerand, 2010), and may "crowd out" other important sources of self-identification, allowing passion for activity to dominate the individual's sense of self. It has been argued that obsessive passion is associated with self-esteem contingencies, such that an individual's sense of self-worth becomes contingent on success in the passionate domain in spite of experiencing negative effects and health problems (Lafrenière et al., 2009; Mageau et al., 2011; Rip et al., 2006; Vallerand et al., 2003). Anything or anyone who imposes a threat or is perceived to threaten the passionate domain and consequently the individual's self-identity may then be met with resistance behaviour (Mageau et al., 2011). The proposed model for this study is presented in Figure 1.

H 3(a): Harmonious passion negatively moderates the relationship between resistance to change and the identity threat

H 3(b): Obsessive passion positively moderates the relationship between resistance to change and the identity threat.

2. Method

An electronic survey to be sent through viral email was made, as it would enable access to the channel of probable candidates (Mazzocchi, 2008). The diffusion of internet access over the last couple of years highlights electronic surveys as the most widely used mode (Mazzocchi, 2008). The online version of the questionnaire http://www.entpassion.org was developed to obtain responses from entrepreneurs who are more indulgent of the Internet. The questionnaire was developed using PHP 5.4 in frontend and MySQL 5.6 database in backend. The questionnaire was offered in English, Bahasa Malaysia and Chinese. The four sections of the original questionnaire were represented as four web pages in the online version. Reponses from each web page were immediately saved to the MySQL database before moving to the next web page. The electronic survey was sent to the entrepreneurs' emails based on the details collected from the SME Corporation Malaysia website (http://www.smecorp.gov.my/). Each email sent had a unique ID for the questionnaire, which was to facilitate the entrepreneurs' completion of any partially filled questionnaire at a later time. Responses were exported from the MySQL database in a comma-separated values (CSV) file, which was later imported to SPSS for the necessary processing.

2.1 Sampling

The sampling frame of this study was developed based on the list acquired from SME Corp Malaysia. Currently, SME Corp Malaysia is the central point of reference for information and advisory services for all SMEs in Malaysia (Ahmad & Yusof, 2010). Two screening criteria were employed to ascertain the sample size for this study. First, in order to fit the general norms proposed by researchers (Cliff et al., 2006), an attempt was made to search for firms incorporated in the last 9 years. Secondly, following Kirkley (2010) selection was restricted to firms that were private, were neither a franchises nor a subsidiary, and that were not shell companies. The above-mentioned screening process helped attain a sample of 951 out of 3289 SMEs (sampling frame) in the state of Johor. Out of the final sample size of 951, 343 surveys were received representing a response rate of approximately 36%.

A total of 305 useable questionnaires were applied for the analysis. The respondents comprised 235 (70.04%) male and 70 (29.96%) female. The age group distribution of the respondents is as follows: 13.4% were 20-29 years old, 31.8% were 30-39 years old, 37.7% were 39-49 years old, 15.1% were 49-59 years old and the remaining 2% were 60 years old and above. The respondent age groups correspond to relative experience, as 86.6% of the respondents were over the age of 30. The ethnicities of the respondents indicate a relatively balanced distribution, with 52.1% of entrepreneurs being Malay and 46.2% Chinese. The results also indicate that 84% of the sample respondents belong to the service sector, 12% to manufacturing, 1.3% to construction, 1.9% to agriculture and the remaining 0.8% to the mining and quarrying sector.

2.2 Measurement

2.2.1 Entrepreneurial Passion

In order to operationalize entrepreneurial passion and test the hypothesis, we have adopted Vallerand et al.'s (2003) passion scale. The 16-item scale is divided into three subscales: passion criteria, harmonious passion and obsessive passion. Next, Vallerand et al.'s (2003) passion scale was rated on a 7-point "not at all agree" to "strongly agree" Likert scale for the items (e.g., "This activity is important for me," "This activity is so exciting that I sometimes lose control over it," "I spend a lot of time doing this activity").

2.2.2 Achievement Motivation Goals

In the present study Elliot and Church's (1997) 12-item achievement motivation scale was adapted, divided into three four-item sub-scales, and designed to measure the three different types of achievement goals. In this study 4 items were used to access performance-approach goals (e.g., "It is important for me to do better than other entrepreneurs") and performance-avoidance goals (e.g., "I just want to avoid doing more poorly than others in this business"). The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item is true for them on a 7-point Likert scale as shown in Table 4.3. If they thought the statement was very true of them, they should select 7. If a statement was not at all true of them, select 1. If the statement was more or less true of them, they should select the number between 1 and 7 that best describes them.

2.2.3 Creativity

Creativity was measured through 4 items adapted from Lin and Lee's (2005) individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) 10-item scale. The work of Bolton and Lane (2012) lay a foundation for Babbie's (2010) original five entrepreneurial orientation (EO) variables (i.e., innovativeness, willingness to take risks, pro-activeness, competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item (e.g., "I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but not necessarily risky") was true of them on a 7-point Likert scale (where 1 = not at all true for me, and 7 = very true for me).

2.2.4 Independence

Independence was measured through 3 items adapted from Shane, Kolvereid, and Westhead's (1991) 14-item scale. The items in this category are consistently identified in all Society of Associated Researchers of International Entrepreneurship (SARIE) studies (Birley & Westhead, 1994; Blais & Toulouse, 1990; Dubini, 1988; Scheinberg & MacMillan, 1988; Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003).

2.2.5 Daring

The notion of daring, including pursuing challenges and stimulation; being intrinsically motivated to achieve; being goal driven; self-determination; motivation to persevere and being self-disciplined, was measured through 4 items adapted from the ambition scale developed by Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, and Kelly (2007) and Duckworth, Quinn, and Seligman (2009) in their study of Grit: Perseverance and Passion for Long-term Goals.

2.2.6 Resistance to Change

We employed intention as a proxy for resistance to change. Valued activity engagement was measured as the inverse of intention to change, with a single item. Following Murtagh et al. (2012), the items are phrased in positive terms, for example "How likely is it that you would intend to change your activity?" The response would be taken on a 7-point Likert scale, anchored at "Very unlikely" (scored as 1) and "Very likely" (scored at 7). Resistance to change was calculated as the reverse scores, for instance, a response of "1" on the item represented a score of "7" for resistance to change.

2.2.7 Identity Threat

Threat to identity was measured with 4 items adopted from the scale developed by Murtagh et al. (2012). The items were "It undermines my sense of self-worth," "It makes me feel less competent," "I would have to change who I am," and "It makes me feel less unique as a person." Each item was rated on a 7-point scale, anchored at "Very unlikely" (scored as 1) and "Very likely" (scored at 7).

The results of skewness and kurtosis for all constructs were acknowledged as reliable since all the items had values less than ± 3.0 , a cut-off criterion proposed by Lei and Lomax (2005) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The value of the items' total correlation established the initial reliability since all items exceeded 0.3 that is a cut-off point proposed by Flynn, Schroedar, Flynn, Sakakibara, and Bates (1997). A summary of the mean, standard deviation and correlation matrix is shown in Table 1:

2.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis was used to extract underlying factors and to examine the unidimensionality of constructs. In this regard, a principal component factor analysis with promax rotation and maximum likelihood estimation method was employed. The factor analysis explained 69.39% of the total variance. The value referred to as a measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) achieved had at a value of 0.865 and was deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). The Eigen values for the extracted factors ranged from 8.716 to 1.049. Additionally, factor loading ranged from 0.972 to 0.587, and obsessive passion was identified as the strongest factor explaining 25.635% of variance. Communalities for all items were fairly high, ranging from .347 to .936 and indicating that the variables were adequately distinct from each other. Moreover, the factor correlation matrix shows that the correlations among the factors were less than 0.7, a cut-off point proposed by Hair et al. (2010) (Table 1).

2.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Subsequent to EFA, CFA was conducted using AMOS with the intention to establish convergent and discriminant validity. The measurement model provided a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi 2 = 522.030$, NC = 1.208, GFI = 0.907, AGFI = 0.887, RMSEA = 0.026, NFI = 0.924, CFI = 0.986, TLI = 0.984). The internal consistency of the research constructs was achieved through reliability coefficients (e.g., Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability). The values for Cronbach's alpha coefficients (between 0.777 and 0.943, see Table 2) and composite reliability ranging between 0.780 and 0.938 were significantly higher (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, all estimation parameters significantly loaded on their posited constructs and were more than twice

their respective standard errors, indicating that convergent validity was achieved (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity was assessed via two different procedures. First, the correlations between the pairs of research constructs were less than 1.0 and more than twice their standard errors, as suggested by Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990). Secondly, the square root of the AVEs for a particular construct was compared to its correlations with the other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of these two tests provide strong evidence for discriminant validity.

Table 1. Confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis

Item Description	Standardized	Reliability
Harmonious passion Vallerand et al. (2003)		$SCR = 0.904, AVE = 0.613, \alpha = 0.908$
1. This activity is in harmony with the other activities in my life.	0.814	
2. The new things that I discover with this activity allow me to	0.731	
3. This activity reflects the qualities I like about myself.	0.774	
4. This activity allows me to live a variety of experiences.	0.856	
5. My activity is well integrated in my life.	0.882	
6. My activity is in harmony with other things that are part of me.	0.677	
Obsessive Passion Vallerand et al. (2003)		$SCR = 0.938$, $AVE = 0.716$, $\alpha = 0.943$
1. I have difficulties controlling my urge to do my activity.	0.806	
2. I have almost an obsessive feeling for this activity.	0.880	
3. This activity is the only thing that really turns me on.	0.914	
4. If I could, I would only do my activity.	0.932	
5. This activity is so exciting that I sometimes lose control over it.	0.829	
6. I have the impression that my activity controls me.	0.758	
Performance Approach Goals Elliot and Church, (1997)		$SCR = 0.887$, $AVE = 0.726$, $\alpha = 0.883$
1. It is important for me to do better than other entrepreneurs.	0.884	
2. It is important for me to do well compare to others entrepreneurs.	0.913	
3. My goal is to get a better profit than most of the other	0.751	
Performance- Avoidance Goals Elliot and Church, (1997)		$SCR = 0.836$, $AVE = 0.629$, $\alpha = 0.832$
1. My goal in this business is to avoid performing poorly.	0.845	
2. I just want to avoid doing poorly in this business.	0.779	
3. My fear of performing poorly in this business is often what	0.754	
Creativity Bolton and Lane (2012)		$SCR = 0.862$, $AVE = 0.615$, $\alpha = 0.858$
1. I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but	0.579	
2. In general, I prefer a strong emphasis in projects on unique,	0.848	
3. I prefer to try my own unique way when learning new things rather	0.805	
4. I favor experimentation and original approaches to problem	0.870	
Identity Threat Shane, et al. (1991)		$SCR = 0.871, AVE = 0.630, \alpha = 0.869$
1. It undermines my sense of self-worth.	0.768	
2. It makes me feel less competent.	0.894	
3. I would have to change who I am.	0.709	
4. It makes me feel less unique as a person.	0.792	
Ambition Duckworth et al. (2007)		$SCR = 0.780$, $AVE = 0.542$, $\alpha = 0.777$
1. I aim to be the best in the world at what I do.	0.714	
2. I am ambitious.	0.798	
3. Achieving something of lasting importance is the highest goal in	0.693	
Daring Bolton and Lane (2012)		$SCR = 0.914$, $AVE = 0.783$, $\alpha = 0.906$
1. I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown.	0.728	
2. I am willing to invest a lot of time and/or money on something that	0.957	
3. I tend to act 'boldly' in situations where risk is involved.	0.951	

SCR = Scale Critical Ratio

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 2. Constructs correlation matrix

Construct	Mean	Standard				Correlatio	n Matrix			
Construct	Mean	Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1- Daring	5.38	1.220	0.885							_
2- Harmonious	5.62	.571	-0.072	0.792						
3- Obsessive	4.27	.526	0.014	0.331	0.856					
4- Identity Threat	2.36	1.2217	0.030	-0.104	-0.042	0.793				
5- Performance	5.59	.437	-0.018	0.381	0.582	-0.024	0.794			
6- Performance	4.86	.602	-0.075	0.227	0.560	0.046	0.659	0.852		
7- Ambition	5.75	.617	-0.022	0.413	0.275	-0.065	0.311	0.122	0.736	
8- Creativity	5.59	.850	0.180	0.043	0.067	-0.007	-0.041	-0.086	0.069	0.784

Note: all correlations were significant (i.e., p < 0.001)

2.5 Assessing Common Method Bias

In addition to CFA, a common method bias (CMB) test was conducted. Common method bias refers to a bias in the dataset due to some external factor that may have influenced the response given. Since the data for this study was obtained from a single informant through a self-reporting questionnaire, common method bias may have been the issue. Thus, the present study employed the "unmeasured latent factor method" suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to extract the common variance. Furthermore, following Lowry, Gaskin, Twyman, Hammer, and Roberts (2013) the change in standardized regression weights for measurement models (i.e., with and without common latent factor) was compared. The results indicate that the addition of the common latent factor does not improve the measurement model fit. Also, all factor loadings remained significant, indicating that common method bias was not the issue, hence providing further validity.

2.6 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modelling (SEM), also known as path analysis or latent variable analysis, was employed to validate the research constructs' relationships. There are several features of SEM that render it appropriate for this study. First, SEM has the advantage of providing global measures of fit for latent variable models (Cortina, 1993). Second, the research model comprises several paths and SEM incorporates the ability to analyze multiple latent variables and multiple dependent variables simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010; Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Third, SEM is appropriate for the present study owing to the interdependent nature of the research variables. Finally, SEM allows for the testing of complex path models and is considered more rigorous and more flexible than multiple regression for testing moderation effects (Hair et al., 2010; Hopwood, 2007). The structural model was over-specified with 10 degrees of freedom. An examination of the goodness-of-fit indices shows a good fit to the model ($\chi 2 = 35.043$, NC = 2.696, GFI = 0.976, AGFI = 0.917, RMSEA = 0.075, NFI = 0.980, CFI = 0.987, TLI = 0.965). The MI of the structural model was evaluated to improve the goodness-of-fit of the hypotheses model. The results are presented in Figure 2 and Tables 3.

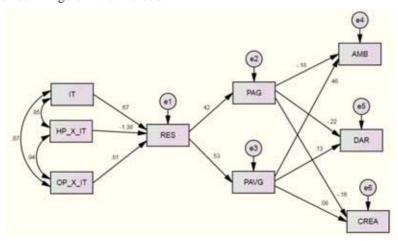


Figure 2. Path analysis

Table 3. Parameters estimates of structured model

Linkages in the Model —		Parameters Estimates		
Linkages ii	i the Model	Estimates	<i>t</i> -value	
H1	IT → RES	0.670	6.715***	
H2(a)	$RES \rightarrow PAG$	0.419	8.051***	
H2(b)	RES → PAVG	0.527	10.823***	
H3(a)	$PAVG \rightarrow AMB$	0.456	8.694***	
H3(a)	$PAVG \rightarrow DAR$	0.129	2.261*	
H3(a)	PAVG → CREA	0.082	1.418	
H3(b)	$PAG \rightarrow AMB$	-0.162	-2.785***	
H3(b)	$PAG \rightarrow DAR$	-0.225	-3.929***	
H3(b)	PAG → CREA	-0.179	-3.405**	
H4(a)	HP_X_IT →RES	-1.385	-9.500***	
H4(b)	$OP_X_{IT} \rightarrow RES$	0.805	5.224***	

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001; IT- Identity Threat; RES- Resistance to Change; PAG-Performance Approach Goals; PAVG- Performance Avoidance Goals; AMB- Ambition; DAR- Daring; CREA- Creativity; HP- Harmonious Passion; OP- Obsessive Passion.

3. Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis results are based on the interpretation of the path coefficients in Table 3. Hypothesis 1 regresses the identity threat on an entrepreneur's resistance to change. The assessment coefficients indicate that identity threat ($\beta = 0.670$, t = 6.715, p < 0.001) is significantly related to the entrepreneur's resistance to change, supporting hypothesis 1. The results further indicate that resistance to change is significantly related to performance-approach goals ($\beta = 0.419$, t = 8.051, p < 0.001) and performance-avoidance goals ($\beta = 0.419$, t = 8.051, p < 0.001), providing support for hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b). Hypothesis 3(a) suggests that performance-avoidance goals will positively predict behavioural engagement.

The underlying assumption was that performance-avoidance goals may not be systematically maladaptive. The assessment coefficients indicate that performance-avoidance goals are a significant contributor to entrepreneurial behavioural engagement: performance-avoidance goals ($\beta = 0.456$, t = 8.694, p < 0.001) and ambition; performance-avoidance goals ($\beta = 0.129$, t = 2.261, p < 0.05) and daring; whereas remained insignificant for performance-avoidance goals ($\beta = 0.082$, t = 1.418, p = 0.156) and creativity. On the other hand, performance-approach goals are negatively related to entrepreneurial behavioural engagement: performance-approach goals ($\beta = -0.162$, t = -2.785, p < 0.001) and ambition; performance-approach goals ($\beta = -0.162$, t = -3.929, p < 0.001) and daring; performance-approach goals ($\beta = -0.179$, t = -3.405, p < 0.01) and entrepreneurs' need for creativity. Thus hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b) are supported.

Hypothesis 4 suggests that entrepreneurial passion (i.e., harmonious and obsessive passion) moderates the relationship between identity threat and an entrepreneur's resistance to change; a moderated regression analysis was deemed appropriate to test the effect (Aikenand West, 1991). In order to handle multicollinearity issues between the interaction terms, variables were saved as standardized values before creating the interaction between the two variables. Table 3 presents the results of the moderation analysis, signifying that harmonious passion has a strongly mediating effect (p < 0.001) on the identity threat/resistance to change relationship. The direction of interaction shows that harmonious passion dampens the relationship (see Figure 3) between identity threat and resistance to change, as suggested in hypothesis 4(a). Obsessive passion was found to positively (p < 0.001) strengthen the relationship between identity threat and resistance to change (see Figure 4), providing support for hypothesis 4(b).

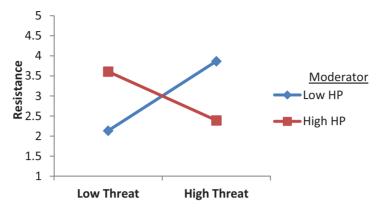


Figure 3. Moderating effect of harmonious passion on identity threat-resistance to change relationship

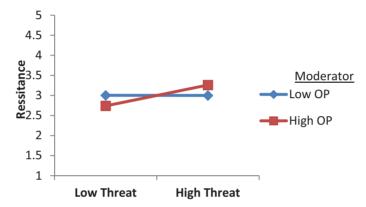


Figure 4. Moderating effect of obsessive passion on identity threat-resistance to change relationship

4. Discussion

Passion for life activities and its impact on an individual's behavioural engagement, well-being, and goal setting has generated much interest in recent decades. Entrepreneurship scholars, such as Baum and Locke (2004) have highlighted entrepreneurial passion as the key ingredient of entrepreneurial behavioural engagement. Smilor (1997) deems passion the most observed phenomenon of the entrepreneurial process. Despite its immense importance, few theoretical and empirical endeavours have been directed at untangling entrepreneurial passion under the identity threat condition (Cardon et al., 2009; Shane et al., 2003). This study highlights the absent, but important facets of entrepreneurs in the identity threat condition by explaining the relationship between the identity threat and resistance to change and the moderating effect of entrepreneurial passion.

Our model and findings are a step toward filling the gap by validating that the identity threat is considerably related to resistance to change. Since the self operates in compliance with some guiding principles, a threat is experienced if the guiding principles of self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity (a sense of continuity of self over time) and distinctiveness (sense of uniqueness) are undermined (Breakwell, 1986, 1988). As such, the identity threat is perceived as an attack or potential attack on an individual's self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity or distinctiveness (Murtagh et al., 2012). Furthermore, under the identity threat condition entrepreneurs adopt a deflecting coping strategy in defence of the role under threat, resulting in resistance to change (Murtagh et al., 2012).

The results further validate that people who experience the identity threat attempt to adopt a prevention measure (i.e., performance-approach or performance-avoidance goals). Prevention and performance goals share similarities, as both are intended to focus on avoidance. Results are in line with Chalabaev et al. (2012), who found that that when a threat was paired with a loss reward structure (prevention induction), and under induced avoidance strategy, an individual's performance was boosted compared to when a threat was paired with a promotion circumstance. Furthermore, despite the fact that past research consistently associated performance-avoidance goals with negative outcomes, the present study concurs with Chalabaev et al. (2012) who validated that a regulatory fit may also occur when goals (i.e., prevention) are induced under the identity

threat. Indeed, past studies have shown that individuals under identity threat adopt motivation to avoid failure, conceptualized as performance-avoidance goals (Brodish & Devine, 2009; Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Stone, & Cury, 2008; Smith, Sansone, & White, 2007) or prevention goals (Seibt & Forster, 2004). Furthermore, these prevention goals trigged by the identity threat situation enhance behavioural engagement (Chalabaev et al., 2012). The results also show that performance avoidance goals are positively related to entrepreneurial behavioural engagement but remain insignificant between performance-approach goals and creativity.

We have also validated that passion moderates the relation between identity threats targeted at behavioural engagement. In other words, when passionate individuals are exposed to failure information, different behaviour patterns emerge. Obsessive passion is characterized as a defensive mode of functioning, whereby everything revolves around the passionate activity (Donahue et al., 2009; Lafrenie're et al., 2011; Mageau et al., 2011; Rip, Vallerand, & Lafrenie're, 2012). Failure information targeted at a passionate activity is treated as a threat to identity, as it will be perceived to undermine one's core guiding principles, such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, continuity (a sense of continuity of self over time) and distinctiveness (sense of uniqueness) (Breakwell, 1986, 1988). In contrast, harmonious passion offers a secure sense of self (Donahue, Jowett, et al., 2009; Lafrenie're et., 2011; Mageau et al., 2011) and remains unrelated to identity threats (or failure information).

5. Implications

The importance of entrepreneurship to the world's economies cannot be underestimated. Not only are governments taking increasing interest in this field as they attempt to rescue their flagging economies (Lin & Kuo, 2007), but individuals are also becoming increasingly circumspect about the choices they make regarding their careers (Spoonley, Du Puis, & De Bruin, 2004). The Malaysian government has attempted to stimulate the growth of Malaysian businesses through government agencies and independent advocacy groups. Yet, the overall rate of business ownership has remained stagnant over the past years. This study developed an alternative means of identifying entrepreneurial behavioural engagements under identity threat, which is through passion and achievement motivation goals.

Entrepreneurial motivation, behaviour and goal setting under threat have been a disruptive issue for both individuals and policy makers. Policy makers should keep in mind that entrepreneur with obsessive passion will lead to the prediction of greater behavioural involvement, not only because it is associated with defensiveness, but because it is also related to greater activity importance than its harmonious passion counterpart. Thus, individuals harbouring high levels of obsessive passion could be more strongly inclined to respond to identity threats by adopting deflection strategies than those harbouring high levels of harmonious passion. As supported by the Regulatory Fit Theory (Higgins & Spiegel, 2004), "motivation may intensify as a result of a match between the manner in which a person pursues a goal and his or her goal orientation" (Higgins & Spiegel, 2004).

Furthermore, policy makers should also bear in mind that obsessive passion, being defensive in nature, is more likely related to prevention orientation, whereas harmonious passion that operates in a non-defensive way is associated with promotion orientation. Furthermore, activity that signals an identity threat, which would fit with prevention-oriented individuals (who prefer to harbour obsessive passion) will develop resistance, which will intensify their motivation for performance goals and thus intensify their behavioural engagement.

6. Limitations and Future Work

As with any research, this study has some limitations that draw attention to interpretation results and findings that may provide guidelines for future work. The first limitation refers to utilizing a cross-sectional research design, which limits the causal inferences among the constructs of this study. Although a cross-sectional research design is suitable for developing relationships among variables, it does not capture the transformation that might influence the hypothized relationships. Thus, a longitudinal research design may be more appropriate to validate the causal effect of observed variables in the study.

Secondly, using the self-reporting survey method most of the time produces respondent bias. As this study utilized self-reported data, it might be helpful to use "between-method triangulation" to examine the research constructs of the proposed model (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). This way, adapting the triangulation research design may potentially capture a more inclusive and holistic portrayal of the research constructs with additional contextual fitting.

Third, this study is partial in the notion that data was collected and analyzed for a subset of SMEs in Malaysia. Caution should be taken when generalizing findings to other countries. Thus, in order to generalize the research model, further empirical studies in different countries (e.g., Thailand, Singapore) and cultures (e.g., China and

Japan) are required to enhance generalizability and provide practitioners with a strong base to utilize the proposed model in their business environment.

References

- Aarts, H., Verplanken, B., & Van Knippenberg, A. (1998). Predicting behavior from actions in the past: Repeated decision making or a matter of habit? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(15), 1355-1374.
- Ahmad, M. F., & Yusof, S. M. (2010). Comparative study of TQM practices between Japanese and non-Japanese electrical and electronics companies in Malaysia: Survey results. *Total Quality Management Science*, 21(1), 11-20.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Alain, C. Y. L., & Ooi, K. B. (2008). Adoption of interorganizational system standards in supply chains: an empirical analysis of RosettaNet standards. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 108(4), 529-547.
- Albarracin, D., Durantini, M. R., Earl, A., Gunnoe, J. B., & Leeper, J. (2008). Beyond the most willing audiences: A meta-intervention to increase exposure to HIV-prevention programs by vulnerable populations. *Health Psychology*, 27(5), 638-644.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach. *Psychology Bulletin*, 10(3), 411-423.
- Atkinson, J. (1964). An introduction to motivation. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- Audretsch, D. B., & Thurik, A. R. (2001). What is new about the new economy: sources of growth in the managed and entrepreneurial economies. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 19, 795-821.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1990). Trying to consume. Journal of Consumer Research, 17(2), 127-140.
- Baum, J. R., & Locke, E. A. (2004). The Relationship of Entrepreneurial Traits, Skill, and Motivation to Subsequent Venture Growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 587-598.
- Birley, S., & Westhead, P. (1994). A taxonomy of business start-up reasons and their impact on firm growth and size. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *9*, 7-3.
- Blais, R. A., & Toulouse, J. M. (1990). National, regional or world patterns of entrepreneurial motivation? An empirical study of 2,278 entrepreneurs and 1,733 non-entrepreneurs in fourteen countries on four continents. *J. Small Bus. Entrepreneurship*, 7, 3-20.
- Bolton, D. L., & Lane, M. D. (2012). Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation: Development of a measurement instrument. *Education + Training*, *54*(2/3), 219-233.
- Bovey, W. H., & Hede, A. (2001). Resistance to organizational change: The role of defence mechanisms. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(7), 534-548.
- Brannick, M. T. (1995). Critical comments on applying covariance structure modelling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16, 201-213.
- Breakwell, G. M. (1986). Coping with threatened identities. London: Methuen.
- Breakwell, G. M. (1988). Strategies adopted when identity is threatened. *Revue Internationale de Psychologie Sociale*, *1*, 189-203.
- Brehm, J. (1966). A theory of psychological reactance. New York: Academic Press.
- Brodish, A. B., & Devine, P. G. (2009). The role of performance-avoidance goals and worry in mediating the relationship between stereotype threat and performance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 45, 180-185.
- Camacho, C. J., Higgins, E. T., & Luger, L. (2003). Moral value transfer from regulatory fit: What feels right is right and what feels wrong is wrong. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*, 498-510.
- Cardon, M. S., Wincent, J., Singh, J., & Drnovsek, M. (2009). The Nature and Experience of Entrepreneurial Passion. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(3), 511-532.
- Chalabaev, A., Major, B., Sarrazin, P., & Cury, F. (2012). When avoiding failure improves performance:

- Stereotype threat and the impact of performance goals. *Motiv Emot*, 36, 130-142.
- Chalabaev, A., Sarrazin, P., Stone, J., & Cury, F. (2008). Do achievement goals mediate stereotype threat? An investigation on females' soccer performance. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 30, 143-158.
- Chell, E., Haworth, J., & Brearley, S. (1991). *The entrepreneurial personality: Cases, concepts and categories*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Cliff, J. E., Jennings, P. D., & Greenwood, R. (2006). New to the Game and Questioning the Rules: The Experiences and Beliefs of Founders who Start Imitative Versus Innovative Firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21, 633-663.
- Crowe, E., & Higgins, E. T. (1997). Regulatory focus and strategic inclinations: Promotion and prevention in decision-making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 69, 117-132.
- Cury, F., Elliot, A., Sarrazin, P., Da Fonseca, D., & Rufo, M. (2002). The trichotomous achievement goal model and intrinsic motivation: A sequential mediational analysis. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 38*, 473-481.
- Damasio, A. R. (2003). Fundamental feelings. Nature, 413, 781.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227-268.
- Dent, E. B., & Goldberg, S. G. (1999). Challenging 'resistance to change'. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 35(1), 25-41.
- Dillman, D. A. (2000). Mail and internet surveys: The tailord design method (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley.
- Donahue, E. G., Jowett, S., Lafrenière, M.-A. K., & Vallerand, R. J. (2009). *The transmission of passion*. Paper presented at the Canadian Psychological Association annual convention, Montreal.
- Donahue, E. G., Rip, B., & Vallerand, R. J. (2009). When winning is everything: On passion and aggression in sport. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 10(526-534).
- Dubini, P. (1988). The influence of motivations and environment on business start-ups: Some hints for public policies. *J. Bus. Venturing*, 4, 11-26.
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *9*, 1087-1101.
- Duckworth, A. L., Quinn, P. D., & Seligman, M. E. (2009). Positive predictors of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(6), 540-547.
- Elliot, A. J. (1999). Approach and avoidance motivation and achievement goals. *Educational Psychologist*, 34(3), 169-189.
- Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72*, 218-232.
- Elliot, A. J., & Dweck, C. S. (2005). Competence and motivation: Competence as the core of achievement motivation. In A. J. Elliot, & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of Competence and Motivation* (pp. 3-12). NY: Guilford Press.
- Elliot, A. J., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 968-980.
- Elliot, A. J., & McGregor, H. A. (1999). Test anxiety and the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 628-644.
- Elliot, A. J., McGregor, H. A., & Gable, S. (1999). Achievement goals, study strategies, and exam performance: A meditational analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *91*, 549-563.
- Fan, X., Thompson, B., & Wang, L. (1999). The effects of sample size, estimation methods, and model specification on SEM fit indices. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 56-83.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Ford, J. D., & Ford, L. W. (2010). Stop blaming resistance to change and start using it. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39(1), 24-36.

- Freitas, A. L., & Higgins, E. T. (2002). Enjoying goal-directed action: The role of regulatory fit. *Psychological Science*, 13, 1-6.
- Friedman, R. S., & Forster, J. (2001). The effects of promotion and prevention cues on creativity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 1001-1013.
- Giner-Sorolla, R., & Chaiken, S. (1997). Selective use of heuristic and systematic processing under defense motivation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23(1), 84-97.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.
- Hansen, J., Winzeler, S., & Topolinski, S. (2010). When death makes you smoke: A terror management perspective on the effectiveness of cigarette on-pack warnings. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46(1), 226-228.
- Herron, L., & Sapienza, H. J. (1992). The Entrepreneur and the Initiation of New Venture Launch Activities. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 17(1), 49-55.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. American Psychologist, 52, 1280-1300.
- Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 46, 1-46.
- Higgins, E. T. (2000). Making a good decision: Value from fit. American Psychologist, 55, 1217-1230.
- Higgins, E. T., Roney, C. J. R., Crowe, E., & Hymes, C. (1994). Ideal versus ought predilections for approach and avoidance distinct self-regulatory systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66, 276-286.
- Higgins, E. T., & Spiegel, S. (2004). Promotion and prevention strategies for self-regulation: A motivated cognition perspective. In R. F. Baumeister & K. D. Vohs (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory, and applications* (pp. 171-187). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Hodgins, H. S., & Knee, R. (2002). The integrating self and conscious experience. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 87-100). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Smith, G. T. (1994). Formulating clinical research hypotheses as structural equation models: A conceptual overview. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 62(3), 429-440.
- Kasser, T. (2002). Sketches for a Self-determination theory of values. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 123-140). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Keller, J., & Bless, H. (2006). Regulatory fit and cognitive performance: The interactive effect of chronic and situational self-regulatory mechanisms on cognitive test performance. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *36*, 393-405.
- Kelloway, E. K. (1998). *Using LISREL for structure equation modeling* CA: International Educational and Professional Publisher, Sage Publication.
- Kirkley, W. W. (2010). Self-determination and Entrepreneurship: Personal Values as intrinsic motivators of Entrepreneurial Behaviour. Doctor of Philosophy Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand
- Lafrenie're, M.-A. K., Be'langer, J. J., Sedikides, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). Self-esteem and passion for activities. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *51*, 541-544. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.04.017
- Lafrenière, M.-A. K., St-Louis, A. C., Vallerand, R. J., & Donahue, E. G. (2012). On the Relation between Performance and Life Satisfaction: The Moderating Role of Passion. *Self and Identity*, 11(4), 516-530. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15298868.2011.616000
- Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Vallerand, R. J., Donahue, E. G., & Lavigne, G. L. (2009). On the costs and benefits of gaming: The role of passion. *Cyber Psychology & Behavior, 12*.
- Lewin, K. (1935). A dynamic theory of personality. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Liberman, A., & Chaiken, S. (1992). Defensive processing of personally relevant health messages. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 18*, 669-679.
- Lockwood, P., Jordan, C. H., & Kunda, Z. (2002). Motivation by positive or negative role models: Regulatory focus determines who will best inspire us. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83, 854-864.
- Lowry, P. B., Gaskin, J., Twyman, N., Hammer, B., & Roberts, T. L. (2013). Proposing the hedonic-motivation

- system adoption model (HMSAM) to increase understanding of adoption of hedonically motivated systems. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, *14*(11), 617-671.
- Lumpkin, G. T., Cogliser, C. C., & Schneider, D. R. (2009). Understanding and measuring autonomy: An entrepreneurial orientation perspective. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 33(1), 47-70.
- Mageau, G. A., Carpentier, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). The role of self-esteem contingencies in the distinction between obsessive and harmonious passion. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 41*, 720-729. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.798
- Mageau, G. A., Carpentier, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). The role of self-esteem contingencies in the distinction between obsessive and harmonious passion. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 41*(6), 720-729. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/Ejsp.798
- Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2007). The moderating effect of passion on the relation between activity engagement and positive affect. *Motivation and Emotion*, 31(4), 312-321. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11031-007-9071-z
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Charest, J., Salvy, S. J., Lacaille, N., Bouffard, T., & Koestner, R. (2009). On the development of harmonious and obsessive passion: The role of autonomy support, activity valuation, and identity processes. *Journal of Personality*, 77, 601-645.
- Manolova, T., Carter, N. M., Manev, I. M., & Gyoshev, B. S. (2007). The Differential Effect of Men and Women Entrepreneurs' Human Capital and Networking on Growth Expectancies in Bulgaria. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(3), 407-426.
- Mazzocchi, M. (2008). Statistics for Marketing and Consumer Research. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1953). *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Mullen, M. R., Milne, G. R., & Doney, P. M. (1995). An international marketing application of outliers analyses for structural equations: A methodological note. *Journal of International Marketing*, *3*, 45-62.
- Murtagh, N., Gatersleben, B., & Uzzell, D. (2012). Self-identity threat and resistance to change: Evidence from regular travel behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 32(4), 318-326. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2012.05.008
- Naffziger, D. W., Hornsby, J. S., & Kuratko, D. F. (1994). A Proposed Research Model of Entrepreneurial Motivation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *19*, 29-42.
- Oreg, S. (2003). Resistance to change: Developing an individual difference measure. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 88, 680-693.
- Ouellette, J. A., & Wood, W. (1998). Habit and intention in everyday life: The multiple processes by which past behavior predicts future behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(1), 54-74.
- Pavey, L., & Sparks, P. (2009). Reactance, autonomy and paths to persuasion: Examining perceptions of threats to freedom and informational value. *Motivation and Emotion*, 33(3), 277-290.
- Rip, B., Fortin, S., & Vallerand, R. J. (2006). The relationship between passion and injury in dance students. *Journal of Dance Medicine & Science*, 10, 14-20.
- Rip, B., Vallerand, R. J., & Lafrenière, M.-A. K. (2012). Passion for a cause, passion for a creed: On ideological passion, identity threat, and extremism. [Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't]. *Journal of Personality*, 80(3), 573-602. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00743.x
- Rogers, C. R. (1965). Interpersonal relationships: USA 2000. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 4(3), 265-280.
- Russell, J. A. (2003). Core affect and the psychological con-struction of emotion. *Psychological Review, 110*, 145-172.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Scheinberg, S., & MacMillan, I. C. (1988). An 11-country study of motivations to start a business. In B. A. Kirchoff, W. A. Long, W. E. McMullan, K. H. Vesper & W. E. Wetzel (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research* (pp. 669-687). Wellesley, MA: Babson College.

- Seibt, B., & Forster, J. (2004). Stereotype threat and performance: How self-stereotypes influence processing by inducing regulatory foci. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87, 38-56.
- Shah, J., Higgins, E. T., & Friedman, R. S. (1998). Performance incentives and means: How regulatory focus influences goal attainment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 285-293.
- Shalley, C. E., Zhou, J., & Oldman, G. R. (2004). The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here? *Journal of Management*, 30, 933-958.
- Shane, S. (2003). A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual Opportunity Nexus. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Shane, S., Kolvereid, L., & Westhead, P. (1991). An exploratory examination of the reasons leading to new firm formation across the country and gender. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 6, 431-446.
- Shane, S., Locke, E., & Collins, C. J. (2003). Entrepreneurial Motivation. *Human Resource Management Review,* 3(2), 257-280.
- Smilor, R. W. (1997). Entrepreneurship: Reflections on a Subversive Activity. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 12(5), 341-346.
- Smith, J. L., Sansone, C., & White, P. H. (2007). The stereotyped task engagement process: The role of interest and achievement motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 99-114.
- Sparks, P., & Guthrie, C. A. (1998). Self-identity and the theory of planned behaviour: A useful addition or an unhelpful artifice? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(15), 1393-1410.
- Sparks, P., & Shepherd, R. (1992). Self-identity and the theory of planned behavior: Assessing the role of identification with "Green Consumerism". *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 55(4), 388-399.
- Spoonley, P., Du Puis, A., & De Bruin, A. (2004). Work and working in the 21st Century New Zealand. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 21, pp. 261-302). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Steele, C. M., Spencer, S. J., & Aronson, J. (2002). Contending with group image: The psychology of stereotype and social identity threat. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 34, pp. 379-440). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Stoll-Kleemann, S., O'Riordan, R., & Jaeger, C. C. (2001). The psychology of denial concerning climate mitigation measures: Evidence from Swiss focus groups. *Global Environment, 11*, 107-117.
- Stryker, S. (1987). Identity theory: Developments and extensions. In K. Yardley & R. Honess (Eds.), *Self and identity: Psychosocial perspectives* (pp. 89-103). Oxford: John Wiley and Sons.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (4th ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tesser, A., & Cornell, D. P. (1991). On the confil uence of self processes *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 27(6), 501-526.
- Urdan, T. C. (2004). Predictors of self-handicapping and achievement: Examining achievement goals, classroom structures, and culture. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*, 251-264.
- Vallerand, R. J. (2010). On passion for life activities: The Dualistic Model of Passion. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 97-193). New York: Academie Press.
- Vallerand, R. J., Blanchard, C., Mageau, G. A., Koestner, R., Ratelle, C., Leonard, M., . . . Marsolais, J. (2003). Les passions de l'ame: on obsessive and harmonious passion. [Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't]. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(4), 756-767. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.756
- Van Yperen, N. W. (2003). Task interest and actual performance: The moderating effects of assigned and adopted purpose goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 1006-1015.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Entrepreneurial Passion, Achievement Motivation Goals and Behavioural Engagements in Malaysia: Are There Any Differences Across Ethnic Groups?

Ahmed Jamil¹, Rozeyta Omar¹ & Siti Aisyah Panatik¹

Correspondence: Ahmed Jamil, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia. E-mail: ahmed jamil@comsats.edu.pk

Received: July 10, 2013 Accepted: July 31, 2014 Online Published: August 19, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p17 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p17

Abstract

This study was set out to investigate entrepreneurial passion, achievement motivation goals and behavioural engagement among Malaysian entrepreneurs. In addition, this empirical study was also intended to compare entrepreneurial passion with goal settings and behavioural engagement of Malay and Chinese Malaysians. From a sample of 305 entrepreneurs, the findings show there is a significant difference between the two ethnic groups in terms of passion, goals and need for creativity, ambition and daring. Malaysian Chinese were found to harbour higher harmonious passion than their counterparts, while both Malay and Chinese Malaysians share a moderate perception of obsessive passion. Furthermore, Chinese Malaysians perceive a strong relationship with the dimensions of mastery, performance and performance avoidance goals. On the other hand, Malay Malaysians have a high perception of mastery and performance goals but moderate perception of performance avoidance goals. The estimation coefficients also indicate that Malaysian entrepreneurs perceive strong relationships with their need for independence, ambition, daring and creativity.

Keywords: achievement motivation goals, behavioural engagements, harmonious passion, obsessive passion

1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship continues to capture the awareness of Malaysians and is viewed by many as a viable means of achieving their dreams (Omar, 2006). The Malaysian business scenario is unique in a sense that it encapsulates multiple ethnic groups (e.g., Malay, Chinese and Indian) who operate and behave in unique ways (i.e., perceived best by them). According to the Department Of Statistics (2013), Malay and Chinese represent 67.4% and 24.6% of the total Malaysian population respectively making the Malay representation in the total labour force higher (58.5%) than Chinese (23%). Small entrepreneurial businesses (SEBs) represent a major portion of overall business in Malaysia. A report by the Central Bank of Malaysia (2006) revealed this contribution is as high as 95%. In addition, SEB offers employment to 60% of the total work force. Despite SEB's representation and contribution to the total employment, output remains on the low side (i.e., 45%).

Past literature on Malaysian business indicates that certain ethnic groups have dominated certain types of business. For example, Omar (2006) reported that small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Malaysia are mostly owned by the Chinese. Furthermore, Gomez, Loh, and Lee (2004) reported that Chinese owned 50% of the construction sector equity, 82% of the wholesales trade, 58% of the retail trade and about 40% of the manufacturing sector. On the other hand, Shafii, Abiddin, and Ahmad (2009) uphold the view that the participation of a particular ethnic group in the economy should be analyzed by looking at economic factors such as income distribution, poverty, share ownership and ownership of real property.

The yearbook of statistics for 2012 indicates that the average income earned by a Malay was RM3,624 in 2009, whereas a Chinese earned RM5,011 (Department Of Statistics, 2012). One of the reasons for this gap may be income generation from self employment, as 23.0% of income earned by Chinese was generated from self employment compared with 14.0% by Malay. Consequently, the poverty level among Chinese decreased from 1.2% in 1999 to 0.6% in 2009, but Malay remained by far at the highest poverty level despite a decrease from 12.4% in 1999 to 5.3% in 2009 (Department Of Statistics, 2012).

¹ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia

The mid-term review report on the 9th Malaysian Plan (2008) highlights that equity held by Malay individuals and government-linked agencies increased from 2.4% in 1970 to its peak of 20.6% in 1995 before falling to 19.4% in 2006. Nonetheless, Chinese equity ownership continued to rise during the New Economic Policy (NEP) decades from 27.2% to 45.5% though the volume of their equity ownership declined to 42.4% in 2006. The ownership vector can also serve as an indicator to measure the wealth disparity among ethnic groups in Malaysia. As revealed by Malaysian Statistics (2007), Chinese owned 76.1% of various types of business premises, which is much higher than Malays who owned only 15% (Department Of Statistics, 2012). The Malaysian government has attempted to stimulate the expansion of Malaysian businesses through government agencies and independent advocacy groups. Yet the overall rate of business ownership has remained stagnant over the past years, holding at about 19% for Malay ownership against 42% Chinese ownership (Department Of Statistics, 2012). In the present study it is proposed that entrepreneurial passion, goal setting and behavioural engagement are factors that can define this elusive gap between Chinese and Malay entrepreneurs.

2. Literature Review

Past studies have proposed several reasons explaining this gap between Malays and Chinese entrepreneurs, but it continues to remain somewhat obscure. The most promising reasons are lack of access to capital, both from personal and external sources (Fairlie & Robb, 2007), business networks (Ann, 2006; Hamilton, 1998), serving strategies, business practices (Hamilton, 1998) and control over critical resources (e.g., access to networks, partnerships, funding, customers) (Brush, Monti, Ryan, & Gannon, 2007). Kotkin (1993) and Hamilton (1998) claimed that networking is a characteristic feature among Chinese-owned firms. Furthermore, Ann (2006) likened the business network of Chinese entrepreneurs to a "Bamboo Network," meaning strong ties or relationships with customers, suppliers, employees, government agencies and related parties.

Other studies highlight that entrepreneurial cognition is at play. For instance, Chan (1986) reported that Chinese entrepreneurs had a higher need for achievement than their Makay counterparts. In an early attempt on Malaysian cognition, Popenoe (1970) concluded that cultural and contextual factors play a role. Popenoe highlighted that successful Malay entrepreneurs are from upper-class families and differ in terms of education, marriage, travelling opportunities, as well as associations and relationships with the Chinese. Two more studies were conducted not too long after Popenoe's study, one by Md. Said (1974a) and another by Mahmud (1981). Md. Said (1974b) attempted to illustrate that the Malaysian traditional social structure inhibits entrepreneurial activities. However, the study lacks convincing data.

On the other hand, the study by Mahmud (1981) was more promising. It was concluded that Chinese firms are more highly capitalized, and Chinese entrepreneurs are more knowledgeable in financial management and record keeping as well as management practices and there are no significant differences in socio-cultural values and attitudes between Malay and Chinese entrepreneurs. Furthermore, it was identified in Mahmud's study that Malay entrepreneurs generally have a higher level of business ambitions and seem to be more inclined towards risk-taking than their Chinese counterparts. This contradicts the viewpoint of many other writers such as Mahathir (1970) and Abdul Rahman (2002). The study by Mahmud (1981) also reveals the three most significant problems faced by both Malay and Chinese businesses, in terms of capital/credit, competition/sales and slow payment on sales.

In contrast to Mahmud's study, Sloane (1999) pointed out that Malaysian entrepreneurs' self-perception and own view of their roles are at play. Particularly, Malaysian entrepreneurs' dedication towards other Malaysians, sharing opportunities and success, persistence and hard work, sincerity in one's endeavours, and the contention that entrepreneurship is not only about service and obligation but also about self-validation and a key transformation to modernity. Despite the above findings, Sloane (1999) does not believe that Malay entrepreneurs are competing in a true meritocracy. Sloane concluded that Malay entrepreneurs' attitude towards business in comparison to Chinese entrepreneurs is, to a large extent, still clouded with the "know-who" syndrome rather than the "know-how".

After Sloane (1999) there have been limited documented studies on Malaysian entrepreneurs with few exceptions (Ahmed, Majar, & Alon, 2005; Othman, Ghazali, & Cheng, 2005). Ahmed et al.'s study (2005) is important for its contribution in tracing the historical development of Malay entrepreneurship in Malaysia. However, similar to Md. Said (1974), this study is merely factual and descriptive. In contrast to Ahmed, et al. (2005), the study by Othman et al. (2005) attempted only to explore whether there are differences between Malay and Chinese entrepreneurs with regard to their demographic and personality characteristics. In addition, they found that Chinese entrepreneurs are generally more educated and more concerned with having power over people, and they believe more in being masters of their own fate as compared to Malay entrepreneurs.

The literature review is short of a unified reason that would provide an explanation for the elusive gap between Malaysian entrepreneurs. It may be due to the fact that researchers have investigated the phenomenon among Malaysian entrepreneurs from a single perspective; for instance either by looking at personality traits (Kuratko, 2008; Rauch & Frese, 2007), self-efficacy beliefs (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Chen, Greene, & Crick, 1998), or intentions and beliefs triggered towards entrepreneurial behaviour (Kreuger, 2007; Kreuger, Reilly, & Carsud, 2000; Krueger, 2005; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Although, the cognitive framework of Erez and Earley (1993) (i.e., cultural self-representation model) asserted that individuals' cognitive schema should be identified by examining their motivation, goal setting and values relative to a particular context. Thus, to explain the elusive gap between Malaysian entrepreneurs, we adopted a cultural self-representation lens: i.e., do Malaysian entrepreneurs differ in their passion (motivation), behavioural engagement (deep held need) and achievement motivation goals?

2.1 Entrepreneurial Passion

The Dualistic Model of Passion (DMP) implies that an individual may experience passion in two distinct ways, either obsessively or harmoniously. Harmonious passion is hypothesized to emerge from an autonomous internalization, whereas obsessive passion is conceptualized to surface from a controlled internalization of a valued activity into the individual's identity (Vallerand et al., 2003). Harmonious passion is coupled with high levels of concentration (Mageau, Vallerand, Rousseau, Ratelle, & Provencher, 2005) even prior to engagement in the activity (Vallerand et al., 2008). This is individual predominated by harmonious passion experience positive affect during and after passionate activity involvement, even if these individuals are prevented from activity involvement (Mageau et al., 2005; Vallerand et al., 2003). Furthermore, harmonious passion is associated with positive affective spillover -- a process whereby an individual will feel happy when engaging in a passionate activity and will be happier and more satisfied with life over time.

The above-mentioned characteristics relate harmonious passion to several constructs of psychological well-being, such as vitality, life meaning, and life satisfaction, and they are negatively related to depression and anxiety (Rousseau & Vallerand, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2008, 2007). Harmonious passion initiates increased psychological well-being over time through positive emotional cycles, meaning that harmonious passion endorses positive situational affect (Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008). On the other hand, obsessive passion prevents concentration, whether on a passionate activity or other life activities (Ratelle, Vallerand, Mageau, Rousseau, & Provencher, 2004; Vallerand et al., 2003). Since rumination prevents an obsessively passionate person form experiencing flow (Philippe, Vallerand et al., 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003), it may lead to poor decision making (Philippe, Vallerand, Houlfort, Lavigne, & Donahue, 2010). Obsessive passion leads to extreme persistence and risky behaviour owing to individual identity protection concerns that would motivate them toward extreme and risky persistence. Furthermore, individuals with predominant obsessive passion experience negative affects during passionate activity involvement (Mageau et al., 2005; Vallerand et al., 2003). Consequently, obsessively passionate individuals undergo depression, anxiety and reduced life satisfaction (Vallerand (Rousseau & Vallerand, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2008, 2007).

To sum up, passion is associated with various intrapersonal traits, but the overall picture is dualistic. On the one hand, harmonious passion tends to bestow cognitive and affective well-being, as well as performance benefits to individuals. Obsessive passion, on the other hand, tends to engender cognitive and affective ill-being. Obsessive passion is also negatively related to performance besides the lack thereof. More importantly, for our purposes, obsessive passion is associated with a lack of concentration that leads to low performance. In the present study it is hypothesized that:

H1: Malaysian entrepreneurs significantly differ in terms of entrepreneurial passion.

2.2 Achievement Motivation Goals

According to Elliot and Dweck (2005) achievement motivation addresses individuals' conception ability and regulates their cognitive thought patterns and behavioural choices associated with those cognitions. Furthermore, it is posited that competence is applicable across a broad range of levels. Nicholls (1984) upheld the view that competence can be achieved by learning skills or mastering tasks. Thus, in an achievement setting, individuals striving for high levels of competence, achieve task selection that will maximize their ability levels. Therefore, an individual's competence level sets their goals. The trichotomous achievement goals theory (Elliot & Church, 1997) differentiates these goals as: mastery goals (i.e., focused on mastering tasks and developing competence), and performance goals (i.e., meant to demonstrate competence relative to other individuals).

The primary intent of mastery goals is to master tasks and develop competence. The competence construct of mastery goals is conceptualized as self-referenced (i.e., a competence reference point is personally experienced).

Mastery goals are hypothesized to produce positive outcomes, including task persistence in the face of failure and task appreciation (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1989). In line with the scholarly work of Dweck (1986) mastery goals are anticipated to have adaptive processes and outcomes. Particularly, regardless of an individual's perception of competence, the person will relate to a task with positive affects, persistence and enjoyment. Mastery goals are also correlated with diverse variables, such as competence expectancy (Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001), achievement motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997) and gender (Elliot & Church, 1997). Furthermore, the adoption of mastery goals is positively related to high levels of intrinsic motivation, self efficacy, positive affects, interest, utility, and adaptive help seeking (Elliot & Church, 1997; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Linnenbrink, 2005).

Performance goals are intended to demonstrate competence relative to other individuals. Thus outcomes are conceptualized as a focal point for performance goals. Adopting performance goals is directed towards avoiding unfavourable judgment of competence. Performance goals are characterized as those that represent striving to approach normative competence (Church et al., 2001; Cury, Elliot, Da Fonseca, & Moller, 2006) and as being self-regulated goals according to potentially positive outcomes (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Furthermore, it is suggested that performance goals also generate negative processes and outcomes, such as fear of failure and decreased enjoyment with task involvement (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1989). According to the academic work of Dweck (1986) performance goals have either adaptive or maladaptive processes or outcomes. For instance, individuals with low levels of perceived competence may demonstrate maladaptive behaviour like negative affect, low levels of task persistence, decreased enjoyment and low effort levels. Overall, achievement motivation goals present duality: for one, mastery goals are related to intrinsic motivation, self efficacy, positive affects, interest, utility and adaptive help seeking, while on the other hand they are related to negative affects, low levels of task persistence, decreased enjoyment, low levels of effort, and most importantly, different levels of performance. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H2: Malaysian entrepreneurs' achievement motivation goals significantly differ.

2.3 Behavioural Engagements

Chell, Haworth, and Brearley (1991) categorized entrepreneurial behavioural engagement in three phases: motivation, intent and identification. There is no objection to these phases albeit our view differs regarding the underlying factors, namely wealth creation and capital accumulation. Furthermore, we propose that these factors are deep-held values, such as individuals' innate need for independence, innovation, seeking challenge, stimulation and creativity, and these discern entrepreneurial behaviour from other managerial behaviours (Kasser, 2002; Shane, 2003). Historically, researchers have indicated monetary rewards and wealth as promising motivators for entrepreneurial behavioural engagement (Kirzner, 1979; McClelland, 1961). Other researchers have looked more profoundly into the underlying factors that motivate individuals to become self-employed. The majority of researchers highlight a person's need for autonomy, independence and freedom (Shane, 2003; Van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006; Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004)). Likewise, the Self Determination Theory (SDT) argues that the fulfilment of a fundamental need for autonomy ("freedom of choice to engage in activities") eventually determines the quality of an individual's motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). To fulfil one's need for autonomy, people engage in different activities and interact with the environment to help them grow and develop a sense of self through the process of internalization (i.e., autonomous or controlled) (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Autonomous internalization directs an individual to greater levels of perceived autonomy (Mageau & Vallerand, 2007; Vallerand et al., 2003). Such elevated levels of perceived autonomy, or the belief they have control over activity processes and outcomes, increases creativity (Amabile & Mueller, 2007) given that perceived autonomy improves individuals' adaptivity and proactivity in the creative process (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldman, 2004). Mageau et al. (2009) and Vallerand et al. (2006) further highlighted that the exhibition of positive affect during activity engagement is also due to autonomous activity internationalization. Such positive affects enable an individual to develop connections between diverse ideas, optimally utilize resources and experiment with original designs, consequently making use of creativity (Isen, 2000).

The autonomous internalization of activity into the self engages entrepreneurs to pursue challenges and stimulation (Cardon et al., 2009). In view of the fact that positive feelings bolster the belief in success by entrepreneurs and validate entrepreneurial identity related to that passion, in such a way entrepreneurs become more confident in their judgment and evaluation of the respective activities. They are thus further prompted to focus on identity-related activities and suppressed from centring on irrelevant ones (Locke & Latham, 2002), while the experience of "flow" with high levels of focus takes place (Zu, Fredendall, & Douglas, 2008). This is evident from studies which found that when entrepreneurs are harmoniously passionate they put more effort than

obsessively passionate individuals (Vallerand et al., 2003). Thus, we theorize that Malaysian entrepreneurs do differ in activity internalization, which further leads to different levels of behavioural engagement.

H3: Malaysian entrepreneurs' behavioural engagement significantly differs.

3. Method

The electronic survey method was employed for this study, as it enables access to the channel of probable candidates (Mazzocchi, 2008). The distribution of Internet access throughout past years demonstrates that electronic surveys are the most widely used approach (Mazzocchi, 2008). An online version of the questionnaire (http://www.entpassion.org) was developed in order to receive responses from entrepreneurs who deal more with the Internet. The questionnaire was developed using PHP 5.4 in frontend and MySQL 5.6 database in backend. The responses were exported from the MySQL database in comma-separated values (CSV) file, which was later imported to SPSS for the required processing.

3.1 Sampling

The sampling frame of this study was built according to a list acquired from SME Corp Malaysia. A total of 343 surveys were received, out of which 305 useable questionnaires were used for the analysis. There were 235 (70.04%) male respondents and 70 (29.96%) female. The respondents' ages were as follows: 13.4% were 20-29 years old, 31.8% were 30-39 years old, 37.7% were 39-49 years old, 15.1% were 49-59 years old and the remaining 2% were 60 years old and above. The age group distribution shows the relative experience of respondents, with 86.6% being older than 30. Ethnicity indicated a relatively balanced distribution, as 52.1% of entrepreneurs were Malays and 46.2% Chinese. The results also indicate that 84% of the sample respondents were from the services sector, 12% from manufacturing, 1.3% from construction, 1.9% from agriculture and the remaining 0.8% from the mining and quarrying sector.

4. Measurement

4.1 Entrepreneurial Passion

Entrepreneurial passion was measured on a 12-item scale adopted from Vallerand et al.'s (2003) passion scale. Accordingly, entrepreneurial passion was ranked on a 7-point Likert scale from "not at all agree" to "strongly agree."

4.2 Achievement Motivation Goals

Achievement motivation goals were measured through 12 items adapted from Elliot and Church (1997). The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item was true for them on a 7-point Likert scale, from "not at all true for me" to "very true for me."

4.3 Creativity

Creativity was measured through 4 items adapted from H.-F. Lin and Lee's (2005) individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) scale. The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item was true for them on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = "not at all true for me" and 7 = "very true for me."

4.4 Independence

Independence was measured through 3 items adapted from Shane, Kolvereid, and Westhead's (1991) 14-item scale. The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item was true for them on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = "not at all true for me" and 7 = "very true for me."

4.5 Daring

Daring was measured through 4 items adapted from the ambition scale developed by Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, and Kelly (2007). The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each item was true for them on a 7-point Likert scale from "not at all true for me" to "very true for me."

5. Analysis and Results

The skewness and kurtosis results for all constructs were deemed reliable since all items had values below ± 3.0 , which is a cut-off condition proposed by Lei and Lomax (2005), and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The item-total correlation value establishes the initial reliability since all items exceeded 0.3, which is the cut-off point proposed by Flynn et al. (1997).

5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis was used to extract underlying factors and to examine the unidimensionality of constructs. In this regard, a principal component factor analysis with promax rotation and maximum likelihood

estimation was employed. The values were sorted by size and small coefficients were suppressed up to the value of 0.3. The EFA result in 9 factors had an Eigen value above 1.0, explaining 69.337% of cumulative variance. The Eigen values for the extracted factors ranged from 10.066 to 1.024 while factor loading ranged from 0.972 to 0.587. Obsessive passion was identified as the strongest factor explaining 26.81% of variance. No other factor explained more than 10% of variance, indicating there was not one or general factor present. The sample was considered adequate owing to the KMO value of 0.875. The value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant, representing a strong relationship among the items. Communalities for all items were fairly high ranging from 0.351 to 0.931, indicating that the variables are adequately distinct from each other. Moreover, the factors correlation matrix shows that the correlations among factors are less than 0.7 -- a cut-off point proposed by Hair et al. (2010) (see Table 1). Hence, factorability of the correlation matrix was achieved.

5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The measurement model provided a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi 2 = 647.120$, NC = 1.257, GFI = 0.897, AGFI = 0.874, RMSEA = 0.029, NFI = 0.920, CFI = 0.982, TLI = 0.980). In order to further improve the goodness-of-fit indices, modification indices (MI) were examined. Internal consistency of the research constructs was achieved through reliability coefficients (e.g., Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability). The values for Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.777 to 0.943 and composite reliability ranged from 0.779 to 0.939 were significantly higher (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 1. Constructs correlation matrix

Comptend	Μ	Standard				Correl	ation M	atrix			
Construct	Mean	Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Obsessive passion	4.27	.526	1								
2. Harmonious Passion	5.62	.571	.351	1							
3. Ambition	5.71	.697	.265	.377	1						
4. Performance Avoidance Goals	4.86	.602	.568	.234	.200	1					
5. Creativity	5.59	.850	.067	.041	.086	086	1				
6. Daring	5.38	1.220	014	.076	046	.075	179	1			
7. Mastery Goals	6.12	.633	.497	.535	.262	.358	.107	054	1		
8. Independence	5.75	.617	.284	.438	.399	.123	.070	.021	.388	1	
9. Performance Approach Goals	5.59	.437	.596	.403	.248	.660	040	.017	.493	.312	1

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis

Item Description	Standardized loading	Reliability
Harmonious passion Vallerand et al. (2003)		$SCR = 0.905$, $AVE = 0.614$, $\alpha = 0.908$
1. This activity is in harmony with the other activities in my life.	0.814	
2. The new things that I discover with this activity allow me to appreciate it even more.	0.731	
3. This activity reflects the qualities I like about myself.	0.774	
4. This activity allows me to live a variety of experiences.	0.856	
5. My activity is well integrated in my life.	0.882	
6. My activity is in harmony with other things that are part of me.	0.677	
Obsessive Passion Vallerand et al. (2003)		$SCR = 0.939$, $AVE = 0.722$, $\alpha = 0.943$
1. I have difficulties controlling my urge to do my activity.	0.806	
2. I have almost an obsessive feeling for this activity.	0.880	
3. This activity is the only thing that really turns me on.	0.914	
4. If I could, I would only do my activity.	0.932	
5. This activity is so exciting that I sometimes lose control over it.	0.829	
6. I have the impression that my activity controls me.	0.758	
Mastery Goals Elliot and Church, (1997)		$SCR = 0.893$, $AVE = 0.735$, $\alpha = 0.890$
1. I want to learn as much as possible in this business.	0.873	
2. It is important for me to understand the market conditions as thoroughly as possible.	0.887	

3. I desire to completely master the market scenarios.	0.811	
Performance Approach Goals Elliot and Church, (1997)		$SCR = 0.836$, $AVE = 0.630$, $\alpha = 0.832$
1. It is important for me to do better than other entrepreneurs.	0.845	
2. It is important for me to do well compare to others entrepreneurs.	0.779	
3. My goal is to get a better profit than most of the other entrepreneurs.	0.754	
Performance- Avoidance Goals Elliot and Church, (1997)		$SCR = 0.888$, $AVE = 0.726$, $\alpha = 0.883$
1. My goal in this business is to avoid performing poorly.	0.884	
2. I just want to avoid doing poorly in this business.	0.913	
3. My fear of performing poorly in this business is often what	0.751	
motivates me.	0.751	
Creativity Bolton and Lane (2012)		SCR = 0.862, AVE= 0.615, α = 0.858
1. I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but		
not necessarily risky.	0.579	
2. In general, I prefer a strong emphasis in projects on unique,		
one-of-a-kind approaches rather than revisiting tried and true	0.848	
approaches used before.		
3. I prefer to try my own unique way when learning new things rather	0.005	
than doing it like everyone else does.	0.805	
4. I favor experimentation and original approaches to problem solving		
rather than using methods others generally use for solving their	0.870	
problems.		
Independence Shane, et al. (1991)		$SCR = 0.779$, $AVE = 0.541$, $\alpha = 0.777$
1. I control my own time.	0.727	
2. I have greater flexibility for my personal and family life.	0.786	
3. I have considerable freedom to adapt my own approach to work.	0.692	
Ambition Duckworth et al. (2007)		$SCR = 0.927$, $AVE = 0.762$, $\alpha = 0.929$
1. I aim to be the best in the world at what I do.	0.859	
2. I am ambitious.	0.913	
3. Achieving something of lasting importance is the highest goal in life.	0.879	
4. I think achievement is overrated.	0.864	
Daring Bolton and Lane (2012)		$SCR = 0.914$, $AVE = 0.783$, $\alpha = 0.906$
1. I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown.	0.728	
2. I am willing to invest a lot of time and/or money on something that	0.957	
might yield a high return.		
3. I tend to act 'boldly' in situations where risk is involved.	0.951	

SCR = Scale Critical Ratio; AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Furthermore, all the estimation parameters significantly loaded on their posited constructs (see Table) and were more than twice their respective standard error, indicating that convergent validity was achieved (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The discriminant validity was assessed through two different procedures. First, the correlations between the pairs of research constructs were less than 1.0 and more than twice their standard errors, as suggested by Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990). Secondly, the square root of the AVEs for a particular construct was compared with its correlations with the other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of these two tests provide strong evidence for discriminant validity.

6. Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis results are based on the T-test interpretation. The overall harmonious passion items had a mean score of 5.82 for Chinese compared to 5.45 for Malay entrepreneurs, indicating that Chinese entrepreneurs harbour greater harmonious passion than their counterparts. However, the mean score for obsessive passion items indicates that Malaysian entrepreneurs harbour a moderate perception of obsessive passion. The assessment coefficients indicate that Chinese and Malay Malaysian entrepreneurs significantly differ in their perception of harmonious (p = 0.006) and obsessive (p = 0.002) passion, providing support for hypothesis 1. The mean scores for the achievement motivation dimensions imply that Chinese entrepreneurs perceive a strong relationship with the dimensions of mastery (6.36), performance goals (5.84), and performance avoidance (5.20) goals. On the other hand, Malay entrepreneurs have high perception of mastery (5.90) and performance goals (5.34), but moderate perception of performance avoidance goals (4.52).

Hypothesis 2, which hypothesized that Malaysian entrepreneurs differ regarding their perceptions of achievement motivation goals, was supported. The coefficients indicate that Chinese and Malay entrepreneurs significantly differ in their perception of mastery goals (p = 0.000), performance approach goals (p = 0.021) and performance avoidance goals (p = 0.002). The mean score for the behavioural engagement variable indicates that Malaysian entrepreneurs perceive a strong relationship with their need for independence, ambition, daring and creativity. Furthermore, hypothesis 3 remains significant with respect to the relationship between Malaysian entrepreneurs and their difference in the need for ambition (p = 0.000), daring (p = 0.002), and creativity (p = 0.019), but it remained insignificant regarding the need for independence (p = 0.110).

7. Discussion and Future Work

The importance of entrepreneurship to the world's economies cannot be undervalued. Governments are increasingly interested in this field in an attempt to save their deteriorating economies (Lin & Kuo, 2007), and besides, individuals are also becoming progressively more circumspect about the choices they make regarding their careers (Spoonley, Du Puis, & De Bruin, 2004). The Malaysian government has attempted to stimulate Malaysian business growth via government agencies and independent advocacy groups, yet the overall rate of business ownership has remained sluggish over the past years. It is proposed in this study that this situation may be due to the differences in passion, achievement motivation goals and behavioural engagement.

The findings from the questionnaire validate that Malaysian Chinese and Malay significantly differ with regards to entrepreneurial passion, achievement motivation goals and behavioural engagement. Compared to Malays, the Malaysian Chinese have a high perception of harmonious passion that leads them to seek higher levels of independence, to freely accept activities and integrate them into their identity, which is evident from their high mean score on the independence scale. Their elevated level of autonomy generates positive affects, excitement and positive energy. The exhibition of positive affect during activity engagement due to autonomous activity internationalization enables people to develop connections between diverse ideas, optimally use resources and experiment with original designs, which results in using creativity (Isen, 2000). The Chinese high mean score on creativity compared to the Malay Malaysians was clear. Similarly, the Malaysian Chinese scored high on the ambition scale compared to their counterparts. One plausible explanation is that over time the Malaysian Chinese have become more confident in their judgment and evaluation, something that propels a message to everyone else around to identify and recognize where they are heading, encouraging them to attain their goals. Furthermore, the moderate perception of obsessive passion by the Malay Malaysians compared to the Chinese Malaysians leads them to take less risk and become closely attached to business customs.

The high perception of harmonious passion among Malaysian Chinese results in the setting of high mastery goals. Such high mastery goals help self-improvement on the task and not to beat others or trying to avoid failure relative to their counterparts. This high perception of mastery goals further leads to independence, as the adoption of mastery goals with independence results in greater effort levels (Cho, Weinstein, & Wicker, 2011). The mastery goals additionally instigates creativity because the adoption of mastery goals tends toward more challenging tasks with moderate risk taking propensity (Bandura & Dweck, 1981) and the urge to go beyond conventional boundaries in order to understand the subject. One other possible outcome is a great level of ambition since mastery-oriented entrepreneurs are similar to individuals with a high need for achievement, sensation and those oriented towards personal control. This may further help Malaysian Chinese perform better than Malay Malaysians.

This study was limited to applying the cross sectional research design, consequently limiting the causal inferences among the study constructs. Although the cross sectional research design is suitable for deriving relationships among variables, it does not capture the transformation that might influence the relationships. For example, there might be a possibility that a person harbouring obsessive passion may transform the activity to become in harmony with other activities and change to harbour harmonious passion. Thus, future research should employ a longitudinal research design, as it may be more appropriate to observed variables in a study. In this regard, researchers can adopt the panel strategy, where the same sets of variables are observed over an extended time frame. This design may allow researchers to analyze the continuity of responses and observe transformation patterns that occur over time.

References

Abdul Rahman, S. (2002). Revolusi Mental. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publications and Distributors Sdn Bhd.

Ahmed, Z. U., Majar, A. J., & Alon, I. (2005). Malay entrepreneurship: Historical, governmental, and cultural antecedents. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management*, *5*(3/4), 168-186. http://dx.doi.org/10.1504/IJEIM.2005.006524.

- Amabile, T. M., & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Studying creativity, its processes, and its antecedents: An exploration of the componential theory of creativity. In J. Zhou, & C. Shalley (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational creativity* (pp. 33-64). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 261-271.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach. *Psychology Bulletin*, 10(3), 411-423. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0033-2909.103.3.411
- Ann, W. S. (2006). *The Business Secret of Chinese people (Rahsia bisnes orang Cina)*. Kuala Lumpur: PTS Professional Publishing Sdn. Bhd.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1990). Trying to consume. Journal of Consumer Research, 17(2), 127-140.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 16(1), 74-94. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02723327
- Bandura, M., & Dweck, C. S. (1981). *Children's theories of intelligence as predictors of achievement goals*. Unpublished Manuscript Harvard University Cambridge MA.
- Boyd, N. G., & Vozikis, G. S. (1994). The influence of self-efficacy on the development of entrepreneurial intentions and actions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(4), 63-77.
- Brush, C., Monti, D., Ryan, A., & Gannon, A. (2007). Building ventures through civic capitalism. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 613, 155-157. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0002716207303590.
- Cardon, M., Wincent, J., Singh, J., & Drnovsek, M. (2009). The Nature and Experience of Entrepreneurial Passion. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(3), 511-532.
- Chan, D. W. (1986). Psychosocial mediators in the life event-illness relationship in a Chinese setting. *International Journal of Psychosomatics*, 33, 3-10.
- Chell, E., Haworth, J., & Brearley, S. (1991). *The entrepreneurial personality: Cases, concepts and categories*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Chen, C. C., Greene, P. G., & Crick, A. (1998). Does entrepreneurial self-efficacy distinguish entrepreneurs from managers? *Journal of Business Venturing*, *13*, 295-316.
- Cho, Y. J., Weinstein, C. E., & Wicker, F. (2011). Perceived competence and autonomy as moderators of the effects of achievement goal orientations. *Educational Psychology*, *31*, 393-411. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2011.560597.
- Church, M. A., Elliot, A. J., & Gable, S. L. (2001). Perceptions of classroom environment, achievement goals, and achievement outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(1), 43-54.
- Cury, F., Elliot, A. J., Da Fonseca, D., & Moller, C. (2006). The social-cognitive model of achievement motivation and the 2 x 2 achievement goal framework. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90*, 666-679.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104 01.
- Department Of Statistics. (2013). *Population Projection, Malaysia 2010 2040*. Retrieved from http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/images/stories/files/LatestReleases/population/Ringkasan_Penemuan-Su mmary Findings 2010-2040.pdf
- Department Of Statistics. (2012). *Statistics Year Book 2011*. KL, Malaysia Department Of Statistics, Malaysia Retrieved from Department Of Statistics, Malaysia.
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 9, 1087-1101. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1087
- Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. American Psychologist, 41, 1040-1048.
- Dweck, C. S., & Leggett, E. L. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. Psychological

- Review, 95(2), 256-273.
- Economic Planning Unit. (2011). *The Malaysian Economy In Figures 2011*. Retrieved from http://www.epu.gov.my/meif2011
- Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72, 218-232.
- Elliot, A. J., & Dweck, C. S. (2005). Competence and motivation: Competence as the core of achievement motivation. In A. J. Elliot, & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of Competence and Motivation* (pp. 3-12). NY: Guilford Press.
- Elliot , A. J., & Thrash, T. M. (2002). Approach-avoidance motivation in personality: Approach and avoidance temperaments and goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(5), 804-818.
- Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). Culture, Self-Identity, and Work. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Fairlie, R. W., & Robb, A. M. (2007). Why are black-owned businesses less successful than white-owned businesses? The role of families, inheritances, and business human capital. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 25(2), 289-323. http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/510763.
- Flynn, B. B., Schroedar, R. G., Flynn, E. J., Sakakibara, S., & Bates, K. A. (1997). World-class manufacturing project: Overview and selected results. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 17(7), 671-685.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.322.
- Gomez, E. T., Loh, W. L., & Lee, K. H. (2004). Malaysia. In E. T. Gomez & H. H. M. Hsiao (Eds.), *Chinese Business in Southeast Asia* (pp. 62-84). London and New York: Routledge Curzon.
- Grant, H., & Dweck, C. S. (2003). Clarifying achievement goals and their impact. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 541-553. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.3.541.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.
- Hamilton, D. (1998). Traditions, preferences, and postures in applied qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y.
 S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (pp. 111-129). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Isen, A. M. (2000). Positive affect and decision making. In M. Lewis, & J. M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (Vol. 2, pp. 417-435). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Kasser, T. (2002). Sketches for a Self-determination theory of values. In E. L. Deci, & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 123-140). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Kirzner, I. M. (1979). Perception, Opportunity, and Profit. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Kotkin, J. (1993). *Tribes: How Race, Religion, and Identity Determine Success in the New Global Economy.* New York: Random House.
- Kreuger, N. F. (2007). What Lies Beneath? The experiential essence of entrepreneurial thinking. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(1), 123-139. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2007. 00166.x.
- Kreuger, N. F., Reilly, M. D., & Carsud, A. L. (2000). Competing Models of Entrepreneurial Intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15, 411-432. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(98)00033-0
- Krueger, N. F. (2005). The Cognitive Psychology of Entrepreneurship. In Z. J. Acs, & D. B. Audretsch (Eds.), *In Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Krueger, N. F., & Carsrud, A. L. (1993). Entrepreneurial intentions: Applying the theory of planned behavior. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 5*, 315-330.
- Kuratko, D. F. (2008). *Entrepreneurship: Theory, Process and Practice* (8th ed.). Mason, Ohio: South: Western Cencage Learning.
- Lei, M., & Lomax, R. G. (2005). The effect of varying degrees of nonnormality in structural equation modeling

- Structural Equation Modeling, 12(1), 1-27. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15328007sem1201 1.
- Lin, C. -Y., & Kuo, T. -H. (2007). The mediate effect of learning and knowledge on organizational performance. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 107(7), 1066-1083. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02635570710816748.
- Lin, H.-F., & Lee, G.-G. (2005). Impact of organizations learning and knowledge management factors on e-business adoption. *Management Decision*, 43(2), 171-188. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740510581902
- Linnenbrink, E. A. (2005). The dilemma of performance-approach goals: The use of multiple goal contexts to promote students' motivation and learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97(2), 197-213. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.97.2.197
- Lowry, P. B., Gaskin, J., Twyman, N., Hammer, B., & Roberts, T. L. (2013). Proposing the hedonic-motivation system adoption model (HMSAM) to increase understanding of adoption of hedonically motivated systems. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, *14*(11), 617-671.
- Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2007). The moderating effect of passion on the relation between activity engagement and positive affect. *Motivation and Emotion*, 31, 312-321. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11031-007-9071-z.
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Charest, J., Salvy, S., Lacaille, N., Bouffard, T., & Koestner, R. (2009). On the development of harmonious and obsessive passion: The role of autonomy support, activity valuation, and identity processes. *Journal of Personality*, 77, 601-645. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2009.00559.x
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Rousseau, F. L., Ratelle, C. F., & Provencher, P. J. (2005). Passion and gambling: Investigating the divergent affective and cognitive consequences of gambling. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 35, 100-118. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2005.tb02095.x.
- Mahathir, M. (1970). The Malay dilemma. Singapore: Marshall Cavendish Editions.
- Mahmud, A. A. (1981). *Malay entrepreneurship: Problems in development. A comparative empirical analysis.* Kuala Lumpur: Unit Penyelidikan Sosioekonomi, Jabatan Perdana Menteri.
- Mazzocchi, M. (2008). Statistics for marketing and consumer research London Sage Publication.
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). The Achieving Society. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Md.Said, A. R. (1974a). *Developing indigenous entrepreneurship in West Malaysia* (Master Thesis Unpublished). Cornell University, New York.
- Md.Said, A. R. (1974b). *Developing indigenous entrepreneurship in West Malaysia* (Master Thesis). Cornell University New York.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1984). Achievement motivation: Conceptions of ability, subjective experience, task choice, and performance. *Psychological Review*, *91*, 328-346.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1989). The competitive ethos and democratic education. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Omar, S. (2006). Malay Business. Subang Jaya: Pelanduk Publications.
- Othman, M. N., Ghazali, E., & Cheng, O. C. (2005). Demographic and personal characteristics of urban Malaysian entrepreneurs: An ethnic comparison. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management*, *5*(5/6), 421-440. http://dx.doi.org/10.1504/IJEIM.2005.006997.
- Philippe, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., Houlfort, N., Lavigne, G., & Donahue, E. G. (2010). Passion for an activity and quality of interpersonal relationships: The mediating role of emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *98*, 917-932. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0018017.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. -Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Popenoe, O. (1970). Malay entrepreneurs: An analysis of the social background. Careers and attitudes of the leading Malay businessmen in West Malaysia. Unpublished Ph.D, University of London.
- Ratelle, C. F., Vallerand, R. J., Mageau, G. A., Rousseau, F. L., & Provencher, P. (2004). When passion leads to problematic outcomes: A look at gambling. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 20, 105-119. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/B:JOGS.0000022304.96042.e6.
- Rauch, A., & Frese, M. (2007). Let's put the person back into entrepreneurship research: A meta-analysis on the

- relationship between business owner's personality traits, business creation and success. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16(4), 353-385. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/13594320701595438
- Rousseau, F. L., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Le rôle de la passion dans le bien-être subjectif des aînés [The Role of passion in the subjective well-being of elderly individuals]. *Revue Québécoise de Psychologie*, 24, 197-211.
- Rousseau, F. L., & Vallerand, R. J. (2008). An examination of the relationship between passion and subjective well-being in older adults. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 66, 195-211. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2190/AG.66.3.b
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 54-67. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020
- Shafii, Z., Abiddin, N. Z., & Ahmad, A. R. (2009). Ethnic Heterogeneity in the Malaysian Economy: A Special Reference to the Ethnic Group Participation in Financial Planning Activities *The Journal of International Social Research* 2(8), 394-401.
- Shalley, C. E., Zhou, J., & Oldman, G. R. (2004). The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here? *Journal of Management*, *30*, 933-958. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2004.06.007.
- Shane, S. (2003). A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual Opportunity Nexus. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Shane, S., Kolvereid, L., & Westhead, P. (1991). An exploratory examination of the reasons leading to new firm formation across the country and gender. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 6, 431-446. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(91)90029-D.
- Sloane, P. (1999). Islam, modernity and entrepreneurship among the Malays. London, UK: Macmillan.
- Spoonley, P., Du Puis, A., & De Bruin, A. (2004). *Work and working in the 21st Century New Zealand*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (4th ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.
- Vallerand, R. J., Blanchard, C., Mageau, G. A., Koestner, R., Ratelle, C., Le'onard, M., . . . Marsolais, J. (2003). Les passions de l'a^me: On obsessive and harmonious passion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 756-767. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.756.
- Vallerand, R. J., Ntoumanis, N., Philippe, F., Lavigne, G. L., Carbonneau, c., Bonneville, A., . . . Maliha, G. (2008). On passion and sports fans: A look at football. *Journal of Sport Sciences*, 26, 1279-1293. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02640410802123185.
- Vallerand, R. J., Rousseau, F. L., Grouzet, F. M. E., Dumais, A., & Grenier, S. (2006). Passion in sport: A look at determinants and affective experiences. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 28, 454-478.
- Vallerand, R. J., Salvy, S. J., Mageau, G. A., Elliot, A. J., Denis, P. L., & Grouzet, F. M. E. (2007). On the role of passion in performance. *Journal of Personality*, 75, 505-533. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494. 2007.00447.x.
- Van Gelderen, M., & Jansen, P. (2006). Autonomy as a start-up motive. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise development*, 13(1), 23-32. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14626000610645289.
- Wilson, F., Marlino, D., & Kickul, J. (2004). Our entrepreneurial future: Examining the diverse attitudes and motivations of teens across gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 9(3), 177-197.
- Zu, X., Fredendall, L. D., & Douglas, T. J. (2008). The evolving theory of quality management: The role of six sigma. *Journal of Operations Management*, 26, 630-650. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2008.02.001

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Community Supporting Attitude toward Community-Based Tourism Development; Non-Participants Perspective

Sajad Ebrahimi¹ & Zainab Khalifah²

Correspondence: Zainab Khalifah, Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia, Malaysia. E-mail: Zainab@fppsm.utm.my

Received: October 10, 2013 Accepted: March 11, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014

doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p29 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p29

Abstract

Non-participants in a host community play a vital role in the success of that destination. Community participation issues in a destination may propel a community to fail in their relations, businesses and attachments. In addition, there is a bias toward participants rather than non-participants in previous studies and non-participants in tourism activities have been neglected, therefore this study aims to investigate the supporting behavior of those non-participants and tries to identify factors discourage local people to participate in Community-Based Tourism activities by using a qualitative local participation approach. The results indicate the existence of a wide range of factors including; relation with current participants; time and capital limitations; religious and cultural sensitivities; envious sensitivities and communication barriers effect local participation in community-based tourism and specifically Malaysia Homestay Program.

Keywords: community participation, community support, homestay program, non-participants, resident attitude

1. Introduction

Communities, especially in third world countries are unaware of the costs and difficulties associated with rapid development of tourism in their community (Alonso & Liu, 2012; Jafari, 1981; Rosenow & Pulsipher, 1979; Tosun, 2000). Although some authors such as Tosun (2000) proposed community attachment as panacea, there are still a number of people who are not joining tourism activities due to unknown reasons.

Local participation has been regarded as a precondition in the success of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) projects by many scholars (Inskeep, 1991; Simpson, 2008; Stone & Stone, 2010; Shani & Pizam, 2012). Also some considered the reality of social structures and community internal relations as essential factors in sustaining the CBT programs (Meimand, 2013; Mowforth, 2008; Simpson, 2008). However, the views of non-participants are equally important, since problems and conflicts arise may delay the pace of tourism development. For example in the case of Kaikoura Whale Watching in New Zealand, shortly after its establishment in 1990, non-participants burnt tourists' coach, vandalized the boats and burgled the administration office, due to mainly due to lack of understanding of the tourism business and economic jealousy (Gillespie, 2000). In addition local participation, community perceives, constructs and participations in developing countries have been attracting the attention of tourism academics in the last few years (Alonso & Liu, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2011; Tosun, 2000). Such phenomenon in tourism activities has been debated in the field of sociology and anthropology of tourism. Studies in this field lied on anthropological perspectives and assumed communities are not a homogeneous people either they support or do not support the tourism industry (Buono, Pediaditi, & Carsjens, 2012; Kapoor, 2001; Kibicho, 2008). In the same vein, this study attempts to investigate related parameters to community support and participation in Community-Based Tourist destinations.

Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a bias toward participants rather than non-participants in previous studies and non-participants in tourism activities have been neglected in these studies, therefore this study aims to investigate the behavior of those non-participants.

2. Local Participation

Participation has been defined in a variety of ways by different scholars. Skeffington (1969) simply defined the public participation as "a sharing action to formulate policies and proposals" while in 1973 a more

¹ Faculty of Built Environment, University Technology Malaysia, Malaysia

² Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia, Malaysia

comprehensive definition provided for public participation, "the means by which people who are not elected or appointed, officials of agencies and of government influence decisions about programs and policies which affect their lives" (Brager et al., 1973). Based on this definition, tourism may act as the program or policy which can influence the host community lives. Moreover, Shirlow & Murtagh (2004) in a more recent article described participation in which non-participants were clarified, "an umbrella body that covers various distinct stakeholders represented on the one hand by an organized sector that represents people with varied interests but share a common goal and, on the other, those with no interest at all in the shared common goal".

In addition, local Participation has been taken into attention from different perspectives; some scholars considered local participation as an effective factor in sustainable development (Gunn & Var, 2002; Mair & Reid, 2007; Mowforth, 2008); some believe on catalyzing effect of local participation by enhancing their economic benefits from tourism and investing in other sectors (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008); Garrod (2003) discussed effective planning and management in the shadow of local participation; in a recent study, effective investment return has been proven in Vietnam through active local participation (Yen & Van Luong, 2008) and finally, some emphasized importance of widespread tourism participation in planning process (Gunn & Var, 2002; Inskeep, 1991).

Non-participants have been known as a challenge for tourism developers, planners and managers. A study in Vietnam showed that non-participants are potentially sensitive about tourism development and they believe that tourism is destroying their culture (Yahya, And, & Sebastian, 2005). In this context, this study deals with investigation of non-participants supporting behavior toward participation in tourism activities to answer the question of "Why does a local who has the necessity and ability to join tourism activity, is not interested to join?"

As mentioned previously, there are a few models which tried to investigate factors influencing residents' supporting behavior. Gursoy et al. (2002) introduced a structural model which found out the correlations in influencing factors to community participation in tourism activities (Gursoy et al., 2002). The level of community concern of local residents; the utilization of the tourism resource base of local residents; the level of eccentric issues; the state of the local economy; the perceived cost; and the perceived benefits of the tourism development are the most effective factors in this study (see Gursoy et al., 2002). Although this study provided a structural model, some important factors disregarded; factors such as social concerns, occupancy, religious concerns and psychological sensitivities. Another study by Kayat (2002) attempted to investigate the factors influencing individual participation in Community - Based Tourism in the context of Malaysian Homestay. The article derived that local participation is affected by motivation factors including; the degree of control on decision making, needs for self-development, to play a role in community development, sense of belonging, gain self-respect or to gain self-fulfillment and income generating purposes. Although this research found out useful variables about local participation, it just focused on a limited number of attribute and also it emphasized on intangible attributes rather than tangible characters.

3. Homestay Program Malaysia

Homestay term has different usages and definitions in different countries. In United Kingdom Homestay is used for those who want scale up their English language proficiency through living with a native family while Australian use the term for farmhouse accommodation (Ibrahim & Rashid, 2010). Malaysia Ministry of Tourism defined the Homestay program as "Where tourists stay with the host family and experience the everyday way of life of the family in both a direct and indirect manner" (MOCAT, 1995, cited in Ibrahim & Rashid, 2010).

Homestay program evolution in Malaysia returns back to the early 1970s, when an old lady provided meal and accommodation for visitors within her humble village house (Hamzah, 1997). The main purpose of this program is to accommodate visitors with a local family in a village atmosphere, therefore it provides a golden opportunity for visitors to experience pure local lifestyle and culture (Ebrahimi Meimand & Ismail, 2011). Furthermore, among Malaysia's attractions, Homestay program form rural tourism pillars. The Malaysian government is using the Homestay program as a key tool for decentralization of tourism income (Bagul & Bahar, 2009).

Banghuris Homestay is established in 1993 as a trial Homestay and became an official Homestay under the authority of Tourism Malaysia after two years. Banghuris manager started the program with 18 participants and the numbers of participants have been reached 80 respondents in the early 2012. Banghuris term is a combination of three other names; Bangkung, Ulu Chuchoh and Ulu Teris (BANG+HU+RIS). Banghuris is located in the vicinity of Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) and 80 KM far from Kuala Lumpur in the west of Peninsular Malaysia. Figure 1 shows the location of Banghuris and details of three included villages.

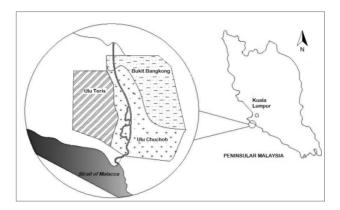


Figure 1. Banghuris location

4. Research Methodology

As the main aim of this study was to understand non-participants supporting behavior by studying the case of Malaysian Homestay, non-participants in Banghuris Homestay program studied. As noted earlier, exciting research on the community and local participation has been primarily undertaken by psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists who all have often been of a qualitative nature. In the same way, this study engaged qualitative approach by taking into consideration the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative methods, in which a semi structured face-to-face interview was used. According to Bryman (2008), qualitative research allows the researcher to meet a better understanding of study population and their reality of life by involving and coping with them. In addition, it allows studying events during the study rather providing a statistical image of the study. It also provides the opportunity of finding the social relations (Flick, 2009). In the case of Homestay low literacy and lack of English proficiency restricted the researcher to do the questionnaire survey and the questions were needed to be asked in the form of semi-structured face to face interviews. Furthermore, in traditional Malaysian lifestyle and rural atmosphere personal conversation play a vital role to understand the reality of their life (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2012). Also, the informal nature of qualitative studies and interviewing without a list of fix and pre-existing questions allow the respondents to provide a better image of their lifestyle. It is noticeable that interviews lasted on average, around one hour.

This then allows us to conduct interview sessions to the intended research area, including questions about economics, culture, social and religious issues. To ensure instrument validity, experts were asked to review if the semi-structure interview questions covered all aspects of study that they would expect. The questions in the semi structure interviews derived from previous literature cited in local participation section.

To enhance the generalizability of the study we used several participants from different areas, ages, carriers, genders and education level. In addition, interviewees consisted of three age categories, females and male, ranging in age from 20s to mid-30s, mid-30 to 40s and 50s or more. Considering, 10 interviewees were selected from each village (Bukit Bankong, Ulu Chuchoh and Ulu Teris) as the study was held in all three villages (See Figure 1).

Interview sessions were recorded on a digital audio recorder and notes were taken. Analyzing the transcripts helped in obtaining a detailed viewpoint of non-participants such as power relationships, public administration system, political parties and cultural values, and other pertinent factors. A total of thirty non-participants, interviewed during this study. The number of interviewees for each area was determined by the population and importance of tourism in that area. Consequently, interviews undertook in Ulu Chuchoh (n=13), followed by Bukit Bangkong (n=10) and finally smallest area Ulu Teris (n=7).

Thematic analysis engaged in data analysis, according to Bryman (2008) Thematic analysis help the researcher to construct the index of central themes and accordingly sub-themes to place every detail of transcripts in its related cell. A modified table designed in this study. On the right side a column of main questions including the subs and respective answers from transcript on the right.

5. Non-participants and Discussion

Six main questions in interview sessions used to investigate the non-participants' influencing factors. Further questions were asked in the shadow of the main questions. In the same way, respondents mentioned ideas about

key features of their own situation during the interview sessions. The indicators were selected with the aim of covering the main aspects of the study including; economic, social, cultural and religious.

5.1 Religious Concerns

According to the resident's profile, all Banghuris occupants were Muslim and mostly sensibilities about Islamic concerns and rules. The question of "Does Homestay Program impacts on your traditions and culture?" was engaged to investigate the religious concerns among non-participants. Although there were residents that they didn't consider religious issues as a key challenge, there were non-participants who consider this phenomenon vitally. In this context, an Ulu Teris resident said that "... there are conflicts between non-Muslim tourists and our religious, my sister and my mother need to wear Hijab (compulsory Islamic dress code for Muslim women in front of strangers) if the tourists want to come to our home and stay with us. Coming tourist to our house means losing privacy". Furthermore, a 48 years old lady in Bukit Bangkong stated that her children may learn the wrong things from tourists. She said: "Although my children can learn good things from tourists, their non-Islamic cloths would affect on our children; especially when they can stay in our home". On the other hand, some residents noted there is no preference for Muslim tourists and religious is not affecting their decisions in joining the Homestay program.

5.2 Envious Sensitivities

Exploring envious sensitivity in Banghuris proves the existence of jealousy sensitivities among non-participants. Confidence between couples and envious sensitivities between three villages in Banghuris (conflicts in fair distribution of tourism benefits in Bukit Bangkon, Ulu Chuchoh and Ulu Teris) explored for understanding jealousy among non-participants.

In the context of confidence between couples, it may be said that there were some worries. The evidences indicate that there were respondents who feel jealous about their husbands' relationships and worry about losing the control over them. A respondent from Ulu Chuchoh in answering to the question of "Do you prefer single or married tourists? Is gender important for you or not, if you wanted to join homestay program?" stated: "I don't like accepting young girls while my husband is in the home" further she explained that "I prefer families, followed by single males and single women".

There was another sense of jealousy regarding place of residency. As mentioned previously, Banghuris contains three main areas. Considering Ulu Chuchoh plays central role in running Homestay with a total of 40 Homestay participants out of 80, some non-participants in Ulu Teris and Bukit Bangkong perceive that Ulu Chuchoh residents have a better opportunity in joining Homestay. In this context, a respondent stated that "...I believe current chairman is a compassionate man, even if you are not a Homestay participant and face a problem he tries to solve your problem. But everybody knows that Homestay belongs to Ulu Chuchoh and Ulu Teris has little portion in decisions regarding the Homestay program. Homestay program belongs to all Banghuris people, but the benefits mostly go to Ulu Chuchoh..."

5.3 Time and Capital limitation

In addition to the religious concerns noted in an earlier section, time and capital limitation was another affecting factor among Banghuris non-participants. In this context, time limitation was the most common problem among full-time employee couples. It may be said, non-participants with full time jobs has less interest in joining the Homestay program due to time limitations.

On the other hand, the study finds that there are some respondents, who have enough time to receive tourists under the authority of Homestay program, but capital limitation is their critical issue in joining Homestay. In other words, insufficient capital to construct and facilitate even one room for tourists was their main obstacle for this group of non-participants. Further interview with the Homestay manager approved that new Homestay participants don't receive any financial support or loans by Ministry of Tourism, while their houses should have the minimum standard defined by the Ministry of Tourism to join the Homestay program. However, it should be kept in mind that those non-participants affected by capital limitations, agreed they are appealed to join Homestay if they could receive financial support.

5.4 Education

It is believed that higher educated residents have a more positive perception toward tourism development and as education level increases, the awareness of environmental, economic and cultural impacts of tourism will raise as well. In this study educated non-participants were studied to understand their willingness to participate. The results reveal that this group of non-participants has a better understanding and awareness of tourism development. In this context, a respondent explained the importance of tourism for Malaysian economic growth

and the other emphasized the key role of tourism in remote area development and rural-urban migration prevention. Although educated non-participants were highly interested to join the Homestay program, time limitation was the main barrier for them. All educated non-participants who interviewed were engaged in full-time jobs and no more time to join Homestay.

5.5 Communication Barriers

Lack of English language skill was another preventing factor for non-participants. Although the majority of interviewees could communicate in English, there were some respondents who couldn't, mostly older residents. In this regard, a respondent noted "...My children who can speak English already married and cannot help me in communicating tourists and my younger son goes school...". But she confessed that she can receive local tourists or tourists from Indonesia due to language similarities. (Considering Malaysia and Indonesia have 97% similar language and both).

5.6 Relation with Current Participants

An immediate observable factor regarding non-participants was their relations with other Homestay participants and the importance of receiving negative signals from current participants. Transcript analysis shows that current participants in a Homestay program play a vital role in motivating or uninspiring non-participants in joining Homestay. In this sense, relation with current participants may be working as a boosting variable which intensify the effect of other factors such as communication barriers, time and capital limitation, religious and cultural concerns and envious sensitivities of non-participants decision. In this perspective, a respondent noted that "...Last time my sister received a European tourist which comes to breakfast table with improper clothes which is not good in our religious" which shows the effect of her sister on her perception toward tourism development, and the other noted "One of my friends which is a member of Homestay faced a problem with some tourists when they smoke cigarette in the house, while his daughter had Asthma illness" which shows the intensive effect of current participants on religious concerns and cultural differences.

6. Conclusion

Studying non-participants behavior towards tourism development in Community Based Tourism may be important as well as studying participants' behavior as they comprise most of the population in a community. Although the majority of the non-participants may feel the tangible and non-tangible benefits of tourism and agree to join Homestay, there are some people who find out joining Homestay harmful. Using the previous works indicators in understanding non-participants supporting behavior in this study reveal a new spectrum of influencing factors in the context of Community Based Tourism and specifically the Homestay program.

Obstacles to a wider participation of community may be solved thorough: allocating local or Indonesian visitors to those non-participants afraid of linguistic communications because of their cultural and linguistic similarities and moreover, finical supporting for those families facing monetary problems to facilitate and renew their house to receive tourists. In addition, according to Lisa Bond a practical example of Kaikoura whale watchin8ug New Zealand showed educating and informing people about the advantages of tourism development can reduce the effect of jealous sensitivities (Personal Communication, 2012, Dec 17). In the case of Banghuris Homestay, distributing tourism benefits in Ulu Teris and Bukit Bangkong equally to Ulu Chuchoh may moderate envious sensitivities among them.

To achieve a higher level of local participation in Community-Based Tourism a broad range of factors will need to be studied. For instance the effect of locals' financial literacy in the participatory process may be considered in a separate study and also the following questions need to be addressed: What special training or program could be enhanced to encourage non-participants to get involved Homestay program? How could reduce the negative perception of non-participants toward tourism development? How could reduce the effects of cultural differences with tourists? These questions demonstrate the necessity of further research and consideration of non-participants views in the planning process and managing CBT destinations.

References

- Alonso, A. D., & Liu, Y. (2012). Local community, volunteering and tourism development: The case of the Blackwood River Valley, Western Australia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2011.644770
- Bagul, P., & Bahar, A. (2009). Success of Ecotourism Sites and Local Community Participation in Sabah. Victoria University of Wellington.
- Brager, G., Specht, H., & Torczyner, J. (1973). Community Organizing (p. 362). New York: Columbia University

Press.

- Bryman, A. (2008). Social research methods (3rd ed.). Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Buono, F., Pediaditi, K., & Carsjens, G. J. (2012). Local Community Participation in Italian National Parks Management: Theory versus Practice. *Journal of Environmental Policy & Planning*, 14(2), 1-20. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1523908X.2012.683937
- Daldeniz, B., & Hampton, M. P. (2012). Dive Tourism and Local Communities: Active Participation or Subject to Impacts? Case Studies from Malaysia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1897
- Ebrahimi Meimand, S., & Ismail, H. N. (2011). FEASIBILITY OF OPERATING HOMESTAY IN RURAL AREAS; A CASE STUDY OF MEIMAND, IRAN . In *3rd Sustainable Tourism Conference USM* (p. 340). Penang: University Science Malaysia.
- Flick, U. (2009). An Introduction to Qualitative Research (4th ed., p. 528). Los Angeles: Sage publications.
- Garrod, B. (2003). Local Participation in the Planning and Management of Ecotourism: A Revised Model Approach. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 2(1), 33-53. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14724040308668132
- Gillespie, A. (2000). THE BI-CULTURAL RELATIONSHIP WITH WHALES: BETWEEN PROGRESS, SUCCESS AND CONFLICT. *lianz.waikato.ac.nz*. Retrieved January 11, 2013, from http://lianz.waikato.ac.nz/PAPERS/al gillespie/whales.pdf
- Gunn, C. A., & Var, C. A. G. T. (2002). *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases* (4th ed., p. 442). London: Routledge.
- Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., & Uysal, M. (2002). Resident attitudes A Structural Modeling Approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 79-105. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00028-7
- Hamzah, A. (1997). The evolution of small-scale tourism in Malaysia: Problems, opportunities and implications for sustainability. *Tourism and Sustainability: Principles and Practices*, 199–217.
- Ibrahim, Y., & Rashid, A. (2010). Homestay Program and Rural Community Development in Malaysia. *Journal of Ritsumeikan Social Sciences and Humanities*, 1(2), 7-24.
- Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism planning: An integrated and sustainable development approach* (1st ed., p. 508). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Jafari, J. (1981). Limit to Tourism Development: An AIEST Conference Report. *Journal of Travel Research*, 19(3), 25-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/004728758101900305
- Kapoor, I. (2001). Towards participatory environmental management? *Journal of Environmental Management*, 63(3), 269-279. http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jema.2001.0478
- Kayat, K. (2002). Exploring factors influencing individual participation in community based tourism: The case of Kampung relau homestay program, Malaysia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 7(2), 19-27.
- Kibicho, W. (2008). Community-based Tourism: A Factor-Cluster Segmentation Approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 211-231. http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/jost623.0
- Mair, H., & Reid, D. G. (2007). Tourism and community development vs. tourism for community development: Conceptualizing planning as power, knowledge, and control. *Leisure/Loisir*, 31(2), 403-425. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14927713.2007.9651389
- Meimand, S. (2013). Expectation and Experience Gap for Japanese Travelers Visiting Malaysian Homestay, Utilizing Holiday Satisfaction Model. *Indian Journal of Science*.
- Mowforth, M. (2008). *Tourism and sustainability: Development, globalization and new tourism in the third world* (2nd ed., p. 424). London: Routledge.
- Rosenow, J. E., & Pulsipher, G. L. (1979). *Tourism, the good, the bad, and the ugly* (p. 264). Century Three Press.
- Shani, A., & Pizam, A. (2012). Handbook of Tourism and Quality-of-Life Research. In M. Uysal, R. Perdue, & M. J. Sirgy (Eds.), *Handbook of Tourism and Quality-of-Life Research* (pp. 547-564). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-2288-0
- Shirlow, P., & Murtagh, B. (2004). Capacity-building, representation and intracommunity conflict. *Urban Studies*.

- Simpson, M. C. (2008). Community Benefit Tourism Initiatives-A conceptual oxymoron? *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 1-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.06.005
- Skeffington, A. (1969). People and planning. People and planning: report of the Committee on public participation in planning (p. 71). Scotland.
- Stone, L. S., & Stone, T. M. (2011). Community-based tourism enterprises: Challenges and prospects for community participation; Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Botswana. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(1), 97-114. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2010.508527
- Stronza, A., & Gordillo, J. (2008). Community views of ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(2), 448-468. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.01.002
- Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, *21*(6), 613-633. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(00)00009-1
- Yahya, F., And, A. P., & Sebastian, R. (2005). Tourism and the South Asia littoral: Voices from the Maldives. *South Asia: Journal of South Asian Studies*, 28(3), 457-480. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00856400500337818
- Yen, N. T. K., & Van Luong, P. (2008). Participatory village and commune development planning (VDP/CDP) and its contribution to local community development in Vietnam. *Community Development Journal*, 43(3), 329-340. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cdj/bsn018

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

An Examination of the Legal Nature of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent: The Approach of Iranian Contract Law

Mehdi Pirhaji¹, Mojtaba Nikdoosti¹ & Mohammad Reza Eskandari- Pudeh²

Correspondence: Mehdi Pirhaji, Faculty of Human Science and Law, Islamic Azad University of Isfahan (Khorasgan), Iran. Tel: 98-913-119-8926. E-mail: mahdi_pirhaji @yahoo.com

Received: January 5, 2013 Accepted: February 10, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014

Abstract

A contract can be defined as 'an agreement between two or more parties, which is legally binding.' Sometimes, people regret concluding a contract, and give up continuing it and fulfilling their obligations. Where the cancellation of contract is with the mutual consent of the parties, it is called *Ighale* (cancellation of contract by mutual consent). Cancellation of contract by mutual consent literally means to release, but in legal terms, it means mutual consent to the dismissal of a contract and its effects. This is different from termination of contract. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent, as found in the Iranian Civil Code, has its roots in Islamic rules. It is generally a kind of contract in itself, the condition for the validity of which must be satisfied, otherwise, it may not be considered a valid one. The main pillars of cancellation of contract by mutual consent are the parties' consent and intention; the parties' capacity; the subject matter of the cancellation; and the means of showing will. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent (*Ighale*) is stipulated in the second clause of Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code as a means for the discharge of obligation. The objective of this research is to examine the ambiguities associated with the concept of *Ighale* in Iranian Contract Law, and to suggest ways for eliminating such ambiguities in order to foster a better understanding of the concept. This is a library-based research, and the main method applied is analytic, although elements of a descriptive method are also visible.

Keywords: Iran, law, cancellation, agreement, contract, civil code, Ighale

1. Introduction

Iran is a country located in West Asia and the Middle East (Zarrinkoub, 2010), but with a legal system that has, since 1929, revolved around that of the West, especially the Roman-Germanic legal system (Harisinejad, 2009). However, such approximation did not mean that Islamic law was neglected altogether (Daneshpajouh, 2010). The drafters of the Iranian Civil Code extracted the section of the Code entitled "contracts and obligations" from the French Civil Code, but adapted it to Islamic law. Therefore, while Iranian Contract Law became closer in form to that of the Roman-Germanic (French) legal system, its content followed Islamic law (Zarini, 2005). There is no separate section entitled "Contract Law" in the Iranian Civil Code. Instead, most of the Articles relating to this subject are discussed under the title, "contracts and obligations" beginning from Article 183 onward. The Iranian legislators apparently considered the matter closely, and chose to adopt this format for the Civil Code.

Literally, cancellation of contract by mutual consent means release (Moin, 1985), but in legal terms, it refers to the mutual dissolution of a contract by mutual consent. In this regard, Article 283 of the Iranian Civil Code stipulates that after concluding a contract, parties may cancel it by mutual consent (Safai, 2008). An obligation is not eternal, and can be cancelled due to several reasons. Under Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code, the six means by which an obligation can be discharged are enumerated as follows:

- 1. fulfillment of obligation;
- 2. cancellation of contract by mutual consent;
- 3. release from obligation;
- 4. substitution of obligation;
- 5. set off and recoupment

¹ Faculty of Human Science and Law, Islamic Azad University of Isfahan (Khorasgan), Iran

² Department of Law, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

6. acquisition of debt.

The drafters of the Iranian Civil Code adopted Article 264 from Article 1234 of the French Civil Code, while making some modifications that they considered relevant to the Iranian legal system. It should be noted that Article 1234 of the French Civil Code contains nine means for the discharge of obligation, four of which (loss of the subject of contract, annulment or cancellation of contract, fulfillment of contract, and lapse of time) are not included in Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code. (Note 1) Instead, Article 264 only added cancellation of contract by mutual consent as a means for the discharge of obligation, which Article 1234 of the French Civil Code did not include among the nine means of discharge. However, in the second clause of Article 1134 of the French Civil Code, mutual consent is recognised as a way for the dissolution of contracts (Shahidi, 2011). When two parties conclude a contract to meet their needs and gain a profit, then that contract would have some legal effect, because each party had a specific intention and objective in concluding it. If after concluding the contract, however, the parties realise that they cannot achieve their desired objective, or regret concluding such a contract, then it could be cancelled by their mutual agreement (Esmailabadi, 2003). In such a case, cancellation is done by the mutual consent of the parties. This is called *Ighale* (Gharamalek & Ghasemi, 2010).

In the Iranian Civil Code, cancellation of contract by mutual consent has its origin in Islamic jurisprudence, having been derived from Islamic law (Roodijani, 2011). Generally speaking, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is a kind of contract, the conditions for the validity of which must be satisfied; otherwise, the alleged cancellation may not be considered a valid one (Safai, 2008). The main pillars of cancellation of contract by mutual consent (*Ighale*) are the parties' consent and intention; the parties' capacity; the subject matter of the cancellation, and the means of showing will. Islamic scholars are, however, divided on the nature of *Ighale* (Sadeghi, 2000). The essence of *Ighale* is the parties' mutual consent to the cancelling of the contract. Another characteristic of *Ighale* is that it is among those types of contracts that are considered irrevocable. This is because in a revocable contract, each of the parties can cancel the contract without more, whereas in an irrevocable contract, the consent of the other party is necessary. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent applies to all contracts and transactions, unless a contract has been excluded from this general principle for a certain reason. In Islamic law, contracts relating to marriage, endowment, and guarantee are excluded from cancellation by mutual agreement (Mortazavi, 2008).

Once the parties express their mutual intention to cancel, the transaction will be considered cancelled. The legal effect of the transaction will, however, continue during the time span between its existence, and the occurrence of its cancellation by mutual consent. This is because Ighale has no retroactive effect. If the contract is for the transfer of property, and that transfer has been done, the transferred property will be returned to the transferor upon the occurrence of the cancellation of contract by mutual consent. If the contract is for the transfer of ownership, such ownership will revert back to the transferee upon the occurrence of Ighale. If the subject matter of obligation is the transfer of property, or the performance of an act, which obligation has still not been fulfilled, then the transaction will be discharged upon the cancellation of contract by mutual consent. The destruction of one of the considerations of the contract (for example, money, or goods), will not impede the cancellation of contract by mutual consent. In such a case, once Ighale has occurred, the equivalent of the destroyed subject matter, where it is fungible, or its price, where it is non-fungible, will be given to the other party in place of what has been destroyed (Madani, 2004). The cancellation of a contract by mutual consent does not lead to the dissolution of that contract from the time of its formation. Rather, it only dissolves the contract from the time it is cancelled by mutual consent. Therefore, all the interests and accessories of the subject matter of the transaction gained during the time span between the conclusion of the contract and occurrence of *Ighale*, belong to the party who is, through contract, the owner of the subject matter of the transaction.

The objective of this paper is to eliminate the ambiguities associated with the concept of *Ighale* in Iranian Contract Law, in order to ensure that it is better understood. The paper will analyse the role of *Ighale* in Iranian contract law. The definition, nature, effects, scope and the conditions for the validity of *Ighale* are among the issues to be considered here. Furthermore, the paper will reveal the status of *Ighale* in Iranian contracts. The results of this research would be useful to law students, academics, attorneys, and judges. The research underlying the paper is of the library type, and the main method employed is analytic, with some elements of the descriptive and analytical methods.

2. Definition of Ighale

Ighale literally means negligence. In legal terms, it means a contract the subject matter of which is the dissolution of the initial contract, wholly or partially, and in which the consent and agreement of both parties accompanied by their will is necessary (Langroudi, 2008). Iranian legislators have not provided a clear-cut definition for *Ighale*. However, some of its characteristics are mentioned in Articles 283 to 288 of the Iranian

Civil Code. It is also mentioned among the means for the discharge of obligation in Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code. Lexicologists and Islamic jurisprudents disagree on whether the word *Ighale* is derived from "ghole" or "ghil" (Afrighi, 1987), with each faction providing some argument in support of their views (Maraghei, 1997). Nevertheless, this has not led to any clear conclusion on the matter (Esmailabadi, 2003).

Cancellation of contract occurs upon the regret of one party and his request to cancel the contract, coupled by the acceptance of other party to do so (Akrami, 2011). The term *Ighale* is used for the dismissal of irrevocable contracts. Therefore, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is among the main characteristics of irrevocable contracts, and such contracts can be cancelled by mutual consent. In other words, cancellation of contract by mutual consent means the agreement of both parties to the cancellation of an existing contract (Maraghei, 1997). In a stricter sense, it is 'mutual consent to the dismissal of a contract and its effects.' Cancellation of contract by mutual consent is a bilateral action. This means that the will and intention of both parties should be to cancel the contract. In Islamic law, there are several Hadiths (narratives) on the permission of *Ighale*.

3. The Nature of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent

3.1 Ighale Is a Cancellation

Iranian jurisprudents have accepted the view that *Ighale* is the cancellation of a contract (Vahidi, 2003). Accordingly, they believe that if parties cancel a sale contract by mutual consent, the contract terminates right from the formation of the parties' will, and it will have no effect in the future. However, such a cancellation cannot disrupt the pervious effect of the contract (Helli, 2008). This means that before the occurrence of *Ighale*, the object of sale and its accessories belong to the customer, while the price and its accessories belong to the seller. Thus, contrary to nullity, which has a retroactive effect, the effect of the dissolution of a contract through *Ighale* only relates to the future, meaning the period following the occurrence of *Ighale* (not before), just like cancellation and termination (Bojnourdi, 2003).

3.2 Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent Is Sale

The view that the cancellation of a contract by mutual consent is a sale has some adherents among Islamic jurisprudents. (Note 2) Those jurisprudents consider *Ighale* as a secondary sale contract, and the subject matter of this sale is returned to the seller on the same basis as it has previously been excluded from the ownership of the buyer. Islamic jurisprudents disagree on the nature of *Ighale*, however (Najafi, 1999).

3.3 Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent Is a New Contract

The view that the cancellation of contract by mutual consent is a new contract has been espoused by the authors of legal textbooks, such as Langroudi (2008). The main argument that the advocates of this view provide, is that there is the element of parties' mutual consent and will in the realisation of *Ighale*. This is because, on the one hand, Article 283 of the Iranian Civil Code provides that, after a transaction has been concluded, parties may cancel it by mutual consent, and on the other, the Article suggests that the essence of a contract is mutual consent, by providing that a contract is made when one or more persons make a mutual agreement with another one or more persons on a certain thing and that agreement is accepted by the latter person or persons (Khui, 1992).

However, from an examination of the above theories, it seems that the first one – *Ighale* as a cancellation – is more logical and justifiable since on the one hand, it is more relevant to the literal meaning of *Ighale*; and on the other, the parties' intention and motivation is to discharge the former contract. Therefore, *Ighale* is a cancellation, not a new contract or sale (Bagheri, 2004). *Ighale* is in, general terms, a kind of contract the conditions for the validity of which must be satisfied; otherwise, it may not be considered a valid one (Mahmasani, 1948). The estate of a deceased is not a distinct legal entity, and upon his death, it will be transferred to the heirs, losing its monetary entity. Therefore, the heirs are not entitled to cancel it by mutual consent, even as liquidators (Mahlli).

In Iranian Contract Law, the agreement and mutual consent of both parties is the basis for the dissolution of a contract. This means that one party alone cannot cancel the contract. Therefore, *Ighale* is realised by the parties' mutual consent (Article 283 of the Iranian Civil Code), while cancellation is achieved only by the will of an individual party who has the right of cancellation, and there is no need for the consent of the other party (Akrami, 2012). Cancellation dissolves the transaction entirely, and anything obtained by the parties from it must be returned to its owner once the cancellation occurs. Therefore, it cannot be said that cancellation is effective with regard to some aspects of the subject matter of the transaction, but not to the other aspects of it, even if the subject matter of the transaction is separable (Yazdi, 1998). *Ighale* should not be considered equal to, and the same as the right of cancellation (Sabzevari, 1995).

Certainly, in order to be realised, *Ighale* needs to rest on some pillars, which should be examined in terms of conditions and qualities. The main pillars of *Ighale* are: the parties' intention and consent; the parties' capacity; the subject matter of the cancellation; and the means of expressing will (Shahidi, 2010).

4. Parties' Intention and Consent

The cancellation of contract by mutual consent, like other contracts and transactions, needs the intention and consent of both parties. Therefore, in this sense, *Ighale* is the same as other contracts. Just as the intention of the parties is required in order to validly create a contract, so is their intention required in order to terminate the effect of that contract. *Ighale* does not occur simply upon the consent of both parties, without intention (Shahidi, 2010). The consent of both parties is also required for the realisation of *Ighale*; if either party does not consent, the purported cancellation of contract by mutual consent shall be null and void.

4.1 Parties' Capacity

Both parties in a cancellation of contract by mutual consent need to have capacity to cancel the transaction. Thus, the cancellation of a contract by mutual consent by insane persons or non-discerning minors is null and void due to the lack of intention. Also, the cancellation of a contract by the mutual consent of natural fools, and discerning minors is null and void because it affects their financial affairs, and other possessions (Alsan, 2003). However, *Ighale* by natural fools, and discerning minors should not be considered as ineffective at all events. It could be effective by virtue of the subsequent consent of their legal guardians. This is because the non-effectiveness alluded to above only relates, as a general rule, to contracts concluded by such fools and discerning minors, and there is no reason to generalise it to all cases of cancellation of contract by their mutual consent *simpliciter*.

4.2 The Subject Matter of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent

This refers to the contract or its effects, which shall be dismissed once the intention to do so occurs. Therefore, the subject matter of cancellation of contract by mutual consent is different from the subject matter of a contract concerning which *Ighale* occurs. The subject matter of a contract is a property, or an act which is undertaken, or forborne, whereas the subject matter of *Ighale*, is the contract itself, or its legal effects (Gharamaleki & Ghasemi, 2011).

The cancellation of contract by mutual consent may apply to any type of contract, except for marriage and endowment contracts, which, due to their social and intellectual nature, may not be cancelled by mutual consent. It is not required that the subject matter of the cancellation by mutual consent be the whole contract or all its effects. Rather, according to the Article 285 of the Iranian Civil Code, the cancellation can relate to only a part of the subject matter of the contract.

4.3 Means of Expressing Will

According to Article 284 of the Iranian Civil Code, *Ighale* can be by way of any words or acts, which imply the cancellation of contract. Therefore, in expressing the intention and will for *Ighale*, no specific words are required. *Ighale* is proven by the act showing the parties' intention. For example, when a buyer, after the completion of a transaction, puts the object of the transaction in front of the seller, and the seller gives back to him the price paid, picking up the object of the transaction without any words being expressed by either party, that will amount to *Ighale* by conduct (Shahidi, 2010, p. 119).

5. Scope of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent

5.1 Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent in Contracts

Based on the comments of Islamic jurists, the hadiths (traditions), as well as provisions in the Iranian Civil Code on *Ighale*, one may conclude that the preliminary principle is that *Ighale* can be executed in all contracts, unless a contract has, for any reason, been excluded from this principle (Maraghi, 1997).

Therefore, one should seek for a reason appropriate to this principle for the exclusion of particular contract(s) from its scope; otherwise the effectiveness of *Ighale* in all contracts will definitely be upheld, without more. If, in any particular case, the applicability of *Ighale* is challenged contrary to the principle that it applies to all contracts, then evidence should be provided to show that *Ighale* is inapplicable, and the mere absence of such evidence will suffice to conclude that *Ighale* is effective in that contract (Bagheri, 2004). Nonetheless, it seems that, it is the first theory (preliminary principle) mentioned above, namely, that *Ighale* is applicable to all contracts, which is accepted in Islamic jurisprudence, and consequently by the Civil Code, because there are just three types of contracts in which the effectiveness of *Ighale* is debatable:

5.2 Marriage Contracts

According to Islamic jurisprudence, a marriage contract may not be cancelled by mutual consent (Sabzevari, 1995). In addition to consensus, the main reason for the illegality of *Ighale* in marriage is the characteristic of marriage contracts, which go beyond mere contracts and agreements between two persons. Therefore, they cannot be cancelled by the mutual consent of those two persons. Rather, a marriage is an act associated with the public interest, and is closely tied to humanistic values. Furthermore, the legislator, and consequently the law, has set a special rule – called divorce – for the breaking of marriage contracts, which is based on the aforementioned interests.

5.3 Endowment

This is the same as a marriage in that it has an unbreakable tie with the public interest, and particularly, in the view of some Islamic jurisprudents, it is conditioned by eternity. It is so obvious that when, for example, a person endows a property to an educational institution, cancellation by mutual consent may make no sense, because this is a unilateral act. Although this argument covers both public and individual endowment, it is much stronger in the case of public endowment (Yazdi, 1998).

5.4 Guarantee

Although limited to the guarantor, the creditor and the principal debtor – and in this regard, is different from a marriage, which affects the public order, the effect of a guarantee may impede the realisation of *Ighale* (Alsan, 2003). This is because, according to Islamic jurisprudence, after the performance of a guarantee contract, the liability of the principal debtor may be cleared, while the guarantor may remain under obligation (Maraghei).

5.4.1 Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent in Unilateral Legal Acts

The main distinction between a contract and a unilateral legal act, in terms of their effect, is that one is possessory, while the other is extinctive (waiving). It means that most contracts contain new possessions, such as sale, lease, donation, debt, and endowment, while most unilateral legal acts entail waiver or removal of the effect or obligation, such as divorce, which waives the marital relationship, or acquit, which releases the debtor from his liability (Sadr, 2005).

The Iranian Civil Code endorses the view of the cancellation of a prior contract upon the occurrence of *Ighale*. However, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is naturally a contract, and therefore, it is required to meet all the basic conditions for the validity of contracts (Gharamaleki, 2010).

5.4.2 Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent in the Iranian Civil Code

Since the content of the Iranian Civil Code is derived from Islamic jurisprudence, it upholds the theory that the cancellation of contract by mutual consent leads to the termination of a previous contract. However, it should be remembered that, as noted above, since cancellation of contract by mutual consent is also a form of contract, it must meet all the necessary conditions for the validity of contracts. Nonetheless, *Ighale* is a secondary contract, which is created due to the existence of the former contract, and the shared intention of the parties is for nothing, but the dissolution of that former contract and the removal of its effects. However, can the effects resulting from the contract be cancelled by mutual consent? Of course, these effects cannot be separated from the contract itself, and as the main goal of both parties is to cancel the contract, cancellation of contract by mutual consent may not be allowed just because the effects of a contract can be cancelled by mutual consent. In this regard, Iranian legislators, in Article 287 of the Civil Code, have considered the integral interests as the property of the party who is the owner through cancellation of contract by mutual consent. Because, integral interests are not separable from the object of a transaction, it is obvious that after *Ighale*, these interests shall be returned back to the former owner who is the seller of the object of the transaction (Abrahimid, 2009)

The Iranian Civil Code includes the cancellation of contract by mutual consent as one of the means for the discharge of obligation. Article 264 stipulates that obligations may be discharged by *Ighale*. The defect of this Article is that it considers *Ighale* as a means for the discharge of obligation, whereas the cancellation of contract by mutual consent is the destruction and removal of the origin of obligation. There is a major difference between the discharge of an obligation, and the discharge of its origin. In other words, the substitution of obligation, set off and recoupment, or acquisition of debts directly discharge the obligation, while the origin of obligation remains intact. However, when a sale contract is cancelled by mutual consent, the contract itself, rather than just its obligations, may be dissolved (Ghaemmaghami, 1977). Nonetheless, as the origin of the obligation is discharged, the obligations resulting from it will consequently be discharged. Therefore the status, which the drafters of the Iranian Civil Code gave to *Ighale* is not justifiable, unless an obligation is to be considered equal to, and the same as a contract (Katouzian, 1999). It must be stressed that the two concepts of contract and

obligation are not the same, and should not be used interchangeably (Gharamaleki and Ghasemi, 2011). There exists no separate section entitled 'Contract Law' in the Iranian Civil Code, and most of the Articles relating to this subject are discussed under the title of 'contracts and obligations' from Article 183 onward, a format that the Iranian legislators have conceivably accepted.

In the Iranian Civil Code, the dissolution of contracts is of the following three types:

- 1. Dissolution by the will of one party, which is called termination. And since the will of just one party is engaged, dissolution can be included among unilateral legal acts.
- Compulsory dissolution which takes place automatically without the will of either party. In legal terms, it is called automatic termination like the automatic termination of a client-attorney contract due to the death of one party (Article 954 of the Iranian Civil Code).
- 3. Dissolution by the consent of both parties, which is called cancellation of contract by mutual consent. This is considered a means for the discharge of obligation in the second clause of Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code (Vahidi, 2003).

The Iranian Civil Code defines the cancellation of contract by mutual consent and its features in Articles 283 to 288 as follows:

Article 283 – after being concluded, the transaction may be cancelled by mutual consent.

Article 284 – cancellation of contract by mutual consent may occur through any words or acts which imply the cancellation of contract.

Article 285 – cancellation of contract by mutual consent may cover the whole or some parts of the transaction.

Article 286 – destruction of one of the considerations of the contract does not impede the cancellation of contract by mutual consent; in this case, the equivalent of the destroyed object, where it is fungible, or its price, where it is non-fungible, will be given to the party in return for the destroyed object.

Article 287– separable accretions and benefits gained during the time span between the conclusion of the contract and the occurrence of *Ighale*, belong to the party who is the owner through contract. However, integral accessories belong to the party who is the owner through cancellation of contract by mutual consent.

Article 288 – if the owner, after concluding the contract, takes over the object of the transaction, causing an increase in its price, then the parties may be entitled in proportion to the price increase, once *Ighale* occurs. (Mirzaee, 2009)

In view of Article 283, cancellation of contract by mutual consent may be defined as: "cancellation of the former transaction by mutual consent." Therefore, for *Ighale* to be realised, the following two factors are required:

- 1. The occurrence of the former transaction.
- 2. Mutual consent to the cancellation of the transaction.

By 'the former transaction', is meant a valid and effective transaction. Thus, cancellation of contract by mutual consent may not be effective for invalid and non-effective transactions. The word 'transaction' covers all kinds of contracts, and is not limited to any specific type of contract. This is because, firstly, the word 'transaction' in Article 283 of the Iranian Civil Code is absolute. Secondly, mutual consent may discard any limitation and restraint, and as mutual consent to a contract causes obligation, it can also cause the discharge of that obligation. This is why the Iranian Civil Code discusses *Ighale* under the section entitled 'contracts' (Yazdi, 1998).

6. Effects of Cancellation of Contract by Mutual Consent

- 1. A transaction is dissolved once the parties express their intention to cancel it.
- 2. During the time span between the conclusion of the contract and the occurrence of *Ighale*, the effects of the transaction shall persist because cancellation of contract by mutual consent does not have a retroactive effect.
- 3. If the obligation is for the transfer of property, and this transfer has occurred already, the transferred property will be returned to the transferor upon the occurrence of *Ighale*.
- 4. In cases where the contract is possessory, the former owner shall regain ownership upon the occurrence of *Ighale*.
- 5. If the obligation is for the transfer of property, or the performance of an act, which has not yet been fulfilled, the obligation shall be discharged upon the occurrence of *Ighale*.

- 6. The destruction of one of the considerations of the contract does not impede *Ighale*. In this case, the equivalent of the destroyed object, where it is fungible, or its price, where it is non-fungible, will be given to the party in return for the destroyed object (Madani, 2005).
- 7. Dissolution of contract upon the occurrence of *Ighale*: the cancellation of contract by mutual consent does not dissolve the contract *ab initio*; rather, it only causes the dissolution of the contract at the point in time when the cancellation occurs, and does not have a retroactive effect. Therefore, all separable accretions and benefits gained during the time span between the conclusion of the contract, and the occurrence of *Ighale*, belong to the party who is the owner through contract. However, integral accessories such as price increase, tree growth, and sheep fattening, belong to the party who is the owner through *Ighale*. In this regard, Article 287 of the Iranian Civil Code stipulates that separable accretions and benefits gained during the time span between the conclusion of a contract, and the occurrence of *Ighale* belong to the party who is the owner through *Ighale*.

7. Conclusion

A contract can be defined as "an agreement between two or more parties, which is legally binding," while an obligation is "a legal relationship, which result is the transfer of property, whether monetary or non-monetary; or the performance, or non-performance of an act; or the discharge of a legal right." Obligations may, willingly or unwillingly, be terminated at some time in the future; the obligor may fulfill his obligation and be released from liability. This means that an obligation is not eternal, and one should not suppose that a debtor is always indebted to the creditor. Therefore, the obligations of real and legal persons may be discharged through one of the means determined by legislators. In Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code, six such means for the discharge of obligation are provided as follows:

- 1. fulfillment of obligation;
- 2. cancellation of contract by mutual consent;
- 3. release from obligation;
- 4. substitution of obligation;
- 5. set off and recoupment
- 6. acquisition of debts.

The drafters of the Iranian Civil Code adopted the aforementioned Article from Article 1234 of the French Civil Code, by making some changes to it, in order to make it relevant to the Iranian legal system. It should be noted that Article 1234 of the French Civil Code has stipulated nine means for the discharge of obligation, four of which (loss of the subject matter of contract, annulment or cancellation of contract, fulfillment of contract and lapse of time) are not included in Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code. Instead, Article 264 of the Iranian Civil Code simply added the cancellation of contract by mutual consent as a means for the discharge of obligation, whereas Article 1234 of the French Civil Code has not included this among its means of obligation discharge. However, in the second clause of Article 1134 of the French Civil Code, mutual consent is recognised as a way for the dissolution of a contract.

Literally, *Ighale* means the cancellation or dissolution of a contract by mutual consent. Sometimes, people regret concluding a contract and give up it, as well as the fulfilment of their obligations. In situations where the cancellation of contract is with the mutual consent of the parties, it is called *Ighale* (cancellation of contract by mutual consent). There is no separate section under the title of "Contract Law" in the Iranian Civil Code. Most of the Articles relating to this subject are discussed under the title of "contracts and obligations" from Article 183 onward in the Civil Code, and the Iranian legislators have tended to prefer this format. Although, with respect to form, the Iranian Civil Code is derived from the French Civil Code, in terms of content, it is close to Sharia. As a result, in drafting Article 264, Iranian legislators chose some means for the discharge of obligation from the French Civil Code, while adding to them the cancellation of contract by mutual consent (derived from Sharia). Iranian legislators also failed to provide definitions for most of the means for the discharge of obligation enumerated in Article 264, neither did they provide a justification for the type of classification they adopted in that Article.

That omission on the part of the Iranian legislators has caused some ambiguities in the interpretation of Article 264 of the Civil Code. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent literally means dissolution, but in legal terms, it refers to the mutual consent of the parties to the cancellation of the relevant contract. This concept is discussed in Articles 283 to 288 of the Iranian Civil Code. Since the cancellation of contract by mutual consent was derived from Islamic texts and Sharia, and included in the Civil Code among the means for the discharge of obligation by Iranian legislators, the basis of the classification in the French Civil Code was not considered in so

doing. In Islamic texts and verdicts, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is effective only for monetary contracts, but not for non-monetary ones like marriage contracts. This is because according to Article 1120 of the Iranian Civil Code, marriage contracts may be dissolved only by cancellation, divorce, or waiver of the remaining period. Therefore, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is effective only in some contracts (monetary), but not in others (non-monetary).

Even endowment, which is among the most important contracts in Islam, may not be cancelled by mutual consent. This is because in *Ighale*, the agreement of both parties is needed, whereas an endowed property does not have any specific owner. Therefore, questions may arise as to why the cancellation of contract by mutual consent was included among the means for the discharge of obligation by Iranian legislators. It seems that no clear-cut distinction has been made between the concepts of contract and obligation, even though these two concepts are quite different from each other. Obligation is the liability resulting from a contract, and not the contract itself. This is why the cancellation of contract by mutual consent was not included in the Obligation Law of a country such as Egypt whose legal system is the same as those of Iran, France, and Switzerland.

Cancellation of contract by mutual consent is not a contract in the true sense of the word. Rather, it is just the cancellation by mutual consent of a previously concluded contract. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent may take place by way of any words, or acts, which imply the cancellation of the transaction (Article 284 of the Iranian Civil Code). Therefore, it is likely that parties show their intention for cancellation by simply expressing some words, or even by doing an act without saying anything. In the latter case, for example, one party simply returns back the transacted property to the other, implying the intention to cancel. In sum, cancellation of contract by mutual consent is a consenting (informal) legal act, which may be either implicit, or explicit.

The cancellation of a contract by mutual consent is a kind of contract in general terms, the conditions for the validity of which must be satisfied; otherwise, the purported cancellation may not be recognised as a valid one. Certainly, in order to bring it about, *Ighale* needs to rest on some pillars, which should be examined in terms of conditions and qualities. The main pillars of *Ighale* are: the parties' intention and consent; the parties' capacity; the subject matter of the cancellation; and the means of expressing will. Islamic scholars disagree on the nature of cancellation of contract by mutual consent, however. The essence of cancellation of contract by mutual consent is the parties' mutual consent to the cancelling of the contract. Another characteristic of cancellation of contract by mutual consent is that it ranks among irrevocable contracts. This is because in a revocable contract, each of the parties can cancel the contract without any reason, whereas in an irrevocable one, the consent of the other party is necessary. Cancellation of contract by mutual consent applies to all contracts, unless a particular contract has been excluded from this general principle due to a specific reason. In Islamic law, such contracts are those relating to marriage, endowment and gurantee, all of which are excluded from this general principle. This paper aimed at analysing the role of cancellation of contract by mutual consent (*Ighale*) in Iranian Contract Law. It examined relevant definitions, and discussed the nature, effects, scope of, as well as the conditions for *Ighale* in the Iranian Civil Code.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Faculty of Law in Universiti Khorasgan Iran. We also would like to express profound gratitude to Prof Dr. Sayyed Hossein Vaezi for her valuable support, encouragement, and useful suggestions throughout this research work. We are also highly thankful to Prof Dr. Mahmud Jalali for their helpful advice and guidance during conducting this research.

References

Abrahimid, Z. (2009). Cancellation of a contract by mutual consent. Journal of Legal Series of Justice, (18), 1.

Afrighi, I. M. (1987). Arabic Language (1st ed.). Language Center Publication, Beirut, Lebanon.

Akrami, K. (2012). *Dissolution, revocation and Ighale: Their differences in Statute.* Retrieved from http://www.vekalatonline.ir/articles/

AllameHelli, H. I. Y. (2008). The Biography of Jurisprudents (1st ed.). Bita Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Alsan, M. (2003). An Analysis of the probability of Cancelling Liability Contract by Mutual Consent. *Journal of Legal Views*, (21), 15.

Bagheri, A. (2004). Discharge of Obligations (1st ed.). An Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Daneshpajouh, M. (2010). *An Introduction on Law: Approaching Iranian and Islamic Law* (1st ed.). Tehran: Samt Publication, Thran, Iran.

Esmailabadi, A. R. (2003). A Look at the nature of Ighale and its rules. *Jurisprudence Journal*, (37-38), 219.

Ghaemmaghami, A. M. (1977). Contracts Law (2nd ed.). Tehran: Tehran University Press. Tehran, Iran.

Gharamaleki, A., & Ghasemi H. (2011). Re-examination of the Nature of Ighale in Jurisprudence and Iranian Law. *Journal of Jurisprudence and Principles of Islamic Law*, (1), 175-195. Tehran, Iran.

Gharamaleki, M. (2010). Niture of cancellation of contract by mutual consent. *Jurisprudence Islamic law Journal*, (1), 175-190.

Harisinejad, K. (2009). Contemplation in Iranian Modern Law Effectiveness from the Roman-German Legal System. *Legal Journal of Political Science Faculty Magazine*, 39(2). Tehran, Iran.

Jafari Langroudi, J. (2008). Encyclopedia of Civil and Business Laws. Ganje Danesh publication, Tehan, Iran.

Katouzian, N. (1999). Civil Code (3rd ed.). Ganj - e - Danesh Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Khui, S. A. (1992). MinhajusSalihin (2nd ed., Vol, 11). Na'man Publication, Najaf: Iraq.

Madani, J. (2004). Civil Liability, Automatic Liability (3rd ed.). Paydar Publication, Tehan, Iran.

Mahlli, M. (2010). An Analysis of possibility of inheriting Ighale in Imamia Jurisprudence and Iranian Civil Code. Haghgostar Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Mahmasani, S. (1948). The General Theory on Obligations and Contracts (2nd ed.).

Maraghei, A. F. (1997). The Titles (2nd ed.). Qom: Nashr-e-Islami Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Mirzaee, A. (2009). Persian and English Civil Code (1st ed.). Behnam publications, Tehran, Iran.

Moin, M. (1985). Persian Dictionary (7th ed.). Tehran: Amirkabir Publication. Tehran, Iran.

Mortazavi, A. H. (2008). General Rules of Contracts (1st ed.). Tehran, Niktab Publications, Tehran, Iran.

Mousavi Bojnourdi, S. M. (2003). Jurisprudential and legal analysis of Ighale. *Journal of eternal heritage*, (45), 2-12. Tehran, Iran.

Najafi, M. (1999). JawahirulKalam fi Shahraiul Islam (15th ed.). Attaba alula, Beirut, Qom, Iran.

Roodijani, M. M. (2011). Discharge of obligation (1st ed.). Ava Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Sabzevari, A. A. (1995). Courteous Provisions (18th ed.). Al-Menar Publication, Qom, Iran.

Sadeghi, S. R. (2000). Cancellation of Bargain by Mutual Consent in Emamie Jurisprudence and Law of Iran and France (LLM Thesis). Emam Sadegh University, Tehran.

Sadr, M. (1995). Beyond the Jurisprudence (3rd ed.). Beirut: Dar al-AzvaPublication, Qom, Iran.

Safai, H. (2008). General Principles of Contracts (6th ed.). Tehran: Mizan Publication.

Sahvari, A. R. (2005). The Right Sources in Islamic Jurisprudence (2nd ed.). Beirut Publication, Qom, Iran.

Shahidi, M. (2011). Discharge of Obligations (10th ed.). Majd Publication, Tehran, Iran.

Vahidi, A. H. (2003). Ighale – a factor of discharge of obligation. The research center of Human Sciences and Cultural Studies. *Kanoun Journal*, (51), 95-110. Tehran.

Yazdi, M. K. (1998). Question and Answer. Tehran: Research center of Human Sciences, (324), 191-194. Iran.

Zarini, H., & Hajirian, H. (2005). Contemporary History, Judiciary, and its Development (1st ed.). Iran.

Zarrinkoub, A. H. (2010). Islam's Log (14th ed.). Mizan Publications, Tehran, Iran.

Notes

Note 1. It seems this is as a result of the distinction made between obligation and contract, with the explanation that *Ighale* directly causes the discharge of the origin of obligation and not the obligation itself. At the same time, it can be said that since *Ighale* is a means for the discharge of a contract, it can consequently cause the discharge of obligation. Therefore, it should be included among the means for the discharge of obligation.

Note 2. Ahmad Ibn e Mohammad ibn e Morteza (Al bahr Al Zakhar), Ibn e Ghodameh (Al Moghanni), Sheikh e Tousi (Al Mabsout), Hosseini e Ameli (Meftah Al karameh).

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

The Impact of Leader's Cultural Intelligence on Organizational Commitment

Roya Anvari¹, Sobia Irum¹, Muhammad Ashfaq¹ & Dauda Mohammed Atiyaye¹

¹Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia

Correspondence: Roya Anvari, Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia. Tel: 60-17-245-8894. E-mail: roya.anvari@utm.my

Received: March 5, 2013 Accepted: June 19, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p45 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p45

Abstract

Previous studies have consistently shown that Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is an important skill in today's organizations. The literature on leadership suggests that CQ has the potential to increase both employee commitment and organizational outcomes. This study is a survey related to leadership style at organizations. The research attempts to investigate how leaders affect staff's Organizational Commitment (OC). We found that there is a significant relationship between leaders' CQ who operates with meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral with OC. Moreover, the quality of leadership within an organization had an effect on the OC.

Keywords: leadership, cultural intelligence, organizational commitment

1. Introduction

Leadership is considered as the core heart of organization and employee performance is attributed to its leadership. Thus, the organizational success or failure depends upon the way, the kind of leadership which has been provided to its members (Bodla, 2010). Leadership particularly refers to managers who are mainly concerned with the strategy formulation at overall organizational level (Pieterse et al., 2010; Berson et al., 2006). Leaders are supposed to be have direct effect on organizational members' behaviors also, the charisma and clear vision of these executives have profound effects on the entire organization (de Vries et al., 2002; Wang, Tsui & Xin, 2011). Therefore, on individual level, it becomes almost difficult to calculate the effects of managers on employees' behaviors (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). However, at operational level, influence of immediate supervisors on employees' behaviors and motivation is so much obvious. (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Wang et al., 2010). Historically, characteristics and capabilities of leaders have long been a topic of interest in leadership studies. The trait theory of leadership was proposed to emphasize that the leader is the central person who integrates the group and possesses the greatest number of desirable personality traits (Zaccaro et al., 2004). However, dissatisfaction with inadequately addressing how leadership traits influence followers and their work, the behavior theory was developed to expand the leadership concept beyond the perspective of personal traits. The most famous study of behavior theory conducted by the Ohio State leadership studies helped to develop the constructs of initiating structure and consideration of leadership (Judge et al., 2004). In the 1970s, theorists became more focused on the study of effective leadership behaviors (Chemers, 2000). One well-known theory is contingency theory, which stated that leadership behaviors vary from situation to situation. Other research showed (Vecchio et al., 2008) that the effective leader indicates, through a series of transactions with followers, the path they need to follow to achieve the valued goals. Currently, the field of leadership research is in transition regarding the essential behaviors of leaders, shifting from earlier versions of initiating structure, consideration, and transactional leaders to transformational leaders (Sumner et al., 2006). The transformational leadership theory was derived from Barbuto (2005) qualitative classification of transactional and transformational political leaders and was extended by Frittz (2005). Transactional leadership, based on relationship between leader-follower is series of exchanges or bargains between leaders and followers. On the other hand, transformational leadership emphasizes the changes leaders instill in their followers by raising the perspectives of their needs and by providing opportunities for them to develop capabilities (Frittz, 2005). Unlike the traditional leadership theories that focused on rational processes, the transformational leadership theory emphasizes emotions and values (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Thus, this study in context of contemporary organizations focuses on combining these three theories in a research framework to determine the effective leadership process. In continuity, Avolio, (2010) have conceptualized full-range leadership theory which includes the existence of and constellation of leadership style or behaviors, ranging transformational behaviors to laissez fair (those who basically do nothing while expecting results from the followers). A large number of studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of leadership on different kinds of organizational settings, such as businesses (Bass & Bass, 2009; Howell et al., 2005; Rubin et al., 2005; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003 Anvari et al., 2013; Anvari et al., 2014). Similarity large number of studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of leadership on followers outcomes such as job performance (Halldorsson and Offermann, 1999; Anvari and Amin, 2010; Hayward, 2006; Hernandez, 2010; Shahhosseini et al., 2013), and job satisfaction (Spinelli, 2004; Tsai, 2008, Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Few studies have actually tested the relationship between leadership style (full range leadership style) and OC (Spinelli, 2004; Vecchio et al., 2008; Shahhosseini et al., 2013; Anvari, 2014). Previous work has found links between transformational leadership behavior of managers and both task (Howell et al., 2005; Rickards & Moger, 2006) and citizenship performance (Rubin et al., 2005; Boerner et al., 2007; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Boerner et al., 2007; Rubin et al., 2005; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010) of subordinates. Also previous work has found links between transformational and (Geijsel et al., 2003) transactional leadership behavior and increased job satisfaction for followers, increase motivation toward extra effort for followers, and perceived leaders effectiveness. Many studied about the relationship between leadership and performance show that is a strong relationship exist between transformational leadership and performance (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Thomas (2004) demonstrated that, capability of continuous adaptation with individuals from different cultures and ability to manage inter-cultural relations is of importance among required skills. This ability called cultural intelligence (CQ). Working in international workplace needs familiar people to different cultures who could relate with people from other cultures. According to the definitions of cultural intelligence, it is clearly defined that since a manager possesses different cultural backgrounds with various people in all over the world, it may be possible for him to create serious contradiction in exposure with different people with various cultures. Indeed, the lack of cultural intelligence in culturally diverse business environments among leaders have adverse effects on workplace successes, team effectiveness (Ng, 2011; Kim & Van Dyne, 2012), cross cultural leadership (Dekker et al., 2008; Deng and Gibson, 2008), productivity (Earley et al., 2006); (Ang & Inkpen, 2008) and business competence (Janssens & Brett, 2006). Empirical research on cultural intelligence is rapidly growing and has been the focus of recent research on the effective functioning of foreign professional executive (Ang et al., 2007; Lee, 2010; Tay et al., 2000) and international adjustment (Templer et al., 2006). Few major studies that have dealt with the relationship between cultural intelligence and OC (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Rose et al., 2010; Ang et al., 2007; Ang et al., 2006; Anvari, 2014). In all these studies it was found that there is a significant positive relationship between CQ and job performance, implying that greater the level of CQ, greater the level of job performance. Griffin et al. (2007) argued that meeting the role expectations is an important element in the assessment of individual job performance. Stone-Romero et al. (2003) further stated that in the international assignments, individuals often receive poor job performance evaluation from their superiors when they have a different cultural background, do not understand cultural differences in role expectations, and do not conform to role expectations. It should be noticed that many managers who are successful in cultural environment would encounter with efficiency and effectiveness by entering a strange environment while some others, by changing the cultural environment, are able to adapt their performance with the new conditions easily (Triandis, 2006). On the other hand, in the world competition field, many of the organizations have changed their leadership style from a transactional leadership approach to a transformational one so that they could achieve their goals and strategies. So one of the subjects which the managers should change along changing the conditions is their leadership method and the next subject is learning the proper and new capabilities that one of them is cultural intelligence (Dean, 2007). This is not is not out of mind that the managers with high cultural intelligence tend to the close and powerful behavior methods. In addition, leaders that have cultural intelligence increase organizational commitment (OC). Conducting this study on the effects of leadership style on OC with the role of cultural intelligence will help leaders to develop higher commitment and better organizational outcomes.

1.1 Cultural Intelligence and OC

Successful leadership in modern organizations become more and more upon cultural intelligence leadership (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Leaders with high CQ may make possible the satisfaction and performance of their employee by the considerate the impact of cultural values one brings to the workplace, being able to analyze and adapt suitable leadership style and prospect to specific cross-cultural situation, and recognize the weaknesses of the different personal represented by culturally diverse workers (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005). In addition, manger's CQ will have and more positive impact on job performance with employee with low CQ than for

employee with high CQ. Therefore, employee with high CQ requires less managerial interference. Employee with low CQ may be less adapt in this skills, and may more advantage more from managerial interference that help them better manage cultural opportunity in thinking and behaviors that lead to more confidence, sense of control, and positive interaction, that translate to higher commitment and performance. This study goes forward to support the conceptual content proposed by Anvari et al. (2014), who initially mentioned that the relationship between workplace CQ and outcomes could be tied directly with positive employee attitudes. Therefore, the aim in this paper was to evaluate the association between CQ and OC as a positive behavioural outcome (Figure 1).

H: There is a significant and positive relationship between cultural intelligence and organizational commitment.

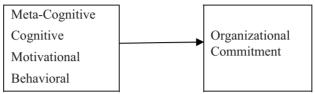


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

2. Method

2.1 Design

This study is a descriptive correlational survey that utilized quantitative methodology to investigate the association between four dimensions of CQ, meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ and Organisational Commitment. In this cross-sectional study, a questionnaire-based survey method was used for data collection.

2.2 Population and Sampling

There is total of 310 faculty members in University Technology Malaysia (UTM) that 14 of them were chosen to answer the survey questionnaire. Respondents of this study include 310 from 1654 academic staff who are working full time in University Technology Malaysia Skudi (UTM).

2.3 Measurements

Two survey instruments were used in the current study to assess emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Respondents were also requested to supply information about their qualifications, gender, working experience, age and occupation status. And also, rice and ranking of his/her job for head of department.

2.3.1 Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) was used to measure the four dimensions of cultural intelligence (Ang, 2007) The 20-item scale (Appendix C) CQS was composed of the meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ factors and used a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from (1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 "strongly agree") for subjects to select the belief that corresponds best to their cultural beliefs (Ang et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2008). According to (Ang et al., 2005) confirmatory factor analysis yielded good validity and reliability. All four subscales (Meta-cognition CQ (α = .76); Cognitive CQ (α = .84); Motivation CQ (α = .77); and Behavioral CQ (α = .84)) had high Cronbach alpha values. In the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients for each subscale were Meta-cognition CQ (α = .83); Cognitive CQ (α = .89); Motivation CQ (α = .85); Behavioral CQ (α = .87), and an overall Cronbach alpha coefficient (α = .90).

2.3.2 Organizational Commitment (OCS)

This questionnaire has been written by Mayer and Allen (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997) and included 18 items. OCS is divided into 3 categories: effective commitment, commitment, and normative commitment, in 7 Likert scales and 6 sub-scales. Reliability of the inventory was estimated 3.10 by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

2.4 Methods of Data Analysis

All data were analysed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 16 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Descriptive statistics were used to analyse demographic variables as well as other variables. Pearson's correlation analysis was run to test the correlations between all independent and dependent variables. To examine the relationship between CQ dimensions and OC, multiple regression was conducted.

3. Results

3.1 Relationship between CQ Dimensions and Organizational Commitment

As Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted in the study, the results exhibited the following: (H1a) there

was a significant correlation of the positive influence of meta-cognitive CQ on the organizational commitment($r=0.390,\ P<0.001$). (H1b) there was a significant correlation of the positive effect of cognitive CQ on the organizational commitment ($r=0.363,\ P<0.001$). (H1c) there was a significant correlation in the positive effect of motivational CQ on organizational commitment ($r=0.356,\ P<0.001$). In addition, there was a significant correlation of the positive influence of behavioral CQ factors on the organizational commitment ($r=0.401,\ P<0.001$)(Table1). Regression analysis also revealed that CQ explained 20% of the variation in the organizational commitment.

Table 1. Person correlation between (meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ factors and OC

	MCCQ	CCQ	MCQ	BCQ	OC
MCCQ	1				0.390
CCQ	0.431	1			0.363
MCQ	0.533	0.745	1		0.356
BCQ	0.345	0.445	0.375	1	0.401
OC					1

4. Discussion

First of all, this study aimed to determine the CQ level of UTM leaders. CQ in this study is consists of four dimensions which are meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, behavioral factors and OC. CQ level of UTM leaders were evaluated by their subordinates (academic staff). The result showed that leaders require an ability to adapt to a variety of cultural situations, this ability called cultural intelligence (CQ). Indeed, leader's effectiveness and success is largely dependent on the ability to adapt to the various cultural contexts. (Earley and Ang, 2003). When leaders learn to effectively and respectfully interact with people from diverse cultures, we strike a gold mine of opportunity for personal and professional fulfillment (Livermore, 2011). Cultural intelligence offers leaders an overall selection and perspective that can be applied to a numerous of cultural situations. It is a capability that includes four different dimensions that enabling us to meet the fast-paced demands of leadership. Cognitive reflects knowledge of the norms and practices in the host culture developed from training, education, and personal experiences. Meta-cognitive individual's ability to control their thought processes relating to culture. The motivation facet reflects the individual's capability to learn about and desire to adapt in culturally diverse settings. Behavior refers to the behaviors that a person engages in and reflects a person's capability to acquire or adapt behaviors appropriate for new culture. Thus, this study adds to the expanding homological network of cultural intelligence by determining which factor (meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivation, behavior) best predicts leadership. It also answers the challenge to consider cultural intelligence as a multidimensional construct and examine what specific dimensions of cultural intelligence have relevance to different outcomes.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge Siavash Hosseinpour Chermahini for encouragement, motivation and full support. Special thanks to all FM members.

References

Ang, S., & Inkpen, A. C. (2008). Cultural Intelligence and Offshore Outsourcing Success: A Framework of Firm - Level Intercultural Capability. *Decision Sciences*, *39*(3), 337-358. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5915. 2008.00195.x

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L.,& Koh, C. (2006). Personality correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Group & Organization Management, 31*(1), 100-123. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601105275267

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural

- intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3*(3), 335-371. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x
- Anvari, R., Huzaid, N. S. B. J., Miri, S. A., & Chermahini, S. H. (2013). Mediating effect of psychological contract in the relationship between learning and development initiatives and engineers' intention to stay. *Review of European Studies*, *5*(5), 233-237. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/res.v5n5p233
- Anvari, R., & Amin, S. B. M. (2010). The customer relationship management strategies: Personal needs assessment of training and customer turnover. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 14(1), 17-33.
- Anvari, R., Irum, S., Shah, I. M., Mahmoodzadeh, N., & Ashfaq, M. (2014). Determinants of information technology leadership program. *Review of European Studies*, 6(2), 45-49. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/res. v6n2p45
- Avolio, B. J. (2010). Full range leadership development. Sage.
- Babcock-Roberson, M. E., & Strickland, O. J. (2010). The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Journal of Psychology*, 144(3), 313-326. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00223981003648336
- Barbuto, J. E. (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: A test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 11(4), 26-40. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/107179190501100403
- Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2009). The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. Simon and Schuster.
- Berson, Y., Nemanich, L. A., Waldman, D. A., Galvin, B. M., & Keller, R. T. (2006). Leadership and organizational learning: A multiple levels perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 577-594.
- Bodla, M. A. (2010). Need For Leadership: Empirical Evidence From Pakistan. *International Journal of Management & Information Systems*, 14(5).
- Boerner, S., Eisenbeiss, S. A., & Griesser, D. (2007). Follower behavior and organizational performance: The impact of transformational leaders. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 13(3), 15-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/10717919070130030201
- Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, research, and practice, 4*(1), 27. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1089-2699.4.1.27
- de Vries, R. E., Roe, R. A., & Taillieu, T. C. (2002). Need for leadership as a moderator of the relationships between leadership and individual outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(2), 121-137. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00097-8
- Dean, B. P. (2007). Cultural intelligence in global leadership: A model for developing culturally and nationally diverse teams. ProQuest.
- Dekker, D. M., Rutte, C. G., & Van den Berg, P. T. (2008). Cultural differences in the perception of critical interaction behaviors in global virtual teams. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32(5), 441-452. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2008.06.003
- Deng, L., & Gibson, P. (2008). A qualitative evaluation on the role of cultural intelligence in cross-cultural leadership effectiveness. *International journal of leadership studies*, *3*(2), 181-197.
- Earley, P. C., Ang, S., & Tan, J. -S. (2006). CQ: Developing cultural intelligence at work. Stanford University Press.
- Frittz, H. (2005). *Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership: an examination of the Bass* (1985) theory in the university classroom environment (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Capella University, Minneapolis, MN.
- Geijsel, F., Sleegers, P., Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2003). Transformational leadership effects on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 41(3), 228-256. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09578230310474403
- Groves, K. S. and Feyerherm, A. E. (2011). Leader Cultural Intelligence in Context Testing the Moderating Effects of Team Cultural Diversity on Leader and Team Performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 36(5), 535-566.

- Hayward, B. A. (2006). Relationship between employee performance, leadership and emotional intelligence in a South African parastatal organisation. Rhodes University
- Hernandez, B. J. (2010). The relationship between leadership styles and performance success in hospitals. Walden University
- Hollander, E. P., & Offermann, L. R. (1990). Power and leadership in organizations: Relationships in transition. *American psychologist*, 45(2), 179. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.45.2.179
- Horwitz, I. B., Horwitz, S. K., Daram, P., Brandt, M. L., Charles Brunicardi, F., & Awad, S. S. (2008). Transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership characteristics of a surgical resident cohort: analysis using the multifactor leadership questionnaire and implications for improving surgical education curriculums. *Journal of Surgical Research*, 148(1), 49-59
- Howell, J. M., Neufeld, D. J., & Avolio, B. J. (2005). Examining the relationship of leadership and physical distance with business unit performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(2), 273-285.
- Humphreys, J. H., & Einstein, W. O. (2003). Nothing new under the sun: Transformational leadership from a historical perspective. *Management Decision*, 41(1), 85-95. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740310452934
- Janssens, M., & Brett, J. M. (2006). Cultural Intelligence in Global Teams A Fusion Model of Collaboration. *Group & Organization Management, 31*(1), 124-153.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(1), 36. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251 740310452934
- Kim, Y. J., & Van Dyne, L. (2012). Cultural intelligence and international leadership potential: The importance of contact for members of the majority. *Applied psychology*, 61(2), 272-294.
- Leban, W. and Zulauf, C. (2004). Linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership styles. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(7), 554-564.
- Lee, L. -Y., & Sukoco, B. M. (2010). The effects of cultural intelligence on expatriate performance: The moderating effects of international experience. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(7), 963-981.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2005). A review of transformational school leadership research 1996–2005. Leadership and policy in schools, 4(3), 177-199. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15700760500244769
- Livermore, D. (2011). The Cultural Intelligence Difference Special Ebook Edition: Master the One Skill You Can't Do Without in Today's Global Economy. AMACOM Div American Mgmt Assn.
- Ng, P. S. (2011). *Cultural Intelligence and Collective Efficacy in Virtual Team Effectiveness*. 1495650. Minnesota State University, Mankato Ann Arbor
- Pieterse, A. N., Van Knippenberg, D., Schippers, M., & Stam, D. (2010). Transformational and transactional leadership and innovative behavior: The moderating role of psychological empowerment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(4), 609-623. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.650
- Rickards, T., & Moger, S. (2006). Creative leaders: a decade of contributions from Creativity and Innovation Management Journal. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 15(1), 4-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j. 1540-4560.2011.01730.x
- Rockstuhl, T., Seiler, S., Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Annen, H. (2011). Beyond General Intelligence (IQ) and Emotional Intelligence (EQ): The Role of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) on Cross Border Leadership Effectiveness in a Globalized World. *Journal of Social Issues*, 67(4), 825-840.
- Rose, R. C., Sri Ramalu, S., Uli, J., & Kumar, N. (2010). Expatriate Performance in International Assignments: The Role of Cultural Intelligence as Dynamic Intercultural Competency. *International Journal of Business & Management*, *5*(8).
- Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. (2005). Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 845-858.
- Salovey, P., & Sluyter, D. J. (1997). Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications. Basic Books.
- Shahhosseini, M., Daud Silong, A., & Arif Ismaill, I. (2013). Relationship between transactional, transformational leadership styles, emotional intelligence and job performance. *Researchers World: Journal*

- of Arts, Science & Commerce, 4(1).
- Stone Romero, E. F., Stone, D. L., & Salas, E. (2003). The influence of culture on role conceptions and role behavior in organisations. *Applied Psychology*, *52*(3), 328-362. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00139
- Sumner, M., Bock, D., & Giamartino, G. (2006). Exploring the linkage between the characteristics of IT project leaders and project success. *Information Systems Management*, 23(4), 43-49.
- Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2006). Motivational cultural intelligence, realistic job preview, realistic living conditions preview, and cross-cultural adjustment. *Group & Organization Management,* 31(1), 154-173.
- Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2004). Cultural intelligence. Berrett-Koehler San Francisco.
- Triandis, H. C. (2006). Cultural intelligence in organizations. Group & Organization Management, 31(1), 20-26.
- Vecchio, R. P., Justin, J. E., & Pearce, C. L. (2008). The utility of transactional and transformational leadership for predicting performance and satisfaction within a path goal theory framework. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 81(1), 71-82. http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317907X202482
- Wang, F.-J., Shieh, C., & Mei-Ling, T. (2010). Effect of leadership style on organizational performance as viewed from human resource management strategy. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(18), 3924-3936.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C., & Bader, P. (2004). Leader traits and attributes. The nature of leadership, 101, 124.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Exploring Service and Support Needs in Postgraduate Education towards the Higher Education Quality

Norhasni Zainal Abiddin¹ & Affero Ismail²

Correspondence: Associate Professor Dr. Norhasni Zainal Abiddin, Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia. Tel: 60-3-8946-8240. E-mail: nonie@upm.edu.my

Received: April 1, 2013 Accepted: April 23, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p52 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p52

Abstract

Students' support is needed in postgraduate education embracing many service areas towards quality education. In achieving excellent graduates for national transformation reality, it needs to be addressed at all levels including departmental and institutional. It is vital to create suitable environment for students' studies to ensure the sustainable development and execution of outstanding research outcome. The paper identifies that one of the important factors in students' development is to create proper support and services. Thus, a qualitative analysis has been conducted to postgraduate student to discover the main concern of the support and services offered in a Malaysian public university. This study involved semi-structured interviews and the sample was self-selecting. The study disclosed the most important needs and deprived services that should be improved.

Keywords: student support, service, postgraduate, quality education, human capital development, higher education

1. Introduction

Higher education is no longer a stable domain. The only constant in this area is that of change. It is the change that higher institution must be prepared to deal with in current times. Expectation of what the academics can contribute underpins the demands made on academics in these present times (Abiddin & Ismail, 2012). Students are the seed of the future. They need change and improvement in their performance (Ismail & Abiddin, 2009). It is vital to complement their demands in order to enhance human capital (Akinyemi & Abiddin, 2013a; Akinyemi & Abiddin, 2013b). The most critical element in this aim is to create quality education.

In terms of service and support to the students, their needs are differ from one to another. However, as the provider, every report or comment should be taken care of. The students come from varied background. Postgraduate education usually enrolled by older people starting from age 25 and above after their bachelor degree. Thus, they are more particular to the services offered and tend to tell their unsatisfactory. At certain point, service offered must be accessible and reliable all the time especially internet connection. Foreign students often encounter big challenges to adapt with new environment (Ismail & Abiddin, 2009). The aim of this study is to address the question whether the support and services offered by the institution are to their expectation and to find a solution for student support needs.

Many institutions of higher learning are now trying to understand and achieve an effective resource. There is a prevailing belief that education has entered a new environment in which quality plays an increasingly important role. HedPERF Model by Abdullah (2006) proposed 6 factors to determine Higher Education Quality which are: (1) Non-academic aspects; (2) Academic aspects; (3) Reputation; (4) Access; (5) Program issues; and (6) Understanding. Firdaus (2006) indicated that the six dimensions, namely, non-academic aspects, academic aspects, reputation, access, program issues and understanding were distinct and conceptually clear in managing service quality in higher education. Hence, it can be hypothesized that students' perception of service quality should be considered based on these dimensions. Evaluating service quality levels and understanding how various dimensions impact on overall service quality would ultimately enable tertiary institutions to efficiently design the service delivery processes (Firdaus, 2006).

¹ Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia

² Faculty of Technical and Vocational Education, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia

Jusoh et al. (2004) proposed a model for Service Quality in Higher Education (SQHE) namely tangibles, competence, attitude, content, delivery and reliability. According to Firdaus (2006), service quality has attracted considerable attention within the tertiary education sector, but despite this, little work has been concentrated on identifying its determinants from the standpoint of students being the primary customers. Lagrosen et al. (2004) highlighted some weaknesses in the issue of quality in higher education whereby the adoption of quality control has been superficial and diluted by the exercise of academic freedom, as well as being hampered by lack of shared vision and lack of a match between quality management and educational processes (Srikanthan and Dalrymple, 2003). Previous study by Chong (2002) on service quality in institutions of higher learning had focused on examining the institution's strategic positions by evaluating existing services, and adapting to customers' perceptions and to enhance their leadership positions. The researcher seeks to understand the real complaints regarding services in the institutions.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

15 respondents were selected to be included in the study. All respondents were interviewed by the researcher for 15 to 30 minutes. Respondents were asked to give permission for the interview to be recorded. All of the data was transcribed and coded in the style of a content analysis approach for data analysis. Two category headings were generated from the data.

3. The Findings

There were two category headings generated which are: (1) accessibility of support and services; and (2) research needs in postgraduate studies.

3.1 Accessibility of Support and Services

There are many reports from the respondents regarding accessibility of support and services. One respondent stated that:

We need more accessible electronic journal or article (05).

Limitation access to electronic journals and articles need to improve. This is normal to research student in preparing their literature review and referring to other scholars. There are a few respondents comment about Graduate Office/School service. A respondent suggest that:

Graduate Office needs transformation (07).

And also reports regarding attitude of Graduate Office (GO) staff while interacting with students.

Make sure they treat the postgraduate students in a well manner so that we will feel warm and happy to study in here (03).

Please ask the administration staff at International Office (IO) & GS to be friendlier to us (04).

Staffs at the front counter in GS need to learn how to treat people properly in term of facial expression and body language (08).

Make sure all supporting staffs in GS know what the current issues in campus are (10).

This is a complex issue. Students should be happy after dealing with GO. There are also some issue regarding unsynchronized information between research center and graduate office.

A few respondents need proper services in residential college.

Hopefully they can provide good facilities in terms of accessibilities at residential college (01).

From what has been interviewed, they also need a specific library in their faculty as main library is far from their access.

We need a Library in engineering faculty (03).

The study fee and cost always become an issue to students. They spoke their unsatisfactory with the system.

Please provide us with brief information about the component of our semester fees (08).

The information about student fees is not clear (confused) and transparent. The Graduate Research Assistance's allowance is not suitable with living cost in here (09).

There are always procedures in every process but it need to be shorten for customer's satisfaction. A few respondents stated their opinion about the slow process.

Please shorten the bureaucracy path (07).

IO is not on time in their service especially for foreign students who want to make multiple entries. I want IO to give more attention in their service for foreign students especially about continuing passport (11).

Some of the students need more parking since most of them are off-campus.

Parking facilities for students are very limited although the campus has a very large ground (02).

From the survey asked, postgraduate students' access to computers and the Internet within the faculty may also need some consideration. Only half of the respondents found access to computers very accessible, while 2 respondents indicated that the use of computer facilities did not apply to them. This might indicate that these students have access to their own computers and therefore do not need computers on campus, which makes sense as many of the postgraduate students are non-residential students. The same general trend applies to the respondents' perception of Internet access.

The majority of respondents found the general library services very accessible, while only half of the respondents perceived the electronic journals as very accessible. This is worrisome as many students are non-residential and therefore do not have direct easy access to the library services and may find electronic resources useful. The perceived accessibility of the inter-loan services at the library was perceived as accessible. Off-campus access to libraries and various library services may need to be expanded, or the information in this regards needs to be made more accessible.

Support services such Student Support Services and Agriculture Park seem underutilized at present. Not all postgraduate students may have a need for these types of support, but consideration needs to be given to the different needs of postgraduate and off-campus users (in comparison to the mass needs of undergraduate residential students). Part-time and non-residential students may find it difficult to access these services, as they are mainly offered on campus.

3.2 Research Needs in Postgraduate Studies

In terms of research support, the students from science and engineering always complained regarding equipment for their research.

Equipment or apparatus for research should be available within campus (03).

The institution should give more attention to research. This involved each level and departments.

The department and supervisor should help the students to enhance their knowledge and guide the student in research quality (09).

Research center need to play its role in promoting research outcome.

Research Center must be clear in providing guidelines for research outcome such as planning and organizing; and must be specific on goals (12).

There are reports regarding their supervisor. Issue of supervision needs to be handled effectively.

Lecturers/ supervisors should help students more instead of letting them on their own. Guide students from the first step especially out campus students and those who had to travel from places. They took the effort to come and at the end of the day they become so frustrated with the facility/advices provides (13).

Supervisor must have track about his students. Supervisor should play vital role in students' research (15).

What is interesting in this study is that several respondents discussed on how they changed over the time. It is less dependent when it comes to easy tasks and becomes more dependent especially in data analysis stage. In the early stage, the supervisor seems to involve more in the research process, for example in deciding research topic, title and preparing the proposal. However, the involvement of supervisor depends on the difficulty of research stage afterwards. As time goes, the supervisor may be less directly involved and more to guide the students; check the progress and give advice on related issue.

In terms of research support such as research grant management should be improved.

Fund's Grant can be transferred to allocate grant holder by phase but make sure it is transferred on time so that the research assistance gets paid on time (06).

In terms of student support, a respondent stated that:

Provide online forum for every courses/ subjects so that student can share their knowledge/ problems with other students (02).

The most noticeable findings indicate that selecting a research topic, preparing a title, planning the research schedule/milestone and writing skills is not deemed as difficult research-related tasks by a major part of the respondents. However, gathering all related sources/conducting literature review, writing a research proposal, using appropriate computer program and technical aspects are seen as more difficult tasks the respondents have to complete.

Difficulties or problematic experienced aspects reported by the respondents included a lack of time management skills, including balancing their various responsibilities as adult learners. Other work responsibilities would often take precedence over studies, especially if there were not financial gain to be had from continuing studies. Feelings of isolation and a lack of motivation were also noted as hindrances to success by some respondents. One respondent noted that the continuous work load postgraduate studies demands can be problematic, in that it differs from the focus on summative assessment usually done at the undergraduate level.

4. Conclusion

The results obtained in this study are indicative of postgraduate students' needs during their progress through a postgraduate program. It is not easy for them to overcome all these problems as they have other commitment such as family, job and self-management in terms of emotional, finance, etc. Students' experience and perception of their studies have become essential in producing student-oriented environment. Students' perception of quality in institutions of higher learning should be considered as the most valuable information in providing world class education. This will be the foundation of developing a learner-centered resource for postgraduate students in order to provide quality education with enhancement in information and services and also supervisory practices.

Higher education is becoming more competitive and continuously improving their services. There are a few suggestions regarding this issue that could be considered such as website development and online application, academic-based seminar series, more academic feedback, invite specific people or expert to seminars, more social gatherings, input from re visiting scholars, orientation/ welcome meeting/induction pack/needs analysis, sharing of resources/ online information about everyone's research, students being seen as colleagues, online modules from other supervisors and buddy system for international students extended to all students (Ismail & Abiddin, 2009). These suggestions hopefully can enhance the students' quality and amplify university's reputation.

5. Limitation of Study

The study in this paper was conducted in a public university in Malaysia. Thus, it is limited only to graduate students in that university. However, the generalization of the outcome can be propagated to other institutions with similar environment. This study was only focusing on the general aspect of service and supervision. Further study in philosophy of student-supervisor relationship needs to be addressed for every stage of supervision. The outcome of this study should be practiced and examined to see how far the implementation of the outcome as a success.

Acknowledgments

Special thanks dedicated to the Public Service Department, Government of Malaysia for the sponsorship in this research, Universiti Putra Malaysia for continuous support and highly appreciation to all research partners for the effort in making this research a true success.

References

- Abdullah, F. (2006). The development of HEdPERF: A new measuring instrument of service quality for the higher education sector. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 30(6), 569-581. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1470-6431.2005.00480.x
- Abiddin, N. Z., & Ismail, A. (2012). Exploring Student Development Theory in Enhancing Learning through Supervision. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, 1*(1), 213-223.
- Akinyemi, G. M., & Abiddin, N. Z. (2013a). Quality Administration and Management in Higher Education in Nigeria: Implications for Human Resource Development. *International Education Studies*, *6*(4), 225-235. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n4p225
- Akinyemi, G. M., & Abiddin, N. Z. (2013b). Human Capital Developments an Interdisciplinary Approach for

- Individual, Organization Advancement and Economic Improvement. *Asian Social Science*, *9*(4), 150-157. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n4p150
- Chong, Y. (2002). *The Service Quality of UPM School of Graduate Studies* (Unpublished Masters Thesis). Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Firdaus, A. (2006). The development of HEdPERF: a new measuring instrument of service quality for the higher education sector. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 30(6), 569-581. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1470-6431.2005.00480.x
- Ismail, A., & Abiddin, N. Z. (2009). The Importance of Graduate Students' Needs on Supervisory Contribution in a Malaysian Public University. *The Social Sciences*, 4(4), 355-365.
- Jusoh, A., Omain, S. Z., Abdul M., Norazman, M. S., & Hishamuddin. (2004). Service Quality in Higher Education: Management Students' Perspective. Unpublished project report. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Lagrosen, S., Seyyed-Hashemi, R., & Leitner, M. (2004). Examinations of the dimensions of quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 12(2), 61-69. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09684880410536431
- Srikanthan, G., & Dalrymple, J. (2003). Developing Alternative Perspectives for Quality in Higher Education. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 17(3), 126-136. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513540310467804

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

An integrated Approach for Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Sustainability

Harshakumari Sarvaiya¹ & Minyu Wu²

Correspondence: Minyu Wu, Division of Business & Management, BNU-HKBU United International College, Zhuhai, 519085, China. Tel: 86-756-362-0181. E-mail: minyuwu@uic.edu.hk

Received: April 9, 2013 Accepted: June 3, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p57 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p57

Abstract

Balance of power has shifted between the state, society and corporations, which gave birth to the concepts like corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate sustainability (CS). Due to the common grounds of CSR and CS, confusion has been created among academics as well as practitioners. This study seeks to identify the relationship between CSR and CS by providing a framework in order to get a better understanding of them. In addition to reviewing the extant literature, we provided empirical support through interviews of CSR or sustainability managers of large New Zealand companies. The key findings of this research revealed that when CSR and CS applications were based on systematic and full fledge focus, there was almost similar kind of initiatives and practices in NZ corporations. To develop an approach to integrating CSR and CS, we support the term, Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility (CS-R). We believe that CS-R help define and clarify the relationship between business and society without denying the great success that CSR has achieved in the academic research, management consulting and media.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility, corporate sustainability, sustainable development

1. Introduction

For more than half a century, there has been increasing pressure on corporate organisations to balance social and environmental aspects along with economic prosperity. This has led to the evolution of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and other related constructs, such as corporate sustainability (CS), business ethics, corporate citizenship, and stakeholder management. Carroll (1999) prominently noted that "the CSR concept served as the base point, building block, or point-of-departure for other related concepts and themes, many of which embraced CSR-thinking and were quite compatible with it" (p. 288). Although all such constructs shared a common end, there is an increasing difficulty in the understanding of each concept, its implications, and its relation to others (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). For example, confusion has arisen among academics and practitioners concerning the notions and application of CSR and CS (Montiel, 2008). A few studies highlighted the theoretical difference between CSR and CS (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008), while others recommended that they converged gradually (Dewangga, Goldsmith, & Pegram, 2008). In addition, a few scholars suggested a complex and contradictory relationship between the two (Steurer, Langer, Konrad, & Martinuzzi, 2005).

As CSR and CS have caught much attention from both academia and industry, it is needed to avoid miscommunication and facilitate the learning and application of these concepts. In our view, to clarify the two concepts will help researchers and managers to prevent misunderstanding in communication and enhance decision making. In addition, although there have been many studies on the concepts of CSR and CS, few empirical research was concerned with this issue. In other words, more empirical studies are still needed in this area. We share a similar view with Lozano (2005) and Wu (2011) that when we refer to CSR and CS, we are constructing two narratives. Both of them are the results of the learning processes, which are constantly evolving and responding to stakeholders' changing wants and needs. This study seeks to identify the relationship between to CSR and CS by providing a framework in order to get a better understanding of both CS and CSR. Apart from reviewing the extant literature, we provide empirical support through interviews of CSR or Sustainability managers of large New Zealand (NZ) companies. The key findings of this research revealed that when CSR and

¹ School of Management, Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand

² Division of Business & Management, BNU-HKBU United International College, Zhuhai, China

CS applications were based on systematic and full fledge focus, there was almost similar kind of initiatives and practices in NZ corporate.

This paper is organized as follows. The first part of paper will present the definitions regarding the key constructs of CSR and CS. Then on the basis of the literature review, the relationship, similarities and differences between CSR and CS will be discussed. Empirical evidence will be examined in the next section which will be followed by the discussion to develop an approach to integrating CSR and CS. The last section provides a conclusion.

2. Definitions of the Key Constructs - CSR and CS

Definitions and the concepts of CSR and CS have proliferated during the past decade (Montiel, 2008; van Marrewijk, 2003), and this development has resulted in ambiguity and uncertainty for researchers and practitioners. CSR can be traced back to 60 years ago (Carroll, 1999), with a journey from being a philanthropic approach to a strategic approach to balance economic, social, and environmental dimensions (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). On the other hand, CS became popularised in 1980s through a report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) focusing on ecological sustainability (WCED, 1987). Recently CS has, however, been moulded in broader terms by encompassing three aspects: economic, social, and environmental (Benn & Dunphy, 2009; Gladwin, Kennelly, & Krause, 1995; Elkington, 1999). In this section, we discuss the concepts of CSR and CR and how they have expanded from the original narrow notions to a broader strategic approach in terms of tri-dimensional aspects.

2.1 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Dahlsrud (2008) stated that "the definitional confusion surrounding CSR might potentially be a significant problem" (p. 1). A few scholars have attempted to solve this confusion through an analysis of the diverse definitions (e.g., Carroll, 1999; Dahlsrud, 2008). However, there is a lack of any consensus about the concept of CSR thus far. CSR has the oldest history to conceptualise the relationship between business and society (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). The concept of social responsibility was first presented by Frank Abrams in a Harvard Business Review article in 1951 (Abrams, 1951). The beginning of the debate on CSR was marked in a landmark study by an American businessman, Howard Bowen, in 1953. He used the term "the social responsibilities of the businessman" and defined CSR as "the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society" (Bowen, 1953, p. 6).

A decade later, several scholars undertook further development of the concept (Davis, 1960; Frederick, 1960; McGuire, 1963). For instance, Davis (1967) extended the definition from "social responsibility of the businessman" to the "social responsibility of businesses", which changed the focus from responsibility of the owners of the enterprise to the whole organisation. In spite of this, the scope of CSR still existed on social welfare and philanthropy. Similarly, social issues were also remained the main agenda of social responsibility during the 1970s. At that time, a widely accepted definition of CSR was developed by the Committee for Economic Development (1971) in publication—Social Responsibilities of Business Corporations; based on a broader view, it suggested that "business functions by public consent and its basic purpose is to serve constructively the needs of society—to the satisfaction of society" (p. 11). Interestingly, Odell (1973) attempted to extend CSR from a stakeholder approach that aims to consider the needs of the society and make positive contributions to all possible interest groups. The most often cited, and the most popular definition, was presented by Carroll (1979), which stated that, "the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time" (p. 500).

It was during the late 1970s that academics started to use the term CSR, although it is difficult to pinpoint the exact time when this term came into use. During the 1980s and 1990s, scholars redefined the concept through the course of further research (Carroll, 1999) and CSR was linked with business ethics, corporate social performance, and stakeholder theory, with in-depth studies being carried out in each of these areas (Carroll, 1999; Epstein, 1987; Freeman, 1984; Hopkins, 1998; Tuzzolino & Armandi, 1981; Wartick & Chochran, 1985). For example, Jones (1980) recommended to line up social consequences with the business decisions and to consider social cost of these decisions rather than just philanthropy. He also suggested that environmental issue should be merged when implementing CSR. In addition, Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981) argued that CSR must be coupled to the corporate life cycle dynamic. Consequently, CSR was fused with stakeholder theory. To illustrate this, Hopkins (1998) asserted that "CSR is concerned with treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically and in a socially responsible manner. Stakeholders exist both within a firm and outside. Consequently, behaving socially responsibly will increase the human development of stakeholders both within and outside the corporation" (p. 3).

Recently, CSR evolved as a tri-dimensional concept. Environment was traditionally under-represented as an issue in CSR literature (Dewangga et al., 2008). During the 2000s, however, environmental issues emerged as important part of CSR. In this regard, CSR has been associated with sustainable development and the triple bottom line (profit, people and planet) (Elkington, 1999; Moon, 2007). For instance, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) (2000) defined CSR, in a more elaborated manner, as being "the commitment of businesses to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life" (p.5). In addition, the Commission of the European Communities (2001) conveyed that CSR is "a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interactions with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (p.6). The current dominant concept of CSR implies that firms voluntarily incorporate social and environmental concerns into their economic operations (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). In short, CSR can be defined as the process of integrating economic, social, and environmental issues of corporate firms in order to achieve balanced growth in societies.

2.2 Corporate Sustainability (CS)

The concept of CS was derived from the notion of sustainable development (SD) (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). The term of SD was first used in the 18th century with reference to the protection of tree populations in forestry and the use of timber in a sustainable way (Ebner & Baumgartner, 2006). This concept was, however, popularised after a report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), entitled 'Our Common Future' (better known as Brundtland Report), had been published in 1987 and SD was defined as "development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 42). SD originally addressed the implication of ecological- and planetary-wide issues (Moon, 2007). It was perceived to be a societal guiding model. The application of SD at the corporate level is referred to as corporate sustainability (CS) (Dentchev, 2009; Steurer et al., 2005). Although researchers had worked on WCED framework since the late 1980s, sustainability did not gain popularity until 1990s (Montiel, 2008).

According to Schwartz and Carroll (2008), CS was originally considered from the ecological point of view with a limited focus of protecting environment. For example, Hawken (1993) narrated that "sustainability is an economic state, where the demands placed upon the environment by people and commerce can be met without reducing the capacity of the environment to provide for future generations" (p. 139). Shrivastava (1995) also considered sustainability from the environmental viewpoint, suggesting that CS can be achieved through four different mechanisms: total quality environment management; ecological sustainable competitive strategies; technology for nature swaps; and corporate population impact control. In a similar vein, Sharma and Henriques (2005) attempted to map CS from the viewpoint of ecological balancing and evaluated the effect of stakeholders on eco-design, eco-efficiency, and pollution control. Thus, since the early 1990s, studies in the CS field have usually focused on how to protect natural environment while making business decisions and implementing business operations. Similar to CSR, the term of SD was also contested and disputed (Dober, 2009); hence, the notion of CS, which was derived from SD, remain obscure as well.

Social aspects have, however, also been gradually incorporated in the issues of CS. In fact, it is difficult to locate the incident when non-environmental issues became a dimension of CS, but Agenda 21 can be considered to be a milestone indicating this development (Steurer et al., 2005). Although Local Agenda 21 agreements developed at the Rio Conference concentrated both on social and environmental issues, most members initially had a concept that was limited to environmental issues only (Giddings, Hopwood, & Geoff, 2002). Nevertheless, researchers started to consider social aspects as a part of CS. For instance, based on the first principle of Agenda 21stating that "human beings are at the centre of concerns for sustainable development", Doyle (1998) argued that social issues should be priority in sustainability thinking. Similarly, the concept of sustainability developed by Gladwin et al. (1995) also focused on social aspects; as they put it, "sustainable development is a process of achieving human development in an inclusive, connected, equitable, prudent, and secure manner" (p. 878).

Social aspect was incorporated into CS along with environmental aspect; however it did not reach a prominent status until the triple bottom line concept of sustainability was introduced by Elkington (1999). According to Elkington, "sustainable development involves the simultaneous pursuit of economic prosperity, environmental quality, and social equity" and organisations in pursuit of CS "need to perform not against a single, financial bottom line but against a triple bottom line" (1999, p. 397). WBCSD (2000) supported this argument, and stated that the integration of social, environmental, and economic considerations is essential to attain SD. Thus, the new 'avatar' of CS is based on three principles: economic integrity, social equity, and environmental integrity (Bansal, 2005). Interestingly, the presence of social consideration in sustainability leads to link CS with CSR.

For example, Porter (2008) stated that "sustainability refers to actually meeting social and environmental needs in addition to firm profitability, and therefore represents the implementation and outcomes of companies' CSR voluntary intentions" (p. 398). Thus, the construct of CS is not only about managing environmental responsibility, but also about managing social responsibility along with economic prosperity.

3. A Literature Review on the Relationship between CSR and CS

The confusing relationship between CSR and CS has increasingly created debate among academics as well as practitioners. For example, Steurer et al. (2005) believed that there was a disorder in the concepts of business and society, namely CSR and CS. According to Wheeler, Colbert and Freeman (2003), the concepts of CSR and CS were inter-woven, which have formed theoretical controversies and conceptual conflict. Furthermore, CSR and CS are vague terms, which are used interchangeably, with both of them being contested concepts (Moon, 2007). There are diverse views among academics on the relationship between CSR and CS.

3.1 The Relationship between CSR and CS

A group of scholars believed that CSR is an important contribution to CS and, therefore, they considered CSR as one of the pillar of CS. In their view, CSR could be regarded as the social strand in the tri-dimensional model of CS. For example, Ebner and Baumgartner (2006) reviewed academic articles of eight years in the area of CSR and CS; they recommended that SD is at macro level, while at the micro level, in the organisation, is CS, which encompasses economic, ecological and social pillars, where CSR was modelled as the social pillar of CS. Similar to this thought, Sharma and Rudd (2003) also pointed out that academics studying CS tend to focus on environmental issues, while those studying CSR tend to focus on social and ethical issues. However, they argued that CS is a broad concept and the social aspect is incorporated into CS, meaning that CS encompasses CSR as a social dimension of the sustainability framework.

Another perspective, which considers CS as a broad concept balancing social and environmental aspects, views CSR as a sub-system of CS. For instance, Steurer et al. (2005) studied the complex bond between CS and CSR and stated that "we regard SD, CS and CSR as closely connected, tripartite concepts, yet on different levels of specification with different conceptual nuances" (p. 275). It was concluded that SD is at the normative societal concept which includes CS at corporate level and CSR is a sub-system at management level. In a similar vein, Malovics, Csigene and Kraus (2008) regarded CSR as a means to achieving the objective of CS, by concluding that both external and internal practices of CSR will lead to strong SD. Correspondingly, Wempe and Kaptein (2002) also graphed the relationship between CSR and CS and illustrated CSR as a sub-system of CS to balance profit, people and planet at the organisational level. Some scholars considered CSR as a supplementary stage, or pathway, leading to achievement of CS, as the ultimate goal (Hui, 2008; Moon, 2007; Porter, 2008). In addition, Panapanaan, Linnanen, Karvonen, and Phan (2003) developed a general model of CS and CSR that demonstrated CSR as a sub-system of CS, integrating economic, social and environmental responsibility of the organisation.

On the contrary, quite a few researchers recommended CS as part of CSR. Garriga and Mele (2004) described different theories and approaches used to conceptualise CSR. They considered CS as being a supplementary approach to CSR. Further, Guler and Crowther (2008) also stated that CS is one of the three principles of CSR activity along with accountability and transparency. In a similar tone, Long (2008) argued that CS is an important part of broader CSR programme of corporations, which is responsible for the environment and supply chain practices.

In addition to the above-mentioned relationships between CSR and CS, there are some other arguments proposed by scholars in the literature, which have resulted in confusion to some extent. For example, Gallego (2006) explained that CSR is a tool to measure SD, in terms of economic, social, and environmental aspects, and CS is measured through reporting all of these aspects. On the other hand, Sottorrio and Sanchez (2008) used CS as one of the indicators to measure the CSR performance. Interestingly, Bronn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009) considered sustainability as one of the motives of CSR, whereas Panapanaan et al. (2003) graphed SD as one of the driving factor for CSR. Furthermore, it has been also argued that CSR is one of the factors in the evolution of CS. For instance, Wilson (2003) noted that CSR has contribution towards CS by proving ethical arguments towards sustainability objectives. Zink (2005) pointed out that the European Union's basic message was SD and therefore CSR should be promoted to balance social and environmental concerns, with CSR being a pre-condition to achieving long-term sustainability. Moreover, Dewangga et al. (2008) explored the relation between organisational social responsibility (SR) and SD and recommended that CSR guidelines should be integrated into CS guidelines. As they put it:

SR should eventually become transformed into full organisational sustainable development planning framework to proactively and effectively assist organisations in moving towards a sustainable society. The majority of both SR and SD experts and academics surveyed, agreed that "Organisational Social Responsibility guidelines such as "CSR guidelines", will eventually become part of overall Organisational Sustainability guidelines (p. x).

Schwartz and Carroll (2008) conducted a comparative analysis of five competing concepts, including CSR, business ethics (BE), stakeholder management (SM), sustainability (SD), and corporate citizenship (CC). They argued that there is difficulty in understanding these concepts and relating them to each other. To integrate these five constructs they developed a VBA model (value, balance, and accountability), and proposed that (p.173):

All organisations and individuals operating within a business context have a responsibility (CSR) as good citizens (CC) to (a) contribute to sustainable (SUS) societal value and (b) appropriately balance stakeholder interests(SM), including shareholders or owners and/or moral standards (BE), while (c) demonstrating sufficient accountability.

On the other hand, Panapanaan et al. (2003) commented that "the overlaps of environmental and social issues make it easy for many companies to assume that their sustainable development agenda covers CSR already along with environmental management. However, such assumption is unclear and a grey area for discussion" (p.139). In this regard, there is a lack of consensus to discuss the overlap of the two constructs. Thus, academics have established various relations between CS and CSR, but rather than providing clarity; this has generated a complex web and a vague relationship between the two concepts.

3.2 Comparison and Contrast of CSR and CS

3.2.1 Similarities

Recently, the term sustainability has been used as a synonym for other concepts such as SD and CSR (Moon, 2007; van Marrewijk, 2003; Wilson, 2003). In addition, CS is considered as a new version of CSR. For example, Faragher (2008) commented that "CSR is old hat - the new buzzword is sustainability" (p.1). Many scholars considered CSR and CS concepts identical in their research work (e.g., Dewangga et al., 2008; Ferns, Emelianova, & Sethi, 2008; Marsiglia & Falautano, 2005; Meisinger, 2007; Munoz, Rivera, & Moneva, 2008; Paul, 2008; Wheeler et al., 2003). According to Guler and Crowther (2008), the recent dialogue on CSR has become the discourse on CS. This was supported by Ebner and Baumgartner (2006) stating that their research sample of previous three years showed a trend to define CSR similarly to CS. Although historically CSR and CS have developed differently, CSR being social issue and CS being environmental issue (Dewangga et al., 2008; Funk, 2003), they are now converging (Kleine & Hauff, 2009; Montiel, 2008; van Marrewijk, 2003).

In this regard, Montiel (2008) has noted that due to the common end CSR and CS are congregating and conveyed that:

Indeed the conceptualisation of CSR that integrates economic, social and environmental dimensions and the triple bottom line conceptualisation of CS, which comprises economic, social and environmental dimensions, are very similar...thus both CSR and CS aim to balance economic prosperity, social growth and environmental integrity (Montiel, 2008, p. 260).

Recently, both CSR and CS are regarded as voluntary activities, which encompass the environmental and social concerns of the organisation (Lo & Sheu, 2007; van Marrewijk & Werre, 2003). Van den Brink and van der Woerd (2004) agreed that confusion exists among companies regarding the implementation of the concepts of CS and CSR. Therefore, they preferred to use the term CS-R, being corporate sustainability and responsibility which is conceptualised by the European Corporate Sustainability Framework (Van Marrewijk & Hardjono, 2003).

Furthermore, reporting of these social initiatives is identical. Diana (2006) stated that "...the report formerly called the corporate responsibility report, is now called the sustainability report" (p. 46). Even Global Reporting Initiative companies overlap social responsibility reporting with sustainability reporting (Montiel, 2008). Some researchers have used the term CSR-sustainability reporting in their studies, which shows that they do not find CSR and CS reporting different (Ferns et al., 2008; Quaak, Aalbers, & Goedee, 2007). Paul (2008) studied the websites of the most sustainable Global 100 companies and found that:

Companies use different 12 concepts to report their social performance including sustainability and CSR. More than 50% companies use CSR word in their web-site reporting, while 29% companies use sustainability reporting. But due to increasing importance of environmental issues, now companies are moving to use concept of sustainability for their social performance reporting on web sites (Paul, 2008, p. 69).

According to Montiel (2008), many members belonged to both of the two vibrant groups in the Academy of Management: (1) Social Issues of Management and (2) Organisation and the Natural Environment. In addition, CSR and CS articles were published in both social issues journals and environmental issues journals. Furthermore, a few organisations changed their portfolio from CSR to sustainability. For example, in 1998 the New Zealand Business for Social Responsibility organisation was launched, but in 2002 it merged with the Auckland Environmental Business Network to form the Sustainable Business Network (Roper, 2004). This demonstrated similarities between CSR and CS in terms of objectives and scopes. Hence, there is immense possibility to use these concepts interchangeably.

3.2.2 Differences

The literature review reveals that academics have found various differences between CS and CSR. Although theoretically both CSR and CS have the common aspect of balancing economic, social, and environmental issues, CSR is still considered to be a process of managing social issues with stakeholders, while CS is seen as a method for achieving ecological balance (Kleine & Hauff, 2009).

According to Montiel (2008), CS and CSR are both based on the tri-dimensional base of economic, social, and environmental aspects; however, there are various significant differences. For example, CS researchers considered three aspects as interconnected, while there seems no such link acknowledged by CSR researchers. Another notable difference is that CS tends to be discussed about giving intrinsic value (value of an entity for its own sake independent of its benefit to human kind) while CSR gives 'use value' (benefits for human). Still another issue is that CSR research is always linked with stakeholder theory, while the majority of CS research is associated with the resource-based view and institutional theory (Montiel, 2008).

Similarly, Steurer et al. (2005) also noticed various differences between CS and CSR. Firstly, they argued that CSR is based on expectation of stakeholders, while CS is depends more on a society's interpretation. In addition, they maintained that CSR is a short-term notion that deals with the needs of present stakeholders, while CS is a long-term concept that deals with the needs of future stakeholders. Moreover, they posited that initially, CSR came up from addressing social issues whereas CS focused on environmental issues.

Although van Marrewijk (2003) believed CSR and CS are synonyms, it was argued to draw a thin line between them. The author importantly noted that CSR united people and organisations through transparency, stakeholder dialogue, and sustainability reporting, while CS is the agency principle covering value creation, environmental management, and human capital management.

In fact, CSR is concerned with balancing economic, legal, ethical, and social responsibility, while the CS agenda is ecological dependency and worldwide social impacts (Moon, 2007). Dentchev (2009) compared various related concepts, including CSR and CS, and stated that CSR has its origins in criticism of the neoclassical theory of economics, while CS has its origins in the corporate impacts on society and the environment. It was also stated that CSR is a normative concept, while CS includes a normative, instrumental, and descriptive notions. Thus, the basic differences addressed various issues in the application of CS and CSR.

4. Research Method

To examine the current literature and to develop a simplified approach to the concept of CSR and CS, we attempted to investigate views of senior managers of large New Zealand (NZ) corporate. The objective was to examine that which terms are practically used in the organisations, how senior practitioners defined such terms, what are the motives behind these terms and how they implement such practices. The selection of sample companies was based on two criteria: a large New Zealand company (according to revenue) and having a formal CSR practice. First, to select large New Zealand companies according to their revenue, the database of Deloitte New Zealand (2009) was used, which includes a list of the top 200 New Zealand companies and the top 30 banks and financial companies. The top 100 companies and the top 15 banks were considered for further review. It was believed that the companies proactive in CSR would disclose CSR information on their websites (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008). Therefore, a total of 115 companies' websites were studied to get information about their CSR strategy and initiatives. Following the examination of these websites, 30 companies were found with formal CSR reports, and considerable information about CSR strategy and practice. In the second stage, the CSR managers of these companies were contacted to be involved in this project. Managers from 11 companies accepted the invitation. Semi-structured interviews were conducted during July 2011 to January 2012. The industry grouping of the sampled companies is as follows:

A qualitative data analysis is used for this research, searching for meaning through interpreting the views and behaviours of the participants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted during July 2011 to January 2012. It

covered the managers mentioned in the above table 1. As shown in the table, out of 11 companies covered in this study, three companies have the position of Sustainability Manager, three companies have CSR or CR Manager, two companies have Corporate Citizenship Manager, one company has Corporate Responsibility and Community Manager, one company has Environment and Health-safety Manager, and one firm has External Affair and Community Investment Manager. However, it was also found that they have similar roles and responsibilities. This is consistent with the report of ACCSR (2007) which found that there are a variety of job titles in the field of CSR with similar job descriptions. A qualitative data analysis is used for this research, searching for meaning through interpreting the views and behaviours of the participants.

Table 1. Profile of organisations sampled in the study

Company	Founded year	Industry	Size of Capital (NZ\$000)	Manager interviewed	
A	1908	Construction	\$5,918,000	Environment and health-safety manager	
В	1987	Telecommunication	\$7,036,000	CSR manager	
C	1940	Airline	\$5,045,000	Sustainability Manager	
D	1946	Petroleum	\$1,177,481	External affair and community investment manager	
Е	1999	Energy	\$7,177,268	Corporate Responsibility and Community manager	
F	1933	Construction	\$1,324,217	Corporate Citizenship manager	
G	1982	Retail	\$649,248	Sustainability Manager	
Н	1830	Postal services	\$11,303,971	CSR Manager	
I	1951	Banking	\$122,915,000	Corporate Citizenship manager	
J	1861	Banking	\$70,772,000	Sustainability Manager	
K	1861	Banking	\$64,557,000	CR Manager	

5. Voice of Practitioners

This study found that practitioners usually did not clearly understand CSR and CS. Some managers used these two terms interchangeably, while the others used these terms in narrow and traditional manner. Various researchers supported this argument and noted that even companies are also perplexed in determining their own approaches towards the execution of these concepts (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008; Lo & Sheu, 2007; van den Brink & van der Woerd, 2004).

One of the important findings of this study supports the argument that CS is concerned with ecological or environmental issues only (Hawken, 1993; Sharma & Henriques, 2005; Shrivastava, 1995). It was noticed that a group of practitioners still believes that sustainable practice means effective environmental actions which is limited to the issue of reduce, reuse and recycle. For example, the Environmental and Health-safety manager of company E defined sustainability as "the way we do in our business does not compromise options for future generation and possibly we enhance the environment for future generation. That is very broad terms and we do that in terms of environmental compliances." Furthermore, a few companies have limited focus for the application of sustainable principles. The sustainability manager of company F pointed out that: "One of the commitments of the company is towards sustainability. And I guess broadly the way our policy works at the moment is around four principles of sustainability; waste minimisation, pollution prevention, sustainable energy use and environmental care. And I guess environmental care is more important about proactive environmental performance." And interestingly, when the manager was asked if they have any social or community practice and he replied that "I think we are doing more about sustainability side!" In other words, it is believed that sustainability and environmental issues are synonyms. Similarly, when manager of company A was asked to define sustainability in his own words, he replied that "Even people who are experts and PhDs in sustainability failed to define it. But according to me, it is about integrating people, profit and planet. However, we mainly focus on environmental material issues only". Moreover, it was also noticed that these firms execute sustainability mainly in the areas of environmental compliance, energy efficiency, carbon zero, pollution control, supply chain, monitoring and auditing risk associated with environmental issues, product attributes and climate change, and staff education about environmental issues. Hence, application of sustainability is very limited in these companies.

Due to this limited application of sustainability, sometime practitioners are reluctant to use sustainability term. For instance the citizenship manager of company J strongly argued that

I am trying extending to more citizenship approach rather than just looking at green sustainability. I totally agree that sustainability term has limited application and that is why we don't even use word sustainability. It is one of the real fade words; it is unfortunate because when you use sustainability in a proper sense it is fantastic. And sustainable business firm should look at across all angels, the same as I look at the citizenship. I think people are connected too much with green party.

In contrast to this, there is also a group of practitioners who accept CSR as community initiative only. For example the corporate responsibility and community manager of Company B defined CSR "as the role of large corporations, and it's responsibilities in the community. Being the largest company, we have got a huge role to play and everything we do affects NZ society. So just acting responsibly is CSR." The corporate citizenship manager of company G also supported this view by stating that "CSR is about being a good citizen of the country. Business has responsibility towards the community in which they do business. It is about playing an active part in our community through various community projects and managing the relationship with various social and ethical organisations." Adding thoughts in the same vein, the external affairs and community investment manager of company D noted that: "CSR is an important part of doing business. It is about being an important contributor to the community which we operate in and recognising that the community in which we do business are important part of our business and working for community wellbeing. So we have responsibility to the community." It was also found that the scope of CSR is a bit narrow in terms of implementation and the major initiatives are around community projects, volunteering, and relationships with non-profit organisation, community investment, and employee responsibility.

Finally the third stream of practitioners considers CS and CSR as balanced and tri-dimensional approach. This can be illustrated by narration of the sustainability manager of company K:

Sustainability is thinking about the long term effect of what you are doing today. It's about the well-being of your business, i.e., financially, as well as well-being of your stakeholders. So it's balancing stakeholders' needs and it's also about being a responsible organisation. So it's about the kind of well-being of our society and economy and our planet, our environment. And to me, they all are needed to be linked.

The organisation has very extensive sustainability practice and actively involved in environmental projects, community involvement, sustainable procurement, wellbeing of employees and customers. Similarly the sustainability manager of F Company viewed sustainability as "it is related to doing more with less and doing well by doing good. It is certainly have long term aspiration for the relationship between business and the world and environment and the community." However, when the question comes to implementation, this company mainly focus on environmental aspects while community element was decentralised to business units. Interestingly, the manager argued that "I suspect to see that we will be merging more and more with social-community and wellbeing components of sustainability with our environmental aspects." Hence, the application of sustainability is very broad and multi-dimensional.

In the same direction, many CSR experts also regard CSR as tri-dimensional approach focusing on environment, community and economic issues. The citizenship manager of company J defined CSR as "a responsibility of business that we have towards the environment, towards society, and towards our people and our stakeholders group." Similarly, the CSR manager of company I conveyed:

I think CSR has been born out of people. It is about expressing the role of business and acting responsibly and its responsible action—what it does in relation to stakeholders, its staff, its customers, its impact on the environment and what it does in market place in terms of its product and services.

In a similar vein, the CSR manager of company H noted that: "CSR is about safe guarding the business in terms of our future and it means that business needs to respond not only to the environmental in which it operates but also the communities within which we operate and then to take responsibility for our actions and acknowledge those actions." Moreover, supporting the same philosophy in a novel manner, CSR manager of company C asserted that

CSR has three parts; in the first instance, it's about being a good business, ensuring fundamental rights and to be fair. So it's about ensuring that as a business, your products and services are ethical and fair, do no harm your customers. In the second instance, it's about being a good employer, ensuring that our people have continuous employment and good work practices and they are able to work in a safe and secure environment. And then in the third instance, it's about understanding what our business responsibility towards broader society is. And for us we use both environment and community in that society because you cannot have one without the other. So you know those three things, being a good business, being a good employer and then understanding responsibility towards society, and in that area both community and environment.

The companies namely J, H, I C, had strategic and integrated CSR practices which focused on environment, market place, workplace, supply chain, and community. They tried to link CSR with almost all operational areas of business. At this point, these practices can be compared with sustainability practices of company K. And there is immense amount of similarity in the application of CSR and CS initiatives and scope of their practices. Hence, it can be summed up that organisations which apply CSR or CS in an appropriate manner, have quite similarity in their execution and scope.

Corporations are often confused on how to relate CSR and CS (Long, 2008). For example, an important point to be noted in this study is that a few companies use CSR and CS terms interchangeably. Company I had a position of CSR manager, and all formal documents of the company acknowledged their initiatives as CSR practice. However, the documents sent to PricewaterhouseCoopers NZ for Sustainable 60 awards recognised the job title of Sustainability manager and their initiatives as Sustainability practice. Furthermore, it was also found that companies attempted to change their positions and focus to variety of related terms. In particular, previously companies put forward the position of CSR Manager, but this position has recently been replaced with that of Sustainability Manager. For instance, we arranged an interview of the CSR manager of company C in November 2010. Surprisingly, when we emailed the manager for confirmation in April 2011, it was known that the manager no more worked with the company and a new person took the new position of SD manager. However, there is no change in the focus and scope of their initiatives. This can also be illustrated by company J which opted to use term citizenship after a few trail and errors with CSR and CS. The Citizenship manager of the firm J asserted that "Now we are using citizenship term rather than CSR because our stakeholders and employees can better understand what it means to be a good citizen of NZ rather than what is CSR, or other terms". She further added that "social responsibility is something different to all; for some people it is community, for some it is environment and something else across the broad framework. Similarly we tried to used sustainability term but found that its application is limited to just green sustainability." Furthermore, it was also found during the discussion with managers that these terms have similar meaning. For instance, during the discussion with the CSR manager of company H, he pointed out that "There are definite drivers behind the responsible practice of any firm. For us the motivating forces behind our CSR or sustainability or whatever names you call it are..." Hence, based on these participants, it could be argued that practitioners regard these terms as substitutes.

Based on the above findings, it can be concluded that when CSR and CS were implemented with narrow focus, they both were different being CSR as community involvement and CS as environmental issues. However, when CSR and CS applications were based on systematic and full fledge focus, there was almost similar kind of initiatives and practices in NZ corporate. Hence, we suggest that there is a strong opportunity for the perspective of merging both concepts.

6. Discussion

The literature review suggests that a diverse and complex relation exists between CSR and CS and so does the empirical evidence. One group of authors considered CSR and CS to be similar concepts. Another group argued that there are basic differences in the two concepts and their applications. The third view came to the conclusion as how CSR and CS relate to each other.

In the first perspective, CS is considered as a broader concept balancing economic, ecological and social issues and CSR has been viewed as social pillar of this CS model (Ebner & Baumgartner, 2006; Sharma & Rudd, 2003). It looks very straight forward; however, it is actually an incomplete recommendation. Although CSR has evolved with social motives, it encompassed environmental and economic issues later on. For example, Carroll (1979) developed a model of social responsibility and mentioned economic responsibility as the foremost social responsibility before ethical, legal or discretionary responsibilities. Furthermore, from more than one decade ago, CSR was conceptually developed and practically implemented as the process of integrating both social and environmental issues (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006; Commission of the European Communities, 2001; van Marrewijk, 2003) and therefore CSR cannot be considered as the social component of CS only.

Another alternative provided by the scholars is to consider CSR as a sub-system of CS (Panapanaan et al., 2003; Steurer et al., 2005; Wempe & Kaptein, 2002). However, as both CSR and CS are the process of balancing economic, social and ecological matters (Lo & Sheu, 2007; van Marrewijk & Werre, 2003), there is no logic to consider one approach that overarches the other. For example, van Marrewijk (2003) also argued against this assumption; as he put it, "Although I fully agree with this new domain of CSR and consequently smaller interpretation of the social dimension of the organisation, I doubt if the clock can be reversed" (p.102). Furthermore, none of the research done thus far focused on the practical implication of this relationship and therefore, without empirical evidence, it is not persuasive to put CSR as a sub-system of CS.

A group of authors also indicated that though both CSR and CS have similar agenda, there is a need to define micro differences such as their scope, priorities, motives and implications (Dentchev, 2004; Montiel, 2008; Moon, 2007; Steurer et al., 2005; van Marrewijk, 2003). However, these studies were based on literature review and no empirical ground was provided. Conversely, a group of academics also suggested merging the two concepts for future development and effective implementation. For example, Dewangga et al. (2008) particularly noted that the two separate concepts have come together with a common goal. Therefore, they strongly recommended the collaboration of the two concepts by aligning SD with CSR guidelines (ISO 26000) in order to achieve a long-term sustainable society. In particular, Montiel (2008) suggested to integrate CSR and CS by stating that:

The conceptualizations and measures of CSR and CS seem to be converging, even though there are points of difference between the two constructs. As a result, we should determine whether we need to more accurately distinguish CSR and CS or, on the contrary, whether we should merge them into one construct that will account for all the social and environmental related issues in the management field... Combining some elements of CSR and CS might create a much better definition for firms that are working towards becoming sustainable and socially responsible. (p.26)

Both the literature review and the empirical findings of this study indicated that there is an increasing need to merge the concepts of CSR and CS. In this regard, we share the view of Lozano (2008) who suggested a framework of three aspects: (1) content, (2) structure and (3) process. As argued by Lozano, this framework is very critical for a better understanding of CSR; we believe that it also applies to CS. As for content, Lozano (2008) pointed out that CSR integrates economic, social and environmental dimensions into corporate strategies and decision making, which is quite compatible with CS. Actually, both CSR and CS are working on the quest of the triple bottom line model that embraces profit, people and planet (Panapanaan et al., 2003; Steurer et al., 2005; van Marrewijk, 2003; Wempe & Kaptein, 2002). Regarding structure, Lozano (2008) argued that CSR proposes a relational perspective on firm management, which emphasises developing and maintaining the relationships with its multiple stakeholders. Garvare and Johansson (2010) developed a theory which suggests that organisation sustainability implies to manage the stakeholders and it will be achieved if the organisation satisfies or exceeds the demand of its stakeholders. Hence, stakeholder theory is an important and commonly used framework within CSR and CS. For process, Lozano (2008) indicated that CSR is portrayed as an innovative and learning journey, in which innovation and learning are demonstrated in a firm's development and implementation of its goals, objectives, and policies. Similarly, Wu (2011) also argued that corporate sustainability is a continuously changing notion, which is a result of a learning process responding to continual but changing stakeholder demands. To sum up, the concepts of CSR and CS share the common dimensions of content, structure and process. We agree that "CSR and CS as two sides of a coin" (van Marrewijk, 2003, p. 102).

While merging CSR and CS, there is a need for a common terminology to avoid confusion. We need to consider if the new term conveys its message with sufficient clarity. We support the term, Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility (CS-R), used by the European Corporate Sustainability Framework (van den Brink & van der Woerd, 2004). A similar term, Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility (CSR 2.0), was also suggested by Visser (2011). We believe that Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility (CS-R) can help define and clarify the relationship between business and society without denying the great success that CSR has achieved in the academic research, management consulting and media.

Corporate - As indicated by Lozano (2008), this clearly emphasises that the corporation itself is the point in question. First of all, it limits the subject to the corporation, not a nonprofit organisation. In this respect, as an economic institution, value creation is the most important task of managers. In other words, economic responsibility is a basic requirement for any business where being profitable is a must. Similar to the old term, CSR, CS-R not only stresses the importance of economic aspect, it also highlights that a corporate should take broader responsibility to its multiple stakeholders, including social and environmental aspects.

Sustainability - We suggest that using sustainability instead of 'social' is to avoid the confusion on the social aspect. The 'S' in CSR is quite confusing. On the one hand, it is a broad term that indicates the relationship in general between the corporation and its multiple stakeholders; on the other hand, it only represents the social dimension of a corporation's responsibility, which differs from its economic and environmental aspects (Lozano, 2008). In addition, as mentioned earlier, sustainability tends to be long-term oriented and addresses intergenerational equity. Sustainability could cover both current and future stakeholders.

Responsibility - Why do we not just use the term CS, for it is able to convey the triple bottom line model and the stakeholder concept? As mentioned earlier, the concept of CS is a kind of narrative. Responsibility represents how a corporation responds to the expectations of its multiple stakeholders. Besides, responsibility should take into account all aspects of a corporation's relationships with its stakeholders (Lozano, 2008). In other words, corporate responsibility has economic, social and environmental aspects that are rooted in such relationships. A sustainable corporation must be responsible for its stakeholders and the society as a whole.

6. Conclusion

On the basis of the literature review and empirical evidence, it can be concluded that the relationship between CSR and CS is complicated and confusing. There was a comprehensive discussion among academics on the similarities, differences and other relationships between CSR and CS. Although CSR and CS were based on different philosophies at their early stages, they shared a set of common issues. Both of them covered economic, social, and environmental dimensions. In practice, it was shown that CSR and CS were frequently treated as synonyms as well as complementary by managers in companies. They often didn't differentiate between the two concepts, either in application or for reporting. Therefore, we argue that merging the two concepts by a common term would help clarify their meaning and add value to their application. In particular, we suggest to merge the two constructs by using a term CS-R that is similar to the familiar CSR, but stands for 'Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility' (van den Brink & van der Woerd, 2004). This term clearly represents that a sustainable corporation undertakes a broad responsibility to its current and future stakeholders and the society as a whole. In our view, CS-R is able to clarify the two concepts and would help researchers and managers to prevent misunderstanding in communication and enhance decision making.

References

- Abrams, F. W. (1951). Management's responsibilities in a complex world. *Harvard Business Review*, 29(3), 29-34.
- ACCSR. (2007). *The CSR Manager in Australia*. South Yara, Vic., Australian: Australian Centre for Corporate Social Responsibility. Retrieved from http://www.accsr.com.au/pdf/ACCSR_Research_Report_CSR_Managers.pdf
- Bansal, P. (2005). Evolving sustainably: A longitudinal study of corporate sustainable development. *Strategic Management Journal*, *26*, 197-218. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.441
- Benn, S., & Dunphy, D. (2009). Action research as an approach to integrating sustainability into MBA programmes. *Journal of Management Education*, *33*, 276-295.
- Bowen, H. R. (1953). Social responsibilities of the businessman. New York: Harper & Row.
- Branco, M., & Rodrigues, L. (2006). Corporate social responsibility and resource-based perspectives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 69, 111-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9071-z
- Bronn, P. S., & Vidaver-Cohen, D. (2009). Corporate motives for social initiative: Legitimacy, sustainability, or the bottom line? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 87, 91-109. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9795-z
- Carroll, A. B. (1979). A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review, 4*, 497-505. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257850
- Carroll, A. B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility: Evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & Society*, 38, 268-295. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/000765039903800303
- Committee for Economic Development. (1971). *Social responsibilities of business corporations*. New York: Committee for Economic Development.
- Commission of the European Communities. (2001). *Promoting a European framework for corporate social responsibility*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.
- Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 15, 1-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/csr.132

- Davis, K. (1960). Can business afford to ignore social responsibilities? *California Management Review, 2*(3), 70–76. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41166246
- Davis, K. (1967). Understanding the social responsibility puzzle: What does the businessman owe to society? *Business Horizons*, 14(4), 45-50. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0007-6813(67)90007-9
- Dentchev, N. A. (2004). Corporate social performance as a business strategy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 55, 395-410. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-004-1348-5
- Deloitte New Zealand. (2009). Deloitte/Management magazine top 200 New Zealand companies. Auckland: Deloitte New Zealand.
- Dentchev, N. A. (2009). To what extent is business and society literature idealistic? *Business & Society, 48*, 10-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0007650307299222
- Dewangga, A., Goldsmith, S., & Pegram, N. (2008). Social responsibility guidelines & sustainable development: Integrating a common goal of a sustainable society (Unpublished Masters dissertation). Blekinge Institute of Technology, Karlaskrona, Sweden.
- Diana, T. (2006). Doing Business the Socially Responsible Way. *Business Credit*, 108(6), 45-48. Retrieved from http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/21081011/doing-business-socially-responsible-way
- Dober, P. (2009). Corporate social responsibility: Management and methods. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 16, 185-191. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/csr.201
- Doyle, T. (1998). Sustainable development and Agenda 21: The secular Bible of global free markets and pluralist democracy. *Third World Quarterly, 19*, 771-786. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01436599814235
- Ebner, D., & Baumgartner, R. (2006). *The relationship between sustainability development and corporate social responsibility*. Paper presented at the Corporate Responsibility Research Conference 2006, 4th-5th September, Dublin. Retrieved from http://www.crrconference.org/downloads/2006ebnerbaumgartner.pdf
- Elkington, J. (1999). Cannibals with Forks. Gabriola Island, BC, Canada: New Society.
- Epstein, E. M. (1987). The Corporate social policy process: Beyond business ethics, corporate social responsibility, and corporate social responsiveness. *California Management Review*, 29(3), 99-114. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41165254
- Faragher, J. (2008, April 22). Sustain to gain. Personnel Today, 20-22.
- Ferns, B., Emelianova, O., & Sethi, S. P. (2008). In his own words: The effectiveness of CEO as spokesperson on CSR-sustainability issues. *Corporate Reputation Review, 11*, 116-129. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/crr. 2008.11
- Frederick, W. C. (1960). The growing concern over business responsibility. *California Management Review, 2*(4), 54-61. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41165405
- Fenwick, T., & Bierema, L. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: Issues for human resource development professionals. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 12, 24-35. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2419.2007.00293.x
- Freeman, R. E. (1984). Strategic management: A stakeholder approach. Boston, MA: Pitman.
- Funk, K. (2003). Sustainability and performance. *Sloan Management Review, 44*(2), 65-70. Retrieved from http://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/sustainability-and-performance/
- Gallego, I. (2006). The use of economic, social and environmental indicators as a measure of sustainable development. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 13*, 78-97. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/csr.94
- Garriga, E., & Mele, D. (2004). Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *53*, 51-71. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/B:BUSI.0000039399.90587.34
- Garvare, R., & Johansson, P. (2010). Management for sustainability A stakeholder theory. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 21, 737-744. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14783363.2010.483095
- Giddings, B., Hopwood, B., & Geoff, O. B. (2002). Environment, economy and society: Fitting them together into sustainable development. *Sustainable Development*, 10, 187-196. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sd.199
- Gladwin, T. N., Kennelly, J. J., & Krause, T. -S. (1995). Shifting paradigms for sustainable development: Implication for management theory and research. *Academy of Management Review, 20*, 874-907.

- http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/258959
- Guler, A., & Crowther, D. (2008). Towards equitable sustainability. *Ivey Business Journal*, 72(1), 1-7. Retrieved from http://iveybusinessjournal.com/topics/social-responsibility/towards-equitable-sustainability#.U0TkO6 JNTdE
- Hawken, P. (1993). The ecology of commerce: A declaration of sustainability. New York: HarperBusiness.
- Hopkins, M. (1998). The planetary bargain: Corporate social responsibility comes of age. London: Macmillan.
- Hui, L. T. (2008). Combining faith and CSR: A paradigm of corporate sustainability. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *35*, 449-465. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03068290810873429
- Jones, T. M. (1980). Corporate social responsibility revisited, redefined. *California Management Review, 22*(3), 59-67. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41164877
- Kleine, A., & Hauff, M. (2009). Sustainability-driven implementation of corporate social responsibility: Application of the integrative sustainability triangle. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85, 517-533. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0212-z
- Lo, S. -F., & Sheu, H. -J. (2007). Is corporate sustainability a value-increasing strategy for business? *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 15*, 345-358. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8683.2007.00565.x
- Lozano, J. M. (2005). Towards the relational corporation: From managing stakeholder relationships to building stakeholder relationships (waiting for Copernicus). *Corporate Governance*, *5*(2), 60-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14720700510562668
- Lozano, J. M. (2008). CSR or RSC? (Beyond the humpty dumpty syndrome). *Society and Business Review, 3*, 191-206. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17465680810907288
- Long, J. C. (2008). From Cocoa to CSR: Finding sustainability in a cup of hot chocolate. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 50, 315-320. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tie.20215
- McGuire, J. W. (1963). Business and society. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Malovics, G., Csigene, N., & Kraus, S. (2008). The role of corporate social responsibility in strong sustainability. *Journal of Socio-Economics*, *37*, 907-918. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socec.2006.12.061
- Marsiglia, E., & Falautano, I. (2005). Corporate social responsibility and sustainability challenges for a bancassurance company. *Geneva Papers on Risk & Insurance Issues & Practice*, 30, 485-497. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.gpp.2510040
- Meisinger, S. (2007). HR's role in social responsibility and sustainability. HR Magazine, 52(12), 8.
- Montiel, I. (2008). Corporate social responsibility and corporate sustainability separate pasts, common futures. *Organisation & Environment, 21*, 245-269. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1086026608321329
- Moon, J. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to sustainable development. *Sustainable Development*, 15, 296-306. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sd.346
- Munoz, M. J., Rivera, J. M., & Moneva, J. M. (2008). Evaluating sustainability in organisations with a fuzzy logic approach. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 108, 829-841. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02 635570810884030
- Odell, H. (1973). What does 'social responsibility' of business mean? *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 597-601. Retrieved from http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/proceedings/4981726/what-does-social-responsibility-business-mean
- Panapanaan, V. M., Linnanen, L., Karvonen, M. -M., & Phan, V. T. (2003). Roadmapping corporate social responsibility in Finnish companies. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 133-148. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1023391530903
- Paul, K. (2008). Corporate sustainability, citizenship and social responsibility reporting. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, (32), 63-78. http://dx.doi.org/10.9774/GLEAF.4700.2008.wi.00007
- Porter, T. (2008). Managerial applications of corporate social responsibility and systems thinking for achieving sustainability outcomes. *Systems Research and Behavioural Science*, *25*, 397-411.
- Quaak, L., Aalbers, T., & Goedee, J. (2007). Transparency of corporate social responsibility in Dutch breweries. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 76, 293-308. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9282-3
- Roper, J. (2004). Corporate responsibility in New Zealand. Journal of Corporate Citizenship, (14), 22-25.

- Schwartz, M. S., & Carroll, A. B. (2008). Integrating and unifying competing and complementary frameworks the search for a common core in the business and society field. *Business & Society, 47*, 148-186. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0007650306297942
- Sharma, S., & Henriques, I. (2005). Stakeholder influence on sustainability practices in the Canadian forest products industry. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26, 159-180. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.439
- Sharma, S., & Rudd, A. (2003). On the path to sustainability: Integrating social dimensions into the research and practice of environmental management. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 12, 205-214.
- Shrivastava, P. (1995). Environmental technologies and competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*, *16*, 183-200. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250160923
- Sottorrio, L. L., & Sanchez, J. L. F. (2008). Corporate social responsibility of the most highly reputed European and North American firms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82, 379-390.
- Steurer, R., Langer, M. E., Konrad, A., & Martinuzzi, A. (2005). Corporations, stakeholders and sustainable development I: A theoretical exploration of business-society relations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *61*, 263-281. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-005-7054-0
- Tuzzolino, F., & Armandi, B. R. (1981). A need-hierarchy framework for assessing corporate social responsibility. *Academy of Management Review, 6*, 21-28. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257137
- van den Brink, T. W. M., & van der Woerd, F. (2004). Industry specific sustainability benchmarks: An ECSF pilot bridging corporate sustainability with social responsible investments. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *55*, 187-203. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-004-1901-2
- van Marrewijk, M. (2003). Concepts and definitions of CSR and corporate sustainability: Between agency and communion. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 95-105. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1023331212247
- van Marrewijk, M., & Hardjono, T.W. (2003). European corporate sustainability framework for managing complexity and corporate transformation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 121-132.
- van Marrewijk, M., & Werre, M. (2003). Multiple levels of corporate sustainability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 107-119. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1023383229086
- Wartick, S., & Chochran, P. (1985). The evolution of the corporate social performance model. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 758-769.
- WBCSD. (2000). *Corporate social responsibility: Making good business sense*. Geneva: WBCSD. Retrieved from http://www.wbcsd.org/pages/edocument/edocumentdetails.aspx?id=83&nosearchcontextkey=true
- WCED. (1987). *Our common future: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from http://www.un-documents.net/our-common-future.pdf
- Wempe, J., & Kaptein, M. (2002). *The balanced company: A theory of corporate integrity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wheeler, D., Colbert, B., & Freeman, R. E. (2003). Focusing on value: reconciling corporate social responsibility, sustainability and a stakeholder approach in a network world. *Journal of General Management*, 28(3), 1-28.
- Wilson, M. (2003). Corporate sustainability: What is it and where does it come from? *Ivey Business Journal*, 67(6), 1.
- Visser, W. (2011). The ages and stages of CSR: Towards the future with CSR 2.0. CSR International Paper Series, No. 3. CSR 2.0. Retrieved from http://www.csrinternational.org/about/csr2
- Wu, M. (2011). Sustainability as stakeholder management. In G. Eweje. & M. Perry (Eds.), *Business and sustainability: Concepts, strategies and changes. Critical studies on corporate responsibility, governance and sustainability* (Vol. 3, pp. 223-241). Bradford, England: Emerald.
- Zink, K. J. (2005). Stakeholder orientation and corporate social responsibility as a precondition for sustainability. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 16*, 1041-1052.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Varieties of Regionalism: Comparison of Europe and Southeast Asia

Fujian Li¹ & Jinsha Deng²

Correspondence: Fujian Li, Institute of Asian Studies, China Foreign Affairs University, 24 Zhanlanguan Road, Xicheng District, Beijing, 100037, China. Tel: 86-10-6832-3392. E-mail: lifujian@cfau.edu.cn

Received: April 26, 2013 Accepted: July 2, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p70 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p71

Abstract

The comparative approach has not been widely used in regional studies so far. From the perspective of comparative regionalism, the formality of the European Union (EU) and the informality of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) represent two models of regional integration. The institutionalization and enlargement of ASEAN and the EU have distinctive regional characteristics. In Southeast Asia, regionalism is often a reaction to external challenges and threats, while European regional integration is more innate in nature. The distinctive dynamics are formulated in each region's power structure, institutional environment and cultural background. With a firm cultural identity, strong co-leadership, constructive US input and a formal institutionalization approach, 'proactive regionalism' in Europe has adequate endogenous force to move forwards. In contrast, the lack of a coherent ideology for regional integration, the power competition within the region, the destructive intervention of the US and a lower level of institutionalization means that greater exogenous pressure is necessary for Southeast Asia to develop its regional project, which could be termed 'reactive regionalism'.

Keywords: ASEAN, EU, proactive regionalism, reactive regionalism

1. Introduction: Comparative Regionalism

All types of regional organizations may face similar challenges in their life cycle; however, each organization demonstrates a unique path that is suitable for the actual situation in its region when overcoming its problems. Therefore, researchers have a good reason to compare regions. However, can regional organizations be compared in a systemic way? What is the basis for comparison? Before detailing the developmental processes of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the European Union (EU), a theoretical exploration of the approach to comparative regionalism is required.

If regionalism can be compared, its diversity is bound to be recognized. At different times, and even at the same time but in different parts of the world, people's understanding of regionalism is often different. Historically, the concept of regionalism has often been connected with regional hegemony or the sphere of influence; however, alliances among third-world countries overthrew this bias when regional organizations in Latin America and the Arabian world successfully convinced the United Nations to admit coexistence between universalism and regionalism. (Potter, 1943; Fawcett, 2004)

Theoretical studies in the field have discussed varieties of regionalism, given that the so-called 'European integration theories' generated from European practice, such as intergovernmentalism, federalism, functionalism and neo-functionalism, which do not fit well among non-Western regions. The master of integration theory, Ernst Hass, once commented that there is no universal 'integration law'. (Hass, 1961, p. 378) Since the late 1980s, with new regional projects appearing in non-EU regions around the world, the basis for varieties of regionalism has been provided. (Hurrell, 1995; Breslin & Higgott, 2000) In addition, the constructivist turn in theories of international relations has provided a new explanation of the informal process of other regional mechanisms vis-a-vis the EU, thus expanding our horizon. (Acharya, 2012)

Opponents to comparative regionalism often consider the EU too special to be compared. The root cause of this error is that the ontological question of comparative regionalism has not been made clear. (De Lombaerde, Söderbaum, Van Langenhove, & Baert, 2010; Söderbaum, 2009) As *region* can be seen as a discursive tool that can be treated as a layer of governance, an organization, an institution or even a geo-political space, the scope for

¹ Institute of Asian Studies, China Foreign Affairs University, Beijing, China

² Shunyi School of Administration, Beijing, China

the subjects of regional studies can be very broad. According to Van Langenhove (2012), regional studies can be divided into three categories (but not mutual exclusive): 1) studying a regional process—namely, the historical development of a region; 2) studying a regional project by focusing on the visions of regional intellectuals, political elites and the mass movement for regional integration; and 3) studying a regional product that includes the signed treaty, mechanism and practice achieved, etc. Therefore, there are more factors to be compared than we thought.

The object of discussion in this article is the development of regional organizations. The reasons for selecting ASEAN and the EU for comparison are outlined below. First, they comprise the most dynamic and successful regional projects, and they have attracted the most attention. Second, the model of the EU is in stark contrast with ASEAN, thereby generating questions regarding the reasons why differences have formed. Third, information relating to ASEAN and EU studies is rich, and relative research is mature, which is convenient for furthering the research.

The second part of this paper will provide a brief empirical study on the development processes of ASEAN and the EU respectively. The comparison will be conducted based on the different stages of development of the two regional organizations, as it is only meaningful to compare regional organizations within a comparable logic time instead of seeking similarities and differences regarding the same time point. (De Lombaerde et al., 2010)

This study focuses on two specific aspects of the development of both organizations: institutionalization and enlargement. The decision, coordination and implementation of the policies mechanism and the relative institutional settings are specific indicators to measure the institutionalization of ASEAN and the EU. For enlargement, issues such as motivation, accession standards and accession procedures are key factors for discussion.

To try to rule out the Eurocentric bias and avoid assessing the merit between the EU and ASEAN, we should avoid overemphasizing the European theory, which will conceal the characteristics of other regions. (Söderbaum, 2012) Instead, a research paradigm of eclecticism will be employed. (Sil & Katzenstein, 2010) In research using analytical eclecticism, rationalism, constructivism and reflectivism can be introduced simultaneously. Multiple approaches and methods could be employed interchangeably, such as positivism and interpretivism, and qualitative and quantitative studies.

Using analytical eclecticism, this paper compares ASEAN and the EU by examining three dimensions—the power structure in the region, institutional path dependence and the cultural environment—and trying to interpret the differences and similarities from multiple perspectives.

The paper argues that the institutionalization and enlargement of ASEAN and the EU have distinctive regional characteristics, with ASEAN showing a strong tendency towards reactive (or exogenous) regionalism and the EU leaning towards proactive (or endogenous) regionalism. The ASEAN way and the EU model are a product of two sets of power, institutional and cultural structures—where the two regional organizations exist.

2. Empirical Studies: EU's Endogenous and ASEAN's Exogenous Regionalism

2.1 A Historical Review of the EU's Development

2.1.1 Institutionalization of the EU

All the various institutions show the particularity of European Cooperation, which ensures that European cooperation can exist for a long time and run smoothly. (Andersen, Eliassen, & Sitter, 2001) Member governments are also willing to take advantage of new institutions and organizations to work together to solve practical problems, which is considered the secret of the success of European integration so far. The evolution of EU institutions is in fact the clue of the EU's development.

Thoughts on European unification have a deep historical and cultural background and a basis of political ideology. Since the fourteenth century, European thinkers such as Dubois, Pierre, Kant and Hugo have strived to finding theoretical approaches to achieve European unification. However, the process of European integration only began after World War II, when reconciliation between France and Germany created a solid foundation for permanent peace on the European continent. In 1951, France, West Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg signed the 'Treaty of Paris', which established the European Coal and Steel Community. In this community, the early form of the EU's organizational structure was established. In 1957, the six nations signed the 'Treaty of Rome', which led to the establishment of the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community. Therefore, the integration process in Europe was expanded into other sectors. In 1962, the Common Agricultural Policy came into effect, and the European Common Market was

established with the purpose of founding the Customs Union in 1968, which was another significant step for regional integration.

However, a period of Eurosclerosis and Europessimism arrived in the 1970s and early 1980s, and an institutional crisis emerged, especially regarding the decision-making mechanism. The so-called 'Eurosclerosis' only came to an end when the *Single European Act* was signed and entered into force in 1986. The new act strengthened the authority of the European Commission and made a Qualified Majority Voting (QMV) mechanism possible within the framework of the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers while furthering European political cooperation. (Chen & Gustaaf, 2003)

In 1992, the EU was created with the Maastricht Treaty, and for the first time, cooperation was expanded to domestic and foreign policy issues. Under the Maastricht Treaty, 'temple-style' architecture was founded. The three pillars include the European Communities, Common Foreign and Security Policy, and Justice and Home Affairs. However, for the decision-making mechanism, the second and third pillars must obtain unanimous agreement; only the first pillar can be applied with the voting approach.

The new EU Treaty, which was signed in 1997 in Amsterdam, brought about serious institutional reform, such as further expanding the power of the European Parliament and the scope of the Community's jurisdiction to the third pillar. Further, a new mechanism was set up within the second pillar—namely, Common Strategy and the High Representative for Common Foreign and Security Policy.

European politicians tried to maintain the momentum and promote integration to a new level by initiating the European Constitutional movement, However, France and the Netherlands failed the European Constitution referendum, which triggered a crisis in 2004-2005. As an alternative, in 2009, the Treaty of Lisbon, which was designed to replace the draft of the Constitution Treaty, entered into force. The Treaty of Lisbon made a series of reforms in the area of decision-making mechanisms. First, it expanded the scope of the EU's decision-making, with the EU replaced European Communities with the sole legal personality, thereby further blurring distinctions among the 'three pillars'. Second, the decision-making body was resettled with the appointment of a new permanent President of the European Council and a EU High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy, the reallocation of seats in the European Parliament, and by giving the European Central Bank decision-making functions. Third, it reformed the decision-making process by expanding the QMV's application scope from 28 to 44 issues. The number of members in the European Commission was streamlined, and the European Council became one part of the EU's formal institutions. Fourth, internal relations were rebalanced. An adaptation period for the double majority voting system, which is a form of OMV, was established, as some members were not fully comfortable with the new approach. Several principles, including the conferral principle, subsidiarity principle and proportionality principle, were strengthened in the decision-making mechanism. Further, the European Parliament was granted more powers.

In 2009, with the EU's institutional reform, the EU faced a sovereign debt crisis. Member states, including Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal and Ireland, were trapped. On the surface, it seems that the EU missed an opportunity to provide an initial solution to the crisis because of the dispute over the bail-out plan between France and Germany in the beginning. However, upon examining the level of institutional design, the duality of the EU's monetary and fiscal policies is the real reason behind many member countries being hit by the financial crisis. (Lane, 2012; Buti & Carnot, 2012) The essential reason is the widening of the developmental gap between the Eurozone member states.

The EU finally provided emergency assistance, and the European Central Bank actively intervened to establish the European Financial Stability Facility and the European Financial Stability Mechanism. Member states agreed to improve the governance and regulatory mechanism of the European banking system at the EU level, which indicated that the EU was making institution-building efforts to defuse the crisis.

2.1.2 Enlargement of the EU

The EU experienced eight expansions, which can be divided into four stages. The first stage marked the accession of the United Kingdom (UK), which first refused to become a founding member of the European Community; it sought to join in 1961. However, France rejected the UK twice for fear of a US intervention due to the special relationship between the UK and the US. (Larat, 2005) Therefore, the UK, Denmark and Ireland joined the European Community only after de Gaulle stepped down in 1973.

With the end of 'Eurosclerosis', in the early 1980s, the European Community began the second phase of enlargement, in which Southern European countries joined the Community, with Greece joining in 1981 and Portugal and Spain joining in 1986. Political instability was the major factor preventing Southern European

countries from joining. In 1967, Greece turned to dictatorship, resulting in the Community freezing its application immediately; it was only formally accepted in 1981. The situation in Spain and Portugal was similar. However, unlike political problems that had been noticed, Greece, Portugal and Spain's economic problems had not been fully resolved, which left a hidden danger for the later EU debt crisis.

In the third stage of enlargement, Austria, Finland and Sweden joined the EU in 1995, and the process was relatively smooth due to the prospective benefits brought about by the enlargement. New members are attracted to the large and protected market of the EU. For the EU, speaking with one voice in Europe can enhance its international political status. The end of the Cold War paved the way for the three countries to overcome their identity difficulties. Meanwhile, Eastern European countries tried to move closer to the EU, which pressed the three countries to join quickly. (Kochenov, 2008)

The fourth stage of enlargement came after 2000, and it was also the largest in scale. With the collapse of the Soviet Union, the European Community began to provide economic and technical aid to the former Soviet states and Eastern European countries. The EU also developed the Copenhagen (accession) criteria for enlargement. From the late 1990s to 2001, the EU officially launched the selection process for candidate countries and amended the EU Treaties to prepare for the eastward expansion. Since 2002, Central and Eastern European candidate countries have joined in sequentially.

However, the EU's eastward enlargement also brought about a series of insurmountable problems. (Sjursen, 2006) Although the increase in the number of member states promoted the EU's international status, diversity and heterogeneity characteristics were challenging to existing institutions, which forced the EU to allow a multilayer and multistage development to look after the needs of the latecomers.

2.2 A Historical Review of ASEAN's Development

2.2.1 Institutional Evolution of ASEAN

In 1961, the Philippines, Thailand and Malaysia set up the Association of Southeast Asia (ASA) in Bangkok. However, because of the territorial dispute over Sabah between the Philippines and Malaysia, the Philippines chose to leave ASA in 1963, and the association then existed in name only. In the same year, Malaysia, the Philippines and Indonesia formed another regional organization in Manila called Maphilindo, but the organization was again struck by the confrontation of the three members. In addition to the territorial dispute, another reason for the failure of ASA and Maphilindo was that the anti-communist stance of the two regional organizations was exploited by the two superpowers, which was not in the interests of the local countries. These lessons had a significant effect on the later principles of ASEAN, such as neutrality, consensus and non-interference. (Palmer, 1992)

Facing the challenges of the Cold War, especially in the 1960s, the regional balance was broken with the US being trapped in the Vietnam War and the influence of the Soviet Union increased. The five Southeast Asian countries—namely Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, Singapore and Indonesia—signed the 'Bangkok Declaration' in 1967, which formally marked the establishment of ASEAN. The early development of the ASEAN organization was slow. The Bangkok Declaration had only two pages and did not detail the structure of the organization. Between 1967 and 1976, ASEAN continued the organizational structure of the failed ASA, which included the ASEAN Ministerial Meeting, ASEAN Standing Committee, Ad Hoc and Fixed Committees, and National Secretariats. With a decentralized structure, low efficiency and a waste of resources due to the duplication of various functional committees, the ASEAN institutional reform was urgently needed but lacked momentum. (Keling, Som, Saludin, Shuib, & Ajis, 2011)

The withdrawal of US forces from Vietnam was a direct factor that provoked ASEAN to begin its first round of institutional reforms. To overcome the new challenge of the power vacuum in the region, and to safeguard regional peace and stability, the first ASEAN Summit was held in Bali in February 1976. During the summit, ASEAN decided to carry out substantive economic cooperation. The Bali Declaration made several important changes in regional institutions: 1) the ASEAN Summit became the highest decision-making body; 2) a permanent ASEAN Secretariat was established in Indonesia, which mainly played an administrative and coordination role; 3) consensus-building was formally confirmed as the basic procedure for decision-making. However, the reform was still quite slow in pace. The restructuring of the original ASEAN Standing and Special Committees only occurred in 1983 to resolve the problem of functional overlapping.

After the Cold War, there were dramatic changes in the regional situation. First, the US pulled out of the region, and regional countries such as Japan, India and China began to emerge, thereby increasing the threat awareness of ASEAN countries. Second, economic integration in Europe and North America presented a challenge to

ASEAN countries' investment and trade accession to the advanced economy. (Imada & Naya, 1992) To meet the above challenges, the fourth ASEAN Summit was held in 1992. The Summit launched the comprehensive cooperation of Southeast Asia in multiple fields. A series of important documents was signed, including the Singapore Declaration. This round of organizational structure reform included the following changes: 1) the ASEAN Summit meeting would be held regularly; 2) the Secretary–General of ASEAN Secretariat was renamed as the Secretary–General of ASEAN, meaning that more power and duties would be granted to the Secretary–General; 3) the ASEAN Senior Economic Officials Meeting was set up to replace the original five committees in relation to economic cooperation. Economically, the Summit decided to establish the ASEAN Free Trade Area (officially launched in 2002), which was an important step for ASEAN's deep integration. In the field of security, the ASEAN Regional Forum was established in 1994. Although it was often criticized for being a talk shop, it was still the only multilateral security dialogue mechanism in the Asia–Pacific region.

The community building of ASEAN entered a new phase in the twenty-first century. In 2003, ASEAN issued the second Bali Declaration, which made plans to establish the ASEAN Economic Community, Political-Security Community and Socio-Cultural community by 2020. The Vientiane Action Plan was passed in 2004 and included detailed measures for realizing the communities. Currently, the date for establishing the community has been brought forward to 2015.

A milestone in ASEAN's development was that the ASEAN Charter came into force in 2008 after being passed through the legislative process of the member states. In the charter, ASEAN was given a legal personality, and the charter provided a legal framework for ASEAN's organizational structure. The main contents include: 1) the ASEAN Summit is the highest decision-making body; 2) the ASEAN Coordinating Council (the former foreign ministers' meeting) is ASEAN's comprehensive coordination mechanism; 3) the Political-Security Community Council, the Economic Community Council, and the Socio-Cultural Community Council have been founded to coordinate and monitor the community-building process; 4) the Committee of Permanent Representatives to ASEAN is founded to supervise, coordinate and implement ASEAN's decisions; 5) the responsibility of the Secretary—General is expanded; 6) a human rights mechanism of ASEAN has been founded, which is a significant development for ASEAN's non-interventionism; 7) the principle of consensus-building in decision-making has again been recognized as the main decision-making mechanism.

2.2.2 Enlargement of ASEAN

From 1984 to 1999, the ASEAN member countries expanded from five to 10, and the number of member countries will remain stable for the foreseeable future.

Although Myanmar and Cambodia were invited as founding members of ASEAN, ASEAN's pro-Western stance deterred many pro-Soviet countries from joining. ASEAN was willing to engage with Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia after Vietnam was unified in the late 1970s, however, the 1978 Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia prevented this from occurring.

After the Cold War, the withdrawal of the military presence of great powers in the region, the end of the conflicts in Indo-China and the peaceful resolution of the Cambodia issue, ASEAN started the accession process. For the old members of ASEAN, the accession of Indo-China countries will provide a large market in abundant natural resources; further, the enlargement will eliminate China's strategic effect. From the perspective of Indo-China countries, especially Vietnam, joining ASEAN can create a good environment, attract investment from ASEAN's developed economies and enhance the country's international status and image. However, different from Brunei's case in 1984, since the building of the ASEAN Free Trade Area began, Vietnam had to undertake complex negotiations to join all agreements that had been signed. With the strong political will of the Vietnamese leaders, Vietnam obtained observer status in 1992 and started the formal process for accession in 1994 before officially joining ASEAN in 1995, thereby marking the end of the Cold War in Southeast Asia. Two years later, after a similar program, Myanmar and Laos joined ASEAN. Cambodia's membership was postponed for two years because of the coup in Phnom Penh in 1997. By 1999, ASEAN announced the completion of its enlargement process.

Similar to the EU, the enlargement of ASEAN presents some problems: 1) lack of organizational preparation of ASEAN before enlargement—in particular, with the increase in the number of member states, the Secretariat had to take a heavier burden; 2) new members (such as Vietnam) posed a challenge to the original identity of the organization, which had been formed over several decades; 3) domestic turmoil of some new members affected the overall image of ASEAN, such as in the case of the human rights problem in Myanmar; 4) historical issues between member states posed challenges to internal unity; 5) a developmental gap between old and new

members has formed a 'dual ASEAN' problem; therefore, 'narrowing the developmental gap' has become a key phrase in ASEAN since its enlargement. (Paribatra, 1994; Zagoria, 1997)

In May 2002, the birth of East Timor presented a new problem for ASEAN. Geographically, East Timor belongs to Southeast Asia, but because ASEAN was concerned with Australia and Portugal's influence on East Timor's politics, as well as the poor economic performance of the new country, ASEAN refused East Timor from joining, which created a paradox in ASEAN's enlargement process. (Severino, 2006)

3. A Comparison by Analytical Eclecticism

3.1 A Proactive EU and a Reactive ASEAN

Compared with ASEAN, the EU is much more institutionalized. In the evolution of the EU's organizational structure, it has more forward-looking goals and a practical implementation program for institutional reform. The EU's institutions are formal, with a strong supranational feature. For example, in the decision-making process, introducing and expanding the range of the application of the QMV mechanism is a breakthrough for the principle of consensus-building. This high degree of institutionalization reflects the features of proactive/endogenous regionalism in the two following ways.

First, the driving force for the EU's development is its members' own willingness, or endogenous factors. External pressure is important, but it is not the key to the evolution of the EU's institutionalization and enlargement. Although the Marshall Plan initiated by the US was a positive incentive for European integration, the Schuman Plan developed by European countries on their own was the idea behind the initiative for a European Community. Achieving the Franco–German reconciliation and permanent peace on the European continent was the primary goal for the foundation of the European Community/Union.

During the 1980s, member states wanted to introduce the Single Market to accelerate the European integration process. In the absence of external pressure, the establishment of the Eurozone and the introduction of the qualified majority voting mechanism demonstrated the strong motivation of EU members for the transfer of sovereignty.

In the case of enlargement, a detailed accession criteria, a strict timetable and a formal procedure meant that candidate countries often had to make domestic reforms in order to gain membership. This was to ensure that the applicants had a strong willingness to join the EU given that it had to make some sacrifices in reforming domestic institutions. Further, the possibility of accepting a country as a member by external pressure was excluded. Therefore, the endogenous factor functions again.

Even if external pressure could temporarily boost the EU integration process, it often played a negative role in the long run. For example, in the field of security, the EU has been working to build an independent security force separate from NATO. As an external force, NATO has played such a negative role in the EU's security cooperation.

In contrast, informality was one of the main features during the evolution of ASEAN's institutions and enlargement. In terms of organizational structure, the power of the ASEAN Secretariat and Secretary–General are limited, and member states are very sensitive to the transfer of sovereignty. In the decision-making process, the principle of consensus-building is the cornerstone of the ASEAN Way, which cannot be shaken. In the course of enlargement, ASEAN has neither clear and defined criteria nor a formal application process for candidate countries.

The feature of informality makes ASEAN lack internal motivation. It must rely on a change of external environment for change. External pressure, or crisis, can be a driving force for promoting the institutionalization and enlargement of ASEAN. In this paper, this type of regional process is referred to as reactive (or exogenous) regionalism.

ASEAN's reactive regionalism is reflected in the fact that, despite so many shortcomings in ASEAN's institutions, which members have realized, the reform has always been delayed. The same is true in the process of enlargement. During the peak time of ASEAN's enlargement in the 1990s, as mentioned above, the motivation for ASEAN's expansion mainly came from changes in the regional security situation, the re-allocation of the world economy power, and other external factors, such as the rise of China. Once the external pressure was removed, the enlargement of ASEAN lost its momentum. This is why ASEAN is reluctant to accept East Timor as a formal member.

However, the purpose of this paper is not to distinguish between the EU and ASEAN by comparing the pros and cons of their methods of managing the region. Instead, this paper considers that both the ASEAN Way and the

EU model have advantages. The informality of ASEAN ensures the comfort of member states in the process while also reflecting the wisdom of making the regional organization more flexible in the event of a crisis. The highly institutionalized EU model keeps the internal dynamics for regionalism development while also improving member states' ability to act together. These two different organizational models are products of each region's specific structure. History has proven the EU and ASEAN's relevance to their regions. They were enduring existence within their respective regions, which promoted economic development and achieved regional peace and stability for more than half a century, and both organizations have played an increasingly important international role.

3.2 Power, Institution and Culture: A Three-dimensional Analysis of the EU and ASEAN

The key variables that led to the different approaches of the EU and ASEAN lie in the different structures in the two regions. According to the mainstream theories of international relations, at least three factors are recognized as playing a decisive role in influencing actors' behavior—namely, power, institution and culture. Therefore, the following analysis is organized into three dimensions: the power structure of the region, the institutional environment and the cultural background.

3.2.1 Power Structure

Power structure is the core variable in the analysis of neo-realism, which determines the behavior of states. Seeking power maximization or security maximization has been considered the eternal theme of international relations. Cooperation between countries is mainly a product of the balance of power.

In ASEAN and the EU, dual structures need to be considered—namely, the global power structure and the regional power structure. First, from a global perspective, the emergence of the two regional organizations was a product of the Cold War. However, in the case of the EU, its founding members all belonged to the West/Capitalist camp; while in ASEAN, the five founding members held various stances in the Cold War. For instance, Indonesia supported the non-alliance movement, while the Philippines and Thailand were allies of the US. Southeast Asian countries are considered to have a regional group based on common geostrategic interests, but with different power relations with the two superpowers. Therefore, even from the beginning, a common political and security policy was hard to agree upon in Southeast Asia.

The role of the US cannot be overlooked. It is believed that the US played a central role in the two regional processes, which led to two paradigms of regionalism forming in Europe and Southeast/East Asia. (Katzenstein, 2005) In East Asia, the US intervened in the region through the bilateral alliance system. Small countries in the region depend on the US's security protection. However, it is apparent that the US's alliance system has some inherent contradictions with regional integration. The so-called hub-spoke system is still the cornerstone of the security structure in East Asia, which obstructs ASEAN's effort to build a security community. In contrast, the US treated Europe as a whole from the outset in terms of providing security protection and economic assistance; it treated European countries more equally in that sense. The US's encouragement, or at least tolerance, is a key factor in the development of European integration.

Moreover, the power structure within a region is equally important for the regional process. In fact, in any regional process, central leadership is needed to set agendas and push along the regional process in times of crisis. As the two core countries and two largest economies in Europe, France and Germany have co-leadership and are the engines for regional development. Their common will dominates the regional process to a large extent and is reflected in the recent debt crisis in particular.

In the case of ASEAN, regional leadership has been less clear. Indonesia is the largest country in the region and has the largest population; therefore, it is considered the most suitable candidate to lead ASEAN, and it seems to have the ambition to do so. However, Indonesia had lagged behind economic development, and longstanding territorial disputes with many of its neighbors prevent it from assuming economic and security leadership. The lack of leadership in Southeast Asia was reflected by the issue of the base selection of the ASEAN Secretariat in the first decade. Due to a possible controversy over the location of the Secretariat, the final arrangement was that each ASEAN country would have a national Secretariat instead of a centralized Secretariat. The arrangement only came to an end in 1976 when the permanent Secretariat was finally founded in Jakarta.

3.2.2 Institutional Environment and Path Dependence

The power structure can only partly explain why regional integration in Southeast Asia and Europe have different features. Unlike what realists would expect, when the common threat of the Cold War power struggle disappeared, the momentum of cooperation in both regions continued and was even better developed. This proves that power relations were not the only factor that regional countries considered when cooperating with

each other; they also cared about absolute gains. As the establishment of an institutional framework was conducive to enhancing the predictability of absolute gains and reducing transaction costs among regional countries, cooperation became possible. The claim could be applied in both Europe and Southeast Asia, but why did they choose different approaches to institutions?

This paper argues that in the institutional building process of the EU and ASEAN, the cost—benefit calculation is the key dynamic. Formal institutions will bring in benefits, but at the same time, they generate costs. Just as demand and supply reach a balance in the market, in an institutional 'market', the cost of building and maintaining an institution will be balanced with the benefit that the institution can provide to member countries. In the case of ASEAN, due to the diversity in the political, economic and social institutions of its members, the cost of deciding and implementing a formal institution would be very high, particularly in the first few decades.

For both formal and informal institutional arrangements, path dependence is a key phenomenon in the development of institutions. Once created, institutional development follows a certain path. Again, in the best-cost calculation, the cost generated from any change will be difficult to accept. Thus, the EU and ASEAN have followed their respective patterns until now. However, although both regions have path dependence and only a critical juncture (normally a crisis) could trigger change, the EU tends to be more proactive than ASEAN.

The theory of organization has indicated that regional organizations could develop their own organizational interests beyond the member states' interests. (Barnett & Finnemore, 1999) This is particularly true in the case of the EU. The European Commission has developed its own view and visions of the EU's future. Its development and growth is linked with the deeper integration of the EU. By using more resources, the European Commission has developed a strong capacity to promote its ideas. Other organs of the EU have similar motivations. It is one of the reasons for EU's proactive regionalism.

3.2.3 Cultural Background

According to the analysis of constructivism, the power structure and institutional framework functions through inter-subjective activity. The material properties of power and institutional arrangements need to be perceived by the actors, and they are determined by the culture and identity on the ground. The core reason for the difference between the informality of the ASEAN Way and the formality of the EU model could be explained by their different understandings of sovereignty and their roles in international society. This is mainly due to the fact that the two regions have different political traditions, histories and cultural backgrounds.

First, the distinct political and cultural traditions between the East and West tacitly affected the level of institutionalization of the two regional organizations. The loose structure of ASEAN is a heritage of the tributary system in East Asia, with China in the center. Southeast Asia has never been unified in history, and there was never a strong power that could dominate the whole region, while Europeans have a different history. The dream for a Pax Romana has always been in play, and the periodic unification and collapse left a special (sometimes quite bitter) historical memory for Europeans. (Shore, 2000)

Secondly, countries in Europe and Southeast Asia have different attitudes towards sovereignty. In Southeast Asia, most countries have been profoundly influenced by the experience of being colonized by Western countries. Safeguarding national sovereignty and territorial integrity is the core goal of Southeast Asian countries. When ASEAN was founded, all founding members were newly independent states and in the early stage of nation-building. Non-interference and decisions made by consensus was the doctrine of all ASEAN members. In contrast, as the birthplace of nation states, Europe had entered into a post-sovereign-state era after World War II. In Europe, extreme nationalism and the law of the jungle caused the tragedy of two great wars, which prompted all regional countries to quickly find a different path to development and peace rather than the dogma of sovereign states. European countries chose to start from the production of raw coal and steel to seek integration, and they began to try to break the paradigm of sovereign states in order to live under a supranational governance.

Finally, the different values of the East and West are also important. Asian values often connected with authoritarianism and crony capitalism; therefore, they were often questioned by the West. However, in Asia, and particularly in East Asia, a certain kind of common cultural tendency exists. For example, in East Asia, there is an emphasis on morals and social norms rather than legal systems and formal institutions. Personal relations are more important than formal procedures. In the early development of ASEAN, the political strongmen were indispensable, such as Mahathir's dedication to promoting the development of 10 +3, and Singapore leaders' initiatives to realize a Free Trade Area in Southeast Asia. The principle of consensus is the best embodiment of the East Asian culture. A decision that looks after everybody's mindset will be easier to implement in East Asian culture.

4. Conclusion

In summary, by comparing the EU and ASEAN, we try to argue that regional development could have different patterns and models. In their institutionalization and enlargement processes, the EU and ASEAN have shown a distinctive feature between proactive and reactive regionalism respectively. We employ an analytical eclecticism by examining the power, institutional and cultural factors that function at different levels. The evolution of the two regional organizations has demonstrated their adaptation to the ground environment. ASEAN and the EU embarked on two different development logics; however, their differences were in a relative sense rather than absolute. It should be noted that ASEAN's recent development has been of more interest to formal institutions. ASEAN has set a goal to establish the ASEAN Community by 2015, and more functional integration would be expected afterwards.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the National Social Science Foundation of China for financially supporting this research under Project No. 12BGJ014.

References

- Acharya, A. (2012). Comparative regionalism: A field whose time has come?. *The International Spectator*, 47(1), 3-15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03932729.2012.655004
- Andersen. S. S., Eliassen, K. A., & Sitter, N. (2001). Formal processes: EU institutions and actors. In S. S. Andersen & K. A. Eliassen (Eds.), *Making Policy in Europe* (pp. 20-43). London: SAGE Publications. http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446220092.n2
- Barnett, M. N., & Finnemore, M. (1999). The politics, power, and pathologies of international organizations. *International Organization*, *53*(4), 699-732. http://dx.doi.org/10.1162/002081899551048
- Breslin S., & Higgott, R. (2000). Studying regions: Learning from the old, constructing the new. *New Political Economy*, *5*(3), 333-352. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/713687784
- Buti, M., & Carnot, N. (2012). The EMU Debt Crisis: Early lessons and reforms. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 50(6), 899-911. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5965.2012.02288.x
- Chen, Z., & Gustaaf, G. (2003). Foreign policy integration in European Union: A mission impossible?. Beijing: Current Affairs Press.
- De Lombaerde, P., Söderbaum, F., Van Langenhove, L., & Baert, F. (2010). The problem of comparison in comparative regionalism. *Review of International Studies*, *36*, 731-753. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0260210 510000707
- Fawcett, L. (2004). Exploring regional domains: A comparative history of regionalism. *International Affairs*, 80(3), 429-446. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2346.2004.00391.x
- Hass, E. B. (1961). International integration: The European and the universal process. *International Organisation*, 15(3), 366-392. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0020818300002198
- Hurrell, A. (1995). Explaining the resurgence of regionalism in world politics. *Review of International Studies*, 21(4), 331-358. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0260210500117954
- Imada, P., & Naya, S. (Eds.). (1992). AFTA: The way ahead. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Katzenstein, P. J. (2005). A world of regions: Asia and Europe in the American imperium, Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.
- Keling, M. F., Som, H. M., Saludin, M. N., Shuib, M. S., & Ajis, M. N. (2011). The development of ASEAN from historical approach. *Asian Social Science*, 7(7), 169-189. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v7n7p169
- Kochenov, D. (2008). EU enlargement and the failure of conditionality: Pre-accession conditionality in the fields of democracy and the rule of law. Netherland: Kluwer Law International.
- Lane, P. R. (2012). The European Sovereign Debt Crisis. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 26(3), 49-68. http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/jep.26.3.49
- Larat, F. (2005). History of European integration 1945-2004. Beijing: Chinese Social Sciences Press.
- Palmer, N. D. (1992). SEATO, ASA, MAPHILINDO and ASPAC. In K. S. Sandhu, S. Siddique, C. Jeshurun, A. Rajah, J. L. H. Tan, & P. Thambipillai (Eds.), *The ASEAN Reader* (pp. 27-29). Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

- Paribatra, S. (1994). From ASEAN six to ASEAN ten: Issues and prospects. *Contemporary Southeast Asia, 16*(3), 243-258. http://dx.doi.org/10.1355/CS16-3A
- Potter, P. B. (1943). Universalism versus regionalism in international organization. *American Political Science Review*, *37*(5), 850-862. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1949101
- Severino, R. (2006). Southeast Asia in search of an ASEAN community: Insights from the former ASEAN Secretary-general. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Shore, C. (2000). Building Europe: The cultural politics of European integration. London and New York: Routledge.
- Sil, R., & Katzenstein, P. J. (2010). *Beyond paradigms: Analytic eclecticism in world politics*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Sjursen, H. (Ed.). (2006). Questioning EU enlargement: Europe in search of identity. London: Routledge Press.
- Söderbaum, F. (2009). Comparative regional integration and regionalism. In T. Landman, & N. Robinson (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Comparative Politics* (pp. 477-496). London: Sage Publications. http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9780857021083.n27
- Söderbaum, F. (2012). Theories of regionalism. In M. Beeson, & R. Stubbs (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Asian Regionalism* (pp. 11-21). Abingdon, Oxon: Routeledge.
- Van Langenhove, L. (2012). Why we need to 'unpack' regions to compare them more effectively. *The International Spectator*, 47(1), 16-29. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03932729.2012.655005
- Zagoria, D. S. (1997). Joining ASEAN. In J. W. Morley, & M. Nishihara (Eds.), *Vietnam Joins the World* (pp. 154-172). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe, Inc.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Professional Deformations of a Lawyer and Deformations of Legal Mind: Connection and Interaction. Experience of Modern Russia

Yana V. Gaivoronskaya¹

Correspondence: Yana Gaivoronskaya, Law School, Far-Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, 690009, Vladivostok, Anisimova str, 66-40, Russia. Tel: 7-914-790-9213. E-mail: yannavlad@gmail.com

Received: April 26, 2013 Accepted: July 2, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p80 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p81

Abstract

In this article the author is observing possible professional deformations of the personality of a lawyer. Some professional deformations can make a person unsuitable for his work. The author proves that talking about lawyers' professional deformations we should mostly speak about deformations of their legal mind. But observing the problem of low-leveled legal mind from the other hand, we can say that such legal mind can prevent some types of professional deformations as well.

Keywords: lawyers, professional deformation, professional legal activity, deformations of legal mind, professional competence of a lawyer, law

1. Introduction

Nowadays a set of professional knowledge and skills (for example in jurisprudence, medicine, management, information technology, etc.) is not all a person needs to be successful in his career. Graduates of a modern university will act in the conditions of tough competition on the labor market; they must know how to "sell themselves", be well received by an employer and business partners, integrate into professional community, prove to be a promising employee. Graduates' experience of employment shows that excellent academic performance does not guarantee same level of success in practical professional activities. It often happens that former A-students holding honor diplomas encounter problems as they seek to get employed, eventually taking up entry-level positions, perform ministerial duties with low or average income. At the same time C-students who did not show any significant academic results make brilliant careers, start their own businesses and take up managerial positions. Apparently, social realization of a graduate does not depend exclusively on theoretical knowledge and practical skills they mastered as students. There are other factors that impact one's social realization. Among the disciplines that study these factors are psychology and acmeology of professional activities, psychology of professionalism, occupational psychology and legal psychology (as it pertains to lawyers).

We can discriminate two approaches to understanding professionalism – sociological and psychological. Authors of sociological school define an activity as professional to distinguish it from non-professional performance of similar work; this evokes such parameters of the activity as systemic performance, performing it on a paid-for basis, being specifically trained for performing this activity (Zhalinsky, 2008). From psychological perspective professionalism is a property of an activity, expertise, high efficiency in performing the activity. In this sense professional activity in performed by a professional as highly skilled expert in his / her field. Within the framework of this study we will utilize psychological approach since it focuses on personal traits and skills that help one succeed professionally. Contemporary psychology of professions views professionalism as a general property that characterizes the subject of labor. This property enables him / her to perform professional activities and achieve significant results in any field almost independently from type and specifics of the activity. Professionalism is not only new highest level of knowledge and one's total result in a certain field; it is a certain system that characterizes organization of one's mind, one's psyche (Derkach & Zazykin, 2003).

Legal knowledge itself is not all a modern lawyer needs to practice law efficiently. Auspicious social realization requires communication skills, good command in modern methods of search and analysis of information, high level of self-organization and other skills. Under the current conditions professional competency of a lawyer is a complex of several professional competencies that help realize one another. Competency is quality of an

¹ Law School, Northern Far-Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russian Federation

employee's actions that ensure proper and efficient solutions for problem-plagued profession-related tasks, readiness to incur liability for one's actions. Each type of professional competence manifests in a set of separate competencies viewed as one's abilities to perform certain type of activities.

So, being a professional lawyer nowadays means to be able to perform successfully in any sphere. And to our regret, this often means that a person can "loose himself", loose his soul while building that thing that is usually called a 'successful career".

In this article we would like to observe legal mind as a main factor of professional adoptability of a lawyer. Legal mind consists of professional legal knowledge, person's attitude to law and his thoughts about law's role in the life of the society. Legal mind of a lawyer is created because of two main factors: first of all, special education and secondly, because of practicing him law.

Talking about lawyers' legal mind we can not forget about general acmeological invariants of professionalism:

- a) power of personality (various volitional powers and ability to assume liability);
- 6) advanced anticipation (ability to predict accurately and reliably, forestall development of situations that arise in course of professional activities);
- B) high level of self-regulation (ability to manage one's condition, high performance ability, resistance to stress, readiness to take urgent actions, ability to mobilize one's resources when it is necessary);
- r) ability to make decisions (courage in making decisions, reliability of decisions made, their timeliness and accuracy, uniqueness and efficiency);
- д) creativity (manifested not solely in high creative potential, but in ability to accomplish professional tasks efficiently through non-standard solutions);
- e) being highly and adequately motivated to achieve.

So, we can easily notice that all pointed categories (concerning a lawyer) are built in the special powerful mind and a special type of legal mind first of all.

And a professional deformation is a negative modification of person's mind because of which he begins to fancy law inadequately. The notion "deformation" is used in jurisprudence to characterize negative changes of a person's mind that lead to illegal behavior or to negative attitude towards law itself (Voplenko, 2003).

Modern science formulates lots of types of deformations of the legal mind. There are two opposite extremes: legal idealism and legal nihilism. Legal idealism means that a person thinks that law is super phenomenon and is able to solve any problem if the laws are properly made. Legal nihilism is an opposite phenomenon, a person with such deformation doesn't believe in the possibilities of law and its values for the society and, as a result, he doesn't want to obey the laws. There are some different deformations. For example, legal infantilism – a person knows almost nothing about law but he is sure he knows everything. Or legal subjectivism – a person is correlating any law with his own profit and ideas, he just ignores the real meaning of legal concepts. The best example of such deformation is a situation when a person is insisting that he has rights but he forgets that he also has some responsibilities.

We are not going to characterize all possible deformations of legal mind in this article. There is no doubt that any deformation leads to disobeying the norms of the law, generates illegal behavior and corruption and, as a result, people stop believing in law and law enforcement authorities.

2. Research Methodology

In our article we will mostly use the method of scientific hypothesis. We will presume that deformation of legal mind of a lawyer is, firstly, the demonstration of his professional deformation and, secondly, a factor for creating other professional deformations. To prove our hypothesis we will use such special scientific methods as method of observation and logical analysis.

3. Results and Discussion

Professional deformation of personality means changing of mental structure and features of personality because of accomplishing professional tasks.

Every profession initiates the creation of professional deformation of a personality.

According to professional psycology, professional deformations usually develop in people, who use to constantly communicate with other people: doctors, teachers, service workers, people who serve in the structures of law

enforcement-bodies etc. Jurisprudence is a «human-human» profession, so the problem of professional deformation is very actual for it.

According to E.F.Seer, professional deformations can be detected on four levels: (Zeer, 2005)

- 1. Common deformations, typical for such workers. These are specialties of behaviour, which can be watched on the most of long time working people. For example, for doctors the syndrome of «compassionate tiredness» is typical. It is expressed in emotional indifference to pationate's sufferings. Workers of law enforcement-bodies often consider everyone as a potential criminal. This is called «asocial perseption». Administrators often suffer because of the syndrome of «permissiveness», which is expressed in breaking the rules of professional and ethical norms' strong desire for manipulating his worker's professional lives.
- 2. Special professional deformations are being created during the specializations in profession. Every profession unites several specializations, and each has its own professional deformations. So, investigator acquires legal suspicion, an operative worker –aggressiveness, an advocate professional resourcefulness, and a prosecutor accusation.
- 3. Typical professional deformations are caused by co-existence of individual-psycological specialties of a person (temper ability, character) and psycological structure of professional activities. For example, professionally oriented deformations (distortion of motivative activity, sceptical attitude towards new workers); deformations, based on talents: administrative, communicative, intellectual, etc. (complex of superiority, hypertrophied level of pretensions, overstated self-apprasial, psycological hermetizations, narcissism, etc).
- 4. *Individualized deformations* are caused by the individual personal speciallities of workers of diffrent professions. During the process of long-term accomplising professional activitiessome talents can be even developed. As a result of psycological unity of the personality and profession some features can be transformed into accentuations. For example, overresponsibility, superhonour, hyperactivity, labour fanatism, professional enthusiasm.

Professional deformations of lawyers are still not well explored. And existing analitic explorations usually concern only lawyers from law enforcement-bodies. There are some marked forms of professional deformations concerning such people: over suspicion; accusatory in communication with people; narrow professionalism; prejudice; lack of self-control; superhero-feeling; abusing power; stereotype acts during communication; indifference (Zeer, 2005).

There is another classification, according to which all deformations of the lawyer can be divided conditionally into the general and special. It is necessary to understand the negative psychological changes peculiar to any person irrespective of a sort of its employment at contact with the right as the general. Traditionally the jurisprudence carries to such deformations: legal infertility, negativism and legal idealism. What are peculiar mainly to the persons who are engaged in lawyer activity concern special deformations. To them it is possible to carry treachery of the client, corporation treachery, envy to colleagues, a self-interest, incompetence, passivity, neglect interests of the client, effect "the provincial lawyer", etc. (Melnichenko, 2007)

The reasons for professional deformations of the lawyers are various. Mostly they are objectively connected with specifics of legal profession. For example, talking about law enforcement activities we can pick out following causes of professional deformations. Firstly, constant communication with offenders and close connection to criminal world. Secondly, communication with people in conflict situations. Thirdly, the fact that lawenforcement-bodies are full of people, who are psychologically not ready for such activities (non-quality choice). Fourthly, constant being among people accomplishing the function of the order guardian. This function initiates psychological tension and requires self-control. Fifthly, constant physical and mental overload, which lead to impoverishment intellectual and cultural evolution of the worker. Sixthly, variety of the stress situations, which cause psychological irritation (Dimitrov, 2003). Probably, these reasons all in all we can spread on other types of lawyers too.

Deformations of legal mind influence the formation of the professional competence and implementation of legal activities. Moreover, deformations of sense of justice can lead to professional unsuitability. Let's see how it can happen.

The extreme form of deformation is (according to Russian textbooks) «anti-legal consciousness». It is expressed in wrong acts, which are done on purpose. Talking about lawyers in law enforcement-bodies and government, extreme level of professional deformation and professional impropriety will lead to committing official crimes and corruption behavior.

Les's analyze the official statistics of the General Prosecurity of Russia. Anti-corruption activity nowadays is one of the basic directions of the legal politics of Russian government. According to this, corruption crimes are marked as a special group of crimes in the documents of the law enforcement-bodies. According to official documents, in 2012 there were registed 49513 corruption crimes. The number of coppuption crimes which were represented in the court is 21 263. The most part of it -26% – were committed in the lawenforsement sprhere. For example, in the sphere of public health and social ensuring were committed 17.8 % crimes, in the sprhere of education and science -15%, in the sphere of financial activity 6,2 %. In 2011 share of the corruption crimes in the sphere of lawenforsement-bodies is 34, 1 % (Note 1).

Analyzing statistics, we can see, that most part of corruption crimes in Russia is committed in Russia in the sphere of law enforcement-bodies. Such crimes include bribery, fraud, abusing official powers, excess of official powers, misappropriation and embezzlement, forgery. But people, who serve in this structure, are lawyers. As it was wisely said by one of my colleagues, professional deformations are largely influenced by surroundings and by the initial mentality of the human element in which it is noticed (Note 2). It means «I see how you are doing and I am trying to copy it». So, when a young lawyer comes somewhere to start his professional activities, he is really influenced by the behavior of his more experienced colleagues. And we can do nothing with this fact.

4. Conclusion

So, in our opinion, the cause of corruption in legal sphere is deformation legal mind. We have analyzed the reasons for professional deformations. But mentioned reasons, which influence all the workers, who take part in the similar kind of activity, differently affect on different people. One person can get significant and stable change of attitude towards whole world and this will change his personal features and behavior. As a result, he will get deformations, that will negatively influence his work and life and will cause the low quality of professional activities and communication in general. Another person will be able to prevent deformations and outside obstacles because of it's own principles, life position and values. To my mind, well formed professional features of a lawyer and existence of strong, not deformed legal mind are factors, which prevent evolution of professional deformations. Moral and ethical features are the basis of a personality, that can save its unity.

Deformations of legal mind can make a lawyer unable to do his work and to be useful for the society, because neglect for the respect of law (as a basis of professional deformation) can lead to the lack of professional knowledge and, as a result, to unappropriated behaviour. Respecting law, respecting profession and self-esteem – these terms must be unbreakable for any lawyer.

References

Derkach, A., & Zazykin, V. (2003). Acmeology: Study guide / – Saint Petersburg (p. 227).

Dimitrov, A.V. (2003). Entrance in judicial psychology. Course of lections (p. 86).

Melnichenko, R. G. (2007). Samyj a heavy sin of the lawyer//the Lawyer. Retrieved from http://melnichenko.net/pname29en.html

Voplenko, N. N. (2000). Legal mind and legal culture (p. 25). Volgograd.

Zeer, E. F. (2005). Psychology of professions. Textbook for students (p. 321). Moscow.

Zeer, E. F. (2005). Psychology of professions. Textbook for students (pp. 240-241). Moscow.

Zhalinsky, A. E. (2008). Introduction into profession "Jurisprudence". In *Professional activities of a lawyer*. *Textbook* (pp. 56-61). Moscow: Prospect Publishing House.

Notes

Note 1. Doi: http://genproc.gov.ru/anticor/doks/document-81540/

Note 2. Doi: http://archive.org/stream/jstor-2763633/2763633_djvu.txt

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Conditions and Problems in the Promotion of Youth's Behaviors in Accordance with the Islamic Way of Life by Muslim Leaders of Ban Sarong, Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province

Kasetchai Laeheem¹, Dolmananch Baka², Hasbullah Tahe³ & Sasuree Walee³

Correspondence: Kasetchai Laeheem, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hatyai, Songkhla, Thailand. E-mail: Lkasetchai@yahoo.com

Received: April 26, 2013 Accepted: July 2, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p85 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p85

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to investigate conditions and problems in promoting youth's behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life by Muslim leaders of Ban Sarong, Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province. The data were collected through a knowledge management discussion forum with 10 religious leaders, 10 local leaders, 10 core youth leaders, and 10 parents and guardians. Content analysis was conducted using logical comparisons of concepts, theories, and research reports coupled with contexts. The research findings revealed that Muslim leaders realized, gave importance to, and were determined to promote youth's behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life; however, they still lacked knowledge, understanding, skills and experience in promoting youth to have behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life. Moreover, it was found that Muslim leaders lacked social relationships with youth while youth did not give importance to, did not realize, and did not pay attention to activities that were to promote behaviors according to the Muslim way of life organized for them by Muslim leaders. As a result, the promotion of behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life was not yet successful.

Keywords: conditions and problems, promotion of behaviors, behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life, youth, Muslim leaders

1. Introduction

Muslims have a unique way of life that they must strictly practice according to the religious principles that set a perfect life where beliefs and practice are molded together, and the secular activities and religious activities are in good harmony. These appear in the Koran and are modeled by the prophet Muhammad (Anmunajid, 2004; Laeheem & Baka, 2010). However, society nowadays has changed very fast along with technological advancements that affect the Muslim way of life both directly and indirectly. For example, parents are busy because of economic conditions which make them have no time to closely teach and train their children. Muslim youth are interested in activities that are presented in the media with the content that is more exciting and fun than religious activities. Muslim leaders neglect social problems that violate religious principles, and such problems are so many that they become normal. As a result, Muslim youth deviate from the correct way of life, give importance to leading their lives wrongly and in conflict with Islamic principles, and rejoice in the modern world so much that they become slaves of modern values. All these have sadly caused worrisome social problems. For example, female youth do not wear head-scarves, and for some of those who wear them, they wear them in such a way to show their beauty. Some youth are addicted to drugs, sexually deviated while others gamble, do not pray and do not fast, etc. (Anmunajid, 2004; Annadwee, 2004). This is in correspondence with a study that found that most Muslim youth in the three southern border provinces lead their lives in violation of Islamic principles. For example, they are in same sex relationship unlimitedly and unduly free. They usually do nonsense activities and make troubles. They openly have friends of the opposite sex, and feel free to hold hands, caress, kiss, and have premarital sexual relations. Moreover, they do not give importance to studying religion, do not spend their free time usefully, turn to all vices, have no job, adapt their clothes to look modern, do not

¹Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hatyai, Thailand

²Independent scholars, Muang, Pattani, Thailand

³Faculty of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences, Yala Islamic University, Yarang, Pattani, Thailand

practice religion, avoid participation in activities in helping others, and do not participate in community activities (Laeheem & Baka, 2010). The problem of Muslim youth violating Islamic principles has long become a repeated and chronic problem and cannot be solved alone by anyone individuals or organization but it requires cooperation from all related individuals and organization (Mahama, 2009).

As can be seen, Muslim youth nowadays have more freedom in the changing society with rapid development. The gaps between children and parents are wider not only in their thoughts but also in doing activities together. Parents have to work and to be responsible for the family economy and have no time to socialize their children. Consequently, Muslim youth lead their lives without receiving good advice and correct guidelines according to religious principles. They are after the fashion, influenced by mass media and peers, admire modernity, and spend more time with high technology. It is said that recently Thai Muslim society has changed all the time economically and socially which affects their living condition and way of life (Boonyasith, 1988). Therefore, Muslim leaders who are also directly responsible for how youth live their lives in Muslim society must realize and give important to the problems, and must play a role in training, warning, and encouraging Muslim youth to strictly follow Islamic principles, and in correcting youth's misbehavior (Baka, 2007; Laeheem & Baka, 2010). Religious leaders must perform their duty in socializing members of society to hold onto good deeds, morals, moral awareness, knowing right from wrong, appropriate behavior, and self-determination in a good way of life. They must also promote Muslim youth to live the Islamic way of life and according to social norms (Boonyasith, 1988). Islamic socialization is development of personality and human character in accordance with Islam so that they have morals and ethics that make them exist peacefully and happily in society (Khagphong, 2004; Mahama, 2009). Muslim leaders must play an important role in solving social problems that are happening and they must be an important driving force in looking after youth because it is their responsibility towards God. According to Muslim beliefs, they will be tested in the next world. Therefore, Muslim leaders must help each other instill awareness in youth that they have to live their lives according to Islamic principles and they must be modeled after the prophet Muhammad. There must be training on Islamic ethics regularly for all youth and promotions for them to study about the religion along with general subjects. The government sector should allow the provincial Islamic committees to have a role to play completely in looking after youth, especially in their misbehavior about having opposite sex friends, improper ways of dressing, doing vices, etc. Islamic laws should be seriously enforced and implemented as the highest and absolute laws such as laws related to how to dress, having opposite sex friendships, and other behaviors that violate Islamic principles (Laeheem & Baka, 2010).

The abovementioned conditions and problems make it necessary for an investigation into the conditions and problems in promoting youth to have behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way of life by Muslim leaders of Ban Sarong, Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province. The results of this study will be useful for setting guidelines for promoting and supporting Muslim leaders to look after youth according to the Islamic way of life. Moreover, they can be useful in providing assistance for youth who have risk behaviors that are not in accordance with Islamic principles to behave more in the Islamic way before the problem becomes more severe and difficult to solve.

2. Methods

In this qualitative study, data were gathered through a knowledge management discussion forum attended by four groups of key informants in Ban Sarong village, Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province. They consisted of 10 religious leaders, representatives of local leaders, 10 core youth leaders, and 10 representatives of parents and guardians. In the preliminary analysis, the data were categorized according to the issues of the objective. Then content analysis was conducted using the logical comparisons of concepts, theories, and research reports coupled with contexts.

3. Results and Discussion

From the knowledge management discussion forum and in-depth interviews with Muslim leaders, core youth leaders, parents and guardians, and academics to investigate the conditions and problems in promoting youth to have behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way by Muslim leaders of Khao Tum Sub-district, Yarang District, Pattani Province, the following interesting findings were revealed.

1. Muslim leaders realized, gave importance, and were determined to promote youth to behave in accordance with the Islamic way. They thought that this was the responsibility assigned to them by Allah to look after, instill, and promote youth to behave and live the way of life according to the Islamic principles. Mr. Abdulla (a youth leader) said, "...Muslim leaders gives importance and understand their role in looking after youth the Islamic way which is their responsibility both in this world and the next world..." Mr. Eliyas (a Muslim leader) said, "...Muslim leaders see and realize the importance of looking after youth according to the Islamic way and

www.ccsenet.org/ass Asian Social Science Vol. 10, No. 17; 2014

expectation of the community and society. They make efforts in seeking cooperation from individuals and they play their role without thinking that it is the duty of other individuals or organizations..." Mr. Ibrohem (a guardian) said, "...Muslim leaders must do their duty of training youth on Islamic ethics and give them knowledge and understanding of Islamic principles so that youth can live the correct Islamic way of life..." In addition, Muslim leaders have established a work team, distributed responsibilities to team members, and clearly set the types of activity in looking after and promoting the Islamic way of behavior for youth. This can be seen from Mr. Baharun who said, "... Muslim leaders have set a committee especially for looking after youth, set the work structure, and organized activities related to religious principles that can develop vouth's potential...' Miss Robiyah (a guardian) said, "... Muslim leaders promote and look after young Muslim women by setting up vocational groups for earning extra money, doing activities to help society, and doing study group activities... Miss Solihah (a core youth leader) emphasized, "... Muslim leaders have clear ways for looking after youth according to their work structure in order for youth to practice according to the Islamic principles, and for giving warnings to youth who do not practice accordingly..." Thus, it is obvious that Muslim leaders of Ban Sarong give importance to looking after youth and consider that it is their duty or commitment to practice according to the work structure that is assigned to them to do in accordance with the Islamic principles. It is their responsibility to look after people in the community, set rules for the community, train, teach and socialize youth to behave the Islamic way. This is in agreement with the results of a study that revealed that Muslim leaders play a very important role in providing assistance, care, and promotion for Muslim youth to behave the Islamic way a live a correct Islamic way of life. This can be done by setting up youth clubs or youth groups to make most Muslim youth live the Islamic way life (Laeheem, 2012). Religious leaders are responsible for training, teaching and socializing youth according to the Islamic principles to make them behave correctly and properly with morals and ethics (Boonyasith, 1988; Suphap, 2003). Community leaders participate in child and youth development regarding their health and prevention, intelligence and competence in working, emotion and responsibility according to their age, and participation in the community and society. Furthermore, Muslim leaders must help instill in Muslim youth awareness in living the Islamic way of life and being modeled after the prophet Muhammad (Laeheem & Baka, 2010).

In addition, it can be seen that Muslim leaders have awareness and realization in looking after and promoting Muslim youth to behave the Islamic way of life by giving them knowledge and understanding of principles of belief, practice, moral and ethics because these are people's actions according to their role, responsibility and their given social positions. The reason is for Muslim youth to take as their life system and use it in the daily life correctly according to the principles of belief and principles of Islam as it is said that Muslim leaders are in the status and social position that they must perform the duty assigned to them. They must be knowledgeable in the ordinances, the work under their responsibility, and they must take care that Muslims in the community behave in accordance to Islam (Sengpracha, 1994; Sengpracha, 1998; Suratanakawikul, 1999; Department of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Education, 1999; Satsangan, 2000). Muslim leaders train, teach, refine the mind, nurture intelligence, bodies and soul of Muslim youth by giving them complete and correct Islamic religious education about the principles of belief, practice, moral and ethics that enable Muslim youth to have moral, ethics, discipline, and know how to live happily in society. Such training, teaching, and refining can prevent youth from social problems, make them humble and live their lives in accordance with the Islamic ordinances (Narongraksakhet, 1997; Mahama, 2009; Baka & Laeheem, 2010). Hence, the Islamic way of looking after and promoting Muslim youth is considered the model or guidelines that Muslim leaders must do as expected by society or as assigned to them according to their role, authority, and social position.

2. Muslim leaders lack knowledge and understanding of the role assigned to them, and they lack skills and experience in promoting youth to behave the Islamic way. Most Muslim leaders do not understand their role as designated by Islam and they do not use Islamic teachings as the main guideline in promoting behaviors that are in accordance with the Islam. As a result, they cannot achieve their work in promoting youth to behave the Islamic way. This can be seen from what Mr. Abdulhaleem (a religious leader) said, "...religious leaders lack correct knowledge and understanding. They don't use the principles from the Al-quran and the Al-hadith so they don't understand their role in which they have to be responsible in this world and the next world. They don't know the existing problems and what they have to do with the problems and how to solve them..." Mr. Muhammad (a representative of the guardians) said, "...Muslim leaders don't have knowledge and understanding about how to promote youth to behave in accordance with the Islamic way, especially in applying religious principles in the present time..." Reflections from two youth representatives are as follows: Mr. Adam said, "...Muslim leaders lack knowledge and understanding, and neglect their role in promoting youth to behave according to the Islamic way of life..." while Mrs. Robiyah said, "...Muslim leaders don't understand their role, and don't have knowledge in youth development so the community has problems..." Additionally, Muslim

leaders lack skills and experience in promotion of the Islamic way of behaviors among youth because most Muslim leaders do not have opportunity to develop their skills and experience through participation in seminars or study visits. This can be seen from what Mr. Ahamad (a religious leader) said, "...Developing youth's behaviors requires knowledge, skills and experience, so leaders need training and seminars conducted by speakers from either the government or private sector to help increase their knowledge and skills in youth development. Study visits to other places should be organized for Muslim leaders to exchange opinions and experience with other organizations that have been successful in youth development..."

As can be seen, Muslim leaders lack knowledge and understanding of the role assigned to them according to the Islamic principles. This is one of the important factors affecting the work in promotion of youth behaviors the Islamic way. A lack of guidelines or proper methods is a problem for leaders to perform their duty as expected or designated by society. Thus, it is necessary for leaders to study and seek knowledge about their role to truly understand it (Sengpracha, 1994; Sengpracha, 1998; Satsangan, 2000). Muslim leaders must study to obtain knowledge and understanding of the principles of belief, practice, and moral and ethics and take them as the system of life so that they have prosperity in their knowledge, skills, process, and good attitudes continually, and so that they can correctly apply them in the work under their responsibility (Mahama, 2009). They should take it as the system of life and use it as guidelines for promoting Muslims to exist in society happily and peacefully. This is the complete process of socializing and nurturing the mind (Narongraksakhet, 1997). Leaders must also have profound knowledge of the mandates and work under their administration because leaders who lack knowledge can become a puppet on a string and can eventually lead society to disaster (Department of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Education, 1999). Moreover, learning about Islam can make Muslims humble, live a life according to the Islamic principles, and prevent learners from problems, especially those problems related to the social environment and change (Baka & Laeheem, 2010).

3. Muslim leaders lack social relations with youth. Making friends or positive relationships with Muslim youth by supporting and helping, maintaining and developing with youth can contribute to promotion of youth's behaviors the Islamic way with good cooperation. However, Muslim leaders in Ban Sarong do not interact nor have good relationships with youth because of the generation gap and the leaders do not try to find opportunity to be familiar with youth. As a result, youth do not accept them and activities promoting youth to behave the Islamic way cannot access the target group of youth. This can be seen in what Mr. Anwar (a youth leader) said, "...Muslim leaders do not really listen to youth and do not meet youth's need and this leads to resistance among youth who naturally do not accept the leaders. Muslim leaders are not aware and do not understand the reason why youth behave the way they do, instead they think that youth have bad behaviors. So the relationship gap between Muslim leaders and youth gradually widens..." Mr. Usman (a youth leader) said, "...Muslim leaders lack connection with youth and are not open-minded enough for participation in activities they organize. They don't try to find opportunity to get acquaintance with youth. So, they don't receive cooperation from youth, and some youth participate unwillingly..."

Thus, the lack of social relations with youth has made Muslim leaders unable to correctly perceive needs and attitudes of youth, and as a result, youth do not cooperate in activities that are organized by Muslim leaders, and that are meant to promote youth to behave in the Islamic way. This corresponds with study results that Muslim leaders need to have good and effective social relations with youth, and Muslim leaders should make efforts to make friends with youth and make them feel that Muslim leaders are good friends, respectable older brothers and fathers. This is one important factor that can make looking after youth the Islamic way a success, and attract good cooperation from youth to participate in activities that promote the Islamic way of life (Laeheem, 2012; Laeheem, 2013a; Laeheem, 2013b; Laeheem, 2013c; Tahe & Laeheem, 2013; Laeheem & Madred, 2014).

4. Muslim youth do not give importance to, do not realize and do not pay attention to activities to promote behaviors the Islamic way that are organized by Muslim leaders. Instilling the principles of belief and practice to Muslim youth requires techniques and method that are attractive and meet the needs of the youth but Muslim leaders in Ban Sarong lack skills, knowledge, and understanding of such techniques and methods. As a result, Muslim youth do not cooperate and are not interested in the promotion of the Islamic way of behavior organized by Muslim leaders. Mr. Ahamad (a Muslim leader) said, "...In promoting the Islamic way of behavior among Muslim youth, it is very necessary for Muslim leaders to have knowledge, understanding, skills, and experience to interest and attract youth to participate in the activities in order to achieve the goal that has been set..." Besides, the activities organized by Muslim leaders do not meet the needs and interest of Muslim youth, so they receive no cooperation from youth in participation in the activities. This is reflected by Mr. Yahya who said, "...Muslim leaders usually organize activities to warn youth in the community to realize and practice the Islamic principles regularly but only a few youth participate because youth usually think that the activities are boring

and not interesting..." Mr. Usman emphasized that "...During the night, Muslim leaders normally give religious lessons to youth in the community for them to learn religious principles and to be able to practice them correctly. But only 10 - 15 youths are interested in the activities..." Mrs. Salma (a guardian) said, "...Every month, Muslim leaders meet with youth to exchange their views, and during the school breaks, Muslim leaders organize training on ethics for youth. But these two types of activities are not very well accepted as they should have been..." Therefore, it can be seen that activities that are organized to promote behaviors according to the Islamic way at Ban Sarong do not receive cooperation and attention from youth because most of the activities organized by Muslim leaders do not meet the needs and interest of youth. The type and style of the activities remain the same. There are not many types of activities and mainly focus on religious activities without integration of secular and religious activities. The activities should incorporate religious principles into them to make them interesting and meet the needs of youth. Activities that are used to socialize the mind and to instill social norms in youth should include principles of moral and ethics so that youth can learn the value, regulations, and are able to live with others in society (Sengpracha, 1998; Satsangan, 2000; Suphap, 2003).

In addition, most of the activities from the Muslim leaders' concepts lack cooperation from youth and the activities do not promote youth to have opportunity to operate them by themselves so many youths refuse to participate in the activities. Consequently, the goal that has been set cannot be achieved. This is reflected in the statements that specify that promotion of work organized and performed by a group of people who have the same goal that include all people concerned with the clear part of the work under their responsibility can result in a very high opportunity for success (Mapobsuk, 2000; Tansakul, 2004; Spector, 2006). Working in a group of the same interest and needs is considered motivation for work and can help develop the work process to achieve the goal (DeLamater & Myyers, 2007). Muslim leaders that place emphasis on the process that involve youth in the work is to give opportunity to core youth leaders to take responsibility in looking after and promoting behaviors the Islamic way among youth themselves. Giving opportunities to Muslim youth to freely make decisions and equally at all the stages of activities from the stage of identifying the problems and the causes, to the stages of planning the activities, implementing the plan, monitoring and evaluating the activities is the main factor that can interest youth to voluntarily participate in the activities with enthusiasm and intention. Eventually, this will make the activities successfully achieve the goal (Patanapongsa, 2004; Srimechai, 2004; Bureekul, 2005; Prachantawanich, 2007). Thus, it can be seen that emphasis on the process that includes participation from youth can achieve in youth participation in the activities that interest and meet the needs of youth.

5. The promotion of behaviors in accordance with the Islamic way has not yet been a success. Muslim youth in Ban Sarong are not interested in activities and do not cooperate by participating in activities to promote behaviors that are in accordance with the Islamic way. This has resulted in many Muslim youth (approximately 95 percent of them) do not behave according to the expectation of Islamic society and behave in conflict with the Islamic principles. These behaviors include having same-sex friends freely without limits and usually do nonsense activities, making troubles, having opposite-sex friends openly and hold hands, embrace, kiss and even have premarital sexual relationships. They give more importance to other subjects than the religious subject. They do not know how to spend their free time usefully. They are engaged in all vices, and unemployed. They dress in a modern way like Western movie stars and singers. Their relationships with their family members, relatives, neighbors and community are not very close, and they lack good relationships with each another. They neglect and do not give importance to religious activities. They do not give importance to doing good things for the community and avoid doing it. These can be seen in what Mr. Abdulrohim (a religious leader) said, "...Most youth choose to have same-sex friends who have the same concepts and ideologies and they go out wasting their time. For most youth who have opposite-sex friends, they also choose friends with the same character and ideologies, and they talk, hold hands, caress, and kiss and have sexual relationships before marriage according to the religious principles. Most youth choose to study in the general stream instead of the religious one. They spend most of their time with friends, going to movies, listening to songs, going for a ride, playing games, hanging out at night, betting on football, and going to a karaoke places. Most youth do not have a job. Most boys wear T-shirts with pictures on them and shorts while girls wear small-sized hijab, tight skirts, tight T-shirts and tight slacks. Most youth do not have good interaction with their family members and relatives. Most youth do not do anything for charity and do not participate in community activities. Most of them rarely pray five times a day, never fast, never make donations, never read the Koran and never say grace or think of God..." Mrs. Khodiyah (a guardian) emphasized, "... Most Muslim youth have same-sex and opposite-sex friends but their relationships exceed the limits prescribed by Islam. They don't want to study and spend their time uselessly and in a way that violates Islamic principles. They're involved in all vices, and unemployed. They do not dress according to the Islamic principles. They do not have good relationships with family and neighbors. They neglect religious practice and don't like doing charitable activities and don't participate in community activities..." Additionally, Mr. Marobee (an academic) gave more details, "... Youth choose to have same-sex friends who don't practice the religion or practice it improperly such as they don't pray or read the Koran, and they don't fast. They drink and take drugs. They go to discothèques, and commit adultery, etc. Youth are alone with their girlfriends or boyfriends. They go out alone teasing and holding hands. Boys ride their motorcycles carrying their girlfriends in the back seat. They don't study in an Islamic school that teaches moral and ethics. They don't study the Koran. They don't study religion and they don't study general subjects. Youth spend time uselessly and in uncreative ways. They don't dress according to the Islamic principles. They don't have good interaction with their family members, relatives, community and neighbors. They're not interested in doing charitable activities".

Therefore, it can be seen that Muslim leaders cannot look after and promote Muslim youth to behave the Islamic way of life and they cannot promote youth to live their life according to the Islamic principles. Moreover, they cannot instill awareness of good things in youth, and cannot teach them right from wrong, and make them feel shame for doing sins through socialization. The socialization process can result in desirable behavior according to religious principles because it can instill in youth discipline, moral and ethics according to social norms (Thitirat, 2004; Sereetrakul, 2009). It can also be seen that the fact that youth do not give importance to studying Islam from their childhood is another factor that make youth live their lives not in accordance with Islamic principles even though all Muslims know very well that studying Islam is their duty. It is important that they have knowledge and understanding Islam and take it as the system of life and practice it as their daily routine. It is said that seeking knowledge of Islam is the duty of all Muslims who must study it completely and correctly in terms of the principles of believe, practice, moral and ethics. They are to take it as the system of life that is prosperous in its growth in knowledge, skill, process, and living in society peacefully and happily (Narongraksakhet, 1997; Mahama, 2009). Studying Islam is important for Muslim youth, and it can prevent youth from all types of problem because knowledge can help prevent them from being lost in the environment and society. Education can make Muslim youth humble and live their lives according to the Islamic principles (Laeheem & Baka, 2010).

As can be seen from the above research outcomes, Muslim youth nowadays live a very different way of life than before. In the past, most Muslim youth lived a way of life in accordance with expectation of Muslim society and the Islamic principles. Their way of life was with the identity similar to Muslims the world over who strictly practiced their religion in accordance with the guidelines in the Koran and who were modeled after the prophet Muhammad through various ways of teaching and training by different institutions. Nevertheless, presently, only a small proportion of Muslim youth hold this identity while most of them live a way of life that violates the Islamic principles. This serious problem requires all parties concerned to help think and solve the problem. One important cause of the problem is the changing social conditions in technological advancement and the rapid changes in all aspects of the world. This affects the way of life of Muslim youth directly and indirectly causing psychological changes and changes in their living conditions. For example, parents have no time to closely teach and train their children. Youth are not interested in religious activities. Moreover, Muslim leaders neglect social problems and as a result, they become normal happenings. Therefore, Muslim youth live an incorrect way of life. This corresponds with the statements that technological advancements and social change affect the Muslim youth's way of life. For instance, parents have no time for training and teaching their children because they do not have much time together. Youth are so interested in exciting and fun activities that they neglect religious activities but do all vices and use drugs because they are widely available and easy to get. Consequently, Muslim youth deviate from the correct way of life, indulge in the modern way of living, and become slaves to Western values and culture that rapidly come into Muslim society (Anmunajid, 2004; Din-a, 2008; Laeheem & Baka, 2010). Muslim youth behave in such a way that violates Islamic principles. For example, Muslimah wear hijab but show their shapes. Some Muslim youth use drugs, have problem in their sexual orientation or gender identity, do not pray, cannot read the Koran, have debts, and do not pay Zakat, etc. Moreover, Muslim youth commit sins and taboos so often that they become habits and they do not feel ashamed any longer. They commit sins openly and do religious activities carelessly (Anmunajid, 2004; Mahama, 2009; Laeheem & Baka, 2010).

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of the study show that Muslim leaders have realization and determination in promoting youth to behave according to the Islamic way which is their duty described in the role assigned to them. However, Muslim youth do not give importance and pay attention to activities to promote the Islamic way of behavior that Muslim leaders organize for them. This is because Muslim leaders lack skills, knowledge, understanding of techniques and methods to make the activities interesting, and to use the promotion process that includes youth's participation. The result was that youth do not cooperate and do not participate in the activities. Consequently,

Muslim youth in Ban Sarong have behaviors that do not meet the expectation of Muslim society and violate the Islamic principles. For example, most Muslim youth have same-sex friends with no limits and with freedom, and they usually do nonsense activities, and make troubles. Some of them have opposite-sex friends openly and freely; they hold hands, caress, kiss and even have premarital sexual relationships. They give more importance to general subjects than religious ones. They do not know how to use their free time usefully. They are engaged in all vices, and unemployed. They dress in a way that makes them look modern like movie stars and singers. Their relationships with their family members and relatives are not very close; they lack good relationships with each other. The relationships with their neighbors and community are not good and they do not pay attention to each other. They neglect and do not give importance to practicing religious activities. They do not give importance to and avoid doing charity and do not participate in community activities. These indicate that nowadays youth have more freedom to live their life and are easily led by fashions, media and peer influence. Because teenagers enjoy things that are new, different and modern, they spend their free time using new technological gadgets, consuming the latest electronic devices, and spending their lives in a modern way.

Therefore, all parties concerned and all levels of organizations in the government and private sectors, parents, guardians and Muslim leaders must have realization, give importance to the abovementioned problems, and join hands to solve them. They must help Muslim youth to live the way of life in accordance with the Islamic principles, especially to promote education that emphasizes both religious and general subjects. They must promote youth to dress according to the Islamic principles, to have friends of the same sex and opposite sex and keep their relations within the limits of the religious principles. They must promote youth to have jobs and occupations, promote them to have good relationships with their family members, relatives, neighbors and community. They must promote youth to learn to sacrifice and do charitable activities. All of these are what Muslim society expects from youth. Muslim leaders and core youth leaders are expected to work together in looking after and promoting behaviors that are in accordance with the Islamic way and meet the needs and interest of youth in the community. All related individuals and organizations should cooperate in the work. Particularly, the government sector should for policy, assign certain organizations to be responsible for the work, provide financial support for youth promotion, support establishments of youth groups or youth clubs in each village to promote and support youth to participate in the operation of looking after and promoting behaviors the Islamic way. The emphasis should be on youth participation in all stages of operation from the thinking process, planning, decision-making, implementing, monitoring and evaluating. Furthermore, all related individuals and organizations should give importance and have realization in seeking ways to help youth to live the way of life designated by Islam, and in preventing youth from living the incorrect way of life according to Islam, and living the way of life that does not meet the expectation of Muslim society.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Higher Education Research Promotion and National Research University Project of Thailand, Office of the Higher Education Commission.

References

- Anmunajid, S. (2010). *Prohibited relationships*. Retrieved from http://www.majlis-ilmi.org/islam/modules.php? op=modload&name=Sections&file=index&req=viewarticle&artid=1&page=1
- Annadwee, A. (2004). *Dear Muslim intellectuals*. Retrieved February 19, 2012, from http://www.majlis-ilmi.org/slam/modules.php?op= modload&name = Sections&file = index&req = viewarticle&artid =8&page=1
- Baka, D., & Laeheem, K. (2010). The role of Muslim leaders in educational development of Muslim society in the southern border provinces of Thailand. *Songklanakarin Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 16(1), 35-51.
- Baka, D. (2007). Masjid: Economic basic and cultural capital. Pattani: Prince of Songkla University.
- Boonyasith, A. (1988). *The role of Islamic leaders in solving the crime problem in the three southern border provinces* (Unpublished master's thesis). Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Bureekul, T. (2005). Participation theories and processes. Nonthaburi: King Prajadhipok's Institute.
- DeLamater, J. D., & Myyers, D. J. (2007). Social psychology (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Tomson/Wadsworth.
- Department of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Education. (1999). *The manual of Masjid and community managements*. Bangkok: Religious Affairs Publishing.
- Din-a, A. (2008). The crisis of southern Thailand "It can be solved". Songkhla: Max Media Y2k Press.
- Khagphong, P. (2004). Islamic faith on behavior of child breeding of Thai Muslim family in Bangkok

- (Unpublished master's thesis). Prince of Songkla University, Pattani, Thailand.
- Laeheem, K., & Baka, D. (2010). A study of the Thai Muslim youth's way of life to maintaining peace in the three southern border provinces of Thailand. *Songklanakarin Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 16(6), 973-988.
- Laeheem, K., & Madreh, A. (2014). Youth supervision based on Islam provided by Muslim leaders in southern Thailand. *Kasetsart Journal: Social Sciences*, 35(1), 92-102.
- Laeheem, K. (2012). Youth supervision based on Islamic belief of Muslim leaders in the communities of 3 southern provinces. *Kasetsart Journal: Social Sciences*, 33(3), 454-463.
- Laeheem, K. (2013a). Needs for behavioral refinement based on the Islamic principles among Muslim juveniles with risky behaviors in the three southern-border provinces of Thailand. *Kasetsart Journal: Social Sciences*, 34(1), 126-138.
- Laeheem, K. (2013b). Reception of behavior supervision based on Islamic belief among Muslim adolescents in the three southern-border provinces, Thailand. *Kasetsart Journal: Social Sciences*, 34(2), 323-334.
- Laeheem, K. (2013c). The Islamic way of youth care by Muslim leaders in the three southern-border provinces of Thailand. *Asian Social Science*, *9*(10), 160-168. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n10p160
- Mahama, M. (2009). Islam: Way of life. Songkhla: Po-bard.
- Mapobsuk, W. (2000). Human relations. Bangkok: Se-Education.
- Narongraksakhet, I. (1997). History of Islamic education. Pattani: Prince of Songkla University.
- Patanapongsa, N. (2004). *Participation: Basic principles, techniques and case studies*. Chiang Mai University.
- Prachantawanich, A. (2007). Causal relationships of work environment factors and personal factors related to personal participation in Thammasat University's education quality assurance (Unpublished master's thesis). Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Satsangan, N. (2000). The principle of cultural anthropology (4th ed.). Bangkok: Rama Printing.
- Sengpracha, N. (1994). Manual of community development. Bangkok: Rungsin Printing.
- Sengpracha, N. (1998). Human and society (4th ed.). Bangkok: O. S. Printing House.
- Sereetrakul, W. (2009). Factors affecting family solidarity in the opinions of Thai teenagers (Unpublished master's thesis). Ramkhamhaeng University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Spector, E. (2006). Industrial organizational psychology: Research and practice (4th ed.). New York: Willey.
- Srimechai, N. (2004). Factors affecting adult learners' participation in vocational short courses in non-formal education centers in Bangkok metropolis (Unpublished master's thesis). Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Suphap, S. (2003). Sociology (23rd ed.). Bangkok: Thai WatanaPanich.
- Suratanakawikul, P. (1999). Human and society (2nd ed.). Bangkok: Kasetsart University.
- Tahe, H., & Laeheem, K. (2013). The causes of reduction of the role in youth management according to the Islamic way among Muslim leaders in the three southern border provinces. *Asian Social Sciences*, *9*(17), 135-143. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n17p135
- Tansakul, P. (2004). Why teams do not work. Bangkok: Jit Jakawarn.
- Thitirat, P. (2004). *Human and society*. Bangkok: Kasetsart University.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Firm Financial Performance by Moderating of Dynamic Capability

Majid Dadashinasab¹ & Saudah Sofian¹

Correspondence: Majid Dadashinasab, Department of Accounting and Finance, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai Johor, Malaysia. E-mail: Majiddadashinasab@gmail.com

Received: May 22, 2013 Accepted: July 4, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p93 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p93

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate empirically the effect of intellectual capital (IC) on high IC firm financial performance with moderating role of dynamic capability (DC). The period covered is from 2000 to 2011. Secondary data were collected from financial statements of high IC firms of Malaysia (technology sector, consumer products sector, trading and service sector, and industrial products) obtained from their websites. Regression models were developed to test the relationship among firm financial performance and IC. The analysis findings indicate that, the impact of IC on firm financial performance increases when DC is included as moderator. In addition, there is positive and significant relationship between humane capital efficiency (HCE), structural capital efficiency (SCE), and capital employed efficiency (CEE) with firm financial performance.

Keywords: intellectual capital (IC), high IC firm financial performance, dynamic capability

1. Introduction

During the industrial age, tangible assets, labor and financial capital were considered the organization's resources of wealth (Gan & Saleh, 2008). After the shift of market environment from the industrial period to the information period (Hsu & Wang, 2012), IC which is also known as intangible assets, is considered as the fourth factor of production, in addition to financial capital, labor and land (Lev & Daum, 2004).

Emphasizing the performance of knowledge based firms such as Microsoft is indicated in the power of market value rather than the book value of these firms (Sullivan, 1999). There is a big gap among a company's book value and its market value, the reasons of this gap is intangible assets (Sullivan, 1999). Some of the intangible assets in the firms are recognized and reported in the financial statements of firms such as brand equity and patents. In contrast, latent intangibles, for instance, skills and experience of employees, relationships, databases and information and administration system do not have formal categorization for recognition. However, they strongly contribute to organization's market value. IC has been identified as intangible assets among researchers and regulators, resulting in its recognition in firms annual reports or disclosed as separate reports (Stewart, 1997). Balance sheet (now is known as statement of financial position) only discloses physical assets of firms with historical and book value, and it does not indicate IC as a significant part of firms' total value. Thus original value of firms is not illustrated by financial statement. Therefore, disclosing and identifying IC is one of the important issues that firms attempt to depict in their financial statement beyond traditional financial accounting standards (Mouritsen, 2003).

Today, one of the important resources for increasing firm performance is IC (Itami & Roehl, 1991). The strong relationship between the market tendency and performance was discovered by Jaworski and Kohli (1993). Organizations can be successful if they indicate and manage their IC (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

The aim of the study was: first, to survey the effect of IC on firm financial performance in high IC firms of Malaysia, secondly, was to test the moderating effect of dynamic capability (DC) on this relationship.

¹ Department of Accounting and Finance, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai Johor, Malaysia

2. Literature Review

2.1 Intellectual Capital (IC)

There is a wide range of definitions for IC in the literature. One of the important steps that could help organizations achieve profitability is effective management of IC, yet finding its definition is difficult (Fondo & Wright, 2004). Definitions of IC focus on different items that can help create value in firms (Stewart, 1997) such as human properties, to organizational properties and knowledge (Mouritsen, 1998). In recent decades, there have been many attempts to find a standard definition of IC and acceptable definition by many researchers. Thomas Stewart has written the first concept of IC in a business journal in 1991 in an article for Fortune magazine (Stewart, 2001). Stewart (1991)suggested that if firms want to indicate intangible assets, they can disclose them in the financial statement like other assets. Stewart (1991) defined IC as the "sum of everything everybody in your company knows that gives you a competitive edge in the marketplace".

In this study, presented definition by Edvinsson and Malone (1997) is considered as the operational definition. This is because value added IC coefficient method (VAIC) which will be employed for measuring IC (that will be discussed in later sections) is according to the Skandia Navigator model, and this model is based on the definition and categorization of Edvinsson and Malone (1997). According to this definition, IC is divided in to human capital (H C) and structural capital (SC).

Sveiby (1989) considered structural capital and individual capital as parts of IC which is also known as a know-how capital. Individual and public abilities, experience, competence and skills of firm's employees have named individual capital. Firm's competence is named structural capital which includes administration and computer system, edge and experience of firms and data bases. Skandia (1994) indicates that IC consists of both HC and SC which are parts of the aggregate sum of intangible value.

Generally, scholars divided IC into three main parts. According to the definition by Bontis (1999), Edvinsson and Malone(1997), Stewart (1991, 1997), HC, SC and RC are parts of IC.

2.2 Dynamic Capability (DC)

DC is indirectly defined as an ability to create and reconfigure the resources to adapt rapidly changing markets, but one of the best and comprehensive definitions of DC is presented by Wang and Ahmad (2007). According to their definition, DC is the orientation stable behavior of firms to renew, integrate, recreate and reconfigure their capabilities and resources, and reconstruct and upgrade their core capabilities in response to the dynamic market to sustain competitive advantage. This definition is considered as the operational definition of this study because it includes DC and IC (DC is ability of firm to renew, integrate, recreate and reconfigure their capabilities and resources), and effect of DC on performance (DC reconstruct and upgrade firms core capabilities in response to the dynamic market to sustain competitive advantage and to sustain performance).

3. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

3.1 IC and Performance

Youndt (1998) studied the relationships between SC, HC, and RC as parts of IC, on the one hand, and sales growth, financial returns, organizational costs and customer benefits as parts of performance on the other. His research results are:

- The positive relationship among HC and sales growth and significant relationship between HC and increasing customer benefits, but financial returns, reducing organizational costs are not significantly related.
- The negative relationship among RC and sales growth and significant relationship between RC and reducing organizational costs, but financial returns and increasing benefits are not significantly related.
- The positive relationship among SC and financial returns and increasing customer benefits, but sales growth, reducing organizational cost are not significantly related.

Firer and Williams (2003) conducted a study about relationship between traditional financial performance and intellectual capital which was measured by VAIC method. The findings of this research revealed that there were no positive and significant association among profitability, productivity, and market value as dependent variables and three components of IC. These results indicate that they depended mostly on their tangible resources.

Chan (2009a) conducted a study in Hong Kong. He stated there was no significant relationship between financial performance and IC of firm. ROA, MB, ROE and ATO are used for measuring financial performance. This study was lasted from 2001 to 2005. The important of physical capital was one of the main results of this study. On the

other hand, according to results of this research, one of the most important factor for improving market valuation, productivity, and profitability of the firms is physical capital.

One of the obvious effects of IC was the increasing competitive advantage and logically was the increasing in performance of firm. There were many studies to survey association among IC and performance, and its literature. The current paper made an attempt to enrich the literature of IC, thus, hypothesizing:

H1: IC has a significant and positive impact on high IC firm financial performance.

H1a: HCE has a significant and positive impact on high IC firm financial performance.

H1b: SCE has a significant and positive impact on high IC firm financial performance.

H1c: CEE has a significant and positive impact on high IC firm financial performance.

3.2 IC, DC, and Firm Financial Performance

There are many literatures on IC and improvement of organizations performance. Investigating the moderating impact of dynamic capability on the association among IC and financial performance is the purpose of this research. The literature on the relationship between dynamic capability and components of IC is scant, but there are conceptual reasons to expect this association. This association is generated in order to respond to the question why and how some organizations appear to sustain and create competitive advantage.

Additionally, based on the dynamic perspective, sustaining stable firm performance depends on competitive and consistent behavior that relies on the firm ability to adapt and learn. This is possible if IC is exploited and developed through DC (Hsu & Wang, 2012). Wang and Ahmad (2007) defined DC as the firm orientation stable behavior to renew, integrate, recreate and reconfigure their capabilities and resources. Reconstructing and upgrading their core capabilities in response to the dynamic market are considered essential to sustain competitive advantage. IC is also known as knowledge resources that can be transformed into value and profit. Therefore, it is the firm's stable behavior that can renew, integrate and reconfigure its IC to sustain competitive advantage and further earn high performance.

Some previous researchers such as Hsu and Fang (2009), Kamukama et al. (2011), and Chen et al. (2006) believed in the need to employ a moderating or mediating variable on the association among VAIC and financial performance. For example, Kamukama et al. (2011) used competitive advantage as a mediating variable on the relationship among IC and firm performance. The result of the research showed that the relationship was significantly mediated by competitive advantage. Therefore, as pointed by the above discussion, this research seeks to survey the moderating effect of DC on the relationship among VAIC and firm financial performance. And the following hypotheses will be tested:

H2: DC moderates the impact of IC on high IC firm financial performance.

H2a: DC moderates the impact of HCE on high IC firm financial performance.

H2b: DC moderates the impact of SCE on high IC firm financial performance.

H2c: DC moderates the impact of CEE on high IC firm financial performance.

4. Research Method

4.1 Sample and Data Selection

The high IC listed firms on the main board of Bursa Malaysia were the subjects of this research. According to Usoff *et al.* (2002), high IC firms are normally large in size, and one of the ways to determine size is by looking at the number of employees. Also, based on Sofian (2005), the companies which are expected to have high IC were chosen among the technology sector (mainly rich in HC and SC because of high investment in employee's education and skills, and R&D activities), consumer products sector (mainly rich in RC because of high investment in customer and suppliers relationships), trading and service sector (mainly rich in HC and RC because of high investment in employee's education and skills, and customer and suppliers relationships), and industrial products (mainly rich in HC and SC because of high investment in employee's education and skills, and R&D activities). The period covered were from 2000 to 2011. In addition, Secondary data were collected from financial statements of the firms websites and analyzed.

4.2 Variables Measurement

4.2.1 IC

In this study the VAIC method which was presented by Pulic (2000a) was be used for measuring IC variables (HC, SC, and CE).

In this model, the difference between input and output is the value added:

Where, VA = OUT - IN

VA = Value added for the firm

OUT = Total revenues (sales)

IN = Cost of brought- In materials, components and services

4.2.2 Human Capital Efficiency

Expenditures on employees are not considered as part of INPUT in VAIC, and expenses related to employees are presented as an investment in this formula.

$$HCE = VA/HC$$
 (1)

4.2.3 Structural Capital Efficiency

SC is the second component of IC which is computed below:

$$SC = VA - HC \tag{2}$$

There is no direct measurement method for SC, but it is the residual from VA minus HC. Therefore, SCE is calculated using the following formola:

$$SCE = SC/VA$$
 (3)

Finally, the sum of the partial coefficients of structural and human capital is IC efficiency as shown in the following formula:

$$ICE = HCE + SCE \tag{4}$$

4.2.4 Capital Employed Efficiency

Pulic (2000a) argued that in order to have a broad picture of efficiency of value creating resources, it is important to take physical and financial capital into consideration. The following formula presents how capital employed efficiency can be obtained:

$$CEE = VA/CE \tag{5}$$

Finally, the sum of ICE and CEE indicates overall value creation efficiency:

$$VAIC = ICE + CEE \tag{6}$$

4.2.5 Dynamic Capability Measurement

According to Hsu and Wang (2012), companies with high investment in R&D can gain a strategic competitive advantage, and economic value for the firms is continued over time if they have investment in marketing. Therefore, DC creation processes are directly related with R&D. Thus, in this study, the percentage of increase in R&D deployment is used for measuring DC as shown in the following formula:

$$DC = (1/2) \left[\left(\frac{R \& D_{t-1} - R \& D_{t-2}}{R \& D_{t-2}} \right) + \left(\frac{R \& D_{t-2} - R \& D_{t-3}}{R \& D_{t-3}} \right) \right]$$
(7)

4.2.6 Financial Performance Measurement

In this study, return on assets (ROA) was applied for evaluating financial performance of firm. This ratio was calculated by the following formula (Maditinos, Chatzoudes, Tsairidis, & Theriou, 2011):

$$ROA = \frac{\text{Net Income}}{\text{Total Assets}} \tag{8}$$

4.3 Regression models

Three steps of applying a hierarchical multiple regression to investigate the moderating impact of DC were employed as follows (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004).

The impact of predictor variables on dependent variable (Model 1):

$$ROA_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 CEE_{i,t} + \beta_2 HCE_{i,t} + \beta_3 SCE_{i,t} + \beta_4 VAIC_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

$$\tag{9}$$

Where $ROA_{i,t}$ is the return on assets of firm i in year t, are effective CEE, HCE, SCE, and VAIC. The disturbance term denoted as $\mathcal{E}it$ was assumed to be serially uncorrelated with mean zero.

The impact of moderator variable on dependent variable (Model 2):

$$ROA_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 CEE_{i,t} + \beta_2 HCE_{i,t} + \beta_3 SCE_{i,t} + \beta_4 VAIC_{i,t} + \beta_5 DC_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$
(10)

Where DC is dynamic capability;

The effect of interaction among the predictor variables and the moderator on dependent variable (Model 3) is calculated using the following formula:

$$ROA_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 CEE_{i,t} + \beta_2 HCE_{i,t} + \beta_3 SCE_{i,t} + \beta_4 VAIC_{i,t} + \beta_5 DC_{i,t} + \beta_5 VAICDC_{i,t} + \beta_7 HCEDC_{i,t} + \beta_8 SCEDC_{i,t} + \beta_9 CEEDC_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

$$(11)$$

Where VAICDC is interaction of IC efficiency and dynamic capability; HCEDC is interaction of human capital efficiency and dynamic capability; SCEDC is interaction of structural capital efficiency and dynamic capability; CEEDC is interaction of capital employed efficiency and dynamic capability. The disturbance term denoted as εit was assumed to be serially uncorrelated with mean zero.

5. Results and Analysis

Statistical software STATA was employed to analyse the data.

5.1 Descriptive Statistic and Correlation Analysis

Table 1. Illustrates the overview of the nature of data analyzed, using the descriptive statistics

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ROA	1210	-0.22	0.28	0.0439	0.07440
VAIC	1210	-1.74	7.25	2.4522	1.52567
HCE	1210	-2.91	6.49	1.8573	1.37380
SCE	1210	-1.27	2.09	0.4582	0.41038
CEE	1210	-0.40	0.94	0.2211	0.17348
DC	1210	-0.93	0.94	0.0234	0.25341
VAICDC	1210	-2.05	2.27	0.0694	0.57300
HCEDC	1210	-1.64	1.41	0.0529	0.42344
SCEDC	1210	-0.43	0.42	0.0115	0.11320
CEEDC	1210	-0.15	0.15	0.0052	0.04060

ROA = Return on assets; VAIC = Value added intellectual capital coefficient; HCE = Human capital efficiency; SCE = Structural capital efficiency; CEE = Capital employed efficiency; DC = Dynamic capability; VAICDC = Interaction of Value Added IC Coefficient and dynamic capability; HCEDC = Interaction of human capital efficiency and dynamic capability; SCEDC = Interaction of structural capital efficiency and dynamic capability; CEEDC = Interaction of capital employed efficiency and dynamic capability;

5.2 Empirical Results of Multiple Regressions

Table 2 presents the result of hierarchical multiple regressions related to Models 1, 2 and 3. Model 1 is includes ROA as main independent variables (first step). Model 2 includes moderator variables (second step). Model 3 includes the interaction terms (VAICDC, HCEDC, SCEDC, and CEEDC). The F statistic in Model 1 is significant (F = 127.94, p < 0.000), indicating that the CEE, HCE, SCE, and VAIC can be considered to be influencing ROA. Model 1 reveals that HCE, SCE, and CEE have positively and significantly influencing ROA while VAIC is insignificantly and positively (coefficient = 0.003, p-value = 0.339) effecting ROA. Therefore, it can reasonably be concluded that Hypothesises H1a, H1b, and H1c are accepted, but Hypothesises H1 is rejected.

Model 2 shows that the F statistic is significant (F = 106.07, p < 0.000), suggesting that DC can be considered to be effecting financial performance by traditional measures. Model 3 which presents the impact of interaction

terms (CEEDC, HCEDC, SCEDC, and VAICDC) on ROA has a change in R^2 of 0.007 and significant F change of 0.000. The R^2 of 0.420 indicates the strong model explanatory power. In this Model the F statistic is significant (F = 62.72, p < 0.000), indicating that they can be considered to be effecting ROA. In regard to interaction terms (VAICDC, HCEDC, SCEDC, and CEEDC), VAICDC is positively and significantly influencing ROA (coefficient = 0.023, p-value = 0.002). In contrast HCEDC is negetively and significantly (coefficient = -0.034, p-value = 0.003) effecting ROA. In addition, SCEDC and CEEDC have insignificant effect on ROA. Therefore, the overall result of Model 3 is supporting Hypothesis H2 and H2a, but Hypothesis H2b and H2c are rejected.

Table 2. The result of the least square regression analysis with robust standard errors to examine the effect of VAIC, HCE, SCE, and CEE on ROA, DC as moderator

Maniables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3 Coefficient (p-value)	
Variables	Coefficient (p-value)	Coefficient (p-value)		
VAIC	.003(0.334)	0.003 (0.339)	0.003(0.419)	
HCE	0.019(0.000)	0.018 (0.000)	0.019(0.000)	
SCE	0.024(0.001)	0.025(0.000)	0.027(0.000)	
CEE	0.152(0.000)	0.155(0.000)	0.155(0.000)	
DC		0.026(0.000)	0.034(0.004)	
VAICDC			0.023(0.002)	
HCEDC			-0.034(0.003)	
SCEDC			-0.022(0.379)	
CEEDC			0.076(0.066)	
CONS	CONS -0.046(0.458) -0.046(0.000)		-0.047(0.000)	
R^2	0.405	0.413	0.420	
Change in R ²	-	0.008	0.007	
F-Value (Sig. F)	127.94(0.000)	106.07(0.000)	62.72(0.000)	

6. Discussion of Results

Findings of this study based on the association among IC and high IC firm financial performance demonstrated that there exists no association among IC and firm financial performance. Therefore, H1 is rejected. The investors place greater value on companies with greater IC but failed to support the hypothesis. The results of the current research offer the bibliography of other research that was unable to support completely to the significance of IC. For example, Chen et al. (2006) founded an association among VAIC and firm financial performance in the Taiwan, while Firer and Williams (2003), in a study carried out on South Africa, failed to explain an association among VAIC and financial performance. On two researchs carried out in Malaysia, Shiu (2006) succeeded in explaning an association among VAIC and financial performance, while Gan and Saleh (2008) failed to explain relationship between VAIC and market valuation, but found the positive association among VAIC, profitability, and productivity. These conflicts could be because of some reasons; first, most of the researchs have been carried out in developing and emerging economics (Malaysia, South Africa, Thailand, Singapore, Turkey, Taiwan, Bangladesh), rather that on already advanced countries (Germany, France, UK). Second, developing and emerging economics are mostly based on physical assets and tend to neglect the intangible assets, thus, it seems logical for VAIC researches to fail to explain a positive association among firm value and IC. Third, according to Hsu and Fang (2009), Kamukama et al. (2011), and Chen et al. (2006) the effect of IC on performance will be significant with applying the third variable as moderator or mediator variables.

Whereas, findings related to the moderation impact of DC on the relationship among IC and firm financial performance revealed that IC is not individually value relevant to firm financial performance, but it is value relevant to firm financial performance through the moderation of DC. This result is consistent with prior

researchs by Hsu and Fang (2009), Kamukama et al. (2011), and Chen et al. (2006) in positive effect of applying moderator or mediator variable in association among IC and performance.

7. Conclusion

This study seeked to measure IC performance. VAIC method was employed on a sample consisting of high IC firm of Malaysia (technology sector, consumer products sector, trading and service sector, and industrial products). ROA was employed to measure the firm financial performance.

The study explored the performance of IC in high IC firms, and found out that VAIC lone does not have significant impact on firm financial performance. It is observed that there is a significant and positive association among the three dimensions of VAIC (HCE, SCE, and CEE) and firm financial performance.

DC that is defined as the orientation stable behavior of firms to renew and integrate their capabilities and resources upgrade their core capabilities in response to the dynamic market to sustain competitive advantage is used as moderating variable. The findings show that the impact of IC on firm financial performance is increased by introducing DC as moderator.

References

- Bontis, N., Dragonetti, N. C., Jacobsen, K., & Roos, G. (1999). The Knowledge Toolbox: A Review of the Tools Available to Measure and Manage Intangible Resources. *European Management Journal*, *17*(4), 391-402. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0263-2373(99)00019-5
- Chan, K. H. (2009). Impact of Intellectual Capital on Organisational Performance. An Empirical Study of Companies in the Hang Seng Index (Part 1). *The Learning Organization*, 16(1), 4-21. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470910927641
- Chen, Y. -S., Lin, M. -J. J., & Chang, C. -H. (2006). The Influence of Intellectual Capital on New Product Development Performance The Manufacturing Companies of Taiwan as an Example. *Total Quality Management*, 17(10), 1323-1339.
- Edvinsson, L., & Malone, M. S. (1997). *Intellectual Capital: Realizing your Company's True Value by Finding its Hidden Brainpower.* New York, NY: Harper Business.
- Firer, S., & Williams, S. M. (2003). Intellectual Capital and Traditional Measures of Corporate Performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 4(3), 348-360. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930310487806
- Fondo, C. B., & Wright, D. B. (2004). *Intellectual Capital*. (MASTER), Naval Postgraduate School, Montery, California.
- Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. P., & Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing Moderator and Mediator Effects in Counseling Psychology Research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 51(1), 115-134. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.51.1.115
- Gan, K., & Saleh, Z. (2008). Intellectual Capital and Corporate Performance of Technology-Intensive Companies: Malaysia Evidence. *Asian Journal of Business and Accounting*, 4(4), 113-130.
- Hsu, L. C., & Wang, C. H. (2012). Clarifying the Effect of Intellectual Capital on Performance: The Mediating Role of Dynamic Capability. *British Journal of Management, 23*(1), 179-205. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j. 1467-8551.2010.00718.x
- Hsu, Y.-H., & Fang, W. (2009). Intellectual Capital and New Product Development Performance: The Mediating Role of Organizational Learning Capability. *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 76(1), 664-677. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2008.03.012
- Itami, H., & Roehl, T. W. (1991). Mobilising Invincible Assets. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1993). Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(3), 53-70.
- Kamukama, N., Ahiauzu, A., & Ntayi, J. M. (2011). Competitive Advantage: Mediator of Intellectual Capital and Performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 12(1), 152 164.
- Lev, B., & Daum, J. H. (2004). The Dominance of Intangible Assets: Consequences for Enterprise Management and Corporate Reporting. *Measuring Business Excellence*, 8(1), 1-6. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13683040 410524694
- Maditinos, D., Chatzoudes, D., Tsairidis, C., & Theriou, G. (2011). The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Firms' Market Value and Financial Performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 12(1), 132-151. http://dx.doi.org/

10.1108/14691931111097944

- Mouritsen, J, Bukh, P. N., Flagstad, K., Thorbjornsen, S., Rosenkrands, J. M., & Kontis, S. (2003). Intellectual Capital Statements- the New Guideline: Danish Agency for Trade and Industry- Ministry of Trade and Industry, Denmark.
- Mouritsen, J. (1998). Driving Growth: Economic Value Added Versus Intellectual Capital. *Management Accounting Research*, 9(4), 461-482. http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/mare.1998.0090
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). The knowledge Creating Company. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Pulic, A. (2000). VAIC an Accounting Tool for IC Management. *International Journal of Technology Management*, 20(5-7), 702-714. http://dx.doi.org/10.1504/IJTM.2000.002891
- Skandia. (1994). Visualising Intellectual Capital in Skandia. A Supplement to Skandia's 1994 Annual Report. Sweden: Skandia.
- Sofian, S.. (2005). *Intellectual Capital and Management Accounting Practices*. (PhD Thesis), University of Bradford, Bradford.
- Stewart, T. A. (1991). Brainpower: Intellectual Capital is Becoming Corporate America's Most Valuable Asset and can Be its Sharpest Competitive Weapon; the Challenge is to Find What you Have and Use it. *Fortune*, 123(11), 44-60.
- Stewart, T. A. (1997). Intellectual Capital: The New Wealth of Organizations. New York, NY: Doubleday.
- Stewart, T. A. (2001). *The Wealth of Knowledge: Intellectual Capital and the Twenty-First Century Organization*. Westminster, MD: Doubleday.
- Sullivan, P. H. (1999). Profiting from Intellectual Capital: Extracting Value from Innovation. *Management*, 3(2), 132-143.
- Sveiby, K. E. (1989). The Invisible Balance Sheet.
- Usoff, C. A., Thibodeau, J. C., & Burnaby, P. (2002). The Importance of Intellectual Capital and its Effect on Performance Measurement Systems. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 17(1), 9-15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02686900210412180
- Wang, C. L, & Ahmed, P. K. (2007). Dynamic Capabilities: A Review and Research Agenda. *The International Journal of Management Reviews*, 9(1), 31-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00201.x
- Youndt, M. A. (1998). *Human Resource Management System, Intellectual Capital and Organizational Performance.* (PhD Thesis), Pennsylvania State University.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Management Innovation Companies Based Business Cost Indicators

Nikolay Kuznetsov¹

Correspondence: Nikolay Kuznetsov, University of Applied Sciences, Moscow, 107014, 4th Sokolnicheskaya, 3, build. 82. Russia. Tel: 79-26-780-4374. E-mail: nkuznetsov@outlook.com

Received: May 23, 2013 Accepted: July 28, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p101 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p101

Abstract

The article highlights the features of management innovation companies based business cost indicators. The estimation of the value of business cost indicators constituting the three approaches, namely, market, cost and income. The necessity to use the highly-qualified labour resources, the last scientific inventions and researches, as well as the newest innovation technologies is emphasized. The innovation model of development should be used at the enterprise for this purpose. For the effective management of innovation companies it is necessary to control the situation on the market and execute management on the basis of indicators of the business cost. The management of the innovation companies on the basis of the business cost includes: management of the organizational capital, management of the intellectual capital, and management of information capital. As a result, the innovation company receives the wide client base, competitive prices, the high level of service, the high quality of the offered innovation services, the availability of the own innovation developments and highly-skilled staff.

Keywords: innovation, business, finance, management, business value, the income approach, the market approach, cost approach, intangible assets

1. Introduction

In modern conditions, a number of leading companies found themselves in a difficult financial situation. The market dictates tough requirements that they must follow. And innovative companies which every year become more and more, are no exception, intense competition has no mercy to those who cannot keep their positions in the market of innovative services. In the direction of management of innovation companies with using the indicators of the business cost the scientists consider several structural blocks: 1) innovation development of economy. It is necessary to emphasize the works of Gridzhuk I. A. (2008) Innovation component of the stable developments of the regional economy and Drucker P. F. (1993) Innovations and entrepreneurship practice and principles; 2) the market position of the company and its money flows. The issues are considered in the works of Galasyuk V.V. (200) About necessity of the usage of the concept "conditional money flow", Ievleva N.V. (2013) The influence on the investment activity of the industrial enterprise on the business cost, Kosorukova I.V. (2013) The profit and money flows in the estimation of the business cost, Minaeva O.A. (2013) The market position of the enterprise as a key factor of the business cost; 3) management of the company cost and business planning. We should note the works of Staryuk P.Y. The management of the company cost as the basic corporate management (2014), V.M. Popov (2012) Business planning, Karpenko A.V. (2014) The management of the business unit cost in the system of corporate management, Kornilov D.A. (2014) The dynamics of the corporation cost as an indicator of the stable business development (based upon PJSC "Gazprom"), Petrova A.I. (2013) The strategy of management on the basis of the real business cost, and others; 4) the evaluation of the enterprise (business) cost. This structural unit is mostly studied by the scientists. We'll emphasize some of them: Busov V.S. (2012)The evaluation of the enterprise (business) cost, Kostyurko R.A. (2008) The complex evaluation of the enterprise cost, Copeland T. (1999) The cost of companies: evaluation and management, Cahill M. (2012) The Financial Times Guide to Making the Right Investment Decisions, Nikitin S.A. (2014) The financial indicators, intangible assets and business cost, Razmakhova A.V. (2013) The cost as the most important evaluation indicator of the business effectiveness development, Kholodkova V.V. (2014) The practice of evaluation of the business cost at the entrance for IPO.

Purpose of this article is to highlight the features of management innovation companies based business cost indicators.

¹University of Applied Sciences, Riga, Latvia

2. Statement of the Materials and Results

These days, sustained economic development is not determined by the availability of raw materials or markets, but the possibility for companies to join the market of highly skilled labor, scientific inventions and new technologies, which is impossible without the formation of an innovative model of development and corporate social responsibility, working in the chain "formation - research and development - the production of goods and services - business ethics - the modern market" (Damodaran, 2004). P. Drucker, one of the first who described the value of the business as a worthy goal for the company, especially considering that it has to create value for customers, employees (especially manual workers) and distribution partners. Proceeding from the goals, management is focused on goal-setting and decision-making instruments to help managers at all levels in the creation of business value. However, he was skeptical about the fact that the dynamics of the business value can be formalized, at least, the existing methods (Porter, 1989).

Porter has defined the following components of the value chain of innovation: shareholder value, customer value, staff qualifications, partnerships, management, information technology, the strategy of creating business value and social value. In our opinion, the value of business innovation is influenced by other factors, such as environmental business, the quality of the created innovative product, the value of assets on the market, the overall situation in the market and industry, the macroeconomic situation in the country, etc.

Shareholder value is a part of capitalization of the innovative enterprise. It is true, as opposed to long-term debt. Such things as dividends, increase shareholder value and facilitate the issuance of shares of its financial condition. For a private company, the value of the company will be determined when the debt will be evaluated using one of several methods of valuation, discounted cash flows or other (Sliger, 2008).

Customer value of goods is determined by comparing it with other similar products and on the same grounds. This component of the strategy of an innovative company helps retain loyal customers and increase their number.

Personnel qualifications is determined by such factors as structure, level of education, efficiency, business qualities and organizational culture.

Partnership (Channel Partner Value) is determined by partnerships in business between consumers and companies as well as government institutions and non-governmental organizations. The role of partnerships can be critical to the functioning of innovative companies. They cease to exist or carry on business if a partnership is lost or broken.

Governance requires effective management, human-oriented principle, compliance with the approved system of values and value principles (Sward, 2006).

Building strategies of business value reflect the increase or decrease in the value of the company, which is traditionally measured by the degree of customer satisfaction, increase revenue, profitability, market share occupied, etc.

Information technologies (Business Value) affect the value of the business in terms of the formation of an enterprise architecture, business architecture, the process of design, and indicators information database, advertising, strategic management, etc. (Porter, 1989).

Social significance is a combination of economic efficiency and social performance through leveraging and optimizing the economic mechanisms of social institutions, matching interests and goals in the process of interacting economic activity subjects.

The components of the business, that are to be managed, and the factors influence on them are shown in Fig. 1.

The generalized method of business valuation that are designed in domestic and foreign scientific sources are expensive, and profitable market.

Speaking about the relative (market approach), it suggests that the value of equity innovative company valued at the amount for which it can be sold at a sufficiently mature markets (Damodaran, 2004).

In other words, the most probable price of a business can be a real selling price of similar businesses, fixed by the market.

The income approach is used primarily to evaluate businesses, industrial complexes and other business facilities. Due to the fact that the concept of income is associated with a specific production or provision of services, it is not very effective in the evaluation of certain types of work equipment (The income...).

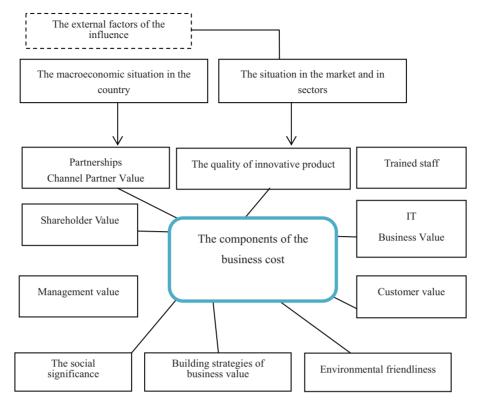


Figure 1. The components of the business value and impact factors *

* - Constructed by the author

Relatively costly, or property, business valuation approach, it should be noted that it is mainly used in the companies that own all kinds of assets, including financial, or when the business does not bring a stable income. Therefore, it is sometimes referred to as the valuation of underlying assets (asset valuations). It is elementwise assessment of the market value of assets and liabilities and is due to differences between the results of the book and market values of assets and liabilities of the components of (Damodaran, 2004).

In our opinion, to use only one method of valuation is wrongly. To obtain representative values on the basis of a comprehensive assessment of all the proposed methods should be carries out, but with the priority use of one.

We present a comprehensive evaluation methods constituting the business value of innovative enterprises (Table 1).

Table 1. Methods for assessing components of the business value of innovative enterprises that are to be managed *

No	The components of the cost of business	Assessment me	Assessment methods		
1	The right to technological objects	Profitable	Market	Expenses	
2	The rights to the assets of engineering	Profitable	Market	Expenses	
3	The copyright of creative activity	Profitable	Market	Expenses	
4	The rights to the software data	Profitable	Market	Expenses	
5	The right to use spaces	Expenses	Market	Profitable	
6	The right to use the long-term financial investments	Expenses	Market	Profitable	
7	The right to use land	Expenses	Market	Profitable	
8	The right to use the basic tools	Profitable	Market	Expenses	
9	The right to use an unfinished building	Expenses	Market	Profitable	
10	The right to use other assets	Expenses	Market	Profitable	

^{* -} Constructed by the author

For innovative intellectual property rights of intangible assets evaluation should be primarily income method and adjusted in accordance with the market and the cost method using the following algorithm: first, the cost is determined by the revenue of the company, then the market on the basis of which the value is adjusted, and then the value of the expenditure:

$$J_{i} = D_{i} \times R_{i} \times V_{i}, \tag{1}$$

where Ji - is the estimated value of the business; Vi - is the estimated value of the business in accordance with the cost method; Ri - is the market value of the business; Ri - is profitability.

If Dj <Rj taken according to the assessed value of the market - Ri. If Dj> Rj received revenues estimated value - Dj.

Consumables method is also performs as the corrective factor in the valuation of businesses, in particular:

- When we received the corrected value (Dj x Rj), if the condition (Dj x Rj) <Vj, then accepted the estimated value of Vj;
- When we received the corrected value (Dj x Rj), if the condition (Dj x Rj)> Vj, then accepted the assessed value (Dj x Rj).

For a group of assets, property, organizational and economic rights, preference is given to the expenses method, adjusted in accordance with the profitable and market.

Accordingly, the market and profitable methods are also advocate the method of business valuation adjustments with the development of the market, if such evaluation is possible (Eq. 2):

$$Ji = Vi \times Ri \times Di, \tag{2}$$

where Ji - is the estimated value of the business; Vi - is the estimated value of the business in accordance with the cost method; Ri - is the market value of the business; Ri - si profitability.

When Vi <Ri is taken according to the assessed value of the market - Ri. When Vi> Ri accepted expenditure assessed value - Vi.

On the basis of cost-based approach the management decisions are produced that affect the activities of innovative companies. In this innovative company management should be focused on the creation of a new product and promising environment for future income, including investments in intangible assets, increasing the company's market share.

Management innovation companies based business cost indicators. :

- management organizational capital, which will be focused on the adaptation to customer needs, matching its own corporate objectives, using leadership, team work and bonding. Well-built organizational structure allows you to do efficient management, which is essential;
- management of intellectual capital, which is focused on the level of innovation, competence and professionalism of the staff, their training and skills development. Intellectual capital enables you to select the workers who are endowed with sufficiently high intellectual qualities, and have the potential to learn and master new:
- management of information capital, which is directed to use the information and CRM-systems, customer database, which is a priority in the innovative management and administration in general. In addition to these components should also be added: Innovation Management (innovation, innovation, forecasting customer needs), production management (extension activities, focus on the experience of others and adapt solutions according to customer needs), and client management (relationship marketing and integrated focus on the client) (Fig. 2).

As a result, we will achieve the goals, namely: a broad customer base, competitive prices, high level of service; high quality of our innovative services and support relationships; having its own innovation and qualified personnel.

The detection of key factors of value - it is a creative process that has to operate by trial and error. Using only mechanical methods based on the available information, and purely financial approach rarely possible to establish key factors of the value. Linking the of value with business solutions allows you to create a "tree" of value, which is turns to making the right decisions. Thus, income from operations can be divided into segments by product type, geographic areas or categories of consumers. Cost factors cannot be considered in isolation from each other. For example, higher prices may itself significantly increase the cost, in a case if it will not lead to a significant loss of market share (Sward, 2006).

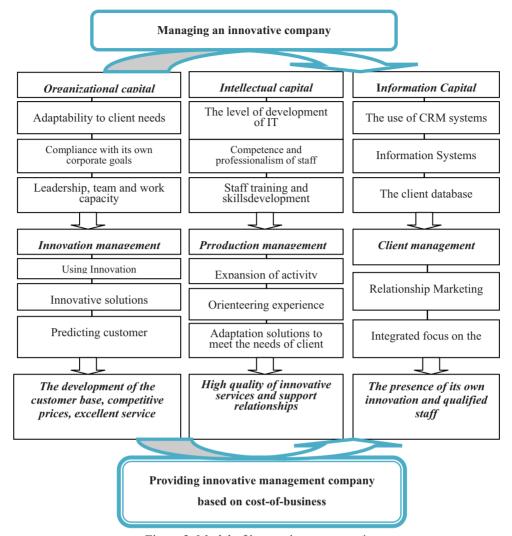


Figure 2. Model of innovative company *

* - Constructed by the author

In the management the value of the business is an unofficial term that encompasses all forms of value that determine the stability and prosperity of the company in the long term. Business value expands the concept of firm value beyond the economic value (also known as economic profit, economic value added and value of the shares) to other forms of value, such as the value of labor potential, customer value, the value of suppliers, channel partners, the value of cluster formations, management value and social value. Many of these forms of value are not directly measured in monetary terms.

Business value is often covers intangible assets that are not necessarily associated with any group of stakeholders, such as intellectual capital and the business model of the company. The Balanced Scorecard is one of the most popular methods for measuring and managing business value.

According to economic theory, the concept of business value provides an innovative company that it is best viewed as a network of relationships - both internal and external. These networks are sometimes referred to as value chains or value chains. Each node in the network can be a stakeholder group, the resource of the organization, end-users, stakeholders, regulators or the environment itself. In the network cost value creation is seen as a common, creative, synergistic process rather than the result of a purely mechanical or command control

If an innovative company viewed as a network of value creation separate entities, the question arises: what is the contribution of each node in the network in the overall performance of the company? When the nodes are independent organizations (eg, suppliers) or agents (eg, customers), it is assumed that the company is committed

to a cooperative, win-win relationship, where everyone plays a role. The elements in the process are not completely independent (for example, the workers). So, the other stimuli except for only direction financial compensations are required.

Although it is highly desirable to reduce all forms of business into one economic mechanism (such as discounted cash flow), many scholars and practitioners believe that this is not possible or practical, not theoretical. Thus, proponents of the value of business believe that the best approach is to measure and control the various forms of property, as they applied to each group of stakeholders. Presently there is no theory about how the different elements of the business cost are connected with each other. There is no theory about their influence on the long-term success of the company.

In this case, one of the most promising approaches is to build business models and cost management of innovative companies.

3. Conclusions

Management innovation companies based business cost indicators – is a very important strategic tool, especially in high-risk and poorly projected market situations, which helps the company avoid bankruptcy and take its rightful place in the market. It promotes continuous market monitoring and maintenance of effective competitiveness. The prospective direction of the further scientific studies should include the search of the priority factors, which affect the cost of the innovation business in the long-term prospect.

References

Boer, F. P. (2007). Valuation technology. Moscow: Olimp-Business.

Buditsky, A. E. (2007). Features of the market value of commercial bank. Finance and Credit, 30, 25-35.

Busov, V. I., Zemlyanskiy, O. A., & Polyakov, A. P. (2012). VAN VI Evaluation of Enterprise. Moscow: Yurayt.

Cahill, M. (2012). Investment analysis and business valuation. Moscow: Business and Service.

Compilation of business plans with comments and recommendations. (2012). Moscow: Finances.

Copeland, T. (1999). Cost companies: Assessment and Management. Moscow: ZAO "Olympus-Business".

Ctaryuk, P. Y. (2013). Value-Based Management as the main task of corporate governance. Retrieved from http://www.cfin.ru

Damodaran, A. (2004). *Investment Valuation. Tools and techniques of assessment of any assets.* MA: Harvard Business Review.

Galasyuk, V. V. (2006). Need to use the concept of "conditional cash flow". Stock market, 18, 18-20.

Gutnick, E. V. (2008). Theoretical foundations of business valuation. Kramators'k: DSEA.

Hrydzhuk, I. A. (2008). Innovative element of sustainable economic development of the regions. *Theory of micro-macroeconomics: Fri. scientific papers, 29*, 239-240.

Ievleva, N. V., & Nesterenko, T. V. (2013). The influence on the investment activity of the industrial enterprise on the business cost. *The International scientific edition The Modern Fundamental and Applied Studies*, 3(10), 86-88.

Karpenko, A. V., & Nikiforova, L. E. (2014). The management of the business unit cost in the system of corporate management. *The Siberian Financial School*, 2(103), 105-113.

Kholodkova, V. V. (2014). The practice of evaluation of the business cost at the entrance for IPO. *Finance and Credit*, 2, 20-24.

Kornilov, D. A. (2014). The dynamics of the corporation cost as an indicator of the stable business development (based upon PJSC "Gazprom"). *The Economy in Industry*, 1, 55-61.

Kosorukova, I. V., & Prokimnov, N. N. (2013). The profit and money flows in the estimation of the business cost. *The Russian Entrepreneurial Activity*, *18*(240), 53-60.

Kostyrko, R. A. (2008). Comprehensive evaluation of a company: Monograph. Kharkov: Factor.

McNeil, R. (2007). Marketing research in B2B. Donetsk: Balance Business Books.

Mendrul, A. G. (2002). Cost Management companies. Moscow: Finance.

Minaeva, O. A. (2013). The market position of the enterprise as a key factor of the business cost. *The scientific-empirical journal The Economy of Success*, 1-2, 16-20.

- Momot, T. V. (2007). Business Valuation: Modern Technology. Moscow: Factor.
- Nikitin, S. A., & Pavlenko, D. A. (2014). The financial indicators, intangible assets and business cost. *The Scientific Notes of Young Researchers*, 2, 46-51.
- Petrenko, V. A. (2006). International practice of business valuation company. Kiev: ArtEK.
- Petrova, A. I., Zarudnev, A. I. (2013). The strategy of management on the basis of the real business cost. *The Modern Scientific Studies and Innovations*, 3(23), 10.
- Popov, V. M. (2012). Business planning: A textbook for high schools. Moscow: Finances and Statistics.
- Porter, M. E. (1989). *Globaler Wettbewerb. Stratigien der neuen Internationalisierung.* Wiesbaden: Gabler. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-322-91343-2
- Razmakhova, A. V. (2013). The cost as the most important evaluation indicator of the business effectiveness development. *The Theory and Practice of the Public Development*, 12, 116.
- Saryucheva, T. A., Radzhabov, Z. M., & Filenko, D. G. (2013). Some peculiarities of application of the comparative approach at evaluation of the business cost. *The defence of the complex of the scientific-technical progress of Russia*, *1*, 109-112.
- Sliger, M. (2008). The Software Project Manager's Bridge to Agility. Addison: Wesley.
- Smirnickii, G. B. (2013). Business Valuation: basics, tools, and practice. Kiev: Art Economii.
- Sward, D. (2006). Measuring the Business Value of Information Technology. Moscow: Intell Press.
- Tarumian, L. S. (2012). Evaluation system of key performance characteristics of the business processes. Yerevan.
- The income approach. (2014). *The use of the income approach in the evaluation of transport*. Retrieved from http://www.lider-biysk.ru

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Why Workers Disengage? Factors from "Head" or "Heart" to Be Tagged on?

Normala S Govindarajo¹, Dileep Kumar. M¹ & Subrahmanium Sri Ramulu¹

¹ Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYA-GSB), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

Correspondence: Normala S Govindarajo, Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYA-GSB), Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 UUM Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia. E-mail: gnmala@yahoo.com; dileep@uum.edu.my

Received: June 7, 2013 Accepted: June 24, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p108 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p108

Abstract

Oil palm plantations are decisively situated in the various regions of Malaysia where the climatic conditions are appropriate for planting oil palm. One cannot compare the work environment of such plantations with normal office settings. The workers in those plantations are working in remote locations, totally cut off from the other part of the world. Majority workers are from Indonesia, Philippines like low income countries. The work environment is physically demanding and challenging to the workers due to many factors. An exploratory study has conducted on employee disengagement in the oil palm plantations in the Sabah region of Malaysia. The study has taken up employee disengagement factors due to the lack of interest among the local people to engage themselves in the oil palm plantations work and the plantation industry in Malaysia is facing an acute labor shortage to carry forwards the oil palm business. The study follows, field visits, interviews with the workers, focus group discussions and specifically Delphi. The findings supported to identify the 7 factors coming under the theme employee disengagement as Wage and Welfare, Work Environment, Lack of Safety and security, Poor Organizational Support, Rigid Rules and regulations, and Lack of individual motivation. The study paves better insight to lead this qualitative research in an organized quantitative research.

Keywords: employee engagement, disengagement, oil palm plantations, working condition

1. Introduction

Much research has come out in the field of employee engagement in industrial settings. Several models have come out to explain the nature and significance of employee engagement and disengagement in organizational setting due to various organizations and individual factors. These models and theories can be the base to determine and fix the variables that are closely related to any field research endeavor. While the issue here is that how far these models can be purely adopted considering the nature of field settings and organizational and individual factors. A study would be curious if those models and theories adaptability on the field settings like plantations. To explore the variables suitability to conduct a research on employee disengagement in oil palm plantations, where majority workers are working in a field setting in remote habitat an exploratory study was conducted. The study once again clarifies the variables suitability, by segregating each variable and further subjects them under the field setting for expert observation in order to ascertain which one are more relevant in the plantation environment and which one are irrelevant. The study has come up with a model which is suitable to analyze the factors contributing to employee disengagement in oil palm plantations in general and Sabah region of Malaysia in general.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Employee Disengagement

Kahn (1990) gave following definition for personal disengagement: "Personal disengagement... is the simultaneous withdrawal and defense of a person's preferred self in behaviors that promote a lack of connections, physical, cognitive, and emotional absence, and passive, incomplete role performance." Furthermore, Kahn discussed problems of personal disengagement, which lead to "the uncoupling of slaves from work roles" (Kahn

(1990). Depending on the researcher, such unemployment of the self in one's role can be called "robotic or apathetic" behavior, "burn out", "apathetic or detached" behavior, or "effortless" (Kahn (1990).

2.2 Employee Engagement and Disengagement

The Gallup Organization in its survey (Gallup 2006) used the following characteristics of employees:

- Engaged workers, who involve their work with desire and eagerness and who are conscious of being highly associated with their firm. They provide emotional and physical input to the organization's performance and growth, and facilitate forward movement.
- Disengaged workers who are in fact "checked out". These workers put their time into their job, but there is no vigor, desire or eagerness from their side; it looks like "sleepwalking" during the workday.
- Keenly disengaged workers, who are unhappy at a job and who devote their working time actively acting
 out this feeling. The undesirable influence of such workers continually influences other people and destroys
 attainments of engaging workmates.

2.3 Consequences of Disengagement

Wellins and Concelman, (2005) indicates that disengaged employees are not enthusiastic; they do not want to expend extra effort and support teamwork. They adopt a "wait-and-see attitude" and behave in a similar way requiring a push to join in. It is indicated that the employees with a low level of engagement are not interested and not inquisitive about their firm and their own role in it. Further, they frequently have deprived affairs with their supervisors and workmates.

According to Branham (2005) disengaged workers can negatively influence morale and revenues of the organization; they often make trouble, complain, and have accidents. They can harm the organization in the manner in which they speak to customers; their negative behavior affects client satisfaction, and can lead to loss of them (Vajda & SpiritHeart, 2008).

Disengaged employees are usually unhappy at work and actively express this feeling. The undesirable influence of such employees continuously affects other persons in the team and destroys accomplishments of engaged workmates (Gallup, 2006). Detached workers are disengaged from their jobs, tend to be suggestively less competent and less dedicated to their firms; they are less happy with their personal lives, experience more stress and uncertainty about their work than their co-workers (Gallup, 2001).

2.4 Reasons Why People Disengage and Quit

Having studied the findings of Kahn (1990), Branham (2005), and Pech and Slade (2006) it is possible to determine the potential sources or causes of employee disengagement and to divide them into several groups: External environment causes, which can become challenges for employees, for example, instability and insecurity arising from government, unions or shareholders, or possible opportunities, such as sudden wealth to buy independence, an unanticipated outside job offer, and so on. Psychological causes and sources, more specifically: lack of psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety at work, lack of identification with an organization, lack of trust, a sense of being undervalued, perceived inequities in pay and performance, unrealized ambitions, stress and anxiety, disinterest, etc.; Organizational causes, such as restructuring of the company and connected to it, transformational changes, company's culture with inadequate norms, traditions, policies and practices (unethical actions, sexual harassment, racial discrimination, unreasonable enforcement of authority, etc.), bad working conditions, poor management and leadership, overgrown bureaucracy, lack of resources, low standards and acceptance of poor performance, work complexity, etc.; Other sources, for example, employee's substance abuse and unacceptable behaviour, illness, laziness, competency issues, poor interpersonal relationships leading to conflicts, etc.

Findings of unpublished Saratoga Institute research showed that initiators of people's disengagement at work were aligned with reasons of final decisions to quit the organization. The research results indicate that the employees leave the organization because of unsatisfactory leadership characteristics (35 %), firm environment (49 %), and job characteristics (11 %). Only five percent from the explanations of parting were inevitable and comprised superannuation, birth of a child, household issues, and so on. (Branham, 2005) Negative comments about leadership included grievances about the lack of boss respect for employees, inattentiveness, absence of support, deprived leadership skills, partiality, inability, insensitivity, and discrepancy. Poor sides of organizational environment included inadequate career growth, inadequate compensation and benefits, excessive workloads, lack of recognition, bad working conditions, poor quality or lack of training, unethical behaviors inside the organization, and lack of collaboration. People were not satisfied with the job itself, if tasks were boring or not challenging. (Branham, 2005)

2.5 Negative Influence of Disengagement

Organizations should pay attention to the employee disengagement phenomenon, because it has great impact on both the worker and employer, just as employee engagement.

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008) disengaged employees experience negative feelings and have health problems more often than engaged workers; they also can influence their colleagues by transferring negative emotions. Employees with a low level of engagement are more often likely to suffer from anxieties and depression (Robinson, 2010); they are more likely to be emotionally exhausted, cynical (Maslach et al. 2001), and unhappy in the workplace, as well as in their personal lives because of the inability to manage with work stresses (Gallup, 2006).

Disengaged employees have misgivings about their company in terms of customer satisfaction, providing little personal investment in customer focus, so the productive output of not-engaged and disengaged employees is much less than the output of engaged workers (Perrin, 2003). Employees with a low level of engagement have more accidents at work and more inventory shrinkage (Harter, Schmidt, Killham, & Asplund, 2006).

Disengaged employees do not advocate their company as a place to work and less often recommend their company's products or services (Baumruk, 2004). They are less innovative and creative, and do not tend to share new ideas with co-workers (Krueger & Killham, 2007). Disengaged employees often are not satisfied, not committed, and have an intention to leave their organization (Saks, 2006).

Prior notification of worker disengagement is employee physical absence from work, slowness, or behavior that shows withdrawal or high negativity (Branham, 2005). According to Pech and Slade (2006), the symptoms of employee disengagement also can be represented by low morale, mistakes, lack of energy, and lack of attachment. By probing the effects of disengagement on both the worker and the company, it is possible to determine that this phenomenon can cause substantial harm to the business. The only way to get protection from the effects of employee disengagement is to halt it by pinpointing and removing its causes.

2.6 The State of Non-Engagement

Non-engagement is the level of engagement when employees are not highly engaged or actively disengaged; this condition is some kind of "stuck in neutral position" (Sanford & Coffman, 2002). Not-engaged employees are not necessarily negatively disposed, but they do not have positive attitudes either. These employees spend their time and get their tasks done in accordance with organizational standards, but they do not have passion, enthusiasm, and the desire to put extra effort into their work. It happens because not-engaged employees do not feel a sense of achievement; in most cases, they are fixated on the process of doing the job instead of the results. They do the minimum they can in order only to accomplish the task. Not-engaged employees are stuck in a low-risk, low-commit mode being emotionally disconnected from their organization, their manager, or their workmates. They do not commit to work. As a result, not-engaged employees are likely to feel their contributions are being underestimated, and their potential is not being realized. (Sanford & Coffman, 2002)

According to Towers Perrin (2003), the large number of moderate or non-engaged employees is a challenge for the typical company right now. There is a risk for an employer that this group of people will slide towards the increasing disengagement with serious consequences on productivity and morale (Perrin, 2003). If this happens, improvement of the employee engagement level will become a more complicated and time-consuming process.

2.7 Kahn's Model of Engagement

During two of Kahn's qualitative studies (1990), he examined the psychological situations of individual engagement and disengagement at the task. Kahn interrogated employees of two different organizations about their moments of engagement and disengagement. The researcher stated that there are three psychological conditions that people experience at work, particularly, meaningfulness, safety, and availability. These psychological conditions are linked to personal engagement or disengagement. According to Kahn (1990), employees in each work situation unconsciously ask themselves three questions:

- 1. How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance?
- 2. How safe is it to do so? and,
- 3. How available am I to do so?

An empirical test of the model proposed by Kahn (May et. al., 2004) indicates that meaningfulness, safety, and availability have significant influence on engagement. There were also identified several important links:

- Job enrichment, as an attempt to make the work different and interesting, and also fit between the employee and his or her work role, is constructive forecasters of meaningfulness.
- Worthy relationships with work-mates and helpful supervisor relationships are constructive forecasters of safety
- Strict observance of workmate rules (rules within the groups and firm) and self-consciousness is destructive forecasters of safety.
- Accessibility of physical, emotional and cognitive workers' resources is a constructive forecaster of psychological availability.
- Contribution in external activities is a destructive forecaster of psychological availability (May, et. al., 2004).

2.8 Model of Task Engagement - Job Demand-Resources

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) reviewed qualitative and quantitative studies on work engagement in order to identify its antecedents and consequences. Basing on the findings of previous studies they developed an overall model of work engagement that can be used in today's workplace. The Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model of work engagement. The authors indicated that the main prognosticators of engagement are working resources (autonomy, performance feedback, supervisory coaching, etc.) and individual resources (optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem, etc.). Predictors of engagement can take effect independently or be combined with other factors. When job demands are high, these resources have a positive impact on work engagement, which, in turn, has a positive influence on job performance. Engaged employees provide better performance. Therefore, they are able to generate their own resources, which over time facilitate engagement development and create a positive gain spiral. (Bakker & Demerouti (2008).

2.9 Saks Model Employee Engagement

Saks (2006) did a research that meant to examine a model of the antecedents and consequences of job and firm engagements. Results of tests done by Saks (2006) showed that there is a difference among the constructs of job engagement and organization engagement. The support provided by an organization is a positive predictor of both work and firm engagement. The work features considerably forecast work engagement. Procedural fairness is an important predictor of organizational engagement. Work and firm engagement are important prognosticators of work satisfaction, firm commitment, intentions to quit, and organizational citizenship behavior directed to organize. Saks (2006) asserted that employee engagement is a meaningful construct that should be studied more. Identification of other potential predictors of the phenomenon and possible effects of experimental interventions on employee engagement were offered by the researcher as issues for further studies.

2.10 Wage

Unequal or inferior pay edifices come under this group as well. While two or more workers perform almost alike work and have comparable accountabilities, variation in pay rate can lead to lower paid employees to leave the organization. Further, if the organization pays less than other employers for comparable work, workers are possible to jump ship for greater pay, if other aspects are comparatively equal. (Handelsman, 2009).

2.11 Organizational Environment

In one his study Kahn (1990) specified that interpersonal relationships encourage emotional safety if the organization provides support, trust, openness, flexibility and lack of threat. The results of the study done by May et al. (2004) showed that the relationship with the supervisor is also an important factor affecting employee engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Saks (2006) confirmed that support from colleagues predicts engagement.

2.12 Safety

Safety is the ability to be oneself at work without fear of negative consequences. It means that individual feels safe to take the risk of self-expression understanding the boundaries between allowed and disallowed behaviors. Employees feel safe in situations that are trustworthy, predictable, consistent, and secure (Kahn, 1990)

2.13 Work-life Balance

It is pointed out by Penna (2005) that work-life balance, is an appropriate ordering between "work" (career and ambition) on one hand and "life" (outside activities and family) on the other, is an important predictor of employee engagement. Respondents to Penna's (2005) research pointed out that being able to leave work on time and enjoy a work-life balance creates a positive experience at work.

2.14 Ergonomics

Certain jobs or work conditions cause a greater rate worker grievance of unnecessary strain, localized exhaustion, uneasiness, or pain that does not move away after an overnight rest. These types of jobs are often those involving actions such as monotonous and vigorous exertions; recurrent, hefty, or overhead lifts; stroppy work positions; or usage of vibrating instruments (NIOSH, 2003).

2.15 Welfare

Welfare services may be provided for matters concerning employees in terms of supplementing the income of the workers by providing services such as housing, medical assistance, canteens and recreation facilities (Manju & Mishra (2007). Priti (2009) argues that the role of welfare activities is to promote economic development by increasing efficiency and productivity with the underlying principle being made workers give their loyal services ungrudgingly in a genuine spirit of co-operation and the general well-being of the employee.

2.16 Work Environment

Guaranteeing acceptable amenities are provided to workers is vital to producing greater employee commitment and productivity. Providing insufficient instruments, and adverse working conditions have been shown to influence workers' commitment and intention to stay with the organization (Weiss, 1999).

2.17 Lack of Safety and Security

Generally, health and safety at work are closely interrelated to ensure personal and material working conditions. Occupational hygiene refers to norms and procedures aimed at protecting workers' physical and mental integrity, protecting them against health risks inherent to the type of tasks of the job and to the physical environment where these tasks are executed. Safety at work consist of the technical, educational, medical and psychological measures used to prevent accidents, either by eliminating unsafe conditions within the environment or instructing or convincing workers of the need to introduce preventive practices (Aço, 1998).

2.18 Poor Organizational Support

As we aware the Social Exchange Theory concentrates more on the stages a firm should take to enhance workers' commitment (Blua, 1964). Adding to this point Gouldner, (1960) indicates that workers should feel cared and respect from the firm in order to be more dedicated to reduce labor turnover and job changing. Organizational support has a constructive association with a worker's sense of perceived self-obligation to care for the organization's well-being in making sure that it reaches its goals (Eisenberger, et. al., 2001).

2.19 Lack of Individual Motivation

It is argued by Kahn (1990) that emotional variances may affect on persons' ability to attach or detach in their role enactment, just as they shape a person's capability and readiness to be involved or committed at work. Consequently, individuals would engage in different manner given their experiences of psychological meaningfulness, safety and availability in specific situations (Kahn, 1990). It is pointed out that when people feel circumstances as unsafe, it is a concern of individual difference, what coping strategies they deploy, and the extent to which they engage or disengage (Portello, 1996).

2.20 Workplace

Holbeche and Springett (2003) in their study indicate that person's views of 'meaning' in relation to the workplace are evidently connected to the levels of engagement and, eventually, their performance. The authors argue that workers enthusiastically seek meaning through their work and, unless the firm attempt to offer a sense of meaning, employees are likely to quit.

3. Problem Formulation

Oil palm plantations are operating with foreign workers from Indonesia and Philippines in the eastern part of Malaysia, especially the Sabah region. Since local people gradually detach from oil palm plantation work, and trying to engage them in other occupations, more and more foreign workers are in need to fill up vacant positions and the oil palm operations to smoothly to be run. While it is observed that the rate of employee attrition is high in oil palm plantations, especially in small holding plantations. In general, it is observed that large-scale organizations are making provision of better working and living conditions of the workers compared to small holding plantations. It is observed that many workers are working plantations are with illegal status recruited by contractors and sub-contractors that to meet the oil palm plantation operations. An initial field visit in the plantations where these foreign workers are more located was given a surface view about the working and living condition of the plantation employees. Since, Malaysian economy, to a certain extend depends on the oil palm

operations, the workers' productivity and performance is a factor to be serious to be looked into. It assumes that a fair and decent working and living conditions can ensure better engagement of the workers in the plantations. While the plantation workers are moving from one plantation to another due to several reasons associated with their working and living conditions. Hence, contemporarily, studies to be conducted to ascertain the factors that will lead to employee disengagement in the oil palm plantations. It is well evaluated that the foreign workers' movement would considerably affect the plantation operations, and it intern affect the economy as a whole. Since very less studies on foreign workers are conducted so far in the oil palm context an exploratory study, need to be conducted to explore the factors that correlated to employee disengagement at work.

4. Problem Statement

Hence, this particular study identifies its research topic as Why workers disengage? Factors from "head" or "heart" to be tagged on?

5. Research Methodology

The methodology of research followed in this study was Delphi technique which provided exploratory insight into major factors of working conditions and living conditions. The Delphi technique, mainly developed by Dalkey and Helmer (1963) at the Rand Corporation in the 1950s, is a extensively used and established technique for attaining merging of opinion regarding real-world knowledge besought from experts within definite theme areas. The Delphi technique is considered as a group communication process that targets of leading detailed investigations and deliberations of a specific issue for the purpose of goal-setting, policy examination, or forecasting the occurrence of future events (Ulschak, 1983; Turoff & Hiltz, 1996; Ludwig, 1997). The research engaged semi-structured interviews. Based on the suitable time for the resource person interviews were arranged, during March 2013 to middle November 2013. Direct interview is conducted to gather information from the respondents. 20 experts from the Plantation Managers, Plantation Workers, Mandors of Plantations, Officers of Consulate Indonesia, Officers of Detention Centers, Officers of Immigration, Humana (NGO), Schools for Migrant Workers, Trade Union Leaders, Contractors of Housing, Faculty Members and Dean of Social Sciences Universiti Malaysia, Sabah (UMS), and Research Scholars were identified and approached by email or telephone and were invited to take part in the study. All the clarifications related to the objective of the study were made by the researcher. However, 30 respondents were being interacted and communicated, only 20 respondents shown their willingness to participate in the discussion. Finally, 20 participants were interviewed directly. The conversations taped recorded, and manually analyzed. The procedural steps in adopting the Delphi technique were as follows.

5.1 Expert Panel Identification

The group of professional was made from specialists having high knowledge and expertise in plantation related. They are closely associated with plantation, as consultants, government body, Top-level managers, NGO, Consulate, Professors, Researchers and Academicians. The specialized areas of these expert members include, 12 male members (60%) and 8 female members (40%). These dynamic groups of panel of experts are knowledgeable and familiar to give relevant opinions and an admissible understanding of the employee disengagement.

5.2 Rounds

5.1.1 Round 1

In the first round, the Delphi process usually initiates with an open-ended questionnaire. The open-ended questionnaire attends as the keystone of soliciting precise information about a content area from the Delphi subjects (Custer, Scarcella, & Stewart, 1999).

The questions:

- 1. How do you define employee disengagement?
- 2. Which are the major factors, in general closely related to employee disengagement?
- 3. Which are the major factors, in general closely related to employee disengagement with specific with oil palm plantation among foreign workers?

5.1.2 Round 2

In the second round, each Delphi member obtains a second questionnaire and is requested to analyze the items abridged by the investigators based on the data provided in the first round. Accordingly, Delphi panelists may be needed to rate or rank-order items to institute initial priorities among items. Because of round two, areas of incongruity and agreement are identified (Ludwig, 1994). In this round, consensus begins forming and the actual

outcomes can be presented among the participants' responses (Jacobs, 1996). Information regarding the employee disengagement collected from the respondents. The process identifies 103 categories, which are having items with high and low proximity of employee disengagement identified. Rating process further identified in the categories and items identified.

5.1.3 Round 3

In the third round, each Delphi panelist obtains a questionnaire that includes the categories and items ratings, abridged by the investigators in the previous round and are asked to revise his/her judgments or "to specify the reasons for remaining outside the consensus" (Pfeiffer, 1968). This round gives Delphi panelists an opportunity to make further clarifications of both the information and their judgments about the relative importance of the categories and items. Second level screening of the 103 categories which were having a high and low influence on employee disengagement identified with corresponding items. The process further identified 54 categories, which are having high and low proximity of the employee disengagement identified. Classification of the items in 64 categories of 2 factors was being made with appropriate loaded items. Thematic presentation and the categorization of the items were done.

5.1.4 Round 4

In the fourth and often final round, the list of remaining items, their ratings, minority opinions, and items achieving consensus are distributed to the panelists. This round provides a final opportunity for members to review their decisions. It should be recalled that the number of Delphi iterations is contingent largely on the degree of agreement sought by the investigators and can vary from three to five (Van de Ven & Gustafson, 1975; Ludwig, 1994). During fourth level, screening of the 30 categories, which were having, items with high and moderately high proximity of the employee disengagement identified. Sought the expert opinion on the appropriateness of the core factors selected for the study.

Table 1. Disengagement – Delphi analysis

BIP	Footons	Catagories	No.	No of Experts (N=20)	% of Experts
S/N	Factors	Categories	Items		
		Children Education	2	16	80%
	Education	Transportation to school	2	16	80%
1		Tuition fees	2	17	85%
		Future for next generation	1	16	80%
		Right to learn	2	16	80%
		No leave	1	16	80%
		Wages too low	2	18	90%
		Wages difference among gender	3	18	80% 90% 90% 75% 80%
2	Benefit	High Electricity charges	2	15	75%
2		Health/ medical	3	16	80%
		Retirement	2	16	80%
		Insurance	2	17	85%
		Maternity	2	15	75%
		Security	2	16	80%
		Ethnic clash	3	17	17 85% 16 80% 16 80% 16 80% 18 90% 18 90% 15 75% 16 80% 17 85% 16 80% 17 85% 18 90% 17 85%
3	Safety	Sexual harassment	2	18	90%
		Hazardous jobs	3	17	85%
		Isolated workplace	2	18	90%
4	Support	Transportation	2	18	90%
4		Training on Labor	2	15	75%

		Restrict movement	2	17	85%
		Occupational health	1	15	75%
		Social justice	2	16	80%
		Inadequate workers	2	16	80%
		No recognition	1	16	80%
		Work irregular	2	15	75%
		Temporary contract	2	16	80%
		Strict discipline	2	17	85%
		Protection tools	2	16	80%
	Rule & Regulation	Protection Cloths difficulty	2	16	80%
5		Rigid rules	2	15	80%
		Condition of employment	2	17	85%
		Unfair dismissal	2	17	80%
		Monoculture	2	15	75%
	Motivation	Monotonous work	2	16	80%
		Poor Social entertainment	2	16	80%
6		Religious facilities	3	16	80%
		No power and freedom	3	16	80%
		Work stress	3	17	85%
		Low Inner happiness	2	17	85%
		Workload	2	17	85%
		Abuse at work	2	17	85%
		Working hours	3	17	85%
7	Workplace	No harmony	3	15	75%
		Work discrimination	3	16	80%
		Low job satisfaction	2	17	85%
		Injustice at work	2	16	80%

The dimensions taken into account is the disengagement which comes with 7 factors to define the term which are education, benefit, safety, support, rule & regulation, motivation and workplace. Among the 20 experts identified 47 categories total and 100 items in disengagement. The 5 major categories with 9 items under education factor are tuition fees 85%, children education 80%, transportation to school 80%, the future for the next generation 80% and right to learn 80%.

The next factor is the benefit which consists 8 categories with 17 items such as wages too low 90%, wage difference between gender 90%, insurance 85%, no leave 80%, poor health or medical facilities 80%, retirement 80%, maternity leave issue 75% and high electricity charges 75%.

The third factor is safety included 5 categories and 12 items to explain the factor, which is sexual harassment 90% and isolated workplace 90%, is the highest highlight by the experts and followed by hazardous jobs 85%, ethnic clash 85% and security 80%.

The fourth factor identified by expert is supported with 9 categories and 16 items which cover transportation 90% restrict movement 85%, temporary contract 80%, no recognition 80%, inadequate workers 80%, social justice 80%, work irregular 75%, occupational health 75% and training on labor 75%.

The fifth factor identified by experts under the group of rule and regulation structure with 6 categories and 12 items are strict discipline 85%, condition of employment 85%, protection tools 80%, protection clothes difficulty during working 80%, rigid rules 80%, and unfair dismissal 80%.

The sixth is a motivation factor as identified by experts which will lead to disengagement are sub categories into 7 and 17 items such as low inner happiness 85%, work stress 85%, no power and freedom 80%, religious facilities 80%, poor social entertainment 80%, monotonous work 80% and monoculture 75%.

The final factor influence disengagement is the workplace, which refers the plantation sector, acknowledge by the experts during discussion. There are 7 categories with 17 items which are workload 85%, abuse at work 85%, working hours 85%, low job satisfaction 85%, work discrimination 80%, injustice at work 80% and no harmony among clan 75%.

6. Discussion

The objective of the present research was to identify and fix variable related to employee disengagement in Malaysia oil palm plantations. In order to explore the factors and categories related to employee engagement the study followed case study analysis, field observation and primary Delphi technique of quality research. The results of the study clearly lead us to focus on 7 factors and 47 categories related to employee disengagement in Malaysia oil palm plantations. A detailed discussion on employee disengagement factors are incorporated below.

The first factor identified by the experts in this particular research include the plantation workers dissatisfied towards the future of their children who are staying on the plantation devoid of proper education facilities. Many small holding plantations are not making provision of education to the children of plantation workers in and near to the plantation. Since the housing facilities arrange by the plantation to the plantation workers are very much deep inside the plantation the workers' children would not be able to travel to a nearby school, adding to that there is no transportation facilities arrange by the plantation management. In comparison with the wage, the workers are facing difficulty in paying regular monthly tuition fees for their child's education in school. In principle, the children of oil plantation are devoid off right to learn and educated. Giving due weightage to the future of children and their education workers of oil palm plantation do not want to continue their present job and their attitude clearly persecuted in employee disengagement at work.

One of the motivating factors which that influence employee stays back in any organization include the benefits that an organization extent to the employee. The benefits available from the organization develop attachment and detachment feeling among the workers at work. It is pointed out by the experts that wages, health facilities, medical facilities, insurance, maternity benefits, availability of leave and holidays, proper composition among male and female employees etc. correlated to employees feeling of attachment and further engagement at work. Contextualization oil palm plantation an especially to small holding majority health and wealth fare facilities are totally lacking. The workers are devoid of proper compensation packages, safety and security, adequate health and medical facilities. Transportation facilities, leave and holidays, retirement benefits etc. it is almost a kind of unorganized form of labor policy with which the employees are reluctant to continue their in the small oil palm plantation. It is rightly pointed out by Saks (2006), that disengaged employee often are not satisfied, not committed and have an intention to leave their organization. All the above mention factors related to employee benefits, which the expert in this study points out does lead to understand the complexity employee disengagement in small holding oil palm plantation.

The other factor pointed out by experts includes lack of safety employees feel at work leading to employee disengagement oil palm plantation. It is pointed out by many researchers like Kotowski, Davis, water-hose, (2003) that oil palm harvester are exposed to multiple risk factors leading to musculoskeletal disorder MSD. The workers are provided with many equipment conventional and more prompt to work injuries and accidents. Hence, this hazardous nature of jobs associated with oil palm plantation work leading to employee feelings of detachment. In additional to that the experts also pointed out the categories closely knit with isolated working condition in remote locations. Categories leading to employee disengagement also include the physical harassment both male and female workers faced from the mandor and the plantation manager. A quite different category identified by the expert in this study include the ethnic clash between clan coming from different country. It has been pointed out that many cases are reported on lack of adjustment between the clans and their switching over from one plantation to another collectively. The worker does feel lack of safety and security at work and leading to employee disengagement.

The next factor identified by the experts includes the support facilities provided by plantation management leading to employee disengagement at work. It is expected plantation workers that they should get a proper employment contract before they get into the work. In many situations, this contractual agreement does not observe because of the supply of labor done through the contractor and sub-contractor legally or illegally. The workers do not have a valid employment permit or the passport when they get into oil palm plantation for their work due to which there is nobody support these workers to get proper compensation and wealth fare facilities

and majority workers faces atrocities discrimination and injustice at work. Since the workers are not part of regular employment, the government seldom would be able to ensure proper health, security compensation packages and other wealth fare facilities. It has been rightly identified by the experts that the plantation management neglects these workers of oil palm plantations and there is no freedom, no recognition, no contractual obligation and further subjected to poor management support leading towards employee disengagement at work.

One of the major factors identified by the experts in relation to employee disengagement include rigid rule and regulation followed by the plantation management. As indicated elsewhere, the plantation workers are facing many challenges due to their lack of contractual employment and illegal status prevalent the host country. Many of the workers came to this plantation long years back. These workers, second and third generation are leaving in same plantation, with their extended families and without passport facing a unique condition of statelessness. This means that, these workers belong neither to their own motherland or belong to the host country. Due to which there are devoid of the protection from their own country as well as the host country. Unfair dismissal, lack of safety and security, rigid working condition, forces labor, strict discipline, discrimination, bonded labor etc. are quite common in oil palm plantation. All the above factors and the categories identified by the experts closely link to employee disengagement at work.

Motivated workforce is a blessing to any organization while there are lots of factors which affect employee motivation at work. Contextualizing the topic to oil palm plantation the experts identified 7 categories which closely link to employees lack of motivation and leading to employee disengagement at work. As it is pointed out oil palm plantation is situated far interior from town and cities. The workers engaged in oil palm plantation totally cut off from common life. One cannot expect so much of the variation in costume, practices and culture followed in plantation work. It is a form of monoculture and almost monotonous in nature. The nature of work circle around harvesting, pruning, fruit collection, loading and unloading of fruits like highly labor-intensive task. The work stress, which involves both physical and mental stress, is very high and there is less entertainment, leisure and freedom at work. It can be inferred from this field observation, case studies and expert opinion the workers in the oil plantation devoid of inner happiness and comfort of life. All these factors thus lead to employee disengagement at work.

The last factor pointed out by the experts include workplace environment, which is unique to plantation. As indicated above issues related to education, issues related to wealth fare and composition, work discrimination, work injustice, long working hours, the role of contractors and sub-contractors, the harassment and abuse at work, excessive workload etc. are all leading to employee's lack of motivation to work in oil palm plantation and leading to employee disengagement at work.

7. Model Development

The study has come out with a model, which is having a direct relationship with the employee disengagement at work in oil palm plantations. It can be illustrated as;

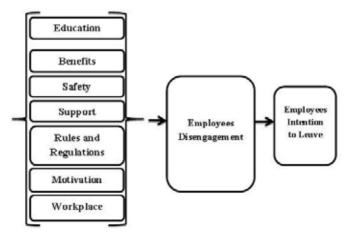


Figure 1. Model on disengagement

8. Implication

This particular study concentrates on identifying and fixing variable on employee disengagement in oil palm plantation. The study has pointed out major 7 factors (education, benefit, safety, support, rule and regulation, motivation and workplace) and 47 categories. These factors incorporated with employee disengagement in oil palm plantation several implications like policy, managerial, theoretical and methodological. Sticking to the major objective of identification and categorization factors correlated to employee disengagement. The study strictly followed the triangulation method of qualitative research like case analysis, field observation, interview and especially Delphi techniques of qualitative research. This indicated that the observation make out of triangulation will provide appropriate methodological validity. This further support the researcher to apply factor analysis with appropriate factor loading and the instrument which is developed out of this research may subjectively to the extensive level of quantitative research, contextualizing the topic to oil palm plantation. This particular research further evaluates, integrated and adopts a certain employee engagement model which may be considered as theoretical of the study.

Further, the factors and categories identified by the expert have far-reaching consequences in relation to employees disengagement it may lead to employee's intention to leave the plantation. Finally, these factors giving better inside of the government of Malaysia to keenly look into the factors related to the employees productivity and performance, which may affect contribution plantation to Malaysia economic development. Thus, these particular researches provide better understanding on issues related to employee disengagement in plantation thru qualitative research intervention.

9. Conclusion

This particular study was conducted to explore the factors pertaining to employee disengagement of workers in oil palm plantations in the Sabah region of Malaysia. The study followed Delhi technique and allied qualitative research methods to arrive at the factors and categories that are closely knit with employee disengagement oil palm plantations. The study indicates two major factors, which lead to possible employee disengagement viz., organizational factors, individual factors and Geographical factors. The organizational factors consist of categories like wage and welfare, safety, management, work environment,. The individual factors consist of health issues and motivation. While the geographical factors consist of many categories like, living in remote locations, issues of transportation, issues of hygiene, no access to better food drinking water, poor accommodation in remote areas, and wildlife issues. Thus the study identifies and fixes the variables which are closely linked to employee disengagement of workers in oil palm plantations, that support the future research with the support of quantitative research incorporating all these variables for validity and reliability.

References

- Aço, S. (1998). *Administration and management of human resources*. Professional Training. Didactic material. Luanda: Emosist.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13, 209-223. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13620430810870476
- Baumruk, R. (2004). The missing link: The role of employee engagement in business success. *Workspan, 47*, 48-52
- Blau, P. (1964). Exchange and Power in Social Life, Wiley, New York, NY.
- Branham, L. (2005). The 7 Hidden Reasons Employees Leave. New York, NY: American Management Association.
- Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 42-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010. 86.1.42
- Gallup Organization. (2001). Gallup Study indicates actively disengaged workers cost U.S. hundreds of billions each year. *Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/466/gallup-study-indicates-actively-disengagedworkers-cost-us-hundreds.aspx
- Gallup Organization. (2006). *Feeling good matters in the workplace*. Gallup Management Journal. Retrieved from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/20770/Gallup-Study-Feeling-Good-Matters-Workplace.aspx
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*(2), 165-178. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2092623

- Handelsman, J. (2009). *Understanding and Remedying Employee Turnover*. Retrieved November 14, 2009, from Business Owner's Toolkit: http://www.toolkit.com/news/news/news/news/news/neil.aspx?nid=138
- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., Killham, E. A., & Asplund, J. W. (2006). Q12 Meta-Analysis. Retrieved from http://strengths.gallup.com/private/Resources/Q12Meta-Analysis_Flyer_GEN_08%2008_BP.Pdf
- Holbeche, L., & Springett, N. (2003). In Search of Meaning in the Workplace. Horsham, Roffey Park.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692-724. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256287
- Kumar D. M. (2013). Ways and Means of Research Method. Research India Publication. New Delhi, India.
- Krueger, J., & Killham, E. (2007). The Innovation Equation. *Gallup Management Journal*. Towers Perrin, Global Work Force Study (2007-2008).
- Manju, B., & Mishra, S. (2007). The Principles for Successful Implementation of Labour Welfare Activities. From Police Theory to Functional Theory. Retrieved October 26, 2011, from http://www.tesioline.com/intl/indepth.jsp?id=575
- May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 11-37. http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892
- Pech, R., & Slade, B. (2006). Employee disengagement: Is there evidence of a growing problem? In *Handbook of Business Strategy* (pp. 21-25).
- Penna Consulting P. L. C. (2005). *Meaning at work. Research report*. Retrieved November 23, 2010, from http://www.penna.com/research/?pageIndex=2
- Portello, J. (1996). *Dimensions of managerial and professional women's stress: Interpersonal conflict and distress*. Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: the Sciences and Engineering, US: University Microfilms International, 57(6-B).
- Priti, S. (2009). *Employee Welfare*. Retrieved July 1, 2012, from http://www.citehr.com/176307-employee-welfare.html#ixzz1zTZ8HheC
- Robison, J. (2010). *Disengagement can be really depressing. Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved May 17, 2010, from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/127100/Disengagement-Really-Depressing.aspx
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169.
- Sanford, B., & Coffman, C. (2002). *Start worrying about "not engaged" employees*. Retrieved June 25, 2012, from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/142/Start-Worrying-About-Not-Engaged-Employees.aspx
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), 293-315. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.248.
- Vajda, P. G., & Heart. S. (2008). *The thrill is gone when employees disengage*. Retrieved June 23, 2013, from http://www.spiritheart.net/media/the_thrill_is_gonewhen_employees_disengage.pdf
- Weiss, E. M. (1999). Perceived Workplace Conditions and First-year Teachers Morale, Career Choice Commitment and Planned Retention: A Secondary Analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *15*, 861-879. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(99)00040-2
- Wellins, R., & Concelman, J. (2005). *Creating a culture for engagement. Workforce Performance Solutions*. Retrieved April 7, 2010, from http://www.ddiworld.com/pdf/wps_engagemen t_ ar.pdf

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Integrating Islamic Financing and Halal Industry: A Survey on Current Practices of the Selected Malaysian Authority Bodies

Nurul Aini Muhamed¹, Nathasa Mazna Ramli¹, Sumaiyah Abd Aziz¹ & Nor Asiah Yaakub¹

¹ Faculty of Economics and Muamalat, Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM), Malaysia

Correspondence: Nurul Aini Muhamed, Faculty of Economics and Muamalat, Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM), 71700 Nilai, Malaysia. Tel: 60-9-790-6383. E-mail: nurulaini@usim.edu.my

Received: May 28, 2013 Accepted: June 19, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p120 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p120

This work is funded by the *Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia Grant: PPP/FEM/HC/30/12912*.

Abstract

Halal industry is a vast industry that consists of several sectors; ranging from food, pharmaceutical and cosmetic products, services (i.e. transportation and logistics) and, banking and finance. All these various sectors in the actual state of practices are currently positioned separately. This paper expands the proposal of integrating halal industries with the Islamic funds. Principally, these sectors should not be deemed separately as they are under the same umbrella of Shariah. The collaboration of the industry can lead to harmonious system that can support each other. In this case, the Islamic financial system through Islamic banking and capital market instruments will channel their long term funding to other Halal industry. As the start, it is important to look at the current practices of authority bodies in the sectors of Halal industry (except for Islamic banking and finance) and Islamic capital market. This outlook is prioritized given that the authority bodies will influence the behavior of the players. This paper focuses on Halal industry in Malaysia. Specifically, the main selected documents of the related authority bodies in this industry were assessed to grasp their approaches regarding Shariah compliance approval or Halal recognition. This will contribute to an initiative that can integrate this industry from the policy makers and supervisors' perspective. Finding shows that there are different angles of Halal aspects focused by these authority bodies, and there is a room for adjustment towards integration.

Keywords: halal industry, Islamic finance, integration of halal industry

1. Introduction

'Halal' is an all-encompassing term that refers to anything that is permitted and allowed from the Islamic Law. The opposite meaning of 'halal' is 'haram' which refers to anything that is prohibited by the decisive means (Laldin, 2006). By referring to halal industry, the term provides a very significant meaning of producing goods and services that can fulfill the halal requirements. In practice, the terms 'halal' and 'Shariah compliance' are used relatively varied according to the sectors and authority bodies even though they lead to the same meaning.

There is no doubt that halal industry is important for Muslims to ensure they can get halal goods and services. Halal industry grows very fast due to high demand from Muslim consumers around the world, affected by courage of religious concern. Malaysia aims to become the worldwide hub for both of the sectors. One of the results of the effort is that the Malaysian Halal Certification, which is designed to cater the halal goods sectors, have been named as the world's best example for halal food benchmarking by the United Nation in 1997 (Bohari, Wei Hin & Fuad, 2013). Records show that the global halal industry is continuously growing; with the worldwide Halal food industry is valued at USD 667 billion and its annual growth at 16 per cent a year (DagangHalal.com, 2012). Consistently, the current Islamic finance asset is estimated at USD 1.3 trillion with the growth at 12 percent a year. Within this setting, Malaysia is acknowledged as the country which gives full effort to develop this industry, both for consumer goods and related services, and banking and financial sectors.

Concerns towards the disconnectedness of the different sectors in Halal industry, specifically consumer goods and related services with Islamic banking and finance, is critically discussed in the latest few limited writings in conference proceeding and magazines. Among the earlier academic and non-academic papers viewed on this issue are Abdalhamid Evans (2010), Ishak and Che Man (2011), Ahmad (2008) and Siddiqui (2013). Their main proposal is to unite the halal industry with Islamic banking and finance. In the other words, the capital from the

Islamic banking and finance industry should be channeled to Halal industry to ensure the comprehensiveness of the compliance. The financial assistance in further could be interpreted in the variety forms of financial instruments including the equity, sukuk and Islamic banking products. This issue has also been discussed upon at several conferences and events such as at the Global Islamic Finance Forum 2012 and World Halal Forum 2013. However, not many studies have been done by looking at the practices of the halal industry per se to converge the different sectors in this industry.

Looking at these present circumstances, this paper endeavors to extend this agenda by looking at the current practices on the Halal certification or compliance which is an important part of halal industry. Specifically, it assesses the current practices of the authority bodies regarding 'halal certified' or 'shariah compliance' through their main documentation. The three main bodies are Jabatan Kemajuan Islam Malaysia (JAKIM), Securities Commission (SC) and Malaysia Department Standard (SIRIM). This paper is structured as follows; (i) introduction, (ii) Halal industry in Malaysia, (iii) agenda on Halal integration (iv) the authority bodies for Halal industry, (v) Authority bodies as governance mechanisms (vi) methodology (vii) comparison on documents and (ix) conclusion.

2. Halal Industry in Malaysia: A Broad Perspective

One of the landmarks for halal industry in Malaysia is the establishment of Lembaga Tabung Haji (Pilgrims Fund Board) in 1964 that functions as a saving institution for the pilgrimage purpose. This institution becomes the benchmark for the Islamic banking and finance in Malaysia and worldwide. Since then, full efforts have been made by the government to push the halal industry, both in banking and finance as well as consumer goods sectors. Among the main factors for government's and market participants' interests is the large opportunity of Halal industry and market demand for its products and services. In a broader perspective, the halal industry can be categorized into several sectors, specifically banking and finance, food and beverages, pharmaceutical and cosmetic products, logistic and tourism.

Malaysia undeniably is recognized as among the global leads for Islamic banking and finance due to its growth and comprehensive regulations. This sector started in 1983 with the formation of the first Islamic bank in Malaysia. From this significant beginning, the sector is expanded to the takaful and Islamic capital market (consist of several financial products such as equity, sukuk and funds). The progress in the Islamic banking industry is shown by the evidence that it is a second country that has the largest Islamic banking industry after Saudi Arabia in 2011 (Malaysian ICM, 2013). The 2012 data shows that Malaysia's sukuk outstanding size comprises 68 per cent of the total worldwide size, wherein the capital is channeled to financing different sectors in the capital market. In addition, the worldwide market value for consumer goods reached US\$680 billion (RM 2.17 trillion) in 2011, with more than US\$5 billion (RM 15 billion) came from Malaysia solely. This trend indicates vast opportunity that should be grabbed by Malaysian entrepreneurs (Utusan Malaysia, 2011).

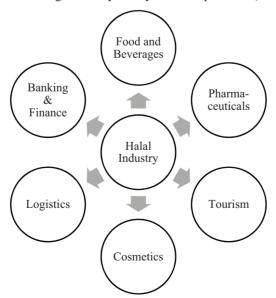


Figure 1. The selected sectors under the global halal industry Source: Adapted from Halal Industry Development Corporation (2013)

To ensure the integrity of the industry on consumer goods and related services sector, full support has been given by government to the related bodies that have been granted the authority to issue Halal Certificate and logo, and conduct the enforcement. Trade Description Act 2011 also covers part of halal and haram aspects related to monitoring the falsification of signage and images of Islam in the premises that are not granted Halal Certificate from JAKIM. The government's effort to strengthen the position of JAKIM Halal Certificate is also shown with the forbiddance of other private logos such as Islamic Food and Research Centre Asia, Persatuan Pegawai Agama Perak, IRANCA International, Halal Food Council S.E.A and Bahtera Lagenda Sdn Bhd. Since 2012, only Halal Certificate issued by JAKIM and State Religious Councils as well as international Halal certification that is approved by JAKIM, is officially recognized (Kosmo, 2012).

3. The Authority Bodies for Halal Industry

In general, the different sectors under the Halal industry are regulated by separated authority bodies. Similarly, the Islamic banking and financial sectors are also regulated by the different regulators, with the Bank Negara Malaysia controlling the Islamic banks and takaful providers and Securities Commission Malaysia (SC) controlling the Islamic capital market. These regulators work independently with different acts and regulations. To enhance the efficiency of the Islamic capital market, the SC issues list of Shariah compliance securities that can be used by investors as a guide for their investment. The SC method of equity assessment is based on two main aspects, namely the quantitative and qualitative screenings of the companies' annual financial reports (Malaysia International Islamic Finance Center, 2013). The lists are issued two times a year on May and November. Shariah Advisory Council is the highest body for compliance.

The main authority body for consumer goods and supportive services sectors is JAKIM with the support from the Department of State Religious Affairs (JAIN) / State Islamic Religious Council (MAIN). The main function of these authority bodies is to ensure the compliance of the applicants' (companies) products and services with Shariah requirements. JAKIM's document states the Halal Certification Panel is the highest body that is responsible for the approval. The Halal certification is granted once the companies fulfill the requirement, as indicated in the JAKIM's main document (ie. Halal Certification Procedures Manual). The certificate works as assurance towards halal compliance (Halal Industry Development Corporation, 2013). Differently from the Islamic banking and finance sectors, JAKIM's Halal certification is granted based on products/services that are being applied for certification rather than the whole products/services under the applicants' companies. The halal certification is valid for two years. However the status can be cancelled if the companies do not fulfill JAKIM's requirement after the certification.

SIRIM also supports JAKIM's operation by issuing standards that are read together with JAKIM's existing documents. Among those documents are MS 1500: 2009 (Halal Food – Production, Preparation, Handling and Storage – General Guidelines) and MS2200 (Islamic Consumer Goods – Part 1: Cosmetics and Personal care – General Guidelines). SIRIM, a national organization that responsible for standardization and quality, is not accountable directly on halal industry in Malaysia as JAKIM. However, in addition to issue standards for other industry, SIRIM also issues its individual standard related to Islamic practices of organizations. The MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance (superseded the MS 1900:2005 Quality Management System – Requirement from Islamic Perspectives) is the standard that based on Islamic principles and governed by SIRIM. The standard is the basis for Shariah compliance certification that focuses on comprehensive compliance of individual companies with Islamic requirement. The method of certification is via the audit process. Differently from JAKIM procedure, its certification is granted based on management and overall practice of the companies, rather than by products.

4. Agenda on Halal Integration

Halal consumption and businesses are not just about halal ingredients and production process. It must cater all aspects of Halal and Haram in Islam. Islam should be practiced as the whole rather than taking only some parts of it. In that case, the halal goods should not be looked from the production part only but should be monitored as a whole process from getting the raw material until they are received by the consumers. Ishak and Che Man (2011) provide a discussion on the basis of the integration for this industry. Based on this argument, Islam is a comprehensive way of life where the guidance is given to lead humans. Halal compliance should cover broader aspects, not with the selective scope.

Then is it only a part of the Book that you believe in, and do you reject the rest? but what is the reward for those among you who behave like This but disgrace In This life?- and on the Day of Judgment They shall be consigned to the Most grievous penalty. for Allah is not unmindful of what ye do. (Al-Bagarah: 85)

Ahmad (2008) in his analysis of Shariah literature linked this situation with pillars of contracts (contractors, recognized subject matters and, offer and acceptance), and elements that lead to the bound contract in the Islamic Transaction Law (Figh Muamalat). Recognized subjects here related to products and prices, and both must halal.

The industry however is criticized as does not unite and connect the halal industry with Islamic financing. The inconsistency has been highlighted by the World Halal Forum 2011 Director who stressed on the need to connect the two sectors – halal businesses and halal financing (Evans, 2010). The issue of inconsistency and gap related to Halal compliance process has been raised up but still gets less attention in practice. The data from Thomson Reuters shows that from 250 companies in the global halal industry and with a combined market capitalization of US\$ 132 billion, only 50 per cent are listed as halal compliance companies by the Accounting and Auditing Organization for Islamic Financial Institutions (AAOIFI). The data manifested that many companies do not utilize the Islamic financing even though they produce halal products and services (The Star, 2011). It is undeniable that there is a very strict process conducted in Malaysia, specifically by JAKIM, in granting halal status to applicants' production aspect (including source of raw materials, plant layout, logistic and process procedures). However, there is inconsistency when it comes to the financial aspect. Ahmad (2011) argues that there is no requirement for Halal compliance to be linked with Islamic financing. The main contemplation is the Shariah compliance should not be restricted to the narrow perspective of Halal ingredients and production process, but everything should be considered.

5. Authority Bodies as External Governance Mechanism

Corporate governance (CG) is recognized as an approach to rule the behavior of the companies. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) provides a narrow perspective on CG, whereby the 'Corporate governance is about the way in which boards oversee the running of a company by its managers, and how board members are in turn accountable to the shareholders and the company (www.oecd.org, 2004). However, Turnbull (1997) puts CG in a larger context of including parties that can affect the behavior of the companies. Corporate governance is defined as 'all the influences affecting the institutional processes, including those for appointing the controllers and/or regulations, involved in organizing the production and sale of goods and services, (Turnbull, 1997, p. 181). This definition provides the basis of the importance of government's and the roles of the authority bodies.

In the companies that are focusing on the niche area of fulfilling the needs of specific customers, the elements of manufacturers' and providers' integrity become the most important elements. The certification and approval of the authority bodies in the Halal industry is a vital point of the customers' confidence (Mohamed et. al., 2008). The term Shariah Governance (SG) in Islamic banking and financial institutions is now becoming more significant and the center towards ensuring the compliance of companies with Shariah. The Islamic Financial Services Board (IFSB) defines SG as "the set of institutional and organisational arrangements through which an IIFS (Institutions Offering Islamic Financial Services) ensures that there is effective independent oversight of Shariah compliance" (2009, p. 2). The essence of the definition shows that an effective SG can drive the market participants to fulfill the needs of all stakeholders. Due to their importance, the government and the authority bodies should encourage and more aware of the process of the integration. This study examines on these documents of the authority bodies in order to identify whether both elements of financing and specific characteristic of products and organizations do appear in all three certification requirement.

6. Methodology

This study conducted a document analysis on materials that are related to the Halal certification process and procedures. The documents are the (i) Halal Certification Procedures Manual under JAKIM, (ii) MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance, under SIRIM, and (iii) Malaysian SC's Resolution of SC Shariah Advisory Council (under SC) and SC's new screening methodology. By doing this analysis, the specific gap between Islamic financing and Halal industries were identified. Furthermore, similarities between these bodies relating to these industries were also recognized.

7. Comparison of Documents

The three aspects that were compared in these three documents are (i) scope of the certification/compliance, (ii) general requirement for certification/compliance, and (iii) methods of assessment. The comparison is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison on the practices from the selected documents

Aspects	Halal Certification Procedures Manual	Quality Management System (MS 1900:2005)	Shariah Screening (Securities Commission Malaysia)
Scope of certification/compliance	 Guidelines for inspectors and food manufacturers Providing the requirements that must be followed in obtaining Halal certification. (food and beverages, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics) 	Applicable to all organizations, regardless of type, size and product provided. (organizations)	To provide a general information on Shariah-compliant securities by providing list of Shariah-compliant securities. (financial instruments)
General Requirement	• Each of company that apply for the certification	• The organization that apply for the	 All the public listed companies are screened based on specific developed criteria.
of Evaluation	shall ensure that the halal certificate of source ingredients are halal, and select suppliers or sub-contractors who supply halal ingredients or have halal certification. • Every company is required to have a minimum of two employees who are Muslim Malaysia citizen in the kitchen / handling / processing of food. • Stresses on sanitary equipment, transportation, and production areas (specific requirements depend on type of businesses)	certification shall establish, document, implement and maintain a quality management system and continually improve its effectiveness in accordance with the requirements of the standard. The quality system consists of: quality management manag	 Companies can be divided into two types according to their activities, namely companies without mix income and companies with mix income (also involve in non-halal activities). Companies that are not involved in stated items as their core activities: (a) Financial services based on riba (interest); (b) Gambling and gaming; (c) Manufacturing or selling of non-halal products or related products; (d) Conventional insurance; (e) Entertainment activities that are non-permissible according to Shariah; (f) Manufacturing or selling of tobacco-based products or related products; (g) Stockbroking or share trading in Shariah non-compliant securities; (h) Other activities deemed non-permissible according to Shariah. For mix income companies, the benchmarks are*: i) Business Activities a. The 5% benchmark: conventional banking; conventional insurance; gambling; liquor and liquor-related activities; pork and pork-related activities; non-halal food and beverages; Shariah non-compliant entertainment; interest income from conventional accounts and instruments; tobacco and tobacco-related activities; and other activities deemed non-compliant according to Shariah. b. The 20-percent benchmark: hotel and resort operations; share trading; stockbroking business; rental received from Shariah non-compliant activities; and other activities deemed non-compliant according to Shariah. ii) Financial Ratios: a) Cash over Total Assets Cash will only include cash placed in conventional accounts and instruments, whereas cash placed in Islamic accounts and instruments will be excluded from the calculation
			b) Debt over Total Assets Debt will only include interest-bearing debt whereas Islamic debt/financing or <i>sukuk</i> will be excluded from the calculation. Both ratios, which are intended to measure <i>riba</i> and <i>riba</i> -based elements within a company's balance sheet, must be lower than 33%.
Method of assessment	 Document and audit on premises Periodic monitoring inspection on the premises which have been given a certificate / halal logo or use the expression to be made by at least two Islamic Affairs Officers authorized. 	(not clearly stated)	Assessment on yearly financial statement of companies, survey responses and feedback from management of companies.

Source: Halal Certification Procedures Manual, Resolution of the Securities Commission Shariah Advisory Council, SC (2013), MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance.

*SC's New Screening Methodology applies on November 2013

This study shows that the scopes of certification/compliance among these three documents are different, given that each of the documents focuses on the different angle of compliance. The JAKIM's focus in Halal Certification Procedures Manual is restricted to food and beverages, cosmetics and pharmaceutical products. On the other hand, SIRIM's MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance focuses on the management of business organization as a whole. The Securities Commission through the Resolution focuses on the evaluation of public listed companies in two aspects of the (i) business activities and (ii) financing sources.

The second aspect of comparison is on general requirement for certification/compliance. JAKIM via its documents has several requirements that should be fulfilled by the applicants to ensure their goods are certified. Among the requirements are matters related to ingredients, premises, equipment and logistics, and Muslim staff. Other specific requirements are depending on types of goods within the scope of general requirements. Based on evaluation, there is no requirement for the applicants to fulfill the Islamic principles of financing obligation.

The evaluation of SIRIM on audited companies consists of several aspects of quality management, management responsibility, resource management, product realization, and measure, analysis and improvement. The requirement on Islamic financing has been mentioned in the MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance as one part of the system. This is shown in one statement of the document as follows:

'The organisation should ensure that all sources of financing are Shariah compliant according to resolutions of Shariah Advisory Councils of Bank Negara Malaysia and Securities Commission Malaysia. In cases where no Shariah compliant resources are available, the organisation should consult its Shariah advisor or Shariah advisory body for decision' (MS 1900: 2014, p. 27).

Even though there is indication on financing based on Islamic principles in SIRIM's document, there is a tolerance in certain circumstances. In certain case, the requirement for Islamic financing may not affect the certification of some companies if there is no halal source is available.

Securities Commission (SC) on the other hand includes the requirement for the Islamic financing as part of their requirement to approve Halal Compliance Stock, parallel with other elements of prohibition. The main general activities which are prohibited and included under SC's assessment; the prohibition of *riba'* (usury), *maysir* (gambling), *gharar* (uncertainty) and alcohol and pork. On the fact that there are companies that have the mix activities, there are two screening methods that are introduced to overcome the issue, namely related to business activities and financial ratios.

The third evaluation is on the method of assessment. As indicated in its documents, the assessment method prior the approval decision under the JAKIM is through audit on documents and premises. The SC's evaluation on the companies is through document analysis of yearly financial statement of the companies, survey responses and the management feedback of the companies. Differently from JAKIM and SC, there is no clear indication of the evaluation method highlighted in the document prior granting the MS 1900: 2014 (*Shariah*-based Quality Management Systems-Requirement with Guidance certification.

Based on the evaluation, there is no substantial emphasis on the strict requirements on the source of capital based on specific Islamic parameters, except for SC. In this case, the SC's parameters are viewed as more stringent, in the way it also considers the aspect of business activities and financial ratios. There is an effort from the SIRIM to include the financing part using the Islamic principles, but yet at the minimum level. The results in actual fact support the previous claims such as by AbdalHamid Evans (2010) and Ahmad (2008). In that case, there might be a possibility that the companies that gain Halal certification for their products, but are not listed in the SC list.

8. Conclusion

This study attempts to expand the idea of bridging the gap between Islamic financing and halal industry to achieve the comprehensive halal compliance practices in Malaysia. Findings show that each of the authority bodies adopts different parameters and methods of assessment in regards to their Shariah compliant process. The SC parameters are considered as much more comprehensive compared to others. Since these three bodies issue the approval on Halal compliance from the different angles and procedures, there is a possibility of overlapping

and untapped area due to different practices. It is argued that integrating the parameters are very significant and thus the collaboration among these authority bodies should be formed to strengthen the halal industry.

References

- Bohari, A. M., Cheng, W. H., & Fuad, N. (2013). An analysis on the competitiveness of halal food industry in Malaysia: an approach of SWOT and ICT strategy. *Geografia: Malaysian Journal of Society and Space*, 9(1).
- Evans, A. (2010). Natural allies: Halal food and Islamic finance. Retrieved from http://halalmedia.my
- Ahmad, K. A. (2008). Financing halal business: Islamic solutions for Muslim entrepreneurs in Malaysia. *International Conference on Entrepreneurship*.
- DagangHalal.com. (2012). *Halal food Middle East advantages aplenty*. Retrieved from http://www.daganghalal.com/HalalNews/HalalNewsDtl.aspx?id=2062
- IFSB. (2009). Guiding principles on Shari'ah governance systems for Institutions Offering Islamic Financial Services. Kuala Lumpur: Islamic Financial Services Board.
- Ishak, F. I., & Man, Y. C. (2011). Halal Economy: Proof from Al-Quran and As-Sunnah and Demands to Utilize It in Parallel. *International Islamic Banking, Finance and Investment Conference*.
- Halal Industry Development Corporation. (2013). *Industry sectors*. Retrieved from http://www.hdcglobal.com/publisher/bhi_industry_sectors
- Jabatan Kemajuan Islam Malaysia. (2005). *Manual Prosedur Pensijilan Halal Malaysia (MPPHM)*. Putrajaya: Jabatan Kemajuan Islam Malaysia.
- Kosmo. (2012, January 1). 1,900 Premis jadi sasaran (p. 3).
- Laldin, M. A. (2006). Islamic Law: An Introduction. Kuala Lumpur: International Islamic University Malaysia.
- Malaysia International Islamic Financial Centre. (MIFC). (2013). *Shariah screening methodology: Adopting a two-tier quantitative approach*. Retrieved from http://www.mifc.com/
- Malaysian Islamic Capital Market. (2013). Supporting further growth of Islamic finance. Kuala Lumpur: Securities Commission (Vol. A, No. 1).
- Departments of Standard Malaysia. (2005). Quality Management Standard: Requirement from Islamic Perspectives.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2004). *Improving business behaviour:* Why we need corporate governance. Retrieved from http://oecd.org
- Securities Commission. (2013). Malaysia. Senarai Sekuriti Patuh Syariah oleh Majlis Penasihat Syariah Suruhanjaya Sekuriti Malaysia. Retrieved from http://www.sc.com.my/wpcontent/uploads/eng/html/icm/sas/sc_syariahcompliant_310513.pdf
- Md Zain, S. M. (2011). Is the halal issue in Malaysia resolved? *Utusan Malaysia Online*. Retrieved from http://ww2.utusan.com.my/
- The Star Online. (2011). *Halal industry should work with Islamic finance*. Retrieved from http://biz.thestar.com.my
- Turnbull, S. (1997). Corporate governance: Its scope, concerns and theories. *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 5*(4), 180. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-8683.00061
- Mohamed, Z. A., Rezai, G., Shamsudin, M. N., & Eddie Chiew, F. C. (2008). Halal logo and consumers' confidence: What are the important factors? *Economic and Technology Management Review, 3*, 37-45.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Improving TRIZ 40 Inventive Principles Grouping in Redesign Service Approaches

Nadhmi Gazem¹ & Azizah Abdul Rahman¹

Correspondence: Nadhmi Gazem, Faculty of Computing, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia. Tel: 60-17-242-1838. E-mail: nadhmigazem@gmail.com

Received: June 3, 2013 Accepted: July 7, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p127 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p127

Abstract

Over the past decade, different studies have been conducted in order to create or redesign services by using the systematic innovation method known as TRIZ – the theory of inventive problem solving. TRIZ has a range of powerful tools to solve problems and the most widely tool used to identify and solve contradictions in the system are the 40 inventive principles (IPs). Only a few studies have grouped the 40 IPs in terms of service context to overcome the problem of consuming time and effort while the designer endeavors to find the best principle(s) that may help to solve a service problem. This study enhanced and refined the previous grouping of the 40 IPs under five service redesign approaches (SRA): self-service, direct service, pre-service, bundled service and physical service. The methodology used to group these principles was by mapping between the principles hints, which have been developed to interpret the TRIZ principles in service context, and each characteristic of the SRA. A comparison between TRIZ contradiction matrix and proposed grouping for a problem case study has been conducted, and it has demonstrated and verified the feasibility of grouping of the 40 principles according to the SRA.

Keywords: redesign service approach, systematic innovation, TRIZ, physical contradiction, engineering contradiction, 40 inventive principles

1. Introduction

Systematic innovation method such as TRIZ provides problem solvers with different solutions that can generate effective and innovative solutions with low cost. Even though the TRIZ was designed for use in technical areas, current studies are focusing on using TRIZ in non-technical sectors such as the service sector (Chai, Zhang, & Tan, 2005; Chen, Shie, Wang, & Yu, 2012; Lin & Su, 2007; Mann & Domb, 1999; Regazzoni, Pezzotta, Persico, Cavalieri, & Rizzi, 2012; Retseptor, 2003; Ruchti & Livotov, 2001). Mann et al. (1999) indicated that the power of TRIZ is in its ability to eliminate contradictions rather than using the conventional methods, such as compromises or trade-offs. Among many different tool sets of TRIZ, the 40 inventive principles (IPs) are the most important and frequently used for eliminating contradiction problems (Cong & Tong, 2008; Lin et al., 2007). Each IP consists of sub-principles, which expand the various views for each principle. In fact, solving contradiction problems usually produces innovative solutions (Hsia & Pu, 2013).

In order to simplify using the 40 IPs, TRIZ offers a contradiction matrix consisting of 39 parameters such as weight, length, shape, strength, etc. This matrix is associated with engineering contradiction problem. It helps a problem solver to overcome the conflict of 39 parameters in technological systems. The 39 parameters are arranged in a two-dimensional matrix. Down the rows represents improving parameters, and across the columns represents worsening parameters. Each intersection in the matrix refers to corresponding IPs that can be used to resolve the contradiction between these parameters (Chen et al., 2012; Xie, Tang, & Shao, 2012).

TRIZ contradiction matrix has been used in non- technical context as well. Mann (2007) developed contradiction matrix for business and management context. The matrix involved 31 parameters that can be generally found in managing the business. Furthermore, Chen et al. (2012) developed the service-quality parameters for ageing-in-place service in health sector, and mapped between them and TRIZ parameters. In addition, Mann (2007) developed contradiction matrix for business and management context. However, this matrix can be used only in contradiction between two parameters.

¹ Faculty of Computing, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia

In general, the contradiction between two parameters is known as the Engineering Contradiction (EC) in TRIZ. For example, improving one parameter such as reducing the *weight* of a table could cause the worsening of another table parameter such as *strength*. The other type of contradiction is called Physical Contradiction (PC), which works with single parameter contradiction. This contradiction shows the conflicting values of one parameter. For instance, a *light* in a classroom should be strong, but at the same time *light* should be low to save power. The PC strategy is more focused and provides better inventive solutions (San, 2009). Both contradiction types (EC and PC) basically use 40 IPs to solve any contradiction in a system.

In order to facilitate using 40 IPs in services context with PC strategy, previous study by (Gazem & Rahman, 2013) grouped IPs with five typical service redesign approaches (SRA). The grouping method was based on mapping between the sub-principles and their examples with SRA' characteristics. Thus, IPs can be scoped according to the type of service that needs to be redesigned to eliminate the contradiction problem. This study is to refine and enhance pervious grouping of the 40 IP based on an in-depth understanding of each principle using the recent TRIZ interpretation in service context developed by N. Gazem and Rahman (2014). Thus the grouping can be more precise and accurate.

The remainder of this paper is divided into five sections. The second section described the related works in SRA, implementing IPs in the service sector, and classifying the IPs. The third section illustrated the methodology used in this study for grouping IPs with SRA. The fourth section discussed grouping results. The fifth section illustrated the usefulness of the proposed grouping using a case study approach, and the sixth section provided conclusions and directions for future research.

2. Related Work

2.1 TRIZ with Design Service

TRIZ was developed by Genrich Altshuller and his colleagues in the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in 1946. TRIZ is one of the most famous systematic innovation methods, providing a set of tools and techniques that can be applied within a framework to both business development and technical product development, and in a manner that can be understood by the non-specialist innovator. TRIZ gives problem solvers different tools, and the most common tool used for the elimination of contradiction problems is the 40 IPs (Cong et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2007). Filippi, Motyl, and Ciappina (2011) classified the 40 IPs as an appropriate tool to design or redesign solutions. IPs provide a problem solver with a full solution thinking description with examples of how other problem solvers have used a particular principle to overcome a conflict in a system. Cong et al. (2008) classified the 40 IPs with text similarity and with meaning similarity into 22 classes to facilitate building an expert automatic patent classification system for TRIZ users in the technical context. For instance, principle "#13: The other way round (Inversion), sub-principle (b): Make object a moving part, or make a non-moving part movable and the outside environment immovable", and principle "#15: Dynamization, sub-principle (c): If an object is immovable, make it movable or interchangeable". Both principles are about changing the way an objective works.

Because TRIZ was mainly developed in the engineering field, many of its principles and tools were originally designed to provide innovative solutions to technical problems. However, the trend now is to use TRIZ to resolve non-technical problems such as those found in the service sector. Efforts to implement TRIZ in a service context are normal due to the fact that innovation is critical to ensure crucial for ensuring continuous growth of service sectors (Kuo, Chi, & Yeh, 2013). Generally, the classical method in TRIZ to create or solve problems in a service context has three stages: define the problem, generate solutions, and evaluate solutions. The solution generation stage provides the solver with a variety of tools, such as technical contradictions/inventive principles, physical contradictions, Su-Field analysis, ideal final result, resources, etc., in order to resolve a given problem. In this context, different studies have used many of these tools to help the solver find solutions to service system contradictions. A study conducted by Zhang, Chai, and Tan (2003) interpreted 40 inventive principles with examples drawn from service operations management. Chai et al. (2005) developed a model for creating new service based on TRIZ which used the 40 IPs for predicting problem solutions based on two case studies. Lin et al. (2007) pointed out that 39 parameters formed a contradiction matrix and the 40 IPs can be used in the service sector for identifying the solutions. Kim and Park (2012) recommended adopting a model for linking service decision factors and the 40 IPs were modified for the service industry by 'Zhang' - see (Kim et al., 2012)- in their study to generate solutions. In addition Chen et al. (2012) proposed a service innovation model for ageing-in-place. They developed service-quality parameters for ageing-in-place and integrated them with TRIZ contradiction parameters to deal with service contradiction.

The method of interpreting the 40 principles to solve a contradiction in the technical context is relatively more tangible and easier to realize, unlike service which is intangible and abstract (Zhang, Chai, & Tan, 2005). For instance, sub-principle (a) in principle #7-Nested doll: "One object is placed inside another. That object is placed inside a third one, and so on". Altshuller, Shulyak, and Rodman (2005) provided a very realizable example, such as "measuring cups". However, applying this principle in the service context may give intangible and abstract solutions such as "flight travelling would be a boring experience if no more extra services like entertainment are incorporated in the flight package", (Zhang et al., 2003). In addition, the sub-principles of the 40 IPs in the technical aspect can mean obvious change in performance or function if they are implemented on an object, while some sub-principles may mean nothing in the case of service. This is because technical products are tangible, and any change in that object will be clearly noticed and easily measured. In contrast, a service product is intangible, thus the sub-principle may not be applicable.

In addition, the interpretation of the TRIZ inventive principles in the service context varies from one author to another (Cong et al., 2008; Dourson, 2004; N. Gazem et al., 2014; Mann et al., 1999). This is because the interpretation depends on empirical experience, the opinion of the author, or examples from others studies, and the most important thing is the lack of study of service patents. Moreover, particular principles from the 40 IPs in the service context may have different usage. Taking principle #15-Dynamization as an example where the service is divided into parts so each part can work according to different situations (e.g. companies increase the working hours by separating the employees' shift from one to two shifts per day during peak seasons). In another perspective, Dynamization principle can be seen as grouping services (e.g., adding temporary sell offers during peak seasons).

2.2 Redesign Service Approaches

The process of redesigning a service may lead to the innovation of new services. Study conducted by Metters, Pullman, and King-Metters (2003) pointed out that designing a service system for developing new services has thirteen factors that should be take into consideration by the designer. However, the innovation option in services is not only formed when developing new services; it can also be achieved from redesigning services (L.Berry & Lampo, 2000). L.Berry et al. (2000) also mentioned that existing service processes must be analysed, outdated assumptions eliminated, and customer perspectives adopted to revitalize existing services. They categorized the process of redesign services into five typical approaches after analysing many examples in redesign services as shown in Figure 1. Although L.Berry et al. (2000) suggested that more research on addressing the redesign service approaches be conducted, the five approaches have not been updated yet.

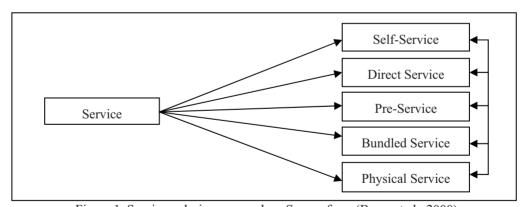


Figure 1. Service redesign approaches: Source from (Berry et al., 2000)

In each SRA, L.Berry et al. (2000) developed a set of characteristics which are used to place a service example according to the strongest fit. These characteristics clearly present different service delivery situations that require redesigning current services using a specific approach. According to their study, it was obvious that innovation from different service industries could provide the same basic solutions. This concept is the same with the TRIZ hypothesis which indicates that there are universal principles of invention that are the basis for creative innovation in manufactory industries, and if these principles could be identified and codified, they could be taught to people to make the process of invention more predictable. Thus, identifying patterns by collecting as many examples as possible from the service industry may prove that innovative services could have their own principles just like the TRIZ 40 IPs (Zhang et al., 2003).

3. A New Grouping Method

The different studies and methods that have been mentioned in the literature review for utilizing IPs illustrate the importance of reducing time consuming processes during the use of such tools to resolve contradiction problems, or even in facilitating automatic patent classification. Therefore, this study attempted to achieve the same goal.

Previous study by N. A. J. Gazem et al. (2013) grouped the 40 IPs under the five service redesign approaches. The grouping methodology was based on text similarity and meaning similarity. Text similarity was the first stage of categorisation and it focused on similarity between the inventive principles with each SRA identity. For instance, the self-service approach has similarity in text information with principle #25-self-service. Both indicate the operating of the service by users. Thus this principle can be grouped under this service approach. The second stage included two methods. The first method looked for meaning similarity between the sub-principles information and each characteristic. For example, sub-principle (a) in #5: Merging (Consolidation): "Bring closer together or merge identical or similar objects, assemble identical or similar parts to perform parallel operations", and bundled service characteristic: "Customers can be segmented based on use or need". The sub-principle (a) and bundled service characteristic indicate the bundling of services for a particular group of people in order to fulfil their needs. The second method was based on variant service examples, which have been used or could be used with the 40 IPs. For instance, the meaning similarity between the example of principle #21-Skipping: "To increase the automation level, many service organizations try to shorten the direct customer contact time (e.g., the use of automated phone answering systems or online reservation system), (Zhang et al., 2003)", and the self-service characteristic: "Speed of service delivery is paramount". The example in sub-principle "Skipping" and self-service characteristic indicates the need to increase the speed of service delivery to customers.

The previous method depended more on meaning similarity of variant service examples. Most of the examples that have been used by N. A. J. Gazem et al. (2013) depend on collecting different examples from (Fox, 2008; L.Berry et al., 2000; Mann, 2007; Zhang et al., 2003). Therefore, a limited number of examples controlled the grouping process rather than depending on the real understanding of the principles. Moreover, depending on examples is not a solid method for grouping because different principles could use the same example. For instance, principles "#26-Copying" and "#35-Parameter Changes (Transformation of Properties)" use the same example: numerical simulation, (Mann, 2007). The new grouping in this study avoided previous deficiencies through an in-depth understanding of each principle by using the recent 40 IPs interpretations, which were developed by (Gazem et al., 2014), for service context.

Table 1. Grouping TRIZ principles with the self-service approach characteristic

Characteristics		TRIZ principles	Hints with example	
B. Speed of service	of	1: Segmentation	b) Break down the services process into small process or increase the degree of fragmentation or segmentation of the service process.	
delivery	is		• Supermarkets provide express chaser to expedite the payment process.	
paramount.		2: Extraction	c) Change the service operation to self-service.	
			 Train stations set up automated ticket machines. 	
		10:Preliminary action (Prior	d) If the customer requires the service immediately, the service process should be simplified to improve its efficiency.	
		Action)	• New students can fill their information and submit their documents online.	
		21: Skipping	a) Shorten the waiting time for a service.	
			 Automated answering service allows customers skipping front-line employee assistance and communicates with the desired person or department directly. 	
		25: Self-service	b) Determine which part of the service is most affected by delivery speed.	
			Then find a way to convert that process to a self-service method.	
			 In fast-food, customers can act as partial employee, where they can serve themselves by assemble the meals for their preferences. 	

The new 40 IPs interpretation includes a comprehensive introduction of each principle that gives a good understanding for a problem solver. In addition, each principle has a set of hints that give the problem solver different suggestions for using a specific principle. In addition, these hints provide a more practical explanation of each principle. Therefore, using these hints for mapping between the 40 IPs with the service approaches will be a good method for improving the grouping process. For example, according to N. Gazem et al. (2014) the hint

(a) in the principle #21-Skipping: "shortening the waiting time during performing the service" can be mapped with the characteristic: "Speed of service delivery is paramount" in self-service approach. Consequently, the principle "Skipping" can be grouped under this characteristic. Table 1 shows a snapshot of grouping some 40 IPs with one of self-service characteristic.

In Table 1, the authors also provided one example with each principle's hint. This step was to illustrate the logical mapping between principle and service approach characteristics.

4. Results and Discussion

The new method of grouping 40 IPs with the SRA improved the grouping tables and added more principles for each SRA characteristic. Taking the Table 1 results and comparing them with the previous study result shows that current self-service characteristic "customer require frequent and flexible access" includes 4 principles instead of 2. Tables 2,3,4,5 & 6 show the results of the new grouping process.

Table 2. Inventive principles with self-service approach characteristics

Characteristics	TRIZ principles
A. Customers require frequent and flexible access.	2: Extraction
	17: Resonance
	20: Continuity of useful action
	31: Holes
B. Speed of service delivery is paramount.	1: Segmentation
	2: Extraction
	10: Prior Action
	21: Skipping
	25: Self-service
C. Service performance requires limited skills that are	25: Self-service
easily transferable to customers.	38: Enriched Atmosphere
D. Technology exists to enable customers to perform the	2: Extraction
service.	7: Nesting
	13: Inversion
	15: Dynamization
	17: Resonance
	21: Skipping
	24: Intermediary
	25: Self-service
	35: Transformation of Properties
E. Customers may be concerned about disclosing private	2: Extraction
information to service personnel.	13: Inversion
	21: Skipping
	24: Intermediary
	25: Self-service
	30: Thin and Flexible
	39: Calm Atmosphere
F. Gross margins are low, making cost-saving alternative	2: Extraction
especially attractive.	4: Symmetry Change
	5: Consolidation
	8: Counter Balance
	25: Self-service
	35: Transformation of Properties

Table 3. Inventive principles with direct service approach characteristics

Characteristics	TRIZ principles
A. Customers must significantly disrupt their normal	1: Segmentation
routines to receive the service.	2: Extraction
	3: Optimal Resource
	12: Remove Tension

	13: Inversion	
	15: Dynamization	
	37: Relative Change	
B. Customers' inconvenience in visiting the service facility	2: Extraction	
outweighs the benefits of their service.	12: Remove Tension	
	13: Inversion	
	22: Convert harm into benefit	
	24: Intermediary	
	35: Transformation of Properties	
C. Customers dislike personally interacting with the service	2: Extraction	
provider.	4: Symmetry Change	
	13: Inversion	
	14: Curvature	
	21: Skipping	
	24: Intermediary	
	25: Self-service	
	30: Thin and Flexible	
D. Technology allows the remote delivery of services.	4: Symmetry Change	
	7: Nesting	
	11: Beforehand Cushioning	
	13: Inversion	
	20: Continuity of useful action	
	24: Intermediary	
	26: Copying	
	31: Holes	
	35: Transformation of Properties	

Table 4. Inventive principles with pre-service approach characteristics

Characteristics	TRIZ principle	
A. Customers must supply detailed information to receive	1: Segmentation	
the service.	10: Prior Action	
	23: Feedback	
	31: Holes	
	34: Rejecting and Regenerating Parts	
B. Customers are usually in a hurry to receive the service.	1: Segmentation	
	2: Extraction	
	10: Prior Action	
	13: Inversion	
	20: Continuity of useful action	
	21: Skipping	
	25: Self-service	
	31: Holes	
C. Customers plan service consumption ahead of time.	3: Optimal Resource	
	9: Prior Counteraction	
	10: Prior Action	
	15: Dynamization	
	18: Mechanical vibration	
	19: Periodic action	
	22: Convert harm into benefit	
	23: Feedback	
	27: Cheap Disposables	
	36: Phase Transitions (Phenomenon Utilization)	
D. Customers use the service frequently.	9: Prior Counteraction	
	20: Continuity of Useful Action	
	21: Skipping	

Table 5. Inventive principles with bundled service characteristics

Characteristics	TRIZ principle
A. Customers can be segmented based on use or need.	1: Segmentation
-	4: Symmetry Change
	5: Consolidation
	17: Resonance
	23: Feedback
	32: Change the Color
	35: Transformation of Properties
	40: Composite materials (Non Homogeneity)
B. Efficient consumption requires technical knowledge.	6: Multi-functionality
	8: Counter Balance
	34: Rejecting and Regenerating Parts
C. Customers associate core service with other related	3: Optimal Resource
services.	4: Symmetry Change
	5: Consolidation
	6: Multi-functionality
	7: Nesting
	16: Slight Less/Slightly More
	20: Continuity of useful action
	24: Intermediary
	31: Holes
	33: Homogeneity
	38: Enriched Atmosphere
D. Customers are convenience minded.	3: Optimal Resource
	4: Symmetry Change
	5: Consolidation
	6: Multi-functionality
	7: Nesting
	8: Counter Balance
	11: Beforehand Cushioning
	19: Periodic action
	26: Copying
	27: Cheap Disposables
	29: Intangibility
	33: Homogeneity
	38: Enriched Atmosphere

Table 6. Inventive principles with physical service characteristics

Characteristics	TRIZ principle	
A. Consumption requires the customer's presence at the	3: Optimal Resource	
service facility.	15: Dynamization	
	22: Convert harm into benefit	
	28: Another Sense	
	35: Transformation of Properties	
B. The service is difficult for customers to evaluate prior to	3: Optimal Resource	
purchase.	7: Nesting	
	17: Resonance	
	23: Feedback	
	27: Cheap Disposables	
	34: Rejecting and Regenerating Parts	
C. Physical comfort is an important determinant of customer	3: Optimal Resource	
and/or employee satisfaction.	5: Consolidation	
	6: Multi-functionality	
	14: Curvature	

	28: Another Sense	
	32: Change the Color	
	39: Calm Atmosphere	
D. Competing service are quite similar to one another in	4: Symmetry Change	
operational performance.	6: Multi-functionality	
	13: Inversion	
	16: Slight Less/Slightly More	
	17: Resonance	
	26: Copying	
	40: Composite materials (Non Homogeneity)	

Table 7. A priority of principles with the service redesign approaches

Approach	TRIZ principles	Repetition
Self-service	2: Extraction	5
	25:Self-service	5
	21: Skipping	3
	13: Inversion	2
	17: Resonance	2
	24: Intermediary	2
	35: Transformation of Properties	2
Direct service	13: Inversion	4
	2: Extraction	3
	24: Intermediary	3
	4: Symmetry Change	2
	12: Remove Tension	2
	35: Transformation of Properties	2
Pre-service	10: Prior Action	3
	1: Segmentation	2
	9: Prior Counteraction	2
	20: Continuity of useful action	2
	21: Skipping	2
	23: Feedback	2
	31: Holes	2
Bundled service	4: Symmetry Change	3
	5: Consolidation	3
	6: Multi-functionality	3
	3: Optimal Resource	2
	7: Nesting	2
	8: Counter Balance	2
	33: Homogeneity	2
	38: Enriched Atmosphere	2
Physical service	3: Optimal Resource	3
•	6: Multi-functionality	2
	17: Resonance	2
	28: Another Sense	2

According to the new understanding of the principles interpretation, the authors found that some principles which were grouped previously by (Gazem et al., 2013), showed weak relation with some characteristics. Therefore, the authors eliminated those principles. For instance, characteristic D: "Customers use the service frequently" in pre-service approach included principle "#19-Periodic action" in proviruses grouping. This principle has weak correlation with that characteristic. According to N. Gazem et al. (2014) this principle refers to think of opposite continuity. Therefore, the authors eliminated this principle since this characteristic (D) refers to making service work continually.

Moreover, Tables 2- 6 showed that some of the 40 IPs can be grouped with a service approach more than once, but within different service approach characteristics. For instance, principle "#2-Extraction" was grouped three times with direct service approach in Table 3. This is because the hints associated with this principle can be used in different characteristics of *Direct Service Approach*. For example, the hint (a) in principle "Extraction" suggests that service be directed to the customer location. This suggestion can be used with characteristics A and B. In addition, the hint (c) in principle "Extraction" suggests that the service operation be changed to self-service, which can be used with characteristic C.

The repetition of principles in each service approach shows a new concept of priority for implementing principles in each approach. Therefore, in each service approach, the principles were calculated to show the most inventive principles that should always be considered to improve any SRA. Table 7 shows the repetition of principles in each service approach.

5. Empirical Study

Grouping of the TRIZ 40 principles with the SRA in this paper will help the designer to efficiently predict the most suitable solution for the contradiction in the current services. Typically, the TRIZ framework suggests that the designer starts with narrowing down to identify the specific problem, then going to the general problem through discovering the contradiction which needs to be resolved, then generating the solution through looking at general solutions provided by the 40 principles, and finally applying those general solutions to the particular problem in order to be closer to the ultimate ideal result. The authors used the TRIZ framework as it is focusing on the stage of generating solutions.

Grouping the 40 principles has been done in Tables 2,3,4,5 & 6 and gives the designer more control in searching for a corresponding principle to be applied for a specific problem. To do that, the designer should know what service redesign approach he/she needs. According to the TRIZ framework, the process of using the proposed tables can be implicated in the following steps:

- 1- The designer should analyse the problem and identify why it exists and what is the contradiction that caused the problem.
- 2- Understanding the solution to the contradiction will help the designer to think of the closest service redesign approach in order to solve this problem.
- 3- After the service approach has been determined, the designer can take into consideration the priority principles in a particular service approach (Table 7).
- 4- If those principles do not help to predict the solution, the designer needs to look at each characteristic of a particular service approach, which has been determined in step 3. As soon as the designer finds the best characteristic that may lead to generating a solution, he/she can refer to a set of principles that can be used according to Tables 2 to 6.
- 5- If step 4 does not help to predict the solution, then the designer may scan the rest of the 40 principles. Before the designer reaches the worst scenario, step 5, preceding steps will give the designer the opportunity to shortcut the process of scanning the principles. Step 2 and 3 will scope the principles for the designer in the beginning. Then if it does not help, the designer can look at more principles, but not all of them, only the principles related to the service approach step 4.

To verify the viability of the proposed grouping, the researchers use a case study that was conducted by Chen et al. (2012) in Taiwan. The case study was conducted for improving service system effectiveness in hospitals that provide healthcare for senior citizens in their homes. This service is known as ageing-in-place. Their model was based on the TRIZ contradiction matrix. The problem of the case study was to improve service automation and equipment maintenance, as well as to minimize cost. They analysed the problem according to finding the contradiction between parameters – Engineering Contradictions (EC). Because EC analysis basically needs to find the contradiction between parameters in order to be able to use TRIZ matrix, this study is not focusing on finding solutions for EC. However, analysing problems that are based on EC can still be solved by Physical Contradiction (PC). In fact, every engineering contradiction has one or more PC (San, 2009).

PC analysis focuses on finding the controlling factor in the EC. For example, in order a table carry many things on it, the surface of the table needs to be large, but this may make the table heavy. The contradiction here is between width and weight parameters. In order to convert EC to PC, a designer needs to find the controlling factor, which is thickness in this case. Therefore, the PC statement will be thin to reduce weight and thick to provide strength. The PC has different strategies in order to solve this type of contradiction such as separation in space, time, upon condition and system level, satisfaction, and bypass. All these strategies involved the grouping

of some principles, but within a technical problem context. Therefore, while this study used the PC analysis, it used 40 IPs grouping with SRA in order to solve problems in service context.

According to Chen et al. (2012), the EC has two problem statements. The first problem statement was that service automation should be established to quickly enhance meeting senior citizens' needs, but will increase service system cost. The second problem statement was that equipment maintenance should be established to enhance service automation, but this will also increase the service system cost. Actually, establishing equipment for service automation will lead to increase the cost of equipment maintenance. Therefore, the controlling factor in this contradiction is the equipment that assists in automating the service. This means that the designer of the service needs to redesign the service in order to improve the automated service operation by minimizing the equipment. The best approach to redesign the service is self-service approach. This approach refers to enabling the customers (senior citizens) to play a role in performing services (Berry et al., 2000). According to Table 2, the characteristic (D) refers to improving the service automation operation using existing technology. This characteristic includes some inventive principles that could help the designer to generate different solutions for this type of problem.

In a comparison between Chen et al. (2012) and this study, the corresponding principles used to solve this problem contain a few principles that demonstrate a match between the two methods as shown in Table 8. However, according to Chen et al. (2012) the principle "#15: Dynamization" got the highest rank in terms of generating the optimal innovative solutions. This principle also can be found in the set of principles grouped under characteristic (D) – see Table 2. Others principles grouped under characteristic (D) can be interpreted to get the same or maybe different solutions. In fact, the principles can be interpreted in different perspectives from one designer to another because the intangibility characteristic is distinct in a service product in contrast to a physical one. Therefore, implementing inventive principles in the service context depends in the first place upon the designer's experience and how he/she uses the principles as a means to solve a problem.

Table 8. Comparison of the two problem solving methods

	Chen et al. (2012)	The current study
Corresponding Principles	1, 15, 19, 23, 28, 32	2, 7, 13, 15, 17, 21, 24, 25, 35.
Service sector	Only for health sector	Different service sectors
Contradiction Type	Engineering Contradiction	Physical Contradiction
Interpretation	According to general TRIZ interpretation in technical context	According to TRIZ interpretation in service context.

Interpreting the TRIZ principles in service context is more feasible than interpreting based on TRIZ in a technical context. Chen et al proposed the use of online media for monitoring and providing consultation within the residences of senior citizens after the application of principle "#15: Dynamization" to solve the case study problem. According to the 40 IPs grouping results in this study, this solution can be obtained by using principle "#13: Inversion", which clearly indicates that the service should be performed in an opposite way (N. Gazem et al., 2014). Thus, instead of a patient going to a hospital for a medical checkup, the patient can get the medical treatment from home via networked video equipment. In addition, Chen et al proposed to outsource equipment maintenance by equipment suppliers after they applied principle "#1: Segmentation". This solution can be obtained clearly if they use principle "#24: Intermediary". The hint (e) in principle "intermediary" states that "organizations can outsource non-core functions or process so that they can focus on more valuable functions", (Gazem et al., 2014).

6. Conclusion

The theory of inventive problem solving (TRIZ) has been getting attention from many researches in terms of using it in a service context. Most of these researches have been focused on the 40 inventive principles because this tool is commonly used for solving contradiction problems. This research enhanced our previous work for grouping 40 IPs according of different types of redesign service approaches. The grouping process in this study basically depended on a new interpretation of the principles from the service prospective. Hints that developed with each principle have been used as mean in the process of mapping between 40 IPs and SRA characteristics. The new grouping enhanced the previous results by adding new principles into or eliminating the weak coloration principles within a particular SRA characteristic. This study showed that various principles could be

used in different approaches to redesigning services. Furthermore, some principles can be used repeatedly in a particular service approach. The repetition of principles in each service approach illustrated the most inventive principles that should always be considered to improve any of the service approaches. The feasibility and advantages of using the proposed grouping tables have been demonstrated by comparison of the results of this research with another study for the same case study of an ageing-in-place service agency that provides homecare services in the homes of senior citizens in Taiwan. The comparison result showed that using the grouping tables provide more corresponding inventive principles than those provided by applying TRIZ matrix. This is because the grouping of the 40 principles was dependent on a comprehensive understanding of each principle from the service aspect. It also showed that grouping tables are applicable for solving problems for different service sectors. In addition, although this research as well as the other study by Chen et al. (2012), agreed on the case study solutions, our study was clearer in terms of interpretation of principles as it was based on new interpretative principles for the service context.

Future work will involve the construction of a design model for systematic innovation solving problem using grouping results to utilize 40 inventive principles in the service sector. Thus, the designer of the service can predict the solutions for the services efficiently and effectively by focusing on more appropriate principles that can be applied to a given problem.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research of Yemen for the financial support my studying in Malaysia.

References

- Altshuller, G., Shulyak, L., & Rodman, S. (2005). 40 Principles Extended Edition: TRIZ Keys to Technical Innovation (1st ed.). Worcester, United States: Technical Innovation Center, INC.
- Chai, K. H., Zhang, J., & Tan, K.-C. (2005). A TRIZ-Based Method for New Service Design. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(1), 48-66. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1094670505276683
- Chen, C. -K., Shie, A. -J., Wang, K. -M., & Yu, C.-H. (2012). *An Ageing-in-Place Service Innovation Model by Using TRIZ Methodology*. Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries, n/a-n/a. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hfm.20536
- Cong, H., & Tong, L. H. (2008). Grouping of TRIZ Inventive Principles to facilitate automatic patent classification. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 34(1), 788-795. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2006. 10.015
- Dourson, S. (2004). The 40 Inventive Principles of TRIZ Applied to Finance. *The TRIZ Journal*, October.
- Filippi, S., Motyl, B., & Ciappina, F. M. (2011). Classifying TRIZ methods to speed up their adoption and the ROI for SMEs. *Procedia Engineering*, *9*(0), 172-182. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2011.03.110
- Fox, M. (2008). da Vinci and the 40 Answers (1st ed.). Austin, Texas: Wizard Academy Press.
- Gazem, N., & Rahman, A. A. (2014). Interpretation of TRIZ Principles in Service Context. *Asian Social Science*, 10(13), 108-130. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n13p108
- Gazem, N. A. J., & Rahman, A. A. (2013). TRIZ Principles in Redesign Service Approaches. *Advances in information Sciences and Service Sciences*, 5(11), 273-282.
- Hsia, T.-C., & Pu, L.-B. (2013). Using TRIZ to Improve Maintenance and Repair Services at Jung-xian Auto Repair. *Advances in information Sciences and Service Sciences*, *5*(9), 409-419. http://dx.doi.org/10.4156/AISS.vol5.issue9.49
- Kim, S., & Park, Y. (2012). A TRIZ-based Approach to Generation of Service-supporting Product Concepts. World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology, 62(111), 574-574.
- Kuo, D. C., Chi, C., & Yeh, H. (2013). A Proposed Methodology and its Implications for Industrial-oriented Service Innovation. *International Journal of Advancements in Computing Technology*, *5*(4), 899-906. http://dx.doi.org/10.4156/ijact.vol5.issue4.108
- Berry, L., & Lampo, S. K. (2000). Teaching an Old Service New Tricks. *Journal of Service Research*, 2(3), 265-275. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/109467050023004
- Lin, C. -S., & Su, C. -T. (2007). An Innovative Way to Create New Services: Applying the TRIZ Methodology. Journal of the Chinese Institute of Industrial Engineers, 24(2), 142-152. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/

10170660709509029

- Mann, D. (2007). *Hands on Systematic Innovation: For Business and Management*. UK: Edward Gaskell Publishers.
- Mann, D., & Domb, E. (1999). 40 Inventive (Business) Principles with Examples. The TRIZ Journal, September.
- Metters, R., Pullman, M., & King-Metters, K. (2003). Successful Service Operations Management. Australia: South-Western College Pub.
- Regazzoni, D., Pezzotta, G., Persico, S., Cavalieri, S., & Rizzi, C. (2012). Integration of TRIZ Problem Solving Tools in a Product-Service Engineering Process. In Y. Shimomura & K. Kimita (Eds.), *The Philosopher's Stone for Sustainability* (pp. 399-404). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Retseptor, G. (2003). 40 Inventive Principles in Quality Management. The TRIZ Journal, March.
- Ruchti, B., & Livotov, P. (2001). TRIZ-based Innovation Principles and a Process for Problem Solving in Business and Management. *TRIZ Journal*, December.
- San, Y. T. (2009). TRIZ Systematic Innovation in Manufacturing. Malaysia: Firstfruits Sdn Bhd.
- Xie, J., Tang, X., & Shao, Y. (2012). Research on Integrated Innovation Design Method of TRIZ and QFD Based on the Consumer Demand Decision. *International Journal of Information Processing and Management,* 3(2), 14-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.4156/ijipm.vol3.issue2.3
- Zhang, J., Chai, K. -H., & Tan, K. -C. (2003). 40 Inventive Principles with Applications in Service Operations Management. *The TRIZ Journal*, December.
- Zhang, J., Chai, K.-H., & Tan, K.-C. (2005). Applying TRIZ to service conceptual design: an exploratory study. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 14(1), 34-42. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2005.00323.x

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

The Mediating Effect of Financial Performance on the Relationship between Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness, Intellectual Capital and Corporate Social Responsibility, of Islamic Banks in Gulf Cooperation Council Countries

Anwar Salem Musibah¹ & Wan Sulaiman Bin Wan Yusoff Alfattani²

Received: June 5, 2013 Accepted: July 2, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p139 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p139

Abstract

The objective of this study was to determine the influence of Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) and Intellectual Capital (IC) on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) among 36 Islamic banks in Gulf Cooperation Council Countries (GCC) over the period of 2007-2011. Additionally, this study was aimed to identify the significance of financial performance (ROA, ROE) as mediator in the relationship between Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE), Intellectual Capital (IC) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). For the purpose of data analysis and hypotheses testing, several statistical methods such as multiple regression analysis were utilized to understand the variables. The results of this study reported that SSBE, Capital Employee Efficiency (CEE) and Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE) of Islamic banks positively influenced CSR. However, Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) did not influence CSR. The results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate that financial performance (ROA, ROE) was found to be a significant mediating factor for the relationship between SSBE, CEE, and SCE, and CSR in Islamic banks. The relationship between SSBE, IC, financial performance (ROA, ROE) and CSR suggested that it may be beneficial to the management of Islamic banks to increase CSR as discussed. Limitations and recommendations for future research were also highlighted.

Keywords: Shariah supervisory board, intellectual capital, financial performance, corporate social responsibility, and gulf cooperation countries

1. Introduction

In recent years, corporate governance has received considerable attention in Islamic finance. The extensive development of corporate governance in conventional finance has raised the issue of how Islamic corporate governance should be designed. The question arises as to whether or not it needs its own theoretical model or is it sufficient to modify conventional corporate governance structures. This question has prompted scholarly research to identify and define the foundational dimensions and characteristics of Islamic corporate governance.

A particular aspect necessary for the formulation of a theoretical foundation of Islamic corporate governance is to search for its epistemological orientation and to identify the theories associated with the existing corporate governance model. The main theories that have affected the development of corporate governance are agency theory, which is primarily concerned with the relationship between managers and shareholders, and stakeholder theory that takes account of a wider group of constituents (Mallin, 2007). These theories generate the two most dominant corporate governance models known as the shareholder value system and stakeholder value orientation. Another dimension of corporate governance in Islam which is different from the western concept refers to its epistemological orientation. The fundamental principles of Tawhid, shura, property rights and commitment to contractual obligation that govern the economic and social behavior require IFIs to comply with the Shariah rules and principles (Choudury & Hoque, 2004 & 2006; Iqbal & Mirakhor, 2004).

¹ College of Applied Since, Hadhramout University of Science and Technology (HUST), Sayun, Hadhramout, Yemen

² Kulliyyah Muamalat, Kolej Universiti Insaniah (KUIN), Kuala Ketil, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia Correspondence: Anwar Salem Musibah, College of Applied Science, Hadhramout University, 50512, Sayun, Hadhramout, Yemen. Tel: 967-541-1334. E-mail: asomm78@yahoo.com

As part of the corporate governance framework in Islamic banks, Shariah governance is the most essential practice of Islamic finance in building and maintaining the confidence of the shareholders with the assurance that all transactions, practices and activities are in compliance with the Shariah principles. Shariah governance is now becoming more diverse and advance in parallel with the development of Islamic finance industry worldwide. In view of the impressive growth and increasing sophistication of the Islamic finance sector, Shariah governance of this rapidly evolving industry has proved challenging.

Today in most of the companies, intellectual capital makes a huge part of their market value. This employ to manufacturing related companies, high tech, and business providing services (proctor, 2006). We can say that due to lack or shortage of financial statements elaborating the value of an organization noting the reality that the economic value source is considered no more the production of material goods, but the establishment of intellectual capital is considered. Intellectual capital comprises of human capital, and structural capital covered in customers, procedures, brands of databases, and systems (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997).

Today managers are pro-active they know the reality that advantage of company is dependent on the knowledge of a company and how best and effective the use of knowledge is. One of the dependencies is the speed of new learning of a company. Provided the importance of economies emerging for the purpose of well being and balancing global economy, it is of utmost importance to develop an understanding of establishing of intellectual capital in various economic and socio political settings. Referring to Proctor (2006), land, labor or capital are no more considered the major constrain but the issue of more knowledge and intellectual capital (including component managers, skilled knowledge workers effective systems loyal customers and strong brands). A strong evidence exist that the companies focusing on increasing intellectual capital have gained good return for their shareholders and their competitors are outperformed on every financial measure (Proctor, 2006)

"Intellectual capital" has been a buzz word recently in the research community of the developed world. Thus, emerging economies are used in a few studies as a case for the purpose of analyzing the implementation of intellectual capital for particular industries (Kamath, 2007). The intellectual capital implementations are very clear in these emerging economies because they have made abundance of human capital at their disposal (Kamath, 2007). Therefore, the understanding has been necessary if this resource is being used effectively by their particular sectors to their benefits in establishing value over a period of time.

According to Kamath (2007), the banking sector is an ideal area for intellectual capital (IC) research because:

- 1. There are reliable data available in the form of published financial statements (balance sheets and income statement).
- 2. The business nature of banking sector is "intellectually" intensive; and the whole staff is (intellectually) more homogeneous than in other economic sectors.

The banking sector in any country is playing a vital role in making the economy on the track and in its procedure of development. It is being considered the main factor for project's success and growth in both (industrial and developing) countries. With the emerging and rising competition both in national and international markets, the changeover regarding monetary unions and technological advancement herald key variation in the environments of banking and challenge all banks to develop timely preparations for entering in to a competitive financial environment (Tarawneh, 2006). The perspective of Islamic banking is a mode of Islamic financing where the capital and skill of the people are which comply with the Islamic shariah. Thus, knowledge sharing and transformation is of utmost importance for the management of knowledge. Not only the true knowledge of Islamic modes of financing is transferred by Islamic banks but also do increase the satisfaction and retention of customers.

The GCC countries have remarkable known economic, political, and cultural similarities which eliminate the available differences (Al-Muharrami & Matthews, 2009). The countries of GCC over all represent mature, effective, stable and profitable system of banking. In most of the GCC countries, the sector banking is the second top contributor the country' GDP (Al-Obaidan, 2008). Thus, with the help of adopting appropriate policies related finances and economic for the purpose of making the banking sector more efficient is being considered the aim of the GCC to make their economy a global financial and trade centre (Al-Obaidan, 2008). Considering the important factors related to IC as a resource for the successful banking (Kamath, 2007; Goh, 2005), the banks of GCC countries are in need to make IC in use (internal and external). Due to this, they will be ready for the globalization challenges, will be competitive, and will be am offence for foreign banks and the growing demand of customers for new products and services (Al-Obaidan, 2008).

The status of being emerging and competitiveness of other countries has pressurized the countries of GCC financial sector in order to develop the efficacy of competition and to sustain its leading position in the world's financial sector. Thus, the financial sector in the countries of GCC is in need to focus on improving the intellectual capital which has been known as the key factor of corporate competitive advantage. With a foreign look, this study is making an effort for the purpose of analyzing the impact of intellectual capital and observes the efficiency related the supervisory board of Shariah on the Islamic and CSR performance of the banks in GCC.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Shariah Governance

The most significant element that makes Islamic banks distinct from conventional ones is Shariah supervision. It is the sole method of certifying that the services, products offered by the bank and its operations adhere to Shariah principles. Hence, in the emerging Islamic financial sector, Shariah supervision is a matter of great importance with the corporate governance as the theme employed by the Shariah Supervisory Board. In Islamic banks, the supervision is more comprehensive as it originates from the Islamic principles. Shariah supervision is essentially the process of making sure that the financial product or service adheres to the precepts and principles of Islam either through its conformation to a recognized Islamic legal norm or its non-violation of the same (DeLorenzo, 2010). However, little has been documented regarding Islamic banking governance structure although Islamic banks have shown rapid growth in the 1970s and its increasing presence in the global financial market is evident (Hasan, 2009).

Islamic organizations dealing with Islamic transactions are imposed certain requirements by Islamic banks. Among the many significant requirements is the establishment of the Shariah board which is responsible for ensuring that transactions are all aligned with the principles enumerated in Shariah. The reason behind the establishment of SSB is to ensure that the transactions are based on Islamic principles because if they are not, then the majority of the people may lose confidence on it. These matters are basic to the enhancement of Islamic banking operations. The Fatwah and Shariah Supervision Board (SSB) is responsible for overseeing the application of various aspects of Shariah rules in the bank and it guarantees that the entire transactions adhere to the principles of Shariah. Moreover, the SSB has the authority to contradict any procedures that contradict Islamic principles. Moreover, the board of directors has to obey the fatwas provided by the SSB regardless if a consensus has been reached through a majority or a unanimous decision. In a related study, Grais & Pellegrini (2006) claimed that SSB prerogatives are based in five primary areas which are; certification of permissible financial instruments through fatwas (ex ante Shariah audit), verification of the compliance of transactions with the fatwas issued (ex post Shariah audit), the Zakat calculation and payment, deletion of non-Shariah payment compliant earning, advise concerning the income or expenses distribution to the bank shareholders and investment account holders. Every SSB draws up a report certifying the Shariah adherence of the financial transactions. Along with SSB, majority of Islamic financial institutions have set up internal Shariah Review structure referred to as the Shariah Review units – units that are not dependent on other departments but forms an integral part of the internal audit as well as the control department (Grais & Pellegrini, 2006).

The SSBs issues are linked to the Shariah board implemented functions, the important issues related to these functions include independence, confidentiality, competence, consistency, and disclosures (Grais & Pellegrini, 2006). A summary of the number of board positions were presented by Zawya (2010). In both Islamic finance institutions and conventional institutions having Islamic windows, the summary encapsulated 1141 board positions in a total of 28 countries. The average size of board is 3.33 scholars for every board throughout the entire world. The summary also listed statistics concerning the memberships of scholars in various boards where the first 20 scholars had 85-14 positions each. Finally, Grais & Pellegrini (2006) stated that the present Shariah practices to make sure that Shariah compliance primarily depends on internal corporate structure, specifically SSBs. The authors added that board members are faced with various challenges regarding their independence and the fact that there are only limited scholars holding both Shariah and financial backgrounds. Only a few studies in literature have been dedicated to studying the Shariah governance in IFIs (Islamic Finance Institutions) across jurisdictions. Among them, Grais & Pellegrini (2006) explained Shariah board practices in a total of 13 IFIs, Maali et al. (2006) examined 29 IFIs while Abomouamer (1989) studied 41 IFIs. Hasan (2011) attempted to present the state of Shariah governance practices in Malaysia and in GCC countries including Kuwait, Bahrain, U.A.E., Qatar and Saudi Arabia and the U.K. in light of the five main elements making a good corporate governance (i.e. independence, competency, transparency, disclosure and consistency). Based on Hasan's (2011) survey findings, significant differences and diverse Shariah governance practices exist in the countries studied indicating the presence of shortcomings and weaknesses in the present governance framework which requires more improvement and modifications.

2.2 Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility

Judging from the provided overview in the previous section, an evident overlap is noted between corporate governance and corporate social responsibility. More particularly, when viewing the broader CG conception, it is evident that good governance needs responsibility and attention to the desires of all stakeholders (Kendall, 1999) and the assurance of the company's accountability to all stakeholders (Dunlop, 1998). A clear overlap is evident in the conception of CG and stakeholder conception of CSR that views business as an accountable complex network of interconnected stakeholders that contributes to firm value (Freeman, 1984; Post, Preston & Sachs, 2002; Jamali, 2008). Moreover, several CSR experts stressed on the requirement to maintain the highest standards of internal governance, especially in the literature of internal CSR dimension (Perrini, Pogutz, & Tencati, 2006; Rosam & Peddle, 2004; Grosser & Moon, 2005). CG and CSR require companies to fulfill their fiduciary and moral responsibilities towards all relevant stakeholders. The concept of accountability is important for a business hoping to gain and retain financial investors and stakeholders' trust (Page, 2005). CG and CSR draw take their strength from similar sources including transparency, accountability, and honesty (Van den Berghe & Louche, 2005). Similarly, Marisglia & Falautano (2005) stated that effective CG and CSR initiatives are increasingly progressing from a philanthropic element of corporate capitalism to an accurate strategy that is intended to attract the trust of clients and society. CG implies 'being held accountable for' while CSR implies 'taking account of' and both are progressively being utilized by firms in their operations regulation (Beltratti, 2005; Marsiglia & Falautano, 2005).

With regards to CG, it has been noted that good governance mechanisms integrate the interests of owners, managers and dependents in the corporation and enables the securing of long-term capital, retention of confidence of financiers, and using the capital effectively. A case in point; Gompers, Ishii & Metrick (2003) found CG to be significantly related with stock returns and firm value while Ho (2005) revealed evidence that good CG improves the competitiveness of the firm and leads to superior financial performance. CSR maximizes the firm's trustworthiness and supports the relationships with core stakeholders (Aguilera, Rupp & Ganapathi, 2007) which leads to minimized transaction costs and maximized attractiveness to investors (Hancock, 2005). Despite the controversial business case of CSR (Margolis & Walsh, 2003), majority of studies revealed that CSR can lead to decreased environmental costs, improved capability for innovation, improved recruitment/retention level, increased satisfaction of employees, and positive perceptions of the firm (Hancock, 2005; Aguilera et al., 2007; and Barnett, 2007). In reality, short-term costs may be spent on designing effective CG and CSR initiatives but several indicators also highlight a positive win-win result for businesses who are seriously employing both (Marsiglia & Falautano, 2005).

2.3 Intellectual Capital (IC)

The intellectual capital has been a buzz word in the field of research with reference to the countries developed in the world. Considering it bad luck, studies done in the emerging economies about intellectual capital, particularly analyzing its impact for industries in specific (Kamath, 2007). Making the study of Chen et al. (2005) the basis, the increasing difference among book value and firm market has gained a focus of researchers related the unseen value which has been removed from financial statements. It has been reported that the market value of a company is better than the book value; and the intellectual capital consist more in market value.

It has been reported by researchers that major competitive influencing factors consist skilled workers, managers, having efficient systems, customers which are loyal, and brand image, labor or capital (Proctor, 2006). There has been a proof that represents companies which have their focuses on intellectual capital have made a available high profits to stakeholders more than their competitors in every financial measures (Proctor, 2006). Today, management is focusing the reality that the competitive advantage of a company is in the knowledge and the use of knowledge by company, and the creativity and innovation of a company. Moreover, companies are of the view that the sources related to future cash flow will rise from the efficient management related to intellectual capital. Meeting the customer's requirements consumers is to be considered and this knowledge for contracts bidding, problem solvency, making available superior and customized products and services. Now, corporate social responsibility is in need of senior management and board's commitment, the staff commitment and skills provision, rewards incentives. It has been proved that staff participation and buy in on making available the corporate social responsibility of firm is being considered the main factor for success. Referring to case studies, HR activities can help in embedding the corporate social responsibility in the company, and provide advantages to bottom line (Redington, 2005).

Companies with Good CSR are making profitable the view of stakeholders that the company's attitude and the people are committed with the values of corporate social responsibility. Barney (1991) ha made an introduction of intellectual capital "the main corporate assets having efficacy of creating sustainable competitive advantage appropriate financial practices (cited in Appuhami, 2007).

In the above definition, intellectual capital, as a term, is significant as an asset which can contribute in a major way to the firm's financial performance and can make the firm superior to its counterparts. Intellectual capital has been defined by Edvinsson & Sullivan (1996) as "knowledge that can be converted into value" (cited in Nazari & Herremans, 2007). This is evident in major corporate who have proven that developing a strong goodwill requires valuable human resources. In addition, Dess et al. (2008) defines the term as "the difference between the market value of the firm and the book value of the firm, including assets such as reputation, employee loyalty, and commitment, customer relationship, company values, brand names, the experience and skills of employees". It is notable that the bond between the firm and customers honed through the years, the employees' expertise and know-how both add value to the name of the firm.

2.4 Intellectual Capital (IC) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Literature is rife with definition of corporate social responsibility (Secchi, 2007). Generally, it can be noted that the stress of CSR is on integration of voluntary attention to social and environmental issues into business behaviors in order to react to societal issues (Gray, 2010). This view advocates that the companies aims in adopting behaviors that are socially responsible differs from value maximization of shareholders to interaction capabilities.

According to Branco & Rodriguez (2006), CSR investments produce internal and external advantages. The former is related to the development of new resource and capabilities such as know-how and culture while the latter is related to the stakeholder relations and company reputation enhancement. On another note, Sirsly & Lamertz (2007) stated that when CSR have a significant role in the company's mission, it becomes visible in the external parts and generates specific benefits and a set of internal resources, and ensures an external defense allowing the company's distinction from its counterparts. Hence, the company's behavioral commitment to developing CSR strategies is considered a specific strategic edge.

In a related study, Bansal (2005) highlighted several reasons as to why CSR perspective recognizes the significance of intangibles in the company behaviors. Literature dedicated to CSR contains studies which have conducted analysis (implicit or explicit) concerning the relationship between CSRA and intangibles. In addition, Barnett (2007), and McWilliams et al. (2006) stated that intangibles play a key role in the company's CSR effects and they interact together to affect the company's value (Hillman & Keim, 2001). Most particularly, CSR possesses a set of positive impact on all the three IC categories (human, organizational and relational).

Regarding the CSR impact on relation capital, Branco & Rodriguez (2006) noted that company having high CSR profile are capable of establishing and improving their interaction with customers, suppliers, investors/bankers and as a result, improve their reputation level.

Moreover, Bhattacharya & Sen (2004) represent the corporate social responsibility as a positive influence on behavior of customers, improving the relationship of customer and company's brand image. According to association with suppliers and the CSR benefits, it comprise; development of strategy and relationship with suppliers; and developing the ethical and social profile of suppliers, and practices; and the development corporate trust which may be the reason of increased orders (Mont & Laire, 2008). Focusing on financial association, the corporate social responsibility is the main factor influencing the company's attraction to analyst and investors (Renneboog et al., 2008). These practicing corporate social responsibilities assist the reliability of the stakeholders of company and therefore, improve the operation of management. In accordance to Cordazzo (2005), the information if IC such as training of employee, characteristics of suppliers and consumer satisfaction are shown both in environment and social report of companies in Italy. Similarly, Cuganesan (2006) improves the perspective of corporate social responsibility and IC in their effort in analyzing the main performance indicator of intellectual capital in the banks of Australia.

Moreover, Pedrini (2007) focused on intellectual capital searching which are the same factors among intellectual capital and global reporting guidelines considering a sample of twenty international (IC) report. Large overlapping indicators were shown which were used by the two reports about intellectual or human capital. The main overlapping areas are present in the description form of features of human capital, measuring the quality of the conducted training programs, and the knowledge about opportunities and diversity. A need for a separate report was concluded which will encapsulate the information in order to show the influence of the practice of a company on corporate citizenship, the development of IC and the association of the two.

The IC and CSR relationship was also examined by Frey et al. (2008). They focused on analyzing the Italian universities' practices of social reporting and provided a detailed report on the methodology developed by best practice of their sample, to explain the social and the intangible dimension of its activities. They confirmed on various areas of overlap between IC and CSR human capital disclosure and emphasized on the fact that intangible assets is among the major drivers in the processes of value creation of such organization. Moreover, Castillo & Gallardo (2008) conducted a theoretical analysis of the potential convergence of reports. They claimed that currently, IC plays a key role in the process of value creation of companies compared to the business social facets.

As mentioned, several overlaps exist between CSR and IC and their reports show similarities. The possible convergence between them in one report is a critical one that should be further examined to comprehend the actual issue (Lev & Zambon, 2003).

Adding more, learning is being considered a new motive for corporate development represented with the help of successful companies which are bringing creativity, new technologies, skill, and learning of employees as in contrast to typical assets related to machinery and plant. Typical measures of practices like growth rate, sales, and return for shareholders are no more considered enough for making an appropriate and strategic decision. It has been realized but management that these precautions must be supported in order to represent the developed value in the organizational process. In accordance to Roos, G. & Roos, J (1997), IC, has been considered the intangible motive of sustaining market leadership, increasing sales, and creating value for stakeholders. Thus, researchers are making their efforts to find out the way to evaluate the link between corporate governance and human capital or corporate social responsibility. Making the basis of the provided reports by the Sustainability reporting Guidelines, Global Reporting Initiative, Amsterdam, 2010, was using the perspective corporate social responsibility in the idea of of a sustainable reporting of IC which is represented with performance.

The literature has made available the three factors of IC relational, human, and organizational capital. Intellectual capital means learning of employees and showing the commitment and loyalty to the organization and their encouragement which is developed from the company's enhancement. Relational capital means the value of an organization which is stemmed from the link of he firm and communication with consumers and from the existing and future hidden suppliers, stakeholders, society and agents while organizational capital means the supportive and helping structure of company for learning and learning deployment, and knowledge, skills and the efficacy in the structure of an organization. On another take of IC, Nestian (2007), Armstrong & Saint-Onge (2007) sorted IC in internal, external, and individual. The individual means the base learning consist of talents, skills, employee's education and training, with the expertise and experience they have.

Moreover, the component i.e. internal is explained by organizational models, culture, production and quality management system, and the system of information. At last, the external refers to relationship with customers, suppliers, and other partners in the value chain. In previous decade, the searches of IC have focused on IC voluntary disclosure evaluation of companies in the evaluation of behavior of company about reporting information like this. Intangibles and their role in value creation is in need of reporting and companies must investigate an appropriate way of reporting for the purpose of making available the extensive information to assist them in evaluating the company in a proper manner.

3. Research Hypothesis

3.1 Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) boards provide advice, counsel and know-how, legitimacy and reputation, channel for communicating information with external organizations, and preferential access to commitments or support from important factors outside the firm. The boards perform these functions through social and professional networking (Johannisson & Huse, 2000) and interlocking directorates (Lang & Lockhart, 1990). Corporate governess generally enhances firm competitiveness and results in superior financial performance. CSR in turn increases the trust worthiness of a firm and strengthens relationships with core stakeholders (Aguilera, Rupp & Ganapathi, 2007), which may lead to decreased transaction costs and increased attractiveness in the eyes of investors (Hancock, 2005). There are also several indicators pointing to positive win-win outcomes for businesses that are seriously committed to both (Marsiglia & Falautano, 2005). From the view point of corporate governance, Islamic banking embodies a number of interesting features since equity participation, risk and profit loss sharing arrangements form the basis of Islamic finance and provide advice to maximize profits in accordance with the provisions of the Islamic Shariah and the expectations of the Muslim community and charitable activities of the community as having a stake in this activity. According to stakeholder theory, maximizing the shareholder returns is not the sole objective; interests of all stakeholders should be

equally honored and the resource dependency theory focuses on the crucial role that the directors play in providing or securing essential resources to the company through their linkages to the external environment. Hence, the following hypothesis is developed for (SSBE):

H1: There is a positive relationship between SSBE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

3.2 Intellectual Capital (IC) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

This portion consists of the discussion on the association among (SCE) (HCE) (CEE) and CSR. The role of intellectual capital is being considered an increasing role in the corporate financial activity of companies and contributing to the financial achievements like analyzing the market (Bozbura, 2004; Brennan, 2001; Petty & Guthrie, 2000). If this mentioned association is true among financial performance and human capital, the searched literature which has shown a positive and significant association between corporate social responsibility and financial performance, it can be concluded that the human capital would pose a significant relationship on corporate social responsibility. Thus, a positive relationship between human capital and the activities of CSR can be assumed (Razafindrambinina & Kariodimedjo, 2011).

According to Sumita (2005) intellectual capital and corporate social responsibility is considered as the same thing on two different sides of the same coin. Both the terms explain the interface that link society and companies. Particularly, the various aspects of the management and maintenance of intellectual capital within a firm coincide and are complimentary towards the CSR activities of a company. The association among IC and CSR reporting was also studies by Frey et al. (2008). On the basis of Resource Based Theory (RBT), companies depend on heterogeneous set of resources and capabilities that are different and not perfectly mobile across companies. These resources include physical assets that matters like company's financial matters, property, plant, equipment and raw materials and intangible assets which includes company's reputation, work environment, and human capital. Nevertheless, as these resources and capabilities become valuable, rare, inimitable and irreplaceable, they can bring a sustainable competitive advantage. Moreover, results in the past show that financial performance is a function of the effective and efficient use of related tangible and intangible assets of the firm, the following hypotheses are therefore developed for, Human Capital Efficiency (HCE), Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE), Structural Capital Efficiency (SCE):

H2: There is a positive relationship between Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H3: There is a positive relationship between Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H4: There is a positive relationship between Structural Capital Efficiency (SCE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

3.3 Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) and Financial Performance

Previous studies (Rajan & Zingale, 1998; Brickly et al., 1994; Williams, 2000; Drobetz et al., 2003; Byrd & Hickman, 1992; Hossain et al., 2000; Rosenstein & Wyatt, 1990; Gemmill & Thomas, 2004; Weisbach, 1988) have established positive relationships between good corporate governance practices and firm performance. Therefore, according to the responsibilities, functions and characteristics of the SSB, and the resource dependency theory and stakeholder theory, the following hypotheses are postulated:

H5a: There is a positive relationship between SSBE and financial performance (ROA) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H5b: There is a positive relationship between SSBE and financial performance (ROE) of Islamic banks in the GCC

3.4 Intellectual Capital (IC) and Financial Performance

According to resource based theory, the effective and efficient use of human capital will lead to an improvement in financial performance this is consistent with the contentions of most studies that used VAIC model as the primary measurement of intellectual capital (see for example, Goh, 2005; Kamath, 2007; Ku Ismail & Karem, 2011; Mavridis, 2004; Mavridis & Kyrmizoglou, 2005). These studied found a positive relationship between human capital efficiency and financial performance. Therefore, this study hypothesizes as follows:

H6a: There is a positive relationship between Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) and financial performance (ROA) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H6b: There is a positive relationship between Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) and financial performance (ROE) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

Resource based theory argues that the effective and efficient use of tangible and intangible assets will lead to a better corporate finance. In addition, previous studies (Chen et al., 2005; Goh, 2005; Kamath, 2007) found the capital employed efficiency to be positively associated with financial performance.

On the basis of Resource Based Theory (RBT), companies depend on heterogeneous set of resources and capabilities that are distinct and not perfectly mobile across companies. These resources carry physical assets that matters like company's financial matters, property, plant, equipment and raw materials and intangible assets which includes company's reputation, work environment, and human capital. Nevertheless, as these resources and capabilities become valuable, rare, inimitable and irreplaceable, they can bring a sustainable competitive advantage and therefore, this study hypothesizes as follows:

H7a: There is a positive relationship between Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) and financial performance (ROA) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H7b: There is a positive relationship between Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) and financial performance (ROE) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

Structural capital efficiency is used as an indicator of value added efficiency of structural capital. According to resource based theory, the effective and efficient use of structural capital will lead to improved financial performance. Mostly, On the basis of Resource Based Theory (RBT), companies depend on heterogeneous set of resources and capabilities which are distinct and not perfectly mobile across companies. These resources carry physical assets that matters like company's financial matters, property, plant, equipment and raw materials and intangible assets which includes company's reputation, work environment, and human capital. Nevertheless, as these resources and capabilities become valuable, rare, inimitable and irreplaceable, they can bring a sustainable competitive advantage. Therefore, this study hypothesizes as follows:

H8a: There is a positive relationship between Structural Capital Efficiency (SCE) and financial performance (ROA) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

H8b: There is a positive relationship between Structural Capital Efficiency (SCE) and financial performance (ROE) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

3.5 Financial performance and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Previous literature presented by Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984 believed that Corporate Social Performance (CSP) has positive association with CFP. Moreover, Moskowitz (1972) observed a positive association lies among socially responsible business practices and corporate equity returns. Similar research carried out by Balabanis, G., et al. (1998) studied effect of indicators like return on capital employed and return on assets, not only this but exposed a positive relationship between the social responsibility of companies and the selected indicators of performance.

According to stakeholder theory the following hypotheses can be postulated:

H9a: The higher the (ROA), the higher will be the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC

H9b: The higher the (ROE), the higher will be the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of Islamic banks in the GCC.

3.6 Mediating Effect of Financial Performance

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a mediating variable is the third variable that explains the direct relationship between independent and dependent variable. For a variable to be considered a mediator, it must be significantly related to independent and dependent variables.

3.6.1 Mediating Effect of Financial Performance on the Relationship of SSBE and CSR

Based on resource dependency theory, SSBE would influence financial performance which in turn would influence corporate social responsibility. It is suggested that better corporate governance practices would result in higher financial performance and hence higher corporate social responsibility. Thus, it is expected that:

H5a: (ROA) mediates the relationship between SSBE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H5b: (ROE) mediates the relationship between SSBE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

3.6.2 Mediating Effect of Financial Performance on the Relationship of IC and CSR

For intellectual capital, and the resource based theory, (HCE, CEE and SCE) would influence the financial performance which in turn would influence corporate social responsibility. It is suggested that better (HCE, CEE and SCE) would result in higher financial performance and hence higher corporate social responsibility. Thus, it is expected that:

H6a: (ROA) mediates the relationship between HCE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H6b: (ROE) mediates the relationship between HCE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H7a: (ROA) mediates the relationship between CEE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H7b: (ROE) mediates the relationship between CEE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H8a: (ROA) mediates the relationship between SCE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

H8b: (ROE) mediates the relationship between SCE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

4. Research Method and the Study Models

This study applies panel data study for five continuous years from 2007 to 2011. A static panel is adopted over five years for 36 (180 observations) Islamic banks in GCC. This represents about 67 % of the total number of Islamic banks in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Static panel offers a sensitive measurement of the changes that are made between specific points in time (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2000). The years 2007 to 2011 were selected as 2011 was the latest financial year in which all banks' published annual reports were available. This time coincides with the time of commencement of data collection for this study.

Corporate social responsibility is taken as a dependent variable in current research which can be measured by numerous indicators. In Ji-ming & Hao-bai, (2007) views, corporate social responsibility can taken as the sum of all the expenses of the bank incurred on the activities of social responsibility according to the data availability. The recent study believes that higher (SSBE) and (IC) result into better performance (ROA, ROE) that will take to improved bank social responsibility. In this case, the CSR criteria has the amount of donation in a year, expenditure on staff training, expenditure on other working condition improvements and community (Qard Hasan, Zakah, employees expenses, Waqf, charitable activities, expenditure on training and other working condition improvement, community involvement expenditure, remuneration, cost of Shariah Board, Micro and small sized business, social savings and investments) involvement expenditure disclosed in annual statements.

Financial performance got the status of a mediating variable in the study that can be measured by return on asset (ROA). It shows firm's efficiency in utilizing total assets, and return on equity (ROE) that indicates returns on shareholders of common stocks, and is usually taken as an important financial indicator for investors.

Several previous studies (e.g. Al-Matari, et al., 2014,Byrd & Hickman, 1992; Chen et al., 2005; Drobetz et al., 2003; Gazor et al., 2013; Hossain et al., 2000; Ku Ismail & Abdul Karem, 2011; Jafari, 2013; Ping et al., 2006; Kujansivu & Lonnqvist, 2007; Mahoney & Roberts, 2002; Nazari & Herremans, 2007; Oliver & Porta, 2006; Rosenstein & Wyatt, 1990; Waddock & Graves, 1997; Yalama & Coskun, 2007) have used return on asset (ROA) and return on equity (ROE) as a measure of financial performance either alone or in addition to other measures in their studies of the influence of intellectual capital and corporate governance of firms Return on asset (ROA) is calculated by dividing net income by total assets whereas return on equity (ROE) is calculated by dividing net income by total equity.

According to resource dependency theory, larger boards are more likely to include more pool of expertise that will enhance board information processing capabilities. Board members will mitigate individual directors' deficiencies in business skills through collective decision making which in turn improves the quality of firm strategic decisions and actions (Abeysekera, 2010; Ruigrok et al., 2006). Several studies (John & Senbet, 1998; Sharma, 2011) have used effectiveness as a measure of corporate governance. In this study, the measurement of the SSBE is calculated using the score of education level (Shariah board Shaikh, Shariah board doctor, and Shariah board Shaikh doctor) of the Shariah board members.

Bank size, leverage and age are considered as control variables because financial performance of a bank may be affected directly or indirectly by them. Bank size is measured by natural logarithm of total assets (Al Matari et al., 2014; Khatab et al., 2011), Bank age is measured by the time of listing or the time of incorporation (Shumway, 2001), while leverage is measured by the ratio of ratio of total liabilities to total assets (Al Matari et al., 2014).

Regarding to above relationship between independence, mediator, control variables and dependence variable that the following models will be used:

 $CSR = \alpha 0 + a_1 (SSBE) + a_2 (HCE) + a_3 (CEE) + a_4 (SCE) + a_5 (Control Variables) + e$

 $\mathbf{F.P} = \alpha 0 + b_1 (SSBE) + b_2 (HCE) + b_3 (CEE) + b_4 (SCE) + b_5 (Control Variables) + e$

 $CSR = \alpha 0 + c_1 (F.P) + c_2 (Control Variables) + e$

 $\mathbf{CSR} = \alpha 0 + d_1 \text{ (SSBE)} + d_2 \text{ (HCE)} + d_3 \text{ (CEE)} + d_4 \text{ (SCE)} + d_5 \text{ (FP)} + d_6 \text{ (Control Variables)} + e$

Where:

α0-Constant

SSBE: Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness.

FP: Financial Performance.

CEE: Capital Employed Efficiency.

HCE: Human Capital Efficiency

SCE: Structure Capital Efficiency.

CSR: Corporate Social Responsibility.

e = allowed error.

5. Data Analysis and Results

Data is run through statistical package for social science (SPSS), Version 19 and (STATA), Version 12. Prior to hypotheses testing, some initial steps have to be completed to guarantee good and quality data. These steps also include data cleaning and screening (Sekaran, 2003).

This study uses balanced panel data because it a more sensitive measurement of the changes that could take place between points in time (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). The results produced are more robust, consistent, and more stable to make generalization about the population. This implies that the samples are more representative and the results are meaningful.

5.1 Descriptive Statistic

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the variables. The average of Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) is 0.670. Its minimum value is 0.333 and the maximum is one. The proportion of Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) is 5.578, with the minimum of -17.22 and maximum of 19.939. Frequency of Capital Employee Efficiency (CEE) conduct is about 0.0718. It has the minimum value of -0.418 and the maximum value of 0.667. The percentage Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE) estimated is given as 0.802. The minimum and maximum value of this efficiency is estimated to be -6.129, 13.158 respectively. For the performance measures, the minimum and maximum values of ROA are respectively estimated to be -0.452 and 0.423 while its average value is 0.0122. Another measure of performance, ROE has an average value of 0.059, with the minimum of -0.860 and maximum of 0.688. The mean value for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is estimated at 6.883 while its minimum and maximum values are 1.018 and 12.305 respectively. The maximum AGE of the banks is 44 years while its minimum value is one year. The mean of the age estimated is 16.022. The mean value for leverage (LV) is .49861. It has the minimum of .002 and the maximum of .940. The average of bank size is 6.870 with minimum of 2.079 and maximum of 9.71.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
variables	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
SSBE	0.333	1	0.67	0.22
HCE	-17.229	19.939	5.578	4.683
CEE	-0.418	0.667	0.071	0.083
SCE	-6.129	13.158	0.802	1.497
ROA	-0.452	0.423	0.012	0.096
ROE	-0.86	0.688	0.059	0.205
CSR	1.018	12.305	6.883	2.528
age	1	44	16.022	13.165
lv	.002	.940	.49861	.34257
size	2.079	9.71	6.87	1.392

Not: N = 180. SSBE is score of number shariah supervisory board (shikh, doctor, shikh doctor); HCE = dividing value added by human capital. It represents total expenditures on employees; CEE = dividing value added by capital employed. It represents the sum of physical and financial capital; SCE = difference between value added and human capital; ROA = the ratio of net income over total assets; ROE = the ratio of net income over equity book values; CSR= is log of sum of all the expenses of the bank used for the activities of social responsibility; age= numbers of years of bank; lv (leverage) = the ratio of total liabilities to total assets; size = natural logarithm of total assets.

5.2 Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis shows the direction, strength, and significance of the relationships among the variables of the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). A positive correlation indicates that as one variable increases, the other variables will also increase. On the other hand, a negative correlation indicates that as one variable increases the other variable decreases (Sekaran, 2003). From the results in Table 2, all correlations are less than 0.80 in general. Therefore, there is no issue of multicollinerity between independent variables (Gujarati & Porter's, 2009).

Table 2. Results of Pearson correlation analysis

	CSR	SSBE	HCE	CEE	SCE	age	lv	size	ROA	ROE
CSR	1									
SSBE	.346***	1								
HCE	.473***	.234***	1							
CEE	.372***	.083	.458***	1						
SCE	.220***	.021	.023	010	1					
age	054	.180**	.136	150**	.084	1				
lv	194***	.181**	016	178**	.049	.403***	1			
size	.419***	.345***	.156**	121	.124	.214***	.116	1		
ROA	.151**	.267***	356***	.416***	213***	.083	.056	066	1	
ROE	.212***	.346***	.350***	.219***	196***	.150**	.210***	.203***	.618***	1
ROE *					196	.150	.210	.203	.618	1

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

5.3 Multiple Liner Regression Analysis

In order to achieve the research objective: "to examine the corporate social responsibility through intellectual capital and shariah supervisory board effectiveness mediated by financial performance", a regression analysis was performed. Before performing the regression analysis, the data are first examined to detect whether there is any serious violations of the basic assumption underlying the regression analysis, namely linearity, normality and homosecdasticity (Hair et al., 2010). Another concern for the current study is to find out whether financial performance mediates the relationship between intellectual capital, shariah supervisor board effectiveness and corporate social responsibility. To address this concern, mediation conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) are followed in the current study.

We performed model specification for the models. For each model, we did tests such as whether our models should be pooled, random effects or fixed effects models by using Hausman test and Breusch and Pagan Lagrangian multiplier test. Further, we checked the assumptions such as heteroscedasticity. To decide whether our model is random or fixed, we should look to the result of Hausman. If the result of Hausman is significant, we must use fixed effects model and if not, use random effects model, in our result Hausman was significant.

The results shown in Table 3 under fixed model (Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness and (HCE, CEE, SCE) explain 56% of the variance of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), with the $R^2 = 0.5604$, (p = 0.000). The results also show that shariah supervisory board effectiveness have a positive significant effect on corporate social responsibility (with β = 2.612, and p< 0.01). From the results table, Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) is found not to influence Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (with the β = 0.0899, and the p> 0.1). The regression analysis result exhibits that the relationship between the Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) and the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are positively significant at 1% level (with the β = 5.535, and p< 0.01).

the regression analysis result exhibits that the relationship between the independent variable [Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE)] and the dependent variable [Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)] is positively significant at 1% level (β = 0.247, p< 0.01). Beta values are used to compare the contribution of each independent variable to the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007). Therefore, the largest beta coefficient is estimated at β = 5.535 for Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE). This is followed by the Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness, β = 2.612.

Table 3. Regression result of CSR with independent variables

Variable	Ex. sign	Beta	t-value	
SSBE	+	2.612	3.20***	
HCE	+	0.0899	1.50	
CEE	+	5.535	3.82*** 4.09***	
SCE	+	0.247	4.09***	
size		0.831	5.16***	
lv		1.528	2.42**	
age		-0.047	-0.57	

 $R^2 = 0.5604$ P-value = 0.000

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

The results in Table 4. under fixed model shown the relationship between the independent variables and financial performance (ROA) is significant (p = .000). In this study, the value of R^2 is 0.4692, which implies that 47% of the variance in Return on Assets (ROA) is explained by independent variables. The values of Beta are used to compare the contribution of each independent variable to the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007). The largest beta coefficient is (β = 0.350) for CEE. This is followed by SSBE (β = 0.248), and SCE (β = -0.0128).

The regression analysis result of financial performance (ROE), From the results, the overall relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is significant at 1% level (p = .000). In this study, the value of R^2 is 0.3298 implying that 33% of the variance in return on equity (ROE) is explained by independent variables. The largest beta coefficient is estimated at β = 0.463 for CEE and it is followed by SSBE, (β = 0.355).

Table 4. Regression result of FP (ROA, ROE) with independent variables

Depend Variable		ROA		ROE	
Independ Variable	Ex.Sign	Beta	t-value	Beta	t-value
SSBE	+	0.248	3.52***	0.355	2.33**
HCE	+	0.00330	0.81	0.00388	0.44
CEE	+	0.350	2.24**	0.463	1.71*
SCE	+	-0.0128	-2.25**	-0.0266	-1.72*
size		-0.00064	-0.04	0.88	-0.04
lv		-0.170	-1.50	-0.170	-1.50
age		-0.0074	-1.92*	-0.0074	-1.92 [*]
		$R^2 = 0.4692$		$R^2 = 0.3298$	
		p-value =0.000		p-value =0.000	

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

Table 5 shows the results of regression analysis of the influence of financial performance (ROA and ROE) on corporate social responsibility. In particular, it shows the result of the effect of ROA, ROE on corporate social responsibility.

From the results, ROA is estimated to be positively significant (p< 0.01 and β = 3.599) with the corporate social responsibility (CSR). In addition, the results indicate that R²= 0.3691, which implies that about 37 % of the variance in corporate social responsibility is significantly explained by return on assets (ROA). Banks with higher return on assets (ROA) are more likely to report high level of the corporate social responsibility.

The result of the effect of ROE on corporate social responsibility. From the results, ROE is estimated to be positively significant (β = 1.487, p< 0.05) in influencing corporate social responsibility. The results also indicate that R²= 0.3565, which implies that about 36 % of the variance in corporate social responsibility is explained significantly by return on assets (ROE). This implies that banks with higher return on assets (ROE) are more likely to report high level of the corporate social responsibility.

Table 5. Regression result of CSR with FP (ROA, ROE)

Depend Variable			CSR		
Independ Variable	Ex.Sign	Beta	t-value	Beta	t-value
ROA	+	3.599	2.81***		
ROE	+			1.487	2.20^{**}
Size		1.150	6.93***	1.137	7.25***
1v		2.550	4.05***	2.295	3.79***
age		-0.162	-1.65	-0.182	-1.93*
		$R^2 = 0.3691$		$R^2 = 0.3565$	
		p-value =0.000		P-value =0.0	00

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

5.4 Hierarchical Multiple Linear Regression Results

Hierarchical regression was performed to examine the mediating effect of financial performance (table 6 and 7). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the following conditions have to be met to determine the variable's mediating functions: (a) the independent variable should make a significant contribution to the dependent variable in the absence of mediator variable; (b) the independent variable should make a significant contribution to the mediator variable; (c) the mediator variable should make a significant contribution to the dependent variable. Full mediation holds when the independent variable is no longer related to the dependent variable after the mediator is included and the beta coefficient of regression is reduced to non-significant level. Partial mediation holds when the beta coefficient of the independent variable value is still statistically significant after the inclusion of the mediator (Newsom, 2012).

The results of regression analysis of the impact of SSBE on CSR indicated that SSBE significantly affects CSR (β = 2.612, p < 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The second equation was carried out to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator variable. This result shown that SSBE has significant impact on ROA. Therefore, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediating variable on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROA significantly affects CSR (β = 3.599, p< 0.01). This also suggests that the third criterion is met. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions of mediation test are achieved, therefore, ROA does act as mediating variable in the relationship between (SSBE) and (CSR).

The results of regression analysis shows that HCE is not significantly in influencing CSR (β = 0.0899, p > 0.10). Therefore, the first condition of mediation was not met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator variable as shown that HCE has no significant impact on ROA, thus, the second condition of mediation is not met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediating variable on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROA significantly affects CSR (β = 3.599, p< 0.01).In sum, the regression result reveals that the first and second conditions are not achieved but the third conditions of mediation test are achieved, that is mean ROA does not act as mediating variable in the relationship between HCE and CSR.

Results of regression analysis shows that CEE significantly affects CSR (β = 5.535, p < 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediating variable. It is found that CEE has significant impact on ROA, thus, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediator on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROA (β = 3.599, p< 0.01) significantly affects CSR. This meets the third criterion as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) for mediation analysis. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions are achieved, that is mean ROA does act as mediator in the relationship between CEE and CSR.

Results of regression analysis show that SCE significantly affects CSR (β = 0.247, p < 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator as shown that SCE has significant impact on ROA, thus, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediator on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROA (β = 3.599, p< 0.01) significantly affects CSR. This meets the third criterion as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) for mediation analysis. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions are achieved, that is mean ROA does act as mediator in the relationship between SCE and CSR.

Table 6. Mediating effect of (ROA)

Depend	Independ	St	ep 1	S	tep 2	S	Step 3	Type of
variable	variable	R^2	Beta	\mathbb{R}^2	Beta	R^2	Beta	effect
	SSBE		0.248***		2.612***		2.322**	P
CSR	HCE	0.4692	0.0033	0.5604	0.0899	0.563	0.086	-
	CEE		0.350^{**}		5.535***		5.125***	P
	SCE		-0.012**		0.247***		0.262***	p

Mediator: ROA

Step 1: Refers to the regression of independent variable with mediating variable.

Step 2: Refers to the regression of independent variable with dependent variable.

Step 3: Refers to the regression of independent variable with dependent variable by mediator variable.

(P) Refers to partial mediating effect.

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

Furthermore, R-Square increased from 0.5604 in step 2 to 0.5630 in step 3, while beta value for SSBE reduced from 2.612 in step 2 to 2.322 in step 3. This implies that ROA partially mediates the relationship between SSBE and CSR. The beta value of CEE decreases from 5.535 in step 2 to 5.125 in step 3. This also implies that ROA partially mediates the relationship between CEE and CSR. Consider the beta value of SCE. It increases from 0.247 in step 2 to 0.262 in step 3 and still significant. This means that ROA partially mediates the relationship between SCE and CSR.

To examine the mediating effect of financial performance (ROE), the regression analysis was carried out. Baron and Kenny's (1986) conditions should be met to establish the mediating effect of financial performance (ROE) on the relationship between SSBE and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The first regression equation is performed to test the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable, results of regression analysis indicates that SSBE significantly affects CSR (β = 2.612, p< 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator variable found that SSBE has significant impact on ROE, thus, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediating variable on the dependent variable shows that ROE (β = 1.487, p< 0.05) significantly affects CSR. This meets the third criterion. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions of mediation test are achieved. Therefore, thus, ROE does act as mediating variable in the relationship between SSBE and CSR.

To examine the mediating effect of financial performance (ROE), the regression analysis was carried out.

Results of regression analysis shows that HCE does not significantly affect CSR (β = 0.0899, p> 0.10). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is not met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediating variable, it is found that HCE has no significant impact on ROE, thus, the second condition of mediation is not met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediator on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result (β = 1.487, p< 0.05) shows that ROE significantly affects CSR. This meets the third criterion. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first and second conditions were not achieved but the third conditions of mediation test is achieved. Therefore, ROE does not act as mediator in the relationship between HCE and CSR.

To examine the mediating effect of financial performance (ROE), the regression analysis was carried out. The first regression equation was performed to test the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

Results of regression analysis shows that CEE significantly influences CSR (β = 5.535, p < 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The results of second equation estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator. It is found that CEE has significant impact on ROE, thus, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediator on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROE (β = 1.487, p< 0.05) significantly influences CSR which meets the third criteria. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions are achieved. Thus, ROE does act as a mediator in the relationship between CEE and CSR.

Results of regression analysis indicate that SCE significantly affects CSR (β = 0.24, p < 0.01). Therefore, the first condition of mediation is met. The second equation is estimated to test the impact of the independent variables on the mediator and the result found that SCE has significant impact on ROE, thus, the second condition of mediation is met. The third condition of mediation is to explain the impact of the mediating variable on the dependent variable. The regression analysis result shows that ROE (β = 1.487, p <0.05) significantly affects CSR which implies that the third criterion. In sum, the regression result reveals that the first, second and third conditions are achieved. Thus, ROE does act as mediating variable in the relationship between SCE and CSR.

Depend	Independ	St	ep 1	S	tep 2	S	tep 3	Type of
variable	variable	\mathbb{R}^2	Beta	R^2	Beta	R^2	Beta	effect
	SSBE		0.355**		2.612***		2.300**	P
CSR	HCE	0.3298	0.00388	0.5604	0.0899	0.5671	0.0865	-
	CEE		0.463^{*}		5.535***		5.128***	P
	SCE		-0.026*		0.240***		0.270***	P

Mediator: ROE

Step 1: Refers to the regression of independent variable with mediating variable.

Step 2: Refers to the regression of independent variable with dependent variable.

Step 3: Refers to the regression of independent variable with dependent variable by mediator variable.

(P) Refers to partial mediating effect.

Note: p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01

Furthermore, R-Square increased from 0.5604 in step 2 to 0.5671 in step 3, while beta value for SSBE decreases from 2.612 in step 2 to 2.300 in step 3. This implies that ROE partially mediates the relationship between SSBE and CSR. The beta value for CEE decreases from 5.535 in step 2 to 5.128 in step 3. This means that ROE partially mediates the relationship between CEE and CSR. The beta value for SCE is still significant and increases from 0.24 in step 2 to .270 in step 3. This means that ROE partial mediates the relationship between SCE and CSR.

6. Discussion of Results

The first objective of the current study is to determine the impact of Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE), on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The results, indicates the positive impact of Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). This means that Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) affects the responsibility of Islamic banks in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) to the community. It can intervene and stimulate banks to become more socially responsible towards the stakeholders in the community. Therefore, Islamic banks, as financial intermediaries are in a unique position in the society to encourage activities within it and among its clients and customers. This is because they are capable of directing funds from depositors and customers and allocating them to purposes that require them the most. This type of opportunity, that is, specialization in intermediation is confined to Islamic banks which enable it to open specific qardhasan accounts through which deposits are received and then be transferred to clients who are in need. For instance, the clients who need may be those who are not able to fulfil their bank

dues or newly married couples who are in no position to purchase household items or even students who do not have the means to get an education. These banks pay bonuses and benefits to its employees to ensure their consistent career in the bank.

Also Islamic banks SSB directs banks toward establishing different types of waqf and they can play a key role in guiding revenues from wqaf and in its distribution to specific charitable causes. As financial intermediaries, the SSB of these banks seeks to be in a suitable position to seek charitable fund within and from outside to its infrastructure. Islamic banks are capable of creating charity accounts and fund raising campaigns for charity with minimal financial outlay from their customers and clients. This will enable Islamic banks to use their present capacity to help deserving individuals in the society. Also, they offer advice to these banks to promote their capacity to sustain the policies and practices concerning energy and water conservation, environmental product responsibility, ecological and economic utilization of natural resources, environmentally friendly packaging, recycling, and use of recycled materials, waste reduction practices, and protection of natural resources.

With regard to the relationship between Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), the findings showed that Human Capital Efficiency (HCE) does not influence Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). It is indicated in the study that knowledge, skills and competence of human capital do not influence CSR. Thus, it shows that the skills and knowledge of human capital builds a competitive advantage for Islamic banking system and fail to impact social activities. In accordance with this, researchers (Malik, Malik, & Mustafa, 2011) draw a conclusion that one of the major issues in the Islamic banks is the deficiency of experts or Islamic finance professionals who possess the knowledge of financial transactions and Shariah as well. Skilled and expert human capital is one of the main components of intellectual capital that leads the operations of the bank towards accomplish the goals of Islamic banks in serving the community by fulfilling its social responsibility.

Regression analysis is used to study the relationship lies among Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The findings explain that Capital Employed Efficiency (CEE) affects the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Regression analysis further describes that the banks that are more efficient in applying its tangible assets (CEE) show a better (CSR). CEE depict the amount of value that is added in the physical and financial assets. Specially, the findings from regression illustrate that banks having the ability and efficiency to develop value from physical and financial assets, conduct greater CSR, This is consistent with the research by (Musibah, & Alfattani, 2013).

Regression analysis is adopted to evaluate the relation among Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Results show that Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE) affects Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). It explains that efficiency of structural capital is the knowledge that a bank keeps within at the end of a working day. It consists of the organizational routines, procedures, systems, cultures, databases, etc. It can be said that it boosts the activities provided by Islamic banks to its customers in GCC.

The results of the regression analysis done on the relationship between Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) and financial performance (ROA, ROE) indicate a positive impact. This means that Shariah Supervisory Board Effectiveness (SSBE) affects the Performance of Islamic banks in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). The present study finds that the SSBE matter to bank performance to a particular extent. In terms of the educational attainment of SSB members, it is found that postgraduate degrees and religious grades have significant effects on profitability.

Also, the result indicates no relationship between Human Capital Efficiency (HCE), and financial performance (ROA, ROE) of Islamic banks in Gulf Cooperation Countries (GCC). This result concurs with the results obtained by Al-Shubiri (2011). The main reason behind this is that many banks are operating with minimal staff and relying on technology, and these banks also have few branches and believe in delivering specialized services. These banks depend on capital employee to generate profit. Thus, it is assumed that banks perceive IC, especially human capital to be very important a factor than physical capital (Latif, Malik, & Aslam, 2012).

As part of the study objectives, the relationship between Capital Employee Efficiency (CEE) and financial performance (ROA, ROE) is examined. Which states that Capital Employee Efficiency (CEE) has positive impact on financial performance (ROA, ROE). This means that these banks use the entire physical and material assets to create profitability (ROA and ROE). The findings of this study also support those obtained in the previous studies (e.g. Abdullah & Sofian, 2012; Ahmad, Sharabati, et al, 2013; Martín-de Castro & Delgado-Verde, 2012; Díez et al., 2010, Deep & Narwal, 2014).

Results indicate negative relationship between Structure Capital Efficiency (SCE), and financial performance (ROA, ROE). This finding is in line with those obtained by Zeghal and Maaloul (2010). Structural capital

includes information systems, knowledge encoded in the form of databases, processes and organizational procedures trademarks, and patents. The result does not support the application of the bank strategies to maximize profitability because Islamic banks in the Gulf focus on the use of capital employee to create profitability as evidenced by the positive impact ($\beta = 0.350$, p < 0.05), ($\beta = 0.463$, p < 0.10) on financial performance (ROA and ROE). These banks spend large sums of money on human capital for training and rehabilitation depending on the specificity of their work. It also requires precise deals to avoid the mistakes of legitimacy, attempts to rehabilitate to be familiar and be expert in all types of financial transactions like conventional. It facilitates their keeping abreast with the changes in the world. The fact that many of the Islamic banks were established in recent years made them incur a large expense for the rehabilitation of human staff during the early years of incorporation. This result, indicating no direct impact on profitability may be because the benefits of training programs on the human element requires a long time. This however, depends on the privacy of dealing with financial issues and legitimacy that require precision and caution, as mentioned. The result ($\beta = 0.00330$, p > 0.10), ($\beta = 0.00388$, p > 0.10) indicates no relationship between human capital efficiency (HCE) and financial performance (ROA, ROE).

The result reveals that ROA, ROE has a strong significant and positive effect on corporate social responsibility. Banks acquire social legitimacy and maximize their financial strength in the long term through the implementation of CSR (Kiroyan, 2006). The activities of CSR is used to attract sympathy from societies by building a positive image that aims at increasing profits but Islamic banks are based on the goal of Islamic philosophy of providing service to the community according to the principles of Shariah.

This evidences that the determinants of company sustainability does not only depend on shareholders, but also depends on their stakeholders. In a research conducted by Abdul Hasyir, D (2003), it is argued that the companies' high profits tend to display higher level of social responsibility while those with low profits display lower social responsibility (Eriana, Dud, & Novan, 2011). Our result is similar to those of other studies (i.e. Freeman 1984; Donaldson & Preston, 1995) who suggest that Corporate Social (CS) is positively associated with financial performance. In addition, Moskowitz (1972) finds a positive relationship between socially responsible business practices and financial performance.

One of the main objectives of this study is to examine the mediating effect of financial performance on the relationship between SSBE, IC and CSR. The results of this study indicate that SSBE influences the financial performance (ROA, ROE) and also has a significant effect on CSR. Moreover, CEE and SCE are found to have a significant impact on CSR, while HCE has no significant influence on CSR.

Based on these results, the conditions of mediation suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) are not met. Therefore, financial performance (ROA, ROE) does not play a mediating role in the relationship between HCE and CSR in Islamic banks in GCC. The findings show reveal that the influence of SSBE plays a role to increase CSR. It is explained that better SSBs who possess the necessary knowledge and are expert in the areas of Islamic jurisprudence (Usul al-Fiqh), Islamic transaction/commercial law (Fiqh Al Muamalat), financial or accounting knowledge and possess an in-depth information on shariah produce higher financial performance and hence higher corporate social responsibility. As explained by Briston and El-Ashker (1986), SSBE plays a role as a control mechanism to monitor the Islamic banks activities and operations for the purpose of Shariah compliance including assuring zakah obligation - one of main activities that the Islamic banks provide to the society.

At this point, it is suggested that the Shariah board should set up accounting policies to assure that the formula used in allocating profit between shareholders and account holders is fair and that all revenues are generated from lawful transactions to ensure that zakah funds are properly calculated to influence the Islamic banks to perform their social responsibilities towards the benefits of the community and other stakeholders (Abdallah, 1994). A prominent Shariah advisor describes the functions of the Shariah board in Islamic banks to include assisting Islamic banks in the product precertification stage, such as product development and structuring, certifying products by means of fatwa, and ensuring Shariah compliance throughout the financial product's life cycle (Delorenzo, 2007). These functions will maximize profitability and lead to increased social participation.

On the other hand, the insignificant mediating effect of financial performance (ROA, ROE) on the relationship between HCE and CSR may be explained by several probable reasons. Despite the good news for the Islamic finance sector that an increasing flow of this liquidity is finding a home in the Shariah-compliant financial services sector, this sharp growth has not been met with developing the required human capital base. That is why there is a huge turnover of staff at Islamic banks. Staff is still largely recruited from the conventional sector.

The more important problem is that the flow of the new generation of Islamic bankers with a proper training in Figh Al-Muamalat (Islamic law relating to financial transactions) is at best very limited. Universities in some

Muslim countries have neglected in general, courses and expertise in economics, accountancy, finance and banking, especially based on Islamic principles (Mushtak & Parker, 2007). These banks also lack expert and Islamic finance professionals who have the knowledge of both finance and religion (i.e. skilled and expert human capital) (Latif et al., 2012). This is one of the main components of intellectual capital that directs the bank operations towards achieving the goals of Islamic banks in their community service through social responsibility.

The result supports our prediction that impact of CEE on CSR through financial performance (ROA, ROE) is lesser than its direct impact, It appears from the results obtained that direct influence of CEE on CSR is greater than indirect impact of CEE on CSR through financial performance (ROA, ROE) as banks that are more efficient in utilizing its tangible assets (CEE) appear to have better CSR. CEE describes the amount of value that is added to the physical and financial assets. Regression results show that banks obtain capacity and efficiency to create value from physical and financial assets and this increases their amount of CSR. Owing to the short life of these banks, newness of incorporation (Nathan & Ribière, 2007) and transformation of a number of conventional banks to Islamic banking, they use physical assets to create a good picture of themselves in the community through social responsibility towards a large number of customers, especially in the early years of their establishment.

The impact of SCE, financial performance (ROA, ROE) on CSR is significant and beta value is more than beta value estimated in step 2, indicating that financial performance (ROA, ROE) partially mediates the relationship between SCE and CSR. Furthermore, when we compare $(R^2 = 0.560)$ in the step 2 with that of step 3, R^2 increases to $(R^2 = 0.563)$, $(R^2 = 0.567)$. This indicates the mediation effect of financial performance (ROA, ROE) on SCE and CSR. Improvement in R^2 is noted when mediator is added. This shows that the efficiency of structural capital (SCE) is the knowledge that stays within the bank at the end of the working day. It comprises the organizational routines, procedures, systems, cultures, databases, etc. Financial performance plays a role in enhancing the activities offered by Islamic banks to the community but banks focusing on the capacity and efficiency to create value from physical and financial assets carry out more CSR due to their short life and newness of incorporation. The transformation of a number of conventional banks to Islamic banking has led to the use of physical assets towards creating a good reputation in the community via good CSR. Based on the research results, this study contributes by providing several practical implications that may be of utmost importance to practitioners, particularly for management in Islamic banking industry in GCC.

7. Contributions of Study

The GCC countries on the whole display a mature, efficient, stable and profit wise better banking system. Mostly, in these countries, the banking sector ranks second in the top contributors to the countries' GDP after the oil and gas sector (Al-Obaidan, 2008). Though, by adopting proper economic and financial policies for banking sector efficiency is the major aim of the GCC countries to make their current economy into global financial and trade centers (Al-Obaidan, 2008). As one of basic elements of IC as a resource in the success of banking (Kamath, 2007; Goh, 2005), GCC banks should utilize IC (internal and external) as by doing so, they would be well prepared to face the challenges come their way because of globalization, tough competition, hurdles for foreign bank entry and the customer needs and expectations of sophisticated and innovative products and services (Al-Obaidan, 2008).

Islamic banking system is an Islamic way of financing where people invest their capital and skill which are in line with the Islamic Shariah. Thus, sharing and transforming of knowledge is essential for Knowledge Management. Islamic banking not merely transfers true knowledge of Islamic modes of financing but is a way to boost customer perception and satisfaction. Shariah board practices may help in enhancing corporate social responsibility to show their compliance with Shariah (Baydoun & Willett, 1997). Regarding the findings of current study, the effectiveness of Shariah board education level has directly influence corporate social responsibility- this can be taken as an example of practical implication for Shariah board.

The foundation of Islamic Shariah board is based on the stakeholder oriented approach, whereas its governance style tries to protect the rights and interests of all stakeholders and raise the shareholders' profit to a great extent. SSB follow to establish the Islamization of financial transactions. SSB is the scheme that leads and controls to guarantee Shariah compliance. The SSB comprises of Shariah advisers hired by the Islamic banks. The SSB is an independent body assigned the duty of directing, reviewing, and supervising the activities of the Islamic banks. Basically, SSB assure that Islamic banks are working in line with the rules defined by Shariah. Essentially, the SSB works with management to confirm if the financial product or service offered comply with the principles and rules given by Shariah. Moreover, confirmation of transparency in the Shariah process is done by SSB which also take care if the customers consider the product or service to be Shariah-compliant. This board is associated

with the internal governance structure of the institution and works as an internal control body in the organization. Though, this increase the credibility of the institutions in the eyes of its customers and shareholder, and reinforcing their Islamic credentials (Rammal, 2006). The SSB is important for two reasons. Firstly, the customers of Islamic bank want to confirm that their money matters comply with Islamic law. Secondly, the Islamic moral code will motivate Muslims to behave ethically. Human capital efficiency minimizes to corporate social responsibility as determined by this study as knowledge, skills and competence of human capital are found to have no direct and indirect impact on CSR.

Islamic banks do not have sufficient number of experts and Islamic finance professionals who have got the knowledge of both finance and religion i.e. skilled and expert human capital. Though, this is one of the major components of intellectual capital that directs the operations of the bank towards realizing the predetermined goals of Islamic banks in serving the community through social responsibility. Thus, managers can believe on allocating more resource towards employee training.

Current study tries to inspect the performance of HC resources to increase overall business efficiency by diverting scarce resources in the value creating direction and make awareness about IC and its role to maintain enough competitive advantage which results into profitability in a competitive environment in the WTO era of knowledge economy. By keeping in view the significant role of IC in financial performance, the banks could provide more community activities. In a global environment, if information related to IC, health, safety, environment and corporate social responsibility issues is high in the annual reports, the value of the bank may become better according to investors and stakeholders.

This literature also provides insights into various stakeholders, like scholars, shareholders, policy makers, institutional investigators and other related stakeholders. As identified before, one of the major issues these days is the lack of Islamic finance experts who possess the knowledge of finance and religion (i.e. human capital) on the same time, that is also one of the main components of intellectual capital. This research tries to determine the importance of human capital in increasing value creation and business efficiency.

As GCC is opening its stock markets for foreign investors, who always need financial and non-financial information to assist their investment decisions, this research offers proofs of the significance of reporting CEE and its efficiency in annual reports of Islamic banks. This will help in assessing the portfolio of existing and potential investors and, benchmarking within industry would also be possible. As the information regarding CEE efficiency are accessible, potential investors can easily estimate the risk related with their investment. Therefore, it is considered that human capital is more important factor than physical capital (CEE) for banks (Mavridis, 2004; Mavridis & Kyrmizoglou, 2005; Latif et al., 2012). This is not unexpected because banking sector is a service sector where its customer services depends mainly on human capital. Alternatively, this study describes that structure capital efficiency such as organizational routines, procedures, systems, cultures, databases, etc have negative influence on corporate social responsibility in GCC Islamic banks. Though, that efficiency of structural capital as the knowledge that stays within the bank at the end of the working day plays a role in enhancing the activities offered by Islamic banks to the community and this negatively affect the performance.

Islamic Bank's management and policy makers in GCC should pay more attention to intellectual capital which has been empirically proven to have no significant correlation with profitability. They should appreciate the theory of Prof. Pulic who claims that employee expenses should not be considered as real cost but a long term investment to maintain and enhance the human resources. They should concentrate on the investment in information technology, management information system, researches and development. Every bank should invest on employees by way of training them, providing them with latest technology and good working environment and assessing the return from that investment. They should publish the business value added and highlight the efficiency of their human and structural capital similar to the traditional financial measurements. Investors should not ignore the intellectual capital, which has been empirically confirmed to have an unstable relationship with profitability. They should request the relevant data from banks in order to investigate the efficiency of the intellectual capital in addition to their analysis via the traditional financial measurements. The investors' decision should be based on the firm's ability to add value to stakeholders, taking into consideration a combination of physical and intellectual resources efficiency.

The present findings also show that financial performance mediates SSBE, and CSR relationship, suggesting that the more effective the SSB is in Islamic banks, the greater will be the financial performance and social Activity level. High level of SSB educational characteristics is associated with increased profitability, which leads to increased corporate social responsibility. Moreover, management in Islamic banks planning for high performance practices will have to select shariah supervisory board members who possess high level of religious

and academic specialization to provide a high level of social activity and to achieve the most important goals of Islamic banks in the welfare of society.

Furthermore, management of Islamic banks should also pay more attention to capital employees and structure capital as it has a substantial impact on financial performance and CSR. However, this does not mean that the other components (human capital) of IC can be ignored. Therefore, in Islamic Banks, when designing IC, focus should be given to developing a more enriching and fulfilling human capital with high levels of training and choosing a well-qualified staff in Islamic financial transactions.

8. Limitation of the Study

Based on the results and discussion of this study, several limitations are identified.

First, the population in this study concentrates only on Islamic banks in GCC, characterized by running on full Islamic operation and overlooked those banks with Islamic windows. The limited population might restrict the generalization of research results to other industries. Second, while the GCC data provides richer understanding to this research, care should be taken in generalizing the results to other countries because of different regulations, practices, and economic factors. Third, this study utilizes the panel data approach, which is powerful in analyzing longitudinal data. However, it can be argued that common method variance may have influenced the results we found. Multiple sources of data collection are preferable to avoid the effect of common-method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Fourth, the study excluded Oman as one of the case countries in the GCC region because there were no Islamic banks in Oman until the first Islamic bank was opened on 10th of January 2013. Fifth, variables examined in this study are limited to SSBE, IC, financial performance and CSR. It could not possibly cover all potential aspects and prerequisites that might influence CSR. Hence, other situational factors beyond the scope of this study which affects CSR in Islamic banks should be given considerable attention. These factors include demographic factors, organizational structure, organizational culture, and other characteristics of SSB. These factors or predictors could also be of great value in explaining CSR in Islamic banks sector. Sixth, this study uses two measures for performance (ROA, ROE), while other measures of performance such as return on investment (ROI), return on sales (ROS), and return on debt (ROD) are overlooked. Finally, the scope of this study is limited to intellectual capital and Shariah board effectiveness of Islamic banks offering Islamic financial products and services in GCC countries for 5 years from 2007-2011.

9. Future Research Directions

To overcome the limitations of this study, several recommendations to future researches are provided based on research results and discussion.

First, the study sample could be extended to large population to provide evidence of generalizability. Future research should incorporate larger sample to include other Islamic service industries such as Islamic insurance companies, Islamic real estate firms. Different results might be obtained if the study focused on SSB and IC in different industries that might have different work culture, management systems and polices, which affect performance and CSR. Second, given the limitation of generalizing the results to other countries, the findings and policy implications of this study can be extended to other economies having similar ownership characteristics. Third, instead of focusing on a single source to collecting the data, future studies should consider employing multiple sources to avoid the effect of common-method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Fourth, the future studies can include Oman as one of the case countries in the GCC region, because of the presence of Islamic banks in the country from 2013, and this aspect can change the results of research in the future for the better. Fifth, the MAZHAB may play a significant role in the SSB culture. Since Islam has main four different MAZAAHIB (Hanafi, Hanbali, Maliki and Shafi'i), which interpret the (Quran) and Sunnah differently, future studies can take this into account. Sixth, the result found that HCE did not influence performance and CSR indicating that future research can explain the inability of HCE to affect performance and CSR in certain contexts. Finally, this study investigates the mediating effect of financial performance in the relationship between HCE and CSR and fails to provide empirical evidence in support of this. Since not many researches have investigated the mediating role of financial performance, this study offers some empirical insight into this issue and future research are recommended to consider other mediating variables to explain CSR.

References

Abdallah, A. A. (1994). The role of shari_ah supervisory board in setting accounting policies in Islamic banks. in development of an accounting system for Islamic banks. *Selected readings*. London: Institute of Islamic Banking and Insurance.

- Abdullah, D. F., & Sofian, S. (2012). The relationship between intellectual capital and corporate performance. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 40, 537-541. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.03.227
- Abeysekera, I. (2010). The influence of board size on intellectual capital disclosure by Kenyan listed firms. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 11(4), 504-518. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691931011085650
- Abomouamer, F. M. (1989). An analysis of the role and function of Shari'ah control in Islamic banks (PhD dissertation). University of Wales, Aberystwyth.
- Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S Back in Corporate Social Responsibility: A Multilevel Theory of Social Change in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(3), 836-863. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.25275678
- Ahmad Sharabati, A. -A., Ibrahim Nour, A. -N., & Sajid Shamari, N. (2013). The Impact of Intellectual Capital on Jordanian Telecommunication Companies' Business Performance. *American Academic & Scholarly Research Journal (AASRJ)*, 5(3). http://dx.doi.org/10.11634/216796061302370
- Al-Matari, E. M., Al Swidi, A. K., & Fadzil, F. H. B. (2014). The Moderating Effect of Board Diversity on the Relationship between Executive Committee Characteristics and Firm Performance in Oman: Empirical Study. *Asian Social Science*, 10(12), 6-20. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n12p6
- Al-Muharrami, S., & Matthews, K. (2009). Market power versus efficient-structure in Arab GCC banking. *Applied Financial Economics*, *19*(18), 1487-1496. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09603100902845478.
- Al-Obaidan, A. M. (2008). Market structure concentration and performance in the commercial banking industry of emerging markets. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 12, 104-115
- Appuhami, B. R. (2007). The impact of intellectual capital on investors' capital gains on shares: An empirical investigation of Thai banking, finance and insurance sector. *International Management Review*, 3(2), 14-25.
- AL-Shubiri, F. N. (2011). Testing the Relationship between the Effi ciency of Value Added Intellectual Coeffi cient and Corporate Performance at Commercial Banks in Amman Stock Exchange (ASE). *Zagreb International Review of Economics and Business*, 14(1), 1-22
- Armstrong, & Onge, H. S. (2004). The conductive organization building beyond sustainability, In Nestian, A.2007. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann
- Balabanis, G., Phillips, H. C., & Lyall, J. (1998). Corporate social responsibility and economic performance in the top British companies: Are they linked? *European Business Review*, 98(1), 25-44. http://dx.doi.org/10. 1108/09555349810195529
- Barnett, M. L. (2007). Stakeholder Influence Capacity and the Variability of Financial Returns to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(3), 794-816. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.25275520
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700108
- Bansal, P. (2005). Evolving sustainably: A longitudinal study of corporate sustainable development. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26(3), 197-218. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.44.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173
- Baydoun, N., & Willett, R. (1997). Islam and accounting: Ethical issues in the presentation of financial information. *Accounting, commerce & finance: The Islamic Perspective Journal, 1*(1), 1-25
- Beltratti, A. (2005). The Complementarity between Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility. *Geneva Pap R I-Iss P, 30*(3), 373-386. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.gpp.2510035
- Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing Better at Doing Good: When, Why, and How Consumers Respond To Corporate Social Initiatives. *California Management Review*, 47(1), 9-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41166284.
- Bozbura, F. T. (2004). Measurement and application of intellectual capital in Turkey. *The Learning Organization*, 11(4/5), 357-367. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09696470410538251
- Branco, M. C., & Rodrigues, L. L. (2006). Corporate Social Responsibility and Resource-Based Perspectives. *J Bus Ethics*, 69(2), 111-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9071-z

- Brickley, J. A., Coles, J. L., & Terry, R. L. (1994). Outside directors and the adoption of poison pills. Journal of Financial Economics, 35(3), 371-390. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-405x(94)90038-8
- Briston, R., & El-Ashker, A. (1986). Religious audit: Could it happen here? Accountancy, October, 113-127.
- Byrd, J. W., & Hickman, K. A. (1992). Do outside directors monitor managers? *Journal of Financial Economics*, 32(2), 195-221. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-405x(92)90018-s
- Castilla Polo, F., & Gallardo Vázquez, D. (2008). Social information within the intellectual capital report. *Journal of International Management, 14*(4), 353-363. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.intman.2007.09.007
- Cavana, R., Delahaye, B. L., & Sekeran, U. (2000). *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods*. John Wiley & Sons Australia.
- Cavana, R., Delahaye, B. L., & Sekeran, U. (2001). *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative Methods*. John Wiley & Sons Australia.
- Chen, M. -C., Cheng, S. -J., & Hwang, Y. (2005). An empirical investigation of the relationship between intellectual capital and firms' market value and financial performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 6(2), 159-176. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930510592771
- Choudury, M. A., & Hoque, M. Z. (2004). An advanced exposition of Islamic economics and finance. Edward Mellen Press.
- Choudhury, M. A., & Hoque, M. Z. (2006). Corporate governance in Islamic perspective. *Corporate Governance*, 6(2), 116-128. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14720700610655132
- Cordazzo, M. (2005). IC statement vs environmental and social reports: An empirical analysis of their convergences in the Italian context. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 6(3), 441-464. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930510611166
- Cuganesan, S. (2006). Reporting organisational performance in managing human resources: Intellectual capital or stakeholder perspectives? *Journal of Human Resource Costing & Accounting*, 10(3), 164-188. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14013380610718629
- Dede, A. H. (2003). Pengungkapan Informasi Pertanggung Jawaban Sosial Pada Laporan Tahunan Perusahaan Perusahaan Publik di Bursa Efek Jakarta. *Jurnal Akuntansi dan Keuangan Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Padjadjaran*.
- Deep, R., & Pal Narwal, K. (2014). Intellectual Capital and its Association with Financial Performance: A Study of Indian Textile Sector. *International Journal of Management and Business Research*, 4(1), 43-54.
- Díez, J. M., Ochoa, M. L., Prieto, M. B., & Santidrián, A. (2010). Intellectual capital and value creation in Spanish firms. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 11(3), 348-367. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/1469193101106 4581
- Delorenzo, Y. T. (2007). Shari ah compliance risk. Chicago. Journal of International Law, 7(2), 397-408
- DeLorenzo, Y. T. (2010). Shariah supervision in modern Islamic finance.
- Dess, G. G., Lumpkin G. T., & Eisner, A. B. (2008). Strategic management: Text and cases (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin
- Donaldson, T., & Preston, L. E. (1995). The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation: Concepts, Evidence, And Implications. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(1), 65-91. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.1995.9503 27199.
- Drobetz, W., Schillhofer, A., & Zimmermann, H. (2003). Corporate Governance and Expected Stock Returns: Evidence from Germany. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.379102
- Dunlop, A. (1998). Corporate Governance and Control. London, CIMA Publishing.
- Edvinsson, L., & Sullivan, P. (1996). Developing a model for managing intellectual capital. *European management journal*, 14(4), 356-364. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0263-2373(96)00022-9
- Edvinsson, L., & Malone, M. S. (1997). *Intellectual capital: Realizing your company's true value by finding its hidden brainpower.* Harper business, New York
- Eriana. K., Dud. A., & Novan, B. (2011). *The relationship of profit and corporate social responsibility disclosure* (Survey on manufacture industry in Indonesia). 2nd International Conference On Business And Economic Research (2nd ICBER 2011) Proceeding.

- Edward, R. (1986). Freeman: Strategic Management. A Stakeholder Approach 1984, Boston: Pitman. *Organization Studies*, 7(3), 302-305. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/017084068600700309.
- Frey, M., Melis, M., & Vagnoni, E. (2008). Recent developments in social and environmental reporting among Italian Universities: A critical evaluation of leading edge practices. In 2nd Italian Conference on Social and Environmental Accounting (pp. 17-19).
- Gazor, H., Kohkan, F., Kiarazm, A., & Rastegari, H. (2013). Impact of Intellectual Capital on Performance in Audit Institutes. *Asian Journal of Finance & Accounting*, 5(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ajfa.v5i1.2682
- Gemmill, G., & Thomas, D. C. (2004). Does Governance Affect the Performance of Closed-End Funds? SSRN Electronic Journal. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.493282
- Goh, P. C. (2005). Intellectual capital performance of commercial banks in Malaysia. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, *6*(3), 385-396. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930510611120
- Gujarati, D. N., & Porter, D. (2009). Basic Econometrics Mc Graw-Hill International Edition.
- Guthrie, J., & Petty, R. (2000). Intellectual capital: Australian annual reporting practices. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, *1*(3), 241-251. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930010350800
- Grais, W., & Pellegrini, M. (2006). Corporate Governance In Institutions Offering Islamic Financial Services: Issues And Options. *Policy Research Working Papers*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1596/1813-9450-4052
- Gray, R. (2010). Is accounting for sustainability actually accounting for sustainability...and how would we know? An exploration of narratives of organisations and the planet. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 35*(1), 47-62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.aos.2009.04.006
- Grosser, K., & Moon, J. (2005). Gender Mainstreaming and Corporate Social Responsibility: Reporting Workplace Issues. *J Bus Ethics*, 62(4), 327-340. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-005-5334-3.
- Gompers, P., Ishii, J., & Metrick, A. (2003). Corporate Governance and Equity Prices. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 118(1), 107-156. http://dx.doi.org/10.1162/00335530360535162
- Hair, J. F. J., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Balck, W. C. (2010). *Multivaraite data analysis* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Hasan, A. (2009). How Shariah boards add value.
- Hasan, Z. B. (2011). A Survey on Shari'ah Governance Practices in Malaysia, GCCCountries and the UK. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle EasternFinance and Management, 4*(1), 30-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17538391111122195.
- Hancock, J. (2005). *Investing in corporate social responsibility: A guide to best practice, business planning & the UK's leading companies.* Kogan Page Limited
- Ho, C. -K. (2005). Corporate Governance and Corporate Competitiveness: An international analysis. *Corporate Governance*, 13(2), 211-253. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8683.2005.00419.x
- Hillman, A. J., & Keim, G. D. (2001). Shareholder value, stakeholder management, and social issues: What's the bottom line?. *Strategic management Journal*, 22(2), 125-139. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/1097-0266(200101) 22:2<125::AID-SMJ150>3.0.CO;2-H
- Hossain, M., Cahan, S. F., & Adams, M. B. (2000). The investment opportunity set and the voluntary use of outside directors: New Zealand evidence. *Accounting and Business Research*, 30(4), 263-273. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00014788.2000.9728944
- Iqbal, Z., & Mirakhor, A. (2004). Stakeholders model of governance in Islamic economic system. *Islamic Economic Studies*, 11(2), 43-64.
- Jafari, E. (2013). Intellectual Capital and its Effects on Firms' market value and Financial Performance in Iran: An Investigating Public Model. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*.
- Jamali, D. (2008). A Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility: A Fresh Perspective into Theory and Practice. *J Bus Ethics*, 82(1), 213-231. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9572-4
- Jason, Newsom's USP 654 Data Analysis II.
- Ji-jian, Z., Nai-ping, Z., & Yu-sheng, K. (2006). Study on intellectual capital and enterprise's performance: An empirical evidence from Chinese securities market. *Journal of Modern Accounting and Auditing*, 2(10), 35-39.

- Pallant, J. (2007). SPSS Survival Manual (3rd ed.). Crows West, New South Wales.
- Li, J., & Wang, H. -B. (2007). An Empirical Examination of Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility: A Chinese Banking Industry Investigation. 2007 International Conference on Wireless Communications, Networking and Mobile Computing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/wicom.2007.816
- Johannisson, B., & Huse, M. (2000). Recruiting outside board members in the small family business: an ideological challenge. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 12(4), 353-378. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08985620050177958
- John, K., & Senbet, L. W. (1998). Corporate governance and board effectiveness. *Journal of Banking & Finance*, 22(4), 371-403. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0378-4266(98)00005-3
- Kamath, G. B. (2007). The intellectual capital performance of the Indian banking sector. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(1), 96-123. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930710715088
- Kendall, N. (1999). Good corporate governance, Accountants. Digest, (40). The ICA in England and Wales.
- Khatab, H., Masood, M., Zaman, K., Saleem, S., & Saeed, B. (2011). Corporate Governance and Firm Performance: A Case study of Karachi Stock Market. *IJTEF*, 39-43. http://dx.doi.org/10.7763/ijtef.2011.v2.76
- Kiroyan, N. (2006). Good corporate governance (GCG) dan corporate social responsibility (CSR) Adakah Kaitan di Antara Keduanya?. *Economics Business Accounting Review*, 45-58
- Ku Ismail, K. N. I., & Abdul Karem, M. (2011). Intellectual capital and the financial performance of banks in Bahrain. *Journal of Business Management and Accounting*, 1(1), 63-77.
- Kujansivu, P., & Lönnqvist, A. (2007). Investigating the value and efficiency of intellectual capital. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(2), 272-287. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930710742844
- Lang, J. R., & Lockhart, D. E. (1990). Increased Environmental Uncertainty and Changes in Board Linkage Patterns. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(1), 106-128. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256354
- Latif, M., Malik, M. S., & Aslam, S. (2012). Intellectual capital efficiency and corporate performance in developing countries: a comparison between Islamic and conventional banks of Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(1), 405-420.
- Lev, B., & Zambon, S. (2003). Intangibles and intellectual capital: an introduction to a special issue. *European Accounting Review, 12*(4), 597-603. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0963818032000162849
- Maali, B., Casson, P., & Napier, C. (2006). Social reporting by islamic banks. *Abacus*, 42(2), 266-289. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6281.2006.00200.x
- Mahoney, L., & Roberts, R. W. (2002). Corporate social and environmental performance and their relation to financial performance and institutional ownership: Empirical evidence on Canadian firms. Available at SSRN 305781.
- Malik, M., Malik, A., & Mustafa, W. (2011). Controversies that make Islamic banking controversial: An analysis of issues and challenges. *American Journal of Social and Management Sciences*, 41-46. http://dx.doi.org/10.5251/ajsms.2011.2.1.41.46
- Mallin, C. (2007). Editorial Note. *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 15*(6), 1025-1025. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8683.2007.00626.x
- Martín-de Castro, G., & Delgado-Verde, M. (2012). Assessing Knowledge Assets in Technology-Intensive Firms: Proposing a Model of Intellectual Capital. *JCC: The Business and Economics Research Journal*, *5*(1), 43-59. http://dx.doi.org/10.7835/jcc-berj-2012-0066
- Margolis, J. D., & Walsh, J. P. (2003). Misery Loves Companies: Rethinking Social Initiatives by Business. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48(2), 268. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3556659
- Marsiglia, E., & Falautano, I. (2005). Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainability Challenges for a Bancassurance Company. *Geneva Pap R I-Iss P, 30*(3), 485-497. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.gpp.2510040
- Mavridis, D. G. (2004). The intellectual capital performance of the Japanese banking sector. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 5(1), 92-115. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930410512941
- Mavridis, D. G., & Kyrmizoglou, P. (2005). Intellectual capital performance drivers in the Greek banking sector.

- Management Research News, 28(5), 43-62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01409170510629032
- McWilliams, A., Siegel, D. S., & Wright, P. M. (2006). Corporate Social Responsibility: Strategic Implications. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(1), 1-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00580.x
- Mont, O., & Leire, C. (2009). Socially responsible purchasing in supply chains: Drivers and barriers in Sweden. *Social Responsibility Journal*, *5*(3), 388-407. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17471110910977302
- Moskowitz, M. (1972). Choosing socially responsible stocks. Business and Society Review, 1, 71-75.
- Mushtak, P. (2007). Human resources in Islamic banking. *Arab news*. Retrieved from http://www.arabnews.com/node/293073
- Musibah, A. S., & Alfa, W. S. B. W. Y. (2013). Impact of Intellectual Capital on Corporate Social Responsibility Evidence from Islamic Banking Sector in GCC. *International Journal of Finance and Accounting*, *2*(6), 307-311. http://dx.doi.org/10.5923/j.ijfa.20130206.02
- Nathan, S., & Ribière, V. (2007). From knowledge to wisdom: The case of corporate governance in Islamic banking. VINE, 37(4), 471-483. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03055720710838533
- Nazari, J. A., & Herremans, I. M. (2007). Extended VAIC model: Measuring intellectual capital components. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(4), 595-609. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930710830774
- Nestian, A. (2007). Knowledge management concepts and models applicable in regional development. *Management & Marketing*, 2(1).
- Oliver, J. L. H., & Porta, J. I. D. (2006). How to measure IC in clusters: Empirical evidence. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 7(3), 354-380. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/1469193061068145.
- Orlitzky, M., Schmidt, F. L., & Rynes, S. L. (2003). Corporate Social and Financial Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Organization Studies*, 24(3), 403-441. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0170840603024003910
- Pedrini, M. (2007). Human capital convergences in intellectual capital and sustainability reports. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(2), 346-366. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691930710742880
- Page, J. P. (2005). Corporate Governance and Value Creation. University of Sherbrooke, Research Foundation of CFA Institute
- Perrini, F., Pogutz, S., & Tencati, A. (2006). *Developing corporate social responsibility: A European perspective*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Benson, J. K., Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). The External Control of Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23(2), 358. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2392573
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. -Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Post, J. E., Preston, L. E., & Sachs, S. (2002). Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View. *California Management Review*, 45(1), 6-28. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/41166151
- Proctor, R. (2006). Managerial accounting for business decisions. Financial Times/Prentice Hall.
- Rajan, R. G., & Zingales, L. (1998). Financial dependence and growth. American Economic Review, 88(3), 559-86
- Rammal, H. (2006). The importance of Shari'ah supervision in Islamic financial institutions. *Corporate Ownership and Control*, 3(3), 204-208
- Razafindrambinina, D., & Kariodimedjo, D. (2011). Is Company Intellectual Capital Linked to Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure? Findings from Indonesia. *Communications of the IBIMA*, 1-11. http://dx.doi.org/10.5171/2011.511442
- Redington, I. (2005). Making CSR happen: The contribution of people management. *The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)*. London, UK
- Renneboog, L., Ter Horst, J., & Zhang, C. (2008). Socially responsible investments: Institutional aspects, performance, and investor behavior. *Journal of Banking & Finance*, 32(9), 1723-1742. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbankfin.2007.12.039
- Roos, G., & Roos, J. (1997) Measuring your company's intellectual performance. *Long Range Planning*, 30(3), 413-426. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0024-6301(97)90260-0

- Rosam, I., & Peddle, R. (2004). *Implementing Effective Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Governance. A Guide*. BSI British Standards Institution
- Rosenstein, S., & Wyatt, J. G. (1990). Outside directors, board independence, and shareholder wealth. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 26(2), 175–191. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-405x(90)90002-h
- Ruigrok, W., Peck, S., Tacheva, S., Greve, P., & Hu, Y. (2006). The Determinants and Effects of Board Nomination Committees. *Journal of Management & Governance*, 10(2), 119-148. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10997-006-0001-3
- Secchi, D. (2007). Utilitarian, managerial and relational theories of corporate social responsibility. International *Journal of Management Reviews*, 9(4), 347-373. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00215.x
- Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business: A skill-building approach (4th ed.).
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. Wiley.
- Sharma, A. (2011). Corporate governance and board effectiveness. *International Journal of Computational Engineering & Management*, 13(1), 116-124.
- Shumway, T. (2001). Forecasting Bankruptcy More Accurately: A Simple Hazard Model. *The Journal of Business*, 74(1), 101–124. http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/209665
- Sumita, T. (2005). Intellectual assets & management reporting. METI.
- Tarawneh, M. (2006). A Comparison of Financial Performance in the Banking Sector: Some Evidence From Omani Commercial Banks. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, (3), 101-112.
- Tetrault Sirsly, C. -A., & Lamertz, K. (2007). When Does a Corporate Social Responsibility Initiative Provide a First-Mover Advantage? *Business & Society*, 47(3), 343-369. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0007650307299221.
- Van den Berghe, L., & Louche, C. (2005). The Link Between Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility in Insurance. *Geneva Pap R I-Iss P, 30*(3), 425-442. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.gpp.2510034
- Waddock, S. A., & Samuel B. G. (1997). The corporate social performance -financial performance link. *Strategic Management Journal*, 19(4), 303-319. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1097-0266(199704)18:4<303::aid-smj869>3.0.co;2-g.
- Weisbach, M. S. (1988). Outside directors and CEO turnover. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 20, 431-460. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-405x(88)90053-0
- Williams, S. M. (2000). *Relationship between board structure and a firm's intellectual capital performance in an emerging economy*. Haskayne. School of Business, the University of Calgary.
- Yalama, A., & Coskun, M. (2007). Intellectual capital performance of quoted banks on the Istanbul Stock exchange market. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(2), 256-271. doi.org/10.1108/1469193071074283.
- Zawya. (2010). Shariah Scholars and Governance: A Network Analytic Perspective. Zawya, Dubai.
- Zéghal, D., & Maaloul, A. (2010). Analysing value added as an indicator of intellectual capital and its consequences on company performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 11(1), 39-60. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14691931011013325

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Clothes and Image Analysis for Laywoman on the Mural of the North Wall in the 17th Grotto of Magao Grottoes

Ting Rong¹

Correspondence: Ting Rong, Fashion & Art Design Institue, Donghua University, Shanghai, China. E-mail: rongting198396@163.com

Received: June 12, 2013 Accepted: July 7, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p165 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p165

Abstract

In combination of the historical background and the records in historical documents, the thesis analyzed the dress and image of the laywoman on the north wall of the 17th grotto of Magao Grottoes on the aspect of hair style and clothes, and come to the conclusion that the mural was an evidence of the new painting with ancient method of Zhang Daqian through the analysis on the aspect of the style and colors of the clothes, which had provided a new perspective for new understanding of the image of laywomon.

Keywords: mural of Dunhuang, laywomen, clothes and image, new painting with ancient method of Zhang Daqian

1. Reasons of the Study

Wang Jiqing, a professor of Dunhuang Research Institute of Lanzhou University, pointed out in his paper in the meeting of the "Silk Road –Image and History" in September of 2010 that 'the murals of laywomen and Bhikkhuni on the north wall of Library Cave maybe created by Zhang Daqian through peeling off the mud layer on the wall and the murals may be the new painting with the application of ancient painting method of Zhang Daqian'. The Preliminary Exploration of the Murals in the Library Cave of Mogao Grottoes in Dunhuang of professor Wang made the personnel judgment based on the historical record of Stein, the working photos shot in 1908 and the personnel experience of Zhang Daqian. I had great interest in this and tried to make exploration for this on the perspective of the history of clothes.

The headdress garments and accessories of the murals in Mugao Grottoes could be generally divided into two types. The first type clothes were mainly the clothes of religious figures like Buddha, Bodhisattva, Heavenly King, Hercules and so forth, which were mainly gods and idols. The clothes of these figures may have the features of both China and the overseas countries and some of them may even integrate with some imagination elements. Therefore, the clothes of such figures had certain distance with the clothes of real people. The other type were mainly the clothes of the common people like the figures in stories and the portraits of famous persons, all of which were the actual portrayal of the real persons with name and surname. The author of the Famous Painting in All Ages provided the comments for works of religious painter that "both the governmental officials and civilian would have customs for clothes" and "clothes and make-up would all change along with times". The comments demonstrated that the clothes of the figures in the murals would not only have historical basis, but also would change along with the change of times. The clothes mural "laywomen" on the western side of the west wall in the 17th grotto of Mugao Grottoes studied in this thesis should belong to the headdress garments and accessories of the secular characters in late Tang Dynasty.

2. Background

The mural "Laywomen" was located on the north wall of 17th grotto of Mogao Grottoes. The Grotto was constructed in 5th year of Dazhong Period in late Tang Dynasty (AD 851). The Grotto was the library cave found by Taoist Wang Yuanzhuan on Junue 25, 1990 (6th Year of Guangxu Period).

The 17th Grotto was constructed under the background of Guiyijun period. In the second year of Dazhong Period (AD 848), Shazhou Zhang Yichao revolted and overturned the ruling of Kingdom of Turpan in Dunhuang region. The government of Tang established Guiyijun in Shazhou in the 5th year of Dazhong Period and awarded Zhang Yichao with the official position of Jiedushi. Dunhuang entered into the Guiyijun period of late

¹ Fashion & Art Design Institue, Donghua University, Shanghai, China

Tang Dynasty since them. Just as the poem said "Hexi corridor was occupied by enemies for more than one hundred years, limited communication due to the road blocked at Xiao pass; thanks to the road explored by the general, the name of the hero was known all over the world" (Bianwen of Zhang Huaishen). Many murals in Dunhuang in late Tang Dynasty were created with the theme of praising heroes. Hongbiao Persuasion Monument was named from the eminent monk Hongbian, who Hongbian once supported the revolution of Zhang Yichao.

3. Clothes and Image Analysis for the Mural "Laywoman" (Fig. 1)



Figure 1. Laywoman in 17th Grotto of Mogao Grottoes

Laywoman shall refer to the female lay Buddhist worshiping the Buddha and observing the five precepts at home. The women without shaving hairs and changing clothes are just one kind of laywomen. The lay Buddhists could be divided into four kinds including female-lay Buddhist at home, male-lay Buddhist at home, female-lay Buddhist in temple and male-lay Buddhist in temple. The female-lay and male-lay Buddhists at home were named as laywomen and laymen. The word lay shall refer to intimate to the Triratna Buddha and worship the Buddha.

The China Grottoes 'Dunhuang Mogao Grottoes (IV) described laywomen that "Wearing bun on head, long gown with round collar and belt on the waist, the laywoman was standing under a tree with a walking stick in the right hand. The clothes were very popular for the women in late Tang Dynasty. The face shape was similar like the people in Tang Dynasty. Although the facial expressions were not quite lively, the mural demonstrated that the line scratch and color application techniques of the painter had reached an extreme high level. The shading of the folds of the clothes and the different colors on the front and back of tree leaves had all demonstrated the rich sense of depth, strong sense of space, vivid overall effect and excellent preservation of the graphics." According to the picture on the mural, the above descriptions were worth further consideration.

3.1 Women in Men's Clothes

First of all, we would review the clothing of the women in Tang Dynasty. Most women in Tang Dynasty would have short jacket, coat and upper garment on the upper bodies and have petticoat on the lower bodies. Moreover, the women in Tang Dynasty had the hobbies of wearing the clothes of men. Old Book of Tang Record of Vehicles and Clothes expressed that "Although some women worn the clothes and shoes of their husbands, superiors and inferiors of women and men were consistent both in and out of home". This clothing style was most popular in the Kaiyuan Period and Tianbao Period of Tang Dynasty. The "laywoman" in the 17th Grotto in Mogao Grottoes should be a woman with men's clothes. The murals in Duhuang had some examples of women dressing in men's clothes. On the mural created in late Tang Dynasty on the north wall of 455th Grotto of Mogao Grottoes, "A laywoman with two buns on the head was wearing a mission flower robe with round collar and a belt on the waist. With a plate in hand, she was just performing tonsure for another laywoman. This style of men's clothing was the most fashionable clothes of the men in the flourishing period of Tang. The material of such clothes was much thicker and more solid than silk clothes. The material of the clothes at such time may be flower blanket made with wool widely produced in the northwestern area. Most of the murals in Dunhuang were young noble ladies, maidservant and laywomen in men's clothes". In the mural of two laywomen created in later Tang period in the 147th Grotto in Mogao Grattoes, "The two laywomen were wearing classic clothes of Tibetan Empire. One laywoman was wearing upper jacket with turn-down collar, straight sleeve and lower hem, a silk belt on the waist and a hakama similar with Kuzhe dress on the lower body. The other laywoman was wearing left gusset with turn-over collar to cover half of the arm. The sleeves on half of the arms had two layers. The upper layer extended to the shoulder place and the lower layer with different colors extended to the arm elbow. The laywoman also had a silk belt on the waist. The second laywoman had one heavy skirt on the lower body, which consisted of waist skirt on the upper place and long dress on the lower place. Both of the two laywomen were wearing Han style flower buns with pending puns on two temples. The top of these two laywomen were made in the shape of flowers. Moreover, these two laywomen were also wearing rustling beads with Tubo style. It could be concluded that the Tubo clothes integrating with the clothing customs was the common clothes of the women in Han nationality or ethnic minorities in Duhuang region". However, the clothes of the "Laywoman" in the 17th Grotto shall be men's clothes.

Short hip robe, soft hat, leather belt and long boot accessories were the main clothes of the men in Tang Dynasty. Short hip robe was straight robe with vent to divide it into two parts. The style of wide sleeve and large robe could demonstrate the bearing of natural and elegance, elegance and luxury. Round collar garments and robes were worn by people of all levels from emperor to servants. It could be seen from the murals in Duhuang that all persons from the emperors to the civilians in Tang Dynasty could wear. The style of the robe include round collar, small sleeve, rube extending to the shoe surface, slit on two sides and leather belt on the waist. Except the wide sleeve, the style of the clothes of the "Laywoman" in 17th Grotto was basically same with that of the robe in Tang Dynasty. The women's clothes experienced highly increase in the loosening trend in the Wenzong Period of Tang Dynasty. Emperor Wenzong ordered the princesses in the second year of Taihe Period (AD 828) that "No one shall wear hairpins or short and narrow clothes on even days". Constructed in about 20 years after AD 828, the wide sleeve in the mural of 17th Grotto was just in consistent with the loosening trend of women's clothes in later Tang Dynasty. Therefore, the laywomen on the mural was wearing short hip robe with round collar or garment.

3.2 Belt on the Waist

The belt on the waist was not made of leather. Leather belt was cross straps for clothes made with leather. Character Explanation described that "leather was the animal skin with hair removed". The Record of Rites Yuzao mentioned that "the leather belt should be extended for two inches on the arm". Zheng Xuan commented that "all belts shall be fastened with leather belt". Record of Jin Record of Clothes noted that "Leather belt was developed from large leather belt. Persons of various sectors from administrative and military officials to common civilians were wearing them. All bags and ribbons were accompanied with leather belts". It could be seen from the knot of the belt on the mural that the belt shall be made of silk materials instead of the leather belt made with animal skin.

3.3 Four-curled Hair Style

The point worth attention was the hair style of the laywoman. Many books introduced the hair style of the laywoman as dual-topknot. However, it shall be four-topknot after carefully checking the surrounding areas on the mural. The difference between curled hair and topknot was that the curled hair would be hollow with the shape of ring and the topknot was solid. This hair style was not quite common. In the Clothing Materials in the Arts of Tang Dynasty in Mogao Grottoes of Dunhuang published in 1965, Duan Wenjie said that "Men' clothes were most popular among lady's-maids. The clothes of most of the lady's-maids in 'Travel Picture for the Ladies of Song' included pending curled hair buns and topknots or two upright curled hair buns, four-topknot style with two curled hair buns, kerchief on the head, curled short hip robe, long trousers, black boots, round silk fan or cosmetics box in hand. The laywoman was also wearing such clothes with walking stick and rag". Within them, the "two upright curled hair buns and four-topknot style with two curled hair buns" was just in consistent with the hair style of the laywoman in the 17th Grotto. Considering the "Travel Picture for the Ladies of Song" was a mural in late Tang Dynasty, it could be concluded that four-curled hair buns may be the most popular hair style for women like lady's-maids in late Tang Dynasty.

4. Suspicious Points

It was still uncertain that whether the clothes under the garment or robe was long skirt or long trousers. It was quite difficult to found the answer in historical documents. In the records made by Duan Wenjie, the lady's-maids were wearing long trousers. Specific image could also be seen in some other historical pictures, including the carved stone line drawing of Yongtai Princess in Tang Dynasty, the stone line drawing in the tomb of Tang Weijiong, mural in the tomb of Li Xian in Tang Dynasty and the Spring Travel of the Lady of the Guo State. As shown in Fig.2, we could clearly find that the lady's-maids were wearing long trousers. It could be seen for the current murals in the 17th Grotto that the lower parts of the clothes of the laywoman were seriously damaged. Therefore, we could only make the judgment from the lines of the painting. It could be judged from

the lines that the laywoman was wearing long skirt. The copy of Yang Dongmiao for "Full View of the Mural on the North Wall of Library Cave" also demonstrated that the laywoman was wearing long skirt. Therefore, it could be said that the clothes and image of the laywoman in the mural of the 17th Grotto of Mogao Grottoes were different with the historical facts reflected by the historical pictures. This doubtful point became an evidence for the point of view that the painting was made by Zhang Daqian with the application of ancient painting method.



Figure 2. Partial View for Spring Travel of the Lady of the Guo State of Zhang Xuan

Besides, the colors of the clothes of this laywoman were also a doubtable point. It could be seen from the picture that the round collar skirts or robe was in bright yellow color. At the beginning years of the period of Ganzong in Tang Dynasty (Li Zhi, from AD 650 to AD 683), the official sestem and common persons could wear clothes in vellow color (like the lemon yellow with relative cold light tone). In the first year of the Zongzhang Period in the mid-term of Gaozong of Tang (AD668), the government prohibited the officials and common persons to wear clothes in yellow colors considering the ease of mixing between yellow and Ochre yellow. Since then, yellow color became the symbol of emperors. As a woman in lower social rank, it was unreasonable for the laywoman to wear clothes in yellow color. However, the New Book of Tang had one regulation that "the clothes of common people, Buqu and servants shall be made with tough silk in the color of white and yellow, which shall be decorated with copper and iron". This regulation seemed to be in contradiction with the regulations launched by Gaozong of Dang. In the Research on the Paiting pigments, Li Yadong said that the yellow clithargite chemical compound with high concentration of lead. Meanjwhile, it was the most commonly used in the mural. These murals may be reacted with the oxygen in the air or may experience with ozone reaction, which resulted in the generation of new materials and changes of colors. The discoloration of these clothes would generally be the important reasons for the discoloration of the murals". Moreover, the litharge was quite easy to be oxidized into black color. Therefore, most of the murals in Dunhuang we saw had dim colors. The bright color of the laywoman made us doubt whether it was pained by the persons of later generations.

5. Conclusion

This thesis tried to analyze the clothes and image of the laywoman in the mural of 17th Grotto of Mogao Grottoes on the perspective of the history of clothes. The findings of the analysis was then used to support the point of view of professor Wang Jiqing in Preliminary Exploration of the Murals in the Library Cave of Mogao Grottoes in Dunhuang that "the murals of laywomen and Bhikkhuni on the north wall of Library Cave maybe created by Zhang Daqian through peeling off the mud layer on the wall and the murals may be the new painting with the application of ancient painting method of Zhang Daqian". As for the color doubt of the clothes on the mural, conclusion could only be made after further exploration for the historical documents and scientific inspection of the experts for the mural.

References

Bao, M -X. (2011). Silk Road: Image and History. Shanghai: Donghua University Press.

Shen, C. W. (2011). Chinese Ancient Clothing Analysis. Shanghai: Shanghai Bookstore Publishing House.

General Directory for the Contents of Mogao Grottoes in Dunhuang. Beijing: Cultural Relics Publishing House.

Huang, H. (1987). Clothes and Drawing Method for the Ancient Figure of China. Shanghai: Shanghai People's Fine Arts Press.

Li, X. B. (2009). Clothes Analysis for Silk Road. Wulumuqi: Xinjiang People's Publishing House.

Zhou, X. B. (2002). Chinese Ancient Clothing Analysis. Beijing: China Drama Press.

Gao, C. M., & Zhou, X. (1984). Clothes in All Ages of China. Shanghai: Shanghai Xuelin Publishing House.

Sun, J. (1993). Discussion for the Ancient Clothes in China. Beijing: Cultural Relics Publishing House.

Notes

Note 1. Edited by Dunhuang Cultural Relics Research Institute: *China Grottoes Dunhuang Mogao Grottoes (IV)*, Beijing, Cultural Relics Press, 1st Version in September, 1987, Page 226.

Note 2. Tan Chanxue: *Explanation for the Clothes in Dunhuang in the Middle Age*, Shanghai, East China Normal University, August, 2010, 1st Version, page 119.

Note 3. Tan Chanxue: *Explanation for the Clothes in Dunhuang in the Middle Age*, Shanghai, East China Normal University, August, 2010, 1st Version, page 168.

Note 4. Zhou Xibao: *History of Ancient Clothes in China*, Beijing, Central Edition and Translation Publishing House, January, 2011, 1st Version, Page 239.

Note 5. Huang Nengfu, Chen Juanjuan: *Clothing History of China*, Beijing, China Tourism Press, May, 1995, 1st Version, Page 149.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

A Study of the Semiotic Understanding of Land Art

Farzaneh Najafi¹ & Merza Abbas¹

¹Centre for Instructional Technology & Multimedia, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Correspondence: Farzaneh Najafi, Centre for Instructional Technology & Multimedia, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Tel: 60-19-412-5197; 98-912-396-2185. E-mail: farzaneh nag@yahoo.com

Received: June 12, 2013 Accepted: July 2, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p170 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p170

Abstract

Semiotics is the science of signs. It is known as an approach to expose the fundamental structural elements of the meaning of an object or a term. It comprises of the study of signs, designation, indication, analogy, likeness, symbolism, signification, metaphor, and communication. Semiotic and land art are closely associated with each other. Land art consists of sculptures, carvings, and performances located at specific natural surroundings to deliver messages of love and concern for the environment, even though they are ephemeral or located in inaccessible places they are transmitted by the semioticians. Like all works of art, each piece could be classified as abstract or realistic and would be created using signs and symbols of the artist's semiotic system to code the messages and feelings. The aim of this article is to examine the semiotics of land art based on signs and symbols of landscape through documentary analysis. The findings of the study revealed that semiotics is a powerful tool to reflect feelings and sentiments regarding different landscape. Some implications were also furnished.

Keywords: semiotics, signs, symbols, landscape, land art

1. Introduction

Semiotics is the science of signs (Eco, 1976, 1979). Foote (1988) regarded Semiotics as a subcategory of the cultural study through which signs and sign systems are investigated as modes of communication; such studies explore the ways of encoding and decoding the meanings of the presented signs and symbols. Furthermore, art and culture are complicatedly interrelated in a way that various features of art works originate from culture; consequently, scripts and signs used by humans in various locations are said to be related to the human culture that makes the role of culture so important in realizing the concept of semiotics in art (Ferreira, 2007; Smith-Shank, 1995; Temple, 2005).

For instance, 'color' can be regarded as ideas or codes which have been expressed for a long time in a society; for instance, in *Medieval* color symbolism 'black' stands for penance, while white represents innocence and purity and 'red' is a symbol for the Pentecostal fire. Some artists use symbols and signs that have some cultural characteristics to convey their messages to the viewer; fish, snake, hand, foot and goddess are amongst the symbols used in the art land works of Nadalian as an Iranian land artist (Bower, 2010). As an instance in land art of Nadalian (Appendix A), *Anahita* is an ancient and symbolic goddess of water and fertility in Iranian culture; she is believed to be the one who purified the waters and the milk of nursing mothers. *Anahita's* image is carved into the many rocks where the flowing waters exist, surrounding her image (Nadalian, 2011).

Another instance would be Nadalian's works whose carvings feature a female figure together with a fish or moon illustrated; female figures represent water goddesses and fertility in ancient cultures and the fish or moon are perceived as the symbols for rain and fertility (Doan, 2009; Ghal'eh, 2009). Nadalian (2011) stated that holiness of water goddess could be perceived at an age of increasing water pollution. Nadalian claimed that art works could be effective when everybody understands the message of the artist; thus, an artist can attain this goal best by using the cultural signs, which are associated with people's life history and beliefs. Like other artworks, land art pieces are also constructed using symbols and codes that must be analyzed and then synthesized for interpretation to discover the intended meanings embedded by the artists.

Semiotics can be defined, based on Smith-Shank (1995) as a wide ranging approach towards the perception of the nature of meaning, the understanding of cognition, culture, behavior, and life. In addition, it also tackles with the perceptions of the people of a given culture, which are the result of that culture and society (Tsotra, Janson, & Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2004). In the literature, Semiotics is described as the amalgamation of knowledge that has

resulted from the thematic or systematized analysis and study of the action of signs, called "semiosis', wherever this action of the signs takes place in the world (Deely & Brown, 2006).

In this path, significant works have been carried out in the early 20th century in Prague and Russia. Due to these developments in this branch of science, it is now well recognized and established in France and Italy. In addition, based on Ivanov (2008) it is making progress and advancements in many countries such as England, and the United States. Beasley and Danesi (2002) maintain that this branch of science is among those issues that have been employed in approximately all aspects of our life amongst which one can name language, art & advertising.

Following Sebeok (2001), the acknowledgement of the extensive application of signs and symbols in everyday life is a prerequisite for the perception of the concept of "Semiotics". However, as it is expected, since the both philosophically and practices regarding, "Semiotics" seems to be found in all places and since it has been in circulation for a long time and due to its different forms, it is not an uncomplicated issue. Hence, new readings of approximately anything to emerge such as films, TV programmers, works of art, fashion, etc., needs constant learning of this newly born language (Colapietro & Olshewsky, 1996; Lawes, 2002).

In Saussure's words, semiotics is a branch of science that investigates the signs and symbols' life within a society. It is regarded as a part of social psychology and branch of general psychology. Semiotics is the study of showing what are signs constitutes of and the study of the laws and rules that govern them (Danesi, 2007). Conversely, Danesi (2002) defined semiotics as a discipline that intends to analyze and study of sign-based behavior and hence should not be utilized as a means of doing a critical approach to political and social systems. In this respect, as is discussed by Hardt (2005), it is considered as the science of signs in which philosophy and linguistics would work the basis of semiotic researches.

It also differs from the qualitative researches that have been done in the traditional manners. In the traditional research, which can be said to carry an 'inside-out' approach, the psychological phenomena such as perception, attitudes, and ideas are extracted out of the participants' head by means of interviews and data collecting methods. The method that is employed by semiotics is, however, the reverse. That is an outside-in approach is used. The question that this approach tries to find an answer to is how these cognitive states enter one's head at first and where have these cognitive states have come from? Lawes (2002) believes in the surrounding environment and cultural context of which the respondents belong to as the source of these perceptions.

Symbols are a broadly unique classification of objects that are familiar to a certain group of people with a certain cultural background and associated with specific emotions and feelings. Particularly, in occasion of dissimilar cultures, different schemas can be activated by different symbols that overlap or related to the cultural and linguistic background of the group (Tsotra et al., 2004). Thus, different factors such as gender, age, and the viewers' knowledge of art and culture have important roles to play in understanding land art works from the visual images produced through photography.

2. Semiotics in Art

Semiotics in art works is the study of signs and symbols with the purpose of translating an image into words. In semiotic systems, all types of pictures are considered as representative icons for objects such as photos, drawings and paintings. Pictures mostly have a doubled meaning; visual and symbolic, conventional and arbitrary (Ferreira, 2007).

Semiotics is believed to depend on culture and is regarded as the method with which people make communication, either consciously or unconsciously, via cultural features like the visual image (Lawes, 2002). Consequently, "images in different cultures have different meanings", different communities are expected to analyze and deliver messages differently because culturally different groups may respond to and understand differently regarding the existence of an equal stimulus (Muller, 2005). Moreover, cultural manifestations, like values, myths, symbols (rooted in semiotics) and customs have significant effects on perceiving and decoding the art works (Luna, Peracchio, & Juan, 2002).

3. Materials for Land Art

It is interesting to know that some icons are universal and therefore viewers with different knowledge, background and cultures can understand them (Parker, 2010). Spiral shapes, for example, are among frequently used icons that have been used in different types of art works by different cultural artists. Spiral symbols are found in almost all types of artworks, which might be different in terms of material, size, position of artwork or the concept, and idea that the artists aim to follow; spiral broken stone made by Goldsworthy in 1985 and Spiral Jetty by Smithson in 1970 are among the examples of spiral land art works. Besides, different viewers with dissimilar feelings and knowledge can develop different interpretation of an artwork and the visual message

being conveyed (Ghal'eh, 2009; Parker, 2010). The spiral shape of Spiral Jetty is an ecstatic symbol of life in the world of man-made death and beyond which moves relentlessly, yet it is tightly coiled like a snake about to spring (Nadalian, 2011).

Semiotic of land art works is the main keyword of the discussion developed in the present study. Land art, as a part of contemporary art, does not enjoy a long history, but it certainly is an art whose nature has been respected since old ages. In land art creation, an artist may turn into a part of the work or, sometimes, use his/ her own body to perform art works relating to his/ her inner involvements at nature. Examples of such art works include the art works of Goodarzy, Alamshah, Khas, and Maktabi (Maktabi, 2008).

4. Photography

Therefore, land artists have to rely on photography to have their works seen by the public; thus, dissemination of land art is mostly attained through visual documentation of the art (Amizlev, 2001). This can be regarded as a strong reason itself, justifying the importance of studying and examining the role of photographers and photography in the land art, contributing to the development of a new attitude in photography. In other words, this is perceived as an "inter-media" and "reciprocal" art; It is an inter-media because photography is, sometimes, applied as an instrument to explain another artistic type, but it remains dependent on the concept and view of that art which needs photography to be offered (Edwards, 2006; Wall, 1965).

For investigating and understanding photography in environmental art works, it is necessary to discuss the items that are capable of influencing the process of decoding messages of environmental art photography; such items include orientation of photos, angle of photography, shadow, light etc. A photograph is an image that presents a subject, which is the main character in the photograph, in relation to its environment. The subject can be a person, an animal or a thing, or a group of them. The subject's environment is expressed in the form of the foreground and the background. Other objects or things in the foreground and background such as grass, trees, the sky, the cloud, and the horizon can also be incorporated to enhance the presentation of the subject. Thus, the features and the pose of the subject together with the surrounding elements of color and texture and the objects in the foreground and background combine to create the full message of the photograph.

The subjects of the land art photographs are the land artworks but they are located in the environments where they are created. They are at times to be "blended" into the surrounding environment as in Nadalian's artworks and as other instances represent foreign intrusions into the environment as in Alamshah's artwork. They can also be independent of the environment, such as some of Maktabi's works. The features of the artworks do not change but the photographer may employ various photographic elements or camera techniques to present the artworks in photographically better presentations. Thus, a long shot would present the artwork together with its surroundings while the close-up shot would focus on the artwork without its surrounding. Thus, the role of the viewer is to read the signs and symbols of the artworks and to take note of the contribution of environment employed in the artwork.

The focus of this research is on the effects of the size of the image (Close-up and Long shot) as these are two dominant and effective factors of photographic image presentations. It is worth mentioning that the concept of each image or photo of land art works might also be changed with different lights, seasons, and angles. In addition, vertical photographs, emphasizing depth or height, generate a sense of strength. Holding the camera vertically is appropriate for taking pictures of vertical subjects such as tall buildings, tall trees, tall animals, and waterfalls (Hedgecoe, 2006, 2008). On the other hand, horizontal photographs generate a sense of calmness or stillness, emphasizing the width over height for taking some subjects such as a skyline, a ranch-style house, etc. (Hedgecoe, 2004). Every single characteristic of these structures, employed by photographer, to show the ideas that are goal of the project photos, will be coded within the given photo in different angles, orientations or so on (Peterson, 2003).

The selective use of the close-up, medium shot, long shot, and other photographic elements is a visual technique for directing a viewer to a visual message. In film and television, long shots are used for orientation or placement of the subject in an event while medium and close-up shots deliver the action and the story using the factor of interpersonal communication that an intimate distance suggested by close-up shots increases viewer involvement with the subject (McCain & Driver, 1973). These effects extend to the photograph as reported by Williams (1968) that the static shots were just as effective as the varied camera shots in providing high interest level.

In the description and analyzing or decoding a photo, it could be stated that in a long shot photograph like a photograph taken by a wide-angle lens, everything, including all the mess on the ground could be visible (Long, 2012). A wide-angle lens make may make distortions between the foreground and the background in a particular way and make the foreground exaggeratedly enormous (Hedgecoe, 2004). Using a wide-angle lens, the attention

of the viewer is drawn to the foreground instead of the subject and introducing the concept of scale (Peterson, 2003) in the photograph. On the other hand, using a long shot allows the subject to be emphasized instead of the foreground or the background. In fact, wide-angle lens can be used for hiding a distracting element in the background behind the subject; while, this is not practicable with a telephoto lens (Dijck, 2008). Using a wide aperture and a limited depth of the field further creates a possibility to take a photo with blurred background (Wells, 2004), removing all references to the subject's surrounding.

Thus, for reading an image or achieving the intention of the artist or photographer, attention needs to be paid to several items such as semiotics and photographic effects, some of which are mentioned above as necessarily important. However, one of the most important items that have serious effects on decoding or reading a photo by the viewer is the culture of the viewer and his knowledge of the signs used. Following practices in their culture, people use signs to perceive the symbols they use; the ability to interpret pictures as symbols depends on the set rules or social conventions, which are shared by particular people (Bolin & Blandy, 2003; Quin, 1997).

The study of media related to art and popular culture, including photography, via visual culture permits interpretation of features and symbols, which have different social connotations. Decoding and reading images and media (text, image, video, audio, etc.), will result in becoming more visually literate. This knowledge will become a skill for using images and texts to develop interpretations and understanding the discourses according to cultural codes (Aiello, 2006). Reading images necessitates cultural knowledge and familiarity of the sign systems of a culture; and their meanings are perceived within the conditions of their production and consumption (Smith-Shank, 2004).

Therefore, the interpretation of an image depends on the viewer's historical and cultural backgrounds (Ownby, 2011) as well as his/her understanding of the photographic elements. Thus, the act of image interpretation from photographs also includes a psychological dimension offered by the elements of photography. It has been shown by architectural studies that photographs are exposed to procedures of interpretation involving the principles of spatial envelope and extension of boundary (Oliva & Torralba, 2002). A scene's structure is described by the specifications of the space boundaries (e.g., the size of the space, its openness degree, and the perspective) and specifications of its content (Oliva, Park, & Konkle, 2011). The values that each scene image takes for each spatial envelope property can describe the very image. These values can then be portrayed in descriptive terms; for instance, about a given scene's degree of openness such as "very open/panoramic", "open," "closed," or "very closed/enclosed" (Oliva & Torralba, 2002).

In this framework, a forest would be characterized at a middle level as "a natural environment which is enclosed and has a thick, isotropic texture" or as a substitute for "a location which has trees, bushes, and leaves". Likewise, a particular street scene image could be defined as an "artificial open-air place with a perspective that is moderately cluttered" (Oliva & Torralba, 2006). This level of explanation makes sense to viewers who can understand the probable semantic classifications of the scene. Oliva and Torralba (2002) reported that scene images, which people judged to have a similar categorical relationship were closely projected in different dimensions.

Intraub and Richardson (1989) stated that when pictures of scenes were offered to the observers and they had to remember the scenes, they systematically remembered spatial features more than what was actually shown. This phenomenon is called boundary extension. Boundary extension is dynamic to different tasks further than drawing, like evaluation and border alteration to various types of images (Intraub, Gottesman, Willey, & Zuk, 1996). Its operation takes place over a series of periods from minutes to hours and it is true for young children as well as for older ones, i.e., observers offered a scene will memorize the information specifically about around the edges of the scene (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

When observers reproduce information of a scene that is not visible anymore, but the viewer memorized it, a systematic distortion of space occurs. When a close-up scene view is offered to an observer, the presence of boundary extension implies that this scene view might be offered at a wider angle than its original presentation angle (Oliva et al., 2011). Consequently, if the second stimulus is presented slightly wider than the original, this should match the representation in scene-selective areas and show a large degree of attenuation. Conversely, if the order of these stimuli is reversed, the representation of the wide-angle view will be very different from that of a subsequently presented close view (Harris & Jenkin, 2011).

Thus, other than, the historical and cultural contexts, there are two additional paths that the viewer may apply in interpreting images from photographs with the choice driven entirely by the strength of the features or photographic elements of space and composition embedded in the visual literacy (Heath, 1977). For realizing how such works of art attain their cognitive effects, it is important to consider that people may share lots of

beliefs, practices, and aspirations, but don't recognize that these are commonly held, and they are not able to articulate them (Smith-Shank, 2007). Most often, people are not aware that to what extent other members of society share their values, beliefs, and aspirations. They are not either aware of the extent to which they are members of, and how they participate in, a certain culture (Muller, 2005).

With reference to the in land art, Novitz (1996) mentioned that no efforts are made to foster a cultural identity but the artists wish to provoke the viewers' cultural self-satisfaction and persuade them to re-examine their views of their own cultures. Through several other types of art works like poems, novels, films and plays, all try to establish a common view of a culture in a pretty direct and non-critical manner, by providing various sorts of reasoning for that view (Hjort & Laver, 1997). Therefore, this study intends to investigate the blunt semiotic interpretation and message understanding of land artworks.

5. Semiotics and Photography

Sometime, land art is out of the reach of common people. Generally, it is not found in the museums, however, it can be practiced and observed in outer and natural spaces. Therefore, it is difficult to enjoy the land art and be completely appreciated (Amizlev, 2001; Archer, 2002; Grande, 2004, 2005). Photography plays a vital role in the dissemination of the messages and meanings of the land art due to a combination of interconnected factors. It is used as an exposure to the public about the land art through different means of visual documentations (Nadalian, 2011). However, the photographs can only be substitutes of an illusion of the real art world concerning with viewing practices (Amizlev, 2001; Marasy & Sedigh, 2009).

Millis (2001) asserted that a photograph is an aid to the memory, but presents only half of the truth. For an artwork, a series of shots of taken at 360 degrees would better help understanding the surroundings, formal aspects and different elevations while different seasons, moments of time, monumentality and the conditions of weather can change the perspective of viewing, but the size of a photograph cannot convey the reality of the subject (Amizlev, 2001). The Photograph is always dependent on the photographer's choice of angles or points of view of his/her subject matter. In addition, the images will have additional photographic elements taken from the sites as well as due to processes of documentation (Alloway, 1970).

Hall (1997) affirmed that an object like a mountain seen from a distance might give different feelings and understanding to someone who enjoys being present there and seeing it from the same distance. The photographs, as an impression of the real object in a moment, may have recorded considerable facts as well as metaphoric and symbolic messages; however, the deficiencies reduce the importance of being real. Photography is meant to be a medium of reporting, not the subject of discussion, but it is not a neutral medium. The interventions through photography come in the form of composition, use of perspective, use of colors, types of shots or size of subjects and types of angles (Millis, 2001). For land art, types of shots, namely, long shot and close-up shots using objective angles are important in accurately documenting the art works, but the use of additional techniques would embellish the art works with unintended features and visual elements.

Despite the intention to be accurate and truthfully report or preserve the semiotic systems formulated by the artists in conveying their messages, the process of recording the images through photography inadvertently adds new elements to the images of land art. According to a study conducted by Amizlev (2001) where the artists were interviewed regarding the representation of their symbols and messages in the photographs of their art works and they reported that they were happy with the photographs and agreed that all of their signs and symbols were clearly captured. However, participants also noted that the photographs of their art works also contained additional embellishments of photographic elements.

According to Tavin's (2000) study, photographs present images that inscribe events or evoke mental and emotional reactions and act on a viewer in three ways, namely, a) in the form of effect/ emotion, i.e. in the way people feel; b) in the form of judgment, i.e. in their view of how people should or should not behave; and c) appreciation, i.e. in how things are assessed or valued. These photographs can also be interpreted using Gestalt principles (Oliva & Torralba, 2002) or using semiotic principles (Barthes, 1978) or a combination of these. Thus, extracting a land artist's message from a photograph of a land art is not a straightforward process. Together with the artist's work and semiotic system, the photograph is packed with elements that evoke emotions, cognitive challenge involving interpreting, and understanding the signs and symbols, and judgment and appreciation of the effort to change of views towards the environment.

With respect to the use of art in communicating ideas and concepts through the incorporation of signs and symbols, as well as the temporary existence of land art works, it is vital for the land art pieces to be photographed in a manner that will accurately deliver the intended message of the artists to the viewers. Thus, there seems to be a gap between what and how photography can be used to understand land art works and an

empirical study that can be conducted to ascertain it. Photographs of land art pieces offer a unique blend of artworks with their own semiotic system embedded with the elements of photography. The viewers are now offered two or more simultaneous ways of interpreting the visual presentation, namely, focusing on the semiotics only and ignoring the additional contribution from photography, or focusing on the semiotics elements only, or blending the semiotics and the photographic elements together to enhance the interpretation of the land art pieces.

The embellishments of the photographic elements to the artworks by techniques such as composition, perspective, angle, and size of shots, such as long shot or close-up, may distract the viewers away from the main concept of the artworks as intended by the artists and produce other unintended meanings or reactions. For example, long shots contain more visual elements from photography in the form of foreground and background that may distract the viewers, while close-up shots have less input from photography and enable the viewers to focus on the semiotics of the art works, but at the same time present the works in a view that is detached from the environment that they were intended to protect. Understanding, denotation, connotation, etc. from the photographs would be different when the details in the visuals are changed by the use of these different photographic representations.

Studies involving image sizes or types of shots are few in number. McCain and Driver (1973) reported that image sizes could differentially affect a viewer's attitudes and perceptions in the context of television. They reported that the athletic body type was perceived to be more physically attractive in long shot than in the close-up, and that males were perceived to be more physically attractive in close-up and medium shots but females were perceived to be more dynamic in long shot. However, no study has investigated whether the semiotic interpretations of the land art works are preserved when presented through various photographic presentation modes that unavoidably may exclude some semiotic cues and include visual elements and cues which are not part of the original artwork.

As regards differences in man and woman approaches, Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) demonstrated that women and men take different approaches to learning and knowing. Women's approaches are process-oriented, intuitive, and personal as opposed to the approaches of men, which are goal-oriented, rational, and impersonal. Welling (2005) defined intuitive processing as that which involved hunches, gut feelings, first impressions, and the appearance of meaningful visual images, words, memories. The contrasting approaches by gender may have specific effects on outcome, thus, an additional question investigated was: as the images of land art could be interpreted based on the artists' semiotic systems as well as from the photographic properties, do viewers with different gender and levels of art knowledge process the images of a land art works at the photographic level or at the semiotic level.

What is very important in the achievement of the purpose of the present study is without doubt an introduction of the photographic semiotic system of land art works images can be considered as a language. They actually speak to us. This language can directly cause, based on Keddie (2009), the eruption of emotions and feelings, ideas and curiosity; memories and our experiences are brought back to us from them, and they restore and reach that part of the brain that is unavailable to us through words alone. Symbols, which are deeply rooted in different cultures of various societies, can be found all around us. They are scattered everywhere. What is necessary is the ability to know their language. For instance, understanding and reading of a piece of song require the knowledge of their language. This is also true for the reading of images. Capability of reading different images and visual signs, in diverse art works, demand specific knowledge.

6. Semiotic Theories

Regarding modern semiotics analysis in the early 20th century, two scholars can be named as the pioneers of this science- the Swiss linguists, Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 – 1913) and the American philosopher, Charles Sanders Peirce (1839 – 1914). The semiotics, which has been dominantly used for the science of signs, was first introduced by Peirce to call his system. Hence, as maintains by Berger (2011), there have been differences between the terms used by Saussure or semiology, and Peirce or semiotics. Semiotics has been summed up, in the theory of Saussure (1896), as a sign: signifier (an object) and signified (an attributed meaning to the object) (Özbılen & Kalin, 2001) as shown in Figure 6.1, the first refers to the form which the sign takes, the latter to the concept to which the sign refers to (Tavin, 2000). This concept belongs to the structuralism school of thought, which was founded around the concept of semiotics by him (Crow, 2003).

Saussure basically, viewed sign from a linguistic perspective. Hence, Saussure did not take into consideration the role of the reader since; he was only concerned with words (Chandler, 2007). As noted by Crow (2003) Saussure's structure is internal. Therefore, he did not consider the relationship that exists between the signified

and reality (Magdy, 2008). Other branches of science have also been influenced by Saussure's theory amongst which one can refer to anthropology, sociology, and literary criticism as the main ones. Basically what structuralism proposes as its central tenet is that, whether language or media, the phenomena of human life can only be intelligible when it is only studied through the consideration of the network of relationships which is present among them by making the sign and the system the primary concepts in which the sign is embedded in (De Saussure & Baskin, 2011).

Moreover, the signifier and signified in Saussure's linguistics theory are the sound and the thought respectively (Tavin, 2000). The linguistic sign is not conceptual or phonic and it is not either thought or sound. Hence, the sign is regarded as the whole association that links sound and idea or in other words the signifier and the signified (Chandler, 2007). In this theory, the sign enjoys not a concrete but an abstract nature. To put it in Saussure's words "A sign is not a link between a thing and a name, but between a concept and a sound pattern" (De Saussure & Baskin, 2011).

A sign in Saussure's theory both is a signifier or the sound pattern and a signified or the concept; that is, as it is shown in Figure 6.1 by Chandler (2007), a totally meaningless signifier or an entirely formless signified is impossible. Nonetheless, what Saussurian model today is applied for is not only the giving of a definition for the signifier to deal with the sound pattern, but this model is regularly used to interpret the signifier as the sign material that according to Morgan and Welton (1992), can be seen, heard, touched, smelled or tasted.

What semioticians do is not only the decoding of the meaning through the determination of the relations between the signs and their signified, but they also analyze the relations that are present among the signs in a multifaceted message (Moriarty, 2005). In this regard, Sebeok (2001) contends, "Saussure counts the connection between the signifier and the signified as an arbitrary relation that is willingly established by human beings and/or societies" (p. 6). Therefore, it can be seen that as is mentioned by different scholars, a fixed relationship cannot be proposed for the relationship of the sign and its meaning or, in other words, this relation is a conventional one (Iser, 2006; Sturken, Cartwright, & Sturken, 2004).

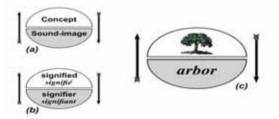


Figure 1. Saussure's schema of the sign

6.1 Peirce's Theory of Signs

Peirce (1839-1914), known as "the father of pragmatism" (Fontrodona, 2002), perceived semiotics as a logic theory (Petrilli & Ponzio, 2007). The view is almost similar to the linguistic worldview theory by Russian academics (Ming, 2012). Peirce asserted that semiotics could be applied as the official dogma of signs in visual, verbal, and mathematical field (Chandler, 2007). The theory was systematically built on the philosophic foundations by scholars and philosophers such as the Stoics, Plato, the Scholastic Realists, Locke, and Kant (Smith-Shank, 1995).

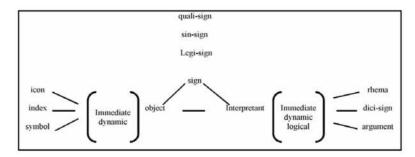


Figure 2. The structure of the sign notion of Charles sander Peirce

Peirce defined signs as something that has a meaning to a person in some ways (Rolling Jr, 2008; Smith-Shank, 1995). The mind will readily form an interpretation when a sign that refers to an object or referent stimulates it.

Based on Peirce's theory, visual signs used are usually representative of objects that are similar to it (Moriarty, 2005), yet it can also be inspired by the relationship to the object represented (Chung, 2006). Peirce's theory of signs is founded on some conjectures such as icon, index, and symbol. The model of theory is shown in Figure 6.2 elaborated by Ming (2012).

In this term, visual signs are logically connoted to be "similar to" (as an icon when there is a visual resemblance), "contiguous to" (as an index when the relationship to its object is in terms of causation), or "conventionally connected to" (as a symbol that relates to its object through a set of rules) something familiar to the interpreter (Cawson, 2006; Crow, 2003).

6.2 Theory of Roland Barthes

Following Peirce, in the 1950s, Barthes (1978) presented the 'semiotic method', after which, the theory of semiotic was utilized widely in critical theory related fields, a division of cultural studies whereby the relationship between audience or viewer, his environment, and the sociology of group behavior is investigated (Danesi, 2002).

An exceptional vision of photo and their visual and implicit messages is brought about by Barthes semiotic theory of 'A Photographic Message'. Once exploring the tangibility of an image, Barthes' theory is of use (Graham, 2012). Figure 6.3 shows the model of Barthes semiotic theory (Özbılen & Kalin, 2001). The observer comprehend that the text and photo are connected and they give meaning to each other. The fact that shared denotation is not constantly shared is the chief flaw of the Barthes' theory. The artist and viewer are presupposed to have the identical cultural background in The Photographic Message (Barthes, 2000).

A prearranged scheme of signs, particularly images, as communal events are concentrated on by Barthes' (1978) semiotic theory. The manner that these signs become the codes of cultural familiarity and ideologies is highlighted by his theory. One should comprehend the cultural ideologies that are developed by complete realization of the entire hidden messages in a photo. Denotation and connotation, as Barthes' theory has stated, create meanings. The connotation is the meanings implicit or hidden in a sign while denotation is the literal meaning or sign reference (Özbilen & Kalin, 2001).

Therefore, devoid of a sign or code, a pictorial photo independently seems to be denotative. Nevertheless, Barthes declares that being mythical is very important to the extent that the denotation of an image has every alteration to be so (Barthes, 1978). Due to the feature of an image that symbolizes and expresses cultural, ideological standards, he employs the term mythical. Consequently, where there is a mutual life of denotative and connotative meanings in a photo, there is a pictorial inconsistency (Graham, 2012). The cultural and historical constituents of an image have the same importance of the image as well. To recognize cultural ideologies and meanings inside an image, some forms of connotation are employed (Lockwood, 2007). As a result, the observer's recognition of the historical and cultural information affects the connotation. Therefore, as the information of the people differs, they may have misinterpretations of a photo's message (Magdy, 2008).

The caption of a photo brings even additional meanings, even if the connotative processes intensify different communal meanings. According to Barthes (2000), during the years, images and their cultural messages with or without captions have altered. By inserting six connotative processes, which are employed to develop and fortify the meanings in an image, a photographer is able to insert a message different from the cultural message. These processes are as follows: fake effects (forged images or digital editing), pose (the position and displaying of people), objects (putting objects in the image), photogenia (the image technical facets like exposure, lighting, and printing), aestheticism (simulation of artistic modes), and syntax (placement of images in a string) (Barthes, 1978; Ivanov, 2008).

Denotation	Signifier	Signified	
Connotation	Sign signifier		Signified

Figure 3. Semiotic model of Roland Barthes

7. Semiotics in Art and Culture

For Foote (1988), semiotics is viewed as a subcategory of culture. In this perspective, sign and sign system are considered as modes of communication by which the way in which the meaning of sign and symbols are encoded and decoded have been studied. Semiotics provides a tool for the analysis and conceptualization of the

manner individuals and collectivizes have communications and interactions either in a denotative or connotative way.

Even though the semioticians in the field of art have done much effort to explore different aspects of semiotics in various fields such as Semiotic Advertising and Culture, Semiotics in Marketing, Social and Musical Semiotics, Visual Signs as Semiotics, Film and Photography Semiotic, etc. however, as is mentioned by Ferreira (2007) regarding written sources, the analysis of signs and symbols is a new branch of art. Considering semiotics from an art perspective, it is the study of visual iconography based on the used icons in it. If the viewer aims at the right understanding and appreciation of the visual and the full understanding of the meaning conveyed in it, having knowledge of semiotics and symbols seems necessary. Thus, as also mentioned by Davison (2009), semiotics is the study of icons, indexes and symbols. Dictionary of Literary defines semiotic or semiology as the study of symbol systems or as stated by Masood and Zain (2011) it is the offering of meaning to symbols either in linguistic or non-linguistic form of it. Not only the relationship of symbols and objects is studied in this branch of knowledge, but it also concerns the exploring of the relations between the symbols of the symbol system or code structure (Chandler, 2007).

Hence, since one can easily see visual works in all types of art works such as photography, painting, drawing, and poster, it can be concluded that as is discussed by Masood and Zain (2011), what is conveyed by art is our present life, how people respond to different events, situations and phenomena as well as the artist's feeling and passion. As many scholars such as Ferreira (2007), Temple (2005) and Smith-Shank (1995) have stated for the perception of the concept of semiotics in art one needs to take into account the role of culture. This is due to the fact that not only the two phenomena, that are art and culture, intricately related to each other, but various features of art works are rooted in culture. As a result, one can truly come to this conclusion that the scripts and sings that have been employed by human in different situations have roots from the human culture.

Different scholars have defined culture. For Tavin (2000), it is a fundament, a product, an art and identity, which since it have deeply influenced the everyday lives of its members, the people of that culture are engaged with it and use it in their everyday lives. It is a very complicated and hence diverse entity, which is manifested differently from place to place or from person to person. Concerning the fulfillment of human requirements, the society should predictably accept and respect cultural differences (Shahidi, Bemanian, Almasifar, & Okhovat, 2010).

As an example, *Medieval* colour symbolism can be mentioned in which black, white, and red symbolized penance, innocence and purity, and Pentecostal fire respectively. Abstract painters for the expression of ideas in the early 20th century also exploited the use of colour. The first attempts to produce a 'grammar' of for the works of Malevich, Mondrian, Kandinsky and others (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2002, 2006) did the language of colour.

Gage (2000) stated that a systematically hermetic prospect of universality was offered by this 'language' and 'grammar'. However, the question has remained unanswered that whether the try to change the semiotics landscape via the development of a language of colour is just a mere failure in the 'first try' (Halliday, 1993) or the end of all of the attempts made is unclear and requires to be studied more (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2002).

8. Visual Semiotics

It was during the 20th century that semiotics developed to its present status which is known as social semiotics (Chandler, 2007; Van Leeuwen, 2005). It has extended to also cover and apply to social constructs and has developed beyond the structural conventions of the traditional concepts of signifier and signified (Aiello, 2006; Chandler, 2007). In addition to this, many scholars Barthes (1993); Jewitt and Oyama (2001); Van Leeuwen (2001) has pointed out to the inclusion of visual culture in social semiotics.

For rendering photograph within the area of visual semiotics the French semiologist, Barthes, is regarded as the accepted source. To be more exact, two levels of denotation and connotation of photographic functionality were constructed by him (Aiello, 2006; Hall, 1997; Van Leeuwen, 2001). According to Van Leeuwen (2005), the way of representation is what the Barthesian visual semiotics deals with. To put in other words, it is the analysis of what and how a photograph represents. The minimally functioning of the image at two levels is the answer of Barthes to the question representation. This is what is explained as "layering of meaning" (Van Leeuwen, 2005). In this regard the first layer deals with who or what that is depicted or in other words the denotation layer, while the second layer or the connotation layer explores the ideas and values that are expressed via what is represented or in what way it is represented.

According to Rose (2011), regarding from an epistemological perspective, the likeliness of the signifier to the signified is the first instance of the visual image that is functioned iconically. However, this is not the case for the second instance of the photographic image. At this level, a deep ontological shift can be seen and meanings are conveyed more symbolically at the ideological level. Therefore, one can explore the different forms of stereotyping or representation such as racial, gender, etc. at the connotation layer within images of visual mass media (Murray, 2008; Ownby, 2011; Wells, 2004).

9. Land Art

In line with the descriptions and outlooks offered, it could be mentioned that the Land art or all arts in the nature is the creation of a conversation, which is going on between the artist and nature (Mikash, 2009). The environmental artist tries to escape from the dark, noisy, and small environments of the galleries. He is interested in seeking refuge and protection to the earth and nature and to be able to make a link and a dialogue with it (Lucie-Smith, 2002). Land Art engages creating sculptures by means of merely natural substances collected close to where the sculpture is built. A lot of them are transient and will live merely a short time earlier than the tide or the wind destroys it. The photographer should try to take the most essential and lively instant of all sculptures in an image before their destruction (Grande, 2004).

According to Kastner (2010), Land artworks can take people to a trip; they are appealing to one's feelings as well and incite one's cognition. They create the mood of going through a novel aspect and stepping another world, time, position or mode of believing (Lailach, 2007). When considering landscape architecture or land-art, the aforementioned issues can be extremely seen, since these artworks will not enter any museums, they ought to be independently observed and felt on their original position, not in a gallery in which many artworks can be concentrated and focused on in one session (Jansa, 2011).

According to Miles (1997), another specific matter is the prevalent clarification of these artworks, they are not seen just by specific art-concerned people; they are observed by a large variety of people, who perhaps have not faced with art in museums and galleries. Land-Art as an interconnected artistic mode is somewhat incomprehensible, since the word covers a huge variety of works and artists. Many modes have a merely peripheral association with others (Mikash, 2009). Dempsey (2010) believes that Land Art is also named as "Ecological Art", "Earth Art", "Earth works", "Environmental Art" and so on. In the middle of the 60s, the earth started to be a replacement for picture as an artistic mode that the tendency to go by the limitations of conventional art performance, like painting and sculpture, primarily in the facet of substances and working sites (Jansa, 2011; Lailach, 2007).

In addition, Weilacher (1999) stated that land art is attempting to recreate a probable association between human and nature in a nonviolent place. According to him, land-art is actually grasped by looking for a novel language in the nature; however, it has gained such a fashionable appearance that its real notion is not much talked about. He thinks, nowadays, any kind of apparently the artistic plan is regarded as land art, devoid of critical outlook and exclusive of a great deal of admiration about its real message.

According to Lailach (2007), artists in the US and Europe went out of cities and created a novel kind of artworks, named land art. They designed works for places exterior the thin halls of galleries and museums. They started with departing from fleeting improvements or hints in landscapes, in the deserts of America, or in the Scottish deserts. Land art in its early phases was extremely influenced by increasing care for environmental matters and risks of environmental pollutions and the dangers that may be caused by consumerism in the modern world in the future; many artworks express dissimilarly noticeable meanings about the particular subjects (Stieff, 2011). Considering this subject, Earth artists make us view the art in landscape, or care about the nature and give value to it as much as we give to art (Dempsey, 2010).

Tufnell (2006) stated that Land artists made a significant worldwide movement, comprising constituents of plainness, performance, photography, sculpture, and abstract art. Similarly, novel modes and facets of dealing with earth are illustrated by the artists who have also no fear of mixing these approaches with notions of design and art. Land art can reinstate landscape architecture and its aged agreement for the captured connection of places and visions (Grande, 2004; Jansa, 2011). John Dixon Hunt thinks that land art is exceeding for its original sentiments and its fair source of visions in the gloomy conceptual view of landscape architecture (Weilacher, 1999).

The major argument of the Soros (2012) study, in the distorting the limitations between land art and poetry in the work of Zurita, is about two works that are entirely opposite each other in their configuration and transience; however, both could be realized as land art or earthworks in modern art history expressions (White, 2012). One is a temporary airborne artwork that was done in 1982 in the sky over New York City as Chile was ruled by a

military authoritarianism. Actually, it was the verse "La vida nueva". It includes fifteen lines written in the sky using airplanes that ejected smoke with flying in a dot-matrix style. Photographers took pictures from this artwork (in five parts in sets of three) like other earth art or ecological artworks, performances and so forth while this artwork was being made by airplane in the sky. However, it was a particular artwork since it was done not on the earth but in the sky. Chilean artist Downey also recorded it on video in 1982. The second artwork was a poem, which was written, on the desert in 1993. It was done in northern Chile's Atacama Desert once democracy had come again to the country that was everlasting and earthly. This written artwork was taken picture in black and white and added in the book La vida nueva in 1994.

In this study after discussing cited art works, Soros (2012) clarified the concept of this artwork. He stated that a practical notion for comprehending this type of work is the concept of icon, text, which was created by Talens (2009) in the Spanish critical medium. Based on Zurita's works, the textual discipline comprises of a visual text, which is also a printed text. In this regard, textual and iconic principles exist at the same time. Prior to discussing the land art, which is connected with Zurita's works, it is significant to talk about modern art works that employ this process in an attempt to place them in a visual arts' framework. In the conclusion, the researcher, following a number of assessments, placed Zurita's works in a visual art framework, similar to land art, both due to their literary principles and their multifaceted, iconotextual mode of presentation (Soros, 2012).

10. Review of Literature Pertinent to Land Art

Thornes (2008) declared that Environmental art is offered as a novel type to explain works of art that are openly representative of the environment and also works of art that are evidently not related to the environment. It is clear that this new type of art, nonrepresentational performative environmental art, should be explained as there were many labels given to this sort of art since the late 1960s.

Amizlev (2001) explored the association between prehistory and environmental art or land art as an art form. While comparing the works of some art critics, he realized that some land works are similar to those of the *Nazca* lines in Peru; megalithic remained approximately the same throughout Europe, Japan, the Middle East, and Africa; and the *Hopewell* and *Adena* mountains were found to be the same in the Mid-eastern United States, whereas others were organized astronomically.

Contrary to Amizlev (2001) who examined the link between land art and prehistoric art works in the nature, Deldadeh (2009) centered on ecological art and environmental tendency in Iran. She declared, in Iran, propensities to ecological subjects were not primarily and critically centered by environmental artist as a concern in their artwork; however, in current years, particularly in Iran, environmental matters and crises develop a striking concern in shaping the works of art. This very fact influenced many governmental and personal organizations to be more cautious about environmental matters and join the artists of this artistic movement to encourage the community accepting this global problem and discover novel answers.

Heyd (2002) explored the problems recognized in the concept of nature renewal. He continues to analyze Japanese gardens and earthworks, and both kinds of art shapes foreground the connection of art effectuality with nature. He concluded that the counterintuitive way by which these arts connect us with nature could assist us to perceive the way through which it becomes possible to restore nature.

The specified subject relating to land art and the role of photography to the presentation of this art, in this research, demonstrates that a focus of accomplished researches lies in the history of land art, introducing artists and competent projects done in this branch of the arts, and environmental issues.

11. Discussion and Conclusion

Semiotics is the medium for translating a picture from an image into words. Not all semiotic elements are universally interpreted in a similar way; some are differently perceived regarding to different cultures. This is a fact that the way that different people perceive things cannot be controlled; naturally because, artworks are not an exception and some people interpret them differently from the artist's intended way. Hence, there are some shared symbols and some very specific cultural messages (Bower, 2010). The documentary analysis revealed that semiotics in art works is the study of artworks' signs and symbols, both individually and grouped into systems of signs that can give the viewer more awareness of the artwork's source and its concept. It is a great source to reflect human sentiments. With reference to the incorporation of signs and symbols in order to use art in communicating ideas and concepts as well as the temporary existence of land art works, it is vital for the land art pieces to be photographed in a manner that will accurately deliver the intended message of the artists to the viewers. The semioticians, in line with the significance of semiology, are suggested to utilize the semiotic theories in order to produce unique and everlasting masterpieces in the area of semiotic land art to reflect the

feelings and sentiment of higher order. Furthermore, semiotic should be used through a variety of signs as a teaching strategy to produce a classroom resource in order to improve teaching and learning.

References

Aiello, G. (2006). Theoretical advances in critical visual analysis: Perception, ideology, mythologies, and social semiotics. *Visual Literacy*, 26(2), 89-102.

Alloway, L. (1970). Artists and Photographs. New York: Multiples.

Amizlev, I. (2001). Land art: Layers of memory, The use of prehistoric refrences in land art (Doctoral dissertation). Montreal, Canada.

Archer, M. (2002). Art Since 1960 (2nd ed.). New York: Thames & Hudson.

Barthes, R. (1978). Image-Music-Text (S. Heath, Trans. Reprint ed.). New York: Hill and Wang.

Barthes, R. (1993). Mythologies (A. Lavers, Trans. reprint ed.). Random House.

Barthes, R. (2000). The photographic message. *Theorizing communication: Readings across traditions, 23*(8), 191-199.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind. NewYork: Basic Books.

Berger, A. A. (2011). Media analysis techniques (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Bolin, P. E., & Blandy, D. (2003). Beyond visual culture: Seven statements of support for material culture studies in art education. *Studies in Art Education*, 44(3), 246-263.

Bower, S. (2010). Environmental artist Ahmad Nadalian.

Cawson, A. (2006). Beyond the digital divide: Harnessing the Internet for cross-cultural dialogue. *Zeitschrift für internationale Bildungsforschung und Entwicklungspädagogik*, 29(3).

Chandler, D. (2007). Semiotics: The basics. London: Routledge.

Chung, M. H. (2006). Learning with multiple signs: A semiotic analysis of teacher sketch journals. ProQuest.

Colapietro, V. M., & Olshewsky, T. M. (1996). *Peirce's doctrine of signs: Theory, applications, and connections* (Vol. 123). New York: Walter de Gruyter. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9783110873450

Crow, D. (2003). Visible Signs: An Introduction to Semiotic (3nd ed.). United Kingdom: AVA Publishing.

Danesi, M. (2002). Understanding media semiotics (illustrated ed.). USA: Bloomsbury.

Danesi, M. (2007). The Quest for Meaning: A Guide to Semiotic Theory and Practice. University of Toronto.

Davison, J. (2009). Icon, iconography, iconology: Visual branding, banking and the case of the bowler hat. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 22(6), 883-906.

De Saussure, F., & Baskin, W. (2011). *Course in general linguistics* (W. Baskin, Trans. P. Meisel, Saussy, H., Eds.). New York City: Columbia University Press.

Deely, J., & Brown, K. (2006). History of Semiotics. Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics, 7(1989), 216-29.

Deldadeh, Z. (2009). *Environmental art and Ecological Tendency in Iran*. Unpublished master's thesis, Shahed University, Tehran, Iran.

Dempsey, A. (2010). Destination art. California: University of California Press.

Dijck, J. V. (2008). Digital photography: Communication, identity, memory. *Visual Communication*, 7(1), 57-76. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1470357207084865

Doan, A. (2009). *Ahmad Nadalian Iranian Environmental Artist*. Retrieved December 3, 2012, from http://www.Abigaildoan.blogspot.com/

Duncum, P. (2004). Visual culture isn't just visual: Multiliteracy, multimodality and meaning. *National art education association*, 45(3), 252-264.

Eco, U. (1976). A theory of semiotics. Advances in Semiotics. Bloomington & London: Indiana University Press.

Eco, U. (1979). A theory of semiotics (Vol. 217). Indiana: Indiana University Press.

Edwards, S. (2006). Photography: A very short introduction (Vol. 151). USA: Oxford University Press.

Ferreira, A. (2007). How useful is semiotics as a method for analysing works of art? Retrieved January 25, 2012,

- from http://www.artandperception.com/
- Fontrodona, J. (2002). *Pragmatism and management inquiry: insights from the thought of Charles S. Peirce*. Westport: Quorum Books.
- Foote, K. E. (1988). Object as memory: The material foundations of human semiosis. *Semiotica*, 69(3-4), 243-268. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/semi.1988.69.3-4.243
- Gage, J. (2000). Color and meaning: Art, science, and symbolism. USA: University of California Press.
- Ghal'eh, R. (2009). *The role of archetypes and mythology in land art.* Unpublished master's thesis, Visual art Paradise of Tehran university, Tehran, Iran.
- Gifford, R., Hine, D. W., Muller-Clemm, W., Reynolds, D. J., & Shaw, K. T. (2000). Decoding Modern Architecture A Lens Model Approach for Understanding the Aesthetic Differences of Architects and Laypersons. *Environment and Behavior*, 32(2), 163-187. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00139160021972487
- Graham, A. (2012). Roland Barthes. UK: Routledge.
- Grande, J. K. (2004). Art nature dialogues: Interviews with environmental artists. State Univ. of N. Y. press.
- Grande, J. K. (2005). Artful Ecologies. Nature and environmental conference. University Falmouth Collegeart.
- Hall, S. (1997). Representation: Cultural Representations and Signifying Practices. London: Sage.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). *Language in a changing world*. Centre for Language Learning and Teaching, University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba: Applied Linguistics Association of Australia.
- Hardt, M. (2005). Aesthetics, semiotics & design Strategy plan KHiB (pp. 1-35). National Academy of the Arts.
- Harris, L. R., & Jenkin, M. R. M. (2011). Vision in 3D environments. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Heath, S. (1977). The Rhetoric of the Image: In Image, Music, Text, trans (reprint ed.). New York: Hill & Wang.
- Hedgecoe, J. (2004). Complete Guide to Photography. London: Collins & Brown.
- Hedgecoe, J. (2006). John Hedgecoe's Photography Basics. New York: Sterling.
- Hedgecoe, J. (2008). The Art of Digital Photography. England: Dorling Kindersley.
- Heyd, T. (2002). Nature restoration without dissimulation: Learning from Japanese gardens and earthworks. *Essays in philosophy, 3*(1), 12.
- Hjort, M., & Laver, S. (1997). Emotion and the Arts. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Intraub, H., Gottesman, C. V., Willey, E. V., & Zuk, I. J. (1996). Boundary extension for briefly glimpsed photographs: Do common perceptual processes result in unexpected memory distortions? *Journal of Memory and Language*, 35(2), 118-134. http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jmla.1996.0007
- Intraub, H., Richardson, M. (1989). Wide-angle memories of close-up scenes. *Journal of Experimental Psycholo -gy: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 15*(2), 179-191. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.15.2. 179
- Iser, W. (2006). How to do theory. London: Wiley.
- Ivanov, V. V. (2008). Semiotics of the 20th century. Sign Systems Studies, (1), 185-244.
- Jansa, N. (2011). *Landscape artists-Between land, art and landscape architecture*. Unpublished master's thesis, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Alnarp, Sweden.
- Jewitt, C., & Oyama, R. (2001). The handbook of visual analysis (Illustrated ed.). London: SAGE.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, *33*(7), 14-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033007014
- Kastner, J. (2010). Land and Environmental art. UK: Phaidon Press.
- Keddie, J. (2009). Resource books for teachers: Imags. USA: Oxford University.
- Kress, G., & Van Leeuwen, T. (2002). Colour as a semiotic mode: Notes for a grammar of colour. *Visual Communication*, 1(3), 343-368. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/147035720200100306
- Kress, G., & Van Leeuwen, T. (2006). Reading images: The grammar of visual design (2nd ed.).
- Lailach, M. (2007). Land Art Germany: Taschen.
- Lawes, R. (2002). Demystifying semiotics: Some key questions answered. *International Journal of Market Research*, 44(3), 251-264.

- Lockwood, N. (2007). Barthes semiotic theory and september 11th, 2001. *Human communication theory*, 1-9. Retrieved from http://www.colorado.edu/
- Long, B. (2012). Complete Digital Photography (7nd ed.). Boston: Course Technology.
- Lucie-Smith, E. (2002). Art tomorrow. USA: Finest.
- Luna, D, Peracchio, L. A., & Juan, M. D. (2002). Cross-cultural and cognitive aspects of website navigation. *Marketing Journal*, 30(4), 397-410.
- Magdy, M. (2008). A Semiotic phenomenology of visual rhetoric: Communication and perception of attributes of cultural sustainability in the visual environment of public housing. North Carolina State University, China.
- Maktabi, M. (2008). A view to the contemporary art's approaches; between staing and leaving. *Ayineh-y Khiyal* 11(5), 30-35.
- Malekinezhad, F. (2012). Application of lens model in measuring responses of urban sculpture between designers and non-designers. Unpublishe master's thesis, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Marasy, M., & Sedigh, O. A. (2009). A Survey on Operation of Photography in Iranian New Arts. *Negareh*, 8-9(5), 83-95.
- Masood, M., & Zain, Z. (2011). Appreciating, interpreting and understanding posters via levels of visual literacy. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology, 59*, 1799-1803.
- McCain, T. A., & Divers, L. (1973). The effect of body type and camera shot on interpersonal attraction and source credibility. *Speech communication Assosiation*. New York: State University.
- Mikash, L. (2009). *Nature, culture, spirituality: Land Art as an embodiment of sacred space*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Colorado, Boulder.
- Miles, M. (1997). Art, space and the city: Public art and urban futures. London: Routledge.
- Millis, K. (2001). Making meaning brings pleasure: The influence of titles on aesthetic experiences. *Emotion*, *1*(3), 320. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1528-3542.1.3.320
- Ming, Z. X. X. (2012). The Study of Pierce's Semiotics and the Linguistic World View Theory. *Signs-International Journal of Semiotics*, 32, 56-68.
- Morgan, J., & Welton, P. (1992). See what I mean: An introduction to visual communication. Edward Arnold.
- Moriarty, S. (2005). Visual semiotics theory. *Handbook of visual communication: Theory, methods, and media, 8*, 227-241.
- Muller, A. (2005). A concepts of culture: Art, politics, and society. Calgary: University of Calgary Press.
- Murray, S. (2008). Digital images, photo-sharing, and our shifting notions of everyday aesthetics. *Visual Culture*, 7(2), 147-163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1470412908091935
- Nadalian, A. (2011). The manifestation of primitive and ancient patterns[motifs] in land art. *Negareh: Shahed University*, 4(13), 93-105.
- Novitz, D. (1996). Disputes about art. *The Journal of aesthetics and art criticism*, 54(2), 153-163. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/431087
- Oliva, A., Park, S., & Konkle, T. (2011). *Representing, perceiving and remembering the shape of visual space*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Oliva, A., & Torralba, A. (2002). *Scene-centered description from spatial envelope properties*. Paper presented at the Biologically motivated computer vision Germany. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/3-540-36181-2_26
- Oliva, A., & Torralba, A. (2006). Building the gist of a scene: The role of global image features in recognition. *In Visual Perception, Progress in brain research*, 155, 23-36.
- Ownby, T. D. (2011). Wunderkammers, photographs, and growing up southern: A visual semiotic analysis of self-identity through autoethnography. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Colorado State, Fort Collins.
- Özbilen, A., & Kalin, A. (2001). The semantic value of plants in the perception of space. *Building and Environment*, 36(2), 257-279. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0360-1323(99)00058-X
- Parker, B. D. (2010). Assessing interpretability of visual symbols of varied colors across demographic profiles. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rochester Institute of Technology, Retrieved, New York.
- Peterson, B. (2003). Learning to see creatively: Design, color and composition in photography. Amphoto Books.

- Petrilli, S., & Ponzio, A. (2007). Semiotics today. From global semiotics to semioethics, a dialogic response. *Signs*, 1, 29-127.
- Quin, R. (1997). In the picture: Reading visual language. Australia: Curriculum Press.
- Rolling Jr, J. H. (2008). Rethinking relevance in art education: Paradigm shifts and policy problematics in the wake of the information age. *International Journal of Education & the Arts*, *9*, 1-19.
- Rose, G. (2011). Visual methodologies: An introduction to researching with visual materials (3rd ed.). SAGE.
- Sebeok, T. A. (2001). Signs: An introduction to semiotics. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Shahidi, M., Bemanian, M. R., Almasifar, N., & Okhovat, H. (2010). A Study on Cultural and Environmental Basics at Formal Elements of Persian Gardens (before & after Islam). *Asian Culture and History*, 2(2), 133-152. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ach.v2n2p133
- Smith-Shank, D. L. (1995). Semiotic pedagogy and art education. Studies in Art Education, 18(32), 233-241.
- Smith-Shank, D. L. (2004). Semiotics And Visual Culture: Sights, Signs, And Significance. USA: National Art Education Association.
- Smith-Shank, D. L. (2007). Reflections on semiotics, visual culture, and pedagogy. *Semiotica*, 2007(164), 223-234. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/SEM.2007.027
- Soros, J. (2012). Blurring the boundaries between land art and poetry in the work of Raul Zurita. *Review: Literature and Arts of the Americas*, 45(2), 227-235. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08905762.2012.719779
- Stieff, B. (2011). Earth, Sea, Sun, And Sky: Art in Nature New York Perstel.
- Sturken, M., Cartwright, L., & Sturken, M. (2004). *Practices of looking: An introduction to visual culture*. United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Talens, J. (2009). Interview conducted by Juan Soros. Pata de Gallo.
- Tavin, K. (2000). Introduction: The impact of visual culture on art education. *Journal of Multicultural and Cross Cultural Research in Art Education*, 18, 20-23.
- Temple, T. L. (2005). *Influences of visual culture in the design of web-based art education instruction: Using content analysis for interactive research and student opinions to (RE) consider interactive design.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Ohio.
- Thornes, J. E. (2008). A rough guide to environmental art. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, *33*, 391-411. http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.environ.31.042605.134920
- Tsotra, D., Janson, M., & Cecez-Kecmanovic, D. (2004). *Marketing on the Internet: A semiotic analysis*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the tenth Americas Conference on Information Systems, New York.
- Tufnell, B. (2006). Land art. University of California: Tate.
- Umbanhowar, E. (2005). Public art: Linking form, function and meaning. Landscape architecture, 98(4).
- Van Leeuwen, T. (2001). Semiotics and iconography The Handbook of Visual Analysis (pp. 92-118). SAGE.
- Van Leeuwen, T. (2005). Introducing social semiotics: An introductory textbook (illustrated ed.). Routledge.
- Wall, J. (1965). Marks of indifference: Aspects of photography in, or as, conceptual art. *Reconsidering the Object of Art, 1975*(253), 32-44.
- Weilacher, U. (1999). Between landscape architecture and land art. Berlin: Birkhäuser.
- Welling, H. (2005). The intuitive process: the case of psychotherapy. *Journal of Psychotherapy Integration*, 15(1), 19-47. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1053-0479.15.1.19
- Wells, L. (2004). Photography: A Critical Introduction (L. Wells Ed. 3rd ed.). London: Routledge.
- White, S. F. (2012). Like a River: An Introduction to Contemporary Latin American Eco-Literature. *Review: Literature and Arts of the Americas*, 45(85), 151-156. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08905762.2012.719765
- Williams, R. C. (1968). The value of varying film shot on interest level. Speech Monographs, 35,166-169.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

An Analysis on Shihab's Methodology: How do Pronouns Applied?

Muhd Najib Abdul Kadir¹, Abur Hamdi Usman¹, Mazlan Ibrahim¹ & Mohd Akil Muhamed Ali¹

Correspondence: Abur Hamdi Usman. Department of Theology and Philosophy, Faculty of Islamic Studies, The National University of Malaysia, 43600, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia. Tel: 60-16-690-5082. E-mail: aburhamdiusman@yahoo.com

Received: June 16, 2013 Accepted: July 8, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p185 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p185

Abstract

Shihab is an Islamic scholar who have prolifically produced a comprehensive 30 chapters of Qur'anic exegesis entitled *Tafsir Al-Mishbah*. This book is perceived as the latest Qur'anic exegesis produced by Muslim scholar of the Archipelago. He stresses on the importance of understanding the Qur'an contextually, supported by a strong understanding of the language and not focusing only on the textual meaning. In relation to this, his work has used a lot of linguistics approaches as to obtain the actual verses exegeses. Therefore, this study seeks to analyse critically his linguistics exegesis, and the focus rests on the debate on pronouns. To obtain a expliciter perspective, this study has adopted the library research and document analysis method by making language and reliable popular Qur'anic exegesis books as primary sources of reference. The outcome of this study finds that Shihab had applied five rules in relation to pronouns, all of which have been approved by scholars and exegetes.

Keywords: Arabic, syntax, linguistics, Indonesia, exegesis, pronouns

1. Introduction

Tafsir (exegesis) of the Qur'an is the most important science for Muslims. All matters concerning the Islamic way of life are connected to it in one sense or another since the right application of Islam is based on proper understanding of the guidance from Allah. Without tafsir there would be no right understanding of various passages of the Qur'an. There are a number of reasons why tafsir is of great importance (Von Denver, 1983), but the basic reason is the following: Allah has sent the Qur'an as a book of guidance to mankind. Man's purpose is to worship Allah, i.e. to seek His pleasure by living the way of life Allah has invited him to adopt. He can do so within the framework of the guidance that Allah has revealed concerning this, but he can do so only if he properly understands its meanings and implications.

Arabic is the most developed Semitic language today and it is one of the major languages of the world. Arabic is spoken in large parts of the world extending from the Arabian Peninsula to the Atlantic Ocean. It has become an interest for millions of non-Arab Muslims, who do not speak it as a native language, to learn it at different levels, mainly because it is the language of the holy book, the Qur'an, and all Islamic terms are in Arabic (Hanan et al., 2013).

Islamic laws and principles, like all laws, have certain general and specific goal which they are designed to achieve. In order to achieve these goals, the laws address society under a given set of circumstances, at the other times to particular people in special situations, and at other times to particular people in all situations. Hence the language by which these laws are delivered has to accurately distinguish between the various cases in order to avoid any confusion and misinterpretation. The Arabic language in wich the Qur'an was qonveyed has a number of words, phrases and grammatical construction wich express the various shades of meanings necessary to clarify the intent of the laws (Ameenah, 2002).

2. Method

This article represents a humble attempt to explore and analysis of Shihab's linguistic method focusing on the rules of pronouns to strengthen his argument pertaining the Qur'anic exegesis. The elaborations begins with a brief biography to know his persona and works as an eminent exegete in Indonesia, followed by definition of the terms. Therefore, the data collection is the most common method to obtain data or facts related to the subject of research. The first source is *Tafsir Al-Mishbah* written by Shihab himself. Other sources include books, journals,

¹ Faculty of Islamic Studies, The National University of Malaysia, Malaysia

written papers and other suitable materials. All of these materials will be discussed in this article through the adoption of the library research method.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Shihab: A Brief Biography and Works

Shihab was born in Rappang, South Sulawesi on 16th February 1944. His early education was obtained from his father, Abdulrahman Shihab. His love towards the Qur'an blossomed from the age of six (Shihab, 1992). As a son of a famous exegete, he was often brought by his mother to attend religious classes given by his father. His mother also sparked his interest, as her constant encourgements and guidance resulted in his decision to further his studies in the same field (Naja, 2007). Other than his parents' early involvements at home, he also studied at Pondok Pesantren Darul Hadith al-Faqihiyyah, Malang. Soon after, in 1958 the state of Sulawesi awarded him a scholarship to study at the University of al-Azhar, Cairo, Egypt, and he was accepted to move up to grade two *thanawiyyah* al-Azhar. His academic journey later took him to the Department of Theology, University of al-Azhar majoring in *Tafsir* and *Hadith*. He completed his bachelor degree in 1967. Two years later in 1969, he managed to obtain a master degree in the same field (Shihab, 2011a).

In 1980, Shihab furthered his Ph.D degree in the same university. He completed his study in two years and obtained *mumtaz ma^ca martabah al-sharaf al-ula* grade 'an exemplary scholar with outstanding performance'. His outstanding results qualified him as the first South East Asian student to obtain a Ph.D degree in Qur'anic sciences from al-Azhar University (Subhan, 1993). The process of intellectual growth experienced by Shihab for 13 years at the University of al-Azhar shaped his form of thought. In addition, he is also known as a religious figure, educator and he also has his own publication house, Lentera Hati Publisher. Furthermore, Al-Darraz (1991) has stated that a scholarly work could not escape seven points, namely: a totally new article, completing the incomplete, explaining the vague and difficult, summarizing the long, updating the mixed, purifying the wrong and collecting the scattered. According to Ibrahim and Usman (2013a) Shihab does all these things well, and even links the limitations which often happen when someone wants to clarify the terms of Islamic scholarship in Arabic into Indonesian language quite successfully. Therefore, there is no doubt that this Indonesian scholar is named a credible and respectable expert in the Qur'anic exegesis. To better gain understanding on Shihab contributions in Qur'anic exegesis, the researchers elaborated on his academic writings as mentioned below:

Shihab is able to connect his ideas to the readers well proven with several of his books reprinted several times as well as becoming best sellers. One of his works entitled *Tafsir al-Amanah* and *Membumikan al-Qur'an: Fungsi Wahyu dalam Kehidupan Masyarakat* obtained appreciation as the most in demand books in 1993 published by Mizan Publication (Subhan, 1993). His academic works published for the public are in analytic and global exegesis. Shihab began his writing with applying this method in 1986 (four years after completing his Ph.D) until 2008 with six publications.

Other than that, he wrote books pertaining to the thematic exegesis from 1991 until 2011 with fourteen works published. It is an indicator that the approach applied is continuously practiced in all his works. He also wrote books pertaining to Islamic knowledge in general. Based on the books reviewed, Shihab's career in writing on general Islamic knowledge from 1984 until 2011 with sixteen publications altogether. In addition, Shihab's writings in the field of religious issues were also evident. He is very much careful in producing works related to legal opinion 'fatwa' or providing answers pertaining to religious doubts. He often rejects tasks in managing activities relating to fatwa. He requests them to be handled by others who are more knowledgeable in the said field. But due to ample requests by many as well as encouragements obtained from friends and the fear of accusations of hiding knowledge, he finally agreed to fulfill the responsibility whole heartedly (Shihab, 2011b).

Shihab's masterpierce work is *Tafsir Al-Mishbah* as well as dozens of other books. This book is perceived as the latest Qur'anic exegesis produced by Muslim scholar of the Archipelago. It is a complete exegesis consists of 30 parts and 15 volumes. It is written when he was Ambassador of the Republic of Indonesia in Egypt and is completed after four years. It started in Cairo on Friday 18 June 1999 and finished in Jakarta on Friday, 5 September 2003 after spending approximately seven hours per day (Ibrahim & Usman, 2013b).

3.2 The Notion of Pronouns: Arabic Terminology

A pronoun 'al-damir' plays a significant role in the Arabic sentence structure. It is an important characteristic in the sentence construction of the Arabic language. Linguistically, pronoun means the secret and something hidden inside. It also means keeping something secret in one's heart (Ibn Manzur, 2012). It is derived from the letters

dad mim ra with two meanings, with the first is: showing carefulness in something, whereas the second meaning shows something non-existent and hidden or shielded (Faris, 1979).

A pronoun may be defined as a part of speech belonging to the broad class of nominals that stand or subtitute for a noun. Unlike nouns, pronouns form small, closed classes, whose reference can only be determined from the context of the utterance in which they are used. In inflected language like Arabic, pronouns often have heterogeneous inflectional pattern which differ from those of nouns themselves, and indeed Arabic is no exception here (Appleyard, 2008).

In regard to the term of *al-damir* it means something used as a substitute to explain the word *al-mutakallim* 'addresser or the first-person speaker', *al-mukhatab* 'addressee, or the second-person' or *al-ghaib* 'the subject of discourse or third-person' (al-Ghalayayni, 1989). It is placed on the original word replaced, for example *ahmad talib, huwa mujtahid* 'Ahmad is a student, He is a hardworking student'. Thus, *damir al-ghaib* for *huwa* 'he' is used as a substitute to explain the third person point of view it is placed on the original word replaced which is Ahmad. There are some scholars who define it as a proper noun showing the masculine and feminine third-person, the masculine and feminine second-person, and the first person (Fawwal, 1992).

Based on this definition, it can be concluded that *al-damir* in Arabic, assumes the role as a pronoun, either for the first, second or the third person.

3.2.1 The Explicit Pronouns

Moreover, Ya^cqub (2006) states that the pronouns in Arabic are divided into two types: explicit 'bariz' and implicit 'mustatir'. Explicit pronouns which is pronounced, such as the two pronouns (ana) and (tu) in ana katabtu 'I wrote'. They are divided into bound 'muttasilah' and independent 'munfasilah'. The bound pronouns occur added to finite verbs as objects, or added to nouns as possessives and prepositions as objects. The forms in both functions are identical except in the first person singular (Appleyard, 2008), and they are as follows:

Table 1. The bound pronouns

	singular	dual	plural
1 st pers.	-i / -ya		-na
	-ni		
2 nd pers. masc.	-ka	-kuma	-kum
2 nd pers. fem.	-ki	-kuma	-kunna
3 rd pers. masc.	-hu / -hi	-huma / -hima	-hum / -him
3 rd pers. fem.	-ha	huma / -hima	-hunna / -hinna

Table 2. The independent pronouns

	singular	dual	plural
1 st pers.	ana (I)		nahnu (we)
2 nd pers. masc.	anta (you)	antuma (you two)	antum (you)
2 nd pers. fem.	anti (you)	antuma (you two)	antunna (you)
3 rd pers. masc.	huwa (he)	huma (they two)	hum (they)
3 rd pers. fem.	hiya (she)	huma (they two)	hunna (they)

In lieu of that, Ya^cqub (2006) states that bound pronouns are divided into three types according to their case:

In the nominative case 'al-rafe' and its connect with verb only: these are -tu, -naa, -ta, -ti, -tuma, -tum, -tumna, -aa, -taa, -uu, and na. Example: qumtu 'I stood up'.

i. In the accusative case 'al-nasb' and its connect with verb only: these are -ni / -i, -naa, -ka, -ki, -kuma, -kum, -kunna, -hu, -ha, -huma, -hum, -huma. Example: akramani rabbi 'my God honored me'.

In the genitive case 'al-jar', as the pronouns above (accusative) but its connect with nouns. Example: kitabi 'my book'.

Other than that, the independent pronouns are referred to as subject pronouns since they can serve as the subjects of verbs or of equational sentences and they correspond to the set of English subject pronouns (Ryding, 2005), and they are as follows:

Furthermore, the independent pronouns come under two cases:

i. Nominative, as seen above.

ii. Accusative: the first person *iyyaya* for singular and *iyyana* for plural, the second person *iyyaka* and *iyyaki* for singular, *iyyakuma* for dual, *iyyakum* and *iyyakunna* for plural, and the third person (*iyyahu* and *iyyaha*) for singular, *iyyahuma* for dual, *iyyahuma* and *iyyahunna* for plural.

3.2.2 The Implicit Pronouns

The implicit pronouns are not pronounced, but counted, such as the subject of the verb *yajtahidu*, which is the implicit pronoun *huwa* to mean *huwa yajtahidu* 'he works hard'. They are divided into two types:

Permissibility '*jawazan*', when its able to connect with explicit pronouns. It occurs on the verb used for the third person singular (masculine or feminine), such as *Sa^cid ijtahada* 'Sa^cid was vigorously' or *Fatimah tajtahidu* 'Fatimah was vigorously' (al-Ghalayayni, 1989). In both sentences, Sa^cid or Fatimah should be implicit pronouns are assumed to be *huwa* or *hiya* referring to Sa^cid or Fatimah.

- i. Obligatory 'wujuban', when unable to connect with explicit pronouns, and occurs in some circumstances following (al-Ghalayayni, 1989):
- 1) The verb used to addresser either singular or plural conditions, e.g. *ajtahidu* 'I work hard', *najtahidu* 'We work hard'.
- 2) The verb used to indicate a singular addressee, such as *ijtahid* 'you, work hard!'
- 3) Infinitive noun 'ism $fi^c l$ ' used to addresser or addressee, such as *uffin* 'uhh', sah 'silent'.
- 4) Exclamation verb 'fi^cl al-ta^cjub' using pattern ma af ala, such as ma aḥsana al-cilm 'how beautiful knowledge!'
- 5) Particles of exception 'af' al istithna', namely: khala, ^cada, khasya, laysa, la yakun, such as ja'a al-qawm ma khala zuhayran 'the people had come except Zuhair'.
- 6) Verbal noun 'al-masdar', such as sabran 'ala shadaid 'have patience with difficulties'.

Theoretically, to pursuing this idea, the structure of pronouns with the (slightly simplified) in figure 1: (Note 1)

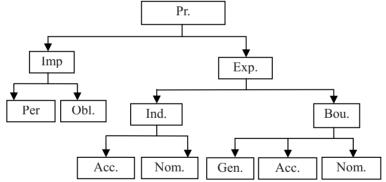


Figure 1. The structure of Arabic pronouns

3.3 Pronouns: The Rules and Analysis

Shihab was very concerned about the importance of language in exegeting the Qur'an. One of his approaches is defining the Qur'an based on pronouns arguments. This study finds there are five pronouns rules that he has applied in *Tafsir Al-Mishbah*, and they are:

I. RULE: There are two names mentioned in some cases, but the pronoun only applies to one of the names as it has covered others, although what is implied is actually both.

This rule means that there is a time when the Qur'an speaks of two things, but it uses a pronoun that refers to one of the things concerned. This is because, the pronoun used covers both things that are mentioned (al-Sabt, 2001). The use of this rule is also highlighted by the scholars, such as ^cAshur (1984), al-Zarkashi (1988) and also al-Qurtubi (1964).

The example of the rule is when Shihab interpreted sura al-Tawbah (The Repentance) verse 62 as follows:

"Yahlifuna billahi lakum liyurdukum wallahu wa rasuluhu ahaggu ^can yurduhu in kanu mu'minin."

"They swear by Allah to you [Muslims] to satisfy you. But Allah and His Messenger are more worthy for them to satisfy, if they should be believers."

According to Shihab (2010) the pronoun of *yurduhu* 'to please Him' uses a singular form, which is intended for Allah and His Prophet. He states that the pronoun on that verse only refers to one, which is Allah as, in reality, it is only His blessings and mercy that must be sought. Other than that, the aim is not to make it 'The Almighty' synonymous with any creature, despite the high position that the creature occupies.

Based on his exegesis, it is understood that the pronoun of *hu* 'Him' using the singular form on the utterance of *yurduhu* only refers to one, which is Allah. This is in spite of the fact that the reference is is used for two *an yurduhuma* 'to please them both', which are Allah and the Prophet. This is because, the meaning of the verse demands that only Allah's blessings matter, while the blessings of the Prophet is also confined in those of Allah. The other aim is not to make Allah's position similar to that of His creations, although the Prophet's position itself is very noble and high. Therefore, the justification as put forth by Shihab means that it is unfavourable to represent Allah and the Prophet in one pronoun.

In this vein, the views of exegetes contradict with Shihab's exegesis. Ibn ^cAtiyyah (2001) for instance, states that there are times when the pronoun used refers to both, as dictated by Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) as follows:

'Adi b. Hatim reported: that a person recited a sermon before the Messenger of Allah thus: He who obeys Allah and His Apostle, he in fact follows the right path, and he who disobeys both of them, he goes astray. Upon this the Messenger of Allah said: What a bad speaker you are; say: He who disobeys Allah and His Apostle. Ibn Numair added: He in fact went astray.

The *hadith* clearly demonstrates that Allah and the Prophet (pbuh) are represented by a pronoun that refers to both at the same time, which is *huma* 'both of them' (Muslim, 2000). However, Ibn ^cAtiyyah also confirms the rule of exegesis mentioned above. Moreover, Appleyard (2008) states that pronouns are also subject to agreement with their referents in terms of gender and number, but in Arabic they do not exhibit case marking.

Thus, Al-Zarkashi (1988) reveals the secret behind the usage of the singular pronoun referrring to the Prophet (pbuh) in the verse above. Al-Zarkashi states that this is explained by Rasulullah's duties and uniqueness in preaching and asking human to follow the path of Allah and it becomes an argument to them after they are given explanation about things that they are supposed to do and things that they are prohibited from doing. The mention of the name of Allah here implies a sign of glorification 'tacziman' towards Him, and the meaning is not affected, although the pronoun only refers to the Prophet (pbuh). The content of the meaning of this verse is similar to that of others, which is shown in sura al-Anfal (The Spoils of War) verse 20 and al-Nur (The Light) verse 48.

II. RULE: On its original position, damir al-ghaib must precede it.

The above rule has been mentioned by al-Qattan (1992) and al-Zarkashi (1988) where the aim is to know beforehand the meaning implied by the pronouns. Therefore, *damir al-ghaib* cannot be referred to the utterance after it, either in terms of utterance or positioning, unless there is indication '*qarinah*' showing that the returning place is on the same utterance. As expressed by ibn Malik in his book *Tashil al-Fawaid* as cited by al-Qattan, it is stated that at the original place of pronouns must be put first and it cannot be otherwise, unless there is evidence stating so. The evidence is either stated clearly by the utterance, or known through the existence of the evidence which is sensory '*hissi*' in attribute, or coming in the form of analysis '*cilmi*'. The evidence does mention it is either part of, all of, half of, or anything that is included in any possible form.

Based on the statement above, damir al-ghaib as a reference is an utterance performed previously either in the form of explicit 'malfuzan' or implicit 'mutadamminan'. Therefore, when the exegete comes to any verses containing damir al-ghaib, then he must refer it to the previous utterance. This cannot be disobeyed, or violated, except for when there is an indicator or other reasons that enable the non-referencing of damir al-ghaib to the previous utterance.

Another rule that is consistent with the above rule is as has been mentioned by al-Sabt (2001) which means that sometimes, the place of reference of *damir al-ghaib* is not mentioned, but understood based on the context of the verse. Thus, there are many verses in the Qur'an in which the antecedent of the pronoun is absent. The context plays a significant role in determining the antecedent. However, resorting to the interpretations of the Qur'an is decisive in deciding what the antecedent is, particularly when the pronoun is located in the first verse of the *sura* (Abdulwahid, 2009). The example of the rule being used (pronouns described in an explicit manner) in *Tafsir Al-Mishbah* can be seen in *sura al-Qadr* (The Power) verse 1 as in the following:

"Indeed, We sent the Our'an down during the Night of Decree."

While exegeting *anzalnahu* 'We sent it down', Shihab (2010) states that on that verse, the utterance of *al-Qur'an* is not stated clearly, only demonstrated by the pronoun of *hu* 'it'. Presumably, this is is to bring an impact towards the grandness of the decree of Allah, as one of the forms of worship known in language is not to utter the name being worshipped, as long as there is *qarinah* which can bing the listeners or the speakers to the worshipped. (Note 2)

Based on this exegesis, the pronoun implied on the utterance *anzalnahu* is the Qur'an, as the utterance *al-inzal* 'sent down' on this verse definitely shows '*iltizam*' that the reference '*marji*^c' implied by the pronoun is the Qur'an, and this is supported by the context of the verse being discussed. With this, the utterance of *al-Qur'an* does not have to be used in this verse as addressers or addresses have understood that 'We sent down' is definitely the Qur'an before (al-Qurtubi, 1964). Such an exegesis is also proffered by al-Shanqiti (1995) who states that the context of the verse proving that the pronoun *hu* is the fourth verse "*tannazalu al-malaikah wa al-ruh fiha*" 'The angels and the Spirit descend there' where *al-ruh* 'the Spirit' is Jibril, so the pronoun on *anzalna* refers to something other than Jibril. Thus, Al-Alusi (1994) states that as for the secret of the usage of *damir al-gahib*, the utterance of *al-Qur'an* is not stated clearly on the previous verse showing the wondrous and ultimate position of the Qur'an.

Other than that, an example of the rule being used on the pronoun described implicitly is shown in Shihab's exegesis in *sura Sad* (The Letter Sad) verse 67 to 69 as follows:

"Qul huwa naba'un ^cazim. Antum ^canhu mu^cridun. Ma kana liya min ^cilmin bil mala'il a^cla idh yakhtasimun."

"Say, "It is great news. From which you turn away. I had no knowledge of the exalted assembly [of angels] when they were disputing [the creation of Adam]."

According to Shihab (2010) the utterance of *huwa* 'he' can be understood in terms of the deliverance of Muhammad (pbuh) and as contained in the previous verses, among which the teachings of unification 'tawheed' or information of the Qur'an on the truth of the Hereafter and the quarrellings of the inhabitants of Hell. The verse also serves as a new elaboration, therefore, *huwa* does not pertain to previous elaborations but to the future, as evidenced by verse 71 (*sura Sad*) and so on, which account for the story of Adam (as), the Angels and the Satan's hesitance to succumb to Adam (as). If this is the meaning that you choose, then *yakhtasimun* 'they were disputing' on verse 69 denotes the difference of the attitude of the angels and the Satan towards Adam (as). Even before protesting, the Satan has already been regarded as one of the members of *al-mala' al-a'la* 'the exalted assembly of angels', especially when at the time it was 'included' in the group of angels, whereby although the Satan does not come from the angels, they are the Jinns. The first opinion is better and consolidated by verse 68 which stresses on why they have deviated. On this note, everyone knows that the 'deviance' implied does not have anything to do with the reluctance of the Satan to surrender, but more to the Qur'anic demands which include the truth of the Hereafter and the existence of Heaven and Hell.

According to this exegesis, Shihab has given two views which explain about the referent pronoun of *huwa* in *sura Sad* verse 67. The first view suggests that the reference goes back to the news about the Hereafter and how it is in the Afterlife. This has been discussed in the previous verses. The second view refers back to the reluctance of Satan to surrender to Adam (as), in reference to verse 71. Shihab leans more towards the first view, having done a preponderant '*tarjih*' on the second view. The implied meaning explained by the pronoun *huwa* on that verse, according to him, is the explanation on everything that has been conveyed by Muhammad (pbuh) as also contained in the verses before it, such as the teachings of *tawheed*, the truth of the Hereafter and the quarrelings of the inhabitants of Hell.

Furthermore, the exegesis is also shared by al-Qurtubi (1964) who goes on to explain that *huwa* refers to the deliverance of Muhammad (pbuh) on the reminder from the judgement '*hisab*', rewards '*thawab*' and punishment ''*iqab*'. This is implied by great news '*khabarun* '*azim*', as shown in *sura al-Naba*' (The Tidings) verses 1 and 2. Hence, Ibn Kathir (1999) states that *huwa* refers to the Qur'an. Although at a glance, the exegeses of ibn Kathir and Shihab are different, but the reality is same. This is because, the Qur'an contains a lot of messages from Allah to His followers, and the messages are very important for them to remember. This is to ensure their success in both their lives and in their afterlife.

III. RULE: The re-positioning of pronoun is sometimes on the utterance only and not on the meaning.

This rule is stated by al-Qattan (1992), it demands for the exegetes to always be alert with the existence of pronouns on any one verse. There is a time when the pronouns are not limited to utterances in the verse, but

containing the whole meaning that can be supported by the utterance referred by the pronouns. The example is given by Shihab exegesis in *sura Luqman* verse 5 as follows (Note 3):

"Ulaika ^cala hudan min rabbihim wa ulaika humul muflihun".

"Those are on [right] guidance from their Lord, and it is those who are the successful."

Shihab (2010) states that an utterance of *hum* 'those' in the above verse functions to limit happiness only to those discussed in the verse. It is as if other happy people are not measured as such. Such a redaction only aims at mirroring how great the happiness is, and not in the redactive exegesis.

It can be grasped from this exegesis that the pronoun of *hum* refers to the meaning of happiness possessed by anyone discussed in the particular verse, constituted by those who perform their prayer, paying *zakah* (alms-giving) and believe in the Afterlife. Notwithstanding, there is no comprehension on people other than those implied as happy, blessed people. The use of *hum* only seeks to depict the degree of blessing or happiness. Put simply, the re-positioning of *hum* refers only to the utterance and the meaning. Additionally, Shihab exegesis has been strengthened by al-Biqa^ci (1992) in his Book. He states that the phrase *wa ulaika hum* 'and it is those who are' specifies the utterance *al-muflihun* 'the successful', or everyone who has all the attributes that can render them *al-muflihun*.

IV. RULE: Sometimes pronoun is connected with something, but the meaning is for something else.

This rule is stated by al-Zarkashi (1988), it demands for the sensitivity of the exegetes to always take the Qur'an seriously, especially in regard of the verses that contain pronouns. This is because there are the contexts in the previous verses that discuss something in particular, but the pronoun in the next verses does not refer to the particular thing, and instead refers to something else. We see an example given by Shihab when exegeting *sura* ^c*Abasa* (He Frowned) verse 12 below:

"Faman sya'a zakarahu."

"So whoever wills may remember it."

Shihab (2010) states the pronoun of *hu* in the utterance of *zakarah* 'remember', some would see it as referring to Allah. Indeed, in the Qur'an it is not rare to find that the pronoun refers to Allah although there is no previous utterance that refers to Him.

Based on the exegesis, the context of the verse discussed lies in discussing on the Qur'an, as mentioned in verses 2 to 4. However, in this fifth verse, the pronoun of *hu* does not refers to the Qur'an but refers to Allah. In relation to this, it is found that Shihab exegesis is also put forth by 'Ashur (1984) who states that the referent of *hu* in the utterance *zakarahu* can refer to either the Qur'an or to Allah. The reference of *damir al-ghaib* to Allah has been found a great deal in the Qur'an, although it is quite scarcely found in the discussions of verses. This is caused by the order and rules of Allah passed down through the Qur'an. Ibn Kathir (2000) explains that *zakarahu* means remembering Allah in all aspects of life. This is despite the fact that bearing '*ihtimal*' points to the pronoun of *hu* referring to the decree of the Qur'an, as stated in the discussion of the verses.

V. RULE: In several pronoun the meaning is gathered to maintain the appropriateness of utterances and meaning, and the best way to start is by safeguarding the appropriate degree of utterance and then the suitability of the meaning concerned.

This rule is stated by al-Sabt (2001), and the instance of use is when Shihab interprets *sura al-^cAdiyat* (The Courser) verse 7 as follows:

"Wa innahu ^cala dhalika lasyahid".

"And indeed, he is to that a witness."

Shihab (2010) states that the scholars have differing views on who is meant by the utterance *innahu* (And indeed he). Is 'he' refers to Allah or the deviant and greedy human? By observing the order of verses' redaction, that has, all in all, discussed deviant and greedy human, additional to the aim of maintaining the coherence of meaning and order of the redaction of the previous verses, of course it is more precise if this seventh verse makes reference to human beings.

Leaning on this exegesis, Shihab attempts to make consistent between an utterance and the meaning of the verse. At this point, the order of utterance before verse 7 refers to deviants and greedy persons. To maintain the appropriacy of meaning, then the pronoun hu in verse 7 refers to human and not Allah, according to Shihab. In relation to this, the finding reveals that it is also put forth by the exegetes, such as ^cAshur (1984), al-Zamakhshari (1998), al-Sa^cdi (2000), and ibn Kathir (2000). However, al-Tabari (2001) understands that hu in the verse refers

to Allah based on several exegeses that he had composed. Apart from that, the closet pronoun reference (verse 6) indeed refers to Allah, so much so that the pronoun must refer to the closest utterance. Nonetheless, following Abu Hayyan (2000) this cannot be made a point of argument when both references contain a similar meaning. Meanwhile, Ibn ^cAtiyyah (2001) and al-Mawardi (2008) only state the possibility that the pronoun either refers to Allah or human, but they do now show any inclination to choose either one.

Conclusively, despite the fact that Shihab's exegesis is dissimilar to other popular exegetes like al-Tabari. His exegesis also strong as supported by the rule of exegesis mentioned above. Thus, al-Naysaburi (1996) states that *hu* refers to human, for the sake of maintaining the consistency of meaning.

4. Conclusion

We have seen up to this point that Shihab is known as the greatest exegete in Indonesia. His passion towards the Qur'an and its exegesis was initiated by his parents which later developed while he was studying at Pondok Darul Hadith al-Faqihiyyah. His thirst to learn academic traditions had sent him abroad, to the University of al-Azhar, Egypt. He even obtained his Ph.D from the same university. Shihab had experienced the process of intellectual development in the said institution for almost 13 years.

Shihab has very much stressed on the importance of understanding the verses' meanings based on the linguistic analysis, in order for the meaning and the actual message required by the verses to be able to be highlighted. This importance is well-acknowledged and used by him in exegeting Qur'anic verses in *Tafsir Al-Mishbah*. One of the approaches adopted is based on the analysis of pronouns. Therefore, this study finds that the five rules of pronouns that he has adopted are to ensure that the exegesis produced is in line with the requirements of Islamic law. All the five rules adopted are indeed endorsed and concluded by the Muslim scholar and great exegetes. However, there are some of his arguments, which are meant to solidify his exegeses, are in conflict with those of other exegetes. This is justified by the fact that Shihab had been too laid-back and nonchalant about seeking for support from the Hadiths of the Prophet (pbuh). This is something that should not have happened in the first place, as the Hadiths serve as an aid to provide actual understanding over the meaning of the Qur'an.

Acknowledgements

I thank Allah SWT, the Creator and Sustained of the entire universe, for helping me in every single step of this article and for making it possible for others to support me.

I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Assoc. Professor Dr. Mazlan Ibrahim for his invaluable advice in the course of writing my doctoral thesis, on which this article is based, and his kind assistance throughout the completion of this work.

I also appreciate Muhd Najib Abdul Kadir and Mohd Akil Muhamed Ali for his careful review of the language, for his keen interest in correcting linguistic errors, and for his helpful comments and suggestions.

References

Abdulwahid, Y. Y. (2009). The translations of pronouns in the Glorious Qur'an into English. *College of Basic Education Researchers Journal*, 9(1), 413-442.

Abu Hayyan, Y. A. (2000). Al-Bahr al-muhit fi al-tafsir (Vol. 10). Beirut: Dar al-Fikr.

Al-Alusi, S. M. (1994). *Ruh al-ma^cani fi tafsir al-Quran al-^cazim wa sab^cu al-mathani* (Vol. 30). Beirut: Dar Ihya' al-Turath al-^cArabi.

Ameenah, A. B. (2002). *Usool at-tafseer*. Kuala Lumpur: A.S Noordeen.

Appleyard, D. L. (2008). Personal pronouns (standard Arabic). In K. Versteegh (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics* (Vol. 3, pp. 588-589). Leiden, Netherland: Brill.

^cAshur, M. T. (1984). al-Tahrir wa al-tanwir (Vols. 3 & 30). Tunisia: Dar Sahnun.

al-Biqa^ci, B. D. (1992). Nazm al-durar fi tanasub al-ayat wa al-suwar (Vol. 15). Cairo: Dar al-Kutub al-Islami.

al-Darraz, ^cA. (1991). Dustur al-akhlaq fi al-Qur'an. Cairo: Muassasah al-Risalah.

Faris, A. H. (1979). Mu^cjam maqayis al-lughah (Vol. 3). Beirut: Dar al-Fikr.

Fawwal Babti, ^cA. (1992). al-Mu^cjam al-mufassal fi al-nahw al-^cArabi (Vol. 1).

al-Ghalayayni, M. (1989). Jami^c al-durus al-^cArabiah (Vol. 1). Beirut: al-Maktabah al-^cAsriah.

Ibn ^cAtiyyah, A. M. (2001). *al-Muharrar al-wajiz fi tafsir al-kitab al-^caziz* (Vols. 3 & 5). Beirut: Dar al-Kutub al-^cIlmiyyah.

Ibn Kathir, A. F. (2000). Tafsir al-Ouran al-^cAzim (Vols. 7 & 8). Ghiza: Mu'assasah Qurtubah.

Ibn Manzur, M. (2012). Lisan al-cArab (Vol. 4). Beirut: Dar Sadir.

Ibrahim, M., & Usman, A. U. (2013a). M. Quraish Shihab's thought about adulterer and thief in Tafsir Al-Mishbah: A critical analysis. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 7(4), 63-67.

Ibrahim, M., & Usman, A. U. (2013b). Rules of M. Quraish Shihab exegesis in *Tafsir Al-Mishbah. World Journal of Islamic History and Civilization*, 3(3), 101-108. http://dx.doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wjihc.2013.3.3.3303.

Al-Mawardi, A. H. (2008). al-Nuktu wa al-cuyun (Vol. 6). Beirut: Dar al-Kutub al-cIlmiyyah.

Muslim, A. H. (2000). al-Jami^c al-sahih, chap. takhfif al-salah wa al-khutbah (Vol. 3, no. 2047). Dar al-Jil.

Naja, M. S. (2007). Konsep khalifatullah dalam perspektif M. Quraish Shihab sebagai kepemimpinan pengembangan pendidikan Islam (Unpublished degree's dissertation). Department of Tarbiyah, Faculty of Islamic Studies, Islamic University of Malang.

Nik Hanan, et al. (2013). Arabic language efficacy questionnaire (ALEQ): Assessing self-efficacy and achievement. *GEMA Online*TM *Journal of Language Studies*, *13*(1), 157.

Al-Naysaburi, N. H. (1996). Gharaib al-Quran wa raghaib al-furqan (Vol. 6). Beirut: Dar al-Kutub al-cIlmiyyah.

al-Qattan, M. (1992). *Mabahith fi ^eulum al-Quran*. Beirut: Mu'assasah al-Risalah.

al-Qurtubi, A. M. (1964). al-Jami^c li ahkam al-Quran (Vols. 8, 15 & 20). Cairo: Dar al-Kutub al-Misriyyah.

Ryding, K. C. (2005). A reference grammar of modern standard Arabic. United Kingdom: Cambridge.

al-Sabt, K. U. (2001). Qawa^cid al-tafsir: Jam^can wa dirasatan (Vol. 1). n.p: Dar ibn ^cAffan.

al-Sa^cdi, ^cA. R. (2000). Taysir al-karim al-rahman fi tafsir kalam al-mannan (Vol. 1). Mu'assasah al-Risalah.

al-Shanqiti, M. A. (1995). Adwa' al-bayan fi idah al-Quran bi al-Quran (Vol. 9). Beirut: Dar al-Fikr.

Shihab, M. Q. (1992). Membumikan al-Qur'an: Fungsi wahyu dalam kehidupan masyarakat. Bandung: Mizan.

Shihab, M. Q. (2010). Tafsir Al-Mishbah: Pesan, kesan dan keserasian al-Qur'an (Vols. 5, 10, 11 & 15).

Shihab, M. Q. (2011a). Membumikan al-Qur'an jilid 2: Memfungsikan wahyu dalam kehidupan.

Shihab, M. Q. (2011b). M. Quraish Shihab menjawab 1001 soal keislaman yang patut anda ketahui.

Subhan, A. (1993). Menyatukan kembali al-Qur'an dan umat: Menguak pemikiran M. Quraish Shihab, *Journal Ulumul Qur'an*, 4(5).

al-Tabari, A. J. (2001). *Tafsir al-Tabari* (Vol. 24). Cairo: Markaz al-Buhuth wa al-Dirasah al-^cArabiyah wa al-Islamiyyah.

Von Denver, A. (1983). *Ulum Al-Quran: An introduction to the sciences of the Qur'an*. London: Islamic Fondation.

Ya^cqub, I. B. (2006). Mawsu^cah ^culum al-lughah al-^cArabiah (Vol. 6). Beirut: Dar al-Kutub al-^cIlmiyyah.

al-Zamakhshari, A. Q. (1998). al-Kashshaf (Vol. 6). Cairo: Maktabah ^cAbikan.

al-Zarkashi, B. M. (1988). al-Burhan fi culum al-Quran (Vol. 4). Cairo: Dar al-Turath.

Notes

Note 1. We adopt the following abbreviation conventions: Pr. = Pronouns, Exp. = Explicit, Imp. = Implicit, Bou. = Bound, Ind. = Independent, Obl. = Obligatory, Perm. = Permissibility, Nom. = Nominative, Acc. = Accusative, and Gen. = Genitive.

Note 2. Also see the application of this rule in Shihab's *Tafsir* on *sura* ^c*Abasa* (He Frowned) verse 1 and *al-Rahman* (The Beneficient) verse 26.

Note 3. Also see the application of this rule in Shihab's *Tafsir* on *sura Fatir* (Originator) verse 11.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Service Quality Dimensions of Electricity Services: Evidence from Electricity Board in Sri Lanka

S. Achchuthan¹, N. Sivathaasan² & J. M. R. S. Jayasundara¹

Correspondence: S. Achchuthan, Department of Marketing Management, Faculty of Management Studies, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka, PO box 02, Belihuloy, 70140, Sri Lanka. Tel: 94-77-836-4899. E-mail: achchu2009@gmail.com

Received: June 19, 2013 Accepted: July 16, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p194 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p194

Abstract

The paper tries to develop an empirical model of service quality in terms of electricity services that may form a basis for a better understanding of its determinants. Specifically, it's aimed to identify the dimensions of service quality of electricity services provided by the Ceylon Electricity Board located in Badulla District. The study employs exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the service quality dimensions are identified using it as an independence technique. Data were collected by a structured questionnaire that consists of two sections as Part A and B. A total of 300 usable responses (n =300) were obtained through simple random sampling technique. The model consists of five dimensions such as tangibility, empathy, responsiveness, reliability, and assurance that have been detected by exploratory factor analysis. Further, results revealed that dimensions extracted from the analysis accounted for 62.899 percent of the total variance. While the study limits to the electricity services provided by the public sector organization based in Badulla district, the findings introduce the dimensions of service quality for electricity services, which may be a base for other scholars.

Keywords: service quality, exploratory factor analysis, Sri Lanka

1. Background of the Study

Today, public sector organizations have to face many challenges in hyper competitive environment. Further, public sector should focus on service quality and also frame strategic aspects with help of the concept as service quality (Sotirakou & Zeppou, 2005; Wright & Pandey, 2010). Due to the above mentioned reasons, public sector organizations in developed and developing countries have to modernize their functions and work more efficiently (Pal & Ireland, 2009; Torres et al., 2005).

Due to the current management scenario, both internal and external sources stressed the public sector organizations to focus on their functions and to modernize it successfully (Hughes & Smart, 2012). Further, public sector needs to demonstrate that, they have the capacity to improve their performance and achieve organizational goals and objectives. Therefore, the development and the application of effective performance management approaches seem imperative (Parka & Raineyb, 2012). Meanwhile, strategic issues should be applied among public sector organizations to compete with private sector. In this context, Uhr (1990) suggested the public sector to adopt the private sector service system, which is named as "managerialism". Furthermore, researchers argued that, managerialism is considered as the strategic formula to make successful one among public sector.

In Sri Lankan Context, the Ceylon Electricity Board is a government sector organization. Especially, in the South Asian Region, Sri Lanka has been ranked the best one in terms of electrification rate (Central Bank Report, 2013). Meanwhile, as a whole, public sector organizations have been stressed to deliver quality services and improve efficiencies (Randall & Senior, 1994; Robinson, 2003). In addition, Since Sri Lanka has gained independence in 1948, the public sector has undergone a number of transformations. The public sector is under increasing pressure to demonstrate that their services are customer-focused and that continuous performance improvement is being delivered. Importantly, In the Asian region, china and India have already achieved 8 percentage of growth level. Output gap between advanced and emerging economies has been narrowing over the

¹ Faculty of Management Studies, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka

² Library, University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka

past decade and is expected to narrow even further going forward. Meanwhile, Sri Lankan economy has achieved 5 percentage of growth level approximately for recent four decades (Sri Lankan Economic Outlook, 2012; Velnampy & Achchuthan, 2013). Especially, in Sri Lanka, Badulla region is considered as an emerging one, particularly in the industrial and agricultural development (Central Bank Report, 2013). The purpose of this research is thus to examine the service quality concepts and their application in the Ceylon Electricity Board in Badulla area. The study uses the SERVQUAL approach to examine the gap between customers' general expectations of a service and their perceptions of the services of specific service provider. This research investigates how closely customer expectations of service and employees perceptions of customer expectations are matched. This approach has been used extensively to assess the quality of public sector services.

Generally, electricity power supply for domestic and industrial sector took a vital role in economic development. In nutshell, electricity services are recognized as the live blood to the nation and its development. Further, it provides the power or energy to other industries to do the functions properly and perfectly. If there is a problem in terms of power supply, whole economy will be in question mark. Due to that, government should focalize electricity services as prominent and fundamental one. Furthermore, in the third world countries, many cases of violations of the rights, such as incorrect calculation of bills (increasing penalties, calculation on power capability, etc.), an unreasonable restriction of power supply, are not adequately addressed by the electricity consumers (Balakrishnan, Kanet, & Sridharan, 1999). In this context, public in the Badulla region had 13018 complaints against Ceylon Electricity Board regarding to the service quality as they provide their services, which have been extracted from the Record Book in complain-2014, Ceylon electricity board, Badulla. Table 1 shows the complaints lodged regarding the service quality for the last few years.

Table 1. Consumer complaints

Year	No of Complaints
2010	9786
2011	10322
2012	12087
2013	12314
2014	13018

Source: Summary of Consumer Complains- 2014

Therefore, this study is an effort to come up with the solution to the major research problem that can be titled, as "An Assessment of Service Quality in Ceylon Electricity Board- (With special reference to Badulla area). Due to that, the current study desires to develop an empirical model of service quality in terms of electricity services that may form a basis for a better understanding of its determinants. Specifically, this study aims to identify the dimensions of service quality of electricity services provided by the Ceylon Electricity Board located in the Badulla District.

2. Service Quality in the Public Sector: Concepts and Measurements

In the globalized level, the service industry is viewed as the back bone of the economy and it has prominent place in the economic structure to support to the agriculture and industrial sector. In hyper competitive environment, delivering quality service is considered as an essential strategy for the success and survival (Parasuraman, Zeithmal & Berry, 1985; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Further, Personalized and close relationship with service providers are recognized as better aspects to enhance the customer satisfaction and loyalty, which will lead to customer retention concept beyond the short-term financial goal to the long-term relational value. The relational value paradigm (between: customer and employee; customer and service organization; employee and service organization; service provider and service intermediaries) has now become more important than ever before. In this context, service quality practices in public sector organizations are slow and are further exacerbated by difficulties in measuring outcomes, greater scrutiny from the public and press, a lack of freedom to act in an arbitrary fashion and a requirement for decisions to be based in law (Teiche, 2002; Ramseook-Munhurrun, 2012).

The concept "services" is approached differently by scholars, in that view point, Gronroos (2000) pointed that, services are normally intangible in nature, but not necessarily, it takes place at the time of interaction between the customer and service employees or the service provider, which are provided as solutions to clients' problems. Interestingly, Edvardsson (2005) mentioned that, services as processes that are produced and consumed with the involvement of customers. Elaborately, Brochado (2009) discussed the distinctive characteristics as intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability to differentiate the services from the product. Further, in the same

way, the concept of service quality is also viewed differently by the scholars in the marketing paradigm. Zeithaml (2000) focalized the service quality as the critical component of customer perceptions about the service. Further, Customers perceive services in terms of its quality and how satisfied they are overall with their experiences. In this way, Czepiel (1990) approached the service quality as customers' perception of how well a service meets or exceeds their expectations. In a supportive way, Gronroos (2007) stated that, perceived service quality as a consumption process in which the customer is part of the service process that leads to an outcome or result. Further, according to Parasuraman et al., (1988) service quality is the customer's judgment of overall excellence of the service or the difference between customer's expectations (Kang & James, 2004). In addition, in the various sources, the term "quality" is interpreted and used systematically. In this way, quality is denoted as the level of well-being, which indicates the response of a person to physical, mental and social changes in life. Furthermore, Vitkienė (2004) mentioned that, quality is the human ability to create wide, informative, overall, creative attitude to many things, as quality is based on social, ethical, cultural, historical experience, generally acceptable and individual perception.

Importantly, service quality is widely accepted concept in the world of marketing. Further, as a broadly accepted concept, service quality has the wide range of measurements, which have been discussed by various research findings in the developed and developing countries (Ushantha, Wijeratne, & Achchuthan, 2013). In this context, two main aspects have been utilized and followed by the researchers in the concept of service quality; one is viewed as difference between the expectations and perception of the service. This was framed by Parasuraman et al., (1988) who view service quality as a comparison between customer's expectations and perception of service quality. Second approached is viewed as an attitude based. Cronin and Taylor (1992) approached the service quality as the consumer attitude towards services. Meanwhile, SERVQUAL model which was originally developed by Parasuraman et al., (1985, 1988) can be utilized to the research approaches on the public sector service quality assessment also with the slight modification. In a supportive way, SERVQUAL model has been used as the research model for measuring service quality in the marketing paradigm especially both in developed and developing countries (Robinson, 1999). Further, still now, the model is recognized as a perfect model to give the insights to the marketing strategy.

Providing better level of public services is generally considered as complex process, in which, finding out unexpressed needs, setting priorities, allocating resources and publicly justifying and accounting for what has been done are not easy to fulfill systematically (Gowan, Segmour & Ibarrenche, 2001). Further, Public sector services, which take the prominent place in the day to day life and also those, are responsible and accountable to citizens and communities as well as to its customers. Researches on service quality in public sectors have been focused by several scholars (Wisniewski, 2001; Brysland & Curry, 2001).

Studies on service quality in the electricity has not been studied and approached fruitfully in the both developed and developing countries. Meanwhile, this effort should be considered as a pioneer step in the marketing paradigm, which approaches the service quality in the electricity services. Further, Sri Lanka is recognized as an emerging country in terms of industrial development and also economic growth has been increasing trend since 2010. Due to that, power supply in terms of electricity is the fundamental and denoted as the backbone to the economy and its development. Therefore, this research surely gives fruitful suggestions to the policy makers and researchers regarding to the service quality in electricity services. In addition, in the consumers' view, electricity service is believed as the main aspect to measure the standard of living.

3. Research Methodology

According to Uma and Roger (2012), the population is the entire group of people, events, or things that the researcher desires to investigate. In this study, all the consumers who consume the electricity power in Badulla district are taken as the target population. They are approximately 115015, according to Department of Census and Statistics. A sample of 383 users out of total population was selected according to the table for determining sample size from a given population (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) at 95 % of confidence level. The rules of thumb proposed by Roscoe (1975) suggest that sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research. Hence, the sample size determined for this research is consistent with the above criteria. The data were collected during the month of April 2014. The researchers being the residents of place personally distributed the questionnaire using simple random sampling technique to the users and confirmed their willingness to respond the same. As a result, a total of three hundred and eighty three questionnaires (383) were given to the respondents and three hundred were retrieved (300) with the response rate of 78 percent, which is sufficient for the survey.

Survey method performs as a significant way of gathering information (Fei, 2006). A research design should be well designed, in a way to facilitate the collection of relevant evidence and information for the research, efficiently (Kothari, 1990; Sivathaasan, Murugathas, & Chandrasekar, 2014). In this study, survey method is a questionnaire, which has a set of questions to which the respondents record their answers. This was developed based on previous review of literature. The questionnaire consists of two sections as part A & part B. In Part A, questions related to demographic profile such as gender, age, marital status, occupations, and income were asked from the respondents. Then, variables are grouped into categories and measured on nominal scale by assigning code numbers to the objects. Likewise, in Part B, service quality of electricity services on twenty two statements or items were tested. All items are measured on interval scale and respondents are requested to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 7-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

A pilot study of 30 respondents was conducted before the actual survey and this assisted to make necessary corrections in the questionnaire. The primary and secondary data were collected for the purpose of carrying out the research. Primary data refer to the information that was developed or gathered by the researchers specifically for the research project at hand (Burns et al., 2006). In this study, primary data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire and secondary data were collected from books, journals, and magazines, research reports etc. The data collected was then analyzed by using a Statistical Package for Social Science (version 20).

Various statistical methods were employed to analyze the data such as descriptive and inferential analyses. The descriptive statistics have been used to display the sample profile of the respondents. Further, reliability test, test of sampling adequacy and factor analysis were performed to identify the critical factors, which determine service quality dimensions of electricity services. Specially, the factor analysis technique has been used to extract relevant dimensions from the 22 statements on service-quality.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Participants

The sample consists of 56 percent male (168) and 44 percent female (132) respondents. Among those, 37 percent are self-employed, while 24 and 21 percent are working in government and private sectors. The majority of the respondents (i.e. 37.3 per cent) belong to the age group of 18- 28 years, followed by the age group of 29-38 and 39-48 that constitute 25.3 percent of total respondents.

Further, Most of the respondents belong to the middle class income group with monthly income ranging from LKR 21,000 - 30,000. 32 percent male are receiving high salary, which is above LKR 30,000. Around 57 percent female respondents are earning middle class income, compared to male respondents. The summary of personal variables which include gender, age, marital status, nature of work and salary range is recorded in table 2.

Table 2. Summary of personal variables

Description of Personal V	Variables	No of consumers	Percentage
Gender	Male	132	44%
	Female	168	56%
Age	Between 18 and 28 years	101	33.7%
	Between 29 and 38 years	76	25.3%
	Between 39 and 48 years	76	25.3%
	Above 48 years	47	15.7%
Marital Status	Married	139	46.3%
	Single	161	53.7%
Nature of work	Government Employees	72	24%
	Private sector employees	62	20.7%
	Self-employees	111	37%
	Unemployment	55	18%
Salary	Below LKR 20, 000	93	31%
	Between LKR 20,001 – 30,000	134	44.7%
	Above LKR 30, 000	73	24.3%

Source: Survey Data, 2014

4.2 Test of Reliability and Validity

According to Black (1999), reliability is an indication of consistency between two measures of the same dimension. The reliability of the factors needs to be determined in order to support to any measures of validity that may be employed (Nunnally, 1978).

To measure the reliability of each factor derived from factor analysis, internal consistency analysis was employed. This internal reliability is generally verified by Cronbach's alpha, indicating range between 0 and 1. An alpha of 0.6 or higher will be considered adequate in exploratory research (Black & Porter, 1996). But, the widely recognized rule of thumb for internal reliability is 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Table 3 shows the reliability coefficient calculated for each factor.

Table 3. Statistics of Reliability Coefficient

Code	Statement	Alpha Value
TAN1	The electricity board has modern-looking equipment.	.845
TAN2	The electricity board's physical facilities are visually appealing.	.843
TAN3	The electricity board's employees are neat appearing.	.842
TAN4	Materials associated with the service (such as forms, electricity bill etc.) visually	.845
REL1	Electricity board services are performed within the promised time.	.844
REL2	When I have a problem, the electricity board's employees show sincere interest in	.845
REL3	The electricity board correctly performs the service right the very first time.	.870
REL4	The electricity board provides its service right the first time.	.846
REL5	The electricity board insists on error free records.(calculate electricity bill)	.849
RES1	In the electricity board I do not spent much time waiting in line.	.850
RES2	Electricity board employees are always willing to help.	.850
RES3	Electricity board employees are quick in eliminating potential errors.	.846
RES4	Electricity board employees quickly respond to my requests.	.845
ASS1	Electricity board employees are trustworthy.	.847
ASS2	I feel safe in using electricity power.	.849
ASS3	Electricity board employees consistently courteous towards me.	.849
ASS4	Electricity board employees have the knowledgeable to answer my questions.	.849
EM1	The electricity board provides me an individual attention.	.849
EM2	The electricity board has convenience operating hours to my needs.	.847
EM3	The electricity board has employees who give me personal attention.	.848
EM4	The electricity board considers my wishes and needs.	.849
EM5	Electricity board employees show understanding of my specific needs.	.850

Instruments are generally considered reliable when they have an alpha of 0.80 or higher on a scale of 0 to 1 (Rubin & Babbie, 2009). As can be seen in the above table, alpha values range from 0.842 to 0.870, indicating that calculated alphas are above threshold. Hence, scales developed suggest good internal consistency.

Table 4. Guidelines for KMO test

KMO Value	Degree of Common Variance		
0.90 to 1.00	Marvelous		
0.80 to 0.89	Meritorious		
0.70 to 0.79	Middling		
0.60 to 0.69	Mediocre		
0.50 to 0.59	Miserable		
0.00 to 0.49	Don't Factor or unacceptable		

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) are commonly used to provide more complex measures for assessing the strength of the relationships and suggesting factorability of the variables (Beavers, Lounsbury, Richards, Huck, Skolits, & Esquivel, 2013). Kaiser (1974) recommends that the accepted index of KMO & Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be over 0.5. Also, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity relates to the significance of the study and thereby shows the validity and suitability of the responses collected to the problem being addressed through the study.

The guidelines to interpret the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (Nimalathasan, 2009; Beavers et al., 2013; Sivathaasan & Chandrasekar, 2013) are presented in table 4.

In the current study, value for KMO matrix is 0.797, which falls under the range of middling and test value of chi-square is 2928.941, which is significant at five percent level (p < 0.05). Hence, data indicate the suitability and appropriateness. Table 5 summarizes the statistics derived from the analysis in relation to KMO measure and Bartlett's Test.

Table 5. KMO measure and Bartlett's test

Description		Value	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of	f Sampling Adequacy	0.797	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square		2928.941	
df (degree of freedom)		231	
Significant		.000	

4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Factor analysis is a general name denoting a class of procedures primarily used for data reduction and summarization (Malhotra, & Satyabhushan, 2010). The study employs the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify the underlying dimensions or factors of service quality of Ceylon Electricity Board with Principal Component Analysis (PCA) extraction method. According to Malhotra, & Satyabhushan (2010), PCA is an approach to factor analysis that considers the total variance in the data.

For extraction of the factors, the following three criteria(s) were used:

- a) Eigen values greater than or equal to 1 were used to identify the number of factors. The eigenvalue is a value associated with each factor describing the amount of variance in the items that can be explained by that factor (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003).
- b) Items with a loading smaller than 0.5 (low factor loadings) on any factor were deleted. For parsimony, only factors with loadings above 0.5 were considered significant (Pal, 1986; Pal & Bagi, 1987).
- c) Items that demonstrated cross-loadings greater than 0.5 on more than one factor were dropped, assuming that no pure measures of a specific construct are provided (Olorunniwo, Hsu, & Udo, 2006).

According to the criteria, an EFA was first performed on all 22 variables using principal component extraction method. For analytical purpose, each statement on the questionnaire was assigned numbers (refer to the table 3). Through the examination of factor loadings, item ASS4 was removed after the first run of factor analysis and six factors were extracted. Then, the remaining 21 items were analyzed by PCA with Varimax rotation to determine the critical variables and factors through the second run of factor analysis. A scree plot was constructed for the remaining items and it shows the discontinuity of the variable "ASS 4" (see figure 1). Hence, the first factors extracted by the procedure were appropriate for the second run of factor analysis.

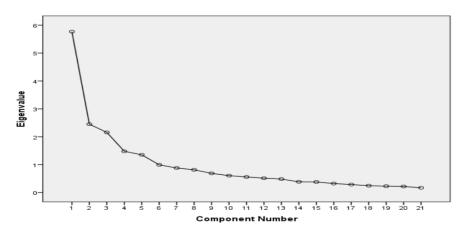


Figure 1. Scree plot

The highest and the lowest loadings for this analysis were 0.843 and 0.533 respectively. The procedure resulted in a five factor solution rotated by Varimax rotation. These five factors extracted together account for 62.899

percent of the total variance. On examining content of the items, factors are labeled as tangibility, empathy, responsiveness, reliability, and assurance. This is shown in table 6.

Table 6. Factor loadings structure matrix

Factor	Factor (variance)	Variables included in the factors	Factor			
F1	Tangibility	The electricity board has modern-looking equipment.	.843			
	(16.464)	The electricity board's physical facilities are visually appealing.	.841			
	(10.404)	The electricity board's employees are neat appearing.	.809			
		Materials associated with the service (such as forms, electricity bill etc.)	.743			
		Electricity board services are performed within the promised time.	.606			
F2	Empathy	The electricity board provides me an individual attention.	.573			
	(13.932)	The electricity board has convenience operating hours to my needs.	.720			
	(13.732)	The electricity board has employees who give me personal attention.	.793			
		The electricity board considers my wishes and needs.	.713			
		Electricity board employees show understanding of my specific needs.	.794			
F3	Responsiveness	In the electricity board I do not spent much time waiting in line.				
(13.790)		Electricity board employees are always willing to help.	.784			
	(13.790)	Electricity board employees are quick in eliminating potential errors.	.829			
		Electricity board employees quickly respond to my requests.	.697			
F4	Reliability	When I have a problem, the electricity board's employees show sincere	.569			
	(9.843)	The electricity board correctly performs the service right the very first	.533			
	(9.843)	The electricity board provides its service right the first time.	.790			
		The electricity board insists on error free records.(calculate electricity	.668			
F5	Assurance	Electricity board employees are trustworthy.	.597			
	(8.869)	I feel safe in using electricity power.	.788			
	(0.007)	Electricity board employees consistently courteous towards me.	.695			

Factor 1 that was labelled as tangibility was composed of five items and accounted for 16.464 per cent of the variance. The items in this dimension were similar to the original dimension and a new item was added. Factor 2 comprised of five items related to the empathy and 13.932 per cent of the variance was explained. Factor 3 that included four items was labelled as responsiveness. Likewise, factor 4 named as reliability and factor 5 named as assurance explained the variance by 9.843 and 8.869 per cent respectively. The one item coded as "ASS4" was removed during the 1st run of EFA. As a result, a model that determines service quality dimensions relating to electricity services is proposed with the above five factors. This model shown in figure 2 was derived from statistical evidence.

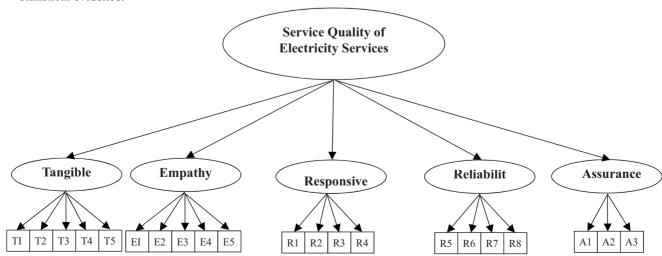


Figure 2. Service quality model

5. Conclusion

The research presents the results of a study carried out on dimensions of service quality model for electricity services provided by the Ceylon Electricity Board in Sri Lanka. A total of 22 statements or items were considered in the questionnaire. To construct the questionnaire, the SERVQUAL model proposed by Parasuraman et al., (1988), was used as the main guide. Exploratory factor analysis was employed to identify the dimensions of the service quality and after the 2nd run of factor analysis; five factors or dimensions were identified with 21 key variables. Those five dimensions were classified as the first order factors of service quality dimensions of electricity services in Sri Lankan context. These measure tangibility, empathy, responsiveness, reliability, and assurance. Moreover, factors extracted from the analysis accounted for 62.899 % of the total variability. The list of statements categorized under each dimension is annexed herewith as appendix 1. Further, the present study concentrates only on electricity services provided by the public sector organization based in Badulla district. In future, scholars may be interested to confirm either the identified dimensions of service quality or to polish-up the dimensions in the electricity services.

References

- Balakrishnan, N., Kanet, J. J., & Sridharan, V. (1999). Early/tardy scheduling with sequence dependent setups on uniform parallel machines. *Computers and Operations Research*, 26(2), 127-141. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0305-0548(98)00051-3.
- Beavers, A. S., Lounsbury, J. W., Richards, J. K., Huck, S. W., Skolits, G. J., & Esquivel, S. L. (2013). Practical considerations for using exploratory factor analysis in educational research. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 18(6), 2. Retrieved from http://www.pareonline.net/pdf/v18n6.pdf
- Black, S. A., & Porter, L. J. (1996). Identification of the Critical Factors of TQM. *Decision Sciences*, *27*(1), 1-21. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5915.1996.tb00841.x.
- Black, T. R. (1999). Doing quantitative research in the social sciences: An integrated approach to research design, measurement and statistics. Sage.
- Brochado, A. (2009). Comparing alternative instruments to measure service quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in education*, 17(2), 174-190.
- Brysland, A., & Curry, A. (2001). Service improvements in public services using SERVQUAL. *Managing service quality*, 11(6), 389-401. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09604520110410601.
- Cronin Jr, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A reexamination and extension. *The journal of marketing*, 55-68.
- Czepiel, J. A. (1990). Service encounters and service relationships: implications for research. *Journal of Business Research*, 20(1), 13-21. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0148-2963(90)90038-F.
- Edvardsson, B. (2005). Service quality: Beyond cognitive assessment. *Managing Service Quality*, 15(2), 127-131. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09604520510585316.
- Gowan, M., Seymour, J., Ibarreche, S., & Lackey, C. (2001). Service quality in a public agency: Same expectations but different perceptions by employees, managers, and customers. *Journal of Quality Management*, 6(2), 275-291. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1084-8568(01)00040-2.
- Grönroos, C. (2007). Service management and marketing: customer management in service competition. John Wiley & Sons.
- Hughes, P., Smart, J., Robinson, C., McGinnis, M. V., Aziz, O., Gibbons, M., & Hawke, G. (2012). 'You say you want a revolution'... the next stage of public sector reform in New Zealand. *Policy Quarterly*, 8(1), 3-8. Retrieved from http://igps.victoria.ac.nz/publications/files/07507439782.pdf
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. Psychometrika, 39(1), 31-36.
- Kang, G. D., & James, J. (2004). Service quality dimensions: An examination of Grönroos's service quality model. *Managing Service Quality*, 14(4), 266-277. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09604520410546806.
- Krejcie, R., & Morgan, D. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.
- Malhotra, N. K., & Satyabhushan, D. (2010). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. 6/E. Pearson Education India.
- Nimalathasan, B. (2009). Determinants of key performance indicators (KPIs) of private sector banks in Sri

- Lanka: an application of exploratory factor analysis. The USV Annals of Economics and Public Administration, 9(2), 9-17
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric theory (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Olorunniwo, F., Hsu, M. K., & Udo, G. J. (2006). Service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions in the service factory. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(1), 59-72.
- Pal, L. A., & Ireland, D. (2009). The public sector reform movement: Mapping the global policy network. *Intl Journal of Public Administration*, 32(8), 621-657. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01900690903000187
- Pal, Y., & Bagai, O. P. (1978). A common factory bettery reliability approach to determine the number of interpretable factors. Paper presented at the IX Annual Conference of the Indian Society, India.
- Pal, Y. A. (1986). *A theoretical study of some factor analysis problems*. Paper presented at the IX Annual Conference of the Indian Society, India.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *The Journal of Marketing*, 41-50. Retrieved from http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1360593395.8791service%20marketing70.pdf.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). Servqual. Journal of retailing, 64(1), 12-40.
- Park, S. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2012). Work motivation and social communication among public managers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(13), 2630-2660. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.637060.
- Pett, M. A., Lackey, N. R., & Sullivan, J. J. (2003). *Making sense of factor analysis: The use of factor analysis for instrument development in health care research.* Sage.
- Ramseook-Munhurrun, P. (2012). Perceived service quality in restaurant services: Evidence from Mauritius. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, *5*(3), 1-14. Retrieved from http://www.theibfr.com/ARCHIVE/IJMMR-V5N3-2012.pdf#page=3
- Randall, L., & Senior, M. (1994). A model for achieving quality in hospital hotel services. *International Journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 6(1/2), 68-74. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596119410052161
- Reichheld, F. F., & Sasser Jr, W. E. (1989). Zero defections: Quality comes to services. *Harvard business review*, 68(5), 105-111. Retrieved from http://europepmc.org/abstract/MED/10107082
- Roscoe, J. T. (1969). Fundamental research statistics for the behavioral sciences (p. 239). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2009). Research methods for social work (7th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Sivathaasan, N., & Chandrasekar, K. (2013). Factor analysis of user satisfaction: a special reference to the library, University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka. *Merit Research Journal of Art, Social Science and Humanities*, 1(3), 40-46. Retrieved from http://www.meritresearchjournals.org/assh/index.htm.
- Sivathaasan, N., Murugathas, K., & Chandrasekar, K. (2014). Attitude towards the usage of electronic information resources in Medical Library, University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka. *Information and Knowledge Management*, 4(1), 86-93.
- Sotirakou, T., & Zeppou, M. (2005). How to align Greek civil service with European Union public sector management policies: A demanding role for HR managers in the contemporary public administration context. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 18(1), 54-82. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513550510576152
- Teich, T. (2002). Extended value chain management: EinKonzeptzurKoordination von Wertschöpfungsnetzen. (Doctoral dissertation, Chemnitz, Techn. Univ., Habil.-Schr., 2003). Retrieved from http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:swb:ch1-200401108
- Torres, L., Pina, V., & Royo, S. (2005). E-government and the transformation of public administrations in EU countries: Beyond NPM or just a second wave of reforms?. *Online Information Review*, 29(5), 531-553.
- Uhr, J. (1990). Ethics and the Australian public service: Making managerialism work. *Current Affairs Bulletin*, 66(11), 22-27.
- Uma, S., & Roger, B. (2012). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Ushantha, R. C., Wijeratne, A. W., & Achchuthan, S. (2014). An Assessment of Retail Service Quality: An

- Empirical Study of the RSQS in Sri Lankan Supermarkets. Developing Country Studies, 4(3), 78-90.
- Velnampy, T., & Achchuthan, S. (2013). Fiscal deficit and economic growth: A study on Sri Lankan economic perspective. *Developing Country Studies*, *3*(3).
- Vitkienė, E. (2004). Recreation and Tourism business labour market while integration in the European Union. *Scientific Journal: BRIDGES: Humanities & Social Sciences*, 4(29), 55-62.
- Wisniewski, M. (2001). Using SERVQUAL to assess customer satisfaction with public sector services. *Managing Service Quality*, 11(6), 380-388. http://dx.doi.org/0.1108/EUM000000006279.
- Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2009). Transformational leadership in the public sector: Does structure matter?. *Journal of public administration research and theory*, mup003. Retrieved from http://jpart.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2009/04/30/jopart.mup003.full.
- Yu, F. (2006). Users' emotional and material satisfaction at the micro/macro levels in an academic library (Doctoral dissertation). University of Pittsburgh.

Appendix

Appendix A: List of 21 statements in the service quality model of electricity services

Tangibility

- T1 The electricity board has modern-looking equipment.
- T2 The electricity board's physical facilities are visually appealing.
- T3 The electricity board's employees are neat appearing.
- T4 Materials associated with the service (such as forms, electricity bill etc.) visually appealing at the
- T5 Electricity board services are performed within the promised time.

Empathy

- E1 The electricity board provides me an individual attention.
- E2 The electricity board has convenience operating hours to my needs.
- E3 The electricity board has employees who give me personal attention.
- E4 The electricity board considers my wishes and needs.
- E5 Electricity board employees show understanding of my specific needs.

Responsiveness

- R1 In the electricity board I do not spent much time waiting in line.
- R2 Electricity board employees are always willing to help.
- R3 Electricity board employees are quick in eliminating potential errors.
- R4 Electricity board employees quickly respond to my requests.

Reliability

- R5 When I have a problem, the electricity board's employees show sincere interest in solving the problem.
- R6 The electricity board correctly performs the service right the very first time.
- R7 The electricity board provides its service right the first time.
- R8 The electricity board insists on error free records.(calculate electricity bill)

Assurance

- A1 Electricity board employees are trustworthy.
- A2 I feel safe in using electricity power.
- A3 Electricity board employees consistently courteous towards me.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Relationship between Type of Risks and Income of the Rural Households in the Pattani Province of Thailand

Pha-isah Leekoi¹, Ahmad Zafarullah Abdul Jalil¹ & Mukaramah Harun¹ School of Economics, Finance and Banking, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia Correspondence: Pha-isah Leekoi, School of Economics, Finance and Banking, Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 UUM Sintok, Kedah Darul Aman, Malaysia. E-mail: faisah6666@yahoo.com

Received: June 22, 2013 Accepted: July 21, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p204 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p204

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between type of risks and income of the rural households in Pattani province, Thailand using the standard multiple regression analysis. A multi-stage sampling technique is employed to select 600 households of 12 districts in the rural Pattani province and a structured questionnaire is used for data collection. Evidences from descriptive analysis show that the type of risks faced by households in rural Pattani province are job loss, reduction of salary, household member died, household members who work have accident, marital problem and infection of crops/livestock. In addition, result from the regression analysis suggests that job loss, household member died and marital problem have significant negative effects on the households' income. The result suggests that job loss has adverse impact on households' income. The implication of this is that the living standard of household will continue to deteriorate as large proportion of them could either not find job or lost their jobs. Therefore, an important policy suggestion is that government should formulate a policy that considers the creation of employment especially for the poor households with low-income particularly in the rural area. Also, government should provide an appropriate social security benefits program on which the affected population can rely on in case of problem such as sickness/accident/death of the household members. Concerning the marital problem in the households, an important implication to the policy maker is to formulate a policy or design strategy development principles of holistic family.

Keywords: risks, rural households, multi-stage sampling, standard multiple regression, Thailand

1. Introduction

Thailand is an economically developing country situated in the Southeast Asian region. It is surrounded by Loas, Myanmar, Vietnam and Malaysia. The major economic sectors of Thailand such as agriculture, industry, manufacturing and services have added tremendously to its economic growth. The structure of Thailand's economy is originally based on agriculture. Like most of other developing countries, agriculture in the rural areas of Thailand remains as one of the main sources of income for the majority of the population. In the rural areas of developing countries, there is also widespread of income diversification. Therefore, it is possible for the rural households in one area to have substantial low and volatile incomes relative to the average income of the nation as a whole (Rungruxsirivorn, 2007). Households in the rural areas can lessen risk faced in many ways: they can select crops that have their yields or prices showing low correlations; plant crops on scattered plots of land that are exposed to various weather shocks, use different techniques of production, or choose a blend of farm and non-farm occupations (Alderman & Paxson, 1992). Poor rural households may concentrate only on one activity with low risk and low return in a case where there are no other options rather than diversifying income to manage risk.

Seasonality of profit and agricultural production impact the lives of farmers as well as the lives of other people in their communities because almost all the workers in the rural areas rely on agriculture. Apart from the fact that most of the rural households engage in agricultural production, they still take part in other economic activities such as self-employment in small industrial and commercial activity, and a paid work from fields such as agriculture, trade and other services. Other activities, such as trades or service, are also linked to the main income generating activities of majority of the rural households (Carlos Andres Alpizar, 2007; Leekoi, Abdul Jalil & Harun, 2014). However, some factors have been considered responsible for the fluctuation in agricultural

income from one season to another. These include weather variations and other environmental factors such as limited and uncertain rainfall, floods or pest infestation. In addition, risk in term of natural, health, social, economic, political and environmental could be associated with the high fluctuation in the household income. For example, in Thailand, most of the risk faced by households stem from income fluctuation. As pointed out by the National Statistical Office, the household average monthly income has been on a steady increase after the financial crisis. The rising average income shows that the households' welfare is improving. However, evidence on actual households from the Ministry of Finance Household Debt (MOF) Survey gives a different picture (Rungruxsirivorn, 2007).

In the light of the fluctuation in the income of household and the various risk exposed to by the household, this study examines the relationship between type of risks and income of the rural households in Pattani province of Thailand. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: The section 2 gives an overview of relevant literature. In section 3, the methodology as well as the data used is discussed. Section 4 discusses the findings of the study. Finally, section 5 concludes the paper.

2. Literature Review

Risk can be defined as potentially dangerous event that when it occurs is likely to cause a loss in individual or household welfare. If households are defenceless when faced with a risk, it can easily be ruined and driven into poverty (Chaudhuri, Jalan, & Suryahadi, 2002; Dercon, 2002; Harrower & Hoddinott, 2004).

Household faces various risks which are mainly categorized as natural risks, health risks, economic risks, life-cycle risks, social risks, political risks, and environmental risks. The natural risk can be classified into floods, typhoons, earthquakes, droughts, volcanic eruptions, hurricanes, landslide while health risks involve accidents, injury, illness, disability, famines, and epidemic. The life-cycle risks include death, old-age, family break-up, maternity, and birth while the social risks are classified as terrorism, gangsters, crime, riots, social upheaval, and civil war. While economic risks involve loss of jobs, harvest destruction, resettlement, bankruptcy or business failure, currency crisis, banking and financial crisis, balance of payment shock, and the terms of trade shock, the political risks consist of manifestations, discrimination, and riots. Finally, environmental risks are made up of nuclear disaster, air and water pollution, land degradation, and deforestation (Holzmann & Jorgensen, 2000).

Certainly, the uncommon high variability in the income of rural households has been documented in the literature. For example, in a study using a 10-year panel data for one of the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) villages in India, Townsend (1994) found high fluctuations in yields per unit of land for the dominant crops. The study shows that the coefficient of variation was 1.01 for castor, 0.70 for paddy and 0.51 for a sorghum/millet/pea intercrop. In another study, Townsend (1995) uses the ICRISAT data for India and finds that variability in income is very high in this area. The study suggests that the effects of the diversification techniques and other income strategies employed have been limited and insufficient. Also in India, Bliss and Stern (1982) indicate that farmers in Palanpur will adversely be affected by the 20 percent decrease in yields if the onset of production is delayed by two weeks. In the literature, it has been argued that there are relatively large labor income fluctuations among casual labor in the agricultural sector (Lipton & Ravallion, 1995). For example, the coefficient of variation in farm household income in the south of India was estimated to be 137 while that of United States white men in the late twenties was only 39 (Rosenzweig & Binswanger, 1993).

Seyi Olalekan, Olapade-Ogunwole, and Raufu (2011) examine the types of shocks experienced by the rural households of the Ogo-Oluwa Local Government Area of Oyo state, Nigeria using a multi-stage random sampling technique and a probit regression model. The results reveal that most rural household heads experience more of ecological shocks which are common to agricultural production such as incidence of crop pests and livestock diseases, drought and degraded land. It is indicated that these shocks have significant impact on the household heads that possess poor educational status and per capita income. This is reflected in their capability and possibility to cope up with the incidence. Rampini and Viswanathan (2009) conducted a study on U.S. households and found that poor households and financially constrained households are less insured against risks (eg., health risks or natural disaster) compared to richer and less financially constrained households. Another study, De Mey et al. (2012) examine the concepts of operational, financial, total farm and household risk, using Belgian FADN data for the period 2005-2008. The study further uses a stochastic simulation model on two typical Belgian dairy farms and finds that price, production and financial farm risks are likely to have considerable negative effects on household incomes, which farmers may not be aware of.

3. Methodology

A multi-stage sampling technique was employed to select 600 households of 12 districts in the rural Pattani province and a structured questionnaire was used for the cross-sectional data collection. A descriptive statistic and standard multiple regression analysis were employed. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression is a generalized linear modeling technique which is used to estimate the relationship between the true populations of two variables. The technique can be applied to single or multiple explanatory variables and also categorical explanatory variables that have been appropriately coded (Hutcheson, 2011). Given the assumption of the classical linear regression model, an OLS estimator is said to be a best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) (Verbeek, 2004). Formal tests are conducted to examine whether the estimated results suffer from autocorrelation, heteroskedasticity and multicollinearity problem. In view of the fact that OLS estimator may suffer from the problem of autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity, a Newey-West estimator is further considered as an alternative for the regression. The estimator can be used to improve the OLS regression when the variables have heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation. Newey-West standard error known to be heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent (HAC) has the advantage of being consistent in models that exhibit higher order autocorrelated errors. The estimator does not need the model of the error to be specified in a dynamic form which would have been required as an alternative to estimate the parameters more precisely (Newey & West (1987). The form of standard multiple regression equation used in this study is presented as such:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 \chi_1 + \beta_2 \chi_2 + \beta_3 \chi_3 + \beta_4 \chi_4 + \beta_5 \chi_5 + \beta_6 \chi_6 + \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

Where, Y= household's income, α = the constant of the equation, β_{1-6} = the coefficients of the each predictor variables, ϵ = error term, χ_1 = job loss, χ_2 = reduction of salary, χ_3 = household members died, χ_4 = household members who work have accident, χ_5 = marital problems (divorce, family dispute etc.), χ_6 = infection of crops/livestock.

4. Result and Discussions

Table 1. Selected personal socio-economic variables of households' heads

Variable	Frequency	Variable	Frequency
Gender		Monthly households' income (Baht)	
Male	416(69.3)	< 5000	24(4.0)
Female	184(30.7)	5000-9999	61(6.2)
		10000-19999	268(44.7)
Age (years)		20000-29999	152(25.3)
21-30	77(12.8)	30000-39999	52(8.7)
31-40	151(25.2)	40000-49999	30(5.0)
41-50	190(31.7)	>50000	13(2.2)
51-60	122(20.3)		
>60	60(10)	Households' assets	
		Land	271(30.2)
Marital status		Shop	87(9.7)
Married and living together	459(76.5)	Rental house	26(2.9)
Married but separated	15(2.5)	Cars	346(38.7)
Widowed	112(18.7)	Livestock	165(18.4)
Divorced	14(2.3)		
		Types of risks	
Occupation Occupation		Job loss	37(21.6)
Farmers/agriculturists/fishery	312(52.0)	Reduction of salary	72(42.1)
Government officials	86(14.3)	Household member died	24(14.0)
Private sector employees	9(1.5)	Household member who work have accident	9(5.3)
Construction/labor/housemaid	53(8.8)	Marital problem	19(11.1)
Trade/own business	140(23.3)	Infection of crops/livestock	10(5.8)

Source: Author's calculation from survey data, 2013, figures in parentheses are percentages.

Descriptive analysis was done to show the frequency distribution and percentage of some selected personal socio-economic variables of households' heads. Table 1 shows the results of the descriptive statistics. The results from the Table 1 show that most of the household head are male (about 69 percent) while the female head

represents 31 percent. Most of the household heads in the sample whose ages fell within the range 41-50 years old represent about 32 percent and only 10 percent of the household head were aged above 60 years old. For the marital status of the household head, 459 respondents or 76.5 percent were married and living together while 2.3 percent of them were divorced. In term of employment types, almost half of the household head sampled reported to be farmers/agriculturists/fishery whereas only 1.5 percent of the total sample engaged in private sector employment. With regards to the income of the households, majority of the households sampled reported to have an income between 10,000-20,000 Baht per month (44.7 percent) while only 2.2 percent claimed to have earning more than 50,000 Baht per month.

In term of households' asset, most of the respondents have several forms of assets. Almost 40 percent of the respondents own a car while about 30 percent own a land. About 18 percent claim to possess livestock and 10 percent possess a shop. There were also a few of the respondents who have a rental house (about 3 percent). The results also indicate that the households encounter various risks. For example, reduction of salary is the risk that affected most (42 percent) of the households while only few (about 5 percent) household member who work has accident during the period of the study.

In order to determine the type of risks which affect a household's income, a standard multiple regression was conducted using the least squares method and the Newey-West standard error estimator. The results of the estimations are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Regressions results for the impact of risks on the households' income

Coefficient	OLS St	$\mathbf{d.} \mathbf{P} > \mathbf{z} $	Newey-Wes	P > z
10.722	0.323	0.000	0.316	0.000
-0.107	0.050	0.034**	0.056	0.056***
-0.043	0.152	0.776	0.116	0.710
-0.327	0.052	0.000*	0.062	0.000*
0.022	0.052	0.667	0.053	0.671
-0.135	0.054	0.013**	0.058	0.021**
-0.111	0.126	0.378	0.105	0.290
	600		600	
	10.02		6.27	
	0.0000		0.0000	
	0.0829			
	Mean VII	F = 1.04		
	Prob> ch	$i^2 = 0.0623$		
orrelation:	Prob> ch	$i^2 = 0.0000$		
	10.722 -0.107 -0.043 -0.327 0.022 -0.135 -0.111	10.722	10.722	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Source: Author's calculation from survey data, 2013

Note: * denotes significance at 1 percent level, ** denotes significance at 5 percent level and, *** denotes significance at 10 percent level

Attempt was made by running the least squares regression first and this was followed by conducting the necessary tests to ensure better and reliable parameter estimates. From the least squares regression results in Table 2, the mean value of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for all variables is estimated to be 1.04. Since the value is less than 10, it implies that there is no multicollinearity problem in the model. The White test for heteroskedasticity yields Chi.² (21) = 31.73; Prob>chi² = 0.0623 indicating that there is no problem of heteroskedasticity at 5 percent level of significance. However, the Breusch-Godfrey test for autocorrelation shows that the estimation suffers from autocorrelation problem (Prob> chi² = 0.0000) at 5 percent level of significance. Based on the Gauss-Markov assumption of linear regression model, it is to recognize that the estimates from OLS are unbiased and consistent; it is just the standard errors that could be wrong (Verbeek, 2004). In order to correct for the problems associated with the least squares estimator, we attempt to employ the alternative approach namely, Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent (HAC) standard errors or Newey-West standard errors. The results of HAC or Newey-West estimator which corrects for the standard errors and produces robust estimates are reported in Table 2. The results imply that the heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation problems in the model are corrected.

Considering P > |z| values for the variables included in the model for estimation under the Newey-West estimators, the results show that job loss (χ_1) , marital problems (χ_5) , and household member died (χ_3) are statistically significant at 10 percent, 5 percent and 1 percent level respectively. This simply indicates that an increase in the level of any of these explanatory variables definitely lead to a decrease in the level of households' income. For example, the coefficient of job loss (χ_1) is -0.107; this implies that for every unit change in job loss, the households' income decreases by 10.7 percent. The household head or household member is meant to support the family with income earned. Therefore, an increase in job loss for this household will constitute a problem to the family due to its adverse implication on the income earned. The coefficient of marital problem is (χ_5) is estimated to be -0.135. This indicates that for every unit change in marital problem, the households' income decrease by 13.5 percent. This is because when marital problems such as family dispute occur in the family, this leads to divorce and thus, no bread winner or income earner to support the households again. Furthermore, the coefficient of households member died (γ_3) is estimated to be -0.327 which indicate that for every unit change in death of households member, the households' income decreased by 32.7 percent. This means that the incomes of the households dropped due to the death of the household members who generated income for the family. These findings are consistent with the previous result reported by Tesliuc and Lindert (2004). As for the reduction of salary (χ_2) household members who work have accident (χ_4) and infection of crops/livestock (χ_6), they are found to be statistically insignificant and thus, have no effect on the households' income.

5. Conclusion

This study investigated the impact of risks on the households' income. The results of the descriptive analysis suggest that the risks faced by households in rural Pattani province are job loss, reduction of salary, household member died, household member who work have accident, marital problem and infection of crops/livestock. Among these six types of risk experienced by the households, only three (job loss, household member died and marital problem) have significantly impacts on the households' income.

The result suggests that job loss has adverse impact on households' income. The implication of this is that the living standard of household will continue to deteriorate as large proportion of them could either not find job or lost their jobs. Therefore, an important policy suggestion is that government should formulate a policy that considers the creation of employment especially for the poor households with low-income particularly in the rural area. Also, government should provide an appropriate social security benefits program on which the affected population can rely on in case of problem such as sickness/accident/death of the household members. Concerning the marital problem in the households, an important implication to the policy maker is to formulate a policy or design strategy development principles of holistic family. In addition, such strategy could entail the principles of ensuring social protection and creation of mechanisms to support and strengthen the family. Government and policy makers should endeavor to understand the general condition of households across the rural area in order to come up with an appropriate policy that will benefit the generality of the poor population.

This study recommends future studies to include other likely types of risk that could be peculiar to their rural area and which could probably have impact on the households' income to provide better results. Secondly, it would also be interesting if future study could expand the scope (the impact of risks on households' income) of the present study to other developing economies and different rural area, and compare their findings with that of Thailand. Such is likely to provide other good examples of several risks effect on the households' income.

References

- Alderman, H., & Paxson, C. H. (1992). Do the poor insure?: A synthesis of the literature on risk and consumption in developing countries (Vol. 164). World Bank Publications.
- Bliss, C., & Stern, N. (1982). Palanpur: The Economy of an Indian Village. Oxford University Press Catalogue.
- Carlos Andres Alpizar, M. A. (2007). Risk coping strategies and rural household production efficiency: Quasi-experimental evidence from El-Salvador (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://www.gradsch.osu.edu/
- Chaudhuri, S., Jalan, J., & Suryahadi, A. (2002). Assessing household vulnerability to poverty from cross-sectional data: A methodology and estimates from Indonesia.
- Dercon, S. (2002). Income Risks, Coping Strategies and Safety Nets. *The World Bank Research Observer*, 17(2), 141-166. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/wbro/17.2.141
- Harrower, S., & Hoddinott, J. (2004). Consumption Smoothing and Vulnerability in the Zone Lacustre, MalL International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). FCND Discussion Paper, 175.

- Holzmann, R., & Jorgensen, S. L. (2000). Social Risk Management: A New Conceptual Framework for Social Protection and Beyond. *Social Protection Discussion Paper*, 0006.
- Hutcheson, G. D. (2011). Ordinary Least-Squares Regression. In L. Moutinho, & G. D. Hutcheson (Eds.), *The SAGE Dictionary of Quantitative Management Research* (pp. 224-228).
- Leekoi, P., Abdul Jalil, A. Z., & Harun, M. (2014). An Empirical Study on Risk Assessment and Household Characteristics in Thailand. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 21(6), 962-967. http://dx.doi.org/10.5829/idosi.mejsr.2014.21.06.21539
- Lipton, M., & Ravallion, M. (1995). Poverty and Policy. In J. Behrman, & T. N. Srinivasan (Eds.), *Handbook of Development Economics* (Vol. 3). Elsevier Science, B.V.
- Newey, W. K., & West, K. D. (1987). A Simple, Positive Semi-definite, Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance Matrix. *Econometrica*, 55(3), 703-708. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1913610
- Rosenzweig, M., & Binswanger, H. (1993). Wealth, Weather Risk and the Composition and Profitability of Agricultural Investments. *Economic Journal*, 103, 56-78. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2234337
- Rungruxsirivorn, O. (2007). *Household Risk Management in Rural and Urban Thailand*. Institute for Money and International Finance, Leibniz Universities Hannover.
- Rampini, A. A., & Viswanathan, S. (2009). Household Risk Management. Duke University.
- De Mey, Y., Wauters, E., Van Winsen, F., Vancauteren, M., Van Passel, S., & Lauwers, L. (2012). Price volatility and farm income stabilization, Modelling outcomes and assessing market and policy based responses, from total farm to household risk: Implication for risk management. *Agricultural Economics Society of Ireland (AESI)*. Dublin-123rd EAAE Seminar 23-24 February 2012.
- Seyi Olalekan, O., Olapade-Ogunwole, F., & Raufu, M. O. (2011). Shocks and Coping Strategies of Rural Households: Evidence from Ogo-Oluwa Local Government, Oyo State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Agricultural Management & Development (IJAMAD)*, 1(4), 259-266.
- Tesliuc, E. D., & Lindert, K. (2004). Risk and Vulnerability in Guatemala: A Quantitative and Qualitative Assessment. *Social Protection Discussion Paper Series*, 0404.
- Townsend, R. M. (1994), Risk and Insurance in Village India. *Econometrica, Journal of the Econometric Society*, 62(3), 539-591. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2951659
- Townsend, R. M. (1995). Consumption Insurance: An Evaluation of Risk-bearing Systems in Low-income Economies. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *9*, 83-102. http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/jep.9.3.83
- Verbeek, M. (2004). A guide to Modern Econometrics (2nd ed.). England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Adjective + Noun Collocational Competence of L1 Thai Learners: A Comparative Study of a Regular Program and an English Program

Paitoon Suwitchanphan¹ & Supakorn Phoocharoensil¹

Correspondence: Paitoon Suwitchanphan, Language Institute, Thammasat University, Thailand. E-mail: pasubi bird@hotmail.com

Received: June 25, 2013 Accepted: July 16, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p210 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p210

Abstract

The main purpose of the current research was to determine how Thai EFL students studying in the regular and English programs use adjective + noun collocations. The second purpose was to find out the relationship between school curricula and collocational competence of adjective + noun in three tests. The participants were 30 regular program students and another 30 English program students from a private secondary school in Bangkok, Thailand. The data collection instruments included the Gap-Filling Test (Test 1), the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2), and the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3). The main findings have shown that, in Test 1, the regular program participants (69.33%) scored higher than the English program participants (57.67%). According to the findings from Test 2, there was no significant difference between the curricula and the Collocation Selection Test. For Test 3, the regular program participants used more adjective + noun collocations (279 tokens) than did the English program ones (211 tokens). The pedagogical implications were also proposed to enhance learners' collocational competence, especially adjective + noun collocations.

Keywords: adjective + noun collocations, English program, lexical collocations, regular program

1. Introduction

Some English language teachers are likely to overemphasize the importance of grammatical structures instead of vocabulary in their lesson plans. According to Lewis (1993, p. 133), this might result from their strong confidence in teaching something that they know best, instead of things of which they are unsure. Nevertheless, though they incorporate vocabulary in lesson plans, only individual words are typically taught rather than collocations (Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005, p. 14). It is a commonly held belief that vocabulary is far more important than grammar. According to Wilkin (1972, p. 111), it is said that "while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Grammar, however, is acting as a bridge between lexis (Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanic, 2001, p. 84; Lewis, 1993, vii). General knowledge of individual words is not regarded as sufficient to achieve native-like commands of English; consequently, the knowledge of collocation is of paramount importance to every English learner to produce a group of chunks that makes his/her language sound more natural (Bahns, 1993; Brashi, 1999; Brown, 1974; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Fontenelle, 1994; Ganji, 2012; Hedge, 2000; Hill, 2000; Hsu & Chiu, 2008; Karoly, 2005; Klerk, 2006; Leech, Cruickshank & Ivanic, 2001; Lewis, 1993; Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005; McCarthy, 1990; Wallace, 1982).

Despite their syntactic correctness, two or more words that co-occur might not sound natural to native speakers of English (Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005, p. 7). For example, although *strong rain* and *heavy rain* are both syntactically correct, *heavy* is an appropriate collocate to be used with *rain*. Furthermore, according to Phoocharoensil (2011) and Thornbury (2002), even though two or more words are regarded as synonymous to one another, they cannot always be used interchangeably in all contexts. As a result, this renders collocations difficult and problematic for English language learners.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Definitions of Collocation

According to Palmer (1933), as cited in Nation (2001, p. 317), the concept of collocations was first invented as "a string of words that must or should be learned, or is best or most conveniently learnt as an integral whole or independent entity, rather than by the process of piecing together component parts". Later, Palmer (1968, p.180)

¹ Language Institute, Thammasat University, Thailand

also stated that "[t]he habitual collocations in which words under study appear are quite simply the mere word accompaniment, the other word-material in which they are most commonly or most characteristically embedded". However, it was Firth (1957, p.181), who made the concept of collocation become widely known and remarked that "collocations of a given word are statements of the habitual or customary places of that word". Despite the existence of collocations since the early twentieth century, their definition and classification are still widely varied (Fontenelle, 1994). A large number of noted scholars in the field have defined the concept of collocations and proposed its classifications in order to better comprehend what collocation really is. McCarthy (1990, p. 158) gave a broad definition of collocations as words that are likely to co-occur, for example *blond* likely to collocate with *hair*. One of well-known definitions is that "it is a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others" (ibid., p. 12). Moreover, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p. 36) defined collocations as "strings of specific lexical items, such as rancid butter and curry flavor, that co-occur with a mutual expectancy greater than chance".

Despite wide definitions of collocations, scholars mostly defined a collocate and a node in a similar fashion. For example, a node was defined as "the word that is being studied", while a collocate was referred to "any word that occurs in the specified environment of a node" (Sinclair, 1991). When one word is a node, the other becomes a collocate and vice versa (Sinclair, Jones & Daley, 2004, p. 10). Nattinger and DeCarrio (1992, pp. 20-21) suggested that after both a node and a collocate are identified, their surrounding functional words should be ignored so that emphasis can be put on the collocation being studied.

Not only definitions but also classifications of collocations have been proposed. Gairns and Redman (1986) categorized collocations into four main groups: subject noun + verb, verb + object noun, adjective + noun, and adverb + past participle used adjectivally. Though they are simple and straightforward, those four categories might not best explain the entire concept of collocations. Accordingly, several eminent scholars subsequently emerged to provide more thorough classifications in order to better understand the concept. Hill (2000, p. 51) proposed seven categories: adjective + noun, noun + noun, verb + adjective + noun, verb + adverb, adverb + verb, adverb + adjective, and verb + preposition + noun. In addition, Hill (2000, p. 63) also suggested a broad classification, based on collocational strength: unique collocations, such as *foot the bill*, strong collocations, such as *rancid butter*, weak collocations, such as *good boy*, and medium-strength collocations, such as *hold a conversation*.

2.2 Relevant Past Studies

In prior research studies, a good number of researchers cast light on collocational competence of EFL learners and found that most English language learners in every proficiency level experienced collocational problems (Altenberg & Granger, 2001; Boonyasaquan, 2006; Brashi, 1999; Hsu, 2007; Hsu & Chiu, 2008; Jukneviciene, 2008; Lakshmi, 2012; Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005; Nesselhauf, 2003; Phoocharoensil, 2013; Rahimi & Momeni, 2011; Shih, 2000; Ying, 2009; Yumanee & Phoocharoensil, 2013). However, differences in collocational competence of adjective + noun between regular and English programs are still left to explore, especially in Thai context. Therefore, in this present study, the primary emphasis was on discovering the discrepancy in adjective + noun collocational competence between the regular and English program grade 11 students who were studying English as a foreign language (EFL) at one private school in Bangkok, Thailand.

A series of studies revealed that learners faced difficulty with lexical collocations more than grammatical collocations (Boonyasaquan, 2006; Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005; Phoocharoensil, 2013; Ying, 2009). For example, according to Phoocharoensil (2013), Thai high-proficiency participants at one of the well-know universities in Thailand produced lexical miscollocations of 51.72%, whereas their grammatical miscollocations were only 48.28%. Lexical collocations lexical collocations were even more problematic for low-proficiency participants with lexical miscollocations of 58.56%, and grammatical miscollocations of 41.44%. Similarly, Thai freshmen EFL participants from the oldest and most well-known university had the lowest scores on lexical collocations in the gap-filling task (Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005, pp. 10-11). Additionally, the significant findings from Boonyasaquan (2006) revealed that Thai participants, majoring in English at a government prestigious university in Thailand, produced the most frequent errors on adjective + noun collocations.

In addition to past research, one of crucial factors that plays an important role in collocational competence of learners is exposure (Brashi, 2009; Cowie, 1998; McCarthy, 1990; Wallace, 1982, p. 92). Therefore, participants in the English program tend to outperform those in the regular program regarding collocational competence in the Gap-Filling Test (Test 1), the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2), and the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3).

3. Research Questions

The research questions in this study are as follows:

- 3.1 How do Thai EFL students studying in the regular and English programs use adjective + noun collocations?
- 3.2 What is the relationship between school curricula and collocational competence of adjective + noun?

4. Hypotheses

As exposure is a key to students' collocational competence, and collocational competence depends on not only how long students are exposed to the target language, but also how frequently those collocations occur (McCarthy, 1990; Wallace, 1982, p. 92), two main research hypotheses of the current study can be proposed as follows:

4.1 Thai EFL students in the English program show a significantly higher level of adjective + noun collocational competence than those in the regular program.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Participants

Grade 11 Thai EFL learners in a regular program and an English program in private schools in Thailand are the total population of the current study. The participants in this study were 30 regular and 30 English program grade 11 students from a private secondary school in Bangkok, Thailand. A number of curriculum differences were highlighted. On the one hand, four English classes were offered weekly to the regular program students and taught by Thai teachers, including Grammar class for 1 period or 50 minutes, and the other three fundamental English classes for approximately 2.5 hours. Thus, the total number of hours that they were weekly exposed to English at school constituted around 3.3 hours. On the other hand, the English program participants had far more exposure to English and more opportunity to study with native speakers of English in most of the subjects (i.e. English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Computer, Grammar, Science, Chemistry, Physics and Biology). The total number of hours that they were exposed themselves to English with native speakers per week accounted for approximately 10 hours.

5.2 Sampling Procedures

The researcher obtained permission from the head of English department and English language teachers, teaching grade 11 students in both programs in order to collect data between January, 2014 and March, 2014. In order to seek qualified applicants, 30 grade 11 regular program participants and another 30 English program participants, the Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT), one of the most acceptable standard placement tests, was distributed to all grade 11 students in each program at the school. The highest scores of OPT included in the study were 40 in the regular program and 45 in the English program out of 60, whereas the lowest scores of OPT included in the study were 23 out of 60 in both programs. The average mean scores of OPT in the regular and English programs were 28.47 and 30.23 respectively. This was to ensure that the participants in both programs had relatively similar English proficiency level. All in all, the English program participants slightly outperformed the regular program participants in OPT. Those qualified participants were later asked to voluntarily do Test 1, Test 2, and Test 3 respectively.

5.3 Research Instruments

After the 60 qualified participants had been recruited, they were asked to perform the Gap-Filling Test (Test 1), the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2), and the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3) respectively. A simple concept of adjective + noun collocations had been explained to all participants before Test 1 was distributed in order to make it fair and impartial between both groups. All head nouns that were used in Test 1 and Test 2 were selected from the 1,000 most common written words, according to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2009), including ability, change, benefit, condition, customer, evidence, behavior, cause, difference, attitude, task, action, quality, competition, variety, food, argument, attention, demand and amount respectively. Appropriate and inappropriate adjective + noun collocations in Test 1, Test 2 and Test 3 could be determined by these two dictionaries: the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2009) and the Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English (2009), and two corpora: the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the British National Corpus (BNC). Collocations used must not only appear in one of the aforementioned dictionaries or corpora, but also fit the given contexts in order to be regarded as appropriate. Spelling mistakes of adjective + noun collocations were acceptable.

The Gap-Filling Test (Test 1) contained 20 items, all of which measured the knowledge of adjective + noun collocations, and took approximately 30 minutes during their normal English class. Each item in Test 1 was written in a full sentence with a blank (Appendix A). The Collocation Selection Test (Test 2) was immediately carried out after all Test 1 papers had been collected and also took approximately 30 minutes. Like Test 1, Test 2

shared the same contexts, meaning that kinds and numbers of adjectives used to collocate with nodes were the same. In each item, four possible collocates or adjectives were provided with three appropriate and one unlikely collocation. The participants were informed that more than one collocate could be selected in Test 2. The Gap-Filling Test (Test 1) must precede the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2) since this could prevent the participants from using collocations found in Test 2 to fill in the blanks in Test 1. On the following week, the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3) was administered to the same groups of the participants. They were asked to write a 150-word descriptive paragraph of 'The appearance and personality of my best friend' during their normal English class within 50 minutes (Appendix C). All participants were informed that both their grammatical errors and misspellings would be ignored in order to allow them to produce language that could truly reflect their collocational competence of adjective + noun. After all of the three tests had fully been completed, demographic questionnaires were distributed to all the participants to gather such background information as their exposure to English and the number of hours that they studied English weekly (Appendix D).

In an attempt to ensure that all four tests, i.e. the Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT), Test 1, Test 2, and Test 3, were suitable for grade 11 students, and the time given was appropriate, a pilot study was previously conducted on five Thai EFL learners in grade 11 at the school. Furthermore, instructions of all tests should not cause any misunderstanding or confusion to participants during the data collocation stage. Afterwards, some slight adjustments had subsequently been made before the updated versions of the tests were distributed to all 60 participants.

6. Findings

6.1 Findings from the Gap-Filling Test (Test 1)

Table 1. The appropriate and inappropriate adjective + noun collocations in both programs in Test 1

Itom	Item Regular program				English	program		
	Appropriate	Percent	Inappropriate	Percent	Appropriate	Percent	Inappropriate	Percent
1	20	67%	10	33%	12	40%	18	60%
2	18	60%	12	40%	10	33%	20	67%
3	23	77%	7	23%	18	60%	12	40%
4	18	60%	12	40%	20	67%	10	33%
5	25	83%	5	17%	26	87%	4	13%
6	19	63%	11	37%	11	37%	19	63%
7	24	80%	6	20%	23	77%	7	23%
8	18	60%	12	40%	15	50%	15	50%
9	17	57%	13	43%	13	43%	17	57%
10	25	83%	5	17%	23	77%	7	23%
11	22	73%	8	27%	14	47%	16	53%
12	20	67%	10	33%	17	57%	13	43%
13	24	80%	6	20%	20	67%	10	33%
14	18	60%	12	40%	14	47%	16	53%
15	25	83%	5	17%	16	53%	14	47%
16	28	93%	2	7%	19	63%	11	37%
17	23	77%	7	23%	24	80%	6	20%
18	21	70%	9	30%	24	80%	6	20%
19	17	57%	13	43%	17	57%	13	43%
20	11	37%	19	63%	10	33%	20	67%
Total	416	69%	184	31%	346	58%	254	42%

From Table 1, it can be seen that the highest number of appropriate adjective + noun collocations in the regular and English program participants was on item 16 (93%) and item 5 (87%) respectively. On the other hand, questions that had the highest inappropriate adjective + noun collocations were on Item 20 (63%) in the regular program, and on Item 2 and 20 (67%) in the English program. All in all, the regular program participants with

416 correct adjective + noun collocations (58%). Moreover, the regular program participants also made smaller inappropriate collocations (31%) than did the English program participants (42%).

6.2 Findings from the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2)

Table 2. The appropriate and inappropriate adjective + noun collocations in both programs in Test 2

Item		Regular	program			English	program	
	Appropriate	Percent	Inappropriate	Percent	Appropriate	Percent	Inappropriate	Percent
1	38	62.30%	23	37.70%	46	67.65%	22	32.35%
2	35	68.63%	16	31.37%	44	83.02%	9	16.98%
3	28	57.14%	21	42.86%	33	62.26%	20	37.74%
4	58	85.29%	10	14.71%	65	87.84%	9	12.16%
5	44	72.13%	17	27.87%	46	70.77%	19	29.23%
6	55	83.33%	11	16.67%	55	85.94%	9	14.06%
7	37	64.91%	20	35.09%	50	78.13%	14	21.88%
8	43	72.88%	16	27.12%	48	72.73%	18	27.27%
9	37	64.91%	20	35.09%	40	71.43%	16	28.57%
10	47	74.60%	16	25.40%	50	86.21%	8	13.79%
11	49	79.03%	13	20.97%	58	85.29%	10	14.71%
12	43	78.18%	12	21.82%	46	92.00%	4	8.00%
13	58	84.06%	11	15.94%	51	73.91%	18	26.09%
14	48	87.27%	7	12.73%	47	85.45%	8	14.55%
15	51	86.44%	8	13.56%	50	89.29%	6	10.71%
16	51	85.00%	9	15.00%	57	85.07%	10	14.93%
17	46	79.31%	12	20.69%	46	77.97%	13	22.03%
18	47	87.04%	7	12.96%	48	82.76%	10	17.24%
19	48	77.42%	14	22.58%	54	85.71%	9	14.29%
20	45	78.95%	12	21.05%	50	81.97%	11	18.03%
Total	908		275		984		243	

Table 2 drew a close comparison of the appropriate and inappropriate adjective + noun collocations between the regular and English program participants in the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2). The total number of collocations selected was varied as the participants were informed that they could choose more than one answer. The total number of appropriate adjective + noun collocations in Test 2 was 1800 tokens, while that of inappropriate collocations was 600 tokens. In conclusion, the total appropriate adjective + noun collocations in the regular and English programs accounted for 908 tokens (50.44%) and 984 tokens (54.67%) respectively. In contrast, the regular program participants (275 tokens or 45.83%) chose more inappropriate collocations than did the English program participants (243 tokens or 40.5%).

6.3 Findings from the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3)

Table 3. The appropriate and inappropriate adjective + noun collocations in both programs in Test 3

	Appropriate collocational use	Inappropriate collocational use	Percent
Dogular program	279	-	98.94%
Regular program	-	3	1.06%
English nyagyam	211	-	98.60%
English program	-	3	1.40%

Regarding Table 3, the total number of appropriate adjective + noun collocations used in the regular and English programs was 279 tokens (98.94%) and 211 tokens (98.60%) respectively. This simply means that the regular program participants produced more correct adjective + noun collocations than did the English program participants. There were only 3 incorrect collocations found in both programs.

6.4 The correlation between the curricula and the collocational competence of adjective + noun in Test 1

Table 4. The correlations between the curricula and the Gap-Filling Test (Test 1)

Correlations

		CURRICULA	TEST 1
	Pearson Correlation	1	332(*)
CURRICULA	Sig. (2-tailed)		.010
	N	60	60
	Pearson Correlation	332(*)	1
TEST1	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	
	N	60	60

^{*} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

From Table 4, the p-value (.01) is less than the significance level (.05), meaning that Ho has been rejected. Therefore, there was a relationship between school curricula and the collocational competence of adjective + noun in the Gap-Filling Test. Since the correlation shows a negative sign (-.332), this means there was an inverse relationship between the curricula and the Gap-Filling Test scores. Consequently, the higher performing group could be expected when students were in the regular program.

6.5 The Correlation between the Curricula and the Collocational Competence of Adjective + Noun in Test 2

Table 5. The correlations between the curricula and the Collocation Selection Test (Test2)

Correlations

		CURRICULA	TEST 2
	Pearson Correlation	1	.213
CUDDICHIA	Sig. (2-tailed)		.102
CURRICULA	N	60	60
	Pearson Correlation	.213	1
TEGT 3	Sig. (2-tailed)	.102	
TEST 2	N	60	60

Unlike Table 4, the p-value (.102) in Table 5 is greater than the significance level (.05), suggesting that Ho has not been rejected. Consequently, there was no correlation between the school curricula and the collocational competence of adjective + noun in the Collocation Selection Test (Test 2). Put differently, no matter which programs they were in, their collocational competence of adjective + noun was the same.

6.6 The Correlation between the Curricula and the Collocational Competence of Adjective + Noun in Test 3

Table 6. The correlations between the curricula and the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3)

Correlations

		CURRICULA	TEST 3
	Pearson Correlation	1	368*
CHIDDICHI	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004
CURRICULA	N	60	60
	Pearson Correlation	368*	1
TERCE A	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	
TEST 3	N	60	60

^{*} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

As could be seen in Table 6, p-value (.004) is less than the significance level (.05), resulting in the rejection of the Ho. Consequently, there was a relationship between the curricula and the collocational competence of

adjective + noun in the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3). Similarly to Test 1, a negative sign (-.368) indicated an inverse relationship. That is to say, the regular program participants outperformed the English program participants in terms of the collocational competence of adjective + noun in the Descriptive Written Task (Test 3).

7. Discussion

The two hypotheses were formulated since differences of collocational competence between the regular and English program participants could be expected. Specifically, due to massive exposure that the English program students normally received in various subjects in school with native speakers of English, they were more likely to accurately use adjective + noun collocations than the regular program students. Nevertheless, from the analysis shown earlier, the hypothesis needed to be rejected. The main findings contradicted some previous notions that extensive listening and reading in different types of texts are likely for learners to broaden learners' collocational size (Brashi, 2009, p.29; Obilisteanu, 2009). The work of Cowie (1998) indicated that collocation is useful, especially for EFL learners who have limited exposure to the target language. Specifically, students who are in a regular program with limited exposure to the target language should learn words in chunks to produce language naturally and fluently. Collocations can later be retrieved quickly once required. The work of Hashemi, Azizinezhad and Dravishi (2011) indicated that speaking and writing proficiency would also be developed since the primary emphasis is on larger units. Nevertheless, receptive vocabulary size might not necessarily equal productive one, and the rate of moving receptive vocabulary to productive one is not consistent (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 76; Nation, 2001, p. 371). Karoly (2005, p. 63) made clear that although awareness of collocations can be promoted by developing receptive skills, English language learners also need an ample opportunity to practice using collocations in natural settings. As Nation (2001, p. 371) stated, when word frequency is rather low, the gap between receptive and productive vocabulary becomes increasingly wider. Accordingly, receptive and productive skills should be picked up and complement each other so as to promote collocational competence. Once learners' collocational competence is enhanced, their overall language competence tends to increase as well (Brown, 1974; Klerk, 2006). The justifications for the phenomenon that the regular program participants performed better than the English program participants in terms of adjective + noun collocations were also suggested. This could be explained by the fact that the opportunity of producing the language through speaking and writing might be limited in the classroom despite a massive exposure to English. Although their collocational competence of adjective + noun was slightly higher than 50%, especially in Test 1 and Test 2, a continuous improvement in collocational competence is still required in order for them to produce the language naturally and native-like.

8. Pedagogical Implications

Though many previous research studies emphasized the great importance of incorporating collocations in teachers' lesson plans, collocation has not yet been received adequate attention in the classroom. Pedagogical implications were still proposed for English language teachers to increase learners' collocational competence.

First, it is unlikely that collocations are taught without awareness of teachers themselves (Nation, 2001; Lewis, 2000; Lewis & Hill, 1992; McCarthy, 1990; O'Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007); that is, teachers should first realize the significance of teaching collocations. Second, benefits of learning collocations should be explicitly provided to learners. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p. 114) suggested that thanks to collocation, grammatical errors and unnatural language can be reduced since learners are advised to learn vocabulary as chunks. Third, such activities as information-gap, problem-solving and role-plays can be used to introduce the concept of collocation. Next, not only meanings of new words but also their collocates should be introduced (Lewis, 2000, p. 12; Nation, 2001, p. 336). For example, apart from a meaning of ability, its collocates (e.g. exceptional, extraordinary, great and outstanding) should also be provided. This is effective learning for learners to both increase new vocabulary repertoires and strengthen existing vocabulary (Lewis, 2000; Lewis & Hill, 1992; Nation, 2001, p. 395). The fifth pedagogical implication is that the most frequent collocations should be introduced first due to a limited number of hours in the classroom (Hinkel, 2009; Nation, 2001; McCarthy, 1990; Sinclair & Renouf, 1988). It is also suggested that lexical collocations should be put more emphasis than grammatical collocations since, according to the past research (e.g. Boonyasaquan, 2006; Hsu, 2007; Mallikamas & Pongpairoj, 2005; Phoocharoensil, 2013; Ying, 2009), learners made more lexical collocations than grammatical ones. Last but not least, according to Woolard (2000, pp. 40-41), to become autonomous learners, students should be taught how to make use of corpora; in addition, commercial dictionaries also enable learners to become independent from their teachers.

9. Conclusion

This research was primarily conducted to 1) investigate how Thai EFL students studying in the regular and English programs use adjective + noun collocations 2) determine if there is a relationship between school curricula and collocational competence with adjective + noun. It revealed that the English program participants did not perform better in terms of adjective + noun collocations than did the regular program participants. Therefore, it is useful to further closely investigate the curricula in order to improve students' competence using adjective + noun collocations. Moreover, miscollocations can also be used to find out strategies the participants employed to cope with unknown collocations.

Acknowledgments

This research would not have been brought to completion without the financial support of the Language Institute of Thammasat University (LITU). I also would like to show my deep gratitude to Assistant Professor Supakorn Phoocharoensil, Ph.D., my research supervisors, who have been providing support and constructive advice throughout the process of my research. My sincere thanks are also expressed to Dr. Passapong Sripicharn and Associate Professor Prima Mallikamas for their continual support and time that they invested in my research. Last but not least, my research could not have been completed without my family, my girlfriend, and all of my friends who provide great encouragement.

References

- Altenberg, B., & Granger, S. (2001). The grammatical and lexical patterning of make in native and non-native student writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(2), 173-195. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.2.173
- Bahns, J. (1993). Lexical collocations: A contrastive view. *ELT Journal*, 47(1), 56-63. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.1.56
- BNC. (2007). British National Corpus. Retrieved from http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
- Boonyasaquan, S. (2006). An analysis of collocational violations in translation. *Journal of Humanities*, 27, 79-91. Bangkok: Faculty of Humanity, Srinakharinwirot University.
- Brashi, A. (2009). Collocability as a problem in L2 Production. Reflections on Eng. Lang. Teaching, 8(1), 21-34.
- Brown, D. F. (1974). Advanced vocabulary teaching: The problem of collocation. *RELC Journal*, *5*(2), 1-11. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/003368827400500201
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1988). Vocabulary and language teaching. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- COCA. (2012). Corpus of Contemporary American English. Retrieved from http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
- Cowie, A. P. (1988). Stable and creative aspects of vocabulary. In R. Carter, & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and language teaching* (pp. 126-139). London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Firth, J. R. (1957). Papers in linguistics, 1934-1951. London: Oxford University Press.
- Fontenelle, T. (1994). What on earth are collocations: An assessment of the ways in which certain words co-occur and others do not. *English Today*, 10(4), 42-48. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0266078400007902
- Ganji, M. (2012). On the effect of gender and years of instruction on Iranian EFL learners' collocational competence. *English Language Teaching*, 5(2), 123-133. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n2p123
- Gairns, R., & Redman, S. (1986). Working with words: A guide to teaching and learning vocabulary. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hashemi, M., Azizinezhad, M., & Dravishi, S. (2011). Collocation a neglected aspect in teaching and learning EFL. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *31*, 522-525. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.12.097
- Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and learning in the language classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: From grammatical failure to collocational success. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further development in the lexical approach* (pp. 47-69). London: Commercial Colour Press Plc.
- Hill, J., Lewis, M., & Lewis, M. (2000). Classroom strategies, activities and exercises. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further development in the lexical approach* (pp. 88-117). London: Commercial Colour Press Plc.

- Hinkel, E. (2012). Online English-English learner dictionaries boost word learning. Eng. Teach Forum, 4, 10-15.
- Hsu, J. (2007). Lexical collocations and their relation to the online writing of Taiwanese college English majors and non-English majors. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 4(2), 192-209.
- Hsu, J., & Chiu, C. (2008). Lexical collocations and their relation to speaking proficiency of college EFL learners in Taiwan. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 10(1), 181-204.
- Jukneviciene, R. (2008). Collocations with high-frequency verbs in learner English: Lithuanian learners vs native speakers. *Kalbotyra*, *59*(3), 119-127.
- Karoly, A. (2005). The importance of raising collocational awareness in the vocabulary development of intermediate level learners of English. *Eger Journal of English Studies*, V, 58-69.
- Klerk, V. (2006). Corpus linguistics and world Englishes. London: Continuum.
- Lakshmi, M. (2012). Teaching lexis through comics: An exploratory study. *Journal of Engineering*, 2(9), 50-54.
- Leech, G., Cruickshank, B., & Ivanic, R. (2001). An A-Z of English grammar & usage. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Lewis, M. (2000). Teaching collocation: Further development in the lexical approach. London: Commercial Colour Press Plc.
- Lewis, M. (1993). The lexical approach. London: Commercial Colour Press Plc.
- Lewis, M., & Hill, J. (1992). Practical techniques for language teaching. London: Commercial Colour Press.
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. (2009). Essex: Pearson Educational Limited.
- McCarthy, M. (1990). Vocabulary. New York: Oxford University Express.
- Mallikamas, P., & Pongpairoj, N. (2005). Thai learners' knowledge of English collocations. *HKBU Papers in Applied Language Studies*, 5, 1-28.
- Nation, P. (2001). Learning vocabulary in another language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). Lexical phrases and language teaching. Oxford University Press.
- Nesselhauf, N. (2003). The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(2), 223-242. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/24.2.223
- Obilisteanu, G. (2009). Improving receptive and productive skills. *Behavioural-Social Sciences and Foreign Languages*, 2(54), 65-70.
- O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2007). From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford collocations dictionary for students of English. (2009). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Palmer, F. R. (1968). Selected Papers of J.R. Firth 1952-59. London and Harlow: Longman Linguistic Library.
- Phoocharoensil, S. (2013). Cross-linguistic influence: Its impact on L2 English collocation production. *English Language Teaching*, 6(1), 1-10.
- Phoocharoensil, S. (2011). Collocational errors in EFL learners' interlanguage. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 2(3), 103-120.
- Rahimi, M., & Momeni, G. (2011). The effect of teaching collocations on English language proficiency. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *31*, 37-42. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.12.013
- Shih, R. H. H. (2000). *Collocation Deficiency in a Learner Corpus of English: From an overuse perspective*. In Pacific Asia Conference on Language.
- Sinclair, J., & Renouf, A. (1988). A lexical syllabus for language learning. In R. Carter, & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and language teaching* (pp. 140-160). London: Pearson Education Limited
- Sinclair, J. M. (1991). Corpus concordance collocation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sinclair, J., Jones, S., & Daley, R. (2004). English collocation studies: The OSTI report. New York: Continuum.
- Thornbury, S. (2002). How to teach vocabulary. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Wallace, M. (1982). Teaching vocabulary. Oxford: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.

Woolard, G. (2000). Collocation-encouraging learner independence. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation:* Further development in the lexical approach (pp. 28-46). London: Language Teaching Publications.

Ying, S. (2009). Study on collocations in English writing by Chinese students. Sino-US Eng. Teach, 6(3), 25-30.

Yumanee, C., & Phoocharoensil, S. (2013). Analysis of collocational errors of Thai EFL students. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *1*(1), 90-100.

Appendix A
Test 1: The Gap-Filling Test of Adjective + Noun Collocations
Instruction: Fill in each of the following blanks with a suitable adjective.
Time: 30 minutes
1. It takes hard work and ability to make it as a professional athlete.
2. No changes were made to the book.
3. We need to spend at least a week there to get the benefit.
4. The car has been well maintained and is incondition.
5. We need to take care of Connor closely because he is one of ourcustomers.
6. There is now evidence that these chemicals are damaging the environment.
7. We are trying to understand the causes ofbehavior.
8. Although the cost of the project was enormous, it was not thecause of its failure.
9. There was a(n) difference in his behavior toward me.
10. My parents like people with a(n) attitude to life.
11. Monkeys can be taught to do tasks.
12 action is needed to keep the situation from getting out of control.
13. It is good that much of the land was of quality.
14. There is competition in the automobile industry because there are many players in the industry.
15. Café Artista offers a(n) variety of sandwiches.
16. It is important to get plenty of exercises and to eatfood.
17. We need to provide a(n) argument as to why the system should be changed.
18. They listened to their professor's speech withattention.
19. There is a(n) demand for new cars owing to the expansion of the middle class.
20. I need to save money for my tuition fees so I am planning to spend a(n) amount of money each day.
Appendix B
Test 2: The Collocation Selection Test of Adjective + Noun Collocations
Instruction: Make a check (\checkmark) in front of a possible word or words that can make each sentence meaningful. You can choos more than one answer for each question. Time: 30 minutes
1. He is one of the best writers and editors of ability in our company.
remarkable great
skillful outstanding
2. Her family life has undergone change in recent years due to the economic downturn.
enormous high
significant considerable

3. Their wholesale business offers would be to our benefit.

4. The house was in a condition because of the great storm.

immense

bad

significant

extreme

___ tremendous

flawed

poor	terrible
5. Mr. David has been ourdepartment store in the city.	customer since 2000. It seems he prefers our conveniently-located small store to a big
loyal	faithful
regular	lengthy
6 evidence shows that	men are more likely to have heart attacks than women.
Medical	Medicinal
Scientific	Experimental
7.Can TV violence cause	behavior?
criminal	powerful
disruptive	aggressive
8. Breast cancer is the	ause of death in women.
leading	major
principal	noteworthy
9. Researchers found a number of	differences in the way boys and girls learn.
top	substantial
wide	dramatic
10. Mr. Alex has just been promot	ed because he has a very attitude towards work.
healthy	logical
positive	right
11. Trying to bring up a small dau	ghter on your own is notask.
basic	easy
smooth	simple
12. Environmental groups want	
tough	decisive
firm	iron
13. The restaurant uses only	quality of ingredients to meet rich, fussy customers' needs.
qualified	nutritious
healthy	valuable
14. There is competition	on between the three leading soap manufacturers.
angry	fierce
intense	keen
15. Iphone 5s offers a(n)	variety of applications to customers.
unlimited	unending
bottomless	endless
16. Lack of food led to	much illness among seamen.
healthy	nourished
proper	healthful
17. Students at Thammasat Univer	rsity give a argument against smoking.
sound	convincing
trustworthy	persuasive
18. I think that you did not give th	em your attention.
special	full
close	firm
19. Thanks to the increasing popu	lation in the UK, there is a demand for pasta.

heavy	long	
high	huge	
20. This table does not need to g	et wiped because there is only a amount of dirt on the table.	
narrow	minimal	
minute	tiny	
Appendix C		
Test 3: The Descriptive Written	Γask	
Instruction: Write a 150-word de	scriptive paragraph on the topic of 'The appearance and personality of m	ny best friend'.
Appendix D		
Demographic Information Quest	ionnaire	
_	statements and provide an honest and accurate response using an inktify you nor will it be used for commercial purposes. Your information of idential.	
2. Sex: Male	Female	
3. Age: years		
4. Nationality:		
5. What program are you in?		
Regular Eng	glish	
6. Have you ever studied English	n in any English-speaking country? (e.g. America or England)	
Yes No		
If yes, for months/years		
7. How many years have you bee	en studying English? years	
8. How many hours do you study	English at school per week? hours	
9. What language do teachers use	e in the English class?	
Thai English		
10. What language do teachers u	se in other subjects? (e.g. Mathematics, social science)	
Thai English		
If English is used, please specifi hours per week	c the subject(s)	and for
11. Do you have any exposure to	native speakers of English in the school?	
Yes No		
If yes, for hours per we	ek	
12. Please explain how you learn	new vocabulary. (e.g. methods, strategies)	
13. Please explain how new voca	abulary is taught in the class. (e.g. methods, strategies)	

Thank you for your time and cooperation

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

The Meaning of Female Passivity in Traditional Malay Literature

Rahimah Hamdan¹ & Shaiful Bahri Md.Radzi²

Correspondence: Rahimah Hamdan, Department of Malay Language, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia. Tel: 60-3-8946-8758. E-mail: rahimahhamdan@gmail.com; rahimahh@upm.edu.my

Received: June 25, 2013 Accepted: July 8, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p222 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p222

Abstract

In traditional Malay literature, women were often portrayed as individuals who were mentally, physically and spiritually weak. They were incapable of surviving on their own and could only hope to receive help and assistance from the main characters comprising men. In addition, the female characters in the genres of traditional Malay literature were 'silenced' by their authors when faced with certain situations without being given the opportunity to come forward to defend themselves let alone their rights. Their 'silence' was also related to their passivity in dealing with life. Thus, this paper will identify the female characters in several selected genres and analyse their level of passivity according to Bardwick's psychological perspective. The results of this study show that the 'silence' of traditional women marked their ingenuity in handling pressure from the Malay patriarchal society. The 'passivity' of this group was also meant to be a form of indirect aggression over their inability to establish their rights openly in society. This paper shows that the 'silence' of the women in traditional Malay literature does not mean they gave in willingly to every act committed against them, but it was also a 'subtle' resistance to the suppression by the patriarchal system as practised in the Malay community.

Keywords: manipulation, passive, patriarchal, gender, feminine

1. Introduction

Malay women were depicted in traditional Malay literary works as weak 'creatures' who were easily deterred, and were willing to sacrifice for the happiness and well-being of others (Krueger, 1984). This typical image of the traditional woman was formed by the gender system in the Malay community, which used certain codes to label the 'sexuality' of an individual. Women and men needed to follow certain patterns that had been put in place since the day they were born. This gender segregation code then led to certain classification of spaces in the Malay community that were often associated specifically with a particular gender. For example, 'public' spaces were controlled by Adam (men) while domestic spaces were ideal for Eve (women). This gave rise to terms such as 'kitchen maid', 'housemaid', 'housewife', and various other terms that refer only to women. This phenomenon was due to the power of the 'patriarchal system' that dominated the thinking, worldview and culture that greatly influenced every behaviour and action in the community. Thus, as long as there was a clear division between domestic and public spaces in a society, then women would continue to be subjected to patriarchal domination, where all power remained in the hands of the man as the head of the family (Rosaldo, 1974).

Due to the strong patriarchal dominance in traditional Malay society, women were often marginalized or their interests and contributions to society were ignored. Indirectly, most of the works in traditional Malay literature often placed women as 'second-class' people or as objects of ridicule in a story. They were not given the 'power' to protest against the actions and behaviour of men towards them. They were often 'passive', 'silent' or 'silenced' by the authors in order to meet the requirements of the patriarchal system. Characters such as Dang Bunga and Dang Bibah in *Sejarah Melayu*, for instance, were willing to be sent as gifts to Pasai together with other souvenirs. Similarly, Tun Kudu remained 'silent' as though she was prepared to be divorced on a whim so as to be remarried to an old nobleman for the sake of the prosperity of the city. Does this phenomenon prove that traditional Malay women had way whatsoever to defend themselves? Does that 'passivity' in women symbolize

¹ Department of Malay Language, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

² School of Malay Language, Literature and Culture Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

'indirect aggression' because of they were unable to establish their rights, let alone speak openly? Therefore, this working paper aims to analyse the 'passivity' of women from a psychological angle and to further prove that not all forms of passivity were in conformance to the gender codes of the society, but extended far beyond every action and behaviour.

2. Social Gender System

The gender system in the Malay community was very much influenced by religion, custom and culture. All these three elements were responsible for shaping the thoughts and viewpoints of the society, especially in the formulation of regulations or laws to ensure harmony in their lives for generations. Winstedt (1958) believes that the unique mix of several religions down through the ages, namely animism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam, with local and Western elements influenced the development of Malay customs and culture in the region. In fact, this complex combination confused the understanding of the Malay community with regard to customs. However, according to Al-Attas (1990), Islam emerged as the main religion in shaping the customs and culture of the Malays since its arrival in the 13th century AD. Thus, Islam has been considered as a guide towards a new era known as the 'modern' age because of its knowledge based on rationalism or reason as well as its social system, which emphasized individual freedom and liberation from the grip of irrational beliefs (Al-Attas, 1990). Therefore, the arrival of Islam in the Malay World was like a ray of sunshine and marked a paradigm shift in the entire social life of the Malays, covering their worldview, values, ethics and certain principles for survival. Those customs which were considered as not being contrary to Islam continued to be practised while those traditions which were obviously in conflict with the beliefs and principles of Islam were abandoned, or if there were any that could be further improved, they were given a fresh Islamic image. Thus, this explains the strong links between Islam and the customs, which played an important role in forming and shaping the ideology of gender relations among the Malay community.

Islam has established that the role and status of women is to 'complement' the men. The creation of Adam and Eve sent a clear message to the Malay community that men and women are mutually complementary and need each other. According to Islam, women are perfect human beings, just like the men (*Al Quran*, 4:1). Nevertheless, for the Malay community, the men are in a more dominant position than the women. They relate this to the creation of Adam and Eve and the biological nature of both genders. For example, men are believed to be physically stronger than women. On the other hand, women are endowed with a gentle nature and are more emotional than men. Indirectly, this difference would form the basis of gender relations in the Malay community because if this 'gender order' was violated an individual would be considered as a 'deviant', and in fact, might even be disowned by the family and cease to be a member of the community (Phelps & Austin, 1975).

The Malay community saw women as being weak and highly dependent on the men. As such, the duties of women were confined to the domestic domain alone. However, there were certain qualities that were only possessed by women which allowed them to step out of the domestic domain if they possessed specific skills that were needed by the members of the community. The job of a midwife and healer, for example, afforded women an opportunity to move about freely according to the needs of the society (Karim, 1992).

The power of leadership in the Malay community, whether formal or informal, often rested on the shoulders of men. They believed that men could maintain good social relationships and were able to control the spread of gossip that could undermine moral and ethical values. This was strengthened by the values of Islam, which stressed on men as leaders (*Al Quran*, 34: 4). Furthermore, men were said to be more rational in their judgments than women. The statement that 'women are less moral' if given power was also reviewed by Bukhari al-Jauhari in *Taj al-Salatin (Mahkota Raja-raja)*. This was evident in Malay historiographical works such as *Hikayat Patani* and *Bustanus Salatin*, which mentioned that the city-state was also governed peacefully by women rulers. However, the authority of these women rulers was constantly overshadowed by the men, where their nobles played the important role of 'policy makers' and the rulers simply had to give their assent. It was made very clear that the Malay community strongly supported the patriarchal system, which gave preference to men for any type of work. In fact, Western scholars, such as the psychoanalyst, Freud, also glorified 'patriarchal domination' in life by labelling women as creatures who were envious of 'the masculinity of the male sexual organ'. Therefore, Bardwick (1971), citing Freud's opinion, agreed that women did not deserve to be leaders because they lacked discretion and every decision of theirs was influenced more by emotion and compassion.

Gender roles were determined by the Malay community from the time when their children were still at an early age. Daughters had to devote part of their time to helping their mothers with domestic chores while the boys did heavy work in the public domain. It is clear that gender roles were nurtured from the start. These differences would shape the roles and responsibilities of the children when they grew up. This view was supported by

Bardwick (1971), who was of the opinion that the psychology of women was a mystery as the 'feminine character' depended on several factors, namely the biology, anatomy and the social conventions of the time.

In this regard, it is clear that the 'passivity' of women that caused them to be easily manipulated and dominated by men or circumstances was due the effects of various factors around them that had been nurtured in them since childhood. This phenomenon caused women to use that 'passivity' for a variety of purposes, whether it was to escape the pressures of life, as an art to manipulate men or just to give in to everything that was done to them.

3. Passivity in Relation to Manipulation and Domination

Manipulation comes from the English word 'manipulate' which means an action using a particular method to influence an individual into performing a task or acting as required (The Chambers Dictionary, 1999, p.978). Manipulation also carries a negative connotation because of its ability to influence other individuals with specific intentions. This is a 'cancer' in a relationship whether in a marriage, friendship or community. Indeed, any relationship, whether in a marriage, family circle or friendship, should be fostered in an honest and sincere manner to ensure a peaceful relationship. On the other hand, if 'manipulation and domination' are involved, then certain individuals are bound to suffer oppression, misery and pain as a result of the actions of other individuals. Meanwhile, 'domination' in Malay society refers to the act of controlling various aspects of life, especially in relation to the issue of the 'rights' and 'power' of men over women. The difference is that manipulation only involves indirect aggression as an way to get whatever one wants by exploiting others, whereas 'domination' is quite a 'hard' action as it involves 'dropping' certain individuals (women) from continuing to enjoy the same rights as men. Bardwick (1971) believed that the dominant power of men in the society was one of the reasons that the activities of women were restricted to the extent that their personalities were affected. Accordingly, due to surrounding forces controlled by the gender system, which hinged on religion, tradition and culture, traditional Malay women were often categorized as individuals who were passive in their actions. However, the question arises as to what was the purpose of the authors in sketching that 'passivity' onto the female characters in traditional Malay literary works?

The level of 'passivity' of a person is measured based on 'activity' and 'aggression'. In general, 'passive' is defined as the expectation of getting what one wants where the manifestation of the ego is very weak in capturing, weak in integrative capacity, has very few alternatives for controlling the disappointment or trauma that strikes, and fails to control the degree of childishness that is inherent in every individual (Bardwick, 1971, p. 124). Bardwick (1971, p. 14) held that there are three levels of 'passivity' in an individual:

- i. Very passive, that is incapable or having no desire to voice one's feelings even to a very important person in one's life. This is due to a loss of self-esteem.
- ii. Overtly passive and subtly aggressive.
- iii. Healthy passivity, where the woman reacts intelligently to disappointments.

However, 'passivity' is highly dependent on the emphasis that is given to it. Passive, as defined by Deutsch (1944), does not mean that no activity is being carried out, emptiness or no movement, but rather a more 'subtle' action with a specific interest or what is known as 'indirect aggression'. Hence, there are several types of 'passivity' by Bardwick (1971), namely:

- i. Passive meaning agreeing or openness
- ii. Passive meaning willing to be dominated by an individual out of love
- iii. Passive as in having connotations of aggression in a 'subtle' form (indirect) that is usually directed against other women on the grounds that the relationship with men is very meaningful
- iv. Passive as in having connotations of manipulating other individuals into doing a job that can be done on one's own because this 'passivity' is "a lack of outward aggressive behaviour, with the use of a passive-aggressive technique in order to manipulate and dominate". This type of passivity is 'helpless choicelessness' especially in relation to cultural expectations. Since the community cannot accept women who are active and aggressive into its circle, women prefer to use their 'passivity' and 'femininity' in order to manipulate.
- v. Passive as a manifestation of frustration but with a more compromising attitude (only express frustration within oneself).
- vi. Passive also meaning 'quiet' or 'reserved'.

Based on Bardwick (1971) six 'passive' categories above, this study will only select several categories and link them to examples of women in traditional Malay literature texts, namely passive and agreeing, passive because of willingness to be dominated by an individual out of love, passive for the purpose of manipulating, and passive as a manifestation of frustration. A review of the genres of traditional Malay literature turned up several female characters that fitted into those 'passive' categories.

3.1 Passive and Agreeing

In reality, there were many women in traditional Malay literature texts who acted passively by agreeing to whatever was done to them without any protest or attempt to defend their rights. If they were given a 'voice' by the author, it was only to fulfil the needs of the moment and particular interests. In fact, their presence in the works only sanctioned the patriarchal authority governing the life of the community. Historiographical genres such as Sejarah Melayu described Princess Syahrul Bariyah (daughter of Raja Kida Hindi) as the starting point for the chronology of the Malay Sultanate of Malacca when she married Alexander the Great, the King of Macedonia, who had conquered India in the expansion of his realm. She was described as a passive person who, in obedience to her father, Raja Kida Hindi, married the conqueror (Alexander the Great) of their country. Without her objection or consent, she was married to the conqueror of the state as a symbol of 'mutual understanding' and friendship over the defeat of India at the hands of the Macedonians. According to Feil (1984, p. 29), the exchange of women was a sign that the social ties between two parties or cities had been officially sanctioned. Consequently, not much was said by Princess Syahrul Bariyah except for one sentence when she wanted to inform her father that she had not had her period for two months (Sejarah Melayu, 1986, p.7). The question is why did the author play up the story of Princess Syahrul Bariyah not having had her period for two months? What was the significance of this in the Sejarah Melayu? This was merely to prove that the Malay dynasty in Malacca originated from the world's greatest king, Alexander the Great. This Indian princess was just the 'medium' in extending this great king's dynasty to the Malay world. Accordingly, the author only introduced one sentence out of the mouth of this princess as a sign that King Alexander's 'offspring' had arrived. She showed no other sign of protest or complaint about being forced to marry. Her opinions and feelings were completely ignored and in fact, without hesitation, Alexander the Great followed his father-in-law's request to leave his wife who was two months pregnant at that time. This clearly showed the low value of women in the eyes of men, let alone the conqueror of the world. Just as 'when the sweetness is gone, the pulp is thrown out', Princess Syahrul Bariyah was forced to agree with all the living arrangements made by them.

It can be seen here that the woman was only exploited to fulfil the 'sexual demands' of a man who was not responsible for building a marriage with a princess of one of his conquered states. The passivity of Princess Syahrul Bariyah seems to imply that she agreed with the action of her father and her husband in exploiting her for the sake of national peace besides proving her 'femininity' as a traditional woman who simply consented without protest to whatever 'masculine' acts were committed against her. Was it because her husband was a great man that she should have considered it an honour to be pregnant with 'his child'? Was this also why the coming and going of her husband at his whim and fancy could not be questioned? Such was the manipulation of women by men that they were forced to agree without questioning the actions of the men. As stated by Freud and quoted by Bardwick (1971, p. 5) "[...] this world is dominated by men who recognise the penis as a source of power".

Hikayat Banjar is a historiographical genre which also illustrates the passivity of the female characters, who simply agreed without protest to the actions of men in their lives. Princess Tunjung Buih was a mythical princess who appeared in many Malay historiographical works such as Sejarah Melayu, Hikayat Banjar, Salsilah Kutai, Hikayat Merong Mahawangsa and Hikayat Raja-raja Pasai. Her uniqueness was revealed when she was also linked to the chronology of the descendants of the Banjar rulers. According to Hikayat Banjar, this princess only appeared after Lambu Mangkurat's spiritual retreat in his quest to find a true king (native) to rule the country of Banjar. Although Banjar was ruled by a queen, this was in name only as all matters of state were handled by the nobleman named Lambu Mangkurat. This was evidence of Malay patriarchal power because the woman was only a symbol of the power of government while the reins of power remained in the hands of a man.

Princess Tunjung Buih was described as a passive person because she did not object when she was used as a mere 'symbol of government' by Lambu Mangkurat and Ampu Mandastana, the son of the founder of Banjar. Her passivity was obvious when she was not given a voice by the 'author' such that it looked as though she approved of the murder of her nephews (the sons of Ampu Masdatana) by Lambu Mangkurat due to a misinterpretation of the action of the princess in tossing Nagasari flowers and betel nuts to attract the attention of her nephews, who were playing around the castle. Lambu Mangkurat assumed that Princess Tunjung Buih was interested in marrying her nephews because in the Malay community betel nuts had connotations of a 'proposal'.

Hence, after witnessing the incident, Lambu Mangkurat thought Princess Tunjung Buih wanted to marry her nephews, so he killed the two sons of Ampu Masdatana. If she had any power, Lambu Mangkurat's misconstrued action was definitely a slap in the face for the princess. But the author 'silenced' this female character so that she appeared to approve of Lambu Mangkurat's cruel act.

Princess Tunjung Buih was said to be passive because she only spoke on three occasions in *Hikayat Banjar* namely when she asked for various preparations to be made to welcome her from the river during her first introduction, when seeking to be married to a husband, who also appeared after a spiritual retreat, and when she called Lambu Mangkurat to present Nagasari flowers and betel nuts to her nephews. Apparently, women were still being exploited and men continued to dominate the situation even though a woman was holding the highest position in the country's system of governance.

The Oral Literature genre also featured a line-up of passive female characters just waiting to be rescued, who agreed with everything that was done to them, such as in *Hikayat Langlang Buana*, where Princess Dewi Kesuma was portrayed as following all the instructions of her father without being given a chance to speak or choose according to her own wishes. Many men were captivated by her beauty until her father (Maharaja Puspa Indera) decided to build a castle in the middle of a lake so that his daughter would be protected from her male admirers. This action curtailed her freedom and it was as though she was living in a 'golden cage'. However, Princess Kesuma Dewi remained silent as though consenting to her father's decision to torment her soul in such a manner. In fact, she had to agree with her father's choice of a husband without being given a chance to make her own choice. This was the reality of the traditional woman's life, where she was restricted in all her actions and words. So also with *Hikayat Raja Donan, Hikayat Raja Dondang, Hikayat Anggun Che Tunggal, Hikayat Malim Dewa*, and *Hikayat Parang Puting*, which had a line-up of passive women who simply followed the arrangements made for them.

3.2 Passive Because of Willingness to Be Dominated by a Beloved Individual

Bardwick (1971, p. 123) defined this passive category as willingness to be dominated out of love. This means that the women who were included in this passive category were willing to be treated in any way by a beloved individual, even if the actions of the loved one were intended to suppress or manipulate them. The individuals concerned kept silent as a sign of the purity of their genuine love for their beloved.

A search of the historiographical genre, Sejarah Melayu, turned up the character of Tun Teja Ratna Benggala, the daughter of Bendahara Inderapura (Pahang), who was betrothed to be married to Sultan Abdul Jamal. News of the beauty of the Bendahara of Pahang's daughter spread until it reached the ears of Sultan Mahmud Syah, who had just mourned the death of the queen (mother of Sultan Ahmad) and at the same time had failed to woo Princess Gunung Ledang. Thus, Hang Nadim was given the responsibility of escorting Tun Teja to Malacca to marry their ruler, Sultan Mahmud Syah. At that time, Tun Teja, who greatly admired the prowess and wisdom of Hang Nadim, was unaware that feelings of love were being kindled that would lead to the destruction of her future at the hands of the mighty hero of Melaka. Sejarah Melayu portrays the Bendahara's daughter as a passive individual with all the typical characteristics of a traditional Malay woman. Because of love, Tun Teja was prepared to leave her family and tarnish her reputation by breaking off her engagement to Sultan Abdul Jamal. Tun Teja's action in running away from her home was like 'rubbing coal on the face' of her family, who were of royal descent. Although she had been put under the spell of a 'magic potion', Hang Nadim was not solely to blame for what happened in the early stages of their introduction to each other because, after all, it takes two hands to clap. Hence, Tun Teja would rather be dominated by the 'purity of her love' for the man of her dreams until she was willing to hurt many people. She was unable to stop herself from 'loving' another man even though she was already betrothed to someone else. Tun Teja was a 'passive' woman who simply succumbed to love until she was willing to be dominated by a man in order to prove her love.

Hikayat Seri Rama also featured a passive female character who was forced to sacrifice in order to prove her love and loyalty to the man she loved. The Goddess Sita (Hikayat Seri Rama) was prepared to enter into the fire to prove her chastity to Rama. This action by the Goddess Sita was rather aggressive even though fire is considered as something sacred in Hinduism. However, on the one hand, she kept to the typical image of the passive traditional woman, whose fate was determined by the actions of men. The female characters could do nothing in the face of accusations or slander, more so when these were coming from the men they loved. The proof of this was that Sita still accepted and forgave Rama after he realized that he had made a mistake.

3.3 Passive for The Purpose of Manipulating

Women in the traditional period were bound very much to the demands and gender codes of their community. The ideal woman should be gentle in nature, submissive, loyal and maintain her feminine identity to avoid being

considered as a 'deviant' by the community. Hence, women often used 'subtle' means so that their passivity and silence in the face of male oppression could be defended in a discreet manner. So, passivity not only meant a 'high rate of dependency' on the men but 'passivity' was also 'one of the ways to manipulate' certain individuals (Deutsch, 1944). For example, the mythical character, Princess Gunung Ledang, was one of the passive characters in *Sejarah Melayu*. She was said to be passive because she did not react aggressively after learning about a marriage proposal coming from Sultan Mahmud of Malacca, who was known to be a womaniser (*Sejarah Melayu*, 1986, p. 214).

Princess Gunung Ledang's passivity did not mean that she agreed to the marriage proposal but rather she subtly rejected the suit by making several unreasonable requests. The Sultan of Melaka agreed to meet her demands, thus indicating that he was willing summon the services of all his people. For example, among her impossible requests were that a golden bridge be constructed from Gunung Ledang to Melaka, and that several jars be filled with young betel nut juice and human tears. The king was not bothered that his people were burdened by these requests, but when the demands touched on the safety and interests of the king (a bowl of Raja Ahmad's blood) then he renounced his intention to marry the mythical princess. Indirectly, this indicates that Princess Gunung Ledang successfully manipulated the power of the patriarchs, who would do anything to satisfy their sexual desires.

Tun Fatimah, in *Sejarah Melayu (Sulalatus Salatin*), was another woman who used her passivity to manipulate her husband (Sultan Mahmud Syah) in a subtle manner. Her termination of several of her pregnancies was proof of her silent protest because of the hatred she bore towards Sultan Mahmud, who had murdered her father and family members. She could not refuse to marry the Sultan because such an action would be treason on the part of a Malay citizen. Thus, Tun Fatimah use the most discreet way (indirect) to subtly take revenge on the sultan by aborting every pregnancy. Her actions saddened him immensely and the sultan repented of the atrocities he had committed. Tun Fatimah's reason for her actions was that if she had a son, he would most likely not be appointed as the Crown Prince (*Sejarah Melayu*, 1986, p. 265). Finally, Sultan Mahmud Syah promised that if Tun Fatimah gave birth to a son, he would be installed as the Crown Prince to replace him. Indirectly, 40 days after her son (Raja Ali) was born, he was installed as the Crown Prince with the title Sultan Alauddin Ri'ayat Syah. Evidently, Tun Fatimah's passivity succeeded in manipulating Sultan Mahmud Syah into appointing her son as his successor, by-passing her stepson, Sultan Ahmad Syah and his younger brother, Raja Muzaffar. The phenomenon of 'silent' manipulation by Tun Fatimah was consistent with the opinion of Gal (1991, p. 196) about "silence as a symbol of powerlessness, and silence as a strategy of power".

3.4 Passive as a Manifestation of Frustration

The final passive category is as a manifestation of frustration over the possession of low levels of externally directed activity or low levels of externally directed aggression. For example, Tun Biajid's wife was 'used' by Sultan Mahmud in the absence of her husband. She was passive and could not refuse to commit adultery with the king because he was the Sultan of Melaka and held the most power in the land. In fact, her husband was the sultan's trusted nobleman and she herself was the daughter of Hang Tuah, an eminent nobleman of Melaka. Finally, through no fault of her own, she was divorced by her husband, Tun Biajid, who did not want to be known as a coward for being married to a woman who had been violated by another individual. This innocent woman remained passive and accepted whatever punishment was meted out to her. Once again, the soul of this woman was tortured by having to receive a punishment for someone else's wrongdoing. The fact is such was the reality of life for a Malay woman living during the age of feudalism, where the highest power was in the hands of men and the king, as the ruling power, must be obeyed with unwavering loyalty.

Hikayat Raja-raja Pasai also portrayed female characters who were living in fear and frustration but could not do anything about the problems they encountered. Tun Takiah Dara and Tun Madam Peria were the two daughters of Sultan Ahmad Perumudal Perumal. Both these princesses were unable to do anything except to wait for their elder brother, Tun Beraim Bapa, to rescue them from falling victims to their father's 'lustful desires'. Certainly, their passivity was associated with their frustration because the person on whom they thought could be depended on and who would love them had crushed their hopes by turning on them. Furthermore, their brother (Tun Beraim Bapa) had to commit treason and risk his life to save them from their own father. These were some of the pressures experienced by women in traditional times coupled with social factors that made 'passivity' the best way for overcoming any situation. Most of the women in traditional Malay literature, such as Princess Selindang Delima (Hikayat Selindang Delima), Princess Lindungan Bulan (Hikayat Puteri Lindungan Bulan) and so on, were more passive in dealing with frustrations in their hearts because they were bound by social conventions which moulded that passivity.

4. Conclusion

Traditional Malay women would rather be 'passive' than speak up for their rights because they were aware of the obstacles and consequences that they would have to face if they were to 'breach' the social code set by the community. Their courageous actions invited more harm than good. This phenomenon was caused by a gender mould as well as the 'world view' of the society, which was responsible for curbing the personal 'freedom' of those women. Traditional life required women to resign themselves to their situation without openly protesting and defending themselves. Although 'passivity' seemed to be the best way for women to face the problems plaguing them in the traditional period, there were also certain characters who, at the start of the narratives, were portrayed as passive and naïve but later ended up being aggressive. For example, Siti Zubaidah in Hikayat Zubaidah Perang China, Saidatul Badrul Muin in Hikayat Syamsul Anuar, the maiden in Hikayat Musang Berjanggut, Siti Sara in Hikayat Nakhoda Muda, Siti Zawiah in Syair Siti Zawiah and so on were able to undermine patriarchal domination. In fact, their actions could have also caused a 'gender deconstruction' because they were able to change the view of society of the 'strength and intelligence' of women, who were on par with the men of that period in this regard.

Acknowledgments

This work is supported by Universiti Putra Malaysia under the Research University Grant (RUGS).

References

Abdul, S. A. (Ed.). (1986). *Sejarah Melayu (Sulalatus Salatin)*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. *Al Quran*.

Al-Attas, S. M. N. (1972). Islam dalam Sejarah dan Kebudayaan Melayu: Suatu Mukadimah mengenai Peranan Islam dalam Peradaban Sejarah Melayu-Indonesia dan Kesannya dalam Sejarah Pemikiran, Bahasa, dan Kesusasteraan Melayu. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Bardwick, J. M. (1971). Psychology of Women: A Study of Bio-Cultural Conflicts. New York: Harper and Row.

Bukhari al-Jauhari. (1979). Taj al-Salatin. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.

Cheah Boon Kheng. (1993). Power behind the Throne: The Role of Queens and Court Ladies in Malay History. *Journal of the Malayan Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, 66*(1), 1-21.

Collins Concise Dictionary Plus. (1989). The Bath Press: Glasgow.

Deutsch, H. (1944). The Psychology of Women: A Psychoanalytic Interpretation. New York: Grune Stratton.

Feil, D. K. (1984). Ways of Exchange: The Enga Tee of Papua New Guinea. Queensland: University of Queensland Press.

Gal, S. (1991). Between Speech and Silence: The Problematics Research on Language and Gender. In M. di Leonardo (Ed.), *Gender at the Crossroads of Knowledge: Feminist Anthropology in the Postmodern Era.* Berkeley: University Of California Press.

Hashim, R. S. (2002). Out of the Shadows. Bangi: Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Karim, W. J. (1992). Women and Culture: Between Malay Adat and Islam. Boulder: Westview Press.

Karim, W. J. (2002). Sexuality and Domination: A Collection of Essays. Penang: KANITA, USM.

Krueger, D. (1984). Success and the Fear of Success in Women. London: Collier Macmillan.

Phelps, S., & dan Austin, N. (1975). The Assertive Woman. California: IMPACT.

Rosaldo, M. Z. (1972). Theorical Overview. In M. Z. Rosaldo, & L. Lamphere (Eds.), *Women, Culture and Society* (pp. 17-43). Stanford: Stanford University Press.

The Chambers Dictionary. (1999). Chambers Harrap Publishers: Edinburgh.

Winstedt, R. O. (1958). The Malays: A Cultural History. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Identity Crisis of Teenagers with Hearing Impairment in Palestine

Suheir .S. Sabbah¹

Correspondence: Suheir .S. Sabbah, ALQuds University, Palestine. E-mail: saheerquds@yahoo.com

Received: June 27, 2013 Accepted: August 11, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p229 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p229

Abstract

This study aimed at identifying the degree of identity crises of teenagers with hearing impairment and the levels of the dimensions of this crises and revealing the impact of the following variables: gender, grade, economic level, age, degree and nature of the difficulty on the degree of the identity crisis. The results showed the identity crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment was. Ideological Ego Identity, Interpersonal Ego Identity, relation with the other sex, and Identity verses role confusion. There were statistically significant differences in the identity crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment attributed to the variables: gender in favor the category (18-20 years) and the degree of disability in favor of the moderate disability. There were no differences in the identity crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment attributed to the variables (gender, grade, economic situation and nature of the disability).

Keywords: identity crisis, teenagers, people with hearing impairment

1. Introduction

Adolescence is one of the most important stages in human life because it contains many basic changes in the mental, physical, social and emotional growth (Bauman, 2012). Others considered adolescence a new birth for the individual as Hall described it as: "it is the stage of psychological crises, suffering, depression, anxiety, problems". And this critical period of age could refer to the formation of ego identity according to Erikson's theory. The formation of the ego identity is linked with the ability of identifying the teenager's beliefs and his roles in life through making decisions towards critical topics and questions and this what Erikson named Ego identity crisis as: "Who am I?, What do I want?, What are my dreams?. And so the teenager is in the crossroad during this process till he could have specific answers help him achieving his identity. While the teenagers' failure and diffusion in identify is represented in the failure in accessing into answers for these questions and in identifying the teenager's aims and roles in life (Sultan, 2009). In the stage, the youth face many problems; some of them related to physical or psychological health, or his situation in the family or his environment and other problems related to his work circumstances or his free time. The teenage has different situations according to the differences in the habits, traditions and environmental values and according to the State's philosophy towards its citizens (Kafakuis, 1996). Willic pointed that the most important obstacle facing the teenager is developing the ego identity to be more stable and this identity ends when the adulthood starts (Al-Munizl, 1994). Also, Konopka stated that adolescence is considered the stage where the individual achieve the process of accomplishment or solve the identity's problem (Al-Munizl, 1994). And Erikson (1902-1994) is the one who introduced the concept of identity into psychology as his theory which is about social and psychological development considered an extension of the psychological analysis and it represented the American image of Fruid's theory after getting rid of the high concentration on the entrainment and instincts (Abdalgader, 1984).

The disabled face in the adolescence two embarrassed situation: the first one concerning his disability as he faces many problems in his school, society and psychology situation and the other is related to the adolescence itself; the teenager's awareness of the nature of the imposed constraints on him because of his disability is developed and therefore his understanding of the concept of himself will be affected negatively as a result of these constraints. So the disabled will lose his trust of his abilities although the adolescence is considered a difficult and critical stage for all the teenagers, but it seems to be more difficult at the deaf handicapped teenagers because this disability in itself forms a crisis (Bdallh, 2004).

The hearing disability could be a reason for the identity problem because it is linked with the deaf disabled teenagers' high level of job performance's shortage and therefore their independence and self-appreciation will

¹ ALQuds University, Palestine

be affected. To have his identity developed, the people with hearing disability should have his own philosophy based on his understanding himself. And when he succeeded in doing so, it means that he has been developed socially and psychologically and he is ready to move to adulthood stage. Some of the indicators of this success are as follows: independency, values' acquisition, accepting his gender, identifying his goals and purposes, acquiring many principles that guided his life (Fahmi, 1978, p. 14).

1.1 Problem of the Study & Its Questions

The statistics of the Deaf in the *Palestinian central* bureau of *statistics* for the year 2011 pointed that the ratio of the hearing disability according to other types of disabilities equals 15.5% in the West Bank and based on this, the researcher found that this category with hearing impairment represented an important ratio in the society in general. Undoubtedly, the hearing disability affects the society but its effect on the individual with disability is greater. They lost one of the necessary and important whether in acquiring the knowledge or in interacting with the environment so based on this, the focus of this study was on the people with hearing impairment to understand the development of their identity's nature and therefore, the problem of the study is summarized by the following major question:

- 1. What is the degree of identity's crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment?
- 2. Are there statistical significant differences at the level of significance (a≥0.05) in the identity's crisis of *Teenagers* with hearing impairment attributed to the gender, age, economic situation, degree and nature of difficulty's variables?

1.2 Significance of the Study

This study concentrates on the teenagers with hearing impairment and understanding the development of their identify for its influence in the treatment on one hand, and providing services, requirements plus needs to them in the other hand.

This study may help the centers of special needs, the educational and public libraries plus decision makers in the field of the school and university education to reduce the degree of the Identity Crises of Teenagers with Hearing Impairment.

Because the disabled issue is considered one of the problems facing the society and which could be an obstacle in front of the development plans in different countries, this issue has recently witnessed more local and international interest to achieve higher degree of the educational, social, psychological attention of the disabled so as to get benefit of their abilities in the plans of development and to empower them as well.

The impotence of the level of adolescence which is addressed in this study as it represented one of the most developed levels which is characterized by psychological and physiological that could affect the teenagers' identity's crisis.

1.3 Objectives

To identify the degree of the identity crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment in Palestine.

To identify the differences in the identity's crisis of the teenagers with hearing impairment which are attributed to variables as gender, age, type and degree of difficulty and the economic situation.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

This study was applied on the teenagers with hearing impairment in the Deaf schools in West Bank in Palestine during the first semester for the scholastic year 2013-2014

1.5 Terms of the Study

1.5.1 Identity

Marica differentiates between the four statuses of identity formation: diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium, and achievement. (Kroger & Marica, 2010).

It is an inner psychological state including the individual's feeling of individualism, unity, Sameness and Continuity represented by the individual's sense of correlation between his past, present and the future and finally, his sense of the social cohesion represented by the correlation of the social samples and feeling of social support which is resulted from this correlation (Ghamid, 2001, p. 3)

1.5.2 Identity Crisis

The struggle which is imposed on the teenager while he was trying to achieve the sense of identity that is characterized by trust and security. And when he failed in doing so, he felt confused, isolated from others, and he has weak social relations

(Misn, 1986, p. 537). Procedurally, it is the degree which the teenager with hearing disability gets in the questionnaire of the identity crisis with its different dimensions.

1.5.3 Adolescence

Al-Dosoqi (2003, p. 145) defines adolescence as an developed stage in the developed stages located between childhood and adulthood and this stage represented a critical period; it needs a new kind of adaptation that differs from what the individual used to do before and it is usually started at the end of childhood and ended at the end of adulthood.

1.5.4 Hearing Disability

It is a public expression covers a wide range of hearing –loss degrees which range from deafness that hinder the process of learning speech and language to the simple loss which does not hinder the ear's function in understanding the speech. (Al-Qurait, 2005, p. 299).

1.5.5 Hearing Impairment

In the conferences of White house for the baby health and protecting him, some researchers defined people with hearing impairment as: they are the children whose speech skill and the ability to understand the language was formed and later their hearing disability was developed. Those children are aware of the sounds and they have simple and usual contact with the world of sounds (Abdrahim, 1997, p. 214). In contrast, the conference of the American schools' principles disagreed with this diagnosis and they asserted that the children with hearing impairment are the children who have a problem in hearing sense but it still does its duties using hearing instruments (Bellis, 2013, p. 25).

1.5.6 Difficulty of Hearing Disability

The Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics defined the difficulty of hearing disability as: the people who have some difficulties in hearing which hinder their ability of performing any part or any side in the daily activities as the difficulty of hearing a person taking in a crowded place or the inability of hearing a person taking directly to him with a normal voice (without shouting, or loud voice) and identifying who could not hear with one ear or both.

2. Previous Studies

Identity crisis is considered one of the most crises facing the individual through his passing the eighth stages which Erikson suggested because it occurs in one of the most sensitive stages that is affected by many factors as personal and social ones. The cultural and ideological factors as also considered the most influential in forming the identity. Specialists believed that lack of controlling the developmental stages educationally, many crises would appear particularly the identity crisis and then there is a need to pay much attention to the people with disability (Abdalgade, 1984).

Abo Hatab (1990, p. 393) assured that feeling of identity indicate that the individual keep an image of himself represented continuity and symmetry which matched with the symmetry and continuity created by others about him. And this feeling of identity means the teenager's success in reaching to personal belief or the necessary personal commitments in different fields of life as the commitment in a specific work (professional commitments, following ideas or specific ideologies etc. (Soliman, 1988, p. 4).

And Al-Ghamidi (2001) thinks that the ego identity is formed according to the previous dimensions through identifying four ranks to the identity relying on the appearance or the absence of two standards; Ego Identity Crisis or Exploration in one hand and the commitment on the other hand.

The model of Erikson of the social and psychological growth represented the ego identity versus the role-confusion and growth crisis in the adolescence and solving it positively is a basic requirement for the continuation of the healthy growth and to achieve independency. And the process of formation started at a degree of anxiety and combined Moratorium with the appearance of crisis which is related to the teenager's identification of the meaning of his existence through looking for principles, goals and social roles. Identity formation started by raising the following questions: Who am I?, What is my role in life? And Where am I going? And the formation process became clearer when the teenagers chose what suited his abilities and tendencies

from these beliefs, roles and goals. Solving the crisis positively or negatively depends on the nature of growth through the previous stages that he passed by. In other words, the nature of solving the previous growth crises positively or negatively in one side and the different social or physical situations surrounded him on the other side and later the nature of the psychological structure which is based on all of it.

In ideal situations, the crisis is solved at the end of adolescence stage and the individual is able to form a clear and integrated image of his identity and has the ability to solve the conflict plus reconciling urgent personal needs and the public needs (Abdalamoti, 1991).

But if the crisis was not solved, it is possible to imagine the following three types of factors that could cause the teenager's identity crisis: Factors related to the past formation of the individual's personality. Factors related to the present: values, standards and the common situations in his society and in the culture he lives in (Ismael, 2001, p. 165).

Ali's study (2007) recorded cases of the ideological and interpersonal ego identity and the differences between the ranks (achievement, Moratorium, Foreclosure and diffusion) and the relation between them and the level of Psychological alienation. The results revealed in terms of the interpersonal ego identity that there were differences according to the gender and specialization variables in the levels of achievement, Moratorium, Foreclosure and diffusion (Hmoud, 2009, p. 570).

The study of Khatab (2007) aimed to identify the relation between the methods of facing identity crisis and the psychological independence of the blind handicapped teenagers and to identify the most common ranks of identity among the blind handicapped teenagers aged from 18 to 21. The study concluded there was a positive correlation between the identity achievement and the psychological independence of the blind handicapped teenagers and there was negative correlation between Identity Diffusion and the psychological independence of the blind handicapped teenagers. Achievement rank was the most common one among blind handicapped teenagers aged between 18-21. The results showed also lack of impact to the gender and degree of difficulty variables on the psychological independence of the blind handicapped teenagers (Al-Wahidi, 2012, p. 110).

Wafi's study (2006) aimed at identifying the relation of the Behavioral disturbances with the level of psychological compatibility and its four dimensions (personal, school, family, physical). The sample of study represented the deaf and blind children. The results revealed differences between the deaf children who are behaviorally disturbed and who are not. While there were no differences between the blind children who are behaviorally disturbed and who are not. Additionally, there were no differences in the level of the psychological compatibility at the children attributed to the type of the disability (deaf, blind).

And the study of Al-Ashgar (2002) aimed to identify the services provided to the deaf children and its relation to their personal traits in Ghaza District. The study concluded that lack of self confidence and shyness were the most significant traits of the deaf children, and there statistical significant differences in favour of the females and there were no differences in the traits of shyness and lack of trust of others for whom received rehabilitation services

And the study of Aseeri (2004) revealed the nature of ego identity's formation and its relation with self concept and psychological, social and general compatibility of the female secondary students in Ta'ef city. The results revealed that there were no relation between the degrees of the social identify and the degrees of self concept and the compatibility in the level of achievement or between the degrees between lock and the degrees of self-concept.

The study of Tylor and others (2006) aimed at showing the formation of the ethnic identity during the adolescence in the identity crisis of the teenagers in Philippines, china, India and El Salvador. The results showed family education played a major role in the process of forming the social identity and belonging regardless the teenagers' ethnic background. The reports of the teenagers were connected positively with discovery and commitment of their identities. And these results were compatible with the experimental work which sees family education as the basic component in forming the children's identity and the theoretical perspective that assured the family's role in identity's formation according the cultural tools (Hmood, 2009, p. 752).

The study of Picciotto (1987) aimed at testing the relation between sex, the school level and the development of identity. And the most significant results were the statistical significant differences between the gender in achieving the identity in favor of females and there were differences in favor of the high school level (Al-Wahidi, 2012, p. 113)

The study of Adams & Jones (1983) identified the relation between patterns of social nurture and the identity. The results revealed negative statistical relation between the scales of the acquired statuses which enhances the discriminated validity of Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (OM-EIS). The results also showed negative statistical significant relation between the scales of the limited status of identity and there was positive statistical significant relation between the scales of delayed status. The significance of variation of the age showed that the mid-adolescence was not critical stage to distinguish the age according to the females students of the secondary stage. The researcher concluded a statistical relation between the patterns of an acquired social nurture through parents and between the identity status (Al-Tashawi, 2002, p. 61).

After addressing the previous studies, the current study is distinguished from these previous studies is that it is the first one that is conducted in Palestine and it addressed a very important issue. additionally, it is applied on people with hearing impairment and tries to fill the gap of the shortage of the studies concerning this field in Palestine as it tried to cover the topic of identity crisis and effect of some variables as identify issue and its relation to teenagers, age, economic status, degree and nature of difficulty) to the contrary of the previous studies which addressed the identity issue and its relation to the teenagers without having studies showed the identity crisis in the teenagers with hearing impairment.

2. Methodology & Procedures

2.1 Methodology

To achieve the objectives of the study, the analytical descriptive approach was used.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of all the people with hearing impairment in the West Bank with 15.5% according to the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics for the year 2011.

2.3 Sample of the Study

The researcher used a simple random sample of teenagers with hearing impairment in Palestine consisted of 36 male and 64 female from the seventh grade till the first secondary one aged from 12 to 19.

2.4 Description of the Sample's Variables

Table (1) illustrates the distribution the sample of the study according to the study's variables:

Table 1. Distribution of the sample of the study according to the study's variables

Variable	Level	N	Proportion
Gender	Male	36	36.0
Gender	Female	64	64.0
	13-less than 15	30	30.0
Age	15-less than 18	30	30.0
	20-18	40	40.0
Grade	9 -7	38	38.0
Grade	12-10	62	62.0
	Less than 1000	28	28.0
Economic status	1000-2000	28	28.0
	More than 2000	44	44.0
	Simple	16	16.0
Degree of difficulty	Moderate	60	60.0
	Strong	24	24.0
Nature of difficulty	Genetic	74	74.0
Nature of difficulty	Environmental	26	26.0

It is clear from the previous table that the number of the females in this study was 64% out of the total sample of the study while the males number was 36%. The reason for this disparity is due to the available number at the place of meeting the sample. The same table also showed the economic status as a distinguished difference as 28% of the sample's income was less than 1000 shekel which showed the difficult financial situation of the sample of the study.

Study's instrument (a questionnaire of the identity's crisis):

The researcher used a questionnaire of identity's crisis after it was prepared and designed in addition to the help of other measurements which are: Rasmussen's measurement, identity crisis to Ahmad Mohmmad Mahmoud and the objective measurement to Hussein Abdalfatah Al-Ghamdi. The items which were taken from these measurements were developed to suit the study and the measurement in its final copy consisted of 33 items and it includes the following dimensions as it is illustrated in table (2).

Table 2. A questionnaire of the identity's crisis by items

Dimensions	N of items
Trust versus Mistrust of oneself and others	8-7-6-5-4-3-2-1
Identity vs. Role Confusion	15-14-13-12-11-10-9
Ideological ego identity	16-21-20-19-18-28-27-26-25-24-23
Interpersonal social identity, entertainment, relation with the other gender	17-33-32-31-30-29-22

2.5 The Instrument's Validity

The questionnaire was designed initially and it was checked by a group of arbitrators to assert its suitability for the its purpose and the correctness of forming the items, and on the other hand to check the instrument validity by calculating Pearsons Correlation Coefficient of the total degree of the instrument and it was clear that there was statistical significance in all the questionnaire's items which indicated internal validity between the items.

2.6 Reliability

To assure of the study's instrument, the researcher calculate the reliability of the total degree and the fields of the reliability coefficient using Cronbakh Alpha and the total degree was (0.796) indicating the reliability of the instrument which is considered appropriate for the study's purposes.

2.7 Independent Variables

Gender (male-female)

Age (13-less than 15), 15-less than 18), 18-less than 20).

Economic status: less than 1000 sheqels, 1000-2000 sheqels, more than 2000)

Degree of disability: simple, moderate, low) Nature of disability (genetic, non-genetic)

Dependent variable: degree of the identity's crisis

3. Results

This part of the study includes the results and shows the impact of the variables through the sample's responses and the statistical analysis. And to determine the degree of the means of the respondents' answers, data in table (3) shows the following grades were adopted.

Table 3. Degree and the means of the respondents' answers

Degree	Mean
Low	Less than 1.66
Moderate	2.33-1.67
High	more than 2.34

Results concerning the first question: "What is the degree of the identity's crisis of the teenagers with hear impairment?". To answer this question, means and the standards deviations were calculated.

The previous table illustrated the means and the standard deviations of the respondents' answers regarding the identity's crisis of the teenagers with hear impairment. The mean of the total degree is 2.12 with a standard deviation (0.3701) indicating the degree of the identity's crisis of the teenagers with hear impairment is moderate. there were two items whose degrees were high while 29 items' degree was moderate and two items' degree was

low. And the following items "I feel embarrassed when talking to others" and "I still need my family and their help to me", have the highest mean while "I do not like attending the social occasions" the lowest mean.

Table 4. Means & Standard deviations of the respondents' answers

N	Items	Mean	Std	Degree
21	I still need my family and their help	2.34	0.544	High
22	I feel embarrassed when talking to the other sex.	2.54	0.679	High
26	I could not choose the suitable work	2.22	0.679	Moderate
27	I find difficulty in studying the school subjects.	2.22	0.616	Moderate
18	I feel happy.	2.12	0.480	Moderate
20	I feel others' sympathy towards me.	2.12	0.594	Moderate
1	There is no one who can understand me	2.10	0.505	Moderate
17	I wish I could enjoy my life	2.10	0.678	Moderate
19	I sometimes feel worry and anxiety	2.08	0.444	Moderate
33	I do not have specific hobby or activity.	2.02	0.795	Moderate
25	I do not have future plans or goals	2.00	0.808	Moderate
24	I feel I could not make any decision concerning my	1.98	0.714	Moderate
3	I do not trust others	1.94	0.793	Moderate
2	People are no honest in dealing	1.90	0.463	Moderate
9	I wish I was someone else.	1.88	0.872	Moderate
31	My collogues describe me as a sad person.	1.88	0.746	Moderate
29	I feel I am not welcomed among my colleagues.	1.86	0.783	Moderate
30	I feel embarrassed when my colleagues criticize me.	1.86	0.572	Moderate
11	I feel my disability and appearance hinder my progress.	1.84	0.584	Moderate
23	I feel I won't succeed in my practical life.	1.84	0.650	Moderate
13	I cannot solve my problems by my own.	1.82	0.629	Moderate
28	I have a desire to leave school.	1.80	0.857	Moderate
7	Others misunderstand my behaviors	1.78	0.616	Moderate
14	I face difficulty in making my decisions.	1.78	0.679	Moderate
16	I do not feel the taste of life.	1.78	0.679	Moderate
4	I do not exchange with others the greetings.	1.76	0.716	Moderate
15	I could not defend my opinions.	1.74	0.664	Moderate
8	People do not admit my work when it is done well.	1.72	0.784	Moderate
10	I have a feeling of inferiority	1.72	0.640	Moderate
32	I feel I did not have my appropriate friend.	1.72	0.784	Moderate
6	Others sometimes try to utilize me	1.70	0.707	Moderate
12	I am not convinced of my situation.	1.66	0.626	Low
5	Do not like attending social occasions.	1.99	0.663	Low
Total degree		2.12	.3701	Moderate

And to identify the order of the questionnaire's dimensions that expressed the degree of the identity's crisis of the teenagers with hear impairment in Palestine, it is clear from table (4), which showed the means of the questionnaire's dimensions, that the dimension of "feeling trust verses not trust oneself and the others" followed by the Ideological identity and social identity or Interpersonal Ego-Identity, method of entertainment and the relation with other sex and finally the feeling of identity's loss verses mystery of identity. The results agree with the results with the studies of Wafi, 2006 & Khseifan, 2000.

The researcher attributed this result to the family nurture and the school's systems and laws. People with hearing impairment received a great attention to compensate their feeling of inferiority. But we should not forget that the teenager passes by the level of adolescence where he faces two embarrassed situations: the first one related to his ability which is considered a crisis and the other is the adolescence and the procedures to have his identity developed which can affect his awareness of himself. Others considered the adolescence as the new birth of the person which Hall characterized it: it the stage of the psychological crises, suffering, depression, conflict,

problems and difficulty in compatibility". According to Erikson, this age's level is critical because the ego identify is formed and this formation is linked with the ability of identifying the teenagers' beliefs and his roles in life by answering the following questions and this what Erikson called the Ego Identify Crisis: Who am I?, What do I want? What are my goals? Where am I going?. During the process of this formation and to be able to have specific answer for his questions, the teenagers becomes in a crossroad where he achieves his identity or suffers from diffusion in his identity. Teenagers' failure in identify is represented by the failure to answer the questions and to identify their roles and goals in life (Sultan, 2009).

3.1 Results Concerning the Second Question

Are there statistical significant differences at the level of significance (a≥0.05) in the identity crisis of the people with hearing impairment attributed to variables; gender, age, economic status and degree and nature of difficulty?

- Results concerning the gender:

The means and the T test's results were calculated and T value for the total degree was (0.993) and the level of significance was (0.326) indicating that there were no differences in the identity crisis of teenagers with hearing impairment attributed to the gender variable. And as other teenagers who are without any disability, the developmental levels which they passed by are similar and the adolescence should be represented by a degree in the crisis. Additionally, the social and family nurture which does not show any discrimination between the gender and treat them well. And the mixed classes play a role in treating the gender equally. This result agrees with the results of the studies of Katabi, 1988 & Ali, 2007. The results of the study showed no differences between the gender in the identity crisis to the contrary of the study's results of Picciotto (1987) which revealed differences attributed to the gender.

- Results concerning age variable

Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations of the respondents' attributed to age variable

Age	N	Mean	Std
13-less than 15	30	1.6202	0.36684
15-less than 18	30	1.9212	0.27172
20-18	40	2.1409	0.24858

It is noted from table (5) that there were differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to age variable and to find out the significance of these differences, One Way ANOVA was used.

T value for the total degree was (15.354) and the level of significance was (0.000) which is less than the level of significance ($a\ge0.05$) indicating that there were significant differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to the age variable and the differences were in favor of the age ranged from 18 to 20 years.

And the researcher attributed this result to the idea that the adolescence stage which ranged from 18 to 20 years is considered one of the most difficult stages in Man life span because it is a level of the individual's integration and in his growth as well, and the great amount of imaginations and therefore he will be in a conflict surrounded by depression, incompatibility and anxiety because his physical and mental changes but the beginning of the adolescence stage (13-20) remains an early stage in growth and thinking is still childish. This result agreed with the study's results of Picciotto (1987). The disabled in the adolescence stage faces two embarrassed situations: the first related to his disability as he faces many problems in his school, social and psychological life and the other one is related to the adolescence stage itself where the teenager awareness of the restrictions imposed on him because of his disability and therefore his concept and awareness of himself is affected negatively and as a result he has no trust of his abilities. Although adolescence stage is difficult and critical in general to the teenagers but it is more difficult to teenagers with hearing impairment because the hearing disability itself is considered a crisis (Abdallah, 2004).

- Results concerning the economic status

Means and standard deviations were calculated to the sample with hearing impairment in the identity crisis attributed to the economic status variable.

It is noted from table (6) lack of apparent differences in the identity crisis of those wit hearing impairment attributed to economic status variable, and to know the significance of these differences, One Way ANOVA was used.

Table 6. Means and standard deviations of the respondents attributed to the economic status

Economic status	N	Mean	STD
Less than 1000	28	2.0080	0.31947
1000-2000	28	1.7802	0.43614
More than 2000	44	1.9604	0.32430

The F value of the total degree was (1.601) and a level of significance (0.214) and it is higher than the level of significance $(a \ge 0.05)$ indicating there were no statistical differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to economic status.

The researcher attributed this result to the economic status which is linked by providing the physical capabilities to meet the physical and the psychological needs and educating him. Because the people with moderate income are the most common and their cultural and environmental situations are close, there were no differences in the economic status.

This study did not agree with any of the previous study; (there were no statistical significant differences in the identity crisis of the people with hearing disability attributed to the economic status variable "but it differed from the Tarshawi's study (2002) which showed differences in the identity crisis attributed to the economic status variable.

-Results concerning the degree of disability

Means and standard deviations were calculated to the sample with hearing impairment in the identity crisis attributed to the degree of disability variable.

Table 7. Means and standard of the respondents attributed to the degree of disability

Degree of disability	N	Mean	Std
Simple	16	1.9432	0.31091
Moderate	60	2.0010	0.37794
Very	24	1.6970	0.26949

It is noted from table (7) that there were differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to age variable and to find out the significance of these differences, One Way ANOVA was used

T value for the total degree was (3.340) and the level of significance was (0.000) which is less than the level of significance (a \geq 0.05) indicating that there were significant differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to the degree of disability and the differences were in favor of the moderate disability.

And the researcher analyzed this result that whenever the degree of disability is simple, the degree of identity crisis will be less, on the contrary to the one who has moderate disability and as a result his degree of identity crisis will be higher. The simple identity enable the individual to interact with society, and hear people's voices with different degrees plus he can rely on himself more than the one with moderate or strong disability and therefore, the development of identity crisis increased which is on the contrary to the one who has strong disability and he cannot hear or communicate with the society and thus the concept of identity is reduced and there is a possibility to have an identity crisis.

Moderate hearing disability could be a reason in the problem of identity and could affect their independence plus their appreciation to themselves. So to have his identity developed, the person with hearing impairment should have a philosophy based on understanding the self and when he succeeded in doing so, he is considered socially and psychologically mature and ready to move from adolescence stage to the adulthood. Some of the most important indicators of this success are: independency, acquiring values, accepting his sex, identifying and working on his purposes and objectives to feel secure with himself and with others (Fahmi, 1978).

This result does not agree with any one of the previous studies, but it varied with the study of Khatab(2007) which showed lack of differences attributed to the degree of the visually disabled people.

Results concerning nature of the disability

T test and means of the respondents' answers were calculated.

T value for the total degree was (0.977) and the level of significance was (0.339) which is less than the level of significance (a \geq 0.05) indicating that there were no significant differences in the identity crisis of those with hearing impairment attributed to the nature of the disability.

The researcher attributed this result to the family nurture and the special care and attention which they will receive regardless the nature of their disability; genetic or environmental. And they were not affected by the nature of their disability because they did not feel any shortage in their physical or psychological needs. The nature of difficulty is naming the existence of disability and it has no relation with the identity development of the teenagers with hearing impairment because they were in one environment and they have the same values whether the difficulty nature's was genetic or environmental.

There was no previous studies that agrees or disagree with the current study; there were no differences in the identity crisis of the people with hearing impairment attributed to the nature of difficulty.

4. Recommendations

- 1. Necessity of paying attention to this category and helping it to pass crisis of adolescence through researches and holding counciling programs (psychological support, meetings, training courses) to the people with hearing disability, their parents and their teachers to help in developing the appropriate concept of identity and suggesting cultural programs so as to increase their awareness ad accept their selves.
- 2. Paying attention to the teenagers with hearing impairment psychologically to help them adopt to the constraints imposed on them and to develop their correct concept of identity.
- Conducting comparative studies with other disabilities in the field of identity crisis and with the Non-disabled.

References

Abdgader, M. (1984). Developmental psychology and its theories. Cairo: Azhar University.

Abdmo'ti, H. (1991). Family nurture and its impact in forming the identity of the university youth. College of Education, Zaqaziq University.

Abdrahim, A. (1997). Developing disabled children. Dar Gharib for press, publishing and distribution, Cairo.

Abdrahim, F., & Bshai, H. (1988). *Psychology of the exceptional children and strategies of special education* (2nd ed.). Library of Dar qalam, Kuwait.

Abdrahman, M. (1998). Personal traits and its relation with methods of facing identity crisis of the secondary and university students, studies in the psychological health. Cairo: Dar Gibt for press and publishing.

Abo hatab, F., & Sadeq, A. (1990). Human growth (2nd ed.). Library of the al-anglo Egyptain, Cairo.

Adel, A. (2004). Disabilities. Cairo: Dar Rashad.

AL Tarshawy, K. (2002). *Identity crisis of the juvenile delinquents in comparison to the non- delinquents in Gaza governorates in light of some Variables* (Unpublished Thesis). College of Education, psychology Department, Islamic University, Ghaza.

Al-Ashqar, A. (2002). Services presented to the deaf children and their relation with the personal traits in Ghaza Governorate (Unpublished Thesis). College of Education, Islamic University, Ghaza.

Al-dosoqi, M. (2003). Psychology of growth from birth to adolsence. Library of al-anglo Egyptain, Cairo.

Al-Kas, R. (2008). The statement care of the disabled in the Islamic educational thought in the light of the problems they face (Unpublished Thesis). College of Education, Department of Education Foundation, Islamic University, Ghaza.

Al-Khateeb, J. (2005). Introduction in hearing disability (2nd ed.). Dar Fikr, Amman, Jordan.

Al-Maghazi, I. (2004). Our disabled Children....to where? Ward Library, Mansoora, Egypt.

Al-Migati, N. (2001). *Letures in Deafr Education. A course in training the teachers of the Deaf.* PROJECT OF preparatory of the Deaf, Corporation & International vision institutions, Ghaza, Palestine.

Al-Minizl, A. (1994). Identity Crisis: Comparative study among the Juvenile delinquents and non-Juvenile delinquents. *Derasat: Human sciences, 21*(1).

Al-Qureiti, A. M. (2005). *The psychology of the people with special needs and their education* (4th ed.). Dar Fikr Arabi, Cairo, Egpyt.

Al-Rosan, F. (2001). Psychology of exceptional children: Introduction in the special Education (5th ed.). Dar

Fikr, Amman, Jordan.

Al-Wahidi, L. (2012). *Moral Judgment and its relation with ego identity of a sample of deaf and blind teenagers in Ghaza Govornorates* (Unpublished thesis). Ghaza: University of Azhar.

Al-Zreiqat, I. (2003). Hearing Disability. Dar Wael for Publishing, Amman, Jordan.

Barakat, A. (1981). Disabled Education in Arab World. Dar Mareikh, Riyadh.

Bauman - waengler.j. (2012). Phonological Impairments: A clinical Focus. Boston: Allyn. Bacon.

Bellis, T. (2013). When the brain can't hear: Unraveling the mystery of auditory processing disorder. New York: Atrin Book.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). Identity formation: Youth and Crisis. New York: Norton.

Erikson, E. H. (1994). Identity: Youth and Crisis. New York.

Ghamdi, H. A. (2001). Relation of ego identity formation with moral reasoning thinking of a samole of male students in the stage of adolescence in Saudi Arabia. *Egyptian journal of psychological studies*, (29).

Homud, F. (2009). Levels of identity formation and its relation with its basic fields of a sample of the first secondary grade's students form both gender, Unpublished Thesis. *Journal of Damascus University*, 27.

Hussein, M. (1986). Psychology of exceptional children and their education. Dar Fikr Jameei, Alexandria.

Ibn kather, I. A. F. (n. d.). Ibn Kather Enterpretation (Vol. 4). Ryadh modern library, Ryadh, Saudi Arabi.

Ismael, M. (1989). The child from bregnancy to Adulthood (Part 2). Kuwait-Dar Fikr.

Ismael, M. (2001). *The child from bregnancy to Adulthood: The child and the teenager* (5th ed.). Dar Al-Qalam for publishing & Distribution, Kuwait.

Kafarkuis, W. (1976). Juvenile delinquency, translation by Enayat. Egyptian general assembly of books.

Kroger, M., & Marica, J. E. (2010). *Identity status change during adolescence and young adulthood*. Ameta – analysis, j press psychology.

Misn, P. (1986). Basics of childhood and adolescence psychology (Trans. by A. Salama). Falah Library, Kuwait.

Mohamd, A. (2004). Talented children with disabilities. Cairo: Dar Rashad.

Morsi, A. B. (1988). Comparative study of the anxiety level and its relation with identifying the identity of the teenagers who are smokers and non smokers (Unpublished thesis). College of Art, University of Ein Shams.

Mostafa, F. (1978). Psychological adaptation. Cairo: Dar masr for Press.

Mussen, P. (1984). Child Development and Personality. USA: Harper& Row Publishers.

Salamh, M. (1991). Psychological counseling: Developmental perspective. Anglo Egyptian library - Egypt.

Shata, A. (1992). Parents' attitudes towards their deaf children and its relation with these children's concept of identity (Unpublished thesis). Institute of higher education of childhood, EIN Shams University.

Suliman, J. (1988). Cross - sectional Study of Psychosocial growth of the students of preparatory and secondary levels according to Erikson theory (Unpublished thesis). Azhar University, Cairo.

Sultan, I. (2009). Teenagers' Physical Development. Jorrdan: Dar Saffa for publishing and distribution.

The Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics. (2011). World of Books, Cairo, Egypt.

Wafi, L. (2006). Behavioral diffusions and their relation with the level of psychology compatibility of the deaf and blind children (Unpublished thesis). College of Education, department of psychology, Islamic University, Ghaza.

Ynis, A., & Masri, H. (1991). Taking care of the disabled child psychology, healthy and socially. Dar fikr Al-Arabi, Cairo.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

A Sociolinguistic Study of Miscommunication in Male-female Conversation

Chunqin Zhang¹

¹ College of Humanities and Foreign Languages, Xi'an University of Science and Technology, China

Correspondence: Chunqin Zhang, College of Humanities and Foreign Languages, Xi'an University of Science and Technology, Lintong, Xi'an 710600 Shaanxi, China. E-mail: javalongbow@163.com

Received: June 29, 2013 Accepted: July 14, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p240 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p240

Abstract

This paper is intended to study miscommunication between men and women in conversation. Their different conversational styles, way of speaking, topics, talkativeness and the intention of the conversation are identified. Research shows that biological factors and social factors combined have contributed to their different conversational styles and miscommunication.

Keywords: miscommunication, conversational styles, biological factors, social factors

1. Previous Studies on Miscommunication between Men and Women

Miscommunication has been the subject of a number of studies in the field of linguistics, sociology, communication and women's studies. Tzanne (2000) reports that studies of miscommunication have primarily related to interpersonal relations, communication failure in human-machine interaction, relationship between management and workforce, intercultural communication, and talk-in-interaction in linguistics. In the area of male and female misunderstanding, Tannen (2001) has done extensive gender-linked research and writing that focuses on miscommunications between men and women. Her research is based on conversational analysis of the speech events in real life. Jacobsen (2004) adopts qualitative media analysis to analyze contemporary magazine newspaper cartoons to discover the categories, patterns, and issues in communication breakdowns in male and female relationships. In the book *Man Made Language* (1980), Spender argues that in patriarchal societies, men control language and language works in their favor. The book illustrates how linguistic determinism interconnects with economic determinism to oppress women in society and explores the assumed deficiencies of women, silencing, intimidation and the politics of naming.

2. Different Conversational Styles of Men and Women

2.1 Ways of Speaking

Men and women are quite different in speaking style. They tend to use different ways to express themselves, which is one of the major sources of misunderstanding. According to experiments made by linguists, like Robin Lakoff (1989) and Deborah Tannen (2001), women tend to speak in a polite, indirect and affective way, while men speak in a blunt, rough and direct way. Women tend to use more tag questions (Mary is here, isn't she?) and hedges (kind of, sort of, somehow). They also use more question intonation patterns in declarative sentences than men do. For example, women would be more likely to utter So, we will meet at eight with a rise intonation at the end of the sentence. Lakoff claimed that these features of women's speech indicate a degree of uncertainty. (Carroll, 1994) However, they should rather be an expression of politeness rather than uncertainty. Women also show much emotion in their speech by using words such as oh dear, so lovely, such funny, and so on. It is also said that women adopt various pitches to attract the attention of other people since they tend to be ignored in conversation. (Wardhargh, 2000) However, women are born with such a way of speaking which shows their tenderness, politeness and affection. They mostly do so, unconsciously or consciously, as a strategy for conversation mentainance. To men, these ways of speaking may be a little exaggerating and not suit their taste. Since men tend to be direct and less emotional and speak with monotone pitch, women might also think that they are somewhat lack of affection and an indication of not being thoughtful of others. Therefore, when conversing with each other, they may find each other not acceptable.

2.2 Topics and Talkativeness

Men and women also differ in what they often talk about. They actually talk about quite different topics. Women like to talk about their families, feelings, personal experiences, food and clothes. Gossiping is usually considered as the main character of women's talk. Men, however, have quite different topics when they are together. Politics, business, sports are often what they care about. Compared with women, they pay attention to what is big and are usually proud of their topics, national and world news, football, business, etc, which seems to make them manly. Therefore, when men and women are together, their conversation may be a failure. In fact, women tend to like to talk to women, for when they talk to men, it is men who usually dominate the conversation and women have to act as listeners.

Talkativeness of women is another stereotype deeply taken root in people's mind. As a Chinese saying goes, "Three women can perform a play." In English there are also various words to describe women's talkativeness, nagging, gabbing, chattering, prating, etc. Men are often considered to be less talkative and what they say carries weight. Tannen tells a joke which her father used to tell her about the talkativeness of women. One woman sued her husband for a divorce because her husband hadn't talked to her for two years. The judge asked her husband for a reason, and her husband said that he did not want to interrupt her. (Tannen, 2001) However, this is just the stereotype and impression people hold on the talk of the two genders. So far, there is no research indicating that women talk more than men. However, numerous studies prove that men talk much more than women. (Spender, 1980) Women do talk a lot in the same gender group. However, when they are in a mixed-sex conversation, they tend to be reserved. What they do is often listen to men attentively and do some supporting work. For example, they often make responses to men's uttering, and if necessary, introduce topics which cater to men's interests and keep the conversation going. (Spender, 1980) Men, however, tend to try to get the floor to speak and dominate the conversation.

2.3 Intention

Men and women have different ways of speaking, topics and tendency towards talkativeness, which leads to different results. Women establish a close friendship with each other since they speak politely and cooperatively while men form a hierarchy of positions from gaining power by competing with others. Therefore, mixed-sex conversation may be a success or failure, for it depends on the degree women tolerate men and how interesting men's topic is. Mostly men and women are usually not to purposefully achieve such an end. They have just developed such a habit and such conversational styles which result in such consequences.

Women like to share their personal feelings and family troubles with others and to share those of others. Through talking with each other about their personal matters, women are easy to establish and maintain a kind of friendly and intimate personal interrelationship (Tannen, 2001). In conversation, women are very cooperative with each other, they speak and allow others to speak. Men, on the other hand, tend to speak if they have something to say, they do not care much about whether others are interested or not or whether they want to speak or not. However, if another man wants to speak, he also just interrupts the man who is speaking and speaks out. In such case, no one is to be blamed since they share the same conversational style. As a result, the conversation is not so consistent as that of women although it can also keep going on. Men like to show themselves off and to look to be knowledgeable. Through conversation, they are to give and receive information and establish their position.

3. Reasons for Different Conversational Styles of Men and Women

3.1 Biological Difference

Men and women are biologically or sexually different from each other, which has determined their difference in character. Women are gentle and thoughtful since they have the natural responsibility of bearing and taking care of babies who are weak and fragile. They themselves are also weak and play the role of staying at home and taking care of the family. Men, on the other hand, are strong. It is their responsibility to go out to work for food and money and to protect his family. In the earlier days, the biologically or physically determined social roles that men and women play are quite natural and clear. This way of distribution of labor has undergone a long history, and even now it still, to much degree, remains the same. Thus, a convention has been developed and taken root in people's mind. Women do trivial work and depend on men while men are strong, tough and powerful. As a result, men tend to dominate the conversation while women seem to be servile. However, men and women also share some characters since they both are human beings. Conversational styles of men and women are learned in the process of socialization rather than inborn although men are inborn to be more reasonable while women are emotional. Women, when among intimate friends, also speak in a rough way as men do. They think that it is a way to relieve their pressure from trying to behave like a lady when they are in public.

3.2 Social Factors

3.2.1 Social Structure

Social structure here refers to the dominant position of men and subordinate position of women. Economy is the basis of social structure. In each social class, upper, middle or lower class, there are men and women. However, in the same social class, men are usually in the dominant position while women in the subordinate position. As discussed in 3.1, biological factors somehow determine the economic and social position of men and women. Since women are economically dependent on men, men are in the dominant position. Thus a social structure came into being, which is just the patriarchal order. Biological difference puts men to the dominant position. Then men reinforce the social structure and their position through the rules they make, and women have to accept it as reality. Therefore this reality is not a completely natural and objective reality but which men perceive it to be. Men think that it is they who create the world. They tend to ignore women and their contribution to the world, even thinking that women are just their belongings. So long as women's economic position does not change and are not strong enough to speak for themselves, the ideology will remain the same.

3.2.2 Social Norms

Social norms refer to the rules and conventions that a person should observe as a member of a society so that the society can be kept in order. Once a baby was born, it becomes a member of the society and is exposed to the social structure and norms that are expected to be accepted and observed. The baby has no right to make a choice for itself. Before it is able to perceive what is right or wrong, the adults have decided how the baby should perceive the world, and what it can do and cannot do.

Boys and girls are treated quite differently. Since they have different social roles, they are expected to observe different social norms. Children learn this lesson from the process of socialization. According to behaviorists, children learn their behaviors by imitation, repetition and enhancement. They imitate the behavior of the adults. If the consequence is positive, that is, their parents and people around them praise and encourage them to do so, they will repeat a behavior again and again until it becomes a habit. On the other hand, if the consequence is a negative one, their parents stop them or discourage them to behave like that, the behavior will be weakened and at last diminish. (Brown, 2002)

Women are actually in a dilemma. On one hand, they have to look at men as their norm, while on the other hand, they have to behave like a woman. If a woman works in men's field, such as business, politics, or law, they are expected to speak like men, for only the language of men is considered as powerful. However, when she does speak like a man, people will criticize her for her not being lady-like. Men do not like and even fear that women are like them, which means that they will be as powerful as them and their dominant position will be undermined. (Brown, 2002) Since the concepts about men and women have been stereotyped in people's mind, there are different norms to evaluate them. Men are often evaluated by their occupation and the amount of money they earn. Their looking and characters will not be taken seriously. However, a woman's looking and character are often taken as the norm to evaluate them. How well they can do in other aspects will not be seriously taken into account.

3.3 Sexism in Language

Language is a system of symbols people create to communicate ideas and record experiences. So language itself seems neutral. However, since it is not a natural existing but created by human beings and carries their ideas, language has also been socialized and become part of culture. People can organize the elements of language, words, phrases and sentences to convey their ideas. Thus, the language people speak reflects their own ideas about the world and carries subjectivity. Moreover, language inherently contains elements of sexism. (Chambers, 1997) That language is created by men means that it is invented by males, females excluded. Men have been in the dominant position while women are confined to house chores. So women have no opportunity and are not entitled to create language. It is men who have made the language and ask women to accept it and speak it. Therefore, language embodies world-view of men and contains their bias.

Sexism in language can be generally divided into three categories. The first one is that there are more words in language for male, which indicates that it somehow ignores the existence of women. The most typical example is that "man" can refer to male and female while "women" only refers to female. Following are two examples:

(1) Man has to work to live. (2) Love is important for women.

Another example is that the personal pronoun "he" can be used to refer to everyone.

(3) He who hesitates is lost. (4) Each student will do better if he has a voice in the discussion.

Seeing these examples, we immediately know that "man" and "he" refer to everyone, male or female. However, for a second thought we may notice that female is hidden in them. The second category is that women are regarded as men's belongings. This can be reflected through some customs and language itself. When a woman is married, she will change her surname into her husband's, no matter how famous she is. Moreover, the English words for women are often created through adding prefix or suffix to those for men. It shows that men first created their symbols and then women's with theirs as the center. There are lots of words that are created this way: male, female; host, hostess; hero, heroine; heir, heiress; etc. the last category is that language contains elements that debase women. Stanley had studied North American English and made a statistics on the words connected with sex debauchery. His study shows that 220 such words are connected with women while only 20 are connected with men. (Sun, 1997)

Linguists and feminists have recognized sexism in languages and called for language reform. However, most people do not take it seriously, including women themselves. They just take it for granted and think that ever since it is an effective way to communicate with others, no reform is needed. Most women blindly accept the subordinate position and are content with it. Since the Women's Liberation Movement in 1960s, some efforts have been made by those who want to eliminate sexism in English. Words contain sexism have been changed, chairperson has replaced chairman, fireman has been change into firefighter, etc. However, these words are not popularized except chairperson, which indicates that the original expressions have taken root in people's mind and they are not willing to make the effort to change them. So languages still have their impact on people's way of thinking. Reform cannot succeed when people are not awake to the problems.

4. Conclusion

The above analysis presents a general picture of the different communicative styles of men and women. They differ with each other in ways of speaking, which include intonation, pitch, and choice of words and topics. The ways men and women adopt to communicate and what they talk about result from various factors and result in different consequences. Men and women, consciously or unconsciously, cherish different intentions in their communication, and through their ways of speaking and topics they can reach their respective goals. The different communicative styles of men and women are the results of complex factors. They are biologically different from each other and play different social roles. Through discussing the different communicative styles of men and women and the reasons for these differences, this paper is intended that men and women have a better understanding with each other.

References

Brown, H. D. (2002). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching & Research.

Carroll, D. W. (1994). Psychology of Language. California: Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. K. (1997). Sociolinguistic Theory. Massachusettes: Blackwell.

Elgin, S. H. (1993). Gender Speak: Men, women, and the art of verbal self-defense. New York: Wile.

Hudson, R. A. (2000). Sociolinguistics. New York: Cambridge UP.

Jacobsen, J. L. (2004). What's the problem? Exploring male/female communication breakdowns through print cartoons. Paper presented at the International Association for Relationship Research Conference, Madison.

Lakoff, R. (1989). Talking Power: The Politics of Language in Our Lives. Harper Collin.

Spender, D. (1980). Man Made Language. London: Routledge.

Sun, R. J. (1997). Xing Bie Yu Yu Yan. Jiang Su Educational Press.

Tannen, D. (2001). Ni Wu Hui Le Wo - Jiao Tan Zhong De Nan Ren He Nv Ren (You Just Don't Understand - Men and Women) (Tans. Zhou Hong & Zhu Wanjin). Beijing: Beijing UP.

Tzanne, A. (2000). *Talking at cross-purposes: the dynamics of miscommunication*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/pbns.62

Wardhaugh, R. (2000). An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

The Two Mechanisms behind the Influence of Social Capital on Academic Development of English Teachers in Universities of China

Liu Hong¹

Correspondence: Liu Hong, College of International Studies, Southwest University, 400715, Chongqing, China. E-mail: lovelykitten@163.com

Received: July 10, 2013 Accepted: July 24, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p244 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p244

Abstract

Based on the theory of social capital, the present study is to explore the academic development of English teachers in universities of China, and aims to identify the mechanisms behind this issue by utilizing a semi-structured interview research method. Through interviewing six subjects, this study finds that mechanisms behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities are group dynamics and resource vesting. Based on the findings, this study explores what countermeasures in universities should be taken to promote the academic development of English teachers.

Keywords: academic development, English teachers in universities, group dynamics, resource vesting, social capital, semi-structured interviews

1. Introduction

At the present time, under the background of discipline construction, academic innovation and scientific research are two core strategies to develop academic excellence for colleges and universities. Under this epoch theme, a vigorous research activity from the university teachers becomes an important issue, because the academic excellence of a university is ultimately founded on the scientific vigor of its educational and research task force. English teachers in universities, being part of this task force, in principle contribute significantly to the implementation of such strategic academic developmental plan of the universities. Unfortunately, the real-life situation shows many weaknesses and difficulties of accomplishing their mission. How to improve the research capacity of English teachers in universities to mitigate the current situation has become the concern and topic of many scholars. Yang Zhong, Zhang Shaojie, & Xie Jiangwei (2001) analyze the causes of weakness in academic development of English teachers in universities of China, and they find six causes: first, the subject knowledge structure is not reasonable; second, interdisciplinary knowledge structure is not comprehensive enough; third, the lack of scientific awareness and scientific spirit; fourth, less research time, poor research environment; fifth, the lack of organizers and academic leaders; sixth, the lack of professional crisis and the crisis of survival. In addition, Wang Xiaoli & Han Jianghong (2011) argue that the current domestic foreign doctoral graduate enrollment is so small that the vast majority of foreign language teachers can not be given the opportunity to pursue a doctoral degree to improve the research capacity. Many scholars (Dai, 2009; He, Huang, Qin, & Chen, 2008; Wang & Han, 2011) have mentioned that due to the small number of foreign language academic journals in China, it is difficult to meet the needs of foreign language teachers to publish their papers, which may restrict foreign language teachers to enhance research capacity and research initiative. The researchers are actively exploring the countermeasures to improve the research capacity of English teachers in universities of China, such as these recommendations (Wang, 2005): first, constantly update the theoretical knowledge; second, concern the academic trends; third, collect relevant information for academic innovation; fourth, combine teaching and research, promote various cooperation; fifth, focus on research methods, emphasize on academic level.

Previous studies on the academic development of English teachers in universities focus on the status, causes and countermeasures, which has made a seminal contribution in this field. However, most of the research are describing a phenomenon and the experience with the lack of a theoretical basis. Most of the previous studies also lack empirical research, which makes the results of the studies seem to have a color of more subjective inference. Therefore, this article will be the first to adopt social capital theory to study the academic development

¹ College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

of English teachers in universities of China. Compared to the previous studies, the research model in this article has a stronger explanatory power of the theory, and this article is an empirical research in which the analysis of the survey data can make a more accurate and objective conclusion. So this article will have significant theoretical and practical implications in the field of the academic development of English teachers in universities of China.

Based on the theory of social capital, the present study intends to explore the academic development of English teachers in universities, and aims to identify the mechanisms behind this issue by utilizing a semi-structured interview research method. Agreeing with Nan Lin's (2001) view of social capital, this study defines social capital as various social resources embedded in social networks that can be invested and accessed in purposive actions. In the theoretical framework of academic development, the notion of academic development is divided into three dimensions: scientific awareness, research capacity and research achievements.

2. Methodology

This study utilizes semi-structured interviews, because a semi-structured interview is a kind of open interview carried out in accordance with the interview outline, and a semi-structured interview has the advantage of both maintaining a high correlation with the concept and theme of the study, and keeping on high reactivity of the subjects. The purpose of this semi-structured interview is to reveal the mechanisms behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities.

2.1 Subjects

Based on the three variables of gender, job title, and education background, the researcher selected six subjects. The following table illustrates their demographic information.

•			
 Serial Number	Gender	Job Title	Education Background
 A1	male	professor	doctor
A2	male	associate professor	master
A3	male	lecturer	bachelor
B1	female	professor	master
B2	female	associate professor	doctor
В3	female	assistant	master

Table 1. Participants interviewed

2.2 Procedures and Implementation

In order to improve the effect of the interview, the researcher first carried out the test of the interview. The researcher interviewed two teachers for 60 minutes. To make up for the inadequacy of the record, the researcher used a digital recorder for recording the interview process. After this interview test, the researcher contacted the two teachers with a 30 minutes' feedback and communication, which made the researcher better understanding of the two teachers' feelings about the interview, at the same time got their suggestions to the interview. The researcher next carried out the transliteration word by word of the two recordings, then repeatedly read the transliteration text and the interview outline, and reflected on the methods and techniques used in the process of interview, to be fully prepared for the formal interview.

In the formal interview, the researcher used a recording pen for recording in the interview process. On the choice of the ways of interview, the researcher made a face to face interview with English teachers in universities of Guiyang city where the researcher lives in, and made a telephone interview with other English teachers in universities of long distance. On the interview schedule, the researcher contacted the six interview subjects for 60 minutes per interview. In the interview process, the researcher gave priority to "active listening", and from time to time used language or nonverbal feedback to keep the interview fluency. In addition, for some vague answer the researcher timely asked more clarifying questions to get clear and complete information, while for some answer implying certain research value, the researcher timely asked more exploratory questions to get rich information of research value. When arranging the interview transcription, the researcher contacted the interview subjects by QQ for inquiring and verification, to ensure the clarity and pertinence of the information in the transcription.

3. The Research Finding

Based on the theory of social capital, analyzing the interview data, this study attempts to put forward two concepts of "group dynamics" and "resources vesting" in order to reveal the mechanisms behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities.

3.1 The First Research Finding of the Semi-structured Interview: Group Dynamics

Based on the notion that social capital are various social resources embedded in social networks, this study attempts to put forward the first form of mechanism behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities: group dynamics. Group dynamics is the result of the carrier of social capital: social relation network. Because the person has social nature, he or she lives in a big or small, intimate or alienated social relationship network, and can not survive if the person left the social relation network. So the relationship network will have the important influence on "psychological activity and behavior" (Shao, 2007:39) of individuals in the relationship network. In this study, group dynamics refers to a kind of form that the social network influences on academic development of English teachers in universities.

If members of the social relation network are focusing on research and have made certain academic achievements, this spiritual pursuit and associated behavior of scientific research in the social relation network can form a sense of values and norms. Due to the values and norms are the manifestation of social capital, English teachers in universities may have the social capital which contains good scientific research value. Such social capital through the mechanism of group dynamics can stimulate or even force English teachers in universities to be engaged in scientific research and to improve their academic achievements.

Through interviewing six participants, the researcher has found that the participants' answers strongly support the mechanism of group dynamics .

Interviewer: Will the people of the academic circle that you associate with bring help to your scientific awareness?

Participant A1 (male, professor, doctor):

Well, some help. I think this help is relatively big. In the academic community, ah, we often say that we can obtain a kind of connections, academic connections, and then in the academic contacts we can know more people. So, our scientific awareness will increase, because as we all know, to compare ourselves with the people around us is a common sense of Chinese thinking. That is to say, the members' age, title, educational background, and the academic achievement in the academic community is a kind of incentive to us.

Interviewer: What is the help that the academic community brings to your academic research?

Participant A2 (male, associate professor, master):

Ok, it is a very big help. Not to participate in academic activities, well, I feel it hard to open my research field of vision, and I don't know whom to say when I sometimes feel confused in research. Well, it will be very upset. Later, after attending academic activities, I feel very happy, because I have found that in academic activities I open the research field of vision. Besides, the teacher's positive remarks and enthusiasm for research infects me to a great extent, which makes me more consciously participate in the research. Let me put it this way, in the academic activities some experts not only solve my confusion, and, more importantly, bring me the academic frontier information, so now I often attend academic activities.

Interviewer: Please talk about your academic status in the last two or three years?

Participant A3 (male, lecturer, bachelor):

Well, talk about my research, now I am a little embarrassed. Colleagues around me, most of them are master degree, every year there are two or three who can embark on a PhD. However, as for me, I can't seem to be very motivated, because I am still an old bachelor. Actually I am eager to go to read for a master, and if I can read for a doctor in the future, ha -, become a master in research, that is the best.

Interviewer: It is very rare that you are a female professor, please talk about your research experience?

Participant B1 (female, professor, master):

Not much experience, colleagues say I am a strong woman. Actually I just spend more time on the research. Now social competition is so big, the work unit as well, and the condition of professional evaluation is higher every year. Everyone is busy with papers and projects, so if I don't become a professor earlier, it will be harder for me to become a professor. So I spend more time on research, I couldn't help doing it.

Interviewer: Now, working in universities need to be highly educated and have high titles, how do you think about this problem?

Participant B2 (female, associate professor, doctor):

Universities are now so, to be a doctor and professor is very fashionable. After all, it is a result of competition. As for me, I see that there are more and more doctors in our unit, which gives me much pressure. Later, I also went to embark on a doctor, and using the period of studying for a doctor's degree I make efforts to publish some papers which make me become an associate professor. My ideal is to try more efforts to do research in a few years, and become a professor before the age of 45.

Interviewer: *Please talk about the difficulties in your research?*

Participant B3 (female, assistant, master):

Well, a lot of difficulties. Well, I just get a master's degree, so, my title is low, and I have less academic achievements if I'm compared with colleagues. Well, recently I'm married, if I had a baby, I would have no time to write a paper, so in two years I must work hard to write more papers to pass the evaluation of associate professor. I think, it is difficult for me.

The interview result shows that the academic organization and work unit, these two kinds of organizational social capital, have a significant effect on the academic development of English teachers in universities. The conformity theory of social psychology tells that under the pressure of group individuals will behave the same as the group, which can be used to explain the above phenomenon. The six participants' answer also confirms this view. When the organizational social capital of English teachers in universities has high academic content, the organizational social capital under the action of the conformity psychology can promote the English teachers in universities to consciously engage in academic research through the group dynamic mechanism.

3.2 The Second Research Finding of the Semi-structured Interview: Resource Vesting

Based on the notion that social capital are various social resources embedded in social networks, this study attempts to put forward the second form of mechanism behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities: resource vesting. Resource vesting is the result of the social capital's attribute of social resources. The individual's investment of social capital is to make the social capital endow them with some kind of social resources. As for this study, if the social capital of English teachers in universities contains more academic resources, they can get advantageous academic resources to promote their academic development through the mechanism of resource vesting.

Through interviewing six subjects, the researcher has found that the participants' answer strongly supports the mechanism of resource vesting.

Interviewer: Oh, good. what kind of impact will your school's library, academic team and teaching team bring to your scientific awareness?

Participant A1 (male, professor, doctor):

Good library, we say, will ask the backbone teacher or academic leaders to collect the research data of current problems in the academic frontier, which will bring an academic team good foundation of data. So is our library. For example, our school library will frequently ask us to collect some foreign language materials which are the books we need to purchase in our research field. As for the academic team, it is good to establish an academic team where the members can share the academic information and get academic suggestions, which may provide the members with help to their research.

Interviewer: Will the academic organization you participate in bring help to your research achievements?

Participant A2 (male, associate professor, master):

To participate in the academic organization can provide a lot of help to publish my papers. To attend the conference, my paper can be published in the conference proceedings. Among the experts in the conference, there are some academic journal editors who can help me to publish my papers. Well, if I don't participate in the academic activities, it will be hard to acquaint myself with these experts. As a result, the opportunity to publish papers must be much less.

Interviewer: What is the effect of your school's academic policies on your scientific awareness?

Participant A3 (male, lecturer, bachelor):

Alas, our school is just an ordinary university where the research policy is not very good and the research environment is ordinary. As the school is not for the sake of the teacher, the school will not provide fund for the publishing fee of teachers' papers. What's more, the publishing fee is not a small sum of money, so I have no interest in writing a paper, not to say to publish it. Our school library is not good and has just a few foreign data. Under such circumstance, I don't even want to write a paper.

Interviewer: What is the effect of your school's academic policies on your scientific awareness?

Participant B1 (female, professor, master):

Yes, I think, the school's academic policy is particularly important. I have a classmate whose school's academic policy is very good. If a teacher published a paper in an authoritative journals, the teacher could get a reward of a lot of money. If our university paid the publication fee, the teacher would be much more interested in writing an essay or writing a book. I think, our school have not done well in the academic policy which needs to be improved.

Interviewer: What kind of academic policy could bring help to your research?

Participant B2 (female, associate professor, doctor):

Well, well, I think, if schools scientific bureau and other leaders take part in public activities with the higher official for the sake of teachers, teachers will have more chances to get a project. If the leaders of the school organized experts to review our project declaration and gave us revising suggestion, we could get more chance to succeed in getting a project. I have heard that many universities outside our province are under such operation, but unfortunately I feel our university fails to do so.

Interviewer: What kind of help do you need on the research?

Participant B3 (female, assistant, master):

Well, I'm just a green hand, so I don't have much experience in teaching and research, which makes me eager to get the guidance on teaching and research from the senior professor. I hope that the school can let me join a team and often participate in the activities of the team's teaching and research. Thus in the team I can get the guidance of the experts, which will help me to walk less detours.

The six subjects' answers stress the importance of academic resources of work unit and academic organization. If English teachers can get enough academic resources from the work unit and academic organization, it will be a great help to improve the teacher's scientific awareness, research capacity and research achievements, which gives us further instructions that these two kinds of organizational social capital have a more significant effect on the academic development of English teachers in universities.

4. Discussion and Enlightenment

As for the mechanism behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities, this study finds group dynamics and resource vesting. Liu Guoquan (2010) concluded that the path of influence of social capital on academic performance means both internal support and external support through interviews. The internal support refers to such behaviors as helping analysis of research dynamics, modifying the study design which is in the ontology process of research, while external support refers to the assessment and research award of the scientific research project. These two paths are equivalent to the mechanism of resource vesting, namely teachers will obtain academic resources through the mechanism of resource vesting of social capital. Because Liu Guoquan (2010) focused on the influence of social capital on teachers' research performance, and this study expanded the aim of study to teachers' academic development, this paper comes to another conclusion that group dynamics is also a mechanism behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers in universities. This discovery is a beneficial supplement to Liu Guoquan (2010)'s study.

This study's main enlightenment is that universities should make full use of the mechanism behind the influence of social capital on academic development of English teachers to promote their academic development. This study has found that the mechanism consists of two forms: group dynamics and resources vesting. So, in the policy making, the universities should step up research support for English teachers to give them more resources. In view of the finding that the social capital of academic organization has bigger influence on academic development of English teachers, universities should pay full attention to the importance of the academic activities to English teachers' academic development. What's more, universities should actively invest capital and manpower for organizing specialized academic activities for English teachers, and formulate preferential

policies to encourage English teachers to actively take part in all kinds of academic organization to absorb and mobilize the academic resources in such organization. Universities should be supportive to establish teaching teams or academic teams, and encourage all English teachers to participate in, in order to make the academic resources benefit each English teacher in a more balanced status.

Secondly, universities should make use of the mechanism of group dynamics, which means that universities can reward the good and fine the bad in teacher's annual performance appraisal of academic achievement to establish the value that the good English teachers should be good at academic development. Once this value is established in the group of English teachers in universities, which will greatly improve the research atmosphere, and then under the action of the conformity psychology, larger incentive effect may be produced on the psychology and behavior of the individuals in the group. As a result, the effect of the mechanism of group dynamics is prominent, subtly driving English teachers in universities to make greater academic development.

References

- Dai, W. D. (2009). A review and outlook of 60 years of professional foreign language education in China. *Foreign Languages in China*, 5, 10-15. Retrieved from http://www.docin.com/p-294435014.html
- He, Q. X., Huang, Y. S., Qin, X. B., & Chen, J. P. (2008). Retrospect and prospect of the nearly 30 years of teaching for English majors in Chinese universities. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 6, 427-432. Retrieved from http://www.doc88.com/p-9015923577767.html
- Lin, N. (2001). Social Capital: A Theory of Social Structure and Action. Cambridge University Press.
- Liu, G. Q. (2010). The Study of the Influence of University Teachers' Social Capital on Their Academic Performance (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Peking University, Beijing, China.
- Putnam, R. D. (1995). Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy*, *6*(1), 65-78. Retrieved from http://www.looooker.com/archives/1579
- Shao, P. R. (2007). Communication. Beijing: Higher Education Press.
- Wang, J. J. (2005). Scientific research quality of college English teachers. *The Study of Teacher Training, 3*, 54-58. Retrieved from http://wuxizazhi.cnki.net/Search/SZPX200503012.html
- Wang, X. L., & Han, J. H. (2011). Current situation and development bottleneck of scientific research of foreign language teachers in universities: An empirical perspective. *Foreign Language World*, *3*, 44-51. http://wenku.baidu.com/view/d068263f650e52ea5518984f.html
- Yang, Z., Zhang, S. J., Xie, J. W. (2001). The present research situation and problem analysis of college English teachers. *Foreign Language Education*, *6*, 79-83. Retrieved from http://www.cnki.com.cn/Article/CJFDTOTAL-TEAC200106017.htm

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Mediating Role of Personality Factors in the relationship between Internal Marketing and Customer Orientation: A Review

Gafar Olanrewaju Yusuf¹, Inda Sukati¹ & Thoo Ai Chin¹

Received: July 12, 2013 Accepted: July 16, 2014 Online Published: August 20, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p250 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p250

Abstract

Internal marketing remains an important business strategy that contributes meaningfully to the welfare of the banks' employees who play the role of internal customers in their organizations thereby enhancing organizational commitment. To improve productivity and stand the taste of time, bank management should avail themselves of the opportunities offered by internal marketing. Therefore, this paper attempts to review the relationship between internal marketing and customer orientation on one hand and between internal marketing and organizational commitment on the other. The paper employs the library method to collect information and thereby subject this information to analysis by adopting comparative, deductive and inductive methods. It was establishes that internal marketing has significant effect on organizational commitment and customer orientation. Equally, internal marketing is found to be positively related with each of the personality factors as exhibited by the employees in the discharge of their responsibilities except internal communication which shows a no positive relationship. It was concluded that internal marketing is a mechanism that can be adopted by organizations especially bank management in their core operations and values in order to achieve their set objectives.

Keywords: internal marketing, customer orientation, organizational commitment, personality factors, bank management

1. Introduction

Internal Marketing has continued to generate attention in both academic and professional realms. It is evident that few researches have been done and their findings are found in the literature. Some writers have tried to examine impact of internal marketing on customer orientation (Gounaris, 2008; Awwad & Agti, 2012; Shahsavani, Dolatabadi, & Ranjbarian, 2012; Oyeniyi, 2013) while others have focused their attentions on the impacts of internal marketing on organizational commitment (Gilaninia, Taleghani & Baghrabad, 2013; Shekary, Moghadam, Adaryany, & Moghadam, 2012; Narteh, 2012). Meanwhile most of the previous studies have been concentrated on the relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment on one hand and the relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment with job satisfaction as mediating factors. Only few studies have been concentrated on the relationship between internal marketing and customer orientation; the role of personality factors as a mediating variable.

2. Internal Marketing

There is no consensus of opinions of scholars on the acceptable definitions of internal marketing. One of such definitions was the one given by Taylor and Cosenza (1997). Taylor and Cosenza (1997) defined internal marketing as a strategy by which the philosophy and principles of marketing are applied to people whose task is to serve the external customers. In the view of Quester, Kelly and Amanda (1999), internal marketing is perceived a part of critical interface between marketing and human resource management that is principally believed to be very critical with respect to service industries. Given the above definitions, two fundamental elements are emphasised. These are marketing and personnel; this thus means with respect to the definition of marketing, personnel; and marketing itself are intertwined.

Internal marketing is particularly geared towards perceiving the employees of an organization as internal customers thereby contributing meaningfully to their welfare in all ramifications. Several practices of the internal market are found in the extant literature. Quester and Kelly (1995) identified the practices of internal marketing

¹ Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia Correspondence: Inda Sukati, Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia. E-mail: indasukatiutmjb@gmail.com

as communication, training, education and information. Foreman and Money (1999) in their studies held that the components of internal marketing are rewards, development and vision. However, Nartel (2012) identified the components of internal marketing to be training and development; reward and communication; internal communication and empowerment. One central theme of all these classifications is the identification of certain endeavours employed by the employer or organization for the benefit of each and every individual employee within a particular organization.

In the case of customer orientation, it is defined by many authors differently. It is the direct opposite of sales orientation which is often described as a means of adopting strategic approach that promotes needs and wants of the firm or salesperson over the customer. According to a study carried out by Taleghani, Gilaninia and Talab (2013), customer orientation is defined as a situation within an organization where the focus of the organization is primarily on the customer and satisfying their needs and desires based on their demands and needs. The authors posited the customers are the ultimate consumers and should be treated as such especially from the dimensions of customer analysis and customer responsiveness. Furthermore, Brown et al. (2002) defined consumer orientation as the tendency of the employees to meet the needs of the customer and it also addresses the extent to which they enjoy meeting the customers' needs.

Based on the outcome of the study of Brown, et al (2002), customer orientation can be conceptualised on two main dimensions which include meeting customer needs and facilitating their enjoyment. Furthermore, based on a review of the extant literature, Singh and Koshy (2008) proposed a definition of customer orientation which goes thus:

"Salesperson's customer orientation is the set of behaviors displayed by salespersons in all customer-related activities that pertain to gathering and disseminating information to customers, understanding their expressed and latent needs, and continuously fulfilling these needs by delivering superior quality products and services through sustained long term relationship with customers, to profitably create value for customers and keep them satisfied."

From the above given definition, we can infer that satisfying the needs of the customers; maintaining excellent interpersonal relationship with them as well as producing and providing quality and standard goods and services are parts of the means of enhancing customer orientation.

As with several other concepts, no consensus has been reached on the definition of organizational commitment. Most organizational researchers and social psychologists perceive it differently. Holcomb, (2009) defined organizational commitment as the attachment of the employees to the organization. This could be in form of their sense of identity as well as sense of commitment to the organization. Gilaninia, et al (2013) and Shekary, Moghadam, Adaryany and Moghadam (2012) have identified three parts of organizational commitment based on the review of previous literature; these include affective, normative and continuance commitment. While affective commitment deals with employees' emotional attachment to the organization, normative commitment addresses employee's sense of moral conduct to remain in the organization. The third of course talks about putting up a commitment and/or dedication in an organization on the ground that there are no other options or there is lack of career opportunities. Hence, an organization where all these features are present and applicable is considered to have adequate organizational commitment.

Meanwhile, personality factors are described by social psychologists as the main domains or simply put dimensions of personality that often express or give vivid description of human personality. Human personality largely influences their attitude, choice, interpersonal relationship and a host of others. These domains are five (5) in number and are popularly called the big five personality factor. It should be stated that the big five personality factor could otherwise be known as the five factor model. Needless to say that the big five factor model accounts for different traits in personality without being separated. In the interim, Digman (1990), Mc Crae (1992) and Bartone, et al (2009) identified the big five factors as: Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness.

2.1 Internal Marketing and Personality Factors

Bartone, et al (2009) evaluated the influence of personality factors on the performance of leader in the US military academy cadets. The authors adopted experimental research technique in their studies and the finding revealed that the personality factors predicted performance of leader in the summer field training environment as well as the academic period context. The implication of this is that different personality factors may have meaningful influence on leadership in different organizational contexts. This means in whatever view it is perceived, personality factors have great influence on performance of leaders. Thus, personality factors are essential elements towards appreciating the kinds of performance that are imbibed by different sets of leaders.

Nonetheless, a major setback of this study was that the environment studied was a military-based; hence, the outcome might not be applicable in the banking industry.

In the same token, the relationship between personality factors and performance using service performance indicators was the focus of the study undertaken by Sawyerr, Srinivas and Wang (2009). To drive home their point, the authors adopted a structured questionnaire with a sample of one hundred and ninety four (194) employees including their supervisors in eight (8) call centres in five (5) companies within the insurance and telecommunications industries. Using Structural Equation Model (SEM) to run the data, the result of the finding showed that conscientiousness; agreeableness; openness to new experience and emotional stability; and neuroticism were found to be significantly related to one or more of the performance measures. However, extroversion was unequivocally unrelated to the performance measure. This implies that each of the five big factors impacts significantly on performance indicators except extroversion. The outcome of this finding might be said to be applicable on banking industry both insurance which was the focus of the study and banking industries share certain features in common, at least to a very large extent.

Furthermore, the influence of personality factors on employees' abilities towards organizational change was analysed by Kumar and Kamalanabhan (2005). Using the role of demographic variables (seniority and education) on the employee's ability, the results of the finding indicated that while some personality factors such as perceived control, optimism and change self-efficacy showed a significant relationship with coping with organizational change, self-esteem did not show a significantly relationship. A review of this study shows that although the terminologies referred to as personality factors are somewhat different from the popular big five factor, in significance and meanings they are one and the same. Hence, not all the personality factors have influence on the abilities of employees to organizational change.

Adjei and Clark (2010) was another study that looked at personality traits as a moderator in analysing the relationship between satisfaction-driven quality and behavioural loyalty. The study which sampled one hundred and fifty eight (158) retail shoppers found that the overall satisfaction of the customers with the retailer will lead to quality customer–firm relationships. This in the long run will lead to behavioural loyalty to the retailer. Apart from this, the study found that the effect of relationship quality on behavioural loyalty is subject to the consumer's personality traits. These according to the study include consumer innovativeness, variety seeking, and relationship proneness.

Lakhal, Sevigny and Frenette (2013) attempted to verify whether personality factors while controlling for gender and business major could predict preference for evaluation methods. With a sample of one hundred and eight (108) students enrolled in two core undergraduate business courses and data analysis using multiple linear hierarchical regressions; the result of the finding revealed that gender, business major as well as personality were accounted for 7 to 16% of the variance who preferred case studies, oral exams, group work, multiple choice tests, written exams, and of course practical work. In other words, the finding of the result showed that personality factors measuring preference for evaluation methods and potential had impacts on student evaluation and academic success in business schools.

2.2 Internal Marketing and Organizational Commitment

The effect of internal marketing and organizational commitment on the success of Iranian banks was carried out by Vazifehdoost, Hooshmand and Dehafarin (2012). The study developed a framework that particularly depicted the use of internal marketing, organizational commitment as well as market orientation by private banks in Iran with a view to increasing their market and organizational performance. In the long run, the study posited that internal marketing had a positively significant impact on organizational commitment. This however suggests that there is a positive relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment. Meanwhile, the result of this finding could be generalized because it is based on banking sector which is the concern of the current study. However, the research environment is one that is densely populated by Muslims whose pattern of life and banking structure and policies are incompatible with conventional practices. Hence, we can conclude that the finding of this study may only be suitable for a Muslim-majority country and may be inappropriate for a western country or Muslim-minority country.

In another study conducted by Tsai and Wu SW (2011), the relationships between internal marketing, organizational commitment and service quality was explored. The study which was undertaken to improve organizational commitment and service quality using internal marketing adopted a cross-sectional study to analyse the perceptions of nursing staff about internal marketing, organizational commitment and service quality. A total of three hundred and fifty (350) questionnaires were distributed to three regional hospitals within Taiwan as sample for the study while a total of two hundred and eighty eight (288) valid questionnaires were returned.

Additionally, SPSS 12.0, including descriptive statistics based on demographics was used to analyse the relevant data gathered for that purpose while a one-way ANOVA was used to examine the influence of demographics on internal marketing, organizational commitment and service quality.

The findings of the study indicated that internal marketing was an important element that played a significant role in explaining employees' perceptions of organizational commitment and service quality. Besides, the outcome of the study showed that organizational commitment plays a mediating role between internal marketing and service quality. The authors thus opined that internal marketing had a great influence on both organizational commitment and service quality. Meanwhile, a major shortcoming of this study was that it focused its attention on hospitals which makes the outcome judgmental. This is because there are distinctive differences between banks and hospitals and as such what is obtainable in hospitals is divergent from the norms in banking industry.

In a related and much more relevant study by Narteh (2012), emphasis was placed on investigating the impacts of the four internal marketing practices: empowerment; training and development; rewards and communication on the employees' commitment in retail banking industry in Ghana. The sample for the study included four hundred and ten (410) employees of banks in Ghana. At the end of the study, the result indicated that all the elements of internal marketing recorded positive and significant relationship with employees' commitment except communication that showed otherwise. This suggests that while empowerment; training and development; rewards have significant impact on organizational commitment, communication shows no impact on organizational commitment.

We can therefore see that based on the outcome of the study, the management of the banks would have to introduce measures that will provide direct benefits to the employees if they would influence the behaviours of the employees in Ghanaian banking industry. Invariably, we can come infer from the study that internal marketing remains a potent tool that can be adopted by banks' management to facilitate job satisfaction and motivate employees to be able to contribute their quotas to the organizational goals. As if that is not enough, internal marketing may aid in the achievement of the perceptions of employees towards organizational commitment.

Gilaninia, Taleghani and Baghrabad (2013) examined the impact of the components of internal marketing on organizational commitment of staff of Refah banks in Ardabil province. The research population encompassed staffs of Refah banks in Ardabil with a sample of one hundred and ninety-six (196) personnel. The research instrument was a structured questionnaire while Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and multiple regression models were adopted to test the hypotheses. In the same vein, the confirmatory factor analysis was employed to evaluate the variability explained by relevant questions in the questionnaire. The study found that internal marketing had a positive impact on organizational commitment. Hence, the findings of the study support extant literature on positive relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment.

There is yet another study that examined the relationship that exists between the internal marketing and job satisfaction, organizational commitment as well as organizational citizenship behaviour. This was conducted by Berzoki and Ghujali (2013). The authors relied on relevant statistical instruments (i.e questionnaire) which were distributed to six-hundred fifty (650) employees of Urmia Melli Bank. The outcome of their findings confirmed that internal marketing had a positive and significant impact on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour. It must be stated at this juncture that apart from the fact that the study concluded that internal marketing had significant positive impact on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and citizenship behaviour, it also has the potential to bring about voluntary behaviour in work environment thereby necessitating the accomplishment of the organizational goals. The reason for this is not farfetched; an employee who is trained, rewarded and motivated will continue to contribute meaningfully to the success of the organization that he or she is responsible to. The staffs of such organizations who are motivated will naturally and voluntarily exhibit some natural behaviours geared towards contributing to the success of the organization without any forms of force or duress.

Abzari, Ghorbani and Madani (2011) in their own study examined the relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment. The sample for this research comprised one hundred (100) hotel managers and administrators in Isfahan province while the research instrument adopted was a questionnaire with thirty questions which administered appropriately. A model which was tested by means of LISREL software was designed to demonstrate the effect of internal marketing on organizational commitment. The result of the findings revealed that internal marketing had a strong impact on the organizational commitment directly and indirectly through market orientation. This thus implies that internal marketing has an influence on market orientation directly while market orientation impacts organizational commitment. As noted earlier in the current

paper, the province of Isfahan is a Muslim territory; thus, we may not be able to generalise the result therein. Nonetheless, the study concentrated on hotel managers and administrators which is quite different from a financial institution such as banks; thus its findings cannot be generalised on conventional domains.

Similarly, Shueh-Chin Ting (2011) examined the effect of internal marketing on organizational commitment while keeping job involvement and job satisfaction as mediators. Two hundred and seventy five (275) elementary school teachers participated in the study. The study was an empirical one and employed questionnaire surveys adopting a nestle model and Structural Equation Model (SEM) for analysis. The result showed that internal marketing, job involvement and job satisfaction have a direct impact on organizational commitment. Meanwhile, job involvement and job satisfaction play partial mediating roles in the relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment. It can therefore be inferred from the outcome of the study that job involvement and job satisfaction have crucial impact on the relationship between school organization's internal marketing and teachers' organizational commitment.

2.3 Internal Marketing and Customer Orientation

One of relevant studies on the relationship between internal marketing and customer orientation was the research conducted by Zaman, Javaid, Arshad and Bibi (2012). The authors investigated the impact of internal marketing on organization commitment, market orientation, and business performance of the commercial banks. Using quantitative approaches for the data collected from five hundred (500) bank employees in twelve (12) commercial banks within Pakistan, the study adopted inferential technique on SPSS 18.00 to analyse the effective data. The study therefore found that internal marketing had a significant impact on the commitment of employees.

Also, the findings revealed that internal marketing had a significant effect on market orientation and profitability of the firm. However, a careful review of the study pinpoints some shortcomings. First, a pure quantitative approach as used in the study might not really drive the point home. Rather, a mixed method approach would have been appropriate to actually find the impact of internal marketing on customer orientation. Second, Pakistani banks are largely based on Islamic principles and do not really apply conventional methods. Hence, the findings of this study may be applicable only to countries that adopt Islamic principles and guidelines in their banking operations.

In the same token, Sukati, Abu Bakar and Rohaizat (2013) investigated the effect of internal marketing on customer orientation, customer satisfaction as well as organizational commitment in Malaysian banking industry. The study adopted a structured questionnaire, administered on a sample of three hundred and forty (340) respondents, to collect data. Using correlation analysis and multiple regressions to analyse the gathered data, the study found that internal marketing had positive impact on customer orientation and job satisfaction. From the outcome of this study we can conclude that for the purpose of facilitating employee commitment, job satisfaction and customer orientation, the role of internal marketing cannot be over emphasised. The result of this study further supports extant literature that internal marketing has a positive impact on customer orientation.

Muhammad and Djouhara (2010) also conducted a study to examine the impact of internal marketing together with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours on market orientation of commercial banks in Jordan. Using a sample of three hundred and sixty five (365) employees in seven commercial banks of Jordan, the authors adopted a quantitative survey methodology to collect the data. AMOS 16.0 was used and the result of the analysis indicated that internal marketing, organizational commitment as well as organizational citizenship behaviours had a positive direct impact on market orientation of banks. The study concluded that commercial banks in Jordan stand the chance of meeting the demands of their employees as well achieve their set objectives if they apply internal marketing as a strategy in their core operations and values.

Shahsavani, Dolatabadi and Ranjbarian (2012) evaluated the impact of internal marketing on customer orientation in the municipals of Shiraz and Neyriz. The research which was based on descriptive-survey had a sample of one hundred and seventy two (172) personnel within the municipal employees of Shiraz and Neyriz in Fars Province. The study adopted Structural Equations Method (SEM) with emphasis on confirmatory factor analysis and structural equations to analyze the data and test the hypotheses. The results of the analysis indicated that internal marketing has significant effect on customer orientation.

There is a much more related and yet relevant research by Amangala and Amangala (2013) who examined the relationship between the dimensions of internal market orientation and customer orientation. The study comprised senior executives of Nigerian commercial bank and insurance firms in Port Harcourt, the capital city of Rivers State as the statistical population for the study. One hundred and fifty (150) senior executives drawn from two branches of the twenty-five (25) registered commercial banks and ten (10) insurance companies

operating in Port Harcourt participated in the study by completing self-administered questionnaire distributed to them to give their perceptions about the internal market orientation and customer orientation of their respective organizations. The result of the findings showed that all dimensions of internal market orientation had positive relationships with customer orientation.

Moreover, Gilaninia, Shafiei and Shadab (2013) looked at the effect of internal marketing on costumer orientation among the staff of Guilan social security organization. The authors selected six hundred and seventy two (672) staff members on stratified random sampling basis as sample and questionnaire was distributed to them to collect field information and data. In the long run, the findings indicated that internal marketing had a meaningful effect on the customer orientation of social security organization in Gilan. However, the findings of the study cannot be generalised on two grounds. One, the study environment was centred on social security organization whose values, operations and modus operandi are distinctively different from financial institutions such as banks. Two, based on the technique adopted, stratified sampling technique is not representative enough to be able to generalise its result.

Mohammadi, Hashemi and Moradi (2012) studied the impacts of internal marketing on customer orientation within the confine of food and drug distribution companies in the province of Kermanshah. The sample for the study included one hundred and sixty five (165) personnel drawn from the marketers and directors of marketing of food and drug distribution companies in the province. The research was based on descriptive approach while the data was analysed with correlation analysis using structural equations (AMOS) model. The result of the analysis showed that there was a significantly positive correlation between internal customer and customer orientation. Nevertheless, a key drawback of this study was that it was based on food and drug distributing companies and as a result its finding may not be generalised on banking institutions.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework could be defined as a compilation of interrelated concepts, such as a theory but might not necessarily work out. Knoblock (2002) viewed that conceptual framework may often be used interchangeably with theoretical framework and it is a systematic account of relations among a set of variables. While it is noted that a conceptual framework helps a lot in providing guidance to research work, it also helps to determine what to measure as well as the appropriate statistical relationships that could be taken cognizance of. Based on the extant literature, a number of conceptual frameworks have been identified. But for the purpose of this study, the framework proposed by Mohammadi, Hashemi and Moradi (2012) in their study has been selected randomly for adaption.

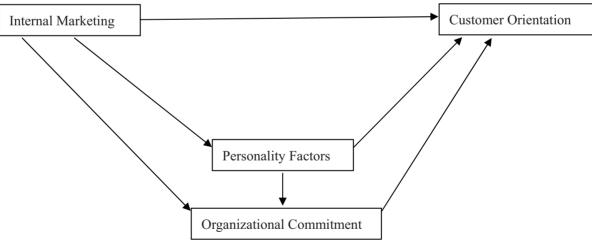


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

From the foregoing figure, it can be inferred that the conceptual framework suggests that internal marketing influences customer orientation with respect to the two mediating variables which include personal ity factors and organization commitment. The framework advocates that internal marketing has a direct effect over organizational commitment, personality factor and customer orientation. Furthermore, the framework indicates that while both the personality factors and organizational commitment influence customer orientation, the

relationship between the personality factor and organizational commitment, showing that personality factor influences organizational commitment, is established.

3. Conclusions

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that internal marketing evolved out of the need for an organization to make the employees who are regarded as the internal market imbibe marketing principles and philosophy for the purpose of serving the external customers well. In the course of attaining the organizational goals, the best possible hands are employed and retained while performing the best possible task. However, the current study has been able to identify four principal marketing concepts that can be adopted to facilitate internal marketing. These are training and development; reward and recognition; internal communication and empowerment. The effective application of these four components in an organization or corporation will not only promote organizational commitment but also enhance customer orientation in the banking industry. Besides, this study also identifies the personality factors often referred to as the big five factors which includes Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness.

Based on the evaluation of the previous studies done in this review, we can confirm that internal marketing has positively significant relationship with the trio of organizational commitment, consumer orientation and personality factors. This suggests all the previous studies reviewed believe that internal marketing is positively related to the other variables mentioned earlier. It must be mentioned at this juncture that internal communication which is part of the big five factor was found to record no positive relationship with internal marketing. However, the implication of the outcome of our review is that the impact of internal marketing on organizational commitment, consumer orientation and personality factors was established and therefore means that the banking industry has to avail itself this opportunities to be able to improve productivity and stand the test of time. In essence, internal marketing remains a strategy for organizations to adopt in their core operations and values so as to achieve their set objectives.

References

- Adjei, M. T., & Clark, M. N. (2010). Relationship marketing in A B2C Context: The moderating role of personality traits. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2009. 10.001
- Awwad, M. S., & Agti, D. A. M. (2011). The impact of internal marketing on commercial banks' market orientation. Emerald 29.
- Country Profile: Nigeria. (2008). Library of Congress Federal Research Division.
- Eslami, J., & Gharakhani, D. (2012). Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction. *ARPN Journal of Science and Technology*, 2(2).
- Greenberg, E. S., Sikora, P. B., Leaon, G., & Sarah, M. (2012). Work Teams and Organizational commitment: Exploring the influence of team experience on employee attitude. Working paper WP-012. Institute of Behavioural Science.
- Knobloch, N. A. (n. d.). Building Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks that Inform Research. Purdue University.
- Kumar, R., & Kamalanabhan, T. J. (2005). The role of personality factors in coping with organizational change. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *13*(2), 175-192. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/eb029003
- Li, I-C., Lin, M.-C., & Chen, C.-M. (2007). Relationship between personality traits, job satisfaction and job involvement among Taiwanese Community Health Volunteers. *Public Health Nursing*, *24*(3), 274-282. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1525-1446.2007.00634.x
- Maryam, S., Habibi, N. Z., & Robabe, R. (2014). The relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment in Golestan's sports and youth office. *Advances in Applied Science Research*.
- Mehdi, A., Hassan, G., & Alsadat, M. F. (2011). The Effects of Internal Marketing on Organizational Commitment from Market Orientation viewpoint in hotel Industry in Iran. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 3(1).
- Mohammad, T., Shahram, G., & Matloub, T. S. (2013). Market Orientation and Business Performance. Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies, 1(11).
- Rastegar, M., Reza, H., & Alireza, M. (2012). Study of Effects of Internal Marketing on Customer Orientation (Food and Drug distribution companies of Kermanshah Province). *International Research Journal of*

- Applied and Basic Sciences, 3(11).
- Reza, D. M., & Mina, V. (2013). A Study of the Effects of Internal Marketing on Customer-Oriented Social and Prosocial Behaviours. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(11).
- Sanusi, S. L. (2012). *Banking Reform and Its Impact on the Nigerian Economy*. A lecture delivered at the University of Warwick's Econmic Summit, Warwick
- Scholl, R. W. (2008). Organizational Commitment. Kingston: The University of Rhode Island
- Shahram, G., Bijah, S., & Rashid, S. (2013). The Effects of Internal Marketing on Employees' Customer Orientation in Social Security organization of Gilan. *International Journal of Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology*, 2(10).
- Shahsavani, M., Dolatabadi, H. R., & Ranjbarian, B. (2012). Impact of internal marketing on customer orientation: A case study on municipals of Shiraz and Neyriz. *Rep Opinion*, 4(12), 61-66.
- Temple, A., & Emmanuel, A. (2013). Effects of Internal Marketing and its components on Organization level Customer Orientation: An Empirical Analysis. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(8).
- Ting, S. -C. (2011). The Effect of Internal Marketing on Organizational Commitment: Job involvement and Job satisfaction as Mediators. *Educational Administration Quarterly*.
- Tsai, & Wu, S. W. (2011). Using Internal Marketing to Improve Organizational Commitment and Service Quality. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2011. 05696.x
- Zorah, A. K., Yazreen Md, Y. I., & Lee, F. N. (2012). Job Empowerment and Customer Orientation of Bank Employees in Kuchong, Malaysia. *Contemporary Management Research*, 8(2), 131-140.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Influence of Psychopathy and Cultic Disposition on Attitude toward Violence among Students of Tertiary Institutions in Ekiti State

Adebayo Sulaiman Olanrewaju¹, Olawa Babatola Dominic², Ogunleye Adedeji Julius³ & Ayeye Funmilola³

Received: August 3, 2013 Accepted: February 14, 2014 Online Published: August 22, 2014

Abstract

The study examined the influence of psychopathy and cultic disposition on attitudes toward violence among students of tertiary institutions in Ekiti State, Nigeria. One hundred and fifty six participants completed self-report instruments comprising of the Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale, Revised Attitudes toward Violence Scale and Disposition toward Cultism Questionnaire. The research participants were selected using the convenience sampling method. Responses from the survey research were analyzed using multiple regression and correlational analyses. Result of the study showed that both manifestations of psychopathy and disposition towards cultism independently and jointly predict attitudes toward violence. No significant relationship was found between psychopathy and cultic disposition. Results were discussed in line with previous literature and it was recommended that counselors and psychotherapists in tertiary institution settings should conduct holistic assessments of incoming and current students to diagnose for dispositions toward cultism and psychopathic traits so as to prevent occurrence of violent acts in the various academic communities of the country.

Keywords: cultic disposition, psychopathy, violence, tertiary institutions, students

1. Introduction

The issue of violence is as old as human existence. There is ubiquity of violence in the world, spanning from the east to the west, from north to south. Violence has become an issue that is inevitable in social interaction. In year 2000, it was estimated that about 1.6 million people worldwide lost their lives as a result of violence, a rate which is nearly 28.8 per 100 000 (WHO, 2002). When violence becomes so intense, the consequence may result to the loss of lives and property of individuals involves, thereby leading to communal and societal breakdown.

Violence can be defined as the 'use of physical force to injure somebody or damage something' (Microsoft Encarta, 2009). The World Health Organization (1996) defines 'violence as the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation' (cited in WHO, 2002, p. 4). These definitions reveal that violence can be typified by aggressiveness, destructiveness and callousness.

The violence unleashed by cult groups and student unions in the academic communities of the various tertiary institutions in Nigeria cannot be overemphasized. Violence in Nigerian higher institutions is not just a recent phenomenon. There is virtually no academic session where there is nonoccurrence of violence and students' unrest in most of the Nigerian public universities, polytechnics and colleges of education. There have been frequent occurrences of students' crises in Nigeria at varied levels of time phases (Ajibade, 2013). These crises could be noticed from the colonial era (1940-1960), to the immediate post independence and civil war era (1970-1986), and the economic crisis and adjustment (SAP) period (1986-1990s) (Onyenoru, 1996; Olamosu, 2000).

As defined by Ajayi, Haastrup and Osalusi, (2010), 'cultism can be seen as a ritual practice by a group of people whose membership, admission, policy and initiation formalities as well as their mode of operations are done in secret and kept secret with their activities having negative effects on both members and nonmembers alike' (p.

¹ Faculty of the Social Sciences, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria

² Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria

³ Department of Psychology, Faculty of the Social Sciences, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria Correspondence: Adebayo Sulaiman Olanrewaju, Faculty of the Social Sciences, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria. Tel: 234-803-386-5790. E-mail: lanryadd@yahoo.com

155). Since the 1990s, the operations of secret cults have become so horrorful and worrisome, marked by the murder arson, armed robbery and rape and lack of discipline (Oluwatobi & Babatunde, 2010). Cultism is a social ill that has placed a deep sorrow on its victims whereby innocent students suffer humiliations and molestations from cultist (Maliki, 2009).

Periodically, the cruel and callous activities of cult groups on our universities and polytechnics are reported. One of such recent event was the killing of a 400 level Banking and Finance student of the Lagos State University, who is also a musician, Damilola Damochie on Feb. 28 2013 by suspected cultists at the institution's main gate (Vanguard News Paper, 2013). Violence erupted at Ekiti State University toward the end of year 2012 over the alleged killing of a cult member in which there was the damage of school properties that led to the closure of the University for a period of time. Apart from mayhem unleashed by cult groups, students have had cause to protest several policies formulated by the authorities of the various higher institutions through mob actions which often result into violence marked by destruction of school properties and loss of students' life. All these violent occurrences caused by students together with the industrial actions of workers' unions (ASUU, ASUP, SSANU, NASU etc) have led to frequent closure or disruption of academic calendar in the various tertiary institutions in the country.

The Nigerian government and security operatives have shown relentless efforts or devised several ways at nipping this menace at bud, but overall, all efforts have proved abortive. Through the media, individuals and groups have expressed their concern over the problem caused by the various cult crises. State and Federal authorities have made use of varied measures of tackling this menace by prosecuting and imprisoning cultists, rustication from tertiary institutions and publishing their names in national dailies among others (Arijesuyo & Olusanya, 2010).

On the other hand, it has been empirically observed by psychologists that the influence of innate tendency can predispose individuals towards violence and destructiveness (Arijesuyo & Olusanya, 2010). Violence can be seen as an overly complex issue caused by the interaction of various factors that are biological, social, cultural, economic and political (WHO, 2002). According to the ecological model of understanding violence, factors that could influence behavior or which increase the risk of committing or being a victim of violence is seen from four levels. The first level identifies biological and personal history factors that influence how individuals behave and increase their likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence. Examples of factors that can be measured or traced include demographic characteristics (age, education, income), psychological or personality disorders, substance abuse, and a history of behaving aggressively or experiencing abuse (WHO, 2002).

From this model, it could be said that psychopathy, 'a personality disorder marked by antisocial thoughts and behaviors' (Microsoft Encarta, 2009) is capable of disposing students characterized by it into violent acts and aggression. Pyschopathy refer to a socially impaired individual who engages in unguarded and reckless behavior, of an antisocial or deviant kind (Hare, 1985; World Health Organisation, 1992; American Psychiatric Association, 1994). '...psychopathy can be understood as a constellation of personality features that generally includes remorselessness, callousness, deceitfulness, egocentricity, failure to form close emotional bonds, low anxiety proneness, superficial charm, and externalization of blame' (Lilienfeld, 1998, cited in Skeem, Poythress, Edens, Lilienfeld, & Cale, 2003 p. 514). The strong nexus between psychopathy and offending can be characterized by interpersonal and affective cluster of traits like grandiosity, insensitivity, manipulation, lack of compassion, and lack of guilt or remorse (Hare, 1991). As noted in Snowden, Gray, Smith, Morris and Macculloch (2004), violence perpetrated by individuals high in psychopathy tends to be cold-blooded and instrumental (Cornell, Warren, Hawk, Stafford, Oram, & Pine, 1996; Porter, Woodworth, Earle, Drugge, & Boer, 2003, Woodworth & Porter, 2002). Psychopaths show indifference to the violence committed rather than with grief, regret and guilt exhibited by many non-psychopathic offenders (Hare, 2001).

Thus, the preponderance of psychopathic traits among student population may better predict the initiation and extent of violence committed in the various higher institutions in the country rather than factors such as inadequate moral instructions, unconducive learning environment, peer group influence, parental and home background and the rest as highlighted by previous articles (e.g. Osakinle & Falana, 2011; Ajayi, Haastrup, & Osalusi, 2010; Amaele, 2013).

From the foregoing, it may be hypothesized that psychopathic traits and disposition toward cultism can independently and interactively predict attitude toward violence among tertiary students. Specifically, it is hypothesized that:

There will be a significant relationship between manifestation of psychopathic traits and attitude towards violence among tertiary institution students.

There will be a significant relationship between cultic disposition and attitude toward violence among tertiary institution students.

There will be a significant independent and joint influence of manifestation of psychopathic traits and cultic disposition on attitude toward violence among tertiary institution students.

Hence, if students are assessed for psychopathic and cultic tendencies before and after enrolment, it may help authorities to have knowledge of, and follow up those that could initiate violence and possibly join cult groups on campuses, thereby reducing violent activities in our academic communities.

2. Materials and Method

In investigating the influence of psychopathy and cultic disposition on attitude toward violence, the following procedures were adopted.

2.1 Research Participants

A total of one hundred and fifty six (156) participants comprising of 73 males and 83 females with an age range of 16 to 30 were employed in this study. Participants were selected using convenience sampling from the students' population of Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Federal Polytechnic, Ado-Ekiti and College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti, Ekiti State.

2.2 Research Design

The study was an ex-post facto field study in which responses of research participants were collected using the questionnaire method. Thus, this study incorporates the correlation and regression designs. The correlational design was adopted because the researchers are interested in investigating the relationship among variables of study. Regression design was adopted for the researcher to test the individual and combine influences of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

2.3 Measures

Three standardized psychological instruments were used in the study. They are:

- I. The Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP) developed by Levenson, Kiehl, and Fitzpatrick (1995) to measure psychopathy. It is a 26-item inventory designed to measure primary psychopathy (assessing impersonal and affective features of psychopathy) and secondary psychopathy (assessing impulsivity and other anti-social behaviours). It is measured on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Levenson et al, (1995) found that primary and secondary psychopathy subscales correlate positively with each other (r = .40). The Cronbach alpha for both subscales are primary psychopathy, secondary psychopathy and global psychopathy are .83, .71 and .82 respectively (Levenson et al., 1995). Additionally, good test-retest reliability (r = .83) was found when compared over a period of eight weeks (Lynam et al., 1999). Higher scores indicate increase psychopathic traits in the individual.
- II. The Revised Attitudes toward Violence Scale (RAVS) was first published in the work Anderson, Benjamin, Wood and Bonacci (2006), though, originally designed by Velicer et al., (1989) as an extension of the Violence Scale developed by Bardis (1973). The scale consists of 39 items with four subscales (war in violence, corporal punishment, intimate violence and penal code violence) scored on a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (7). The reliability coefficients of the four factors are .84, .80, .87, .91 for war, penal code corporal and intimate violence respectively (Anderson, Benjamin, Wood, & Bonacci, 2006). Higher scores indicate a more positive attitude toward violence.
- III. The Disposition toward Cultism Questionaire (DCQ) was developed for the purpose of this study to measure cultic disposition of participants. It is a 13 item questionnaire measured on five point Likert- type scale ranging from 'not at all characteristic of me (1)' to 'very characteristic of me (5).' Sample of items include "I like carrying out important activities in secrecy", "I can forcefully remove all stumbling blocks to the wheels of my progress". The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale obtained in the pilot study is 0.71. Higher scores reflect more dispositions toward cultism. The items of the DCQ are shown in the appendix section.

2.4 Procedure

Two hundred copies of questionnaires containing the LSRP, RATVS and the DCQ together with biographic information eliciting items were given out to research participants to personally complete, having sought and obtained their consent to participate in the study. The completed copies of the questionnaire were later retrieved from respondents for analysis. Forty four copies (44) copies of the questionnaire were not properly completed, making one hundred and seventy (156) copies available for use in data analysis

3. Results

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables

Variable N=156	M(SD)	Primary Psycho- pathy	Secondary Psycho- pathy	Psych- opathy	Cultic Disposition	War in Violence	Corporal Punishment	Penal Code	Intimate Violence	Att. Toward Violence
Primary Psycho Pathy	38(5.47)	-	0.33**	0.79**	0.038	0.18*	0.33**	0.33**	0.26**	0.38**
Secondary Psycho Pathy	38.71(6.29)		-	0.84**	0.077	0.31**	0.27**	0.39**	0.40**	0.44**
Psycho Pathy	76.71(9.61)			-	0.072	0.30**	0.36**	0.44**	0.41**	0.48**
Cultic Disposition	39.45(12.29)				-	0.22**	0.07	0.11	0.18*	0.20*
War in Violence	37.56(8.67)					-	0.46**	0.54**	0.49**	0.82**
Corporal Punishment	25.85(6.72)						-	0.42**	0.35**	0.69**
Penal Code	21.09(5.27)							-	0.60**	0.78**
Intimate Violence	32.18(9.71)								-	0.82**
Att. Toward Violence	116.68(23.76)									-

^{**}Correlation significant at P < 0.01

Table 1 shows that primary psychopathy correlates positively with war in violence (r_{156} =0.18, p< 0.05), corporal punishment (r_{156} =0.33, p<0.01), penal code (r_{156} =0.33, p<0.01), intimate violence (r_{156} =0.26, p<0.01) and the global attitude towards violence (r_{156} =0.38, p<0.01).

Similarly, secondary psychopathy correlates positively with war in violence (r_{156} =0.31, p< 0.01), corporal punishment (r_{156} =0.27, p<0.01), penal code (r_{156} =0.39, p<0.01), intimate violence (r_{156} =0.40, p<0.01) and the global attitude towards violence (r_{156} =0.44, p<0.01).

Also, global psychopathy correlates with the global attitude towards violence (r_{156} =0.48, p<0.01), war in violence (r_{156} =0.30, p< 0.01), corporal punishment (r_{156} =0.44, p<0.01), penal code (r_{156} =0.41, p<0.01) and intimate violence (r_{156} =0.48, p<0.01).

Result also shows that there is no significant relationship between psychopathy and attitudes toward violence $(r_{156}=0.072, p>0.05)$.

Table 2. Summary of regression analysis showing the independent and joint influence of psychopathy and cultic disposition on attitude towards violence

Variable	В	t	Sig.	R	R Square	F	Sig.	
Psychopathy Cultic Disposition	0.47 0.16	0.51		0.51	0.26	26.57	P < 0.01	
Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward violence								

Table 2 shows that there is a significant influence of psychopathy on attitudes towards violence [β =0.47, t_{154} = 6.71, P < 0.01]. Similarly, there is a significant influence of cultic disposition on attitudes toward violence [β =0.16, t_{154} = 2.35, P < 0.5]. Additionally, there is a significant joint influence of psychopathy and cultic disposition on attitudes towards violence [F (2) 153 = 26.57, P < 0.01].

4. Discussions

As shown in the results, psychopathy and it subscales (primary and secondary psychopathy) do have significant relationships with attitudes toward violence (war in violence, corporal punishment, penal code violence and intimate violence). So also does a significant relationship exist between cultic disposition and attitudes toward violence. All the subscales of violence attitudes significantly correlated with each other showing that the

^{*} Correlation significant at P < 0.05

manifestation of one aspect of violence may predict the other. Additionally, there are strong significant independent and combined influences of psychopathy and cultic disposition on violent attitudes.

As a result of the anti-social nature of individuals with psychopathic traits, in addition to their lack of empathy, guilt and remorse in social interaction, they may be more disposed to initiating violent acts than those without the traits among tertiary institution students. The nature of this violence of psychopaths may be war-like (involving the use of arms and ammunitions), corporal (inflicting of pains to the body of others), penal (prescription of punishment to offenders) and dominating their partners by violence when in intimate relationship (Anderson et al., 2006).

The significance in the relationship between psychopathy and attitude towards violence is consistent with the outcome of the research conducted by Williams, Spidel, and Paulhus, (2005) where it is revealed that the violence that pervades psychopaths' lives is reflected in their intimate relationships. That is, psychopaths are likely to use violent ways to resolve conflicts when they are in intimate relationship with others. Moreover, not only are psychopaths more likely to engage in risky sexual behavior, they are more likely to use coercive strategies to obtain sex, including the intake of drugs or physical or verbal intimidation with their partner (Williams, Spidel, & Paulhus, 2005).

In a similar direction to the present research, the studies reviewed by Skeem, Poythress, Edens, Lilienfeld, Cale, (2002) showed that psychopathic traits have been linked with more community violence, violent and nonviolent criminal recidivism than antisocial personality. Cornell et al. (1996) also found that offenders who had engaged at least one instrumental act of violence had higher scores on the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R & Hare, 1991).

The relationship between disposition towards cultism and attitude toward violence found in this study explains the connection between cultism and violence witnessed in our various universities and polytechnics. It may be said that those students who are influenced to join cult groups and perpetrate violence are not at all times coerced by cult members but that; they themselves may have developed positive attitudes or disposition toward cultism. For example, a student who is forced may resist joining a cult group if he has negative attitudes toward becoming a member despite peer pressure, poverty, poor self esteem, societal decadence, search for security and other factors as enumerated by past studies. Invariably, cultism and violence begin from the dispositional and attitudinal levels where they sooner or later become full blown.

Several researchers have identified cultic activities with violent acts. Rotimi (2005) asserted that secret cult is not a new phenomenon in Africa, but what is new is the recent violence consistently associated with it. Today, the operations of cult groups in our tertiary institutions is accompanied with violence, maining, killing and different types of anti-social activities (Ajayi, Haastrup & Osalusi, 2010). Oluwatobi and Babatunde, (2010) have also asserted that cultism and gansterism are the causes of current upsurge of destructive and violent behaviors in Nigerian institutions of higher learning.

According to Opaluwah (2000) clashes among cult groups have led to an outburst of violence on campuses which resulted to causalities and death among students. In a research carried out among university students of the Nigeria middle belt zone, Smah (2001) noted that 15% of study sample reported to have either observed or narrated cult/gang motivated deaths on the campuses between one and two times in the years before. In 2006 alone, a minimum of one hundred students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria were killed in cult related incident (Yusuf, 2006). The violence perpetrated by secret cults is distinctively marked by killing, extortion, rape, maiming, stealing and all these have formed a lasting impressions on the mind of the average Nigerian (Raufu, 1997).

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

It is concluded in this study that both psychopathy and disposition toward cultism independently and jointly predict attitude toward violence among tertiary students in Ekiti State.

The result of this study has a lot of implications for tertiary institutions' policy makers and most especially psychologists and counselors within these institutions. This study also informs us that students who join cults are not just members because they were coerced to do so, but that, they themselves may develop positive attitudes toward cultism. Results could even explain the Boko Haram insurgencies that have turned the northern part of the country into volatilities and rampages. The members of this group (Boko Haram) are disposed to violence because of probable psychopathic and cultic related tendencies that characterize them.

It is therefore recommended that, there should be holistic assessments of incoming and current students of the various tertiary institutions in the country to diagnose for dispositions toward cultism and psychopathic traits.

This process will help discover individuals who could initiate violence and possibly refer for management in due time to prevent future occurrence of violent behaviors in the academic environments and the country at large. With or without the inclusion of the two antecedent factors of violence discovered in this research, future studies should be focused toward investigating other factors that may predispose people into violent acts and most especially among individuals that have been convicted for societal violence in the past.

References

- Ajayi, I. A., Haastrup, T. E., & Osalusi, F. M. (2010). Menace of Cultism in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions: The Way Out. *Anthropologist*, 12(3), 155-160.
- Ajibade, D. (2013). Students' crisis in Nigerian tertiary educational institutions: A review of the causes and management style. *Khazar Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 16(1), 56-76.
- Amaele, S. (2013). Menace of cultism in Nigeria tertiary institutions: Challenges and way forward. *International journal of education and management*, 1(1), 32-41.
- American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Arijesuyo, E. A., & Olusanya, O. O. (2010). Theoretical Perspectives on Campus Cultism and Violence in Nigeria Universities: A Review and Conceptual Approach. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 3(1), 107-112.
- Cornell, D. G., Warren, J., Hawk, G., Stafford, E., Oram, G., & Pine, D. (1996). Psychopathy in Instrumental and Reactive Violent Offenders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*, 783-790. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.64.4.783
- Hare, R. D. (1991). The Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Revised manual. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
- Hare, R. (2001). *The PCL-R assessment of psychopathy*. Presentation at a training workshop on the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised and Psychopathy Checklist: Youth Version, Vancouver, British Columbia.
- Hare, R. D. (1985). *The Psychopathy Checklist*. Unpublished manuscript, University of British Columbia, Vancouver: Canada.
- Hare, R. D. (2001). Psychopathy and Risk for Recidivism and Violence. In N. S. Gray, J. Laing, & L. Noaks, (Eds.), *Crime, mental health and the politics of risk* (pp. 27-47). London: Cavendish Press Ltd.
- Hart, S. D., & Dempster, R. J. (1997). Impulsivity and psychopathy. In C. D. Webster, & M. A. Jackson (Eds.), *Impulsivity: Theory, assessment and treatment* (pp. 212-232). New York: Guilford.
- Lilienfeld, S. (1998). Methodological advances and developments in the assessment of psychopathy. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *36*, 99-125. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7967(97)10021-3
- Maliki, A. E. (2009). Parental socio-economic status and attitude of towards cultism in Niger Delta University, Bayelsa State: Implication for counseling. *Journal Human Ecology*, 26(1), 65-69.
- Microsoft Encarta. (2009). Psychopathy.
- Olamosun, B. (2000). Crisis of education in Nigeria. Ibadan: Book Farm Publisher.
- Oluwatobi, P., & Babatunde, V. (2010). Cultism or gangsterism and its effect on moral development of learners in Nigerian tertiary Institutions. *J. of Emerging Trends in Educational Research & Policy Studies*, 1(2), 61-64.
- Onyenoru, I. P. (1996). *Nature and management of students' conflict*. Ibadan: Sociology Series No. 4, Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan.
- Opaluwah, A. B. (2000). Cultism and Nigeria Campuses: The way out. Retrieved from http://www.ganji.com/
- Oruwari, Y., & Opuene, O. (2006). *Youth in Urban Violence in Nigeria: A Case Study of Urban Gangs from Port Harcourt*. Niger Delta Economics of Violence Working Papers 14. Retrieved from http://oldweb.geog.berkeley.edu/.../14-Oruwari...
- Osakinle, E. O., & Falana, B. A. (2011). Using counselling and behaviour modification to curb cultism in higher institutions of learning European. *Journal of educational studies*, 3(1), 45-51.
- Pemede, O. (2001). Solving the problem of cultism through Christian Religious Education. *Journal of Education Development (JONED)*. A publication of Nigerian Association of Educationists for National Development.
- Porter, S. (1996). Without conscience or without active conscience? The etiology of psychopathy revisited. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 1,* 179-189. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1359-1789(95)00010-0

- Porter, S., Woodworth, M., Earle, J., Drugge, J., & Boer, D. (2003). In cold blood: Characteristics of sexual homicide committed by psychopathic and non-psychopathic offenders. Law and Human Behavior. 27. 459-70. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1025461421791
- Raufu, S. A. (1997). Secret Cults in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions. Some ways out. LASU seminar series Aug. 3.
- Rotimi. (2005). Violence in the Citadel: The Menace of Secret Cults in the Nigerian Universities. Nordic Journal of African Studies, 14(1), 79-98.
- Skeema, J. L., Poythressb, N., Edensc, J. F., Lilienfeldd, S. O., & Caled, E. M. (2003). Psychopathic personality or personalities? Exploring potential variants of psychopathy and their implications for risk assessment. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 8, 513-546. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(02)00098-8
- Smah, S. O. (2001). Perceptions and Control of Secret Cult and Gang induced Difficulties for quality living and learning in Nigeria Universities. The case study of universities of the Middle Belt Zone. Centre for Development Studies. Retrieved from http://ahero.uwc.ac.Za/index
- Snowden, R. J., Gray, N. S., Smith, J., Morris, M., Malcolm, J., & Macculloch, M. J. (2004). Implicit affective associations to violence in psychopathic murderers. The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology, 15(4), 620-641. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14789940412331313377
- Vanguard News Paper. (2013). Another LASU student killed by suspected cultists. Retrieved from http://www.vanguardngr.com/2013/03/another-lasu-student-killed-by-suspected-cultists/
- Woodworth, M., & Porter, S. (2002). In Cold Blood: Characteristics of Criminal Homicides as a Function of Psychopathy. J. of Abnormal Psychology, 111, 436-455. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.111.3.436
- World Health Organization. (1992). The ICD-10 Classification of Mental and Behavioural Disorders: Clinical descriptions and diagnostic guidelines. Geneva: WHO.
- WHO. (1996). WHO Global Consultation on Violence and Health. Violence: A public health priority. Geneva: World Health Organization (document WHO/ EHA/SPI.POA.2).
- World Health Organization. (2002). World report on violence and health: Summary. Geneva: WHO.
- Yusuf, D. (2006). Cultism. Leadership. Retrieved from http://www.leadershipnigeria.com/

Appendix

Appendix A1. Descriptive statistics for items of the DCQ

Items	mean	S.D
I like carrying out important activities in secrecy.	2.67	1.49
I find societal rules and regulations burdensome	2.45	1.42
I can use arms and ammunitions to achieve my goals	1.79	1.27
I can take excessive alcohol and marijuana if I want to achieve a very hard task	1.18	0.53
I can extort people who I think have more than I have to meet my personal needs	2.79	1.54
I can forcefully remove all stumbling blocks to the wheels of my progress.	2.97	1.63
I don't see anything wrong in harming others who I perceive could cross my path	2.09	1.42
I don't condemn rapist for their actions because non rapist don't just have opportunities to	1.36	0.74
do so		
I can do anything to befriend any boy or girl of my choice	2.03	1.26
I can organize an attack for any lecturer who failed me or disrupt my goals on campus	2.55	1.58
I like being feared by others around me	2.48	1.46
I can join groups or societies that can violently protest oppression	2.21	1.47
I always seek opportunities to command and control others.	3.79	1.36

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Avoidance in Processing English Non-restrictive Relative Clauses in Thai EFL Learners' Interlanguage

Sonthaya Rattanasak¹ & Supakorn Phoocharoensil¹

Correspondence: Sonthaya Rattanasak, Language Institute of Thammasat University, Phrachan Road Phranakorn, Bangkok 10200, Thailand. E-mail: reconfirm 22@hotmail.com

Received: June 12, 2014 Accepted: July 1, 2014 Online Published: August 28, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p265 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p265

Abstract

This paper examined the acquisition of English non-restrictive relative clauses (NRCs) by L1 Thai learners, focusing on avoidance strategies applied in the learners' interlanguage. The theoretical frameworks of the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH) were the main hypotheses predicting avoidance behavior employed by the learners. The research participants were 80 Thai EFL high school students of high and low proficiency levels. The data were elicited through a sentence combination task and a Thai-English translation task. The findings, overall, suggested that Thai EFL learners, by and large, avoided using the more marked NRC types in the NPAH. The learners' avoidance was evident in the tasks from the shifting of more marked types to less marked ones. The findings also showed that the more advanced learners tended to employ more avoidance behavior with regard to the NPAH, which may be attributed to their greater exposure to the L2 rules and more knowledge of the differences between the L1 and L2 structures; this resulted in the use of alternative ways to complete the given tasks more easily. The center-embedded NRCs, more precisely, were found to be problematic for learners, which supports the prediction of the PDH that clauses embedded after the subject positions may interrupt the processing of a complex structure of RCs. The learners, therefore, avoided center embedding and changed it to right embedding with little awareness of the ungrammaticality of the NRC sentences.

Keywords: avoidance strategy, non-restrictive relative clause, Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy, Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis

1. Introduction

English relative clauses (ERCs) appear to pose a major obstacle hindering second language (L2) learners from achieving L2 competence. Over the decades, many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have focused on ERC acquisition, and several theoretical frameworks have been proposed to account for learners' acquisition of ERCs.

The classic hypotheses devoted to ERC acquisition investigations are, namely, the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH), posited by Keenan and Comrie (1977), and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH), formulated by Kuno (1974). A considerable number of SLA researchers have put substantial effort into investigating how L2 learners of different mother tongue (L1) backgrounds acquire ERCs (e.g., Abdolmanafi & Rezaee, 2012; Chang, 2010; Chou, 2006; Gass, 1979, 1980; Izumi, 2003; Man, 2007; Phoocharoensil, 2010; Schumann, 1978; Zhu, 2014). However, the studies on which these theories were based mainly dealt with how L2 learners acquire English restrictive relative clauses (RRCs); in contrast, non-restrictive relative clauses (NRCs) have been little discussed especially in a Thai EFL context.

As seen in previous studies (e.g., Gass, 1980; Phoocharoensil, 2010; Schachter, 1974; Yip & Matthews, 1991; Zhu, 2014), avoidance strategy seems to account for learners' acquisition of ERCs. Moreover, avoidance seems to play a crucial role as learners are trying to master the complex structure of L2. In particular, it may no longer be true to conclude that learners are competent in processing RCs, as the findings show a high degree of accuracy with regard to final production. It was pointed out by Schachter (1974) that learners whose L1 RC structures differed greatly from those in L2 were inclined to produce fewer RCs, preventing error analysis from detecting the actual learning strategies applied during the acquisition of ERCs.

¹ Language Institute of Thammasat University, Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

On these grounds, the present investigation, therefore, aimed to examine the avoidance strategies used in the acquisition of English NRCs by Thai L1 learners in an attempt to answer the following research question.

1.1 Research question

How do Thai EFL learners of high and low proficiency levels avoid English non-restrictive relative clauses?

1.2 Hypothesis

Thai EFL learners of different proficiency levels will adopt different sorts of avoidance strategies, which can be predicted by the degree of universal markedness of the NPAH and the difficulty occasioned by the short-term temporary memory that influences the processing of NRCs as suggested by the PDH.

Since this study placed its emphasis on avoidance strategies based on the two theoretical frameworks of the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis, this section concerns the pertinent literature on the frameworks and avoidance strategy in L2 learning in relation to Thai EFL learners' acquisition of English non-restrictive relative clauses.

1.3 English Relative Clauses

According to Cowan (2008), English restrictive relative clauses (RRCs), as the name implies, are used to restrict the essential information of modified noun phrases. In contrast, non-restrictive relative clauses (NRCs) are used to add information about the noun phrases they modify (Loock, 2010). These two types of ERCs are usually syntactically, semantically and phonologically different. Non-restrictive relative clauses, which are sometimes called *non-defining*, *non-identifying*, or *appositive relative clauses*, are referred to as a type of relative clause whose function is to simply add information to modified noun phrases or the whole preceding clauses. Structurally, NRCs can be strictly introduced by only wh-relative pronouns; namely, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, and *which*, and are always set off from the matrix clause by the use of commas as well as pauses and lower pitch in speech. NRCs are used to provide additional information, which is unimportant with respect to determining the identity of the modified noun phrases or the entire proposition in the matrix clauses (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, pp. 591-594; Loock, 2010, pp. 15-16). The following sentence, i.e., (1), is an example of a NRC in English, where the head noun *Naomi* is a definite proper noun.

(Swan, 2005, p. 480)

Unlike Thai RCs, English NRCs are distinguishable from RRCs in different aspects. One of these ways to be taken into consideration is the head noun phrase or antecedent. English relative clauses are postnominal modifiers (Cowan, 2008, p. 420), which are similar to those in Thai. However, there are some elements regarding the antecedents that are used differently in English RRCs and NRCs, which can be problematic for L2 learners. Since proper nouns denote specific information—that is, the head noun itself is already and obviously identified or definite, it is unnecessary that the reference be restricted (Cowan, 2008, p. 438; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 1241). Therefore, proper nouns can be modified by a NRC as shown in (2), where the NRC who lives in the U.K. modifies the proper noun John.

(adapted from Lock, 1996, p. 256)

However, Letourneau (2001, pp. 324-325) indicates that this rule can be applied to most NRCs except for the case in which two people have the same name as in (3). The noun *John* is then treated as a common noun rather than a proper noun with definiteness, because the sentence implies that there are two or more people whose names are alike; therefore, the clause can function as a restrictive relative clause (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1241). Letourneau (2001, pp. 324-326) further proposed that generic common nouns and definite common nouns can also be modified by a NRC.

(adapted Thomas & Kintgen, 1974, p. 198)

The above sentences are structurally different in that (4) has commas around the relative clause *who like poetry*, while (5) does not. The significance is that plural common nouns with no determiners may take the generic reference's role; therefore, it is meant to be unrestricted, because the head noun refers to all members under that

generic common noun. Hence, both examples shown in (4-5) are possible in English; however, (4) is treated as a NRC, whereas (5) is a RRC (Loock, 2010, p. 13). Moreover, definite common nouns which are introduced by *the* can be modified by either a NRC or a RRC. The following sentences illustrate their functions when the antecedents are definite common nouns.

The students, who took first place in the debate tournament, are from Brown University. (6)

The students who took first place in the debate tournament are from Brown University. (7)

(Letourneau, 2001, p. 326)

These two functions differ depending upon the previous sentences, specifically, whether the definite common nouns have already been mentioned before. If that is the case, it is usually modified by a NRC, as in (6). Nonetheless, definite common nouns can also be modified by a RRC, as illustrated in (7), in order to limit the implication to only that group of students (Letourneau, 2001, p. 326). As far as the head noun phrase functions are concerned, it is worth noting that those distinctions can be far beyond learners' capability to distinguish the two types of ERCs. However, in the present study, only NRCs modifying proper head noun phrases were taken into consideration with the justification that the proper noun phrases seem to be the most obvious type that can be modified by a NRC.

1.4 Thai Relative Clauses

According to Suktrakul (1975), Thai RCs are postnominal modifiers, which are similar to their English counterparts. Suktrakul (1975) suggested that Thai RCs could have four grammatical functions in modification, i.e., 1) subject, 2) direct object, 3) indirect object, and 4) object of preposition. In Sornhiran (1978), it was pointed out that Thai relative pronouns can function in three types, i.e., 1) subject, 2) direct object, and 3) indirect object. In addition, with reference to the findings in Sornhiran (1978) and Suktrakul (1975), the distinction of syntactic structures between RRCs and NRCs in Thai seems to remain in dispute. However, Suktrakul (1975) proposed that Thai RRCs could be distinguished from Thai NRCs by the use of a noun classifier, as shown in (8), while (9), without a noun classifier, is regarded as a NRC.

RRC chéd tó? tua thîi jùu mum-hônn dûajná (8)
clean table (classifier) which be corner-room please
'Clean the table which is in the corner of the room, please.'

(Suktrakul, 1975, p. 107)

NRC chéd tó? thîi jùu mum-hôɔŋ dûajná (9)
clean table which be corner-room please

'Clean the table, which is in the corner of the room, please.'

(Suktrakul, 1975, p. 107)

1.4.1 Grammatical Functions of Thai Relative Pronouns

In Thai, there are three grammatical functions of relative pronouns as follows: 1) subject, 2) direct object, and 3) indirect object (Sornhiran, 1978). The other three functions, as suggested by the NPAH, i.e., objects of prepositions, genitive, and objects of comparisons, seem to be non-existent in Thai (Gass, 1979).

1) subject (SU)

kasàt an sonkhrəngrâat manaan yîisip pii sînphráchon mîawaan (10) king who rule for twenty year die yesterday

'The king, who had ruled the country for twenty years, passed away yesterday.'

(Sornhiran, 1978, p. 27)

2) direct object (DO)

yay?uân thîi theo chôop... (11)
the plump girl whom she like...

'the plump girl, whom she likes,...'

(Sornhiran, 1978, p. 164)

3) indirect object (IO)

(adapted from Sornhiran, 1978, p. 175)

The relative pronoun grammatical function distinction between Thai, L1, and English, L2 could play a significant role in learner's avoidance behaviour. According to Odlin (1989, pp. 36-37), cross-linguistic differences can result in: 1) underproduction, 2) overproduction, 3) production errors, and 4) misinterpretation. Avoidance behavior can be seen when underproduction is detected. If L2 learners are faced with a particular structure in L2 that differs greatly from that in their L1, they are consequently inclined to avoid using such a structure (Odlin, 1989, p. 37).

1.5 The Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH)

One of the most extensively applied hypotheses on the study of ERC acquisition is the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy, as proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977). This hypothesis is aimed at investigating the language universals of the relativizability of different grammatical functions in different positions of the head noun phrases that are relativized in sentences containing relative clauses.

$$SU>DO>IO>OPREP>GEN>OCOMP^1$$

(Keenan & Comrie, 1977, p. 66)

Below is an illustration of each grammatical function of relative clauses in the NPAH.

SU	George Smith, who won the Booker prize, is my lifelong friend.	(13)
DO	George Smith, whom we met, won the Booker prize.	(14)
IO	George Smith, to whom I introduced you, won the Booker prize.	(15)
OPREP	George Smith, with whom we had dinner, won the Booker prize.	(16)
GEN	George Smith, whose husband we met, won the Booker prize.	(17)
$OCOMP^2$	George Smith, whom I have written fewer books than, has won the Booker prize.	(18)

(adapted from Ellis, 1997, p. 64)

As shown above, the most accessible type, which is also considered the least marked type in the NPAH, is presumably the subject (SU); meanwhile, the type that seems to be far beyond learners' acquisition is the object of comparison (OCOMP). Direct object (DO) is predicted to be less marked than indirect object (IO), followed by object of preposition (OPREP) or sometimes called object of oblique (OBL), according to the relativizability in the NPAH. Genitive RC (GEN), of which many past investigations (e.g., Chou, 2006; Gass, 1979, 1980) have revealed comparatively mixed results, is ranked as the second most marked type in the hierarchy (Ellis, 1997, pp. 63-65). Furthermore, it is probable that if a L1 allows any of the RC types in the hierarchy in that language itself, there is a possibility that the other type(s) on the left to the end of the hierarchy will also exist in that L1 (Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2013, pp. 229-230; Keenan & Comrie, 1977, pp. 67-68). For instance, the RC type IO is allowed in Thai RCs (Sornhiran, 1978). Thus, it may be generally predicted that Thai relative clauses should include DO and SU as well. In addition, Keenan and Comrie (1977) suggested that if a language itself has RCs, it is generally true that the subject (SU) modification is an easier type to acquire than the others in the hierarchy (Keenan & Comrie, 1977). As far as the degree of difficulty in relativizability is concerned, learners' avoidance could be attributed to the accessibility predicted by the NPAH. A higher degree of difficulty in relativization in different grammatical functions of relative pronouns in NRCs might also play a vital role in Thai EFL learners' acquisition of English NRCs.

1.6 The Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH)

The Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH) is viewed as a concept for illustrating how delimitation in human temporary memory influences one's processing of sentences (Kuno, 1974). According to this notion, Kuno (1974) suggested that a sentence consisting of a center-embedded relative clause, which is inserted into the matrix clause and usually interrupts the process of the sentence, would presumably be more difficult to acquire than a sentence with a right-embedded relative clause. Below are samples of relative clause sentences with different embedding types.

- OO: The boys are reading Harry Potter, which they borrowed from the library. (20)
- SS: The Mona Lisa picture, which won the prize, is hanging on the wall. (21)
- SO: The Nike jacket, which I found on the bus, belongs to Susie. (22)

(Adapted from Schumann, 1978, p. 118)

To be more precise, OS and OO types are seen as far easier than SS and SO ones (i.e., the first letter O represents the grammatical function of head noun phrases of the matrix clause, whereas the second letter refers to the grammatical function of relative pronouns of the relative clause). Subject is abbreviated as S, and O represents Object, According to the PDH, OS and OO types are perceptually easier than SS and SO types, In (19), in the main clause, Bob is obviously seen to have a function as an object in the main clause and the relative clause which ran away is attached to the last word of the main clause, modifying the preceding head noun Bob. This right-embedded NRC serves to give more details about its subject Bob. Like (19), the relative clause which they borrowed from the library in (20) is also right-embedded. Even so, the function of the RC pronoun in this NRC is to refer to its object Harry Potter. By contrast, the other two sentences (21) and (22) are center-embedded. That is, the NRCs here are inserted in the middle of the matrix clauses, functioning to describe The Mona Lisa picture in (21) and The Nike jacket in (22), which are the subjects of the main clauses. These two sentences differ in terms of the functions of the relative pronouns in the NRCs. The RC pronoun which in (21) functions as a subject of the NRC itself, which won the prize, while which in (22) functions as an object in the NRC, which I found on the bus. Sentences with center-embedded relative clauses (i.e., clauses that are embedded in the matrix sentence in the subject position) as in (21) and (22) are considered perceptually more difficult to process than those with right-embedded relative clauses (i.e., clauses that are embedded in the matrix sentence in the object position) as shown in (19) and (20). It should be noted here that the prediction of the PDH is different from that of the NPAH in that the PDH has no concentration on any relative clause type. As clearly seen, the PDH is concerned with the position the RCs are placed in the sentence.

1.7 Avoidance

According to Ellis (1997), Gass et al. (2013), and Odlin (1989), avoidance may be the result of L1 transfer, which is one of the five psycholinguistic processes suggested by Selinker (1972) that is related to the systematic linguistic knowledge of a L2 learner who is attempting production of a target language norm. Avoidance can be seen when learners try to comprehend L2 complex structures. Kleinmann (1977) pointed out that avoidance tends to occur as a result of L1 and L2 differences. Gass et al., (2013) supported this, stating that learners may be influenced by their native language and be selective in terms of which structures to produce and which not to. Avoidance is one of the learning strategies that L2 learners seem to employ when they are faced with difficulty in learning a L2 (Ellis, 1994). Odlin (1989) also pointed out that L2 learners may try to avoid structures in the target language that are very different from those in their mother tongue. As revealed by several past studies, avoidance could be ascribed to many factors, two of which are lack of L2 competence and transfer of L1 knowledge (Gass et al., 2013, p. 141). Studies shedding light on avoidance strategy employment in ERC acquisition include, for instance, Chou (2006), Gass (1980), Phoocharoensil (2010), Schachter (1974), Yip and Matthews (1991), and Zhu (2014). A well-known piece of evidence of avoidance can be found in a very early study by Schachter (1974), who discovered learners' errors were not always observed by considering only the final outputs. The learners' natural language found in her study suggested the potential of avoiding the use of RCs as learners of L1 Chinese and Japanese produced fewer relative clauses due to the differences in L1 and L2. In addition, Gass (1980), who included Thai EFL learners in her study, found that the learners from different L1 backgrounds as well as Thai avoided using relative clauses in different ways. In a similar vein, Chou (2006) conducted research on relative clause acquisition in Taiwanese EFL learners and found avoidance strategies were employed in object positions in a higher number when compared to subject ones in the acquisition of relative clauses, and center embedding was avoided more than the right embedding type. Additionally, Phoocharoensil (2010) investigated Thai EFL learners' natural language from a translation task and a speaking task, reporting that more marked types, GEN and OCOMP, were avoided. Yip and Matthews (1991) also found in their analysis of written work produced by English major students that learners were capable of producing RCs on subjects, as predicted by the NPAH. Nevertheless, avoidance of the other RC types was noticed, implying that the learners were aware of the structures but were unable to use them in their spontaneous writing. In a recent study of syntactic transfer in RC learning of L1 Chinese learners, Zhu (2014) found strong support for the prediction of the PDH, specifically RCs with center embedding. It was revealed that the wrong position of RCs, which signified learners' avoidance, may be ascribed mainly to the difficulty as proposed in the PDH that center embedding was one of the major factors preventing L2 learners from fully understanding ERCs.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The research participants were 80 grade 11 high school Thai EFL students of different proficiency levels, i.e., high and low. They were equally divided into two groups according to their language proficiency as determined by their GPA for English subjects that they had studied in the past three semesters. Learners who were bilingual or had been in an English speaking country for more than three consecutive months were excluded, since their linguistic competence might not be useful for the present investigation and may not clearly represent Thai EFL learners' interlanguage in general.

2.2 Research Instruments

Two data collection techniques, i.e., a sentence combination task and a Thai-English translation task, were used to elicit productive interlanguage data in each type of NRCs in connection with the NPAH and the PDH. In addition, the learners were allowed to consult a dictionary to help them overcome difficulty concerning unfamiliar vocabulary.

2.3 Data Analysis

The analysis of this investigation was based on the attempts to produce NRCs, which failed to conform to the target syntactic constructions of each NRC type in the hierarchy. The second observation followed the evidence from Gass (1980). The category of avoidance strategy found in her study revealed that learners switched the order of the two sentences in order to embed the sentence, which was intended as the matrix clause. Those non target-like NRC sentences were taken into consideration to reveal what type of NRCs was deliberately and alternatively relied on by the learners as a result of their avoidance behavior, regardless of whether they were grammatically produced after the alterations of the target constructions. In the present investigation, it should be noted from this explanation that it is not necessary that avoidance result in the production of errors; rather, it reveals learners' interlanguage competence in using ERCs. An error analysis was then performed and the results were discussed to reveal the learners' avoidance behaviour influenced by the two hypotheses. Frequency and percentage of the avoidance strategies used in both tasks were quantitatively and descriptively reported. Errors not related to NRC formation were excluded. For instance, errors concerning verb conjugation, tenses or English articles were not considered. The punctuation use of commas was excluded from the investigation of avoidance because the data as such were unsuitable for the hypotheses of the NPAH and the PDH.

3. Results and Discussion

In the present research, it was evident that there were two major types of avoidance strategies employed by Thai EFL learners in the high and low proficiency groups.

Table 1. Frequency and percentage of avoidance in the sentence combination task

Avoidance		High group					Total Avoidance		Low group				
Avoidance	SU	DO	IO	OPREP	GEN	Total	Total Avoidance =	SU	DO	IO	OPREP	GEN	- Total
NPAH	-	1	2	-	1	4	NPAH	-	1	2	3	1	7
%	-	25	50	-	25	100	%	-	14.29	28.56	42.86	14.29	100
PDH		4	-	2	1	7	PDH	5	8	-	2	-	15
%	-	57.14	-	28.57	14.29	100	%	33.33	53.33	-	13.34	-	100

Table 2. Frequency and percentage of avoidance in the translation task

Avoidance	High group					Total Avoidance		Low group					- Total
Avoidance	SU	DO IO OPREP GEN	Avoidance	SU	DO	IO	OPREP	GEN	Total				
NPAH	-	-	-	15	-	15	NPAH	-	-	-	11	-	11
%	-	-	-	100	-	100	%	-	-	-	100	-	100
PDH	-	-	-	-	-	-	PDH	3	-	1	-	-	4
%	-	-	-	-	-	-	%	75	-	25	-	-	100

3.1 Avoidance Strategy

3.1.1 Avoidance Strategy: NPAH

Avoidance of more marked types in the NPAH

- (A) I know Pat.
- (B) The host is offering drinks to Pat.

Expected combination: I know Pat, whom the host is offering drinks to. (IO) (23)

Avoidance: The host is offering drinks to Pat whom I know. (DO) (24)

Avoidance as shown above was mainly seen in more marked types, for instance, OPREP and IO, i.e., the learners altered the expected NRC type to the less difficult, less marked construction, DO, as predicted by the degree of markedness in the hierarchy. The learners' attempts to produce DO, which they probably felt more comfortable to employ, were found to violate the instruction asking them to begin with the sentence (A) as a matrix clause and embed the sentence (B) as a subordinate clause to form a NRC sentence. In regard to avoidance in the NPAH, in the translation task OPREP was especially avoided in a relatively high number by the two groups: 15 tokens in the high group and 11 tokens in the low group, respectively. In contrast, in the sentence combination task, avoidance was found in several more marked NRC types. In the high group, IO (50%), GEN (25%), DO (25%) were avoided, respectively, whereas the low group seemed to avoid producing OPREP (42.86%), IO (28.56%), GEN (14.29%) and DO (14.29%) in the given order.

The occurrence as such may possibly stem from the impact of the degree of markedness in the accessibility hierarchy or the impartial mastery of the sentence constructions that make the learners deliberately choose not to produce the target form (Gass, 1980). L2 learners often depend on avoidance strategy when faced with difficulty in processing a complex structure (Ellis, 1994; Kleinmann, 1977). The results from both tasks showed that avoidance seemed to occur in more marked positions of the NPAH, which lent support to past studies on avoidance investigations e.g., Chou (2006), Gass (1980), Man (2007), Phoocharoensil (2010), and Phoocharoensil and Simargool (2010), and supported the hypothesis of this study. In Phoocharoensil and Simargool (2010), the learners' problems were investigated with 90 Thai EFL undergraduates of different proficiency levels through an essay writing task and a translation task. The findings on avoidance behavior seemed to be correlated closely with the present study's results. Thai EFL learners had more likelihood of avoiding the use of more marked RCs in their writing. More precisely, it was found that OPREP and GEN were avoided in a higher number when compared to SU in the writing task. The results were supported by the findings of the translation task as well. The learners were found to use more marked types less accurately in the task. As regards SU, the least marked type in the NPAH, the findings from Man's study (2007) on ERC acquisition corroborated the present research results in that object positions, e.g., DO and OPREP, seemed to be avoided in a higher number than SU and were produced less accurately, while SU was the most correctly produced and avoidance seemed not to occur for this RC type (Yip & Matthews, 1991). The results found in avoidance behavior in the NPAH confirmed the prediction of the NPAH (Keenan & Comrie, 1977) as it was indicated that the learners' performance after the employment of avoidance strategies showed a lower marked NRC type corroborating the NPAH (Chou, 2006). The findings shown above were in line with the results from Chou (2006) and Gass (1980). Switching the order of the two sentences in order to embed the sentence, which was intended as the matrix, was found in the sentence combining task in their investigations as well. The learners, particularly Chinese and Arabic, adopted avoidance strategy and produced the RC in a less marked type in place of the more marked ones (Chou, 2006; Gass, 1980). Learners' violation of the instructions of the task revealed that they seemed to deliberately choose the easier type to process. The learners' avoidance, as the data indicated, usually resulted in an easier NRC sentence. This evidently showed that avoidance is at play when Thai EFL learners are trying to communicate in L2 English.

3.1.2 Avoidance Strategy: PDH

Not only did the Thai EFL learners encounter difficulty processing center-embedded NRCs, but they were also found to avoid using center-embedded NRCs by shifting to the right-embedded ones, which was found in a high number, especially in the sentence combination task.

Avoidance of center-embedded positions (PDH)

- (A) Laura is my close friend.
- (B) I like her very much.

Expected combination: Laura, whom I like very much, is my close friend.

(26)

Avoidance: Laura is my close friend, whom I like very much.

Table 3. Examples of the learners' avoidance in the sentence combination task

Avoidance type	Example NRC sentences of avoidance from the learners						
Avoidance of	1. A) I walked home with Olivia.						
more marked	B) I bought some candies for Olivia.						
types (NPAH)	Target NRC: I walked home with Olivia, whom I bought some candies for.						
	Avoidance: I bought some candies for Olivia who walked home with me. ³ (OPREP) to (SU)						
	2. A) The Samsung refrigerator is too old.						
	B) You keep fresh food in it.						
	Target NRC: The Samsung refrigerator, which you keep fresh food in, is too old.						
	Avoidance: You keep fresh food in the Samsung refrigerator <i>which is too old.</i> (OPREP) to (SU)						
	3. A) I know Pat.						
	B) The host is offering drinks to Pat.						
	Target NRC: I know Pat, whom the host is offering drinks to.						
	Avoidance: The host is offering drinks to Pat <i>whom I know</i> . (IO) to (DO)						
	4. A) Laura is my close friend.						
	B) I like her very much.						
	Target NRC: Laura, whom I like very much, is my close friend.						
	Avoidance: I like Laura <i>who is my close friend</i> very much. (DO) to (SU)						
	5. A) This is Eric.						
	B) His house is next to my house.						
	Target NRC: This is Eric, whose house is next to my house.						
	Avoidance: This is Eric who has house next to my house. (GEN) to (SU)						
Avoidance of	1. A) Laura is my close friend.						
center-embedded	B) I like her very much.						
position (PDH)	Target NRC: Laura, whom I like very much, is my close friend.						
	Avoidance: Laura is my close friend whom I like very much. (DO)						
	2. A) Matt will buy a new boat next week.						
	B) Matt is my best friend.						
	Target NRC: Matt, who is my best friend, will buy a new boat next week.						
	Avoidance: Matt will buy a new boat next week who is my best friend. (SU)						
	Avoidance: Matt is my best friend who will buy a new boat next week. (SU)						
	3. A) The Samsung refrigerator is too old.						
	B) You keep fresh food in it.						
	Target NRC: The Samsung refrigerator, which you keep fresh food in, is too old.						
	Avoidance: The Samsung refrigerator is too old which you keep fresh food in it. (OPREP)						
	4. A) Kit Kat chocolate is very sweet.						
	B) Its packet is red.						
	Target NRC: Kit Kat chocolate, whose packet is red, is very sweet.						
	Avoidance: Kit Kat chocolate is very sweet <i>whose packet is red.</i> (GEN)						

According to the prediction of the PDH, it could be expected that center-embedded position RCs have a high possibility to be perceptually more difficult for learners to process than right-embedded position RCs.

Avoidance in the PDH dealt with different positioning of center embedding and right embedding. In the translation task, only the less-proficient learners were found to avoid using center-embedded NRC types, i.e., SU (75%) and IO (25%) sequentially. However, avoidance was noticed in more marked NRC types in the sentence combination task. That is, DO (57.14%), OPREP (28.57%), and GEN (14.29%) with center-embedded NRCs were avoided by the more advanced learners. By contrast, the learners with less proficiency tended to avoid center-embedded NRC types DO (53.33%), SU (33.33%) and OPREP (13.34%), respectively. The findings lent support to Phoocharoensil (2009) in suggesting that Thai EFL learners tend to avoid using center-embedded ERCs in favour of right-embedded ERCs, as predicted by their complexity and the difficulty in the PDH (Kuno, 1974). In Chou's study (2006), the learners were likely to avoid the center-embedded type and tended to rely more on the right-embedded one. Moreover, Zhu (2014) also held this tendency to be true in her study of syntactic transfer in RC learning of L1 Chinese college students. She found that the learners attempted to avoid producing center-embedded RCs and substituted the use by embedding the RC at the end of the main clause, which often resulted in ungrammatical RC sentences and may be attributed to the complexity and the difficulty of the structure as posited by the PDH. It is worth noting that learners tried to achieve linguistic competence by completing the given task using their L2 communicative learning strategy, and retaining the general idea of the message, although, to a certain extent, the production contradicted the target construction, the meaning and the explicit instructions and could be considered as errors. Learners' avoidance in both task types can be seen in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 4. Examples of the learners' avoidance in the translation task

Avoidance type	Example NRC sentences of avoidance from the learners						
Avoidance of more	1. กล้องโซนี่ <i>ที่พวกเราถ่ายรูปเป็นประจำ</i> ราคาถูกมาก						
marked types	Target NRC: The Sony camera, which we usually take a photo with, is very cheap.						
(NPAH)	Avoidance: The Sony camera, which we always use, is very cheap. (OPREP) to (DO)						
	2. ลิซ่ารู้จักไมค์คน <i>ที่เธอพูดถึง</i>						
	Target NRC: Lisa knows Mike, whom you talk about.						
	Avoidance: Lisa know Mike whom you mention. (OPREP) to (DO)						
	Avoidance: Lisa knows Mike who is mentioned by her. (OPREP) to (SU)						
Avoidance of	1. นิโคล แจ็คสัน <i>ที่เป็นนักร้อง</i> จะมาที่นี่เดือนหน้า						
center-embedding	Target NRC: Nicole Jackson, who is a singer, will be here next month.						
position (PDH)	Avoidance: Nicole Jackson is a singer who is going to come here next month. (SU)						
	2. เจมส์คน <i>ที่ฉันให้ลูกอม</i> น่ารักมาก						
	Target NRC: James, whom I gave a candy to, is very cute.						
	Avoidance: Jame is a pretty boy whom I gave a candy to. (IO)						

4. Conclusion

The present investigation placed its emphasis on examining avoidance as reflected in the learners' learning strategy. Thai EFL learners deliberately chose to produce a less marked and complex clause while avoiding the target syntactic constructions of the NRCs. Accordingly, this paper is possibly able to explain Thai EFL learners' avoidance strategies used in their interlanguage in the NRC acquisition. It was revealed that the NPAH and the PDH can be in large measure responsible for Thai EFL learners' avoidance behavior in the acquisition of NRCs as predicted by the degree of markedness in the NPAH, and the difficulty resulting from intervention in the processing of center-embedded NRCs may occasion the avoidance behavior.

The major source of avoidance found in the present study seems to be the exposure to, and the complexity of, the structures in L2. As regards the NPAH, the learners, as the findings from both tasks indicated, were inclined to avoid more marked NRCs in the hierarchy, i.e., OPREP (29 tokens), IO (4 tokens), GEN (2 tokens) and DO (2 tokens), respectively. The learners deliberately produced sentences using the less marked NRCs instead of the

target structures. This implied that the learners probably know that the more marked structures, e.g., OPREP, exist, but they may be unfamiliar with them or not confident about producing them. The phenomenon may be ascribed to the complexity of the constructions, thus leading the learners to shift such structures to a less marked one, e.g., DO, which they may find less problematic to perform. They switched the order of the sentences, and made changes to lexical items and syntactic structures so as to avoid using the more marked types. Learners' avoidance by modifying the sentence from a more marked NRC to a less marked NRC may be attributed mainly to their exposure to L2 rules and the complexity of the structures as posited by the NPAH.

Likewise, avoidance behavior found in the learners' processing of NRCs with center embedding indicates the learners' strategies in formulating a NRC. The learners found center-embedded NRCs more complicated to process than the right-embedded ones. As shown in the data from both tasks, the learners clearly avoided using center-embedded NRCs in object positions in a high number, i.e., DO (12 tokens), SU (8 tokens), OPREP (4 tokens), IO (1 token) and GEN (1 token) sequentially, by changing from the targeted center-embedded NRCs to the right-embedded ones with little awareness of the ungrammaticality of the sentences, resulting in sentences that were inappropriate. It is evident in the findings that not only did they avoid the center-embedded NRCs, but they were also found to resort to the right-embedded counterparts to complete the sentences, which are considered easier to process according to the prediction of the PDH. As for learners' proficiency as a variable predicting the use of avoidance strategies, learners with less proficiency employed more avoidance than the high proficiency ones, which could be explained by the difficulty occasioned by the complexity of relative clauses in L2 as predicted by the PDH.

To summarize, the learners seemed to avoid using the more marked NRC types and showed their L2 communicative strategy by completing the task with an easier NRC type. This could be explained by the learners' exposure to L2 rules and the complexity of the L2 relative clause structures as posited by the NPAH and the PDH. The extent of avoidance is particularly significant for complex target relative clause constructions by less-proficient learners; however, more advanced learners may also employ avoidance strategies when faced with the complexity of relative clause structures of the L2.

Acknowledgment

The authors are grateful to the Language Institute of Thammasat University, Thammasat University, Thailand, for the financial support granted for this research.

References

- Abdolmanafi, S. J., & Rezaee, A. (2012). The difficulty hierarchy in the acquisition of English relative clauses by Persian learners. *International Journal of English and Education, 1*(2), 170-179.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course* (2nd ed.). Singapore: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Chang, C. (2010). *The use of relative clauses in Taiwanese EFL graduate students' proposal writing*. MA thesis, National Yunlin University of Science & Technology, Department of Applied Foreign Languages.
- Chou, Y. H. (2006). *Acquisition of English relative clauses by Taiwan EFL college students*. MA thesis, National Sun Yet-Sen University.
- Cowan, R. (2008). *The teacher's grammar of English: A course book and reference guide.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). Second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gass, M. (1979). Language transfer and universal grammatical relations. *Language Learning*, 29, 327-344. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1979.tb01073.x
- Gass, S. (1980). An investigation of syntactic transfer in adult second language learners. In R. Scarcella, & S. Krashen (Eds.), *Research in second language acquisition* (pp. 132-141). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gass, S., Behney, J., & Plonsky, L. (2013). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Izumi, S. (2003). Processing difficulty in comprehension and production of relative clauses by learners of English as a second language. *Language Learning*, *53*(2), 285-323. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922. 00218
- Keenan, E., & Comrie, B. (1977). Noun phrase accessibility and universal grammar. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 8, 63-99.

- http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/413321
- Kleinmann, H.H. (1977). Avoidance behavior in adult second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 27(1), 93-107. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1977.tb00294.x
- Kuno, S. (1974). The position of relative clauses and conjunctions. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 5, 117-136.
- Letourneau, M. S. (2001). English grammar. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Lock, G. (1996). Functional English grammar. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Loock, R. (2010). Appositive relative clauses in English: Discourse functions and competing structures. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/sidag.22
- Man, L. J. (2007). An empirical study of Chinese EFL learners' behavior on English relative clauses: Bridging typology and SLA. PhD. dissertation, Shanghai Jiaotong University.
- Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524537
- Pavesi, M. (1986). Markedness, discoursal modes, and relative clause formation in a formal and an informal context. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 8, 38-55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100005829
- Phoocharoensil, S. (2009). *A study of English relative clauses in the interlanguage of Thai EFL learners*. PhD. Dissertation, Chulalongkorn University.
- Phoocharoensil, S. (2010). Language universals and learning strategies in L2 relative clause acquisition. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(2), 95-108.
- Phoocharoensil, S., & Simargool, N. (2010). English relativization and learners' problems. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 14(1), 109-129.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). A comprehensive grammar of English language. New York: Longman.
- Schachter, J. (1974). An error in error analysis. In L. Ortega (Ed.), *Second language acquisition: Critical concepts in linguistics* (pp. 41-48). New York: Routledge.
- Schumann, J. (1978). The acquisition of English relative clauses by second language learners. In R. Scarcella, & S. Krashen (Eds.), *Research in second language acquisition: Selected papers from the Los Angeles Second Language Research Forum* (pp. 118-131). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 209-232. http://dx.doi.org/10. 1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209
- Sornhiran, P. (1978). A transformational study of relative clauses in Thai (PhD Dissertation). University of Texas at Austin.
- Suktrakul, S. (1975). *Contrastive analysis of relative clauses in Thai-English*. Doctoral dissertation, UMI Dissertation Information Service, Ann Arbor, Mich.
- Swan, M. (2005). Practical English usage. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thomas, O. P., & Kintgen, E. R. (1974). *Transformational grammar and the teacher of English: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). USA: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Yip, V., & Matthews, S. (1991). Relative complexity: Beyond avoidance. *Chinese University of Hong Kong Papers in Linguistics*, *3*, 112-124.
- Zhu, L. (2014). A study of syntactic transfer in relative clause learning of Chinese college English majors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(3), 613-617. http://dx.doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.3.613-617

Notes

- Note 1. The scale illustrates the least accessible type of RCs to the most accessible one. SU = subject, DO = direct object, IO = indirect object, OBL = oblique, GEN = genitive, OCOMP = object of comparative.
- Note 2. OCOMP was excluded from the present investigation because its infrequent use among L2 learners (Pavesi, 1986), particularly in Thai EFL learners (Phoocharoensil, 2009).
- Note 3. Example sentences of avoidance shown in Table 3 & 4 were drawn from the learners' interlanguage in using NRCs in accordance with the NPAH and the PDH. Errors irrelevant to avoidance in producing NRCs, e.g.,

a lack of commas and use of resumptive pronouns, were left undescribed since the data as such were unsuitable for the purpose of the present research.

Appendix A

Sentence Combination Task

Directions: Use the words whose, that, whom, who, and which or no relative pronoun to combine each pair of sentences into one correct sentence with appropriate punctuation. Please keep the meaning unchanged and always begin a new sentence with sentence A.

1. A) Laura is my close friend.

B) I like her very much.

Laura, whom I like very much, is my close friend.

2. A) This is Eric.

B) His house is next to my house.

This is Eric, whose house is next to my house.

3. A) I want to watch Titanic.

B) Titanic is a romantic movie.

I want to watch Titanic, which is a romantic movie.

4. A) Matt will buy a new boat next week.

B) Matt is my best friend.

Matt, who is my best friend, will buy a new boat next week.

5. A) The Samsung refrigerator is too old.

B) You keep fresh food in it.

The Samsung refrigerator, which you keep fresh food in, is too old.

The Samsung refrigerator, in which you keep fresh food, is too old.

6. A) That is Barbara.

B) We gave a ticket to Barbara.

That is Barbara, whom we gave a ticket to.

That is Barbara, to whom we gave a ticket.

7. A) I know Pat.

B) The host is offering drinks to Pat.

I know Pat, whom the host is offering drinks to.

I know Pat, to whom the host is offering drinks.

8. A) I walked home with Olivia.

B) I bought some candies for Olivia.

I walked home with Olivia, whom I bought some candies for.

I walked home with Olivia, for whom I bought some candies.

9. A) Kit Kat chocolate is very sweet.

B) Its packet is red.

Kit Kat chocolate, whose packet is red, is very sweet.

10. A) My sister is cleaning the new iPad.

B) I bought it from Hong Kong.

My sister is cleaning the new iPad, which I bought from Hong Kong.

Appendix B

Translation Task

Direction: Translate the sentences that are written in Thai into English. You may consult a dictionary for unfamiliar words.

1. แมรี่ชอบดูโดเรม่อนซึ่งเป็นการ์ตูนญี่ปุ่น

Mary likes to watch Doraemon, which is a Japanese cartoon.

2. นิโคล แจ็คสันที่เป็นนักร้องจะมาที่นี่เดือนหน้า

Nicole Jackson, who is a singer, will be here next month.

3. ซูซานกำลังอ่านแฮรี่พอตเตอร์ที่ฉันซื้อมาเมื่อสัปดาห์ที่แล้ว

Susan is reading Harry Potter, which I bought last week.

4. เจมส์คนที่ฉันให้ลูกอมน่ารักมาก

James, whom I gave a candy to, is very cute.

James, to whom I gave a candy, is very cute.

5. กล้องโซนี่ที่พวกเราถ่ายรูปเป็นประจำราคาถูกมาก

The Sony camera, which we usually take a photo with, is very cheap.

The Sony camera, with which we usually take a photo, is very cheap.

6. ฉันรู้จักเมย์คนที่เธอส่งของขวัญไปให้

I know May, whom you sent a gift to.

I know May, to whom you sent a gift.

7. ลิซ่ารู้จักไมค์คนที่เธอพูดถึง

Lisa knows Mike, whom you talk about.

Lisa knows Mike, about whom you talk.

8. โจที่มีพี่ชายเป็นหมอไม่มาทำงานวันนี้

Joe, whose brother is a doctor, doesn't come to work today.

9. จิมมี่คนที่คุณชอบมีแฟนแล้ว

Jimmy, whom you like, has a girlfriend.

10. ฉันทำงานกับหมอสุดาที่มีพี่สาวเป็นพยาบาล

I work with Dr. Suda, whose sister is a nurse.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Middle Class: The Socio-Economic Stabilizer of the Country Development

Natalia Victorovna Kuznetsova¹ & Artemiy Yurievich Tupitsyn²

Correspondence: Natalia Victorovna Kuznetsova, Far Eastern Federal University, Russkii Island, v. Ayaks, 10, Building 22 (G), 690950, Russia.

Received: May 26, 2013 Accepted: June 13, 2014 Online Published: August 28, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p278 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p278

Abstract

The article discusses the middle class impact on social and economic development of the society. It considers the modern middle class structure and functions both in social and economic fields of society life. Based on the data of international financial institutions, it analyzes the amount of middle class in the regions with the comparison of economic development of the country to discover the correlation between factors mentioned above. We have established that middle class impact on social and economic development of any country is huge and appeared in a number of factors. In addition, some of them have a direct influence on society development (economic indicators, standards of living, level of wages, etc.) while others have relative impact (middle class expenditures). In whole, middle class impact on social and economic development of the society in a country proceeds by stabilizing function of middle class, which is reached by implementation of little functional effects. Some of them have only economic influence, others have social impact. However, despite of the fact that they are applied separately, their close relationship forms the major indicators of middle class impact on socio-economic development of the society.

Keywords: middle class structure, middle class functions, impact indicators of the middle class, criteria for defining the middle class, criteria for country classification

1. Introduction

Beginning from the XVII — XIX centuries, the subject of the middle class was becoming more popular both in scientific environment and in the society. Different views and approaches to this theme allowed to evaluate from where the middle class was and when this layer was the most numerous. It is important because the middle class plays a great role in the development of the whole economy.

According to the large number of scientific and statistical studies, today the middle class is "niche" phenomenon rather than mass class. Its functions in the society are fundamental because middle layer is the major social and economic stabilizer. The middle class quantity and share in the country are preeminently those major indicators of socio-economic balance which determines the development of the whole society.

2. Materials and Methods

Due to the fact that middle class is the main social group in the developed countries, i. e. it is the core of the society, this is generally accepted to state about those functions the middle class holds there.

The function of social stabilizer is one of the most important roles middle class has. In the economic field middle class could be defined as "economic donor." From one point of view, in particular the middle class generates the main income items of the society: most part of the production power is located in this layer, including experienced workers of higher education, service providers, and businessmen who generate the main financial flows. Form the other hand, the middle class is a large consumer, tax bearer (80% of all tax payments are middle class payments in the developed regions), employer and investor. However, the studies conducted by Asian Development Bank in India in 2011 (Chun & Hasan, 2011) have shown that the middle class impact on resources consumption has indirect influence, and at the same time the correlation between the middle class and financial capital was observed. In addition, it was discovered that 60% of middle class consumption had a direct impact on production and manufacturing growth, which allows to state about middle class to be the major consumer of goods and services provided.

¹ Far Eastern Federal University, Russia

In addition, the middle class is the basic supplier of labor force and workers with higher education, including different state officials and managers. At least, middle class also has a cultural function because it is the main keeper of cultural and social heritage. This function is called "the cultural integrator."

The middle class social impact could be described in social indicators. As a rule, the key criteria for middle class defining are:

- 1) the annual income of the population;
- 2) property availability;
- 3) daily expenditures per person are between 10 and 100 US dollars (Kyle, 2014).

In turn, the country classification according to its economic development includes three groups: developed (industrialized) countries, developing countries, and countries with transition economy.

There are no common criteria for country classification. However, despite of some general principles, classifications mentioned above use different approaches and indicators for estimation of economic development of any country.

In whole, the more rational approach is to classify countries according to the next criteria:

- 1) Gross national income per capita (GNI);
- 2) Field structure of the national economy (the production level).

In order to determine the economic development level, World Bank uses Atlas method, the kernel of which is to decrease the impact of small fluctuations of currencies exchange rate on the comparison process. This method takes into account the average measuring of exchange rate for the current year with the same indicators for two previous periods with inflation correction. The Atlas method is one of the most accurate and competent.

It should be noted that the provided method of country classification is simplified and aimed for comparison of economic development of the country with middle class share in it (see Table 1).

Table 1. Criteria for countries classification

	Developed countries	Developing countries	Countries with the transitional economy
GNI per capita, US dollars	12616 - above	4086 - 12615	0 - 4085
Tertiary sector share in national economy, %	60 - 100	45 - 59	0 - 44

Because middle class was firstly examined in the USA, today it is generally accepted to compare the economic development with the US economy, where middle class share is about 71.25% (the highest value in the world); i. e. from 319.9 million people about 228 million are middle class. The annual income of average American middle class individual is between 35,000 and 100,000 US dollars.

3. Results

According to the Atlas classification method by World Bank, the USA is developed country with the GNI per capita value of 50,120 US dollars (WB, 2013). About 47 million people (Kharas & Gertz, 2010) are below poverty (14,8%) (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, & Smith, 2012), while the average salary in 2012 was 45,790 US dollars.

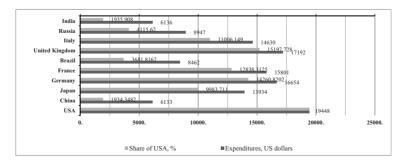


Figure 1. Middle class annual expenses per capita, 2011 (Kyle, 2014)

In 2011 the average US middle class person spent about 19,448 US dollars (see Figure 1), and general expenditures of middle class this year were 35% of GDP.

As for the social factor, currently there is 155,6 million of labor force in the US (48.6%), the unemployment rate is 3.5% (11,26 million people) [Economic News Release, 2013]. The Gini index equals to 0.48. Expenditures per capita in the USA are 6,133 US dollars (see Figure 3), while the total spendings of middle class in 2011 were 1.183 billion US dollars, which is 12% of GDP.

We believe that the high developed economy of the US is those factor which predetermined the fast middle class formation in the USA. It allowed to establish high living standards there very fast and today the average income per capita is 7 times more than in the world (see Figure 2).

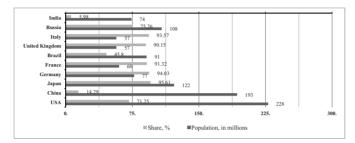


Figure 2. Middle class population and its share of the whole population, 2011

The next large country is People's Republic of China (PRC) which in absolute value of middle class population holds the second position in the world: there is 193 million people included to the Chinese middle class (see Figure 4). However, in relative value China is far behind still middle class share here is only 14.2%. The average annual income is between 8,000 and 60,000 US dollars (in average 50% of the US indicator).

World Bank classifies China as developing country with GNI per capita of 5,740 US dollars (WB, 2013). China has the second most powerful economy in the world, but at the same time the middle class share in the population is one of the lowest in the world. We believe that such situation could be explained by cheap labor force, because form on hand China is the largest manufacturing region, but form another the Chinese salaries are one of the lowest among the developed and developing countries.

However, according to the study of large news company Global Post, in the future exactly developing countries would become the core of middle class development because of powerful economic system formation in such regions. According to the Figure 3, in 2030 the middle class population would increase up to 950 million people in China (68.2% of total population). At the same time, in the US thus indicator is expected to be decreased by 15.85% (from 71.25% to 55.4%) (WB, 2013).

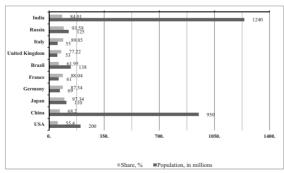


Figure 3. Forecast of middle class population and its share of the whole population, 2030 (Kyle, 2014)

Japan is another example which has the largest relative value of middle class share in the world (approximately 95.61%). The annual middle class income per capita is between 10,000 and 30,000 US dollars, which is about 30% of the same US indicator.

According to the Atlas method interpretation, Japan is highly developed region with GNI per capita of 47,870 US dollars. Tertiary sector share in the economy is 71.4% (425 million US dollars), manufacturing label is estimated to 1.15 billion US dollars.

The poverty level is 16% (20.4 million people), and middle class expenditures were 1.7 billion US dollars in 2011 which equals to 43% of Japanese GDP. It could be noted that middle class impact indicators in Japan on social and economic development is huge: approximately 96% of population is identified as middle class, and 54% of them is labor force, employed in the manufacturing (secondary) sector, 69.8% in the tertiary sector, and 3.9% in the primary sector (agriculture) (Latest indicators, 2011). It allows the Japanese middle class to generate approximately 90% of GDP which equalled to 5,367.5 billion US dollars (CIA World Factbook, 2014).

These values are reached because of Japanese middle class expenditures (see Figure 4) which in 2011 were 1,701 million US dollar in Japan (73% of GDP value) (China - New Global, 2012). The Chinese middle class spent 1,183 million dollars, but this value was reached because of Chinese numerous population (quantitative indicator) rather than of other qualitative values. The Chinese middle class annual expenditures per capita are 6 thousand US dollars versus 14 thousand of Japanese middle layer, and the USA has the largest value of 19.5 thousand US dollars which is 68% more than in China and 28% that in Japan. Only Western European countries have these values that close the US indicators.

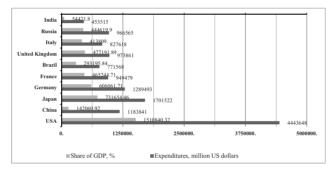


Figure 4. The aggregate expenditures of middle class by regions and share of GDP, 2011

There is no large fluctuation in middle class variety by country in Western Europe. For instance, in relative value the most developed countries like Germany, France, United Kingdom, and Italy have the average middle class share equalled more than 90% of local population.

In France the average income per capita of middle class representative is 15,000 - 20,000 US dollars (52% of the US indicator), in the UK the same indicator is equalled to 25,000 - 35,000 US dollars (44% of the US value).

According to the Atlas method by World Bank, both France and UK are highly developed regions with GNI per capita of 41,750 and 38,250 US dollars, respectively.

There is 8.8% of French population is below the poverty line (5.8 million people), and 16% of the UK population (10.1 million people). The unemployment rate is 10.5% in France (6.8 million people) and 7.6% in the UK (4.8 million people).

The middle class average annual expenditures per capita in 2011 were 15,801 US dollars for the French middle class.

On the basis on the indicators analyzed for the developed countries, it could be concluded than middle class is the generator of economic and social development because of the next factors:

- 1) the middle class share of the whole population is above 90%;
- 2) the tertiary sector share in the economy is above 70%;
- 3) GNI per capita is above 40 thousand US dollars;
- 4) the average income per capita is above 15 thousand US dollars.

China takes the particular position in this analysis because in absolute values it holds the second position in the world but not in relative indicators. However, according to forecasts, in 2030 the share of the Chinese middle

class would increase up to 950 million people which could allow middle layer to become the main source of economic and social growth of this largest Asian country.

India is the other similar example. In 2011 there were about 1.237 billion people, 74 million of whom (5.98%) are corresponded to the middle class criteria. Approximately 270.9 million people were below poverty line (21.9%) (CIA World Factbook, 2014). The average income per capita was from 3,000 to 6,000 US dollars which is equalled to 5% of the similar US indicator.

The average middle class expenditures per capita in 2011was 6,136 US dollars (Child Labour In India, 2011), while the total sum was estimated to 453 million US dollars (12% of GDP) (Report on Employment, 2010).

In total population India holds the second position in the world, but it has the lowest middle class share at the same time. That is why it is hardly possible to objectively evaluate the Indian middle class impact on the social and economic development of the society.

According to the different evaluations, the middle class share in Russia, is estimated to 75% (108 million people), from which 11.2% are below poverty line (15.8 million people) (Poverty rate in Russia, 2013). The unemployment rate was 5.4% in 2013 (approximately 7.77 million people) (Labor Force, 2013). The total amount of labor force was 75.5 million people, 4.4% of whom were employed in the agriculture sector, 37,6% in the secondary sector, and 58% in tertiary sector (GDP composition, 2012).

The annual income per capita in 2011 was 6,000 — 24,000 US dollars (22% of the US value) and the total expenditures were 966,565 million US dollars (8,947 US dollars per capita).

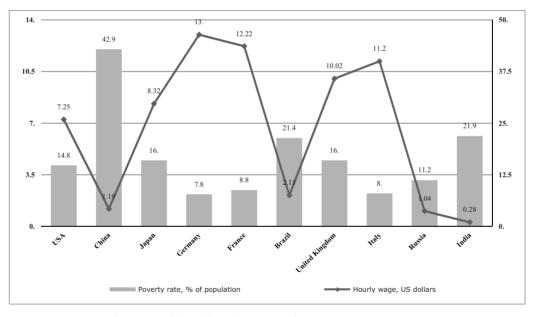


Figure 5. Minimal hourly wage and poverty rate, 2011-2012

4. Discussion

According to the opinion of some researchers, the development of any country is always accompanied by scientific or technology breakthrough: they see the middle class to be the major source of these resources. There is a direct correlation between socio-economic development of the country and the middle class formation because the more numerous middle class is the more developed stage region achieves. The famous French sociologist M. Halbwachs believed the middle class to be the major source of industrial development of the European countries. In addition, he proposed that the key criterion of this development was in "technical activities" (Halbwachs, 2000). Another researcher, P. Florida, agreed with him and offered three T concept that includes combination of such factors as technology, talent, and tolerance (Florida, 2007). Later, this fundamental position was confirmed by new researches of such scientists as Z. Bauman (Bauman, 1998).

At the same time, the range of other researches (Milanovic and Yitzhaki, 2002; Kessler and Virgillo, 2010) don't share this position. They state about total absence of the middle class in the society forming by this reasons for the further discussions.

Thus, the diversity of scientific views causes barriers to the common study of the modern middle class problems, which is too important for the society development concept. Often its role in socio-economic development of the country remains underestimated, and the main reasons of this situation are both the numerous views on middle class formation, structure, and functions and the poor development of this social layer in many parts of the world. We believe the importance of the middle class research to be ridden by the irregular formation and development of this social layer in different countries because in some regions the middle class is powerful socio-economic stabilizer while others almost completely absent the middle class and its influence on the country development. Such situation gives rise to the opposite views on this subject among the scientific community. That is why the most important methodological and practical issue lies in the studies unification in order to determine the common approaches to the middle class problems. In the future it will allow to clearly identify the role of the middle class in socio-economic development of the society.

5. Conclusion

In the cases analyzed it could been noticed that middle class impact differs from the country of study. For instance, middle class has no any impact on Indian development not only because of its tiny share in the population, but also low level of economic and social development. In opposite, in such regions as the USA, Japan, Germany, France, the UK and Italy the poor population share is low (from 7.8% to 14.8%), and minimal hourly wage is quite high which allows these countries to have large middle class share. As a result, there middle class is that unit between the Government and social and economic life of society, which predetermined development of these regions.

References

- Bauman, Z. (1988). Postmodernism as social theory: Some challenges and problems. *Theory, culture & society. Cleveland, 5*(2-3), 217-238. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0263276488005002002
- Chun, N., Hasan, R., & Ulubasoglu, M. (2011). The Role of the Middle Class in Economic Development: Why Do Cross-Country data show? *ADB Economics Workin, Paper Series, 245*, 40. Asian Development Bank.
- CIA World Factbook: Japan. (2014). *Central Intelligence Agency*. Retrieved February 22, 2014, from http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ja.html
- China New Global Poverty Estimates. (2012). *World Bank*. Retrieved May 2, 2013, from http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/country/CHN
- Child Labour in India. (2011). *Child Line*. Retrieved February 13, 2013, from http://www.childlineindia.org. in/child-labour-india.htm
- DeNavas-Walt, C., Proctor, B. D., & Smith, J. C. (2012). Income, Poverty, and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2011. *U. S. Census Bureau* (p. 81).
- Economic News Release: Employment Situation Summary. (2013). *Household data, seasonally adjusted*. Retrieved November 13, 2013, from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/empsit.a.htm
- Florida P. (2007). Creative class: Individuals that change the future (p. 421). Classica-XXI publishing house.
- GDP composition, by sector of origin. (2012). *Central Intelligence Agency*. Retrieved December 12, 2013, from http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2012.html
- Halbwachs, M. (2000). Social classes and morphology (p. 510). SPB: Aleteya.
- Kessler, G., & Di Virgillo, M. (2010). Impoverishment of the middle class in Argentina: The 'new poor' in Latin America. *Laboratorium*, 2(3), 200-220.
- Kyle, K. (2014). *Global Post. Measuring the middle class of the world's top 10 economies*. Retrieved February 24, 2014, from http://www.globalpost.com/measuring-the-middle-data-interactive
- Kharas, H., & Gertz, G. (2010). *The New Global Middle Class: A Cross-Over from West to East* (p. 396). Washington: Wolfensohn Center for Development at Brookings, Brookings Institute.
- Latest indicators. (2011). *Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from http://www.stat.go.jp/english/index.htm
- Labor Force at the End of the Month in Russia. (2013). Federal State Statistics Service. Retrieved December 13,

- 2013, from http://www.gks.ru/bgd/free/B00 25/IssWWW.exe/Stg/d000/I000040R.HTM/
- Milanovic, B., & Yitzhaki, S. (2002). Decomposing world income distribution: Does world have the middle class? *The Review of Income and Wealth*, 48(2), 155-178. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1475-4991.00046
- Poverty rate in Russia went down in 2012 Russia's Statistics Agency. (2013). Russia beyond the headlines. Retrieved December 10, 2013, from http://rbth.com/news/2013/03/25/poverty_rate_in_russia_went_down_in 2012 russias statistics agency 24208.html
- Report on Employment & Unemployment Survey (2009–10). (2010). Government of India Ministry of Labour & Employment. *Labour Bureau Chandigarh*, 8(October), 161.
- World Bank. (2013). GNI per capita, Atlas Method (current US\$). Retrieved February 3, 2014, from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GNP.PCAP.CD

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Monitoring of Education Environment according to the Social-Psychological Safety Criterion

Pavel Aleksandrovich Kislyakov¹, Elena Aleksandrovna Shmeleva¹, Tat'yana Vyacheslavovna Karaseva¹ & Ol'ga Aleksandrovna Silaeva¹

Correspondence: Pavel Aleksandrovich Kislyakov, Shuya branch of Ivanovo State University, Kooperativnaya street, 24, Shuya, 155900, Russia.

Received: June 20, 2013 Accepted: July 8, 2014 Online Published: August 28, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p285 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p285

Abstract

The aim of this work is to reveal psychological indices for the monitoring of education environment according to the students' social-psychological safety criterion and to specify their interrelation. The article presents theoretical and methodological bases of the monitoring of students' social-psychological safety criterion in a higher educational establishment. The article presents the review of approaches to the definition of key features of education environment including psychosocial well-being, informational security, non-violent interaction, social ecology. Basing on the analysis of theoretic and methodological material, we defined personal qualities of students, which determine the character of interaction of educational subjects and their psychosocial well-being. These indices are as follows: communication skills, social tolerance, and creativity. Social tolerance is defined as sincere respect and acknowledgement of the other person, active moral position and psychological readiness to the positive interaction in the society and education environment. Communication skills as an index of social-psychological safety include the ability to person-oriented trustful interaction, kindness, skills of business democratic communication, ability to keep emotional well-being, ability to work out strategy, tactics and technique of active interaction with people. Creativity if defined by the student's ability to self-actualize, to learn his/her own abilities and skills, self-fulfilment while creating social-psychological environment of his/her own life. Psychosocial well-being in the whole is characterized by the state of education environment which is free of expression of physical and mental violence. The conducted investigation allowed us to reveal positive correlation connections between the level of subjective well-being and formedness of personal qualities which define the social-psychological safety of education environment.

Keywords: psychological monitoring, education environment, social-psychological safety, psychosocial well-being of students

1. Introduction

The relations between humans can be based on the mutual tolerance and collaboration, operation superiority, suppression, submission or care and support. For all these cases a personality is in different social environment with different degree of his/her social-psychological safety, and the process of personality's development will be different.

The skill of self-protection from possible threats for the personality and skill of creating sfe environment (safe relations with the environment) speak for the optimal level of human interaction with the social environment. The surrounding social environment which tries to provide safety, can and must provide working out of adaptive forms of human behaviour in the society, provide possibilities and models of safe behaviour based on the experience of relations. In this case both the priority of the inner essence of the personality and environmental conditioning of human organization will be preserved. One of such social environments which provide safety in the process of human's growing-up, is an educational establishment within which the process of development and socialization of a child takes place (Rubtsov & Baeva, 2008).

The following scientists study the philosophy of the environment in the process of education and upbringing: V. G. Vorontsova, V. A. Kozyrev, Yu. S. Manuilov, V. I. Slobodchikov, Yu. S. Pesotskiy, V. A. Yasvin, Barker R.G., Gump P.V. and others. The authors presents the necessity of projecting new educational environments, which could both reflect the changing character of the relations of a human and social environment and provide

¹ Shuya branch of Ivanovo State University, Russia

the involvement of a human in the process of education, as the most important condition for transformation of the educational process of the high school in the society. I. A. Baeva, V.V. Rubtsov (2008) develop the "psychology of education environment safety" concept, according to which the psychological safety provide a developing character for the educational environment, and the state of psychological guard to the students; E. A. Alisov (2011) has developed a theory of ecological safety of educational environment; B. N. Boyarov (2012) has developed a theory of information safety of education environment. V. A. Sitarov and V. G. Maralov (2012) within the framework of the concept of pedagogic of non-violence point out the necessity of creation non-violent developing social-pedagogic environment in the educational establishment, which is built on the basis of positive relations that exclude coercion, mutual mistrust, conflicts. In the middle of XX century in Europe within the framework of the environmental approach the theory of social environment ecology has been already developed (Barker, 1968; Gump, 1964).

The characteristics of the education environment can be considered as environmental factors that define psychosocial well-being of all the subjects of the educational process. As A. Maslow points out (1970): "... it is the good environment that is one of the first factors of self-actualization and health for the average organism. By giving the opportunity of self-actualization to the organism it recedes into the background, just as a kind master, in order to allow him choosing on his own in accordance with his own wishes and demands (but preserving the right to see after his considering wishes and demands of other people)".

The healthy feeling of safety (well-being) is one of the fundamental feelings of a normal human being. The children study better if they have psychological well-being. Some authors point out the fact that the psychological well-being of the students should become a conceptual basis for reforming education (Noddings, 2003). Gilman R. and Huebner E. (2006) relate psychological well-being of students to their satisfaction with life and ability to control stress; Suldo S. and co-authors (2008) relate it to the emotional regulation and academic abilities.

The subjective feeling of the psychological well-being and safety which is necessary for the preservation of "psychological health and integrity of a personality" is important not only for students but also for a teacher. Only in this case a teacher will be able to practice individual approach to every student and create a space for subject-subject interaction (Antonova, 2013).

Today along with the problem of humanization of education environment and its projecting as psychologically safe (developing, creative, health-saving, tolerant, non-violent etc.) there appears a task of revealing and systematizing criteria and indices which are the bases of its system monitoring. The Russian and American psychology has a range of methods for defining well-being (psychological safety) of students (Baeva, 2002; Gilman et al., 2006; Suldo et al., 2008).

The monitoring of education environment is supported by the use of a package of psycho-diagnostic methods which is addressed to the participants of the educational process, and allows speaking about the environment conditions (defining the meanings of environment, its elements and variables of lifestyle) and personality in it (type, lifestyle, health conditions etc.).

Thus, the programme of education environment diagnostic, developed by S. D. Deryabo (1997), includes three indices: physical health conditions of the students, the level of their cognitive and personal spheres development. V. R. Zarubin and co-authors (1998) consider social comfort as a criterion of education environment effectiveness. It includes such indices as self-assessment of membership in school life, assessment of relationships of students and teachers as well as relationships of students with each other. I. A. Baeva (2006) includes the following factors to the number of diagnostic indices of psychological safety of education environment: the level of attitude to the environment (positive, neutral, negative), level of satisfaction with the characteristics of education environment; level of security from psychological violence in interaction E. B. Laktionova (2013) includes the diagnostic of the following personal characteristics of education subjects into the psychological expertise of education environment: tolerance, subjectiveness, person's orientation in communication, life-purpose orientations, willpower potential and creativity, strategies of coping behaviour with difficult situations (the last index can be applied only for the students). O. I. Leonova (2013) in the course of practical study defined two integral characteristics which determine the state of psychological safety of education environment: tension and hostility of education environment which in their turn are expressed with the help of the following parameters of emotional-affective sphere of students' personality: fear of self-expression, anxiety, anger, personal deconditioning, fear of non-conformance with the demands of the others etc. (direct correlation); cognitive activity, motivation of success, self-confidence (reverse correlation). V. N. Bartsevich (2012) has stated that the psychological safety of students is significantly influenced by the complex of integral characteristics of teacher's personality (emotional flexibility, communication orientation, communication competence) which can also be considered as environmental factors of safety of education subjects.

In the course of factor analysis of emperic material and analysis of systematized theoretical and methodological material concerning the problem of social-psychological safety of a personality we have stated that the psychosocial well-being of (psychological safety) of students is characterised by such personal qualities as creativity, social tolerance, communication skills. The level of psychosocial well-being is directly relevant to the assessment of the social environment; the other indices indirectly speak for the existence of psychologically safe environment in a higher educational establishment as it is, from our viewpoint, a necessary basis for development of these personal characteristics (Kisliakov, 2014).

These provisions condition the necessity of including social-psychological safety indices of students into the system of education quality monitoring in a higher educational establishment. There is a necessity for the organisation of constant monitoring of education environment state in a higher education establishment aimed at revealing socially dangerous phenomena, as well as organisation of monitoring of development of personally and professionally important qualities of students which define the degree of their psychosocial well-being.

2. Materials and Methods

In order to evaluate the above mentioned indices of social-psychological safety of students within the framework of psychological monitoring of education environment in higher educational establishment we have developed a set of diagnostic tools which includes standardised methods.

To diagnose creativity we have used a modified test "Creativity", developed by N. F. Vishniakova (1999). The test allows revealing the level of creative skills of a personality and making a psychological creative profile. While evaluating creativity the students were asked to evaluate their personal qualities: originality, curiosity, imagination, intuition, creative thinking, emotionality and empathy, sense of humour, creative attitude to the profession.

To diagnose the general level of social tolerance of students we used express-checklist "Tolerance index", developed by the group of psychologists under the leadership of G. U. Soldatova (2008). Three sub-scales of the checklist were aimed at diagnostic of such aspects of tolerance as ethnic tolerance (attitude to the people of another race and ethnic group), social tolerance (attitude to the minorities, the poor, mentally handicapped people), tolerance as the feature of a personality (readiness to the constructive solving of conflicts and productive cooperation).

In order to diagnose communication skills and abilities we have used Section "Communication abilities" of the checklist "Diagnostic of communication and organisational abilities" (KOS-2) (Fetiskin and others, 2002). The checklist measures communication skills (ability to establish business and friendly contacts with people clearly and quickly, intention of bradening contacts, participation in group events, ability to influence people, intention to show the initiative etc.).

The investigation of the degree of students' subjective well-being was conducted using the "Scale of subjective well-being" method, created by French psychologists Perrudet-Badoux, Mendelsohn and Chiche (1988). The scale consists of 17 items which are divided into 6 clusters: tension and sensibility; qualities which accompany main mental semiology are such as depression, drowsiness, short span of attention etc.; change of mood; significance of social environment; self-estimation of health; degree of satisfaction by the everyday activity. The test allows revealing existence and depth of emotional discomfort of a personality, and the answers to certain questions can help to reveal areas of a significant tension or conflict.

The conducted investigation in the Shuiskiy department of the Ivanovo State University (total number of respondents was approximately 700 people) allowed us to evaluate the degree of students' formedness of personally important qualities, which are necessary for providing social-psychological safety and which define the level of psychosocial well-being. These data spoke for the necessity of developing and implementation of programmes of psychological-pedagogic support of formation of social-psychological safety of education subjects in higher educational establishments (Kisliakov, 2014).

3. Results

The implementation of the complex psychological-pedagogic support of psychologically safe environment projecting in a higher educational establishment, which includes a complex of trainings on communication skills formation, development of tolerant interrelations and creative potential allowed every fourth student to increase his/her degree of subjective well-being (level of significance 0.05). As the result 88% of students have a suficient

degree of subjective well-being. The continuous dynamics can be observed in all clusters with the transfer of two of them ("significance of social environment "and" satisfaction with everyday activity") to the high level (Fig. 1).

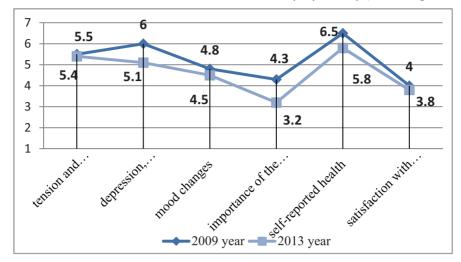


Figure 1. Dynamics of level of students' subjective well-being clusters

Generally all the personal indices which determine the state of education environment of a higher educational establishment have positive dynamics (Fig. 2). This speaks for the fact that the higher educational establishment has safe environment built on the principles of tolerance, creativity, interpersonal communication and provides a student the feeling of psychosocial well-being.

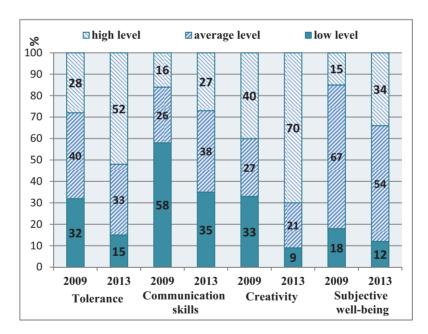


Figure 2. Dynamics of personal indices which define the state of education environment of a higher educational establishment

The correlative analysis conducted with the help of Pirson correlations showed strong ($p \le 0.01$) straight correlation connections between the level of subjective well-being and formedness of personal qualities which define psychological safety of education subjects (Table 1).

Table 1. Correlation between the indicators of psychological safety of a personality

Indicators	Subjective well-being	Social tolerance	Communication skills	Creativity
	Correlations			
Subjective well-being	1	0.625	0.714	0.608
Social tolerance	0.625	1	0,454	0.294
Communication skills	0.714	0,454	1	0.531
Creativity	0.608	0.294	0.531	1
Correlation is significant on the level 0.01 (2-sided)				

4. Discussion

Socially safe environment of a higher educational establishment which provide a student a sense of psychosocial well-being is characterised by the atmosphere of on-violence, as the basis of non-violent interaction and pro-social behaviour in general. The tasks of non-violence pedagogic, pointed out by V. A. Sitarov and V. G. Maralov (2012) fully corresponds to the tasks of providing social-psychological safety of the education subject. Let us list them: teaching young people peaceableness, spirit of non-violence (formation of negative attitude to war, negation of violent methods of social conflicts solving, humane attitude to each other and to oneself, ability to solve conflicts with non-violence methods etc.); humanization of educational process, formation of students' personal qualities and special skills which allow further implementation of social interaction in non-violent way and without coercion. The USA has accumulated huge experience of education and upbringing in the spirit of non-violence. As the example we can take the experience of a non-governmental agency: "Educators for Social Responsibility, 2014".

Socially safe ad functioning education environment defines the success of formedness of students' professional competences that relate to the life in multi-cultural society, harmonization of inter-ethnic and cultural relationships, prevention of xenophobia, strengthening of tolerance in education environment. Social tolerance as well as sincere respect and acknowledgement of other person, active moral position and psychological readiness to the positive interaction between people is a professionally important quality in the structure of personality of a future specialist of social-humanitarian sphere (Soldatova, 2008). The peculiarity of a teacher's activity for tolerant education environment formation is in implementation of tolerant interactions and democratic style of administration, subjects' acceptance of each other regardless of differences (age, race, nation, ethnic group, language, property, religion, individual and personal qualities) (Pogodina, 2006).

One of the urgent tasks of social-psychological safety is the providing of safety on the level of personal communication. On the micro-level the potential threats to the social safety of people appear in the process of direct communication with other people. Such threats are abuse, manipulation, unstable social links. Social safety of a human is provided by the development of communication skills while implementing in the course of communication. Thus, we can speak about social-psychological safety of education subjects in different interpersonal Communication situations. I. A. Baeva (2006), while defining safe state of education environment, points out the necessity of projecting such a system of interpersonal relations of education subjects, which could satisfy the demands of personal-trustful communication within the framework of which the education subjects interact on the interpersonal level. that creates conditions for students' acceptance of moral, cultural values, acquisition of "personal sense". But not only a teacher's speech influence a student, but the communication among students, their speech culture can negatively influence their health, first of all mental one. In this regard a higher educational establishment have to work on the projecting of positive verbal space, aimed at speech purity as well as upgrading speech culture of a personality. The following is included in the content of the formed Communication skills: ability of personality-oriented, trustful interaction in the course of education process, including kindness, politeness; skills of business democratic communication including the ability to listen, understand, assure, explain, polemize etc.; ability to keep emotional balance, prevent and solve conflicts in a constructive way including ability of collaboration, achieving compromises; skill of working out strategy, tactic

and technique of active interaction with people, organize their joint cooperation for achieving certain socially significant goals; ability of objective evaluation of a situation of interaction of subjects of educational process.

It is very important that a student not only know psychological-pedagogic essence of social-psychological safety, but can use the methods of its providing in praxis, can creatively apply them in any situations and in the conditions of an educational establishment. Cognition of oneself, one's own abilities and skills, self-realization, creation of social-psychological environment of one's own living is always a creative process which takes place in the creative environment contributing to the development of creative potential and creativity. The creative environment is characterised by V. A. Yasvin (2000) as the environment that is notable for a high inner motivation activity, emotional lift, positive optimistic attitude, respect of the human thought. Such an environment influences the activity of learning and transforming the surrounding world, openness, freedom of thoughts and actions, personal orientation to the self-development and self-realization. But not the specific skills as an active position of the subject of education determine the possibility of creative success (Vishniakova, 1999). In this regard the creative environment, which defines the character of education subjects' interaction, is a necessary element of psychological safety of the higher educational establishment environment.

5. Conclusion

Thus, the education environment monitoring is to answer the following questions: What personal and professional qualities are formed by the education environment of a higher educational establishment? What environment is created by the higher educational establishment for the students, how comfortable is it for them?

The conducted monitoring of the education environment of a higher educational establishment in accordance with the criterion of social-psychological safety of students contributes to the deep full-bodied study of an object under investigation and allows to fix the transfer of students from one psychological state into the other for the account of students' formation and development such personally and professionally important qualities as social tolerance, communication skills and creativity. The information, acquired with the help of the monitoring, allows the administrative staff, teachers and students to make decisions which comply with the interests of all subjects of education environment with the aim of their development and providing psychosocial well-being.

Application of the investigation results, presented in this article, is the system of general education, secondary and higher professional education. What determines the restrictions of usage of methods and investigations, presented in the article.

The promising course of psychological monitoring of the education environment is the revealing and analysing negative social phenomena in the education environment of a higher educational establishment which are the factors of social risk with the following grounding of conditions necessary for projecting psychologically safe environment of a higher educational establishment.

Acknowledgement

The article is prepared under the grant of the President of the Russian Federation for the support of young Russian scientists (project MK-1565.2013.6).

References

- Alisov, E. A. (2011). *Pedagogical designing environmentally safe educational environment* (PhD thesis). Moscow Pedagogical State University, Moscow.
- Antonova, A. V. (2013). *Psychological support of the teaching staff as a resource providing psychological security.* Safety educational environment: Psychological assessment and support, Moscow City University of Psychology and Education (pp. 10-14).
- Barker, R. G. (1968). Ecological psychology: Concept and methods for studying the environment of human behavior. Stanford University Press.
- Bartsevich, V. N. (2012). *Influence of personal characteristics of teachers on students' psychological safety* (PhD thesis). Psychological Institute RAE, Moscow.
- Bayeva, I. A. (2006). *Provision of psychological safety in educational institution: A practical guide.* St. Petersburg: Speech, p. 288.
- Boyarov, B. N. (2012). Theoretical Foundations build secure information educational environment of teacher training in the field of safety. *Sociosphere*, *4*, 101-106.
- Deryabo, S. D. (1997). The diagnostic effectiveness of the educational environment for teacher (p. 222). Moscow: Young Guard.

- Dunne, M. P., Dunne, S. K., Macfarlane, B., Zolotor, A. J., Runyan, D. K., Andreva-Miller, I., ... Youssef, R. (2009). Ispcan child abuse screening tools retrospective version (icast-r): Delphi study and field testing in seven countries. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 11(33), 815-825.
- Educators for Social Responsibility. Date Views. Retrieved January 30, 2014, from http://www.esrnational.org.
- Fetiskin, N. P., Kozlov V. V., & Manuilov, G. M. (2002). *Socio-psychological diagnosis of personality development and small groups* (p. 490). Moscow: Institute of Psychotherapy.
- Gilman, R., & Huebner, E. (2006). Characteristics of adolescents who report very high life satisfaction. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *35*, 311-319. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10964-006-9036-7.
- Glew, G. M., Fan, M -Y., Katon, W., & Rivara, F. P. (2008). Bulling and school safety. *The Journal of Pediatrics*, *152*(1), 123-128. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2007.05.045.
- Gump, P. V. (1964). Environmental guidance of the classroom behavioral system. Contemporary research on teacher effectiveness (pp. 165-195). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Huebner, E., & Gilman, R. (2006). Students who like and dislike school. *Applied Quality of Life Research*, 1, 139-150. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11482-006-9001-3.
- Jasvin, V. A. (2000). Examination of the school educational environment (p. 125). Moscow: September.
- Kislyakov, P. A. (2014). Psycho-pedagogical concept of formation of social security of the person of the future teacher: System- personal approach (p. 440). Moscow: Russian Journal.
- Laktionova, E. B. (2013). *Psychological examination of the educational environment* (PhD thesis). Russian State Pedagogical University named after A.I. Herzen, St. Petersburg.
- Leonova, O. I. (2013). Integral characteristics of the psychological security of the educational environment of the educational organization. *Psychological Science and Education*, *6*, 88-91.
- Maslow, A. (1970). Motivation and Personality (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.
- Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M. D., Haynie, D., Ruan, J., & Scheldt, P. (2003). Relationships between bulling and violence among US young. *Arch. Pediatr. Adolesc. Med.*, 157, 348-353.
- Noddings, N. (2003). Happiness and education. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Pogodina, A. A. (2006). *Preparing future teachers to promote tolerance among schoolchildren* (PhD thesis). Yaroslavl State Pedagogical University named after K.D. Ushinsky, Yaroslavl.
- Rubtsov, V. V., & Baeva, I. A. (2008). *Psychological safety education environment as a condition of psychosocial well-being of the schoolboy* (pp. 5-11). Safety educational environment, Moscow City University of Psychology and Education.
- Sitarov, V. A., & Maralov, V. G. (2012). *Pedagogy and psychology of nonviolence in education* (p. 424). Moscow: Yurait.
- Soldatova, G. U., Shaygerova, L. A., & Prokofieva, T. Y. (2008). *Psychodiagnostics tolerance of the person* (p. 176). Moscow: Meaning.
- Suldo, S., Shaffer, E. & Riley, K. (2008). A social-cognitive-behavioral model of academic predictors of adolescents' live satisfaction. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 23, 56-69. DOI 10.1037/1045-3830.23.1.56.
- Tucker, C. J., & Finkelhor, D. (2013). Prevalence and correlates of sibling victimization types. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, *37*(4), 213-223. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2013.01.006.
- Vishnjakova, N. F. (1999). Diagnostics creative potential. Psychological tests "creative potential". Minsk.
- Zarubin, V. G., Makaridina, V. A., & Almazova, N. I. (1998). Social comfort as a means of optimizing the educational environment. *Education of the XXI Century: Problems, forecasts, model projects, St. Petersburg* (pp. 34-41).

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Methodology Making Management Decisions Based on a Modified Ramsey Model

Maria Jakovlevna Parfenova¹, Vladimir Denisovich Babishin², Evgeny Vladimirovich Yurkevich³, Vladimir Dmitriyevich Sekerin⁴ & Mihail Nikolaevich Dudin⁵

Correspondence: Mihail Nikolaevich Dudin, Russian academy of Entrepreneurship, Radio str., 14, Moscow, 105005, Russian Federation.

Received: July 4, 2013 Accepted: July 13, 2014 Online Published: August 28, 2014 doi:10.5539/ass.v10n17p292 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n17p292

Abstract

In order to select a management strategy it is offered by commercial phase portraits of the interaction of managers and employees. Under the conditions of uncertainty of customer orders control function is specified on the basis of decision-making by a modification of the Ramsey model. As specified algorithm generating an output indicator is proposed to use a probabilistic form of the utility function. In order to analyze the possibilities depending on the characteristics of employees of the business process and the nature of external influences used extreme distribution law of random evaluations of the effectiveness of information exchange managers and employees.

Keywords: market characteristics, optimal control, phase portraits, engagement strategy, Ramsey's model, decision-making, the utility function, the possibility of the company's employees, business process, external influences

1. Introduction

Modern intensification technology development is largely determined by the trend of production organization focused on meeting the individual requirements of each customer. However, due to the uncertainty characteristics of incoming orders, a problem of constructing the control algorithm by taking into account the reactions of its employees to random customers' requirements. Supposed to solve this problem by providing the functional reliability of business processes.

In this presentation the functional reliability characteristics of the organization of the company, determine an estimate of the risks of failures in achieving its objective function. Consequently, the analysis of the characteristics of the interaction of managers and employees (hereinafter - just employees) should identify the conditions under which the maximum result of management actions affect the company's business development, helping to achieve the goal. In summary, called the problem is defined as the optimization of a commercial company in terms of possible failures that occur due to internal and external perturbations, in the form of random, time and intensity.

We consider an example of a commercial company, but in a more general form of the proposed methodology can be used for algorithmization impacts both on structural subdivisions of enterprises and on industry or regions. Existing approaches to the management of traditionally based on the recognition of hazards in typical situations (Orlov, 2003; Aaker & Tyebjee, 1978, Dudin et al., 2014).

Criticality assessment in achieving the accepted paradigm determines the choice of management to the best way to generate a given situation in the time allowed. Thus, the optimal control problem is traditionally confined to the choice of algorithm targeted production and changes in the state of the economic system in a previously defined circumstances.

¹ Moscow University SY Witte, Moscow, Russian Federation

² Moscow Academy of the Labor Market and Information Technology, Moscow, Russian Federation

³ Institute of Control Sciences VA Trapeznikova RAS, Moscow, Russian Federation

⁴ Moscow State University of Mechanical Engineering, Moscow, Russian Federation

⁵ Russian academy of Entrepreneurship, Moscow, Russian Federation

Modern discrepancy rate of development of production and market relations often reveals insufficient information available. At the same time limit the formation of the control response in the presence of random noise causes uncertainty in the economy of business processes. To ensure the functional reliability of the company in an uncertain situation is invited to consider the possibility of solving the inverse problem of optimal control. In this case, the task of constructing methodology of forming parameters of the control functions, depending on the state of the company management system, defining the nature of information interactions between its managers and employees.

Formulation of the problem can be classified as incorrect (Aaker & Tyebjee, 1978), since it involves determining the control function depending on the nature of random influences on the business process at a fixed time.

2. Analysis of Possibilities of Finding Management Decisions under Uncertainty Situation

Currently it is known a number of mechanisms to improve the adequacy and efficiency of management of production - economic systems under uncertainty. We say that three of them, the most useful for our problem. Widely used analytical methods, management formed using a combination of operational decisions made on the basis of the analysis of the combination of indicators of current production situation and the statistical analysis of historical data (Trahtengerts et al., 2007).

Information support for such decisions analyzes production management experience, preceding the current situation, and transfer the results to the projected scenario. Using data mining techniques can detect hidden patterns and predict the behavior of the studied system.

However, the problem of forecasting are costly time, financial and human resources. Moreover, without formalization characteristics emerging situations forecast can be the basis for making inefficient decisions.

Another approach is the analysis of known precedents. In this case, the impact of adapting to the situation on the basis of recognition of states of the control object, and the accuracy of decisions is enhanced by the use of an inference engine (CASE - Based Reasoning) (Tormos & Lova, 2001). This approach reduces the risk of making decisions by constructing functions consequences of their decisions. However, the construction of proactive behavior in uncertain situations associated with labor intensive knowledge base, formalizes a generalized expertise for a particular domain.

The third approach is based on finding solutions using contingency management model (Pospelov, 1996; Yurkevich & Kryukova, 2013) In this case, all the predictable and unpredictable situations are classified in the feature space, complex situations are decomposed on a set of situations with one-step solutions, and selects the optimal solution. Approach links specific ways to manage certain situations to best achieve the goals of the business process (Baker).

In general, the known approaches to building management systems show that their effectiveness largely depends on the nature of their situations and information effects. In this paper, we assume that the optimality of doing business processes provided by specifying a criterion for determining the effectiveness of decisions (Hartmann, 1998). In this case the error feedback depends on the adequacy of the business process model, the rigor of the definition of the objective function, as well as the completeness of the restrictions imposed on its set of admissible states and input actions.

The approach developed in the article, based on a description of the dynamics characteristics of the business process as a system of nonlinear differential equations:

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u),\tag{1}$$

Where: $x = [x_1, ..., x_n]^T$ - n- dimensional state vector of the business process in the time interval T; $x \in R^n$, R^n - Set of possible states of the business process; $u = [u_1, ..., u_m]^T$ - m - dimensional control vector belonging to a closed area $x \in U \subseteq R^m$, R^m - the set of admissible states, $m \le n$, U - a limited set of controls; f(x, u) - known nonlinear vector function.

The optimality criterion is proposed functional,

$$G_i = g_i(x(t_f)) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} f_i(x(t), u(t)) dt, \quad i = \overline{1, M},$$
 (2)

Where: t_f - the duration of the management; M - the number of partitions (steps) management process performed at intervals $(t_0, t_1), (t_1, t_2), ..., (t_{f-1}, t_f)$.

The first term $g_i(x(t_f))$ in equation (2) as the terminal component, which depends only on the state $x(t_f)$ and management efficiency characterizing the final time interval observed.

The second term $\int_{t_0}^{t_f} f_i(x(t), u(t)) dt$ is an integral characteristic of quality control in the transition of the business

process from state $x(t_0)$ to state $x(t_f)$. In this case, we assume that given the characteristics of the initial state of the business process at each step $x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} x_0^1, \dots, x_0^M \end{bmatrix}^T$ to the values and requirements of its characteristics $G_i \subseteq R^m$, ensuring the implementation of the global criterion $G \subseteq R^m$.

Management u(t) will be considered as optimal if the objective functional G_i expression (2) takes extreme value. Thus, we seek the optimal control as a function u(x,t).

In general, the optimal control problem will be considered in the form of construction management u = u(x), called synthesized function and represents the value of the optimal control under the condition that at time t the control system (1) is located x = x(t) at a fixed point in time.

3. Phase Portrait of Informational Interaction of Managers with Employees of the Company

The formation of the boundary of transition from one qualitative state to another is an important (often - determining) factor of affecting the stability in the production - the economic system in uncertain situations. Concept of the managers and employees of the company (in the simplest case - one manager and one employee) will be constructed based on the fact that the information interaction of each of them decides to implement the chosen strategy of behavior or change it in connection with the transition of the business process in new state.

Let the information characteristics of the transmitted by the control system, is determined: the results of business (process), processes, manager and the employee, external conditions.

In this paper, an important characteristic of this interaction is to control the formation of the conditions under which the value of a message sent from the manager to the employee corresponds to the value of the message from the employee to the manager. We assume that the regularity of such conditions depends on the culture of interpersonal communication in the company. We assume that a culture of communication - a characteristic of the source of information, for it determines the importance of knowledge of the reaction of the receiver to the transmitted message to them (Yurkevich, 2008).

In terms of this paper the culture of communication is proposed as characteristic of the feedback system, which determines the effectiveness of the company's management.

Based on the proposed regulations define what decision-making requires consideration (Yurkevich, 2011): G - parametric characteristics that define the organization in control of the company;

- W information characteristics that determine the number and value of information transmitted under management conditions;
- ρ coordinate characteristics that define the external environment of the system, help or hinder the perception of information.

For clarity, the system business process management show in block diagram form, the manager and employee interaction (Yurkevich, 2011): "The control unit management" - managers develop a methodology and a system of management of the company as a production - economic system, "Power management technology" - employees develop methods and organization of the manufacturing operations, "Block implementation of business processes" - managers and employees are involved (Fig. 1).

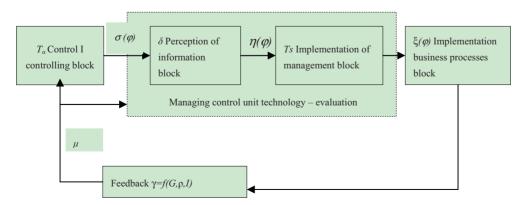


Fig.1 Block diagram of business process management

Where: $-\phi$ - culture of communication between managers and employees as an indicator of the effectiveness of business management at the company. In this model, it should is a characteristic of the source, and the rate of changing the ϕ be noted that culture of relationships that determine the intensity of perception - a characteristic of the receiver.

Information management features (W):

 $\sigma(\varphi)$ - amount of information that is used for manufacturing operations;

 $\eta(\varphi)$ - the amount of information perceived control unit implementation;

 $\xi(\varphi)$ - the amount of information that is used as the control action;

Characteristics of the control unit:

 $T\alpha$ - lag in the reaction of the control unit management;

Ts - delay in the reaction block implementation management;

 δ - control unit technology assessment values manipulated transferred to this unit;

γ - evaluation control unit control the value of information received from the control unit realization.

In the information schema reliability of its work provides a feedback channel. The signal transmitted by him to the control unit controls, determines the impact on employees parametric specifications manager. So, to get the results expected from the activity manager employee, consider the possibility of minimizing the distortion in the perception of information transmitted over the lines of communication and feedback between the control units and directly control the implementation process technologies.

Note the property business participants to adapt to changes in external conditions. Suppose we have statistics values of parameters characteristic (G), determining the status of some members of the business process. This process is determined by the strategy of his organization in the company in question. Due to the fact that the staff needs and experience of the manager is constantly changing, the system in Figure 1 can be represented as a dynamic.

The peculiarity of the problem is the inability to imagine characteristics implement the business process defined function blocks only using strictly measured quantities. It is therefore proposed to consider the state space of sources and receivers of information in the form of the phase portrait, having a geometrical evidence (Yurkevich, Kolosov 2011). In our model, for each transmission of information involves two elements, therefore, the information model business process organization will be formed in the form of two differential equations. Of the many characteristics distinguish the G: x - response of the source, and y - characteristic of the data receiver.

Given the nonlinearity of the psychological characteristics of the manager and the employee, their interpersonal relations system will describe the second order differential equation. Let the characteristics of the available statistics by least squares regression found y = F(x). At its base the phase space is proposed as a two-dimensional. Represent it in the form of the phase plane.

$$\overset{\bullet}{x} = P(x, y); \qquad \overset{\bullet}{y} = Q(x, y).$$

Features included in the set G, are interdependent. Therefore, in accordance with the dimension $g_i \in G$, with i = 1,2, ... n in the range of possible variable values requires consideration of a set of analytic functions $y = F_i(x)$ with i = 1,2,3, ... n.

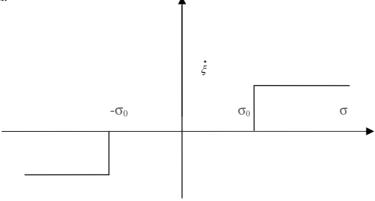


Figure 2. Characteristics of the Implementation of management block

Feature of each of the functional blocks of the system in Figure 1 is the presence of a delay in the reaction zone to messages during (or in preparation) process step (or administrative action). The size of this zone is determined by the level of training of managers and employees. By a theorem of AN Kolmogorov, limit the amount of information transmitted from A to B is equal to the limit of the amount of information transmitted from B to A.

For example, the characterization of the block management implementation represented as Fig. 2.

Zone right axis $\dot{\mu}$ is a reflection on the impact of management personnel, and the area to the left of the axis $\dot{\mu}$ is a reflection of the feedback in the form of exposure to personnel manager.

Until the reaction block implementation of control is within range of tuning $-\sigma_0 < \sigma < \sigma_0$, perceptual speed information received in preparation for the implementation of control (ξ) is minimal. We assume it is approximately equal to zero.

If the amount of information perceived as an employee of a controllable element $\sigma \ge \sigma_0$, the velocity $\dot{\xi} = \frac{1}{T_c}$, if

the employee is considered as a source of information as well as a receiver manager, we can write $\sigma \le -\sigma_0$, in this case the rate $\dot{\xi} = -\frac{1}{T}$.

Mapping implementation of such a system on the phase plane (Fig. 3) can be written:

- control unit control equation:

$$T_{\alpha} \stackrel{\bullet}{\varphi} + \rho \varphi = -\xi \tag{3}$$

1. Equation block the perception of information:

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u)$$

2. - equation block implementation of control

$$\dot{\xi} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{T_s}; \sigma \ge \sigma_0 \\ -\frac{1}{T_s}; \sigma \le -\sigma_0 \\ 0, |\sigma| < \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$

$$(4)$$

- feedback equation: $\sigma = \eta - \gamma \xi$

Note that a rigorous examination of symmetry of information transmission (Fig. 2) implies the existence of feedback from each of the blocks presented in Figure 1.

$$T_{a}\ddot{\varphi} + \rho\dot{\varphi} = -\dot{\xi} = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{T_{s}}; \sigma \geq \sigma_{0} \\ +\frac{1}{T_{s}}; \sigma \leq -\sigma_{0} \\ 0, |\sigma| < \sigma_{0} \end{cases}$$

However, so as not to obscure the drawing schematically leave one channel, meaning that each of them is described by an equation similar to presented for feedback. Eliminating the variables of equations reaction to the messages we get from equation (3) we have $\sigma = \eta - \gamma \xi = \frac{\varphi}{\delta} - \gamma (T_a \dot{\varphi} + \rho \varphi)$.

Therefore, the condition $\sigma \ge \sigma_0$ can be writte*n in the form $\frac{\varphi}{\delta} - \gamma (T_a \dot{\varphi} + \rho \varphi)$, or

$$\dot{\varphi} \ge \frac{\delta \sigma_0 - \varphi(\delta \gamma p + 1)}{\delta \gamma T_a} \tag{5}$$

Similarly, if $\sigma \le -\sigma_0$ and $-\sigma_0 < \sigma < \sigma_0$, then respectively,

$$\stackrel{\bullet}{\varphi} \le \frac{-\delta\sigma_0 - \varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1)}{\delta\gamma T}.$$
(6)

$$\frac{-\delta\sigma_{0} - \varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1)}{\delta\gamma T_{\alpha}} < \dot{\varphi} < \frac{\delta\sigma_{0} - \varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1)}{\delta\gamma T_{\alpha}}.$$
 (7)

In this equation that determines the mechanism to implement business process takes the form

$$T_{a}\ddot{\varphi} + \rho\dot{\varphi} = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{T_{s}}; \delta\gamma T_{a}\dot{\varphi} \geq \delta\sigma_{0} - \varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1); \\ +\frac{1}{T_{s}}; \delta\gamma T_{a}\dot{\varphi} \leq -\delta\sigma_{0} - \varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1) \\ 0; |\varphi(\delta\gamma\rho + 1) + \dot{\varphi}\delta\gamma T_{a}| < \delta\sigma_{0}. \end{cases}$$
(8)

Labeling $\phi = x$: x = y, we can go to a differential equation of the integral curves

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\rho}{T_a} - \frac{1}{T_a T_s y}; \delta \gamma T_a y \ge \delta \sigma_0 - x(\delta \gamma \rho + 1); \tag{9a}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\rho}{T_a} + \frac{1}{T_a T_s y}; \delta \gamma T_a y \ge -\delta \sigma_0 - x(\delta \gamma \rho + 1); \tag{9b}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\rho}{T_a}; |x(\delta \gamma \rho + 1) + y \delta \gamma T_a| < \delta \sigma_0; \tag{9c}$$

Divide the area on the phase plane, each of which has one of the equations of force (9). The lines will be called the partition boundaries change managerial influence when dealing with an employee (information receiver), because at the moment they go through the point

Representing the evaluation communications culture (φ) (hereinafter for simplicity, we call it simply the representative point) there is a change of algorithm block management implementation.

In our discussion with an accuracy sufficient for methodological findings, we assume that the boundaries of regions are direct (Hartmann 1998) defined by (10a) and (10b). In Figure 3 are shown respectively by lines II and II-II.

$$y = -x \frac{\delta \gamma p + 1}{\delta \gamma T_a} + \frac{\sigma_0}{\gamma T_a}$$
 (10a)

$$y = -x \frac{\delta \gamma p + 1}{\delta \gamma T_a} - \frac{\sigma_0}{\gamma T_a}$$
 (10b)

Area to the right of the line II filled the integral curves, the position of which is determined by the business strategy (manager impacts on employee) and is described by the differential equation (9a). In this case, the equation of these curves has the form (11a).

$$x = \frac{T_a}{T_s \rho^2} \ln(1 - T_s \rho y) - \frac{T_a}{\rho} y + G$$
 (11a)

Area to the left of the line II-II is also filled with a family of integral curves (9b). They are the solution of the equation, which describes the impact on the employee's manager, according to (9b).

$$x = -\frac{T_a}{T_s \rho^2} \ln(1 - T_s \rho y) - \frac{T_a}{\rho} y + G$$
 (11b)

The area between the lines II and II-II family of lines filled, the equation of which (11c) determined by the characteristics of preparedness manager and employee to conduct the business

Process, ie combination of personality traits of participants with the characteristics of its organization (G) and coordinate characteristics (ρ).

$$y = \frac{\rho}{T_a} x + G \tag{11c}$$

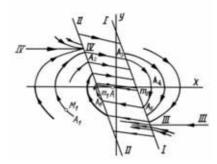


Figure 3. The phase portrait of the system business process management

Consider an example. In Figure 3 showing the point denoted m_1 . The left pane is a characteristic of the impact on the employee's manager, then on the basis of their knowledge worker chooses a strategy that goes to the integral curve A_1 .

If, in accordance with the characteristics of his professionalism and psychological image point falls on the line A_2A_3 , in which case it can organize their work on the policy defined by the integral curve $A_3A_4A_5$ (acting on the manager). If the characteristics of knowledge and psychological state manager harmonious same employee characteristics (area below the x-axis) , the representative point falls on the line A_5A_6 . Consequently, the harmony of the reaction of this manager will determine the output of the phase trajectory at point A on the line m_1m_2 . In our model, a direct hit on m_1m_2 performance condition is expected from consideration of the business process.

Analysis of families of the representative point trajectory in the phase plane shows that each of the families of curves (11a) and (11b) comprises a straight line parallel to the abscissa (direct III-III and IV-IV). Representative point, which determines the impact of the manager, the right of the boundary change management actions II and below the line III-III, can not get into the area above the line III-III.

Ie it describes the state of the manager, which is impossible to reach an understanding to work with the staff member. An analogous situation holds for the image point to the left of the line II-II and above the line IV-IV. This point describes the state employee, in which it is impossible to reach an understanding with the manager.

Direct III-III and IV-IV are considered reliable business boundaries. Therefore, our task is reduced to create the conditions that determine the choice of strategies in the organization of company management, which correspond to the curves in the zone between the lines III-III and IV-IV. So, to ensure the stability of the relationship manager and the employee is required to assess the adequacy of their culture (choice of strategy above the line and below the line IV-IV).

In our case, the level of culture is proposed to estimate as $(1-P_j, j=1,2,3,...)$, where P_j - the probability of occurrence of events: incorrect requirements imposed on the organization of relations between the manager and the employee; omissions in defining the requirements for employees; casual employees misunderstanding advantages offered to them technologies; systematic rejection employees technologies offered to them by managers; errors in management; clerical errors; environmental effects. Each of the features included in the set G is proposed to estimate the expert (on weightings appointed organizer of expertise) (Yurkevich 2008). Using such estimates can be selected business strategy services ranging between lines IV and S. It is possible to implement a data transfer algorithm (I) according to the methodology of (Butkovskiy 1985), taking into account constraints in the form of fiducial features (ρ).

Feature direct m_1m_2 is allocating points determined by estimates of psychological characteristics and professional training of managers and employees. Therefore, raises the problem: the constraints in the form of delay in the reaction of the control unit control (T_a), is required to develop the mechanism of selection of such a combination of values of characteristics of the organization control (G) and conditions of this business (ρ) in (11) that there is a phase trajectory passing through a given point of the corresponding region of the phase plane.

4. Inverse Model Control Strategy for the Formation of Relations Manager – Employee

Reliability of business processes is largely determined by the correctness of forming a plurality of (G), which characterizes the manager and employee. Each of them is to choose a coherent, but the most effective solution for the realization of a particular business process.

In our analysis, such a choice is offered to carry out on the basis of the most appropriate formulation of the problem of interaction. Due to the uncertainty of formalization decision each of the subjects, consider a modification of the Ramsey model as applied to the solution of the inverse problem of control (Sidel'nikov 2005).

In the traditional sense of using the Ramsey model as a functional criterion adopted maximized total (integral) an efficiency of the economic system, which is calculated by finding the control function, the time-dependent (Milyutin, Osmolovskii 1998). The time interval [0,T], where T - the planning horizon, usually considered business processes within the company using linear - homogeneous production function Y(t) = F(K(t), L(t)) (abbreviated Y(t) = F(K, L)), where Y(t)- output of productions, K(t)- changes in the amount of investments in time, L(t) - the dynamics of the labor force over time.

The assumption of linear homogeneity in the practical solution of the problem determines the performance ratios for. Characterization of factors affecting the issue Y at time t, C divide consumption and investment (capital) I: Y(t) = C(t) + I(t) = (1 - s(t))Y(t) + s(t)Y(t), where $0 \le s(t) \le 1$ of the savings rate is a control parameter $\exists t_1, t_2 : s(t_1) \ne 0, s(t_2) \ne 1$.

Production assets amortize in the tempo $\mu > 0$. This means that per unit time t becomes inoperable μ - part of fixed assets. Thus, the condition $\dot{K}(t) = s(t)F(K(t),L(t)) - \mu K(t)$.

It is implicitly assumed that the fixed assets are homogeneous throughout the considered period of time and technological changes of the production function does not occur. The volume of workforce (number of employees) increases with the rate of n $\dot{L}(t) = nL(t)$.

In our problem as a criterion to be maximizing in the planning period [0,T], we assume that the total specific energy consumption per employee with discounting can be written:

$$G(s) = \int_{0}^{T} \frac{C(t)}{L(t)} e^{-\delta t} dt = \int_{0}^{T} \frac{(1 - s(t))F(K(t), L(t))}{L(t)} e^{-\delta t} dt \to \max_{s(t)}$$

$$\tag{12}$$

where $\delta > 0$ - the discount rate that reflects the degree of preference for current consumption of the future. Now the task of selecting the control action, determining the optimal path between the lines I and II in Figure 3, can be formulated as a demand management choices s(t), transforming the business process from the initial state of

capital intensit
$$k_0 = \frac{K(0)}{L(0)}$$
 (capital- k_T) in the desired time $T\left[k_T = k(T) = \frac{K(T)}{L(T)}\right]$ and maximizes the functional (12).

Thus, the problem of managerial decision-making has been reduced to the statement: The input control system receives the current values of the arguments of the production function, which are considered as the costs of organizing production and labor costs of employees (managers and employees).

In accordance with the Ramsey model production function is expressed through the savings rate as a control parameter. As a criterion to be maximizing in the planning period, the total specific energy consumption is taken per employee discounting. As part of solving this problem is required to choose the path between the lines I and II in Figure 3, defined control taking the capital-labor ratio of the business process from the beginning of the planning period, state to state, maximizing the functional (12) at the end of the planning period.

Solution of this problem is offered by integrating the functions to find the total specific consumption and the subsequent finding an extreme of the derivative obtained control function, ie determine the required index of production and economic system as a common specific consumption per employee discounting.

Under dynamic loading block implementation of business processes (Figure 1) choice of management strategy at any given time depends on the characteristics of the state of the system (G). When describing this situation of uncertainty function $\xi(\varphi)$, which determines the amount of information that is used as a control action may differ materially from those estimated.

Now function $\xi(\varphi)$ can be specified by solving the inverse problem is ill-posed by the definition of the state of the managed object (Butkovskiy 1985). The function $\xi(\varphi)$ will be considered unknown, and load (disturbance) and output rate of the system under study can be regarded as known, ie given or received as a result of the direct problem of optimal control, and presented in the form of a distribution law. Thus, the model feedback control problem can be reduced to solving an equation with one unknown.

In the face of uncertainty, in this paper, as the law specified for the output index was used as a utility function of the exponential law of probability distribution functions of the company to achieve the target. In this case, as

the law changes the dynamic load on the most appropriate employee seems extreme distribution law (Sidel'nikov 2005), which simulates the power limit information transfer throughout the system (Figure 1). Thus, in general form, the model of the inverse problem of company management as productive and economic system can be written according to (Milyutin, Osmolovskii 1998; Leonard, Long 1992) as modified Ramsey model:

$$\psi_{\hat{n}}(n) = \int_{0}^{\infty} F_{\hat{u}}^{n}(x) F_{\hat{x}}(x) dx \tag{13}$$

where: $\psi_{\alpha}(n)$ - the probability distribution of utility functions as a common unit consumption per employee with discounting;

- \hat{u} random greatest value of labor costs per employee in the same project when stationary (in a stochastic sense) loading;
- \hat{x} in this paper, a random variable that characterizes the company's capital ratio at the beginning of work on the implementation of a project;
- n number of jobs offered to employees in the implementation of a project;
- \hat{n} The total number of jobs held by the company (in this model the random variable);

 $F_{ii}^{r}(x)$ - estimates of the distribution function of the load on the employee , the manager proposed in Block control after the completion of works;

 $F_{s}(x)$ - function of the load on the employee in the work of the Control technology.

Computer experiment showed that the distribution function of the maximum load $F_{\delta}^{n}(x)$ value to the employee

after the work n obeys extreme distributions and has the form:

$$F_{\mu}^{n}(x) = \exp\left\{-\exp\left[-\beta\left(x - \mu\frac{\ln n}{\beta}\right)\right]\right\}$$
, where β and μ - the parameters of the distribution.

Thus, in our case, the inverse problem reduces to finding the control function of the load on the employee in the work of the Control technology $F_{\circ}(x)$ as control functions of the state x from the known functions:

- 1. For the output parameter $\psi_{\hat{n}}(n)$ this utility function (Stockey 1993) in the form of probability, such as exponential, law;
- 2. The distribution function of the largest value after the n work load $F_{\hat{u}}^n(x)$, which obeys the extreme distributions.

Example implementation of this approach is presented in (Babishin et al 2013a; Babishin et al 2013b).

5. Conclusion

By solving the inverse problem of finding the control function $F_{\nu}(x)$ is offered in the form of a probability

distribution law on employee data load. The numerical values of the parameters of this law are the basis for criteria for choosing the best strategy with the use of the analytic hierarchy (Phillips, 1962).

Through calculating the greatest value of information load the proposed approach makes it possible to choose a strategy to optimize the production and the transition of the economic system from one qualitative state to another. On the basis of the revealed law of perception employee (and manager) information effects, depending on the indicators of production and economic system, proposes a methodology to support decision-making to prevent critical situations. Using the law of formation of stationary effects allows you to define the limit load estimation for employee manager proposed that in the context of the dynamics parameters of the market increases the likelihood of preemption failures in business processes.

The proposed methodology allows to increase the effectiveness of decisions with the help clarify vital signs production - economic system, such as the stability of the company's management, the competitiveness of its products, etc. Application of the developed model allows to perform functional restructuring of the company,

depending on the severity of their situations. Reducing the search for effective management decisions in a randomly changing environment will reduce the risk of forming such critical situations.

References

- Aaker, D. A., & Tyebjee, T. T. (1978). A model for the Selection of Interdevelopment R&D Projects. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 25(2), 30-36. http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TEM.1978.6447279
- Babishin, V. D., Dedkov, V. K. Davydov, A., Doroshenko, M. A. (2013). *The processing of control actions to ensure stable operation of complex technical systems*. Patent # 2475828. Registered in the State Register of Inventions on February 20, 2013.
- Babishin, V. D., Doroshenko, M. A., Jobbers, V. V. (2013). The modified method of regularization of ill-posed problems in the management of complex technical systems based on the method of choice stability coefficients. *Dual-use technologies*, 4, 2-5.
- Baker, B. M. (1984). A Network Flow Algorithm for Project Selection. *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, 35(9), 847-852. http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/jors.1984.167
- Butkovskiy, A. G. (1985). Phase portraits of controlled dynamic systems. Moscow: Nauka.
- Dudin, M. N., Lyasnikov, N. V., Sekerin, V. D., Veselovsky, M. Y., & Aleksakhina, V. G. (2014). The problem of forecasting and modelling of the innovative development of social economic systems and structures. *Life Science Journal*, 11(6), 535-538.
- Hartmann, S. (1998). A competitive genetic algorithm for resource-constrained project scheduling. *Naval Research Logistics*, 733-750. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6750(199810)45:7<733::AID-NAV5>3.0.CO:2-C
- Leonard, D., & Long, N. (1992). *Optimal control theory and static optimization in economics*. Cambridge Univ. Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139173551
- Milyutin, A. A., & Osmolovskii, N. P. (1998). *Calculus of Variations and Optimal Control*. American Mathematical Society.
- Orlov, A. A. (2012). Management. Risk management (p. 298). Moscow: Publishing House of the "Emerald".
- Phillips, D. L. (1962). A technique for the numerical solution of certain integral equations of the first kind. *II J. Assoc. Comput. Machin*, 9(1), 84-97. http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/321105.321114
- Pospelov, D. A. (1996). Situation Control, an Overview. Proceedings of Workshop on Russian Situation Control and Cybernetic. *Semiotic Modeling*, March, 7-37. Columbus: Battelle.
- Sidel'nikov, Y. (2005). Technology forecasting expert. Moscow: A good word.
- Stockey, N., & Lucas, R. (1993). Recursive methods in economic Dynamics (3rd ed.). Harward Univ. Press.
- Tormos, P., & Lova, A. A. (2001). A competitive heuristic solution technique for resource-constrained project scheduling. *Annals of Operations Research*, 102, 65-81. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1010997814183
- Trahtengerts, E. A., Ivanilov, E. L., & Yurkevich, E. V. (2007). *Modern computer technology management information and analytical activities*. Moscow: SINTEG.
- Yurkevich, E. V. (2008). Mechanisms to ensure functional reliability in education (p. 68). VINITI.
- Yurkevich, E. V., & Kolosov, B. V. (2011). Functional safety in small business (2nd ed. p. 330). Moscow: Max Press.
- Yurkevich, E. V., & Kryukova, L. N. (2013). Problems with regulating the functional reliability of means of measurement and control in industrial processes. *Measurement Techniques*, 56(1), 25-30. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11018-013-0153-x
- Yurkevich, E. V. (2011). Methodological features ensure reliable technology providing services commercial company. *Economic Strategy*, 11, 100-109.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).

Reviewer Acknowledgements

Asian Social Science wishes to acknowledge the following individuals for their assistance with peer review of manuscripts for this issue. Their help and contributions in maintaining the quality of the journal is greatly appreciated.

Asian Social Science is recruiting reviewers for the journal. If you are interested in becoming a reviewer, we welcome you to join us. Please find the application form and details at http://www.ccsenet.org/reviewer and e-mail the completed application form to ass@ccsenet.org.

Reviewers for Volume 10, Number 17

Abd. Rahim Md. Nor, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia

Aydogan Kars, Vanderbilt University, USA

Ayfer Aydiner Boylu, Hacettepe University, Turkey

Christian Tamas, "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi, Romania

Chunhua Gu, Donghua University, Shanghai, China

Critina Isabel Fernandes, NECE- Research Centre at University of Beira Interior, Portugal

Fasial Saeed, California State University Dominguez Hills, USA

Francisco Liébana-Cabanillas, University of Granada, Spain

Georgia Andreou, University of Thessaly, Greece

Hongyu Wang, University of International Business and Economics, China

Krishna Mishra, Sambhram Group of Intuitions, India

Mai-Lan Gustafsson, Christopher Newport University, USA

Mohammad Ismail, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Kelantan, Malaysia

Mohd Sukki Bin Othman, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Mustaffa Bin Abdullah, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Nabeel Althabhawi, University of Kufa, Iraq

Nicholas Lee, Chaoyang University of Technology, Taiwan

Nooshin Sabour Esmaeili, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Ornsiri Wimontham, Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University, Thailand

Rika Fatimah P.L., Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia

Rong Tan, Donghua University, Shanghai, China

Shobha Ajithan, Bharathiar University, India

Stefan Stieger, University of Vienna, Austria

Victor Gary Devinatz, Illinois State University, USA

Call for Manuscripts

Asian Social Science (ASS) is an international, double-blind peer-reviewed, open-access journal published by the Canadian Center of Science and Education. The journal focuses on the following topics: anthropology, sociology, politics, culture, history, philosophy, economics, education, management, arts, laws, linguistics and psychology. It provides an academic platform for professionals and researchers to contribute innovative work in the field. The journal carries original and full-length articles that reflect the latest research and developments in both theoretical and practical aspects of society and human behaviors.

The journal is published in both print and online versions. The online version is free access and download.

We are seeking submissions for forthcoming issues. All manuscripts should be written in English. Manuscripts from 3000–8000 words in length are preferred. All manuscripts should be prepared in MS-Word format, and submitted online, or sent to: ass@ccsenet.org

Paper Selection and Publishing Process

- a) Upon receipt of a submission, the editor sends an e-mail of confirmation to the submission's author within one to three working days. If you fail to receive this confirmation, your submission e-mail may have been missed.
- b) Peer review. We use a double-blind system for peer review; both reviewers' and authors' identities remain anonymous. The paper will be reviewed by at least two experts: one editorial staff member and at least one external reviewer. The review process may take two to three weeks.
- c) Notification of the result of review by e-mail.
- d) If the submission is accepted, the authors revise paper and pay the publication fee.
- e) After publication, the corresponding author will receive two hard copies of the journal, free of charge. If you want to keep more copies, please contact the editor before making an order.
- f) A PDF version of the journal is available for download on the journal's website, free of charge.

Requirements and Copyrights

Submission of an article implies that the work described has not been published previously (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture or academic thesis), that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere, that its publication is approved by all authors and tacitly or explicitly by the authorities responsible where the work was carried out, and that, if accepted, the article will not be published elsewhere in the same form, in English or in any other language, without the written consent of the publisher. The editors reserve the right to edit or otherwise alter all contributions, but authors will receive proofs for approval before publication.

Copyrights for articles are retained by the authors, with first publication rights granted to the journal. The journal/publisher is not responsible for subsequent uses of the work. It is the author's responsibility to bring an infringement action if so desired by the author.

More Information

E-mail: ass@ccsenet.org

Website: www.ccsenet.org/ass

Paper Submission Guide: www.ccsenet.org/submission

Recruitment for Reviewers: www.ccsenet.org/reviewer

The journal is peer-reviewed

The journal is open-access to the full text

The journal is included in:

SHERPA/RoMEO

Australian Business Deans Council

PKP Open Archives Harvester DOAJ ProOuest **EBSCOhost** Scopus

Google Scholar The Excellence in Research for Australia

Lockss Ulrich's

Open J-Gate Universe Digital Library

Asian Social Science Semimonthly

Publisher Canadian Center of Science and Education

Address 1120 Finch Avenue West, Suite 701-309, Toronto, ON., M3J 3H7, Canada

Telephone 1-416-642-2606 Fax 1-416-642-2608 E-mail ass@ccsenet.org Website

www.ccsenet.org/ass

