



Conference Proceedings

**Conference Proceedings of the
International Conference Human Resource
Development 2015**

Editor:

Dr. Siti Aisyah Bt Panatik Abdul Rahman

Coordinators:

Dr. Roziana Shaari

Prof. Madya Dr. Rozeyta Omar

Dr. Norashikin Mahmud

**Department of Human Resource Development
Faculty of Management
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia**

Copyright and Photocopying: Proceedings International Conference Human Resource Development © 2015. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored or transmitted in any form or by any means without the prior permission in writing from the copyright holder. Authorization to photocopy items for internal and personal use is granted by Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Published by:
Faculty of Management
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

ISBN 978-983-42745-3-5



Table of Content

Customer's Satisfaction as a Mediator Between Service Quality and Behavioral Intention.....1

Amina Usman Saleh, Encik Haris Bin Md Noor, A I Chikaji, and U S Ibrahim

Hubungan Antara Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Komitmen Organisasi Dalam Kalangan Staf Sokongan Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (Uthm).....8

Hawa Omar and Dr. Hj. Hamdan Abd. Kadir

Komunikasi Dan Penilaian Prestasi Dalam Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi : Persektif Keadilan Organisasi.....16

Norzalelawati Ahmad

Number of Working Hour among Self-Employed Women.....23

Najwa Yusof and Norsarah Yasmin Norzaki

Work Values and Job Satisfaction among Academician in Public and Private University30

Nor A'tikah Mat Ali and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Persepsi Keadilan sebagai Pendorong kepada Penyertaan Pegawai Pengurusan & Profesional di Salah Satu Agensi Sektor Awam.....39

Maslina Binti Samsudin

Hubungan Antara Faktor Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu Bapa Terhadap Minat Keusahawanan Pelajar MRSM45

Syazwani Yahaya dan Iklima Husna Abdul Rahim

Penerapan Kemahiran Keusahawanan Menerusi Kem Keusahawanan Dalam Kalangan Pelajar MRSM51

Norhauzan Mohd Zainuri dan Najwa Yahaya

A Review of Big Five Personality and Job Performance among employees57

Holila and Mastura Mahfar

Exploring The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction And Turnover Intention Of Women Teachers In The Secondary School Of Sibu, Sarawak63

Law Pin Siew, Nik Norsyamimi Md Nor, Surena Sabil and Heng Chin Siong

Assessing the Relationship between Human Capital and Spiritual Capital on Audit Firm's Performance68

Dewi Fariha Earnest, Nur Farhana Chamian and Maisarah Mohamed Saat

Employees Welfare And Social Benefits Of Multinational Oil Companies In Nigeria74

Umar Usman and Sany Sanuri Mohd Mokhtar

Psychosocial Work Environment and Psychological Strain Among Banking Employees.....79

Nurul Farhana Mohd Noordin and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Guru Pada Sekolah Dasar Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur85

Satriadi, Mohd Koharuddin Bin Mohd Balwi and Muammar Rosyadi Manullang

Wisdom of *Ulū al-Albāb* in Sustaining Human Resource Development in Muslim World.....94

Suhaimi Mhd Sarif

Penilaian Keberkesanan Program Latihan Pekerja Di Bahagian Ekonomi, Agensi Berita Nasional Malaysia (Bernama) Kuala Lumpur.....102

Dr. Fadilah Binti Zaini and Nur Hamiza Binti Ahmad

Barriers and Drivers of E-learning Sustainability in Nigerian Universities: A Review.....110

AU Alkali, Nur Naha Abu Mansoor, Bello Sabo and A I Chikaji

The Relationship of Personality and Knowledge Sharing.....120

Saleha Hummad and Khalil Md Nor

Analisis Awal Pembelajaran Transformatif Dalam Kalangan Bekas Penagih Dadah.....128

Normala Abu Hassan dan Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid

Perlaksanaan KIK dan Perkongsian Pengetahuan di MPJBT: Suatu Analisis.....136

Ungku Ahmad bin Ungku Zakaria, Muhammed Fauzi bin Othman, Mohd Azhar bin Abd Hamid dan Kassim bin Thukiman

The Effect of Motivational Training Program on Goal Efficacy among Potential Employees Receiving Scholarship148

Zainubiah Abd Aziz and Hamdan Abd Kadir

Exploring the Feasibility of High Performance Work Practices to Achieve Sustainability Culture160

Desmond Bong

Kaitan Antara Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi Dengan Keadilan Prosedur164

Anasty Majus, Mai Izzatul Syahirah Binti Mohamad Anuar, Nur Khairun Binti Roselan

Work Engagement and IT Literacy as a Mediator between HPWPs and Job Performance – The Resultant Effect170

A I Chikaji, Nur Naha Abu Mansor, A U Alkali, Amina Usman Saleh and Haris Bin Md Noor

Self-Directed Learning and Academic Performance of University Student in Morocco176

Nursyamilah Annuar and Roziana Shaari

Kaitan Antara Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi Dengan Motivasi Bekerja.....182

Roslawati Yahya

Relationship between organizational antecedent, work performance and knowledge sharing practices among academicians at Malaysia Research Universities.....190

Nurfarahin Jasmine See Abdullah and Ismi Arif Ismail

Lean manufacturing Practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry201

Sivaprakash Vatumalai and Norhani Bakri

Divine Work Motivation Lead To High Performance.....208

Dr. Zulkifli Khair, Dr. Mohd. Azhar Abd. Hamid and Prof. Dr. Rosman Md. Yusoff

Gaya Pengurusan Konflik Dalam Kalangan Pekerja.....213

Hamidah Abdul Rahman, Azizah Rajab, Shahrollah Abdul Wahab, Nur Syazwin Mansor and Hidayatul Pertiwi Daim

Faktor Tekanan Kerja Dalam Kalangan Pekerja219

Hamidah Abdul Rahman, Azizah Rajab, Siti Aisyah Panatik, Nursyazwin Mansor and Siti Hanisah Dzulkifli

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment: The Mediating Affect of Empowerment226

Azman Ismail, Nurshahira Ibrahim, Nor Azima Ahmad, Nurasilah Kithuru Mohamed, Siti Salwa Salim and Munirah Hanim Yusuf

Mentor's Role in Mentorship as a Method of Developing Mentee's Self-confident in Performing a Task235

Azman Ismail, Nor' Ain Abdullah, Nor Shaffika Izzaty Zaidey, Asmuni Ab Ghani, Najihah Omar

Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank, Kuala Lumpur244

Norhani Bakri dan Nur Farah Hane Rosli

Influence of Work-Life Balance towards Level of Job Satisfaction among Research Academics in Malaysia.....253

Siti Khadijah Zainal Badri and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Self-efficacy towards Career Satisfaction among Female Engineers.....261

Ainul Syakira binti Mahidi @ Mohyedin and Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman

Emotional Intelligence Theory Revisited269

Halimah M. Yusof

Effect of Leader-Member Exchange, Psychological Empowerment, Workplace Spirituality towards Transformational Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Nurses.....276

Junaidah Yusof, Hashim Fauzy Yaacob and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Work-Family Facilitation, Job Satisfaction and Psychological Strain Among Malaysian Female Employees285

Ruhaya Hussin

Kecerdasan Emosi Dan Stres Dalam Kalangan Ibu Tunggal Bekerja: Satu Senario290

Cathy Suhaila Binti Abdullah dan Hamdan Bin Hj. Abd. Kadir

Narrowing FRLT Gap in the Aspect of Culture in Malaysia298

Pavani Subramanian

The Mediation Effect of Burnout and Moderation Effect of Social Support on Work-Family Conflict -Turnover Intention Relationship among Malaysia Women Engineers: A Proposed Framework.....308

Rozanti A. Hamid, Ungku Norulkamar Ungku Ahmad and Salmiah Mohd Amin

The Relationship between Individual Factors and Organizational Support with Career Development316

Salasiah Abbas

Kajian Konseptual Kecerdasan Emosi Dan Budaya Usahawan330

Jimisiah Jaafar dan Hamdan Abdul Kadir

The Influence Of Employee Silence On Work-Family Enrichment And Work-Family Conflict Among Employees Of Tertiary Educational Institutions In Nigeria335

Malami Umar and Zaiton Hassan

Pengaruh Tret Personaliti Lima Faktor Terhadap Kegembiraan.....343

Mas Hanisah Elias and Salwa Abdul Patah

The Relationship between Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction among Housemen352

Christina Tee Siew Khiaw

Job Embeddedness and Intellectual Capital Role in Predicting Turnover Intentions of Engineers in the Manufacturing Firms: A Moderating Effect of Self-efficacy367

Idris Osman and Fauziah Noordin

Human Resource Management Orientation And Market Orientation Effect On Perceived Organizational Performance Mediated By Innovation377

Massoud Alam Dad Mohammadi , Mohd Noor Azli bin Ali Khan, Meisam Karami, Seyyed Reza Sadatifar, Reza Ghasemi, Mohsen Heydari and Ali Malekshahi

Kepimpinan Kreatif Islamik Dalam Organisasi: Suatu Perbahasan Awal....389

Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid, Muhammed Fauzi Othman, Zulkifli Hamisan@Khair, Kassim Thukiman

Relationship between Institutional Pressure, Intellectual Capital and Organisational Performance400

Dauda Mohammed Atiyaye, Roya Anvari, Bala Salisu Mohammed Sangiru Umar, A I Chikaji

The Role of Perceived Organizational Support and Emotional Intelligence towards Workplace Deviance among Teachers407

Siti Aisyah Panatik, Tan Ah Meng, Hamidah Abdul Rahman, Azizah Rajab

Peranan Kepimpinan Transformasi terhadap Motivasi Pekerja di Sebuah Kerajaan Tempatan di Johor416

Shah Rollah Abdul Wahab, Noorsyazwani Sahari, Azizah Rajab, Mohd Effandi Yusoff dan Roziana Shaari

Managing Stress at Workplace Using The Rational-Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) Approach.....420

Mastura Mahfar and Aslan Amat Senin

Human Capital and Human Resource Development in Islamic Perspective .429

Hashim Fauzy Yaacob

The ‘OCTAPAC’ Culture As A Core Component Of HRD Climate: A Survey439

Roziana Shaari, Abdul Rahman Mohammed Hamed Al Aofi, Azizah Rajab and Shah Rollah Abdul Wahab

The Effect of Transfer Climate on Transfer Training449

Yip Foon Yee and Norashikin Mahmud

Pembelajaran Informal: Satu Kajian Ke Atas Pegawai Barisan Hadapan Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Di Pintu Masuk Selatan, Johor Bahru.458

Prof Madya Dr Ishak Mad Shah and Suwati binti Suratman

The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance among Engineering Students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia466

Azra Ayue binti Abdul Rahman and Siti Zubaidah binti Zainon

Transactional Leadership as a Moderator between Self-Leadership Strategies and Innovative Behavior.....472

Intan Marfarrina Omar and Norashikin Mahmud

Exploring Employees’ Followership and Cognitive Style482

Nur Faezah binti Mahmud and Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman

Kesedaran Ergonomik Dalam Kalangan Operator Pengeluaran Di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru.....489

Kassim Thukiman dan Syahirah Aqilah Othman

Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal Dan Kesejahteraan Psikologi Dalam Organisasi: Satu Perspektif.....501

Siti Salmah Binti Sedik dan Hamdan Bin Abd Kadir

Kesan Komitmen Keatas Hubungan Antara Gaya Kepimpinan Dan Kerja Berpasukan Dalam Cawangan Trafik PDRM.....	513
Bakri Hj. Zainal Abidin dan Noor Azmi Mohamad	
Innovative Work Behavior and the Way Forward in Human Resource Development.....	519
Hamdy Abdullah, Ahmad Munir Salleh, Mohd Shaladdin Muda and Khatijah Omar	
Women in the Workforce.....	525
Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman	
Stress as a Mediator of the Relationship between Discrimination in Career Development and Intent to Quit.....	531
Faatin Zulaikha Amir and Norashikin Mahmud	
Group–Level Safety Climate As The Antecedent Of Safety Performance....	540
Nor Hidayah Abd Radzaz and Siti Aisyah Abdul Rahman	
Determinants Of Job Satisfaction Among Employees: An Analysis In The Indonesian Industrial Setting.....	545
Muhammed Fauzi bin Othman , Muhammad Arief Eka Putra and Pocut Mudrika	
Peranan Jurulatih Program Latihan Khidmat Negara.....	553
Dr. Mohd Nasir Markom, PM Dr. Nik Hasnaa Nik Mahmood dan Tn Hj Mohd Shukri Hj Nain	
Pembangunan Sumber Manusia yang Mampan di era Globalisasi.....	568
Ahmad Shukri Mohd. Nain dan Husain Mahmood	

Customer's Satisfaction as a Mediator Between Service Quality and Behavioral Intention

Amina Usman Saleh¹, Encik Haris Bin Md Noor¹, A I Chikaji², and U S Ibrahim³

¹Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM) Parit Raja, Batu Pahat, Johor Bahru

²Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) Skudai Johor Bahru Malaysia

³The Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, Yobe State

Abstract

A systematic review of the literature on service quality and behavioural intention unearths numerous studies that report on the relationship between service quality and behavioural intention. However, such studies seldom investigate the mediating power of customer's satisfaction arising out of the customer's unique experience of quality as experienced in a specific service setting. In view of this, this paper proposes a conceptual model hypothesizing how tourist's satisfaction with tourist experiences mediates the relationship between the quality of service experienced and consequently behavioural intentions (e.g., repeat visit and word of mouth recommendation)

Keywords: customer's satisfaction, service quality, behavioural intention, tourist

1. Introduction

Researchers have proposed that the patronage of business organisation like ecotourism depends not only on the natural wonders they showcase and the state-of-the art facilities they avail tourists, but most significantly on the experience such places offered the tourists and the resultant tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Meng, Tepanon and Uysal, 2008; Al-Ababneh, 2013). In view of this, we seek to empirically verify the proposition that the post-visit behavioural propensities of tourists is a function of their satisfaction with the services rendered to them, and this satisfaction in turn is predicated on the quality of the service offered.

In this paper therefore, we seek to present the result of a systematic literature review on the three constructs of service quality, tourist satisfaction, and tourist behavioural intentions.

1.1 Customer

Goldner (2006), A customer is any organization or individual with which you have done business over the past twelve months".

Grigoroudis and Siskos (2009) provide definition for 'customer' upon two approaches: with reference to loyalty, a customer is the person that assesses the quality of the offered product and services and on process oriented approach, the customer is the person or group that receives the work output. Customer means the party to which the goods are to be supplied or service rendered by the supplier. A customer (sometimes known as a client, buyer, or purchaser) is the recipient of a good, service, product or idea, obtained from a seller, vendor, or supplier for a monetary or other valuable consideration.

1.2 Satisfaction

Satisfaction has been broadly defined by Vavra (1997) as a satisfactory post-purchase experience with a product or service given an existing purchase expectation.

1.3 Customer's Satisfaction

According to Westbrook and Reilly (1983), customer satisfaction is an emotional response to the experience provided by, associated particular product or services purchased, retail outlets, or even molar patterns of behaviour such as shopping and buyer behaviour, as well as the overall market place.

Barry and Parasuraman (1991) argue that since customers' satisfaction is influenced by the availability of customer's service, the provision of quality customer service has become a major concern of all businesses. Customer satisfaction is product or service. It is the result of an evaluative process that contrasts pre-purchase expectation with perception of performance during and after the consumption experience.

Merchant Account Glossary point out that, customer satisfaction is an ambiguous and abstract concept and the actual manifestation of the state of satisfaction will vary from person to person and product/service to product/services. Some of the definitions available from web are compiled below:

1. Customer satisfaction, a business term, is a measure of how product and services supplied by a company meet or surpass customer expectation.
2. Customer satisfaction is an ambiguous and abstract concept and the actual manifestation will vary from person to person and product/services to product/services.

1.4 Service Quality

Lewis and Booms (1983) defined service quality as a measure of how well the service level delivered matches customer expectations and, delivery quality service means conforming to customer expectations on a consistent basis. (Parasuraman et al., 1985: 42). Related to this point of view, Smith and Houston (1982) claimed the relation between confirmation and disconfirmation of expectations on satisfaction with services (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Based on this paradigm, SERVQUAL which is the most known and used also criticized model in measuring service quality in the literature was developed by Parasuraman et al. (1985) and Zeithaml et al. (1988).

1.5 Behavioural Intention

Behavioural Intentions have been defined in the Theory of Reason Action/ Theory of Planned Behaviour (TRA/TPB) as: the amount of effort one is willing to exert to attain a goal (Ajzen, 1991), “behavioural plans that...enable Attainment of a behavioural goal” (Ajzen, 1996), or simply “proximal goals” (Bandura, 1997). The measures section presents examples of behavioural intention measures (guidelines for construction of these measures can be found on a TPB webpage; XX). In essence, intentions can be conceived of as goal states in the expectancy value tradition that are the result of a conscious process that takes time, requires some deliberation, and focuses on consequences (Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001).

1.6 Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality

Since customer satisfaction has been considered to be based on the customer’s experience on a particular service encounter, (Cronin & Taylor, 1992) it is in line with the fact that service quality is a determinant of customer satisfaction, because service quality comes from outcome of the services from service providers in organizations. Another author stated in his theory that “definitions of customer satisfaction relate to a specific transaction (the difference between predicted service and perceived service) in contrast with ‘attitudes’, which are more enduring and less situational-oriented,” (Lewis, 1993, p. 4-12) This is in line with the idea of Zeithaml et al (2006, p. 106-107). Regarding the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality, Oliver (1993) first suggested that service quality would be antecedent to customer satisfaction regardless of whether these constructs were cumulative or transaction-specific. Some researchers have found empirical supports for the view of the point mentioned above.

1.7 Tourist

Generally, the term ‘tourist’ refers to a person who spends a certain amount of time or travels a specified distance away from home (Chambers, 2000), whether it is within his country of residence or outside it, for a period of more than 24 hours (Mathieson and Wall, 1982) and for the purpose of leisure (recreation, holidays, health, studies, religion, sports) and or business, family, mission, meeting (World Tourism Organisation, 1981). Similarly, Smith (1989) in Stronza (2001:265) described a tourist as a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing a change. However, though sufficient for lay usages, this one-fit-all definition presents a decidedly shallow conception of the tourist as a hedonist seeker of pleasure. A better view is proffered by Cohen (1979) who appreciates the tourist from vantage point of the experiences tourists are after.

2. Literature Review

Customer satisfaction is indeed a mediator between service quality and behavioural intention. Generally, customer behavioural intentions involve significant decision-making, particularly in repurchase decisions (White and Yu, 2005). In the context of behavioural intentions, customer satisfaction has been related according to the literature (Dabholkar and Thorpe, 1994; Kang et al., 2004; Lin and Hsieh, 2007; Clemes et al., 2008; Pollack, 2009). Furthermore, customer satisfaction has been suggested as having a direct impact on behavioural intentions in the airline, restaurant, technology and tourism sectors (Birgelen et al., 2006; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Namkung and Jang, 2007; Bosque and Martin, 2008; Chen, 2008; Ladhari et al., 2008). In highly competitive markets, customer satisfaction is a key driver of performance, making its measurement and management crucial (Matzler et al., 2008).

However, it is noted that comfort, familiar environmental ambience and compatible environmental values are some of the issues that will enhance tourists' emotional satisfaction (Okello and Yerian, 2009). Bosque and Martin (2008) showed that tourism satisfaction consists of attitudes and prior beliefs, post-experience assessments and future behavioural intentions. However, the actual factors that enhance tourist joy include a relaxed, familiar and comfortable environment, which can be subtle and not obvious, and so this needs a strong appreciation of customer behaviour and needs (Decrop, 1999). These notions connote the importance of service quality and the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Basically, satisfaction can be defined as 'a judgement that a product, or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under or over fulfillment' (Oliver, 1997). It has been recognized that tourism satisfaction level can be attributed to different destination attributes including tangible products and prices to intangible service quality (Lounsbury and Hoopes, 1985; Stevens, 1992; Crompton and Love, 1995; Qu and Li, 1997; Ryan, 1999; Yu and Goulden, 2006). Tourist satisfaction therefore encompasses all activities tourists participate in, while staying at a destination, and their perceptions of service quality (Whipple and Thach, 1988; Murphy and Pritchard, 1997; Augustyn and Ho, 1998; Hsu, 2003; Yu and Goulden, 2006). Furthermore, as suggested by Hui et al. (2007), quality services and tourist satisfaction develop long-term relationship with tourists and in turn bring about destination loyalty. It is also elucidated by Campo and Yagüe (2008) that perceived quality is the primary antecedent of tourist loyalty to tour operator. In this sense, customers' attitudinal loyalty to a brand can be strengthened by their satisfaction with the brand (Li and Petrick, 2008). Therefore, providing high-quality service and ensuring customer satisfaction are widely recognized as important factors leading to the success of the tourism industries (Stevens et al., 1995). However, limited research has addressed the structure and antecedents of the concept importance of service quality (Wilkins et al., 2006). Gronroos (1984) adapted the disconfirmation paradigm to the measurement of service quality, in addition to his proposition of a two-dimensional model to measure service quality. The first dimension, technical quality, referred to the outcome of the service performance. The second dimension, functional quality, was interpreted as the subjective perception of the way the service was delivered. More recently, Ko and Pastore (2005) developed a hierarchical model by adapting Brady and Cronin's (2001) and Dabholkar et al.'s (1996) models, using it in their study of service quality in the recreational sports industry. The model consisted of four primary dimensions, some of which have the following sub-dimensions: (i) interaction quality: client– employee interaction and inter-client interaction; (ii) environmental quality: ambient condition, design and equipment; (iii) programme quality: operating time, information and range of activity programmes; and (iv) outcome quality: valence, physical change and sociability (Ko and Pastore, 2005, p. 91).

In line with the aforementioned model, Shonk (2006, p. 21) applied a hierarchical model to the study of service quality for sports tourism industry. The model comprised four primary dimensions and a number of relevant sub-dimensions, namely: (i) access to the destination where the event occurred; (ii) the venue for the event; (iii) the accommodation during the stay; and (iv) the sport contest. As a consequence, these two models supported the multidimensional conceptualization of service quality in the recreational sports industry, and suggested that satisfaction with the event influenced the tourists' intentions to return to the event.

In terms of applying a hierarchical modelling approach to conceptualize service quality in a variety of different areas, a hierarchical model reflecting service quality perceptions in the health care industry was explored by Dagger et al. (2007, p. 131). The model encompassed four primary dimensions: interpersonal quality, technical quality, environment quality and administrative quality. To each aforementioned dimension, several sub-dimensions were attached respectively, namely: (i) interaction and relationship; (ii) outcome and expertise; (iii) atmosphere and tangibles; and (iv) timeliness, operation and support. The study applying the model concluded that satisfaction was typically modelled as mediating the link between service quality and behavioural intentions and that customers' overall perceptions of service quality continued to play an important role in generating customer outcomes (Dagger et al., 2007). The study results were highly similar to those presented by Clemes et al. (2007), whose hierarchical model to reflect service quality perceptions in the higher education industry was developed. The hierarchical model of higher education service quality contained three primary dimensions: interaction quality, physical environment quality and outcome quality. Each primary dimension was made up of at least three sub-dimensions. For instance, interaction quality was composed of four sub-dimensions: academic staff, administration staff, academic staff availability and course content. Physical environment quality comprised three sub-dimensions: library atmosphere, physical appeal and social factors. Outcome quality was composed of personal development, academic development and career opportunity (Clemes et al., 2007, p. 310). The results of the empirical study reemphasized the application of a hierarchical factor structure, such as those developed by Clemes et al. (2007), Brady and Cronin (2001), and Dabholkar et al. (1996) to conceptualize and measure service quality. More fundamentally, in the context of tourism industry, Caro and Roemer (2006) proposed an integrated model of service quality in an attempt to fill a gap in the literature on service quality. The model was developed in accordance with the hierarchy of perceptions as proposed

by Brady and Cronin (2001). The model was made up of three primary dimensions, namely, personal interaction, physical environment and outcome, which were divided into seven sub-dimensions respectively: conduct, expertise, problem solving, equipment, ambient conditions, waiting time and value. In this regard, the conceptualization of a multidimensional service quality perception was established according to the results of their study.

To sum up, the issue of behavioural intentions has received considerable attention in different areas; however, there are few studies in the tourism field conducted to combine identifiable variables in relation to service quality and customer satisfaction into a model. Nonetheless, it is noted that by investigating the relationship between importance and satisfaction from the perspective of tourists, Truong and King (2009) examined a number of variables, including socio-demographics and travel characteristics, and compared the importance that travellers attach to various destination attributes with their associated satisfaction with the destination's various tourism products. In addition, study Nowacki (2009) attempted to verify a model of relations between motivation, quality of product of attraction, benefits, satisfaction and behavioural intentions of visiting people. Mak et al. (2010) also examined the factors affecting the service quality of the tour guiding profession. In their research, the factors identified were classified into six categories: unhealthy business practices, market domination, immaturity of tourist market, changing tourist behaviour, intense competition between inbound tour operators and human resource issues. The extant literature, in this regard, presents the relevant theories regarding the conceptualization of behavioural intentions and the related constructs.

3. Conceptual Framework

The paper developed a conceptual framework which aims to examine the predictive ability as well as the nature and strength of relationship between customer satisfaction, behavioural intentions and service quality (figure 1). All constructs were conceptualised to fit better into the current study setting. Based on the original view of Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), service quality was conceptualised as a function for the differences between expectation and performance along with tourism attributes such as food quality, service transaction, environment, and its overall images.

Customer satisfaction has been conceptualized in this study as the patrons' cumulative post-purchase affective evaluation based on the most recent services consumption experience at the tourism. However, the behavioural intention construct has been conceptualized as a customer's likelihood of revisiting the tourism.

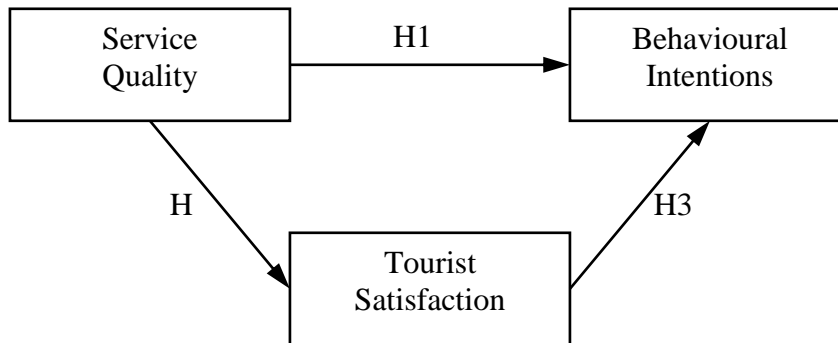


Figure 1: Conceptual Model: Service Quality, Tourist Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions

3.1 The Direct Effect of Service Quality on Behavioural Intentions

Substantial empirical and theoretical evidence in the literature suggests that there is a direct link between service quality and behavioural intentions (Bitner, 1990; Bolton and Drew, 1991a). Among the various behavioural intentions, considerable emphasis has been placed on the impact of service quality in determining repeat purchase and customer loyalty (Jones and Farquhar, 2003). As pointed out by Bolton (1998), service quality influences a customer's subsequent behaviour, intentions and preferences. When a customer chooses a provider that provides service quality that meets or exceeds his or her expectations, he or she is more likely to choose the same provider again. Besides, Cronin and Taylor (1994) also found that service quality has a significant effect on behavioural intentions. Other studies which support that behavioural intentions are positively influenced by service quality

include Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996), Cronin and Taylor (1992, 1994), Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000), and Choi et al. (2004). Hence, it was hypothesized that:

H1: Service quality is positively related to behavioural intentions.

3.2 The Direct Effect of Customer Satisfaction on behavioural Intentions

A wide variety of studies has been done to support the link between customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Fornell, 1992; Rust and Zahorik, 1993; Taylor and Baker, 1994; Patterson and Spreng, 1997). Bearden and Teel (1983, p. 21) argue that ‘customer Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, Behavioural Intentions, satisfaction is important to the marketer because it is generally assumed to be a significant determinant of repeat sales, positive word of mouth, and customer loyalty’. Similarly, Anderson and Sullivan (1993) have also argued that the more satisfied the customers are, the greater is their retention. This view is also supported by Ranaweera and Prabhu (2003) study that the effects of customer satisfaction on customer retention are found to be significant and positive. Specifically, the levels of customer satisfaction will influence the level of repurchase intentions and this is supported by past research in a wide variety of studies (Rust and Zahorik, 1993; Taylor and Baker, 1994; Patterson and Spreng, 1997; Bolton, 1998; Hellier et al., 2003). On the basis of the above, it was then hypothesized that:

H2: Customer satisfaction is positively related to behavioural intentions.

The Relative Importance of Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction for the Prediction of Behavioural Intentions

Both service quality and customer satisfaction have been widely recognised as antecedents of behavioural intentions. However, it is believed that restaurant owners would like to know which of these variables exerts the strongest influence on behavioural intentions. A recent study reveals that customer satisfaction is a better predictor of intentions to repurchase than service quality (Ravald and Gronroos, 1996). Evidence is provided by Cronin and Taylor (1992) who found a much stronger relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions than the relationship between service quality and behavioural intentions. Academically, from a practitioner’s point of view, customer satisfaction is deemed to be more influential on behavioural intentions (Dabholkar, 1995). Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1994) also revealed in their analyses that customer satisfaction is likely to achieve a greater level of statistical significance when both service quality and customer satisfaction have a significant effect on behavioural intentions.

H3: Customer satisfaction will be a stronger predictor of behavioural intention than service quality

4. Conclusion

Customer satisfaction has high impact on the relationship between service quality and behavioural intentions. Furthermore, tourist’ satisfaction with tourist experiences mediates the relationship between the quality of service experienced and consequently behavioural intentions (e.g., repeat visit and word of mouth recommendation). Customer satisfaction is essential to corporate survival (Pizam and Ellis, 1999), and has generally been found to lead to positive behavioural intentions such as return, repurchase and purchase recommendation in many tourism and hospitality studies (Dube et al., 1994; Bojanic, 1996).

5. References

- Anderson EW. 1998. Customer satisfaction and word of mouth. *Journal of Services Research* 1(1): 5–17.
- Augustyn M, Ho SK. 1998. Service quality and tourism. *Journal of Travel Research* 37(1): 71–75.
- Bosque IRD, Martin HS. 2008. Tourist satisfaction a cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research* 35(2): 551–573.
- Birgelen M van., Jong A de., Ruyter K de. 2006. Multi-channel service retailing: the effects of channel performance satisfaction on behavioural intentions. *Journal of Retailing* 82(4): 367–377.
- Brady MK, Cronin JJ. 2001. Some new thoughts on conceptualizing perceived service: a hierarchical approach. *Journal of Marketing* 65(3): 34–49.

- Campo S, Yagüe MJ. 2008. Tourist loyalty to tour operator: effects of price promotions and tourist effort. *Journal of Travel Research* 46(3): 318–326
- Caro LM, Roemer E. 2006. Developing a multidimensional and hierarchical service quality model for the travel and tourism industry (Working Paper Rep. No. 06/18). Bradford University: Bradford, UK.
- Chen CF. 2008. Investigating structural relationships between service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions for air passengers: evidence from Taiwan. *Transportation Research Part A* 42(4): 709–717
- Chen CF, Tsai DC. 2007. How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism Management* 28(4): 1115–1122.
- Clemes MD, Gan CEC, Kao TH. 2007. University student satisfaction: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education* 17(2): 292–325
- Clemes MD, Gan CEC, Kao TH, Choong M. 2008. An empirical analysis of customer satisfaction in international air travel. *Innovative Marketing* 4(1): 49–62.
- Crompton JL, Love LL. 1995. The predictive value of alternative approaches to evaluating quality of a festival. *Journal of Travel Research* 34(1): 11–24
- Chioveanu I. 2008. Advertising, brand loyalty and pricing. *Games and Economic Behavior* 64(1): 68–80
- Churchill GA, Surprenant C. 1982. An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research* 19(4): 491–504.
- Dabholkar PA, Thorpe DI. 1994. Does customer satisfaction predict shopper intentions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behaviour* 7: 161–171.
- Dabholkar PA, Thorpe DI, Rentz JO. 1996. A measure of service quality for retail stores: scale development and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 24(1): 3–16.
- Dagger TS, Sweeney JC, Johnson LW. 2007. A hierarchical model of health service quality: scale development and investigation of an integrated model. *Journal of Service Research* 10(2): 123–142.
- Decrop A. 1999. Tourists' decision-making and behavior processes. In *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism*, Pizam A, Mansfield Y (eds). Haworth: New York; 103–133.
- Gronroos C. 1984. A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing* 18(4): 36–44.
- Hsu C. 2003. Mature motorcoach travelers' satisfaction: a preliminary step toward measurement development. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* 27(3): 291–309
- Hui TK, Wan D, Ho A. 2007. Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism Management* 28(4): 965–975
- Kang SS, Okamoto N, Donovan HA. 2004. Service quality and its effect on customer satisfaction and customer behavioural intentions: hotel and ryokan guests in Japan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* 9(2): 189–202.
- Ko YJ, Pastore DL. 2005. A hierarchical model of service quality for the recreational sport industry. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 14(2): 84–97.
- Ladhari R, Brun I, Morales M. 2008. Determinants of dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioural intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 27(4): 563–573
- Li X, Petrick JF. 2008. Examining the antecedents of brand loyalty from an investment model perspective. *Journal of Travel Research* 47(1): 25–34.
- Lounsbury JW, Hoopes LL. 1985. An investigation of factors associated with vacation satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research* 17(1): 1–13.
- Matzler K, Füller J, Renzl B, Herting S, Späth S. 2008. Customer satisfaction with Alpine ski areas: the moderating effects of personal, situational, and product factors. *Journal of Travel Research* 46(4): 403–413
- Murphy PE, Pritchard M. 1997. Destination price value perceptions: an examination of origin and seasonal influences. *Journal of Travel Research* 35(3): 16–22
- Namkung Y, Jang SJ. 2007. Does food quality really matter in restaurants? Its impact on customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 31(3): 387–410.
- Okello MM, Yerian S. 2009. Tourist satisfaction in relation to attractions and implications for conservation in the protected areas of the Northern Circuit, Tanzania. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(5): 605–625.
- Oliver RL. 1997. *Satisfaction: A Behavioural Perceptive on the Consumer*. McGraw-Hill: Singapore.
- Pollack BL. 2009. Linking the hierarchical service quality model to customer satisfaction and loyalty. *Journal of Services Marketing* 23(1): 42–50.
- Qu HL, Li I. 1997. The characteristics and satisfaction of mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong. *Journal of Travel Research* 35(4): 37–41.

- Ryan C. 1999. From the psychometrics of SERVQUAL to sex: Measurements of tourism satisfaction. In *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism*, Pizam A, Mansfield Y (eds). The Haworth Hospitality Press: New York; 267–286.
- Shonk DJ. 2006. Perceptions of service quality, satisfaction and the intent to return among tourists attending a sporting event. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University: Columbus
- Stevens BF. 1992. Price value perceptions of travelers. *Journal of Travel Research* 31(2): 44–48.
- Truong TH, King B. 2009. An evaluation of satisfaction levels among Chinese tourists in Vietnam. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 11(6): 521–535.
- Whipple TW, Thach SV. 1988. Group tour management: does good service produce satisfied customers?
- Wilkins H, Merrilees B, Herington C. 2006. Towards an understanding of total service quality in hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 26(4): 840–863
- Yu L, Goulden M. 2006. A comparative analysis of international tourists' satisfaction in Mongolia. *Tourism Management* 27(6): 1331–1342

Hubungan Antara Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Komitmen Organisasi Dalam Kalangan Staf Sokongan Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (Uthm)

Hawa Omar¹ and Dr. Hj. Hamdan Abd. Kadir²

¹ Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)
Email: hawa@uthm.edu.my

² Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)
Email: hamdanabdulkadir@yahoo.com

Abstrak

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk melihat hubungan antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM), Pt. Raja, Batu Pahat, Johor. Kajian ini melibatkan responden seramai 202 orang staf bukan akademik di bawah klasifikasi perkhidmatan pentadbiran dan sokongan (N) yang terdiri daripada Kumpulan Sokongan I (Gred N27 hingga N40) dan Kumpulan Sokongan II (Gred N17 hingga N26) dalam jenis skim perkhidmatan kumpulan pelaksana, mengikut Sistem Saraan Malaysia (SSM), Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam Malaysia. Kajian ini adalah berbentuk kuantitatif dan menggunakan soal selidik sebagai instrumen kajian. Borang Soal Selidik Asertif Rathus (1973) digunakan bagi mengukur tingkah laku asertif, sementara Borang Soal Selidik Komitmen Organisasi Allen dan Meyer (1990) digunakan untuk mengukur komitmen organisasi. Data yang terkumpul dianalisis menggunakan Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Versi 19.0. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan tahap tingkah laku asertif dan tahap komitmen staf sokongan UTHM berada pada tahap sederhana. Analisis Korelasi Pearson menunjukkan terdapat hubungan yang signifikan secara positif pada tahap yang rendah di antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi.

Kata Kunci: Tingkah Laku Asertif dan Komitmen Organisasi

1. Pengenalan

Organisasi sentiasa berusaha untuk melahirkan pekerja yang bertanggungjawab serta memiliki tahap komitmen yang tinggi dalam melaksanakan tugas yang diamanahkan sehingga mencapai objektif organisasi. Komitmen menurut Asri dan Hamrila (2007) merupakan suatu tali perhubungan di antara pekerja dengan organisasi. Komitmen dilihat dari pelbagai perspektif yang merujuk kepada pelbagai kriteria, situasi dan gelagat tingkah laku pekerja. Oleh yang demikian, sekiranya pekerja mempunyai tingkah laku yang positif, maka pekerja akan mencorakkan budaya kerja yang baik dalam organisasi, begitu juga sebaliknya. Organisasi yang perihatin perlu memantau tingkah laku pekerja supaya prestasi kerja yang terhasil adalah selaras dengan halatuju organisasi serta membantu mencapai matlamat organisasi.

Persekitaran luaran yang semakin mencabar akibat dari faktor-faktor luaran seperti globalisasi, ketidakpastian ekonomi, persaingan sengit, dan inovasi dalam teknologi memerlukan sumber manusia yang mempunyai komitmen tinggi terhadap organisasi. Cabaran globalisasi masa kini menuntut generasi muda untuk memiliki daya saing dan ketahanan dalam pelbagai aspek seperti kekuatan mentaliti, perancangan dan tindakan (Mohamed Anwar, Nur Ain dan Zakaria, 2013). Mengikut Wright, McMahan dan McWilliams (1994) sumber manusia adalah amat penting, pekerja merupakan satu-satunya sumber bagi kelebihan bersaing. Malahan pekerja yang komited merupakan kunci kepada daya saing organisasi (Dessler, 1993).

Di Malaysia, pekerja dalam golongan kakitangan awam merupakan tulang belakang kepada pentadbiran negara. Golongan ini dipertanggungjawabkan dalam memastikan pelaksanaan pelbagai polisi dan program pembangunan

dapat dijayakan. Dalam pelaksanaan ini, para pekerja yang berada dalam sektor awam mempunyai dwi-peranan bukan sahaja sebagai aset organisasi tetapi juga sebagai pelaksana aspirasi kerajaan dalam membangunkan negara. Justeru, sektor ini bukan sahaja sebahagian daripada asas pembangunan negara tetapi juga menjadi nadi penggerak misi dan visi kerajaan (Asri dan Hamrila, 2007).

Sistem penyampaian awam berperanan penting dalam menjayakan dasar-dasar kerajaan. Lazimnya kredibiliti sesebuah kerajaan diukur berdasarkan kecekapan sistem penyampaian yang digunakan. Orang awam tidak lagi dilihat sebagai peminta atau pengguna perkhidmatan, sebaliknya mereka diangkat sebagai pelanggan yang perlu diutamakan. Perubahan dalam sistem penyampaian awam bukan sahaja didorong oleh *trend* yang berlaku pada peringkat global tetapi juga disebabkan oleh perubahan tuntutan masyarakat ke atas sektor awam (Nor Azizah, 2010). Sebagai pembayar cukai, masyarakat amat menitikberatkan perkhidmatan setimpal dengan wang yang dibayar atau *value-for-money* (Ramli dan Noor Azman, 2011). Justeru itu, adalah penting untuk memperbaiki penyampaian perkhidmatan sektor awam supaya keyakinan pelabur dapat ditingkatkan.

Sejak kemerdekaan negara, sektor awam di Malaysia telah mengalami pelbagai transformasi (Siti Nabiha, 2008). Kerajaan telah memperkenalkan pelbagai reformasi khususnya sejak tahun 1980 dalam usaha untuk meningkatkan governan dan kualiti perkhidmatan kepada rakyat. Ini selaras dengan perubahan dalam konteks politik dan ekonomi di dalam negara dan secara global yang telah mewujudkan permintaan baru terhadap pentadbiran untuk perkhidmatan yang berkembang dan bertambah baik (Siddiquee, 2007). Walaubagaimanapun, kurangnya akauntabiliti di kalangan penjawat awam masih kekal menjadi isu yang sering dibangkitkan di dalam Laporan Umum Audit (Siti Nabiha, 2008). Menurut Danilah dan Siti Nabiha (2011), terdapat laporan bahawa perkhidmatan awam di Malaysia mengalami ketidakcekapan, rasuah dan banyak masalah lain. Peningkatan aduan yang diterima oleh Biro Pengaduan Awam (BPA) adalah bukti akauntabiliti sektor awam di Malaysia menjadi taruhan. Nor Azizah (2010) turut memperakui bahawa ukuran tahap sistem penyampaian awam adalah jumlah aduan orang awam terhadap perkhidmatan yang diberikan oleh kerajaan. Dari tahun 2005 hingga 2008, jumlah aduan yang diterima dalam perkhidmatan awam menunjukkan peningkatan yang ketara dan membimbangkan. Laporan tersebut menunjukkan bahawa sistem penyampaian perkhidmatan awam di Malaysia masih berada pada tahap yang kurang memuaskan. Ia juga menggambarkan kurangnya tahap komitmen dalam kalangan penjawat awam.

Sebagai salah sebuah organisasi yang berteraskan perkhidmatan, universiti juga tidak ketinggalan berdepan dengan isu-isu yang berkaitan dengan kualiti penyampaian perkhidmatan awam. Ini dibuktikan menerusi statistik aduan yang diterima daripada staf dan pelajar yang merupakan pelanggan utama universiti. Sehubungan itu, organisasi perlu memperkasakan lagi kecekapan sumber manusianya ke arah meningkatkan integriti, akauntabiliti dan komitmen organisasi agar imej universiti secara keseluruhannya terpelihara. Organisasi juga perlu merancang tindakan susulan dan penambahbaikan bagi menangani isu dan permasalahan mengenai tingkah laku pekerja, antaranya adalah dengan memberi perhatian kepada pembentukan tingkah laku positif dalam kalangan pekerja.

Norazah dan Norbayah (2011) menekankan bahawa komitmen pekerja mempunyai kesan yang besar kepada prestasi kejayaan organisasi. Organisasi yang berusaha ke arah pencapaian prestasi yang unggul akan sentiasa menghargai pekerja, menjaga kebajikan pekerja, menyediakan latihan dan peluang kerjaya serta menggalakkan komitmen dan penglibatan pekerja dalam organisasi. Pendapat ini selari dengan dapatan kajian oleh Dessler (1993), mengenai komitmen pekerja yang merumuskan bahawa keupayaan organisasi untuk memenuhi aspirasi kerjaya peribadi pekerja mempunyai kesan yang ketara ke atas komitmen mereka. Sungguhpun terdapat pelbagai faktor yang mempengaruhi komitmen di kalangan pekerja, dalam kajian ini faktor tingkah laku pekerja itu sendiri dilihat sebagai peramal yang mempengaruhi tahap komitmen organisasi mereka. Ini adalah kerana tingkah laku pekerja dan komitmen organisasi merupakan dua faktor penting yang mempengaruhi kejayaan dalam mencapai matlamat dan perancangan strategik sesebuah organisasi.

Oleh yang demikian, objektif kajian ini adalah bagi:

1. Mengenalpasti tahap tingkah laku asertif dalam kalangan staf sokongan.
2. Mengenalpasti tahap komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan.
3. Mengenalpasti hubungan di antara dimensi-dimensi tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan.

2. Sorotan Kajian

2.1 Tingkah Laku Asertif

Alberti dan Emmons (2001) menyatakan bahawa tingkah laku asertif menggalakkan kesaksamaan dalam hubungan manusia, membolehkan manusia untuk bertindak mengikut kepentingan sendiri, untuk mempertahankan diri tanpa kebimbangan yang tidak wajar, untuk meluahkan perasaan jujur dengan selesa dan untuk melaksanakan hak-hak peribadi tanpa menafikan hak-hak orang lain. Asertif adalah keupayaan seseorang untuk meluahkan perasaan dan menuntut hak sambil menghormati perasaan dan hak-hak orang lain. Komunikasi asertif adalah sewajarnya secara langsung, terbuka dan jujur, menjelaskan keperluan seseorang kepada orang lain. Individu yang telah menguasai kemahiran asertif akan dapat mengurangkan tahap konflik interpersonal dalam kehidupan mereka sekali gus mengurangkan sumber utama tekanan (Scott, 2006).

Dalam kajian ini, penyelidik mengkaji mengenai tingkah laku asertif yang mengukur keupayaan staf sokongan UTHM untuk bersikap asertif tanpa mengabaikan, merendahkan dan menafikan hak orang lain dengan penuh hemah, bertimbang rasa, bertolak ansur dan bertanggungjawab. Sejauh manakah mereka berjaya menggunakan hak-hak asertif masing-masing yang seterusnya mempamerkannya dalam bentuk tingkah laku asertif. Asertif dalam diri pekerja dapat dilihat sama ada secara lisan, iaitu menerusi cara berkomunikasi (penggunaan perkataan) dan tanpa lisan iaitu menerusi perbuatan atau bahasa isyarat (intonasi suara, gaya penyampaian, bentuk pertuturan, air muka, renungan mata, dan kedudukan atau pergerakan badan) yang akan mengiringi perkataan ketika pekerja berkomunikasi (Noraini, 2001). Penentuan tahap tingkah laku asertif dibuat menggunakan Rathus (1973) yang meliputi skor pengukuran asertif-diri. Lima dimensi tingkah laku asertif iaitu Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian, Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati, Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan, Kebarangkalian Melakukan Kesilapan dan Kemahiran Berkomunikasi telah disokong oleh Caputo (1984), Makin dan Lindley (1991), Gillen (1997), Back dan Back (1999), Abdullah (2005) dan telah disesuaikan mengikut keperluan kajian.

2.2 Komitmen Organisasi

Mowday, Porter dan Steers (1982) mentakrifkan komitmen organisasi sebagai kepercayaan yang kuat terhadap matlamat organisasi, nilai-nilai dan kesediaan untuk mengerahkan usaha yang besar bagi pihak organisasi. Komitmen organisasi secara konseptual sering dianggap sebagai ikatan afektif kepada organisasi akibat daripada nilai-nilai organisasi yang dikongsi oleh individu, keinginan mereka untuk kekal dalam organisasi dan kesediaan mereka untuk berusaha gigih untuk pihak organisasi. Colquitt, Lepine dan Wesson (2011) mendefinisikan komitmen organisasi sebagai keinginan di pihak pekerja untuk kekal sebagai anggota organisasi. Komitmen organisasi mempengaruhi sama ada pekerja tetap sebagai ahli organisasi (kekal) atau meninggalkan organisasi untuk mendapatkan pekerjaan lain.

Meyer dan Allen (1991) telah mencadangkan model tiga komponen komitmen organisasi. Tiga komponen yang dimaksudkan terdiri daripada dimensi afektif, berterusan dan normatif. Komitmen afektif adalah ikatan emosi pekerja, identifikasi dan penglibatan dalam organisasi (Meyer dan Allen, 1997). Ahli yang komited pada tahap afektif kekal dengan organisasi kerana mereka melihat hubungan pekerjaan dengan peribadi sebagai kongruen dengan matlamat dan nilai organisasi (Beck dan Wilson, 2000). Ahli dalam organisasi yang komited kepada organisasi secara afektif, terus bekerja untuk organisasi kerana mereka mahu (Meyer dan Allen, 1991). Komitmen berterusan boleh dianggap sebagai satu instrumen ikatan dengan organisasi, di mana penyatuan individu dengan organisasi adalah berdasarkan kepada penilaian terhadap manfaat ekonomi yang diperolehi (Beck dan Wilson, 2000). Meyer dan Allen (1997) menganggap komitmen berterusan sebagai kesedaran mengenai kos yang berkaitan jika meninggalkan organisasi. Pekerja yang terikat dengan organisasi secara komitmen berterusan, kekal kerana mereka perlu untuk bertindak sedemikian (Meyer dan Allen, 1991). Manakala komitmen normatif merujuk kepada rasa tanggungjawab untuk meneruskan pekerjaan (Meyer dan Allen, 1997). Pekerja yang mempunyai komitmen normatif merasa bahawa mereka sepatutnya kekal dengan organisasi kerana mereka sepatutnya berbuat demikian atau ia merupakan perkara yang betul untuk dilakukan.

3. Metodologi Kajian

Kajian ini melibatkan responden seramai 202 orang staf bukan akademik di bawah klasifikasi perkhidmatan pentadbiran dan sokongan (N) yang terdiri daripada Kumpulan Sokongan I (Gred N27 hingga N40) dan Kumpulan

Sokongan II (Gred N17 hingga N26) dalam jenis skim perkhidmatan kumpulan pelaksana, mengikut Sistem Saran Malaysia (SSM), Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam Malaysia. Kajian ini adalah berbentuk kuantitatif dan menggunakan soal selidik sebagai instrumen kajian. Borang Soal Selidik Asertif Rathus (1973) digunakan bagi mengukur tingkah laku asertif, sementara Borang Soal Selidik Komitmen Organisasi Allen dan Meyer (1990) digunakan untuk mengukur komitmen organisasi. Borang soal selidik yang diedarkan mengandungi tiga bahagian iaitu Bahagian A (Latarbelakang Responden), Bahagian B (Soal Selidik Tingkah Laku Asertif), dan Bahagian C (Soal Selidik Komitmen Organisasi). Skala Likert Enam Markat digunakan dalam Bahagian B manakala Skala Likert Lima Markat digunakan dalam Bahagian C.

Kajian rintis telah dijalankan bagi menilai kebolehpercayaan Soal Selidik Tingkah Laku Asertif Rathus (1973) dan Soal Selidik Komitmen Organisasi Allen dan Meyer (1990). Dapatan dari kajian rintis menunjukkan bahawa soal selidik yang digunakan boleh dipercayai oleh kerana skor Alpha Cronbach untuk setiap dimensi bagi kedua-dua pembolehubah kajian adalah melebihi 0.65. Keseluruhan skor kebolehpercayaan Alpha Cronbach bagi soal selidik tingkah laku asertif ialah 0.836. Manakala keseluruhan skor Alpha Cronbach bagi soal selidik komitmen organisasi adalah 0.898. Dapat dirumuskan bahawa kesemua item-item dalam soal selidik mempunyai tahap kebolehpercayaan yang boleh dipercayai dan sesuai bagi kajian ini.

Kesemua data yang dikumpul telah diproses menggunakan perisian Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Versi 19.0. Bagi menganalisis data yang diperolehi, dua jenis analisis telah digunakan iaitu Analisis Deskriptif bagi mengukur taburan kekerapan dan skor min, manakala Analisis Inferensi Ujian Korelasi Pearson digunakan untuk mengenalpasti hubungan di antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi.

4. Analisis Data

4.1 Tahap Tingkah Laku Asertif

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan kelima-lima dimensi tingkah laku asertif iaitu Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian (KP), Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati (KH), Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan (KL), Kebarangkalian Melakukan Kesilapan (KS) dan Kemahiran Berkomunikasi (KK) berada pada tahap sederhana dengan masing-masing mencatatkan skor min 4.10 (KP), 4.32 (KH), 4.05 (KL), 4.31 (KS) dan 4.00 (KK). Secara keseluruhannya, tahap tingkah laku asertif staf sokongan UTHM berada pada tahap sederhana dengan nilai skor min 4.15.

4.2 Tahap Komitmen Organisasi

Maklumbalas responden terhadap setiap item komitmen yang dibahagikan mengikut tiga komponen iaitu komitmen afektif, komitmen berterusan, komitmen normatif serta komitmen organisasi menunjukkan tahap komitmen afektif dan komitmen normatif staf sokongan UTHM berada pada tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai skor min 3.73 dan 3.69. Sementara tahap komitmen berterusan pekerja berada pada tahap sederhana dengan skor min 3.24. Secara keseluruhannya, tahap komitmen organisasi staf sokongan UTHM berada pada tahap sederhana dengan skor min 3.55.

Analisis Hubungan Dimensi-Dimensi Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Komitmen Organisasi

Analisis Inferensi Korelasi Pearson yang melihat hubungan antara dimensi-dimensi tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan UTHM menunjukkan bahawa tiga dimensi tingkah laku asertif iaitu dimensi Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian (KP) ($r=0.225^{**}$, $p<0.01$), dimensi Kemahiran Berkomunikasi (KK) ($r=0.215^{**}$, $p<0.01$) dan dimensi Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan (KL) ($r=0.201^{**}$, $p<0.01$) mempunyai hubungan secara positif pada tahap yang rendah dengan komitmen organisasi. Dimensi Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati (KH) ($r=0.159^*$, $p<0.05$) pula mempunyai hubungan secara positif pada tahap yang sangat lemah, manakala dimensi Kebarangkalian Melakukan Kesilapan (KS) tidak mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan komitmen organisasi kerana nilai signifikan dimensi tersebut melebihi aras signifikan 0.05. Walau bagaimanapun, secara keseluruhan hasil analisis menunjukkan terdapat hubungan yang signifikan di antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi ($r=0.309^{**}$, $p<0.01$). Hubungan yang wujud adalah secara positif pada tahap yang rendah sepertimana yang ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 1.

**Jadual 1-Taburan Dapatan
Hubungan Dimensi Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Komitmen Organisasi**

Pembolehubah	Dimensi	Komitmen Organisasi		
		Korelasi Pearson (r)	Tahap (p)	Signifikan
Tingkah Laku Asertif	Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian (KP)	0.225**	0.001	
	Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati (KH)	0.159*	0.024	
	Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan (KL)	0.201**	0.004	
	Kebarangkalian Melakukan Kesilapan (KS)	0.102	0.150	
	Kemahiran Berkomunikasi (KK)	0.215**	0.002	
Keseluruhan Tingkah Laku Asertif		0.309**	0.001	

** *Korelasi adalah signifikan pada aras 0.01 (2-tailed)*

* *Korelasi adalah signifikan pada aras 0.05 (2-tailed)*

5. Perbincangan

Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa secara keseluruhannya tahap asertif staf sokongan UTHM adalah pada tahap sederhana. Ini berdasarkan kepada skor min keseluruhan tahap tingkah laku asertif adalah sebanyak 4.15. Selain itu, kesemua skor min dimensi-dimensi tingkah laku asertif turut berada pada tahap sederhana, dimulai dengan Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati, Kebarangkalian Melakukan Kesilapan, Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian, Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan dan Kemahiran Berkomunikasi. Ini menunjukkan kebanyakan staf sokongan universiti bertindak dengan tahap asertif yang sederhana semasa menjalankan tugas harian di tempat kerja mahupun ketika berada di tempat awam. Hasil kajian juga menggambarkan masih terdapat staf sokongan yang kurang jelas maksud sebenar tingkah laku asertif dan manfaat jika mempraktikkan tingkah laku tersebut dalam kehidupan seharian. Dapatan kajian ini adalah bersamaan dengan kajian Nur Sabrina (2010) mengenai hubungan tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi yang mendapati bahawa tahap tingkah laku asertif Pembantu Perawatan Kesihatan di Hospital Sultanah Aminah (HSA) Johor Bahru berada pada tahap sederhana. Begitu juga hasil kajian Norfazlinda (2013) mengenai hubungan tingkah laku asertif dengan motivasi yang melaporkan bahawa tahap tingkah laku responden yang terdiri daripada Guru-Guru Prasekolah KEMAS di Daerah Kulai Jaya adalah pada tahap sederhana.

Tahap asertif yang sederhana dalam kalangan staf sokongan juga dilihat dipengaruhi oleh deskripsi tugas responden. Kajian ini melibatkan responden dari kalangan kumpulan pelaksana yang majoriti mereka menjalankan fungsi dan tugas yang rutin di peringkat operasional. Lazimnya mereka menerima sahaja arahan dari pegawai atasan tanpa mempersoalkan atau mempertikaikan kewajaran arahan tersebut. Dalam situasi begini, mereka lebih bersifat pasif kerana cuba memenuhi ekspektasi pegawai atasan masing-masing. Kebanyakan dari mereka juga jarang terlibat dalam proses membuat keputusan untuk unit atau jabatan. Oleh itu, fungsi dan deskripsi tugas staf sokongan didapati mempengaruhi tahap asertif mereka selaku kumpulan pelaksana dalam organisasi. Ini berbeza dengan hasil penyelidikan Badaruddin, Siew Ting, Kahirol, Nor Lisa dan Mohamad Zaid (2008) yang menjalankan kajian mengenai tahap asertif pensyarah-pensyarah enam buah fakulti di UTHM. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan tahap asertif pensyarah-pensyarah berada pada tahap tinggi sesuai dengan kelayakan akademik yang dimiliki, ciri-ciri tugas dan kekerapan penglibatan dalam proses membuat keputusan di fakulti.

Dalam satu kajian oleh Lailawati (2005) mengenai cara orang Melayu berkomunikasi, beliau menyatakan bahawa budaya memainkan peranan penting dalam pembangunan pemikiran manusia dan tingkah laku. Dalam membuat permintaan, orang Melayu secara umumnya tidak secara langsung kerana membuat permintaan secara terang-terangan akan memperlihatkan sikap kurang sopan. Maka orang Melayu bercakap berkaitan dengan apa yang mereka ingin sampaikan dengan harapan bahawa mesej mereka difahami. Bahasa Melayu juga dilaporkan lebih mirip kepada analogi serta banyak mesej tersembunyi. Apa yang menjadi penting adalah untuk mengekalkan hubungan. Justeru, orang Melayu dikatakan berada dalam katogeri budaya komunikasi yang mengutamakan perasaan orang lain dan tidak secara terang-terangan. Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa faktor budaya sememangnya mempengaruhi tahap asertif individu sepertimana ia memberi kesan kepada tahap asertif dalam kalangan staf sokongan dalam kajian ini.

Dari perspektif yang positif, walaupun tahap asertif staf sokongan berada pada tahap yang sederhana, tetapi skor min menunjukkan ia berada pada tahap sederhana yang agak baik. Ini kemungkinan disebabkan oleh faktor-faktor demografi responden yang dilihat mempengaruhi tahap asertif mereka. Sebagai contoh, faktor kelayakan akademik di mana majoriti responden kajian memiliki kelulusan akademik peringkat diploma (41.6%). Pengkaji berpendapat dari aspek kognitif mereka memiliki keupayaan berfikir yang baik serta mampu membuat keputusan secara rasional. Justeru, kefahaman yang jelas mengenai tugas dan peranan masing-masing dapat membantu unit atau jabatan mencapai objektif yang disasarkan. Luahan perasaan, pendapat dan usul penambahbaikan boleh secara terbuka menerusi saluran komunikasi yang disediakan oleh pengurusan unit atau jabatan, sama ada secara formal atau informal contohnya menerusi mesyuarat, penglibatan dalam persatuan-persatuan pekerja dan menerusi Saluran Aduan dan Cadangan Dalaman (SACAD). Selain itu, faktor tempoh berkhidmat dalam organisasi juga boleh memberi kesan kepada tahap asertif staf sokongan di mana analisis deskriptif menunjukkan majoriti responden telah berkhidmat dalam lingkungan 8 hingga 11 tahun (33.7%). Ini menunjukkan dalam tempoh tersebut mereka telah dapat menyesuaikan diri dengan budaya kerja organisasi dan secara tidak langsung berjaya membina serta mengamalkan tingkah laku asertif sepanjang berkhidmat di universiti. Sehubungan itu, faktor latarbelakang responden secara tidak langsung mempengaruhi tahap asertif dalam kalangan staf sokongan dalam kajian ini.

Manakala bagi komitmen organisasi pula, hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap komitmen afektif dan komitmen normatif staf sokongan berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Komitmen afektif yang tinggi bermaksud mereka sangat komited serta mempunyai ikatan emosional yang kuat terhadap organisasi. Manakala tahap komitmen normatif yang tinggi bermaksud staf sokongan berasa mereka mempunyai tanggungjawab moral untuk membalas semula manfaat dan kebajikan yang disediakan oleh pihak organisasi. Dalam konteks ini, analisis kajian menunjukkan bahawa staf sokongan universiti merasa seronok dan gembira berkhidmat dalam organisasi adalah disebabkan mereka berkeinginan untuk kekal bersama organisasi. Selain itu, komitmen dan kesetiaan mereka dalam organisasi juga atas faktor norma-norma sosial menyebabkan mereka rasa berkewajiban dan patut kekal dalam organisasi. Walau bagaimanapun, dimensi komitmen berterusan staf sokongan berada pada tahap sederhana. Ini menunjukkan bahawa pada ketika ini mereka tidak terlalu memikirkan risiko atau kerugian yang bakal yang dialami sekiranya meninggalkan organisasi, sebaliknya mereka berada dalam zon yang selesa.

Analisis Korelasi Pearson telah menunjukkan wujudnya hubungan yang signifikan secara positif pada tahap yang rendah di antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi. Semakin tinggi tahap tingkah laku asertif akan memberi kesan kepada peningkatan tahap komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan. Secara terperinci, dimensi-dimensi tingkah laku asertif Kemampuan Mempertahankan Pendirian (KP), Kemahiran Berkomunikasi (KK) dan Kemampuan Meluahkan Perasaan (KL) menunjukkan hubungan yang signifikan secara positif pada tahap yang rendah dengan komitmen organisasi. Ini menunjukkan bahawa dalam melaksanakan tugas-tugas seharian di pejabat, staf sokongan universiti mampu mempertahankan prinsip atau pendirian sendiri serta boleh berinteraksi dengan individu lain sehingga mencapai apa yang dikehendaki dengan menyatakan pendirian dengan tenang dan tegas. Selain itu, kemahiran berkomunikasi yang dimiliki oleh staf sokongan juga telah memberikan mereka ruang yang bebas untuk mengajukan persoalan dan pandangan, pada masa yang sama menerima persoalan daripada individu lain. Dalam ertikata lain, hak untuk saling berkomunikasi dengan orang lain telah berjaya dipenuhi apabila proses komunikasi berjaya dilaksanakan secara berkesan. Begitu juga dengan dimensi tingkah laku asertif kemampuan meluahkan perasaan yang menunjukkan bahawa hak untuk saling berperasaan dan meluahkan perasaan dalam kalangan warga kerja sokongan mampu memberi kelegaan kepada mereka. Ini menunjukkan bahawa platform perbincangan “dari hati ke hati” telah disediakan oleh pihak universiti kepada warga kerja sama ada secara formal atau tidak formal telah membuka peluang kepada pekerja meluahkan perasaan, ketidakpuasan hati, cadangan penambahbaikan, komen dan pandangan peribadi. Dalam pada itu, dimensi tingkah laku asertif Keupayaan Untuk Menghormati (KH) menunjukkan hubungan yang signifikan secara positif dengan komitmen organisasi tetapi tahap yang sangat rendah. Sungguhpun dimensi-dimensi tingkah laku asertif menunjukkan hubungan yang positif pada tahap yang rendah atau sangat rendah, tetapi ia masih mampu memberi kesan terhadap komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan responden.

Keseluruhan dapatan kajian yang menunjukkan hubungan yang wujud antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi adalah selaras dengan hasil kajian Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane dan Ferreira (2011). Badaruddin et al. (2008), Salleh dan Zuria (2009) dan Siti Rahimah (2010) yang membuktikan wujudnya hubungannya antara tingkah laku asertif dengan kepuasan kerja dan kepuasan hidup yang seterusnya memberi impak terhadap komitmen pekerja. Apabila wujudnya hubungan antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan, maka organisasi adalah disaran untuk membentuk dan membina tingkah laku asertif dalam diri pekerja. Ini boleh dilakukan dengan memantapkan sistem penyampaian maklumat organisasi di mana kejelasan dan kefahaman mengenai maklumat-maklumat penting organisasi akan merangsang pembentukan tingkah laku asertif pekerja. Selain itu, kemasukan komponen asertif dalam dasar dan polisi sumber manusia organisasi

memainkan peranan yang amat penting dalam mempengaruhi tahap komitmen pekerja. Penganjuran program latihan dan aktiviti menjurus kepada pembinaan tingkah laku asertif serta amalan pengurusan dan pembangunan sumber manusia yang mantap akan menggalakkan pembentukan tingkah laku asertif dalam diri pekerja. Ini seterusnya akan dibalas oleh pekerja dalam bentuk komitmen yang tinggi. Begitu juga dengan sistem komunikasi yang baik dalam organisasi akan menjadi satu platform untuk pekerja berkomunikasi secara efektif dengan pengurusan tertinggi organisasi.

6. Kesimpulan

Tingkah laku asertif dilihat sebagai salah satu faktor yang mempengaruhi komitmen organisasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan UTHM. Tingkah laku asertif menggambarkan ciri-ciri pelakuan positif yang boleh dijadikan pengukuran kepada komitmen organisasi pekerja, seterusnya membawa organisasi ke arah kecemerlangan dan kelebihan bersaing. Sebaliknya, tingkah laku negatif (tingkah pasif dan agresif) boleh menjadi faktor penyebab rendahnya tahap komitmen dalam kalangan pekerja. Dalam organisasi pekerja umpama permata yang harus digilap agar sentiasa bersinar dan memberi nilai yang tinggi kepada organisasi. Ini kerana hanya dengan memiliki pekerja yang berpotensi tinggi, berdaya saing dan berfikiran positif, organisasi mampu mencapai perancangan strategik dan matlamat yang disasarkan.

Oleh sebab itu, organisasi jarang berkompromi dalam menyediakan program-program pembangunan dan latihan kepada para pekerja, malah sanggup memperuntukkan belanjawan yang besar untuk membangunkan potensi pekerja. Salah satu cara adalah menerusi latihan dan pembentukan tingkah laku asertif dalam diri pekerja. Individu yang asertif sentiasa berfikiran rasional, memiliki konsep sendiri yang positif, memiliki keyakinan dan harga diri yang tinggi, memperolehi kepuasan dan keseronokan dalam hidup serta kerjaya, cenderung untuk setia berkhidmat kepada organisasi dan seterusnya memiliki komitmen organisasi yang tinggi. Justeru, ciri-ciri positif dalam individu yang asertif bukan sahaja dapat mengelakkan mereka daripada terjerumus ke arah pemikiran dan tindakan yang negatif, malah melahirkan sumber manusia yang sentiasa komited dan bersungguh-sungguh dalam melaksanakan tugas dan tanggungjawab yang diberikan. Ini kerana wujudnya hubungan yang positif antara tingkah laku asertif dengan komitmen pekerja terhadap organisasi sepertimana dapatan daripada kajian ini.

7. Rujukan

- Abdullah Ismail (2005). *Hubungan Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Konsep Kendiri di Kalangan Pegawai-Pegawai Kanan Kastam di Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Daerah Johor Bahru*, Ijazah Sarjana Sains Pembangunan Sumber Manusia, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai.
- Allen, N.J. and Meyer, J.P.(1990). The Measurement and Antecedents of Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment to the Organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*. 63(1), 1-18.
- Asri Marsidi dan Hamrila Abdul Latip (2007). Faktor-Faktor yang Mempengaruhi Komitmen Pekerja di Organisasi Awam, Fakulti Ekonomi dan Perniagaan, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*. Bil.10, Disember.
- Alberti, R. and Emmons, M. (2001). *Your Perfect Right (8th ed.)* Impact Publishers, Inc. Atascadero, California.
- Back, K. and Back, K. (1999). *Assertiveness at Work: A Practical Guide to Handling Awkward Situations*. (3rd ed.) London: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.
- Badaruddin Ibrahim, Lian Siew Ting, Kahirol Mohd. Salleh, Nor Lisa Sulaiman dan Mohamad Zaid Mustafa (2008). Tingkah Laku Asertif dan Tahap Kepuasan Kerja dalam Kalangan Pensyarah Universiti. *The 6th International Malaysian Studies Conference (MSC6), Engaging Malaysian Modernity 50 Years and Beyond*. Kuching, Sarawak.
- Beck, K and Wilson, C. (2000). Development of Affective Organizational Commitment: A Cross Sequential Examinations of Change with Tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. 56(1), 114-136.
- Caputo, J.S. (1984). *The Assertive Librarian*. Canada: The Oryx Press.
- Coloquitt, J.A, Lepine, J.A and Wesson, M.J. (2011). *Organizational Behavior: Improving Performance and Commitment in the Workplace*, Edition 2, McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Danilah Salleh dan Siti Nabihah Abdul Khalid (2011). Accountability Practice at Local Government of Malaysia, *2nd International Conference on Business and Economic Research (2nd ICBER 2011) Proceeding*.
- Dessler, G. (1993). *Winning Commitment: How to Build and Keep a Competitive Workforce*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Gillen, T. (1997). *Assertiveness*. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. London.

- Lailawati Mohd. Salleh (2005). High/Low Context Communication: The Malay Style, *Proceedings of the 2005 Association for Business Communication Annual Convention*.
- Lumley, E.J., Coetzee, M., Tladinyane, R. and Ferreira, N. (2011). Exploring the Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of Employees in the Information Technology Environment, *Southern African Business Review* Vol. 15 No. 1.
- Makin, P.E. and Lindley, P.A. (1991). *Positive Stress Management, Practical Guide for Those Who Work Under Pressure*. Kogan Page Limited.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1991). A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*. Volume 1, Number 1.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1997). *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, & Application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mohamed Anwar Mohamed Jamil, Nur Ain Muin, Zakaria Mustafa (2013). Adaptasi Sistem Kaizen Dalam Konsep Pengurusan Kediri: Satu Kajian Kes di Jabatan Pengajian Asia Timur, Universiti Malaya, *Proceeding of the International Conference on Social Science Research (ICSSR2013)*, e-ISBN 978-967-11768-1-8.
- Mowday, R., Porter, L. and Steers, R. (1982). *Organizational Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover*. New York: Academic Press.
- Noraini Ahmad (2001). *Asertif dan Komunikasi*. Utusan Publications and Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Norazah Mohd Suki and Norbayah Mohd Suki (2011). Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment: The Effect of Gender. *International Journal of Psychology Research*. Volume 6, Issue 5, pp. 1-15.
- Nor Azizah Zainal Abidin (2010). Sistem Penyampaian Awam: Konsep, Pelaksanaan dan Cabaran di Malaysia. *Journal Excellence Malaysian Administrative Modernisation and Management Planning Unit (MAMPU)*. Volume 2, No. 1.
- Norfazlinda Abdul Majid (2013). *Hubungan Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Motivasi Dalam Kalangan Guru Prasekolah KEMAS Daerah Kulaijaya*. Ijazah Sarjana Muda Sains (Pembangunan Sumber Manusia), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai.
- Nur Sabrina Bahrom (2010). *Hubungan Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Komitmen Terhadap Organisasi: Satu Kajian Kes di Kalangan Pembantu Perawatan Kesihatan Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor Bahru*, Ijazah Sarjana Muda, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai.
- Ramlah Mukhtar and Noor Azman Ali (2011). Quality Governance of Human Aspects of Quality Initiatives in the Public Service Sector. *Current Issues of Business and Law*. 6(1), 111–128.
- Rathus, S.A. (1973). A 30-item Schedule for Assessing Assertive Behavior. *Behavior Therapy*. 4, 398-406.
- Salleh Amat dan Zuria Mahmud (2009). Hubungan antara Ketegasan Diri dan Kepuasan Hidup dalam Kalangan Pelajar Institusi Pengajian Tinggi. *Jurnal Pendidikan Malaysia* 34(2) (2009): 49 – 65.
- Scott, E. (August 2006). *About.com updated: Reduce Stress with Increased Assertiveness*.
- Siddiquee, N.A. (2007). Public Service Innovations, Policy Transfer and Governance in the Asia-Pacific Region: The Malaysian Experience. *Journal of Administration and Governance*. Vol. 2. No.1.
- Siti Nabiha Abdul Khalid (2008). New Public Management in Malaysia: In Search of an Efficient and Effective Service Delivery. *IJMS 15* (Bumper Issue), 69-90.
- Siti Rahimah Mohd Yusop (2010). *Hubungan Tingkah Laku Asertif Dengan Kepuasan Kerja di Kalangan Pegawai Tadbir Gred N41*, Ijazah Sarjana, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai.
- Wright, P.M., McMahan, G.C. and McWilliams, A. (1994). Human Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage: A Resource-Based Perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(2), 301-326.

Komunikasi Dan Penilaian Prestasi Dalam Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi : Persektif Keadilan Organisasi

Norzalelawati Ahmad¹

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstrak

Sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi yang berkesan akan memberikan impak positif dalam keberkesanan dan kejayaan sesebuah organisasi. Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk melihat hubungan dua elemen dalam sistem ganjaran, iaitu komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi, dengan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi. Data kajian diperoleh melalui soal selidik terhadap 305 sampel penjawat awam di agensi kerajaan di Wilayah Persekutuan Putrajaya. Keputusan kajian mendapati wujudnya hubungan positif yang signifikan antara sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dengan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi. Komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi bertindak sebagai peramal dalam keadilan organisasi. Komunikasi yang berkesan serta penilaian prestasi yang telus membolehkan pekerja berpendapat mereka menerima layanan secara adil. Persepsi ini akan meningkatkan kredibiliti sistem pengurusan ganjaran secara keseluruhan dan mendorong pekerja untuk lebih berdedikasi dalam melaksanakan tugas. Penemuan kajian boleh dijadikan sebagai asas untuk membantu organisasi membentuk persepsi positif pekerja terhadap keadilan organisasi.

Kata kunci: komunikasi, penilaian prestasi, keadilan organisasi.

1. Pengenalan

Komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi merupakan elemen penting yang perlu dititikberatkan di setiap organisasi dalam membentuk persepsi pekerja terhadap keadilan organisasi. Sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi yang berkesan akan memberikan impak positif dalam keberkesanan dan kejayaan sesebuah organisasi. Komunikasi dalam organisasi merupakan mekanisme yang menghubungkan pemimpin dengan orang bawahannya agar tenaga dapat digerakkan dengan tersusun demi mencapai objektif organisasi (Othman, 2003). Maklum balas yang diberikan oleh pekerja terhadap maklumat yang disampaikan oleh pihak atasan merupakan pemangkin interpretasi kepada maklumat yang betul daripada pekerja terhadap arahan kerja daripada pihak atasan (Sulaiman dan Mahbob, 2014).

Penilaian prestasi ditakrifkan sebagai pengukuran ke atas kebolehan seseorang pekerja untuk mencapai matlamat yang telah ditetapkan oleh organisasi (Robbins, 1993). Penilaian prestasi membolehkan seseorang pekerja itu diklasifikasikan sebagai cemerlang, sangat baik, sederhana atau tidak memuaskan dalam menjalankan tugas mereka (Schein, 1970). Walau bagaimanapun, Yusof dan Kadir (2012) berpendapat penilaian prestasi perlu diteliti dari sudut kuantiti dan kualiti kerja yang diperoleh daripada seseorang pekerja atau kumpulan yang menjalankan tugas dalam kerjanya. Ramai pengkaji mengakui penilaian prestasi merupakan aspek penting dalam pembangunan sumber manusia dalam sesebuah organisasi (Shaari et al., 2007).

Ganjaran merujuk kepada semua bentuk ganjaran (kewangan) dan faedah (bukan kewangan) yang diberikan kepada pekerja sebagai balasan kepada sumbangan tenaga kerja yang terlibat. Ganjaran dalam bentuk kewangan merupakan bayaran yang diterima oleh pekerja dalam bentuk upah, gaji, bonus dan komisen serta bayaran kewangan tidak langsung yang meliputi bayaran yang tidak termasuk dalam sistem penggajian pekerja seperti belanja perjalanan, bayaran perubatan dan saguhati. Manakala faedah merupakan kemudahan-kemudahan yang disediakan untuk kebajikan semua pekerja tanpa mengira sumbangan yang diberikan oleh mereka terhadap organisasi. Faedah ini meliputi masa rehat, kemudahan perubatan, kemudahan rekreasi, tempat ibadat dan kemudahan lain yang disediakan untuk pekerja (Dessler, 2003).

⁺ E-mail address: (zalelawatie@gmail.com).

Dalam konteks sistem pengurusan ganjaran, komunikasi merupakan instrumen yang berkesan untuk menyampaikan maklumat tentang sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi kepada penerima (pekerja) melalui percakapan, tingkah laku atau/dan tulisan. Dalam mengurus sistem ganjaran, jenis, tahap atau jumlah maklumat yang boleh disampaikan oleh pengurus kepada para pekerja dipengaruhi oleh jenis dasar komunikasi yang diamalkan oleh sesebuah organisasi. Komunikasi sistem ganjaran yang betul dan baik akan menyebabkan pekerja merasakan mereka dilayan dengan adil dan seterusnya mendorong mereka menambahbaik prestasi kerja (Ismail et al., 2010).

Banyak kajian lepas menganalisa hubungan antara keadilan organisasi dengan pelbagai pembolehubah yang berkaitan dengan sikap dan tingkah laku pekerja seperti kepuasan bekerja (Tugimin et al., 2011); prestasi kerja (Nasurdin dan Soon, 2011; Erdogan, 2003); *turnover behavioral decision* (Muzumdar, 2012); *organizational citizenship behaviour* (Fournier, 2008; Elanain, 2010; Kyei-Poku, 2014) dan semangat berpasukan (Dayan, 2008). Walau bagaimanapun, hanya beberapa kajian yang membincangkan kaitan antara komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi dengan keadilan organisasi (Wahid, 2008; Palaiologos et al., 2011; Gok et al., 2013) dan kajian ini merupakan kajian empirikal bagi menganalisa hubungan tersebut.

Sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi yang kurang berkesan menyebabkan pekerja mempunyai persepsi negatif dan gemar mengkritik organisasi. Senario ini dapat dielakkan sekiranya aspek keberkesanan komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi pekerja diberi penumpuan dalam sesebuah organisasi. Kajian ini mengupas dua persoalan iaitu pertama, sama ada komunikasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi. Persoalan kedua kajian adalah sama ada penilaian prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi. Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk melihat hubungan antara dua elemen dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi, iaitu komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi, dengan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi.

2.0 Sorotan Karya

Konsep keadilan organisasi diperkenalkan oleh Greenberg (1987) yang menerangkan bahawa semua ahli dalam organisasi mahu diberi hak sama rata menerusi keadilan dan persamaan dari segi layanan. Persepsi mengenai keadilan dipengaruhi oleh sikap dan gelagat pekerja dalam organisasi (Nazari et al., 2013). Ghosh et al (2014) menyatakan banyak kajian yang dilaksanakan menunjukkan pelbagai aspek gelagat organisasi yang positif memberi impak positif dalam peningkatan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi di kalangan pekerja. Gelagat organisasi yang positif ini merangkumi kepuasan bekerja, kepuasan ganjaran dan komitmen, prestasi dan kepercayaan kepada organisasi (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001).

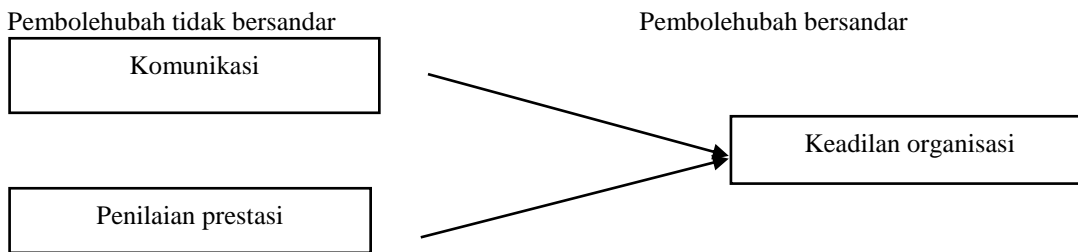
Seperti yang dipetik oleh Gok et al. (2013), banyak kajian lepas menyatakan bahawa dimensi keadilan terdiri daripada keadilan prosedur, keadilan distributif dan keadilan interaksi (Colquitt, 2001; Flint et al., 2012). Menurut Greenberg (1990), keadilan prosedur merujuk kepada keadilan yang dilihat sebagai suatu proses yang membawa kepada membuat keputusan. McDowall dan Fletcher (2004) menyatakan bahawa keadilan prosedur mempengaruhi pelbagai elemen dalam organisasi seperti penerimaan pekerja terhadap penilaian prestasi, kepuasan bekerja, komitmen kepada organisasi. Keadilan distributif adalah berkait rapat dengan pengagihan ganjaran yang merupakan instrumen dalam mengukur kerja keras dan usaha individu dalam organisasi (Fournier, 2008). Abdullah et al. (2007) memetik keadilan distributif sebagai setiap tugas yang dibahagikan adalah berdasarkan kelayakan pekerja serta menimbang kemampuan pekerja tersebut memberi sumbangan berdasarkan potensi dirinya dengan mengambil kira kapasiti dan keupayaan pekerja tersebut. Fantemayor (2003) menyatakan keadilan interaksi berkaitan dengan bagaimana seseorang itu diperlakukan dalam pelaksanaan sesuatu prosedur dan penentuan keputusan. Manakala Kyei-Poku (2014) mentafsirkan keadilan interaksi sebagai anggapan pekerja terhadap layanan interpersonal dalam organisasi seperti rasa hormat yang diberikan kepada pekerja dalam menjalankan sesuatu.

Komunikasi yang berkesan dapat membantu dalam membawa perubahan positif kepada organisasi dari aspek sikap dan tingkah laku pekerja serta dapat meningkatkan prestasi kerja secara berterusan (Wahid, 2008). Kajian empirikal Tugimin et al. (2011) membuktikan bahawa sebahagian besar daripada kecemerlangan sesebuah organisasi adalah berhubungkait dengan keberkesanan proses komunikasi. Komunikasi yang baik dan betul serta tepat pada masa daripada kedua-dua pihak dalam organisasi, iaitu pekerja dan pihak pengurusan, merupakan elemen penting dalam membentuk gelagat organisasi yang positif. Amalan komunikasi yang baik berupaya membantu para pekerja memahami, berpuas hati, menghormati dan mengiktiraf sistem ganjaran. Seterusnya, persepsi positif ini membuatkan pekerja berasa mereka menerima layanan yang adil dan ini dapat meningkatkan kredibiliti sistem pentadbiran ganjaran secara keseluruhan. Apabila peranan komunikasi diabaikan, ia boleh menyebabkan para pekerja tidak memahami polisi dan prosedur pampasan, membangkitkan prasangka negatif dan mendorong perasaan tidak adil dalam diri para pekerja terhadap sistem pengurusan ganjaran (Ismail et al., 2010).

Palaiologos et al. (2011) mengkaji kaitan penilaian prestasi dengan keadilan organisasi dan menjurus kepada keadilan prosedur, distributif dan interaksi. Kajian ke atas 170 responden ini mendapati ketiga-tiga dimensi keadilan

organisasi mempunyai kaitan dengan penilaian prestasi. Dapatan kajian ini mencadangkan penilaian prestasi yang adil akan meningkatkan kecekapan dan prestasi kerja serta pada masa yang sama memupuk kesetiaan, komitmen dan meningkatkan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi. Shaari et al. (2007) meninjau persepsi guru terhadap penilaian prestasi dari segi keadilan distributif dan keadilan prosedur. Dalam kajian ini kebanyakan responden berpendapat penilaian prestasi secara adil di tempat kerja mereka menyebabkan persepsi terhadap keadilan distributif dan prosedur meningkat. Kajian ini juga mendapati tanggapan responden terhadap keadilan penilaian prestasi akan mempengaruhi gelagat, sikap dan kepercayaan individu terhadap organisasi. Sekiranya pihak pengurusan ingin meningkatkan keyakinan pekerja tentang keadilan organisasi, maka pekerja harus diberi ruang dan peluang untuk menyuarakan pandangan mereka dalam hal berkaitan dengan penilaian prestasi.

Literatur sistem ganjaran di atas telah dijadikan panduan bagi membina kerangka konseptual kajian ini seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam Rajah 1.



Rajah 1- Kerangka konseptual

Kerangka konseptual ini memberi panduan kepada para penyelidik untuk mencadangkan dan menguji hipotesis-hipotesis berikut:

H1: Komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi.

H2: Penilaian prestasi dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi.

3. Metodologi

Kajian ini menggunakan rekabentuk keratan rentas yang membenarkan penyelidik mengumpul data melalui kajian literatur dan borang soal selidik. Kaedah ini dapat memastikan pengumpulan data dilakukan secara tepat, mengurangkan kemungkinan bias, bersesuaian dengan keperluan kajian dan boleh dipercayai untuk mengukur persepsi responden terhadap pembolehubah-pembolehubah kajian (Sekaran, 2003). Kajian ini dijalankan ke atas pekerja pelbagai gred dan jawatan di agensi kerajaan di Wilayah Persekutuan Putrajaya.

Instrumen utama dalam pengumpulan data bagi kajian ini adalah melalui borang soal selidik yang disediakan oleh Ismail et al. (2014). Borang soal selidik ini mengandungi empat bahagian. Bahagian pertama adalah berkenaan maklumat peribadi responden. Bahagian kedua mengandungi sebanyak 7 item yang digunakan untuk mengukur komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi. Bahagian ketiga mengandungi 20 item yang berkaitan dengan persepsi terhadap penentuan ganjaran di dalam organisasi. Bahagian keempat soal selidik ini mengukur penilaian prestasi berdasarkan 9 item.

Kesemua item bagi bahagian dua, tiga dan empat diukur berdasarkan pilihan jawapan yang dirasakan paling tepat menggambarkan pandangan responden. Pilihan jawapan adalah menggunakan skala likert dengan tujuh pilihan jawapan iaitu (1) "sangat tidak setuju" kepada (7) "sangat setuju". Data demografi hanya digunakan sebagai pembolehubah kawalan kerana kajian ini memfokus kepada sikap pekerja.

Sebanyak 350 borang soal selidik diedarkan di organisasi kajian dengan menggunakan kaedah persampelan mudah. Kaedah persampelan mudah digunakan kerana pengkaji hanya dibenarkan mengumpul data di agensi berkenaan tanpa diberikan senarai nama kakitangan yang sedang berkhidmat. Daripada 350 borang soal selidik, sebanyak 305 borang yang lengkap diisi telah diterima. Responden kajian ini menjawab borang soal selidik atas dasar sukarela. Memandangkan jumlah sampel kajian melebihi jumlah sampel minimum, iaitu 30 orang, hipotesis kajian dapat diuji menggunakan analisis statistik inferen (Ismail et al., 2010). Pakej Statistik untuk Sains Sosial (SPSS) versi 22 digunakan untuk mengenal pasti profil responden, mendapatkan statistik diskriptif dan menganalisis

korelasi antara pembolehubah kajian. Perisian SmartPLS versi 2.0 digunakan untuk ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan skala pengukuran serta ujian hipotesis kajian.

4. Dapatan Kajian

Dari segi profil sampel kajian, seramai 70.8 peratus responden kajian ini terdiri daripada wanita dan seramai 139 orang berumur di antara 25 hingga 34 tahun (45.6 peratus). Majoriti responden memiliki ijazah (60.7 peratus) dan memegang jawatan kumpulan pengurusan dan professional (67.5 peratus). Responden yang telah berkhidmat antara 5 hingga 14 tahun adalah sebanyak 40.3 peratus, 15 hingga 24 tahun (27.5 peratus), kurang daripada 5 tahun (20.3 peratus) dan selebihnya melebihi 25 tahun perkhidmatan.

Jadual 1 : Keputusan Ujian Kesahihan dan Kebolehpercayaan

Ukuran	Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	AVE	Composite Reliability
Komunikasi	7	0.71 hingga 0.81	0.82	0.58	0.88
Penilaian prestasi	9	0.75 hingga 0.79	0.83	0.59	0.87
Keadilan organisasi	20	0.72 hingga 0.81	0.96	0.59	0.96

Jadual 1 menunjukkan keputusan ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan instrumen kajian. Kaedah *confirmatory factor analysis* (CFA) membuktikan bahawa konstruk konsisten dengan hipotesis kajian dengan nilai *factor loadings* melebihi 0.7 bagi kesemua pembolehubah (Henseler *et al.*, 2010). Keputusan *cronbach alpha* melebihi 0.8 menunjukkan kesemua pembolehubah mempunyai *internal consistency* yang tinggi (Henseler *et al.*, 2010). Keputusan *average variance extracted* (AVE) yang melebihi 0.5 membuktikan kesemua pembolehubah memenuhi piawaian kesahihan (Henseler *et al.*, 2010). Nilai *composite reliability* melebihi 0.7 bagi kesemua pembolehubah menunjukkan wujudnya elemen kebolehpercayaan pada model kajian (Henseler *et al.*, 2010). Secara keseluruhannya, kesemua pembolehubah yang digunakan dalam kajian ini memenuhi piawaian bagi ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan.

Jadual 2 : Keputusan Analisis Korelasi Pearson dan Statistik Diskriptif

Pembolehubah	Min	Pearson Correlation (r)		
		Komunikasi	Penilaian prestasi	Keadilan organisasi
Komunikasi	5.29	1.000		
Penilaian prestasi	5.62	0.616**	1.000	
Keadilan organisasi	4.66	0.368**	0.450**	1.000

Nota: Signifikan pada **p<0.01

Jadual 2 menunjukkan keputusan analisis korelasi Pearson dan statistik diskriptif. Min bagi kesemua pembolehubah adalah antara 4.7 hingga 5.6, menunjukkan kesemua min ini berada dalam julat antara tinggi (4) hingga sangat tinggi (7). Pekali korelasi bagi hubungan dengan pembolehubah bersandar adalah kurang daripada 0.9, membuktikan data kajian tidak terpengaruh dengan masalah kolineariti yang serius (Henseler *et al.*, 2010). Justeru keputusan statistik ini membuktikan kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan ke atas pembolehubah yang digunakan dalam kajian ini.

Ujian hipotesis kajian menghuraikan mengenai kedua-dua pembolehubah tidak bersandar (komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi) yang mempunyai hubungan dengan pembolehubah bersandar (keadilan organisasi). Analisis regresi linear berbilang memberikan nilai pekali β bagi mengetahui faktor mana yang memberi kesan yang ketara terhadap pembolehubah bersandar dan membandingkan kepentingan relatif bagi setiap pembolehubah tidak bersandar. Keputusan ujian hipotesis kajian membuktikan bahawa nilai β bagi kedua-dua hubungan menunjukkan hubungan positif dan berkorelasi secara signifikan, berdasarkan keputusan ujian *t* statistik. Komunikasi mempunyai hubungan positif dan berkorelasi secara signifikan dengan keadilan organisasi ($\beta = 0.483$, $p < 0.01$), membuktikan H1 gagal ditolak. Justeru, komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi. Ujian ini juga mendapati penilaian prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dan berkorelasi secara signifikan dengan keadilan organisasi ($\beta = 0.236$, $p < 0.01$). Jadi, ujian ini membuktikan H2 gagal ditolak, iaitu

penilaian prestasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan keadilan organisasi. Ujian signifikan t pula digunakan untuk menilai sama ada nilai pekali pembolehubah tidak bersandar adalah signifikan bagi model yang terbentuk. Berdasarkan nilai t yang terhasil adalah melebihi 1.96 ($p < 0.01$), ini menunjukkan setiap pembolehubah tidak bersandar ini boleh digunakan dalam model ini seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 3. Secara keseluruhan, komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi mempengaruhi keadilan organisasi sebanyak 39.7 peratus.

Jadual 3 : Keputusan Ujian Hipotesis

Pembolehubah Tak Bersandar	R^2	B	t statistik
Komunikasi	0.397	0.483	9.333
Penilaian prestasi		0.236	2.106

Nota: Signifikan pada $t > 1.96$

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

Keputusan kajian mendapati wujudnya hubungan positif yang signifikan antara sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dengan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi. Dapatan ini menunjukkan keadilan organisasi boleh diramal melalui komunikasi dan penilaian prestasi. Kebanyakan pekerja merasakan bahawa amalan komunikasi terhadap sistem ganjaran telah meningkatkan perasaan adil dalam diri mereka terhadap organisasi. Amalan komunikasi yang berkesan berupaya membantu para pekerja memahami, berpuas hati, menghormati, dan mengiktiraf sistem ganjaran. Seterusnya, persepsi positif ini dapat meningkatkan kredibiliti sistem pentadbiran ganjaran secara keseluruhan (Ismail et al., 2010). Persepsi mengenai keadilan organisasi juga meningkat apabila pekerja merasakan mereka mempunyai ruang untuk mengutarakan permasalahan berkaitan dengan ganjaran. Seterusnya, keadaan ini boleh mendorong meningkatkan prestasi kerja di organisasi (Wahid, 2008).

Di samping itu, keputusan kajian mendapati wujudnya kaitan antara penilaian prestasi dengan keadilan organisasi dan dapatan ini selari dengan kajian Yusof dan Kadir (2012). Kebanyakan responden berpendapat sistem penilaian prestasi di tempat kerja yang telus dan adil akan meningkatkan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi. Pekerja yang berpuas hati dengan penilaian prestasi akan lebih komited terhadap kerja dan organisasi. Sebaliknya sekiranya seseorang pekerja itu tidak berpuas hati dengan penilaian prestasi, pekerja tersebut akan mempunyai persepsi negatif dan mendorong perasaan tidak adil dalam diri mereka terhadap sistem pengurusan ganjaran.

Persepsi positif terhadap keadilan organisasi dapat dipupuk melalui komunikasi serta penilaian prestasi yang berkesan dan telus. Komunikasi yang betul dan baik serta tepat pada masanya serta peningkatan prestasi kerja membolehkan pekerja berasa mereka menerima layanan secara adil. Selain itu, penilaian prestasi yang adil dan telus juga akan memberi impak positif dalam peningkatan persepsi terhadap keadilan organisasi di kalangan pekerja. Dengan itu, mereka akan terdorong untuk lebih berdedikasi dalam melaksanakan tugas dan seterusnya meningkatkan keberkesanan organisasi. Penemuan kajian boleh dijadikan sebagai asas untuk membantu organisasi membentuk persepsi positif pekerja terhadap keadilan organisasi.

6. Penghargaan

Jutaan terima kasih kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia dan Pusat Pengurusan Penyelidikan & Instrumentasi (CRIM), UKM kerana menyediakan peruntukan untuk menjalankan kajian ini (Kod Projek : FRGS/1/2014/SS05/UKM/02/7).

Sekalung penghargaan kepada Prof. Dr. Ishak bin Yussof dan Prof. Madya Dr. Azman bin Ismail atas tunjuk ajar, panduan dan bantuan sepanjang menyiapkan kertas kajian ini.

7. Rujukan

- Abdullah, A.G.K., Tang K. N. and Ismail, A. (2007). Keadilan Organisasi, Kepercayaan Dan Altruisme. *Jurnal Pendidik dan Pendidikan*, Vol. 22, pp. 75–92.
- Colquitt, J.A., Conlon, D.E., Wesson, M.J., Porter, C.O.L.H. and Ng, K.Y. (2001). Justice at the Millennium: A Meta-Analytic Review of 25 Years of Organizational Justice Research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 86 No. 3, pp. 425-45.
- Cohen-Charash, Y. and Spector, P.E. (2001). The Role of Justice in Organizations: A Meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, Vol. 86 No. 2, pp. 278-321.

- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the Dimensionality of Organizational Justice: A Construct Validation of a Measure. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), pp.386.
- Dayan M. A. D. B. (2008). Procedural and interactional justice perceptions and teamwork quality. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, Vol. 23 Iss 8 pp. 566 – 576.
- Dessler, G. (2003). *Human Resource Management*. Upper Saddle River, N.J. : Prentice Hall.
- Elanain, H. M. A. (2010). Work locus of control and interactional justice as mediators of the relationship between openness to experience and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 17 Iss 2, pp. 170 – 192.
- Erdogan, B. (2003). Antecedents and Consequences of Justice Perceptions in Performance Appraisals. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(4), pp. 555-578.
- Flint, D., Haley, L.M. & McNally, J.J. (2012). Dimensionality of Organizational Justice In A Call Center Context. *Psychological Reports*, 110(2), pp. 677-693.
- Fontemayor, Edilberto F. (2003). Decisional and Interactional Fairness: Supervisor Influence on Merit Pay Satisfaction. *Management Research: Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*, Vol. 1 Iss 2, pp. 145 – 160.
- Fournier, W. (2008). *Communication Satisfaction, Interactional Justice, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviours: Staff Perceptions in a University Environment* (Electronic Thesis or Dissertation), Retrieved from <https://etd.ohiolink.edu/>
- Ghosh, P., Rai, A., & Sinha, A. (2014). Organizational justice and employee engagement: Exploring the linkage in public sector banks in India. *Personnel Review*, 43(4), pp. 628-652.
- Gok, S., Karatuna, I., & Ozkilicci, G. (2013). Relationship between Organizational Communication Satisfaction and Organizational Justice: An Empirical Study. *EJOVOC: Electronic Journal of Vocational Colleges*, 3(2).
- Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management review*, 12(1), pp. 9-22.
- Greenberg, J., (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management* 16 (2), pp. 399-432.
- Henseler, J., Vincenzo, E. V., Wynne W. C. and Huiwen, W. (2010). *Handbook of Partial Least Squares: Concepts, Methods and Applications*. New York: Springer.
- Ismail, A., Abdullah, D. N. M. A., Wahid, N., & Mohd Shariff, M. N. (2010). Kesan amalan komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran dan keadilan prosedur terhadap prestasi kerja. *International Journal of Management Studies (IJMS)*,17(1), pp. 203-223.
- Ismail, A., Yusof, I., Sopian, R. Z., Aziz, K.A. and Jabir, R. (2014). Soal Selidik : Persepsi Terhadap Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Kyei-Poku, I., (2014). The benefits of belongingness and interactional fairness to interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35(8), pp. 691-709.
- Konovsky, M.A., Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1987). Relative effects of procedural and distributive justice on employee attitudes. *Representative Research in Social Psychology* 17, pp. 15-24.
- McDowall, A. and Fletcher, C. (2004). Employee Development: An Organizational Justice Perspective. *Personnel Review*, Vol. 33 Iss: 1, pp.8 – 29.
- Muzumdar, P. (2012). Influence of interactional justice on the turnover behavioral decision in an organization. *Journal of Behavioral Studies in Business*, 5, pp. 31-41.
- Nancy E. Day, (2011). Perceived pay communication, justice and pay satisfaction. *Employee Relations*, Vol. 33 Iss: 5, pp.476 – 497.
- Nasuridin, A.M. and Soon L. K. (2011). Organizational justice, age, and performance connection in Malaysia. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, Vol. 21 Iss 3 pp. 273 – 290.
- Nazari, R., Homayuni, Z. and Yektayar, M. (2013). Relationship between communication skills and organizational justice with sport managers' perception of organizational change. *European Journal of Experimental Biology*, Vol. 3 Iss 3, pp.190-194.
- Othman, M. Y., (2003). *Pengurusan Diri*. Selangor : Aras Mega Sdn. Bhd.
- Palaiologos, Anastasios, Papazekos Panagiotis & Panayotopoulou, Leda. (2011). Organizational justice and employee satisfaction in performance appraisal. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 35 Iss 8, pp. 826 – 840.
- Robbins, S. P. (1993). *Organizational behavior: Concepts, controversies and application*. New Jersey: Prentice–Hall, Inc.
- Shaari, A.S., Tang S. M., Lim K. T., Yusof, A.A and Jamal Khan, M.K. (2007). *Keadilan penilaian prestasi dalam kalangan guru dan hubungannya dengan kepuasan kerja dan pencapaian akademik*. In: The 5th ASEAN

- Symposium on Educational Management and Leadership (ASEMAL 5), 18-19 August 2007, Legend Hotel, Kuala Lumpur.
- Schein, E. (1970). *Organizational psychology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Sulaiman W.I.W. & Mahbob, M.H. (2014). Kesignifikanan model kepuasan komunikasi dalam konteks pengurusan maklumat sektor awam. *Jurnal Komunikasi*, Jilid 30(1), pp. 97-115.
- Tugimin, A. J., Saadan, R. and Husain, K. (2011). Kesan Komunikasi dalam Organisasi ke atas Kepuasan Kerja Staf Sokongan di Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (Utem). *Journal of Human Capital Development*, Vol. 4 No. 2 , pp. 57-74.
- Wahid. N., (2008). *Perhubungan antara Komunikasi Sistem Pampasan dan Prestasi Kerja : Keadilan Prosedur sebagai Pembolehubah Moderator*. (Electronic Thesis or Dissertation), Retrieved from <http://ir.unimas.my/id/eprint/3756>.
- Yusof, A. A. (2001). Keadilan organisasi dalam pengurusan perubahan: Satu kemestian. *Jelapang*, 2(2), pp. 1-12.
- Yusof, F. & Kadir, F.A. (2012). Kepuasan Kerja, Tret Optimistik, Keadilan Organisasi dan Hubungannya dengan Prestasi Kerja. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, Bil. 19, pp. 69-82.

Number of Working Hour among Self-Employed Women

Najwa Yusof¹ and Norsarah Yasmin Norzaki²

¹ National University of Malaysia

² National University of Malaysia

Abstract

This research is focused on the factors that determining the number of working hours among married woman who are self-employed in Huku Kinta, Perak district and considered four factors which believed to influence number of working hours such as cost of childcare, education level, husband's earning and wages. Referred from previous researchers on woman labor force, this research gathered all data from 110 respondents by using a set of questionnaire. By using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method, these researches discuss several hypotheses that were used to measure the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The findings concluded that all independent variables significant with the number of working hours among self-employed woman. However, wages and education are strongly correlated as the factors that determined the number of working hours among married women. However, husband earning's earning only have slightly effect on determining the number of working hours among married women. Based from the finding, this research may beneficial for the use of government sector, non-government organization and future research.

Keywords: women, working hours, self-employed

1. Introduction

The percentage of household distribution in Malaysia rises steadily yearly. The percentage of household distribution increased by 30% based on increasing in income level (Economic Planning Unit, 2010). Married woman enter the labor market in order to meet the high expenditure for their families. Women constitute the bulk of Malaysia's population. They are not only holding responsibility of being a wife and mother anymore, but also contribute to the national economy growth. The report of the labor force shows participation rate of women low percentage rate at 45.7% in 2008, compared to the number of men involved which is 79.0%. In the year 2010 shows that increment of women's labor force participation rate which is 46.1%. Meanwhile, percentage of unmarried women involved in the labor participation was 45.9% (Department of Statistic).

Table 1.1: Percentage Labor Force Participation Rate by Gender, 1980-2004, Malaysia
Source: Labor Force Survey Report, 2005

Gender	1980	1990	2000	2002	2003	2004
Male	85.9	83.1	83.1	81.5	82.1	80.9
Female	44.1	47.2	47.2	46.7	47.7	47.3

According to Labor Force Survey Report (2005), throughout the 1990s, the labor force participation rate among woman has remained constant which between 47 - 44%. This situation is still low compare to the participation rate for men, which is 86 – 85%. It indicates that women's labor force participation has increase by 0.01% only between the years 2002 and 2003. It's a show that is still low compared with the participation of men in the labor force.

Although the percentage of women who venture into the labor force is still in low percentage, but it's increased from 44.7% in 1995 to 47.3% in 2004 (Department of Statistics). Women's is not only participated in the public and private sector, but also into entrepreneurial activities. Various measures and scheme were introduced by the government to improve the number of employed persons as employers and entrepreneur. For example, the objective of the Economic Fund Business Group (TEKUN) National that provided the fast and easy financing for women to start and develop their business.

According to National Association of Women Entrepreneurs of Malaysia, Tun Dr. Mahathir in the National Convention of the Council of Women Entrepreneurs of 2002, said that the achievements and the role played by women in entrepreneurship are now clearly demonstrates the ability of women face competition.

Entrepreneurial issues have grown in Malaysia after the implementation of the New Economic Policy (NEP) in 1970. The main goal of the NEP is to reduce and eradicate poverty so that imbalances in the economy can be restored. Entrepreneurship is the largest contributor to transform the lives of today's society. Apart from that, it can also bring a change in economic growth. Involvement of society towards entrepreneurship helps reduce unemployment and indirectly, it will boost the economy of the country (Department of Statistic).

Recently, the number of women involved into business increased. According to the Companies Commission of Malaysia (CCM), a total of 49,554 units of businesses owned by women were registered in year 2000 and by another 54,626 were registered in the year 2001. In the 6 months of the year 2002, a total of 28,185 businesses were registered (Rami & Ahmed, 2007). This increase shows that women in Malaysia are committed to capitalizing on opportunities in trade and industry, as a result of industrialization and economic development. (Bakar, Mohamed, & Mat, 1999)

Furthermore, according to the report labor survey in 2010, it shows increased of the percentage of married women who are self-employed that chosen entrepreneurship as a career. The percentage of married women and self-employed in 2006 was 57.1% and increased by 59% in 2010. There are several parties involved to help women in entrepreneurship that such as the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development, Women Entrepreneurs Association of Community (USAHANITA), Malay Chamber of Commerce Ministry of Entrepreneur Development and Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Cost of Child Care

Norehan Abdullah, Rahmah Ismail, Zulridah Mohd Noor and Fariza Abdullah (2009) have chosen Kedah and Selangor by distributing the questionnaire randomly at two level strata and clustered on households. In the first model, the researchers used the multinomial logit model in identifying the choice of childcare by married women with child aged six and under. The profit model has been used in the research for observing the probability of married women who are working. They found that the cost of child care has a positive significant effect with the labor force participation rate among married women, perhaps the probability in choosing the type of formal childcare. Mostly, single women are more depending on demand and supply of the labor market, meanwhile married women will join labor participation that give them a flexibility time of work.

Based on the study of Norehan Abdullah and Nor'Aznin Abu Bakar (2007), the researcher used a sample size was 600 married women at working age of 15 to 65 years old and a number of 319 or 53.2 percent are working during the survey. In this study that used the probit model to analyze the data shows the result that 30 percent of the respondents have at least one child at the ages six years old and lower. The researchers also estimate a probit model involving employment to wages and child care costs in the model. The result shows that maternal and child care will lead to influence married women to become a labor supply in the labor market, and directly increased the labor force participation among married women.

2.2 Education Level

According to the study by Norehan Abdullah et al (2003) that used cross-sectional data that were collected on 826 women between the ages 15 to 64 years in 2000. Sampling design is a combination of strata and groups that are random. The probability model is selected types of probit in this study. The assumption of normality in the probit model should be met as the sampling design of this study is the sample large probability that consists of 703 respondents. The result found that the level of education has a negative and significant effect on the participation of married women in the labor force. However, a high level of experience in the field of the duties would be influenced them to return to work.

The purpose of the study that has been done by Norsiah Binti Uddin (2010) is to inspect the role of these factors which are tertiary educational attainment, women's fertility rates and age factors in influencing their participation in the labor market. Studies using time series data on female labor force participation and fertility rates from 1990 to 2007 derived mainly from the Labor Force Survey Report, Department of Statistics and Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister's Department. In order to analyze the study, the researcher had used an OLS model and the result shows that education level had a significant negative result to the factor that influence women to joint labor participation.

Through research by Aysit Tansel (2002) that has been conducting the survey in Turkey, found that education has a strong positive effect on women's participation in self-employment, especially among married women, that was in concordance with the micro-level evidence from Turkey. In this study, a proxy will be used for education by a provincial indicator for the educational level. The researcher provides time series evidence on female labor force participation rates in Turkey in his study. In this study, the models are estimates using data for 67 provinces for three points which are in year 1980, 1985 and 1990.

Based on the study of Muhammad Zahir Faridi, Imran Sharif Chaudhry, Muhammad Shaukat Malik (2011), the researchers stated that married women's participation in self-employment activities is enhanced because of years of education. Moreover, in this study shows that lower level of education motivates the women to start their own business but highly educated women are not inclined to be self employed. The logistic regression technique has been employed to estimate the women self-employment model. In this study, the other variable that has been used are age and experience of married women in self-employment.

2.3 Wages

Wages are one of important variable that determined the labor supply among married women, as been proved by previous research of Lee-Peng Ho & Su-Fei Yap (2001). In the study, the researchers had used Ordinary Least Square (OLS) shows the finding is wages increase when there are highest in numbers of working hour. The researchers found that the wages and numbers of working hour are significant and positively correlated each other.

According to the Mincer (1962), he highlights that education level will play as a major factor that influence wage, besides other individual characteristics such as the experience of working, types of job, gender and location. This explanation has been supported by Becker and Gilbert (1975) demonstrates almost the same factors that determine labor supply as determinants of wage.

Based on studies Lixin Cai (2010), married women's labor supply Australia positively associated with their own salaries, but negatively correlated with their husbands' salaries. The variables that he used such as income, education, the number and age of young children have a significant effect on married women labor supply. In this study, the working hours are censored at zero for those who do not work. Thus, the conventional model used is the Tobit model.

2.4 Husband's Earning

Anbreen Bibi & Asma Afzal (2012) highlight in their study that the income of husband has a positive impact towards the labor force participation of married women as well as other variables such as education of the respondent, number of offsprings, number of dependents, family size, monthly expenditures of the family, positive attitude of husband and family towards the job of women and job satisfaction. In this study, the researcher used a sample consists of 146 married women aging from 20 to 70 in the city of Wah Cantt, Pakistan. Based on the descriptive analysis used the probit model, the result of the study shows that there have a slightly effect between the income of the husband and labor supply among married women.

Husband's employment status and income level are also the main factor that should be considered for a woman to make a decision in order to join the labor force. (Ali Khan & Tasnim Khan, 2009). In this study, the number of working hours of married women has been analyzed using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) and the primary data exclusively collected for the study by the cluster technique has been used. By conducting this study, the result shows that the lower income of the husband will lead married women to increase their working hours in order to help reducing a burden financial in the family. In addition, the researcher analyzes the wages of women who are working by using the number of working hours and the distance between place of working and home, which most of married women in Pakistan are working in the market.

Most of the studies reviewed focus on the factors which determine married women who are joining the labor force participation. Nevertheless, the purpose of the current study is to identify different socioeconomic factors which determine married women in self-employment. The importance of the study becomes more rational because women's participation as self-employed will attract more investment in a business sector. Eventually, it can help raises the process of economic development

3. Methodology

The type of investigation in this study refers to the correlation study as to investigate the relationship between independent variables such as husband income, the cost of childcare, education level, and wages with numbers of working hour. Dependent variable which is numbers of working hour is influenced by the independent variables

which are the cost of childcare, education level, wages, and husband's earning. The function of the regression is stated as below:

$$HR = f(COC, EL, HE, W)$$

HR = Number of working hours by self-employed married women (weekly)

COC = Cost of Childcare accordance with the number of children

EL= Education Level among married self-employed women.

W= Wages / Income received monthly

110 sets of questionnaires distributed to the sample of populations consist of self-employed among married women in near Hulu Kinta, Perak. The questionnaire has been approved by the expertise in labor economic who is Dr Norehan Abdullah, a senior lecturer in University Utara Malaysia (UUM). The software that used is Statistical Packaged for Social Science (SPSS) version 20 in order to analyze all gathered data of variables and forecast the data.

The question consist of four sections which are section A, B, C and D. Section A is focused on personal information of the respondents, such as gender, age, race and education level. Nominal scale has been used in section A in order to assign the respondents to certain categories or groups. While in section B consist of employment information such as the number of hours worked per week. In this section, the question is focused more on self-employed married women such as wages or wages received monthly. As for section C and D are focused on information about the husband and information on children and other family members.

Information that consists of married women who are self-employed in area Hulu Kinta is from non-government organization (NGO) which is Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) in order. The researchers also went to Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Sintok to get a sample of the questionnaire from the former researcher who carried out the research regarding labor force among married women.

In this study, it is difficult to determine the accurate whole population of married women who are self-employed. Thus, the researcher took the population based on the married women who are registered under Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia, specifically in the Hulu Kinta area. The sampling frame for this study is respondents of self-employed married women in the Hulu Kinta area who are registered under Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia.

Nominal scale, ordinal scales and ratio scales is been used. Nominal scale has been used in demographic or personal information of the respondent, such as race and religion. An example question that has been used ordinal scale in this study is the residential location of the respondent and ranking of factor that influence of choosing the type of childcare. While the example of question that has used ratio scale is age, income and cost of childcare.

4. Results

Multiple Linear Regression equation result as below:

$$\text{NOWH} = -151.136 + 3.295 \ln\text{COC} - 2.128 \text{EL} - 2.544 \ln\text{HE} + 31.210 \ln\text{W}$$

(56.200) (5.277) (1.155) (6.213) (5.526)

$$R^2 = 0.505 \quad F\text{-test} = 0.000$$

Where,

NOWH : Number of working hours (weekly)

COC : Cost of child care (monthly)

EL : Education level (year of schooling)

HE : Husband's Earning (monthly)

W: Wage / Income received (monthly)

β_0 : Constant

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$: Beta coefficients or parameters

The coefficient of determination (R^2) in this regression is 0.505, is more than 50.5 percent of the variation of wages, cost of childcare, education level and husband's earning level can explain the numbers of working hour among married women in Hulu Kinta, Perak. Meanwhile, another 49.5 percent of the variation which is the number of working hours among married women can be explained by other factors which are not included in this regression such as household size, work preference, household income, and age of married women.

The t-value for the cost of childcare is 0.536 which greater that significance level 0.1. In this study, the relationship between cost of childcare and the number of working hours among self-employed married women are not significant. The cost of childcare shows the positive relationship with the number of working hours among married women where an increase in the cost of childcare will encourage married women to increase the number of working hours.

The relationship between educational level and number of working hours among self-employed married women is significant since the t-value is 0.072 which lower than the significance level of 0.1. Education level shows the negative relationship with the number of working hours among married women.

The relationship between husbands' earning and number of working hours among self-employed married women are not significant, since the t-value for coefficient of husband's earning is 0.684, which is greater than significance value 0.1. Husband's earning shows the negative relationship with the number of working hours among married women which is follow economic theory. In this research, the frequency analysis distribution to summarize and looking at the detailed information on nominal categorical data such as age, level of education, and residential location as below.

Table 4.1: Frequencies of age, years of schooling, child age 0-6 years old, residential location.

Age	Percentage
21-40	38.8
41-60	59.8
60 and above	1.4
Total	100.0

Years of Schooling	Percentage
Never been to school (0)	0
Not completed primary school (1-5)	1.8
Completed Primary School / UPSR (6)	5.5
Not completed in low secondary school (7-8)	1.8
Completed in low secondary school / PMR (9)	12.7
Not completed in high secondary school (10)	2.7
Completed in high secondary school /SPM (11)	59.1
Completed STPM / Diploma/ Matriculation (13)	10.0
Completed University /College (16-17)	6.4
Total	100

Child age 0-6 years old	Percentage
At least 1 Child	18.2
2 Child	20.0
3 Child	5.5
No child	56.3
Total	100

Residential Location	Percentage
Rural	15.4
Urban	84.6
Total	100

The Pearson Chi-Square is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 that shows there is a significant difference between husband's earning towards number of working hours among married women. The results show 19 out of 110 married women work in the range 81 to 100 hours per week with income of husband less than RM 1499. The Pearson Chi-Square for education level is 0.000 which less than the probability 0.05 and it shows that there is a significant difference between education level towards number of working hours among married women. The result found that 33 respondents which is married women have secondary school background education work at the range 81 to 100 hours per week. This means the low education level among these married women will lead them to increase the number of working hours. The Pearson chi-square is 0.000 which is less the probability 0.05 and it shows that there is a significant difference between wages towards number of working hours among married women. 14 respondents which are married women with wages RM 1499 work less than 40 hours per week.

In this research, one-sample Kolmogorov – Smirnov Test has been used for normality distribution analysis. The researcher found that only one variable which is years of schooling is not normally distributed due to the Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) is below than significance level 0.05. Meanwhile, the other variables such as the number of working hours, wages, cost of childcare, years of schooling and husband's income are normally distributed which are the Asymp. Sig

(2-tailed) more than the significance level at 0.05. In this research, education level is not normally distributed because mostly the respondents are coming from secondary school or SPM education background.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This research found that the cost of child care and husband's earning is not giving impact on self-employed married women in order to increase the number of working hours. However, the most important factor that influences the number of working hours is wages and education level. Wages are the main factor that influences the number of working hours among married women as the result shows that wages have the large beta among other variable. While, the cost of childcare is insignificant and this is supported by Osnowitz (2005) that stated the cost of child care give a minor impact towards married women. Thus, the cost of childcare is not an important factor for them to increase the number of working hours.

Moreover, education level and husband's earnings are not influencing the number of working hours among self-employed married women. As for the husband's earning, it shows negatively insignificant with the number of working hours. The negative relationship between husband's earnings and number of working hours among married women has been supported by the Ali Khan & Rana Ejaz Khan (2009). Based on Amran Daud (2004), husband's earnings slightly influence the number of working hours among married women who are self-employed because basically the passion, preference and satisfaction on business will increase the number of working hours among self-employed married women. Meanwhile, education level shows that the more years of education level will decrease the number of working hours among married women, since married women who have a higher education level will demand for flexible working hours (Abu Bakar & Abdullah, 2007). In this study, wages have a significant relationship with the number of working hours among married women due to the human theory highlight that the increase in wages will lead to an increasing in number of working hours among married women.

A woman who have low education levels have less opportunity to participate in the labor force. Therefore, most of these married women decide to self-employment in order to increase their standard of living. Government and any NGO's should give an initiative to the married women by providing a new program such as based-home business. From this program, they will learn more knowledge regarding business home based such as a knowledge economy, electronic commerce and electronic business. The government shall endeavor involving all non-governmental organizations and voluntary organization in women's development programs and actions by providing financial, technical, and institutional advice to be provided continuously to women's organizations to encourage and promote their services, especially in entrepreneurship.

In this research, a non-governmental organization such as Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) should play their role through frequently do a campaign, talk or seminar for those married women who are not involved in the labor market, in order to give them self awareness and attract them be a part in entrepreneurship. NGOs can also help women who are married and want to do business by providing guidance how to manage a small business, for example, how to manage their finances so that capital income received lucrative and this could indirectly increase women's productivity with rising.

There are other factors that can be used by future researcher that might be more significant in order to determine the number of working hours such as household structure, work preference, women age, health status, and household income. Moreover, for future researcher, it is recommended to increase the sample size in order to reduce any error or spurious regression problem. In order to identify other variables that can be influenced the labor supply related to the number of working hours among married women, secondary research is recommended for future study.

6. References

- Afzal, A & Bibi, A . (2012). Determinants of Married Women Labor force Participation in Wah Cantt : A descriptive analysis. *Academic Research International*. Volume 2, No.1, pp . 599-622 . University of Wah, Wah Cantt.
- Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia. (n.d). Retrieved from Annual Report for Year 2010.
- Amran Daud. (2004). Faktor-faktor yang mendorong usahawan wanita berniaga di pasar besar tanah merah, Kelantan. *Universiti Teknologi Malaysia*.
- Aysit Tansel. (2002). Economic Development and Female Labor Force Participation in Turkey. *ERC Working Papers in Economics 01/05*. Middle East Technical University.
- Becker, G.S. and Gilbert Ghez. (1975). The Allocation of Time and Goods Over the Life Cycle. University Press.
- Department of Statistic Malaysia. (n.d) . Retrieved from Labour Force Survey and Time Series Data, 1982-2010 :

- www. statistics.gov.my
- Economic Planning Unit. Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010). *Women and Development*. Chapter 13 : www.epu.gov.my
- Ho. P. L, Yap. F. S . (2001). The Link Between Wages and Labour Productivity. *Malaysian Journal of Economic Studies*. University of Malaya. 1511-4554
- Lim H.E, Zalina M.Mohaideen, Norehan Abdullah . (2003). Penyertaan Tenaga Buruh Wanita Berkahwin di Kedah : Kesan Faktor Agama, Anak dan Pendidikan. *Jurnal Ekonomi Malaysia* 4, 49-79
- Lixin Cai. (2010). Intertemporal Labour Supply of Married Australian Women. *Social Policy Group*. Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations.
- Mincer. J . (1962). *Labor Force Participation of Married Women : A study of Labor Supply*. Columbia University and National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Muhammad Zahir Faridi, Imran Sharif Chaudhry, Muhammad Shaukat Malik (2011) . Why Women are Self-Employed : Empirical Evidence from Pakistan. *International journal of economics and finance, Toronto*. Vol 3, p 198-207.
- Nor' Aznin Abu Bakar and Norehan Abdullah. (2007). Labor Force Participation of Women in Malaysia. *Universiti Utara Malaysia*.
- Norehan Abdullah, Rahmah Ismail, Zulridah Mohd Noor, Fariza Ahmad. (2009). Married Women in Workforce and Choice of Child Care. *PROSIDING PERKEM IV, JILID 2*, 466-500.
- Norsiah Uddin. (2010). The determinants of women's participation in labor market. *PROSIDING PERKEM V, JILID 1* (2010) , 28-38.
- Rami, A.& Ahmed, A. (2007). Critical Analysis and Modelling of Small Business Performance (Case Study : Syria). *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability*. Vol. III, Issue 2.
- Rana Ejaz Ali Khan, Tasnim Khan. (2009). Labor Force Participation of Married Women (Pakistan). *Journal of Economic and Social Research* 11(2), 77- 106.

Work Values and Job Satisfaction among Academician in Public and Private University

Nor A'tikah Mat Ali⁺ and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Department of Human Resource Development

Faculty of Management

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract

In an organization, work values play an important role to enhance work attitudes and performance among employees. In terms of academician, the implement of work values can help to increase academician's level of satisfaction and also producing excellent achievement that fits with current globalization of technology. Previous studies stated that there are two common types of work values in organization which are terminal and instrumental values. Terminal and instrumental work values among academician helps organization to enhance productivity. Hence, work values become a good contributor in achieving the goals of organization and to increase the level of job satisfaction among academicians. Therefore, the aim of this preliminary study is to identify the levels of job satisfaction among academicians. This study also identifies the differences of work values between academicians at Public and Private University in Malaysia. In addition, this study examines the effect of work values on job satisfaction among academic staff. The study utilized Work Values Inventory and Job Satisfaction Scale to measure academicians work values and job satisfaction. The total of 100 of public and private university academicians become a respondent of this study. The findings shows that the level of work values among academic staff in public and private university are moderate and there are no differences of work values between these universities. The findings also provide the empirical evidence that shows the effect of work values on job satisfaction among academic staff in Malaysia.

Keywords: work values, terminal values, instrumental values, job satisfaction

1. Introduction

Due to the rapid development in higher education, universities become one of the institutions that face a lot of changes and transformation to enhance their skill and performance towards international standard. Universities not only facing the changing of traditional academic role but at the same time also involve in the changing of working condition and response to new demands of technology (Mapasela & Hay, 2006). Hence, universities had to rethink, rewrite and redesign all their qualifications, curriculum and modules (Mapasela & Hay, 2006) in order to fix with current transformation and globalization. With this, strengthening universities is a key element in national efforts to build a knowledge-based economy (Austin, et al., 2014), encouraging the establishment of centre of knowledge and developing innovative and ethical individuals.

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + 0137925392
E-mail address: atikah2211@gmail.com.

Together with the growth of globalisation, Malaysian educational institutions also face a lot of changing and transformation. There are an increasing number of public and private universities that have been established to raise the education standard of the nation. According to the Malaysian Qualifications Register's (MQR) website, currently there are 31 public universities and 65 private universities and college universities in Malaysia (MQR, 2015). All of these public and private universities in Malaysia have carried out various efforts to increase and upgrade their status as a centre of excellence in education not only locally but also internationally. Academicians as major employees in public and private universities are facing intense challenges due to the need to transform and revolutionise the quality of their work. Due to that, academician may face more problems in their job as a lecturer and at the same time face competition pressure due to the rapid development in Malaysian educational sector (Mohd Kamel, 2009). Understanding the work values of academicians helps universities to understand how to structure jobs, working conditions, compensation packages, and human resource policies to enhance academician's satisfaction and performance in universities.

At the same time, previous research in this area of study also indicated that good work values can help in increasing the level of job satisfaction (Ho, 2006; Froese & Xiao, 2012; Lim, 2010). According to Filiz (2014), job satisfaction is generally related with life satisfaction and can directly affect social, physical and mental health of individuals. Job satisfaction is also related to the key factor that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and achievement of other goals that lead to a feeling of fulfilment (Aziri, 2011). The role of public and private universities that emphasizes more on fulfilling academicians need and desire in work values, either internally or externally, can be the best indicator of job satisfaction enhancement. In addition, according to Anderson (2001), job satisfaction is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors, which are also referred to as the work values. Thus, previous research also agreed on the important role of work values as a one predictor that contributes to enhance job satisfaction (Adeyinka, Anyeni & Popoola, 2007; Arciniega & Gonzalez, 2005).

In sums, this study will be focusing on academicians at public and private universities in Malaysia as both of these sectors play important roles in enhancing national development, encouraging the establishment of centre of knowledge, and developing innovative and ethical individuals. Therefore, this paper also will focus on investigating whether there are any differences in terms of work values among academics at the public and private universities as well as the effect of work values on job satisfaction in Malaysian context.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The conceptualization of work values

The term of values was firstly introduced by Rokeach (1973) that refers to the human needs and desire towards any situation in their life. According to previous researchers, work values are one of the subsets from overall human values that can also be recognized in organization (Ying Liu & Yong Lei, 2012). Previous researchers also reviewed the various concepts to explain work values in organisation (Spitzmuller, Van Dyne, & Ilies, 2008). The most well-known classification of work values is described by Super (1970). Super (1970) suggested fifteen dimensions of work values that can help in understanding the values of students, customers or employees, and help individuals to identify their goal and establish a variety of training systems. These fifteen dimensions of work values have been divided into three categories, which are intrinsic (terminal values), extrinsic (instrumental values), and concomitant values (Robinson & Betz, 2008).

Meanwhile, Ho (2006) argued that work values are divided into two which are terminal values and instrumental work values. In line with Ho (2006), Hirschi (2010) also agreed that work values can be divided into two which are terminal and instrumental work values. These two types of work values have been applied to the majority of researchers to explain the concept and instruments and measure work values in organization Therefore, this study adopted these two dimensions of work values based on Ho (2006). Table1 below shows and explain the details description about these dimensions:

Table 1: Dimension of terminal and instrumental values

Types of work Values	Dimension		Details
Terminal Values	Self-growth tendency		The degree of important which an individual focusing on acquiring new knowledge, self-growth, enhance creativity and promoting personal development during the course of their work.
	Self-realisation tendency		The degree of important which an individual places on fulfilling their lifelong goals, application of personal talent, improving quality of life and enhancing their social welfare during the course of their work
	Self-esteem tendency		The degree of important which an individual places on a sense of personal achievement, self-recognition and autonomy, respect from others and senior management during the course of their work.
Instrumental Values	Social tendency	Interaction	The degree of important which an individual's places on achieving and excellent level of social interaction and sharing their daily emotional experiences with colleagues and superiors, as well as establishing harmonious social relations with others during the course of their work.
	Security and economic tendency		The degree of important which an individual places on reaching reasonable economic security through holistic organizational system, to satisfied their sense of security during the course of their work.
	Stability and Freedom from Anxiety tendency		The degree of important which an individual's places on regularly and stably performing this job without tension, anxiety, chaos or fear.
	Recreation, health and transport tendency		The degree of important which an individual's places on attaining sufficient physical energy, healthy and availability of convenient traffic transport options during their work.

In summary, previous research have their own definitions and dimensions to investigate work values among employees. This study adopts work values dimensions by Ho (2006) to measure work values among academicians in Malaysian public and private university.

2.2 Previous study related to work values and job satisfaction

According to the literature, employees in both public and private sectors have differences in terms of their work values. Previous research in work values has found that the employees in public and private sectors have their own perceptions, needs, and desires towards the value of their work (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). Generally, private sector employees focus more on external factors in work values, such as good payment and salary (Kumar & Koh, 2011; Lyons, et al., 2006), while public sector employees focus more on internal factors in work values, such as motivation and job security (Makhbul, Rahid, & Hasun, 2011). In education institutions, both public and private universities also have differences in terms of their work characteristic. In Public Universities, work characteristic is related to the work environment that focuses on research because quality research is important for Public Universities (Mohrman, et al., 2008). Academicians from the Public Universities are important for effective public administration and they also play the biggest role in realising Vision 2020 (Rusli, Azman, & Wan Khairuzzaman, 2007). On the other hand, academic staffs in Private Universities are important in generating the profits for the country. Private Universities also make the best efforts in collecting and mobilising resources investment as well as enhancing skills and technical and management expertise together with the public universities (Benjamin, Yeoh, Lim, & Osman, 2010). These differences in work characteristic may influence differences among the employees in terms of their needs and desires towards work values. Other than that, Sonmezer and Eryaman (2008) also conducted a research on work values differences among 602 public and 427 private school teachers. Their finding indicated that there were differences in work values between private and public school teachers in terms of salary, social ranking, reputation, ability in using skills, and creativity.

In additions, previous researchers have found that work values have a significant relationship with work-related attitudes among employees in organisation (Froese & Xiao, 2012; Mangansakan, 2005). Review from previous research states that both instrumental and terminal work values can affect employee's work-related attitude (Bhatia, Deep, & Sachdeva, 2012) such as job satisfaction (Riketta, 2008). Previous research on instrumental values (e.g.

high income and job security) among nurses had shown a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Daehlen, 2008). Profeli and Mortimer (2010) also conducted a longitudinal study among the student showed that there are significant relationship between intrinsic work values and job satisfaction over time. A research by Froese and Xiao (2012) also agreed that there are significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction. In addition, research by Liao and Chen (2012) among 471 staffs from notebook testing department also showed that there was a positive correlation between work values and job satisfaction. In addition, employee also has their own individual differences toward their relationship with others, working environment and leadership style in order to identify the factor that enhances their satisfaction.

The relationship between work values and job satisfaction also has been supported by theories from scholar in this area of study. Famous motivation theory by Herzberg also provided the holistic explanation about the role and impact of intrinsic and extrinsic work values on human motivation and attitude. Herzberg's theory argues that high level of satisfaction is related to the job content and psychological needs such as status, self-actualisation, growth, and achievement. Herzberg concludes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same continuum. As a result, he argues that motivational factors can cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction, while hygiene factors cause dissatisfaction when absent.

In conclusion, positive work values among academicians in both public and private Universities are important to increase their level of job satisfaction. In addition, according to Froese and Xiao (2012), giving more attention on work values helps to develop the human resource management system that is able to attract job satisfaction among employees.

3. Research Framework

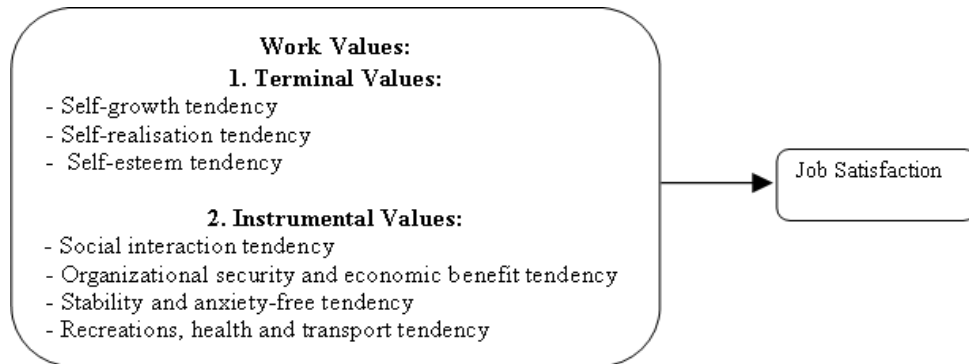


Figure 1: Research Framework

4. Research Objectives

This study intends to investigate the level of job satisfaction among academicians at public and private universities in Malaysia. This study also intends to examine the differences of work values between academicians at public and private Universities in Malaysia and lastly to identify the effect of work values on job satisfaction among academicians at public and private Universities in Malaysia.

5. Methodology

5.1 The Population, Sample and Instruments

Since this proposed research aims to investigate the effect of work values among academics, a population in this research refers to the academicians at public and private universities in Malaysia. Since this study is a preliminary study, the total number of respondents is smaller than the actual study. The totals of 100 academicians from public and private Universities in Malaysia become respondents of this study. The data was collected through questionnaire that consists of three major parts, which are demographic or personal details of the respondents, work values and job satisfaction. All the items were self-rated that based on self perception. A 49 items scale measuring work values was

adopted from Wu et al., (1996) Work Values Inventory (WVI). The research by Wu et al., (1996) and Ho (2006) found that this instrument has high reliability with the coefficient alpha ranges from 0.79 to 0.94. There are no reverse-core items and a response to each item is made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 as not important to 5 as very important. Otherwise, job satisfaction among academicians will be measured using job satisfaction sub-scale of COPSOQ that was developing in 1997 and the scales have good reliability (Kristensen, et al., 2005). Reliability test for all of this scales in pilot study are acceptable with Cronbach's Alpha 0.98 for Work Values Inventory and Cronbach's Alpha 0.88 for Job Satisfaction. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16) was used to generate the result. Descriptive analysis will be utilised to measure the level of variables. The data will be presented in the form of mean, median, mod, percentage and frequency. The researcher will conduct correlation and regression analysis for each variable to identify the pattern of relationship and effect between variables.

6. Result

6.1 Demographic data of respondent

In this study, there are 50 males (50.0 percent) and 50 females (50.0 percent) academicians in the sample, giving a total of 100 respondents. Respondent in this study also divided into four ethnic group which are 60 Malay (60.0 percent), 25 Chinese (25.0 percent), 12 Indian (12.0 percent) and 3 respondent (3.0 percent) from others ethnics. In addition, in terms of age, mostly respondent in this study are above 40 years old (45 respondent) and only 11 respondent that age around 25 to 30 years old. Majority respondent also had been married which are total 71 academic staff (71.0 percent) from overall respondent in this study. Since this study focusing on public and private academicians, respondent in this study involved 50 academicians (50.0 percent) from private university and 50 academicians (50.0 percent) from public university. Majority respondent also from position as lecturer (45 respondents) and only 9 respondents is Professor. In terms of level of education, there are 51 respondent with Master holder and 49 respondents with PhD holder. Lastly, the respondents in this study also mostly had work tenure more than 10 years.

6.2 Level of job satisfaction among academician in Public and Private University

Table 2 below demonstrates the level of job satisfaction among academicians at Malaysia public and private university.

Table 2: The level of job satisfaction among academicians in Malaysia Public and Private University

Types of University	Mean Score	Level of Satisfaction
Public University Academicians	3.52	Moderate
Private University Academicians	3.49	Moderate
Overall Academician in Malaysia	3.51	Moderate

As stated in Table 2, academician at public university shown the moderate level of job satisfaction with the total mean score 3.52. At the same time, the finding also found the moderate level of job satisfaction among academician at Malaysia private university. Overall, the level of job satisfaction among academician in Malaysia public and private university in the moderate level with total mean score 3.51.

6.3 Differences of work values among academician in Malaysia public and private university

Table 3 below show the differences of work values among academicians at public and private university.

Table 3: Differences of Work Values among Academicians at Public and Private Universities

Element	Types of University	N	Mean	Df	t-Test	Sig.
Terminal Values	Public	50	3.82	98	-1.22	0.22
	Private	50	3.98			
Instrumental Values	Public	50	3.82	98	-1.91	0.06
	Private	50	4.08			
Overall Work Values	Public	50	3.82	98	-1.63	0.11
	Private	50	4.03			

*The mean difference is significant at values $p < 0.0$

Result from t-test in Table 3 shown that there are no significant differences between academicians at public and private universities in terms of their work values either terminal or instrumental values.

6.4 Relationship between work values and job satisfaction

Table 4 below demonstrates the inter-correlation between variables in this study which are terminal values, instrumental values, overall work values and job satisfaction.

Table 4: Inter-correlation between the study variables (N=100)

Variables	Mean	SD	Terminal Values	Instrumental Values	Overall work values	Job satisfaction
Terminal Values	3.91	0.67	-	0.848**	0.960**	0.526**
Instrumental Values	3.95	0.69	0.848**	-	0.962**	0.392**
Overall work values	3.93	0.66	0.960**	0.962**	-	0.476**
Job satisfaction	3.51	0.69	0.526**	0.392**	0.476**	-

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the results in Table 4, respondents reported moderate mean scores of terminal values, instrumental values, overall work values and job satisfaction. The result also indicated that there are significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction. There was a moderate relationship between terminal values and job satisfaction ($r=0.526$, $p<0.01$). Compared to terminal values, result show that there are low relationship between instrumental values and job satisfaction ($r = 0.392$, $p<0.01$). For overall work values, the result also show the significant moderate relationship ($r = 0.476$, $p<0.01$).

6.5 The effect of work values on job satisfaction

Table 5 below presents the finding of linear regression to assess the effect of work values dimension on job satisfaction.

Table 5: The effect of Work Values on Job Satisfaction

Variables	Standardized coefficients Beta (β)	Sig.	R ²
(Constant)		0.000	
Terminal Values:			
- Self-growth tendency ^a	0.044	0.775	
- Self-realisation tendency	0.198	0.141	
- Self-esteem tendency	0.528*	0.001	
Instrumental Values			
- Social Interaction tendency	0.043	0.769	
- Organizational security and economic benefit tendency	-0.077	0.606	
- Stability and anxiety-free tendency	-0.002	0.992	
- Recreations, health and transport tendency	-0.193	0.136	
R²			0.358

*p value <0.05 (two-tailed)

a.predictors: Work values dimensions

b.dependent variable: Job satisfaction

Based on Table 5, there are seven dimensions of work values that can contribute to the job satisfaction among academicians. The model tested is significant ($P <0.05$). The regression analysis shown that one of the Terminal work values dimension which is self-esteem tendency contribute to the job satisfaction at the significant level at values ($\beta=0.528$, $p<0.05$).

7. Discussion and Conclusion

In terms of the level of job satisfaction among academicians in Malaysia public and private university, researcher refers to the Table 2 in this study. Academicians in both public and private university had shown the moderate level of job satisfaction. This result is consistent with previous findings on general level of job satisfaction among academicians. Previous study among academicians in Malaysia found the moderate level of job satisfaction (Voung & Duong, 2013; Fauziah & Kamaruzzaman, 2009).

Previous research in this area of study also shows that there are differences of work values among employees in public and private sector (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). In this study that focused on academicians, there are interesting finding because the result shows that there are no differences of work values among these respondents. Result from t-test in Table 3 showed that there are no significant differences between academicians at public and private universities in terms of their work values either terminal or instrumental values. Result from this study showed those academicians in Malaysia public and private university share the same work values even though dealing with different work environment. That result may be related to the aims and vision of both universities. This is because both academicians in public and private university in Malaysia share the same vision and mission to enhancing the quality of educations. As stated before, public and private university in Malaysia also share the same vision in making the best efforts in collecting and mobilising resources investment as well as enhancing skills and technical (Benjamin, Yeoh, Lim, & Osman, 2010).

In this study, the relationship between work values and job satisfaction was investigated by using Pearson Correlation. Based on the Table 4, there was a moderate relationship between terminal values and job satisfaction ($r=0.526$, $p<0.01$). Compared to terminal values, result showed that there are low relationship between instrumental values and job satisfaction ($r = 0.392$, $p<0.01$). For overall work values, the result also showed the significant moderate relationship ($r = 0.476$, $p<0.01$). This result also consistent with previous research that also found there are significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction among employees in organization (Sonmezer and Eryaman, 2008; Profeli and Mortimer, 2010).

In order to identify the effect of work values on job satisfaction among academicians in Malaysia public and private university, researcher performs the Regression Analysis. There are seven dimensions of work values (refer Table 5) that can contribute to the job satisfaction among academicians. The regression analysis showed that one of the terminal work values dimension which is self-esteem tendency contribute to the job satisfaction at the significant level at values ($\beta=0.528$, $p<0.05$). This result indicated the important of fulfillment the need of self-esteem among academicians in Malaysia to enhance their job satisfaction. This is because higher self-esteem involves individual willingness to find the courage to do new thing that can lead them to make the right decision in their life (Ghafari & Samii, 2013). Among academicians, self-esteem can help them to improve their individual need of achievement such as gaining self confident and having total power of control while working. Previous research among academicians also agreed that self-esteem become one of the good predictor to enhance job satisfaction (Ghafari & Samii, 2013; Ahmed, 2012). This value of beta also shows the positive rate of change by dependent variables. R square values (0.358) in this result shown that only 35.8% change is caused by work values which is self-esteem tendency to job satisfaction. It can be concluded that there must be some other variables (64.2%) that are not investigate in this study and can give contribution at a significant level to job satisfaction.

As a conclusion, work values play an important role to enhance job satisfaction among employees in organization such as academicians. In Malaysian public and private university, work values play an important role in enhancing academicians's satisfaction especially by focusing on self-esteem tendency. Academicians in Malaysia also reported the moderate level of job satisfaction. Academicians will enhance their job satisfaction when university fulfils their needs in terminal and instrumental values. Hence, work values, which are common and important values at the workplace, are also always related to the employee development and achievement (Ying Liu & Yong Lei, 2012). In addition, since this study had been carried out in Malaysia, it extends the knowledge and research related to influences of work values on job satisfaction especially among academicians in Malaysia. Lastly, this study also provides empirical results that would help universities in enhancing the performance and effectiveness of their academicians, through focusing on work values such as self-esteem among academicians.

8. References

- Adeyinka, T., Ayeni, C. O., & Popoola, S. O. (2007). Work motivation, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment of library personnel in Academic and Research Libraries in Oyo State, Nigeria. *Library Philosophy and Practice* 2007, 1-16.
- Ahmed, M.A. (2012). The Role of Self-esteem and optimism in job satisfaction among teachers of Private Universities in Bangladesh. *Asian Business Review*, 1(1), 114-120.
- Anderson, N. (2001). *Organisational Psychology*. London: Sage Publishers.
- Arciniega, L. M., & Gonzalez, L. (2005). Other-Oriented values and job satisfaction. *Problem and Perspectives in Management*, 4, 128-132.
- Austin, A. E, Chapman, D.W., Farah, S., Wilson, E., & Ridge, N. (2014). Expatriate academic staff in the United Arab Emirates: the nature of their work experiences in higher education institutions. *Higher Education*, 68, 541-557.
- Aziri, B. (2011). Job Satisfaction: A literature review. *Management Research and Practice*, 3(4), 77-86.
- Bhatia, A., Deep, G., & Sachdeva, S. (2012). Analyzing the Role of Job Involvement on Organizational Effectiveness: An empirical study among the employees of Punjab National Bank. *International Journal of Computing & Business Research, Proceedings of 'I-Society 2012' at GKU, Talwandi Sabo Bathinda (Punjab)*, ISSN (online): 2229-6166.
- Benjamin, C. Y., Yeoh, S. F., Lim, C., & Osman, S. (2010). An exploratory study on turnover intention among private sector employees. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(8), 57-64.
- Daehlen, M. (2008). Job satisfaction and job values among beginning nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45, 1789-1799.
- Fauziah, N., & Kamaruzaman, J. (2009). Level of job satisfaction amongst Malaysian academic staff. *Asian Social Science*, 5 (5), 122-128.
- Filiz, Z. (2014). An analysis of the levels of job satisfaction and life satisfaction of the academic staff. *Soc Indic Res*, 116, 793-808.
- Froese, F. J., & Xiao, S. (2012). Work values, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in China. *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 23(10), 2144-2162.
- Ghafari, S.H.H., & Samii, M. (2013). The relationship between job satisfaction and self-esteem in teachers: A case study in Aliabad University. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 2(3), 1702-1705.
- Hirschi, A. (2010). Positive adolescent career development: the role of intrinsic and extrinsic work values. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 58(3), 276-287.
- Ho, C.-C. (2006). A Study Of The Relationship Between Work Values, Job Involvement And Organisational Commitment Among Taiwanise Nurses. Queensland University of Technology, Australia.
- Kristensen, T. S., Hannerz, H., Hogh, A., & Borg, V. (2005). The Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire-a tool for the assessment and improvement of the psychosocial work environment. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, environment and Health*, 31(6), 438-449.
- Kumar, R., & Koh, G. E. (2011). Percieve organizational commitment and its impact to the turnover intention: a correlation analysis. *International Conference on Management (ICM 2011) Proceeding*, 850-867.
- Liao, S.-W., & Chen, H.-L. (2012). The work value and job satisfaction of the testing department staffs in Top Five Notebook Original Equipment Manufacturer (OEMS) Worldwide. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(9), 3373-2282.
- Lim, C. T. (2010). Relationship between Work Values and Job Involvement: A Study among Manufacturing Operators in the Packaging Industries in Penang. from *Universiti Sains Malaysia*.
- Lyons, S. T., Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (2006). A comparison of the values and commitment of private sector, public sector, and parapublic sector employees. *Public Administration Review*, 605-618.
- Makbul, Z. M., Rahid, M. R., & Hasun, F. M. (2011). What made they go?. *Journal of Global Management*, 1(1), 13-22.
- Mangansakan, N. T. (2005). Influence of Work Values on the Teaching Performance of Selected High School Teachers. from *JOY GLORIA P. SABUTAN, Ed.D.:*
- Mapesela, M. and Hay, D.H., 2006. The effect of change and transformation on academic staff and job satisfaction: A case of a South African University. *Higher Education*, 52, 711-747.
- MOE. (2013). Ministry of Higher Education (MOE) Vision and Mission. [Online] Available: <http://www.MOE.gov.my/educationmsia/index.php?article=MOE> (2 September, 2013)
- Mohd Kamel, I. (2009). Occupational stress in Academic Life: A Study on Academics of Malaysian Public University. PhD Thesis. The University of Waikato.

- Mohrman, K., Ma, W., & Baker, D. (2008). The Research University in Transition: The Emerging Global Model. *Higher Education Policy*, 21, 5-27.
- MQR. (2015). Malaysian Qualifications Register. [Online] Available: <http://www.mqa.gov.my/mqr/english/eakrbyipta.cfm> (7 January, 2015).
- Profeli, E. J., & Mortimer, J. T. (2010). Intrinsic work value-reward dissonance and work satisfaction during young adulthood. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 507-519.
- Riketta, M. (2008). The causal relation between job attitudes and performance: a meta-analysis of panel studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 472-481.
- Robinson, C. H., & Betz, N. E. (2008). A psychometric evaluation of super's work values inventory-revised. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16(4), 456-473.
- Rusli, A., Azman, I., & Wan Khairuzzaman, W. I. (2007). Sistem penilaian prestasi sektor awam di malaysia: pemikiran semula terhadap peranan dan tanggungjawab pegawai penilai prestasi. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 10, 80-89.
- Sonmezer, M. G., & Eryaman, M. Y. (2008). A comparative analysis of job satisfaction levels of public and private school teachers. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education* 4(2), 189-212.
- Spitzmuller, M., Van Dyne, L., & Ilies, R. (2008). Organizational citizenship behavior: a review and extension of its nomological network. *Barling: Organizational Behavior (Handbook)*, 5124, 106-123.
- Super, D. E. (1970). *Work Values Inventory*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Voung, X-K., & Duong, M-Q. (2013). A comparison of job satisfaction level between male and female faculty at the Vietnam National University of Ho Chi Minh City. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 1 (3), 10-19.
- Wu, T.S., Lee, K.C., Liu, Y.S., & Ou, H.M. (Eds).(1996). *Development of Work Values Inventory: National Youth Commission, Executive uan, Taiwan*.
- Ying Liu, & Yong Lei. (2012). The connotation of work values: A preliminary review. *Asian Social Science*, 8(1), 47-53.

Persepsi Keadilan sebagai Pendorong kepada Penyertaan Pegawai Pengurusan & Profesional di Salah Satu Agensi Sektor Awam

Maslina Binti Samsudin²
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstrak

Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji hubungan antara keadilan organisasi dan penyertaan di kalangan pegawai Pengurusan & Profesional (P&P) dalam aspek persepsi terhadap sistem ganjaran di salah sebuah agensi sektor awam di Putrajaya. Kajian ini telah menggunakan kaedah pengumpulan data secara temuduga dan juga 'drop off & pick up'. Analisis kajian menunjukkan bahawa keadilan prosedur mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan terhadap penyertaan pegawai P&P di agensi tersebut. Walaubagaimanapun, hasil dapatan mencadangkan bahawa tiada hubungan di antara keadilan distributif dan keadilan interaksi dengan penyertaan di kalangan pegawai P&P dalam agensi kajian. Oleh itu, di antara ketiga-tiga keadilan organisasi, hanya keadilan prosedur didapati mempengaruhi penyertaan pegawai P&P di agensi awam tersebut.

Kata kunci: Keadilan organisasi, penyertaan

1. Pengenalan

Menurut Ghosh et al (2014), banyak kajian dilaksanakan mendapati bahawa peningkatan keadilan di kalangan pekerja memberi impak positif dalam pelbagai aspek gelagat organisasi (organizational behavior), seperti kepuasan bekerja (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Bhupatkar, 2003; McCain et al., 2010), komitmen organisasi (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; McLean, 2009; Wang et al., 2010; Crow et al., 2012; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013) dan kepercayaan organisasi (Saunders and Thornhill, 2003; McLean, 2009).

Penglibatan pekerja dalam konteks penyertaan pekerja adalah keadaan di mana para pekerja akan sentiasa saling bergantung antara satu sama lain dan dengan pihak lain (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Penglibatan pekerja (employee engagement) seperti yang ditakrifkan oleh Kahn (1990) adalah "*the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances*" (Mantemayor, 2003). Penglibatan pekerja boleh dikategorikan sebagai penglibatan di tempat kerja (work engagement) dan penglibatan organisasi (organisasi engagement). Ini telah dikembangkan daripada Kahn (1990) yang mencadangkan bahawa peranan utama ahli sesuatu organisasi adalah peranan kerja dan turut berperanan sebagai salah satu ahli dalam sesebuah organisasi (Ghosh et al, 2014).

Penyertaan pekerja turut boleh dilihat dari aspek penilaian prestasi, (Cawley et al, 1998; Roberts, 2003; Palaiologos et al, 2011), penglibatan dalam membuat keputusan (Witt, 1991) dan penyertaan dalam proses pengurusan prestasi (Latham et al, 2005). Saks (2006) menerangkan penglibatan pekerja sebagai satu *constructs* yang mengandungi komponen kognitif, emosi dan gelagat yang berkaitan dengan prestasi individu. Penglibatan dan penyertaan pekerja merupakan elemen utama dalam strategi intrinsik motivasi dalam meningkatkan perkembangan dan pembangunan para pekerja (Roberts, 2003). Beliau menjelaskan penyertaan pekerja dalam konteks penilaian prestasi pekerja yang melibatkan pandangan pekerja semasa proses penilaian dilaksanakan bagi memastikan sistem penilaian prestasi yang lebih efektif dan adil.

Pegawai yang merasakan kurangnya penyertaan dan penglibatan mereka terutama dari segi penyertaan penilaian prestasi dalam organisasi boleh memberi kesan negatif terhadap prestasi dan hasil kerja. Oleh itu, kajian dilaksanakan untuk menyiasat hubungkait antara keadilan organisasi dan penyertaan mereka dalam salah satu agensi sektor awam di Putrajaya.

² Emel :masmona73@gmail.com

2. Sorotan Karya

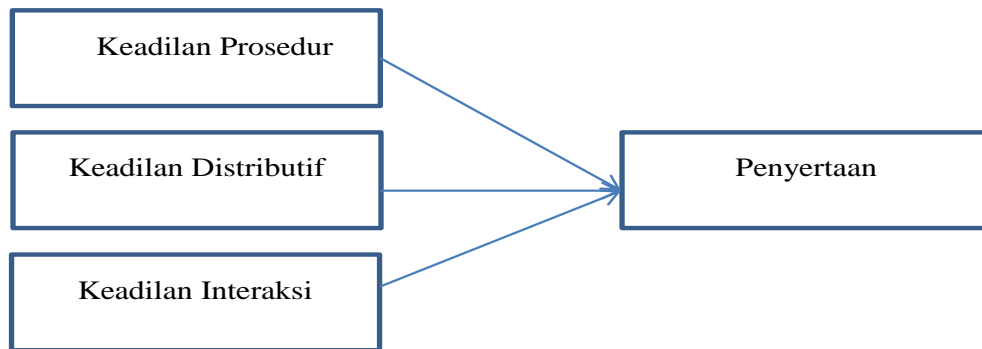
2.1 Sorotan Karya

Keadilan organisasi merangkumi tiga komponen iaitu distributif, prosedur dan interaksi. Keadilan prosedur memberi fokus kepada kualiti polisi, prosedur dan garis panduan yang digunakan dalam sesuatu sistem ganjaran (Montemayor, 2003). Keadilan distributif menekankan kualiti terhadap hasil, manakala keadilan interaksi memberi fokus terhadap layanan interpersonal sewaktu pelaksanaan polisi sistem ganjaran (Cropanzano et al., 2002)

Dari perspektif penilaian prestasi elemen utama penilaian prestasi adalah hubungan pekerja dan penyelia. Oleh itu, penyertaan pekerja melalui maklum balas prestasi daripada penyelia mempunyai potensi tinggi yang dapat mempengaruhi respons pekerja terhadap markah atau penilaian yang diberikan (Palaiologos et al, 2011). Kajian ini yang dilakukan ke atas 170 responden mendapati bahawa terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara keadilan prosedur dan keadilan distributif dengan maklum balas yang diterima daripada penyelia mengenai penilaian prestasi.

Maklum balas prestasi juga meningkatkan kepuasan bekerja dan motivasi pekerja. Ini dicadangkan oleh Cawley et al (1998) melalui kajian meta analisis terhadap 27 kajian mengandungi 32 sampel secara berasingan telah mendapati bahawa penyertaan dalam proses penilaian prestasi dapat mempengaruhi peningkatan persepsi terhadap keadilan, kepuasan kerja dan motivasi untuk membuat penambahbaikan.

2.2 Kerangka Konseptual



Rajah 1- Kerangka Konseptual Keadilan Organisasi dan Penyertaan

Berdasarkan kepada kerangka tersebut, hipotesis berikut dikenalpasti :

H1: Keadilan Prosedur mempunyai hubungan positif dengan penyertaan

H2: Keadilan Distributif mempunyai hubungan positif dengan penyertaan

H3: Keadilan Interaksi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan penyertaan

3. Metodologi

3.1 Kaedah Kajian

Kajian ini melibatkan data keratan rentas (*cross-sectional*) dan diperoleh dengan menggunakan borang soal selidik. Data dikumpul daripada pegawai Pengurusan & Profesional di salah satu agensi kerajaan di Putrajaya secara pensampelan mudah tanpa mengira jantina. Kaedah temubual secara bersemuka dan *drop off & pick up* soal selidik telah digunakan terhadap responden. Jumlah keseluruhan pegawai P&P di agensi berkaitan adalah seramai 384 orang. Tetapi hanya sebanyak 100 borang soal selidik diedarkan. Teknik pensampelan mudah telah digunakan untuk edaran 100 borang soal selidik kepada pegawai P&P dalam setiap bahagian di agensi tersebut. Kadar respon yang diterima adalah sebanyak 87.0 peratus.

Soal selidik yang diberikan turut disertakan dengan surat iringan yang menyatakan maklumat ringkas dan objektif kajian. Ini untuk memastikan kerahsiaan maklum balas yang diberikan oleh responden yang terlibat. .

3.2 Pengukuran

Borang soal selidik yang digunakan adalah yang disediakan oleh Ismail et al (2014). Soal selidik menggunakan *7 Point Likert Scale* daripada ‘Sangat Tidak Setuju’ kepada ‘Sangat Setuju’.

Pemboleh ubah tidak bersandar bagi kajian ini adalah tiga (3) elemen keadilan organisasi iaitu keadilan prosedur, keadilan distributif dan keadilan interaksi. Pemboleh ubah tidak bersandar ini diukur daripada beberapa soalan berkaitan dengan persepsi responden terhadap tahap kepuasan terhadap peraturan peruntukan dan pengagihan ganjaran. Ini antaranya merangkumi persepsi kepuasan mereka terhadap prosedur yang digunakan untuk mengumpul maklumat mengenai ganjaran, konsistensi pengagihan ganjaran, prosedur yang digunakan menepati standard, etika dan moral; keadilan pengagihan sistem ganjaran, interaksi dan komunikasi antara penyelia dan pegawai.

Manakala soalan berkaitan pemboleh ubah bersandar iaitu penyertaan termasuklah penglibatan responden dalam pemilihan calon serta perancangan anugerah cemerlang dan samada mereka diberikan peluang untuk memberikan pendapat mengenai gaji yang diterima berbanding dengan prestasi.

4. Penemuan

4.1 Profil Responden

Dari segi profil responden, majoriti responden adalah terdiri daripada pegawai P&P wanita (71.2 peratus), manakala selebihnya adalah pegawai lelaki. Kebanyakan responden telah berkhidmat dalam tempoh dari 5 hingga 14 tahun (63.0 peratus), kurang dari 5 tahun (20.5 peratus), 15 hingga 24 tahun (15.1 peratus) dan hanya 1.4% yang berkhidmat melebihi 25 tahun.

4.2 Ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan

Jadual 1 menunjukkan hasil *convergent and discriminant validity analyses*. Semua konsep mempunyai nilai AVE (*Average Extracted Variance*) yang melebihi 0.5. Ini membawa maksud bahawa ia telah menepati piawaian yang boleh diterima bagi kesahihan konvergen (*convergent validity*) (Barclay et al, 1995; Fornell and Larcker, 1981)

Jadual 1. Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analyses

Pemboleh ubah	AVE	K. Prosedur	K. Distrib	K. Interaksi	Penyertaan
Keadilan Prosedur	0.657	0.811			
Keadilan Distributif	0.684	0.688	0.827		
Keadilan Interaksi	0.687	0.745	0.839	0.829	
Penyertaan	0.592	0.698	0.688	0.678	0.770

Factor Loadings bagi kesemua pemboleh ubah adalah melebihi nilai 0.4 dan menepati standard kriteria analisis kesahihan yang diterima pakai (Hair et al, 1998). Kedua-dua *Composite Reliability* dan *Cronbach's Alpha* seperti yang diperolehi dalam Jadual 2 adalah melebihi 0.8, bermakna bahawa instrumen yang digunakan bagi tujuan kajian mempunyai konsisten dalaman yang tinggi (Nunnally & Berstein, 1994).

Jadual 2. Composite Reliability dan Cronbach's Alpha

Pemboleh ubah	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha
Keadilan Prosed.	0.77-0.86	0.920	0.895
Keadilan Distrib.	0.76-0.89	0.938	0.922
Keadilan Interak.	0.77-0.91	0.938	0.924
Penyertaan	0.56-0.80	0.909	0.882

Jadual 3 merupakan hasil dapatan statistik deskriptif dan analisis korelasi Pearson. Min yang diperolehi bagi semua pemboleh ubah daripada 4.6 hingga 4.9 menyatakan bahawa keadilan prosedur, keadilan distributif, keadilan interaksi dan penyertaan adalah dalam lingkungan tinggi (4) ke paling tinggi (7). Korelasi koefisien bagi hubungan antara pemboleh ubah tak bersandar iaitu keadilan prosedur, keadilan distributif & keadilan interaksi dan pemboleh ubah bersandar iaitu penyertaan adalah kurang daripada 0.9. Ini menunjukkan bahawa tidak terdapat

masalah kolineariti yang serius, dan adalah bukti kepada kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan skala pengukuran yang digunakan untuk kajian ini (Hair et al., 1998; Nunally & Bernstein, 1994).

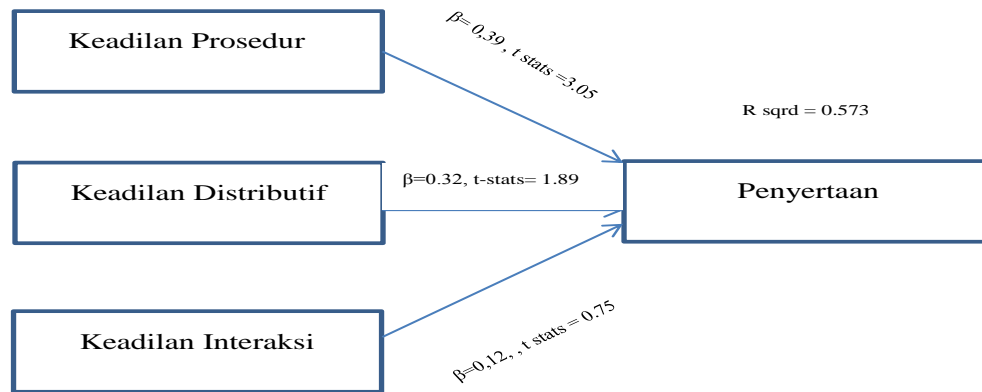
Jadual 3. Statistik Deskriptif dan Analisis Pearson Correlation

Pembolehubah	Min	Pearson Correlation			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Keadilan Prosedur (1)	4.7	1.0			
Keadilan Distributif (2)	4.9	0.67*	1.0		
Keadilan Interaksi (3)	4.7	0.74*	0.83*	1.0	
Penyertaan (4)	4.6	0.68*	0.68*	0.66*	1.0

Nota: Signifikan pada * $p < 0.01$. Anggaran kebolehpercayaan dalam diagonal (nilai 1)

4.3 Hasil Ujian

Keputusan ujian seperti yang diperoleh adalah seperti dalam Rajah 2. Pertama, ia mendapati bahawa hasil kajian menyokong hipotesis H1 ($\beta = 0.39$, $t \text{ stats} = 3.05$) di mana terdapat hubungan positif dan signifikan antara keadilan prosedur dan penyertaan pegawai. Kedua, walaupun terdapat hubungan positif antara keadilan distributif dan penyertaan pegawai, ia adalah tidak signifikan ($\beta = 0.32$, $t \text{ stats} = 1.89$). Ketiga, keputusan yang sama turut diperoleh daripada hasil kajian daripada H3 iaitu hubungan positif, tetapi tidak signifikan antara keadilan interaksi dan penyertaan ($\beta = 0.12$, $t \text{ stats} = 0.75$). Secara keseluruhan, didapati sebanyak 57.3 peratus penyertaan didorong oleh perubahan pemboleh ubah keadilan prosedur, distributif dan interaksi.



Signifikan pada $t \text{ stats} > 1.96$

Rajah 2- Hubungan antara keadilan organisasi dengan penyertaan

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

Dapatan kajian mendapati bahawa persepsi terhadap keadilan prosedur merupakan satu-satunya elemen keadilan organisasi yang mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan penyertaan pegawai P & P di agensi berkaitan. Persepsi responden terhadap prosedur yang digunakan dalam menentukan dan pengagihan ganjaran dalam agensi tersebut adalah adil, konsisten, dan menepati standard etika dan moral. Walaubagaimanapun, kedua-dua keadilan distributif dan interaksi tidak mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan penyertaan.

Persepsi kebanyakan responden terhadap sistem ganjaran yang diterima dalam konteks keadilan distributif menggambarkan bahawa sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi tidak mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan penglibatan dan penyertaan mereka. Ini berkemungkinan besar dalam sektor awam, pegawai tidak terlibat secara langsung dalam menentukan bayaran ganjaran yang diterima dan sistem ganjaran bayaran sektor awam adalah telah ditentukan oleh Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam melalui Pekeliling Perkhidmatan yang berkaitan. Oleh itu, setiap

pegawai akan menerima kenaikan gaji tahunan yang sama berdasarkan kepada gred jawatan masing-masing, tanpa mengambil kira kecermelangan prestasi mereka. Justeru, responden berpendapat bahawa mereka tidak diberikan ruang untuk mengutarakan pandangan mengenai jumlah gaji yang diterima dan peluang kenaikan pangkat. Seterusnya, walaupun tempoh perkhidmatan kebanyakan responden (63.0 peratus) adalah antara 5 hingga 14 tahun, diandaikan kebanyakannya adalah pegawai P&P gred 41 dan 44 yang masih belum terlibat secara langsung dalam perancangan pengiktirafan prestasi seperti Anugerah Perkhidmatan Cemerlang (APC) kakitangan sokongan di agensi tersebut. Ini kerana, Pengurusan Tertinggi Jabatan yang akan memilih kakitangan yang layak untuk menerima APC.

Keadilan interaksi juga didapati tidak mendorong penyertaan pegawai dalam agensi tersebut, dan hasil keputusan ini adalah konsisten dengan dapatan yang diperoleh oleh Palaiologos et al (2011). Ini menunjukkan kurangnya penyertaan pegawai dalam pembuatan keputusan mengenai ganjaran yang dinilai melalui laporan penilaian prestasi tahunan (LNPT). Pegawai merasakan bahawa mereka tidak dimaklumkan dengan jelas mengenai ganjaran dalam aspek penilaian prestasi yang mereka perolehi. Responden berpandangan mereka tidak mendapat sokongan yang sewajarnya apabila mereka mengadu mengenai laporan prestasi yang diterima dan pegawai atasan tidak menggunakan standard yang sama ke atas semua pegawai.. Persepsi dan perasaan ini dapat melahirkan rasa tidak adil dan berat sebelah (Roberts, 2003).

Kesimpulannya, keputusan kajian ini mencadangkan bahawa hanya persepsi keadilan prosedur menjadi pendorong terhadap penyertaan pegawai Pengurusan & Profesional di agensi yang dikaji. Manakala, persepsi terhadap keadilan distributif dan keadilan interaksi tidak mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan penyertaan pegawai P&P. Ini diperoleh setelah menggunakan skala ukuran yang menepati piawaian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan. Oleh itu, dicadangkan persepsi pegawai terhadap keadilan organisasi boleh ditingkatkan dengan menambahbaik peluang penyertaan dan penglibatan pegawai di agensi tersebut. Ini boleh dilaksanakan melalui peningkatan komunikasi dan interaksi yang efektif dan telus antara pegawai dan penyelia terutama sewaktu penilaian prestasi.

6. Penghargaan

Setinggi-tinggi penghargaan dan terima kasih kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia dan CRIM UKM yang telah memberikan peruntukan untuk menjalankan kajian mengenai persepsi terhadap sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi, kod projek:FRGS/1/2014/SS05/UKM/02/7. Ucapan terima kasih juga kepada Prof. Dr. Ishak Yussof dan Prof.Madya Dr. Azman Ismail di atas cadangan penambahbaikan kertas ini.

7. Rujukan

- Cawley, B. D., Keeping, L. M., & Levy, P. E. (1998). Participation in the performance appraisal process and employee reactions: A meta-analytic review of field investigations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 615–633.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C.A. and Chen, P.Y. (2002), “Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice”, *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 27 No. 3, pp. 324-351.
- Ghosh. Piyali, Rai. Alka Rai, Sinha. Apsha. (2014), *Organizational justice and employee engagement*. *Personnel Review* Vol. 43 Iss 4, pp. 628 – 652.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New Jersey:Prentice Hall.
- Ismail,A. Yussof. I ,Sapian R. Z.Z, ,Aziz, K.A & Jabir.R (2014). Soal Selidik “Persepsi Terhadap Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi”. *Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia*.
- Latham, G. P., Almost, J., Mann, S., & Moore, C. (2005). New developments in performance management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 34, 77–87
- Montemayor, Edilberto. F (2003), *Decisional and Interactional Fairness: Supervisor Influence on Merit Pay Satisfaction*. *Management Research: Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*, Vol. 1 Iss 2 pp. 145 – 160
- Nunally, J.C., & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Palaiologos. A, Papazekos Panagiotis & Panayotopoulou. Leda, (2011). Organizational justice and employee satisfaction in performance appraisal. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 35 Iss 8, pp. 826 – 840.

- Roberts, G. E. (2003). Employee performance appraisal system participation: A technique that works. *Public Personnel Management*, 32(1), 89-98.
- Saks, M. Alan (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. 21 No. 7, 2006 pp. 600-619
- Witt, L. A. (1992). Exchange ideology as a moderator of the relationships between importance of participation in decision making and job attitudes. *Human Relations*, 45(1), 73-85.

Hubungan Antara Faktor Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu Bapa Terhadap Minat Keusahawanan Pelajar MRSM

Syazwani Yahaya¹ dan Iklima Husna Abdul Rahim²

Pendidikan Perniagaan & Keusahawanan, Fakulti Pendidikan,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia.

Abstrak

Kajian ini secara amnya, bertujuan untuk melihat hubungan di antara faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa terhadap minat pelajar MRSM dalam bidang keusahawanan. Manakala secara khususnya kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti tahap minat pelajar MRSM terhadap bidang keusahawanan dan melihat sama ada terdapat hubungan signifikan di antara tahap minat keusahawanan pelajar MRSM berdasarkan faktor pekerjaan ibu bapa. Responden kajian ini melibatkan 88 orang pelajar MRSM Kuala Klawang yang terdiri daripada pelajar tingkatan satu hingga empat. Reka bentuk kajian adalah berbentuk kuantitatif di mana instrumen kajian menggunakan soal selidik. Instrumen yang digunakan bagi mengutip data kajian ini ialah berdasarkan Skala Likert 5 Mata. Data dianalisis dengan menggunakan perisian *Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS)* versi 21.0. Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan tahap minat keusahawanan pelajar MRSM adalah sederhana tinggi. Oleh demikian, pelajar MRSM didapati mempunyai kecenderungan yang positif untuk menceburi bidang keusahawanan. Namun begitu, tidak terdapat hubungan signifikan di antara tahap minat keusahawanan pelajar MRSM berdasarkan faktor pekerjaan ibu bapa. Kesimpulannya, faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa tidak mempengaruhi tahap minat keusahawanan pelajar MRSM.

Kata kunci: faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa, minat keusahawanan, pelajar MRSM

1. Pengenalan

Di Malaysia, isu pengangguran dalam kalangan graduan sememangnya tidak asing lagi. Malahan, jumlah pengangguran ini dilihat semakin meningkat dari tahun ke tahun (Nor Aishah 2002; Norasmah 2004). Oleh demikian, kebanyakan pengkaji berpendapat bahawa salah satu langkah berkesan bagi membendung masalah pengangguran dalam kalangan graduan ialah melalui bidang keusahawanan (Nor Aishah et.al 2005; Norlida et.al 2007; Salmah 2006; Maznah et.al 2006; Hoe 2006). Oleh yang demikian, kerajaan telah melakukan pelbagai usaha bagi menerapkan budaya usahawan melalui pelaksanaan pendidikan keusahawanan secara formal atau tidak formal bermula dari peringkat sekolah menengah hingga ke peringkat pengajian tinggi.

Tel.: 019-4489308¹, 012-9880887²;
E-mail: syazwanayahaya10@gmail.com,¹ iklimahusna@gmail.com²

Walaupun bagaimanapun, pihak kerajaan menghadapi kesukaran dalam menerapkan budaya keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar. Hal ini kerana beberapa pengkaji lepas telah mendapati punca utama masalah ini ialah para pelajar kurang meminati bidang keusahawanan dan seterusnya menyebabkan mereka tidak memilih bidang keusahawanan sebagai kerjaya pilihan mereka (Zulfaka et.al 2014; Zaidatol Akmaliah & Hishamuddin 2010). Contohnya berdasarkan ujian *Self-Directed Search* (SDS) yang dijalankan oleh unit Kaunseling dan Kerjaya Bahagian Pelajaran dan Latihan Menengah MARA (BPLM), didapati majoriti pelajar MRSM tidak memilih bidang keusahawanan sebagai kerjaya pilihan mereka. Dapatan kajian ini jelas menunjukkan matlamat MARA dalam menerapkan budaya keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar masih belum tercapai. (MARA 2008; Zulfaka et.al 2014).

Selain itu, guru juga seharusnya memainkan peranan sebagai seorang pendidik dengan berkesan dalam usaha memupuk minat para pelajar terhadap bidang keusahawanan. Lilia et.al (2003) menegaskan bahawa para guru seharusnya menguasai bidang keusahawanan terlebih dahulu bagi memudahkan mereka menanam minat keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar melalui proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran. Malahan beberapa pengkaji menyatakan bahawa keadaan akan menunjukkan sesuatu yang memberangsangkan bermula daripada seseorang yang mempunyai ciri usahawan dan seterusnya melahirkan sesebuah organisasi yang cemerlang (Norasmah dan Hariyati 2006; Zulfaka et.al 2014).

2. Kajian Kesusasteraan

2.1 Konsep minat dalam keusahawanan

Nooraini & Siti Soleha (2010) menjelaskan di dalam kajiannya bahawa minat ialah pengaruh utama dan menjadi asas kepada seseorang dalam menceburi bidang keusahawanan. Penjelasan ini dipersetujui oleh Ab. Aziz & Zakaria Yusof (2004) dengan menyatakan bahawa perkara utama yang perlu ada dalam diri seorang usahawan itu bergantung pada kemampuan dan kesungguhan dalam mencapai matlamat yang telah ditetapkan. Beliau menambah minat juga dikaitkan sebagai satu kecenderungan bagi seseorang untuk mengetahui, mempelajari sesuatu perkara yang menjurus dan mempengaruhi mereka kepada pilihan yang diinginkan.

Mohamad Yusop et.al (2008) menerangkan di dalam kajiannya bahawa bagi konteks perniagaan francais, usahawan francais adalah mereka yang berminat dengan kerjaya keusahawanan walaupun tidak mempunyai pengalaman yang luas dalam dunia perniagaan yang sebenar. Hal ini jelas menunjukkan minat ialah faktor utama seseorang ingin melibatkan diri dalam bidang keusahawanan. Perkara ini dibuktikan melalui beberapa dapatan kajian lepas yakni majoriti responden kajian mereka memulakan perniagaan kerana mempunyai minat dalam bidang keusahawanan (Wan Salmah et.al 2009; Mastura et.al 2009). Selain itu dapatan kajian oleh Salmah (2009) juga mendapati minat terhadap keusahawanan merupakan faktor utama dalam kalangan peserta Skim Usahawan Siswazah yang memilih bidang keusahawanan sebagai kerjaya pilihan mereka.

Hakikatnya, minat terhadap keusahawanan haruslah dipupuk bermula dari peringkat sekolah rendah lagi supaya memudahkan proses bagi memupuk budaya keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar dan seterusnya diperkukuhkan sehingga ke peringkat institut pengajian tinggi (Armanurah 2013). Hal ini selaras dengan dapatan kajian oleh Zaidatol Akmaliah & Hishamuddin (2010) menunjukkan bahawa pelajar-pelajar daripada aliran Sains Tulen dan Teknikal memperolehi min kurang daripada para pelajar daripada aliran Sains Sosial. Kajian ini telah membuktikan bahawa pelajar Sains dan teknikal kurang berminat terhadap bidang keusahawanan kerana mereka kurang diberi pendedahan tentang bidang perniagaan dan keusahawanan. Hal ini juga menjadi salah satu faktor para pelajar tidak menjadikan bidang keusahawanan sebagai kerjaya pilihan mereka.

Walaupun bagaimanapun, Armanurah (2013) berpendapat budaya keusahawanan adalah perwarisan daripada keluarga. Hal ini selaras dengan dapatan kajian Hisrich (2000) yang menunjukkan bahawa minat terhadap bidang keusahawanan dipengaruhi oleh latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa seseorang usahawan dan keluarga. Kajian ini membuktikan latar belakang pekerjaan keluarga dan ibu bapa memainkan peranan dalam mengalakkan kredibiliti keusahawanan sebagai satu kerjaya. Manakala, Zafir & Fazilah (2003) dilihat menyokong kesemua dapatan-dapatan kajian di atas dengan menyatakan selain umur, jantina dan latar belakang keluarga, pendedahan terhadap bidang keusahawanan melalui pendidikan juga merupakan komponen penting dalam mempengaruhi minat para pelajar terhadap bidang keusahawanan.

3. Metodologi

Kajian ini merupakan kajian tinjauan. Populasi kajian adalah seramai 652 orang pelajar MRSM Kuala Klawang yang terdiri daripada pelajar tingkatan satu hingga empat pada tahun 2014. Seramai 100 orang pelajar telah dipilih secara rawak sebagai sampel kajian. Namun, jumlah responden yang memulangkan borang soal selidik adalah seramai 88 orang pelajar. Instrumen kajian yang digunakan ialah borang soal selidik yang mengandungi 15 item yang dikemukakan dan diedarkan kepada responden untuk mendapatkan maklumat tentang minat pelajar MRSM dari dimensi latar belakang pekerjaan bapa dan ibu menggunakan maklum balas skala Likert 5 peringkat, 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju).

Dalam kajian ini, instrumen kajian diuji kebolehpercayaan dengan menggunakan kaedah korelasi Pearson dengan menggunakan pekali alfa Cronbach "*Cronbach Alpha*". Kaedah ujian ini dianalisis menggunakan perisian SPSS versi 19.0. Hasil analisis kajian bagi kesemua item berada pada nilai alfa 0.858 yang mana nilai kebolehpercayaan menunjukkan baik dan boleh diterima berdasarkan klasifikasi indeks yang dikemukakan oleh Lim (2007). Perinciannya dinyatakan dalam Jadual 1 di bawah:

Jadual 1- Klasifikasi indeks kebolehpercayaan

Pekali kebolehpercayaan	Tahap kebolehpercayaan
0.90 atau lebih	Amat Baik
0.80 - 0.89	Baik
0.60 - 0.79	Sederhana
0.40 - 0.59	Diragui
0.00 - 0.39	Ditolak

Sumber: Lim (2007)

4. Dapatan

4.1 Analisis Tahap Minat Pelajar dalam Bidang Keusahawanan

Hasil analisis tahap minat keusahawanan pelajar secara keseluruhannya adalah seperti dalam Jadual 3. Berdasarkan jadual tersebut, skor min keseluruhan bagi minat keusahawanan ialah 3.79 dengan sisihan piawai 0.50. Ini bermakna minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan adalah di tahap sederhana tinggi. Daripada 15 item yang diukur dalam konstruk minat pelajar ini, item nombor 5, iaitu 'Suka menjual untuk mendapat wang saku lebih' menunjukkan skor min tertinggi, iaitu 4.28. Manakala item minat pelajar yang mempunyai skor min terendah ialah item nombor 12, iaitu 'Saya kurang berminat untuk memulakan perniagaan baru'. Jadual 2 memberi maklumat secara terperinci mengenai tahap dan min bagi setiap item dalam minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan.

Jadual 2 – Interpretasi skor min.

Skor Min	Tahap Skor Min
1.00 hingga 2.00	Rendah
2.01 hingga 3.00	Sederhana Rendah
3.01 hingga 4.00	Sederhana Tinggi
4.01 hingga 5.00	Tinggi

Sumber : Nunally (1978); Jamil (2002); Haryati et al. (2013)

Jadual 3 - Tahap minat pelajar.

Item	Minat Pelajar	Min	Sisihan Piawai	Tahap
1.	Saya minat berniaga	4.15	0.635	T
2.	Matlamat utama saya adalah untuk menjadi usahawan	3.58	0.813	ST
3.	Saya bersedia untuk melakukan apa saja untuk menjadi seorang usahawan	3.67	0.813	ST
4.	Suka melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti yang bercorak perniagaan	3.93	0.828	ST
5.	Suka menjual untuk mendapat wang saku lebih	4.28	0.772	T
6.	Suka menyertai aktiviti pembangunan keusahawanan seperti seminar, bengkel dan latihan keusahawanan	3.97	0.903	ST
7.	Seronok berbincang dengan rakan-rakan mengenai isu perniagaan	4.00	0.773	ST
8.	Di antara pilihan kerjaya yang ada, saya sanggup menceburi apa jua bidang daripada menjadi seorang usahawan	3.18	1.056	ST
9.	Suka mengikuti kursus keusahawanan	4.00	0.758	ST
10.	Rasa bidang keusahawanan sesuai dengan minat saya	3.75	0.820	ST
11.	Suka mencari pelbagai maklumat berkaitan perniagaan di masa lapang	3.35	0.947	ST
12.	Saya kurang berminat untuk memulakan perniagaan baru	2.85	1.180	SR
13.	Saya berazam untuk menjalankan suatu perniagaan pada masa hadapan	3.94	0.793	ST
14.	Saya berminat untuk memulakan perniagaan sekiranya diberi peluang dan sumber yang diperlukan	4.06	0.717	T
15.	Saya akan berusaha bersungguh-sungguh untuk memulakan dan mengendalikan perniagaan saya	4.07	0.907	T
	Keseluruhan	3.79	0.496	ST

T=Tinggi; ST=Sederhana Tinggi; SR=Sederhana Rendah

4.2 Analisis Hubungan antara Faktor Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu bapa terhadap Minat Pelajar

Jadual 4 merupakan hasil analisis ujian kolerasi Pearson antara faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa terhadap minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan. Nilai pekali kolerasi yang diperolehi ialah bagi latar belakang pekerjaan bapa ($r = -0.034$) manakala, ibu ($r = -0.045$). Nilai kolerasi bagi kedua-dua latar belakang pekerjaan yang terhasil ini berada pada tahap kekuatan hubungan sangat lemah. Manakala nilai signifikan yang diperolehi pula ialah latar belakang pekerjaan bapa ($p = 0.753$) dan ibu ($p = 0.680$). Kedua-dua nilai signifikan ini didapati lebih besar dari aras keertian ($p > 0.05$). Hal ini menunjukkan bahawa tidak terdapat hubungan yang signifikan di antara faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa dengan minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan.

Jadual 4 – Hubungan antara Faktor Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu bapa dengan Minat Pelajar

Pemboleh ubah	Tahap Minat		Tahap kekuatan hubungan
	r	p	
Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Bapa	-0.034	0.753	Sangat Lemah
Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu	-0.045	0.680	Sangat Lemah

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

5.1 Tahap Minat Pelajar dalam Bidang Keusahawanan

Hasil dapatan menunjukkan tahap minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan secara keseluruhannya adalah di tahap sederhana tinggi. Ini memberikan petunjuk bahawa pelajar- pelajar MRSM Kuala Klawang mempunyai potensi besar untuk dilatih dan dibentuk sebagai usahawan. Dapatan ini disokong oleh Sarebah Warman et al. (2010), Azilahwati Adam et al. (2011) dan Hasniza Hafidzin (2011) yang mendapati bahawa tahap minat para pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan berada pada tahap sederhana tinggi.

Namun begitu hasil kajian yang diperolehi oleh Yusof Boon & Sapiah Bohari (2005) bertentangan dengan dapatan ini dimana para pelajar mempunyai minat yang sederhana rendah terhadap bidang keusahawanan dengan nilai min keseluruhannya ialah 2.12. Manakala dalam kajian terdahulu ke atas pelajar-pelajar sekolah menengah, Muhammad (2002), Shamsuddin (2002), Chek Pit Chow (2000) dan Syarifah Kamaliah (1996) mendapati pelajar-pelajar mempunyai minat sederhana dalam bidang keusahawanan.

5.2 Hubungan antara Faktor Latar Belakang Pekerjaan Ibu bapa terhadap Minat Pelajar

Dari hasil dapatan kajian ini didapati tidak terdapat hubungan yang signifikan di antara faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa dengan minat pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan. Dapatan ini selari dengan hasil kajian lepas yang mendapati faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa tidak dapat membantu memupuk minat pelajar ke arah bidang keusahawanan (Rosni Zamuddin & Norfazila Abu Bakar 2008; Yusof Boon & Sapiah Bohari 2009).

Hal ini menunjukkan bahawa minat keusahawanan pelajar tidak dipengaruhi oleh faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa. Walaupun begitu, dapatan kajian ini jelas bertentangan dengan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Norfadhilah Nasharudin & Halimah Harun (2010) dan Nooraini Othman & Siti Soleha Misman (2009) yang menyatakan bahawa faktor latar belakang pekerjaan ibu bapa dapat mempengaruhi minat pelajar terhadap bidang keusahawanan.

Secara keseluruhan, dapatlah dirumuskan bahawa tahap minat pelajar MRSM dalam bidang keusahawanan berada di tahap sederhana tinggi. Hal ini menunjukkan para pelajar mempunyai kecenderungan yang positif untuk menceburi bidang keusahawanan. Namun, bagi hubungan antara faktor latar belakang pekerjaan bapa dan ibu dengan minat pelajar menunjukkan tidak terdapat hubungan yang signifikan. Oleh itu, dapat dilihat bahawa latar belakang pekerjaan bapa dan ibu tidak mempengaruhi minat pelajar terhadap bidang keusahawanan.

6. Penghargaan

Pertama sekali, kami mengucapkan jutaan terima kasih kepada Profesor Dr. Nor Aishah Buang selaku penyelia di atas bimbingan, tunjuk ajar, ilham dan segala panduan yang telah dicurahkan. Terima kasih yang tidak terhingga dirakam kepada **Tn. Hj. Ahmad Tajudin Bin Abdullah Zawawi** iaitu pengetua MRSM Kuala Klawang kerana memberi kerjasama dan bantuan semasa projek ini dilaksanakan. Kami sangat berterima kasih kepada semua pelajar MRSM Kuala Klawang yang sudi mengambil bahagian dalam projek ini. Keikhlasan dan masa yang diluangkan oleh kalian untuk menjayakan projek ini amat dihargai. Ribuan terima kasih juga diucapkan kepada semua pensyarah Fakulti Pendidikan yang telah mencurahkan ilmu yang sangat tinggi nilainya.

Tidak lupa juga ucapan terima kasih kami hulurkan kepada rakan-rakan seperjuangan yang sentiasa membantu dan tidak pernah berhenti untuk memberi galakan dan dorongan kepada kami. Juga ucapan terima kasih kami tujukan kepada semua pihak yang terlibat secara langsung atau tidak langsung dalam menjayakan projek ini.

Akhir sekali, penghargaan yang tidak ternilai juga dirakamkan kepada keluarga kami yang sentiasa memahami kesibukan dan kesulitan kami, memberi restu, sokongan dan mendoakan sepanjang penglibatan kami dalam menyiapkan projek ini.

7. Rujukan

- Ab. Aziz Yusof & Zakaria Yusof . (2004). *Prinsip Keusahawanan*. (Ed ke2). Prentice Hall: Pearson Malaysia Sdn.Bhd.
- Azilahwati Adam et al. (2011). Kecenderungan Pelajar-Pelajar Semesta Akhir Kolej Komuniti Jasin Terhadap Keusahawanan. Kolej Komuniti Jasin.
- Armanurah. (2013). Pemupukan Pemikiran, Kemahiran dan Sikap Keusahawanan dalam Kalangan Bekas Peserta Program Siswaniaga Universiti Utara Malaysia: Satu Penilaian. Tesis Doktor Falsafah.
- Chek Pit Chow. (2002). Ciri-ciri keusahawanan di kalangan pelajar sekolah menengah di wilayah Persekutuan. Tesis Sarjana Pendidikan. Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Hasniza Hafidzin. (2011). Kajian Terhadap Kecenderungan Keusahawanan dalam Kalangan Pelajar Jurusan Perdagangan SMK Seksyen 24(2) Shah Alam Selangor. Fakulti Pengurusan Perniagaan. Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Hoe Chee Hee. (2006). A Prototype to Encourage University Graduates to Become Franchisees. Prosiding Persidangan Keusahawanan Kebangsaan Kedua, Hotel Vistana, Pulau Pinang. 9-10 Disember.
- Lilia Halim, Nor Aishah Buang, Khalijah Mohd. Salleh. (2003). Projek Arus Perdana 11 AP1/2000 oleh pensyarah Fakulti Pendidikan UKM 2003.
- Muhammad Hj. Wahid. (2002). Tahap pengetahuan modul program usahawan muda. Kesannya terhadap penerapan keterampilan usahawan dan nilai kemanusiaan. Kertas projek Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

- Maznah Mohd Zin, Arumugam, N. Krishnan, R. (2006). Pengajian Keusahawanan di Institut Pengajian Tinggi: Mampukah Kita Melahirkan Graduan Yang Bersedia Menjadi Usahawan Yang Berkemahiran. Prosiding Persidangan Keusahawanan Kebangsaan Kedua, Hotel Vistana, Pulau Pinang. 9-10 Disember.
- MARA. (2008). Laporan Unit Bimbingan dan Kaunseling BPLM MARA 2008.
- Nor Aishah Buang. (2002). *Asas Keusahawanan*. Shah Alam, Selangor: Penerbit Fajar Bakti Sdn Bhd.
- Nor Aishah Buang, Norasmah Hj Othman, Abang Zainuren & Fauziah Pawan. (2005). Hubungkait Pendidikan Universiti dengan Tingkah Laku Kerjaya Keusahawanan Siswazah ke Arah Pembangunan Kurikulum Pendidikan Keusahawanan yang Berkesan. Projek Kajian IRPA RMK ke-8.
- Norasmah Hj Othman. (2004). Bidang Keusahawanan: Satu Alternatif bagi Mahasiswa. Dalam Abdul Razaq Ahmad. (pnyf). Mahasiswa Abad 21. Bangi: Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. Bab 16. Halaman 201-216.
- Nooraini & Siti Soleha. (2010). Persepsi Terhadap Faktor-Faktor yang Mempengaruhi Minat Pelajar 4SPH dalam Bidang Keusahawanan. Universiti Teknologi Mara.
- Norlida Ab. Wahab, Nor Aishah Buang, & Ramlee Mustapha. (2007). Pengaruh Jajaran Pengetahuan Terhadap Kesediaan Mengenal Peluang Keusahawanan Melalui Pendidikan Sepanjang Hayat di Kolej Komuniti. Proceeding International Conference On Lifelong Learning (ICLL). Fakulti Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia: Bangi. P360-371.
- Norfadhilah Nasharudin & Halimah Harun. (2010). Aspirasi Kerjaya Keusahawanan dalam Kalangan Pelajar Institusi Pengajian Tinggi Awam. Fakulti Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Norfazila Abu Bakar. (2008). Faktor-faktor yang Mempengaruhi Minat Pelajar Tahun Akhir Terhadap Bidang Keusahawanan di UTM. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Nooraini Othman & Siti Soleha Misman. (2009). Persepsi Terhadap Faktor-Faktor yang Mempengaruhi Minat Pelajar 4SPH dalam Bidang Keusahawanan. Fakulti Pendidikan. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Rosni Zamuddin Shah Sidek & Norfazila Abu Bakar. (2008). Faktor-faktor yang Mempengaruhi Minat Pelajar Tahun Akhir Terhadap Bidang Keusahawanan di UTM. Fakulti Pendidikan. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
- Sarebah Warman et al. (2010). Penerapan Kemahiran Keusahawanan dalam Kalangan Pelajar di Politeknik. Fakulti Pendidikan Teknikal. Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia.
- Salmah Topimin. (2006). Fostering entrepreneurship: a challenge for an Education Institution. Prosiding Persidangan Keusahawanan Kebangsaan Kedua, Hotel Vistana, Pulau Pinang. 9-10 Disember.
- Shamsuddin Jusoh. (2002). Persepsi guru dan pelajar sekolah menengah di Kelantan terhadap penerapan ciri-ciri keusahawanan. Kertas Projek. Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Yusof Boon & Sapiah Bohari. (2005). Kesediaan untuk Menceburi Bidang Keusahawanan di Kalangan Pelajar-Pelajar Bumiputera Tingkatan Empat di Tiga Buah Sekolah Sekitar Skudai, Johor. Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Zaidatul Akmaliah Lope Pihie & Hishamuddin Hassan. (2010). *Memperkasa Tekad Keusahawanan Pelajar*. Serdang: Penerbit Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Zulfaka Ishak. Nor Aishah. Lilia Halim. (2014). Ciri-Ciri Dan Tahap Pemikiran Sains Keusahawanan: Kesediaan Integrasi Pemikiran Keusahawanan Dalam Proses Pengajaran Guru-Guru Sains Di Mrsm. Jurnal Kepimpinan Pendidikan.

Penerapan Kemahiran Keusahawanan Menerusi Kem Keusahawanan Dalam Kalangan Pelajar MRSM

Norhauzan Mohd Zainuri¹ dan Najwa Yahaya²

¹ Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Abstrak

Keusahawanan adalah satu bidang yang amat penting bagi sesebuah negara kerana ia dapat menghakis budaya makan gaji disamping dapat membantu membangunkan ekonomi sesebuah negara. Kemahiran keusahawanan merupakan titik tambah kepada pelajar dalam membentuk masa depan mereka. Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengetahui keberkesanan pelaksanaan kem keusahawanan dalam memupuk kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri pelajar MRSM. Seramai 88 orang pelajar yang terdiri daripada pelajar Tingkatan 1, 2, 3 dan 4 telah dipilih secara rawak sebagai responden kajian ini. Instrumen kajian yang digunakan adalah soal selidik dengan menggunakan skala likert, 1(Sangat Tidak Mahir) hingga 5(Sangat Mahir). Data dianalisis secara deskriptif dengan menggunakan perisian Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS versi 21.0). Hasil kajian menunjukkan tahap penerapan kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri pelajar secara keseluruhannya adalah pada tahap sederhana tinggi. Tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara kemahiran keusahawanan dengan jantina pelajar. Oleh itu, semua pihak yang terlibat harus memberi perhatian dan mengambil langkah yang sewajarnya untuk terus membantu meningkatkan kemahiran keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar.

Kata kunci: kemahiran keusahawanan, pelajar MRSM, tahap kemahiran, jantina

1. Pengenalan

Dalam era globalisasi ini, peranan usahawan dapat dilihat sebagai penggerak utama ekonomi bagi sesebuah negara. Keusahawanan adalah satu bidang yang penting bagi sesebuah negara kerana ia dapat menghakis budaya makan gaji disamping dapat membantu membangunkan ekonomi sesebuah negara. Keusahawanan juga mampu mewujudkan satu masyarakat yang bukan sahaja sebagai masyarakat pengguna teknologi tetapi juga sebagai penyumbang kepada tamadun saintifik. Perkara ini menggambarkan betapa pentingnya penerapan budaya keusahawanan dalam masyarakat dimana ia mampu menempuh pelbagai cabaran. Menurut Kuratko & Hodgetts (2004) dan Frederick et al. (2013), menyatakan negara yang mempunyai ramai usahawan adalah lebih maju ke hadapan dalam perkembangan ekonominya. Usahawan dianggap sebagai penggerak kepada pembangunan ekonomi sesebuah masyarakat dan negara (Nor Aishah 2002). Ini disokong oleh Zaidatol Akmaliah dan Habibah (1997) di mana mereka menyatakan bahawa usahawan dapat membantu negara menjadi makmur dalam erti kata lain dapat menyumbang tenaganya kepada pembangunan dan ekonomi.

Bidang keusahawanan tidak diiktiraf sebagai satu bidang akademik yang boleh dipelajari pada satu ketika dahulu (Kuratko 2009). Ia dipandang oleh masyarakat sebagai satu konsep perdagangan yang boleh diaplikasikan oleh mereka yang tidak melanjutkan pelajaran ke Institusi Pengajian Tinggi untuk memulakan sesuatu perniagaan. Justeru itu, telah timbul pelbagai mitos mengenai keusahawanan yang menyatakan bahawa usahawan adalah mereka yang tidak berjaya dalam akademik, golongan yang berhenti kerja dan tidak diterima oleh masyarakat. Ini berlaku kerana pendidikan dan organisasi sosial tidak dapat mengenali usahawan. Oleh yang demikian, kerajaan telah

melakukan pelbagai usaha untuk membangunkan modal usahawan melalui pelaksanaan pendidikan keusahawanan secara formal atau tidak bermula diperingkat sekolah menengah hingga ke peringkat pengajian tinggi. Secara formal, pendidikan keusahawanan bermaksud satu proses pembangunan potensi individu yang berkaitan dengan aktiviti keusahawanan melalui pengurusan pelaksanaan kurikulum, pedagogi dan penilaian yang berstruktur dan terancang. Pendidikan keusahawanan juga boleh berlaku secara tidak formal dalam kalangan individu. Ianya berlaku melalui proses pendedahan dan komunikasi seharian individu dengan persekitaran yang berkaitan dengan aktiviti keusahawanan sebenar. Kurikulum pendidikan keusahawanan dapat dibahagikan kepada lima perkara iaitu sikap, pemikiran, kemahiran, vokasional dan nilai.

Berdasarkan kepada konsep pendidikan keusahawanan, aspek kurikulum dan pembelajaran dalam bidang keusahawanan boleh dibahagikan kepada enam bahagian utama iaitu pengenalan kepada pendidikan keusahawanan, membentuk motivasi dan ciri-ciri keusahawanan, membentuk pemikiran keusahawanan, kemahiran pengurusan perniagaan, vokasional serta nilai dan etika keusahawanan. Pelbagai program keusahawanan dijalankan bagi memenuhi keperluan pelajar dalam memantapkan pengetahuan keusahawanan. Oleh itu, pelbagai elemen keusahawanan diterapkan disetiap program yang dijalankan bagi memberi impak yang maksimum terhadap pelajar yang terlibat dengan program yang telah dijalankan. Namun begitu, timbul persoalan sejauhmanakah keberkesanan pelaksanaan kem keusahawanan yang telah dijalankan terhadap pelajar MRSM untuk memenuhi matlamat dan mampu melahirkan pelajar yang berdaya saing serta bersedia menyahut cabaran menjalankan perniagaan sendiri selepas tamat pengajian. Selain itu, tahap keberkesanan bagi setiap program yang telah dijalankan diukur bagi melihat impak dan kesediaan pelajar menceburi bidang keusahawanan.

2. Kajian Perpustakaan

2.1 Kemahiran Keusahawanan

Usahawan perlu memiliki kemahiran-kemahiran tertentu untuk menterjemahkan idea perniagaan kepada peluang perniagaan yang berdaya maju. Usahawan perlu mempunyai kemahiran bagi memastikan perniagaan yang dijalankan dapat dikawal dengan baik (Norasmah, 2009). Melalui kem ini, para pelajar diberi penerangan tentang kemahiran pemasaran iaitu dari segi tempat, harga, produk dan promosi (4P's) sebelum menjalankan praktikal pemasaran produk. Para pelajar juga banyak didedahkan dengan aktiviti-aktiviti yang dapat mewujudkan dan meningkatkan kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri pelajar. Antara aktiviti-aktiviti yang dapat menerapkan kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri para pelajar ialah melalui permainan catur bistari (kemahiran mengurus perniagaan), permainan farkle (kemahiran mengambil risiko), dan praktikal pemasaran produk (kemahiran pemasaran). Para pelajar juga didedahkan dengan kemahiran untuk mengatasi cabaran melalui aktiviti 'night walk' yang dijalankan.

Menurut Mohd Salleh et al. (2004), sekiranya seseorang usahawan itu ingin mencapai kejayaan yang cemerlang dalam bidang yang diceburi, individu tersebut perlulah mempunyai kemahiran yang mencukupi dalam bidang tersebut. Ini adalah kerana hasil kerja individu yang mahir berbeza dengan hasil kerja individu yang tidak mahir. Usahawan yang memiliki kemahiran dalam bidang tertentu merupakan suatu kelebihan bagi dirinya kerana ia dapat membantu usahawan dalam mengendalikan perniagaan (Yep Putih, 1989). Pyysiainen et al. (2006) dan Norita et al. (2010) pula menyatakan kemahiran keusahawanan merujuk kepada aktiviti-aktiviti atau amalan know-how yang diperlukan untuk membangun dan menjalankan perniagaan dengan berjaya.

Kemahiran keusahawanan boleh dibentuk dan ditingkatkan menerusi latihan dan pendidikan keusahawanan yang bersesuaian bagi melahirkan potensi dalam bidang keusahawanan (Doh Joon Chien & Chiong Teck Soon, 1996; Lewis, 2002; Collins et al., 2004; Nor Aishah Buang, 2006). Program pendidikan dan latihan keusahawanan berperanan untuk memberi serta meningkatkan pengetahuan dan kemahiran berkaitan dengan perniagaan kepada golongan remaja (Mohd Salleh et al., 1997). Pelajar juga perlu digalakkan mengikuti kem-kem keusahawanan atau kursus pembudayaan usahawan untuk menimbulkan minat serta kesedaran terhadap bidang perniagaan dan keusahawanan.

3. Metodologi

Kajian ini berorientasikan kaedah tinjauan. Untuk tujuan kajian ini satu set instrumen soal selidik telah dibina sendiri oleh pengkaji. Soal selidik ini mempunyai 7 bahagian iaitu bahagian A hingga G. Bagi kajian ini, konstruk

yang dipilih oleh pengkaji adalah bahagian E sahaja. Skala Likert digunakan dengan 1 (sangat tidak mahir) hingga 5 (sangat mahir). Dalam kajian ini, populasi yang dipilih adalah pelajar tingkatan 1 hingga tingkatan 4 MRSM Kuala Klawang pada tahun 2014 yang berjumlah 652 orang. Kaedah persampelan secara rawak mudah telah digunakan dan jumlah sampel seramai 100 orang responden digunakan. Daripada 100 soal selidik yang diedarkan, jumlah responden yang memulangkan soal selidik bagi kajian ini adalah seramai 89 orang dan didapati seorang responden memberi jawapan yang ekstrim dan tidak boleh digunakan untuk tujuan kajian. Ini menjadikan 88 responden atau 88 peratus soal selidik yang boleh digunakan untuk tujuan kajian. Dalam hal ini Mc Millan (2004) menyarankan kadar pulangan soal selidik sekurang-kurangnya 60 peratus daripada jumlah edaran soal selidik adalah memadai untuk membolehkan sesuatu kajian dilaksanakan dan menurut Babbie (2007), kadar pulangan respons sekurang-kurangnya 50 peratus adalah mencukupi untuk menjalankan analisis dan membuat laporan. Manakala kadar pulangan respons 60 peratus adalah baik dan kadar respon 70 peratus adalah sangat baik. Dalam konteks kajian ini kadar respons 88 peratus adalah sangat baik dan memadai untuk analisis dijalankan.

Dalam kajian ini, instrumen kajian diuji kebolehpercayaan dengan menggunakan pekali alfa Cronbach "*Cronbach Alpha*". Kaedah ujian ini dianalisis menggunakan perisian SPSS versi 21.0. Hasil analisis kajian bagi kesemua item berada pada nilai alfa 0.959 yang mana nilai kebolehpercayaan menunjukkan amat baik dan boleh diterima berdasarkan klasifikasi indeks yang dikemukakan oleh Lim (2007). Perinciannya dinyatakan dalam Jadual 1 di bawah:

Jadual 1: Klasifikasi indeks kebolehpercayaan

Pekali kebolehpercayaan	Tahap kebolehpercayaan
0.90 atau lebih	Amat Baik
0.80 - 0.89	Baik
0.60 - 0.79	Sederhana
0.40 - 0.59	Diragui
0.00 - 0.39	Ditolak

Sumber: Lim (2007)

4. Dapatan

4.1. Analisis Tahap Kemahiran Pelajar Dalam Bidang Keusahawanan

Tahap kemahiran pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan diukur menerusi 16 skop kemahiran termasuklah dalam penyediaan anggaran aliran tunai, membentang rancangan perniagaan, mengawal organisasi, mengenalpasti produk, pengendalian perniagaan, pengendalian kewangan, membuat keputusan perniagaan yang efektif, menangani ketidakpuasan pelanggan, memberi khidmat pelanggan yang berkesan, memimpin perniagaan, memulakan perniagaan, perancangan perniagaan, mempromosikan produk, menyelesaikan masalah perniagaan, strategi pengagihan dan penetapan harga yang kompetitif. Hasil analisis tahap kemahiran pelajar menerusi 16 skop ini ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 3. Secara keseluruhannya kemahiran pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan berada pada tahap sederhana tinggi dengan nilai min 3.94 dan sisihan piawai 0.58. Skop kemahiran pelajar yang menunjukkan skor min yang paling tinggi adalah dalam penyediaan anggaran aliran tunai (min= 4.10, sisihan piawai= 0.728) manakala skop kemahiran pelajar yang menunjukkan skor min yang paling rendah adalah dalam pengawalan organisasi perniagaan (min= 3.80, sisihan piawai= 0.664). Oleh itu, dapatan ini menunjukkan satu keputusan yang baik. Para pelajar menunjukkan tahap kemahiran yang positif dan amat memberangsangkan menerusi kem ini.

Jadual 2: Interpretasi skor min

Skor Min	Tahap Skor Min
1.00 hingga 2.00	Rendah
2.01 hingga 3.00	sederhana rendah
3.01 hingga 4.00	sederhana tinggi
4.01 hingga 5.00	Tinggi

Sumber : Nunally (1978); Jamil (2002); Haryati et al. (2013)

Jadual 3: Tahap Kemahiran Pelajar Keusahawanan

No	Kemahiran Pelajar	Min	Sisihan Piawai	Tahap
Apakah tahap kemahiran keusahawanan anda dalam aspek-aspek berikut setelah mengikuti kem keusahawanan?				
1	Membuat keputusan perniagaan yang efektif	3.94	.748	Sederhana tinggi
2	Memimpin sesebuah organisasi perniagaan	3.98	.816	Sederhana tinggi
3	Mengendalikan sesebuah organisasi perniagaan	3.85	.720	Sederhana tinggi
4	Menyelesaikan masalah perniagaan	3.99	.719	Sederhana tinggi
5	Pengawalan organisasi perniagaan	3.80	.664	Sederhana tinggi
6	Penetapan harga produk yang kompetitif	3.93	.770	Sederhana tinggi
7	Strategi pengagihan produk kepada pengguna sasaran	3.92	.698	Sederhana tinggi
8	Memberi perkhidmatan pelanggan yang berkesan	3.91	.753	Sederhana tinggi
9	Menangani ketidakpuasan pelanggan	3.94	.748	Sederhana tinggi
10	Pengendalian kewangan perniagaan	3.81	.725	Sederhana tinggi
11	Penyediaan anggaran aliran tunai	4.10	.728	Tinggi
12	Membuat perancangan perniagaan yang berdaya maju	3.95	.815	Sederhana tinggi
13	Memulakan perniagaan	4.08	.715	Tinggi
14	Mampu membentangkan rancangan perniagaan kepada pihak yang memerlukan	3.93	.691	Sederhana tinggi
15	Mampu mengenalpasti produk yang sesuai untuk perniagaan saya	3.94	.807	Sederhana tinggi
16	Mampu mempromosikan produk dengan baik	3.94	.717	Sederhana tinggi
Tahap Keseluruhan Kemahiran		3.94	.58	Sederhana tinggi

4.2. Analisis kemahiran pelajar terhadap jantina pelajar

Analisis tahap kemahiran pelajar berdasarkan jantina ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 4. Berdasarkan jadual tersebut, skor min bagi pelajar lelaki adalah 3.9702 dan sisihan piawai 0.54 manakala skor min pelajar perempuan adalah 3.9077 dan sisihan piawai 0.63. Hasil analisis ujian-t tidak bersandar menunjukkan tidak terdapat perbezaan min yang signifikan antara tahap kemahiran keusahawanan pelajar lelaki dengan tahap kemahiran keusahawanan pelajar perempuan iaitu $t(88) = 0.501$, $p > 0.05$.

Jadual 4: Tahap kemahiran pelajar terhadap jantina pelajar

Pemboleh ubah	Jantina	N	Min	Sisihan piawai	T	Sig. (p)
Kemahiran keusahawanan	Perempuan	44	3.9077	.63	.501	.618
	Lelaki	44	3.9702	.54		

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

Kajian menunjukkan tahap kemahiran pelajar MRSM dalam bidang keusahawanan secara keseluruhannya adalah pada tahap sederhana tinggi. Ini bersesuaian dengan kajian Norhatta Mohamad (2003) yang mendapati kemahiran dalam perniagaan pelajar-pelajar sekolah menengah berada pada tahap sederhana menerusi Program Pengusaha Muda (YEP). Dapatan ini juga selari dengan dapatan yang diperolehi oleh Ura Pin (2012) dan Armanurah

Mohamad (2014) yang juga mendapati tahap kemahiran peserta adalah positif setelah menyertai program keusahawanan. Oleh itu menerusi kem keusahawanan ini dapat menerapkan kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri pelajar. Sexton dalam Norasmah (2002) juga menyatakan program pendidikan dan latihan keusahawanan berperanan untuk meningkatkan kemahiran berkaitan keusahawanan kepada pelajar. Menerusi kem keusahawanan para pelajar memperoleh pengalaman dan seterusnya dapat membentuk kemahiran keusahawanan dalam diri mereka menerusi aktiviti-aktiviti yang dijalankan. Pernyataan ini disokong oleh Faridah (2001) yang mendapati faktor pengalaman pelajar dalam perniagaan memberi sumbangan besar terhadap tahap kemahiran keusahawanan.

Namun begitu, dapatan kajian ini bertentangan dengan kajian oleh Suhaida (2002) yang dijalankan terhadap Skim Siswazah menyatakan kebanyakan peserta program itu tidak memahami sepenuhnya dalam kemahiran keusahawanan (penyediaan rancangan perniagaan) dan hal ini merupakan penyebab utama mereka tidak terlibat dalam perniagaan selepas tamat latihan Skim Usahawan Siswazah. Kajian Muhammad Nor Zaini (2001) turut menyatakan bahawa tahap kemahiran keusahawanan di kalangan individu kurang upaya anggota di Malaysia menunjukkan peratus yang rendah dalam kebanyakan aspek yang dikaji. Ini mungkin disebabkan oleh keadaan persekitaran pelajar yang tidak didedahkan dengan cara berniaga yang dapat memberi keuntungan sehingga mereka rasa tercabar untuk memiliki kemahiran yang tinggi dalam keusahawanan.

Dari segi perbezaan tahap kemahiran keusahawanan pelajar berdasarkan jantina, dapatan menunjukkan tiada perbezaan bagi tahap kemahiran pelajar dalam bidang keusahawanan berdasarkan jantina. Dapatan ini selari dengan Anida Ismail (2006) yang mendapati tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan di antara lelaki dan perempuan terhadap Latihan Pembentukan Usahawan Mara dalam memberikan kemahiran penyediaan Rancangan Perniagaan. Kajian ini juga menyokong Muhammad (2002) dan Norhatta (2003). Armanurah (2014) juga mendapati tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara bekas peserta lelaki dengan bekas peserta perempuan ke atas kemahiran keusahawanan pelajar. Kesimpulannya, kaum lelaki dan perempuan mempunyai tahap kemahiran yang sama dalam mengikuti latihan.

Secara keseluruhan, dapatlah dirumuskan bahawa keberkesanan pelaksanaan kem keusahawanan dalam memupuk kemahiran keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar MRSM berada pada tahap sederhana tinggi. Dalam kemahiran keusahawanan terdapat beberapa aspek yang dikaji iaitu pengenalan kepada pendidikan keusahawanan, membentuk motivasi dan ciri-ciri keusahawanan, membentuk pemikiran keusahawanan, kemahiran pengurusan perniagaan, vokasional serta nilai dan etika keusahawanan. Namun dari segi perbezaan tahap kemahiran keusahawanan pelajar berdasarkan jantina menunjukkan tiada perbezaan yang signifikan.

6. Penghargaan

Pertama sekali, kami mengucapkan jutaan terima kasih kepada Profesor Dr. Nor Aishah Buang selaku penyelia di atas bimbingan, tunjuk ajar, ilham dan segala panduan yang telah dicurahkan. Terima kasih yang tidak terhingga dirakam kepada Tn. Hj. Ahmad Tajudin Bin Abdullah Zawawi iaitu pengetua MRSM Kuala Klawang kerana memberi kerjasama dan bantuan semasa projek ini dilaksanakan. Kami sangat berterima kasih kepada semua pelajar MRSM Kuala Klawang yang sudi mengambil bahagian dalam projek ini. Keikhlasan dan masa yang diluangkan oleh kalian untuk menjayakan projek ini amat dihargai. Ribuan terima kasih juga diucapkan kepada semua pensyarah Fakulti Pendidikan yang telah mencurahkan ilmu yang sangat tinggi nilainya.

Tidak lupa juga ucapan terima kasih kami huluskan kepada rakan-rakan seperjuangan yang sentiasa membantu dan tidak pernah berhenti untuk memberi galakan dan dorongan kepada kami. Juga ucapan terima kasih kami tujukan kepada semua pihak yang terlibat secara langsung atau tidak langsung dalam menjayakan projek ini. Akhir sekali, penghargaan yang tidak ternilai juga dirakamkan kepada keluarga kami yang sentiasa memahami kesibukan dan kesulitan kami, memberi restu, sokongan dan mendoakan sepanjang penglibatan kami dalam menyiapkan projek ini.

7. Rujukan

Armanurah Mohamad, Abdul Razak Amir, Nor Aishah Buang dan Muhammad Hussin.

Armanurah. 2014. Penilaian Pelaksanaan Program Siswaniaga Universiti Utara Malaysia. Tesis Dr. Fal. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

- Arnida Ismail. 2006. Persepsi peserta terhadap program latihan pembentukan usahawan MARA dalam menerapkan nilai, ilmu dan kemahiran keusahawanan di kalangan peserta. Tesis Penyelidikan Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Faridah Husin. 2001. Pembudayaan Keusahawanan dalam Kalangan Pelajar Sekolah Menengah: Kajian Kes Peserta Program Usahawan Muda (PUM). Tesis Sarjana. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Hariyaty Ab Wahid, Norasmah Othman & Haliza Hussein. 2012. Keusahawanan sosial dan hubungannya dengan daya tahan terhadap tekanan dalam kalangan pelajar program Student in Free Enterprise (SIFE). Dlm. Khoo Yin Yin et al. (pnyt). *Korpus*. Tanjong Malim: Penerbit UPSI.
- Jamil Ahmad. 2002. Pemupukan budaya penyelidikan di kalangan guru di sekolah satu penilaian. Tesis Ijazah Doktor Falsafah: Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Mohamad Hafeez Al-Amin. 2013. Penerapan Kemahiran Keusahawanan dalam kalangan pelajar bidang kejuruteraan Mekanikal di UTHM. Laporan projek Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Tun Hussein Onn.
- Muhammad Hj. Wahid. 2002. Tahap pengetahuan modul program usahawan muda. Kesannya terhadap penerapan keterampilan usahawan dan nilai kemanusiaan. Kertas projek Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Norasmah Hj Othman. 2002. Keberkesanan Program Keusahawanan Remaja di Sekolah Menengah. Tesis Doktor Falsafah. Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Norhatta Mohd. 2003. Pengetahuan, Kemahiran dan Sikap dalam Perniagaan dan Keusahawanan di Kalangan Pelajar-pelajar Sekolah Menengah di Sekitar Lembah Klang. Tesis Sarjana. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Nunally, J.C. 1978. *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Suhaida Mohd Amin. 2002. Kertas Projek Strategi dalam Pembangunan Usahawan di Malaysia.
- Ura Pin @ Chum. 2012. Penilaian Program Perintis Usahawan di Sekolah Rendah. Tesis Sarjana Pendidikan. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

A Review of Big Five Personality and Job Performance among employees

Holila and Mastura Mahfar

Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor Bahru, 81310 Skudai, Malaysia

Abstract

Big Five is one of the prominent models of personality that have an important role in organization to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of employee's performance. Numerous theories showed that there was a significant relationship between Big Five personality and job performance among employees at workplace. Hence, this paper describes a proposed study to examine the relationship between Big Five personality and job performance among employees in an organization. This model is based on five personality dimension that are increasingly popular with the acronym OCEAN (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism). A questionnaire design will be used in this study and it will be analyzed by using SPSS software. The NEO-FFI (Five Factor Inventory) and performance appraisal questionnaire will be used as measuring instruments. The total population of this study is 200 employees that work in production lines and the sample is 132 respondents that obtained based on Krejcie Morgan (1970) by using stratified sampling method.

Keywords: Big Five personality, job performance, employees.

1. Introduction

The increase in improvisation of the current knowledge and technology makes organization needs to consider with the employees' performance. According to Fitriandini (2013), performance is the important criterion for organization outcomes and success because it measures individual performs. The economists also believe that the human resources in an organization are the main factors in order to develop the productivity and organizational effectiveness (Klang, 2012). Hence, an organization has to prefer the skillful and efficient human resources as the most valuable wealth (Wijono, 2006). Big Five personality is the most prominent model of personality that being highest predictor to job performance (Costa & McCrae, 2000). Big Five is currently used as a platform by many organizations. This model is based on five personality dimension that are increasingly popular with the acronym OCEAN (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism, Costa et al., 2000).

2. Research Background

Performance is an important criterion for organizational outcomes and success because it measures individual performs or individual level variable (Fitriandini, 2013). In the current fast growing globalizing century, it is crucial for organizations today to recruit high performing employees. The issue most organizations find tedious is to separate individuals who will perform well from those who will not. The answer may relate to the type of personality that one exhibits. However, ever since organizations started to incorporate personality testing in their recruitment processes there has been reasonable doubt in terms of their true usefulness (Burch & Anderson, 2008). Furthermore, an organization needs to selective in recruiting employees that would suit the task. Christiana (2014) supported that an organization needs to consider and take proper actions to human resource as important resources in order to achieve the objectives.

On top of that, Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) stated employees' performance depends on positive personality traits and organizational supports. Employees would perform with high level of personality when they perceive their managers investing time to care about them within a positive organization environment. Importantly, personality is one of the most significant topics considered by the job advisors (Barrick et al., 2001). The appointment of the right people in the right jobs significantly enhances the individual and the organizational performance. Clearly, the individuals have different personalities just like the different characteristics of the careers. Based on this method, many efforts are made to appoint the right people in the right jobs (Alvani & Fard, 2002). Wijono (2006) highlighted that organization have to prefer the skillful and efficient human resources as the most valuable wealth. Regardless of the many natural resources developed by communities, they might lack the proficient employees and have no ability to utilize their facilities. The employees with optimistic characteristics do contribute to an organization progress (Carmeli, 2003). Furthermore, the organizations are required to support employees in order to perform better. Barrick et al. (2001) also supported that performance can be influenced by the employees who hold a high level of personality traits, so that they can manage their emotions in terms of maintaining a positive mental state in workplace.

In order to understand human behavior, we must break behavioral patterns down into a series of observable traits. One prominent personality classification characterizing a large number of traits is the Big Five model that, the validity factors has been established across various nations (Costa et al., 2000). The emergence of Big Five personality dimensions has provided a clear perspective has yet to be correlated till what extend in current era. Big Five is currently used as a platform by many organizations. The Big Five personality dimensions are employed in the study as a model to know which is the most influential to job performance. Costa et al. (2000) stated that Big Five personality is the most prominent model of personality that being highest predictor to job performance. The dimensions of Big Five personality are used to explain individual differences in personality ratings. The dimensions of Big Five namely are Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008).

Furthermore, recent research findings by Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki and Cortina (2006) confirmed that personality traits are capable of predicting behavioral outcomes at work. This indicates that the findings are universal and that it is possible to generalize the results of such studies across cultures. This idea is further supported by previous research (McCrae & Costa, 1997). The relationships between personality traits and job performance have been studied to a great extent and the field has flourished to become a hot topic under investigation, ever since Barrick and Mount (1991) forced extraordinary attention to it. As the present study focuses on identifying predictors of supervisory ratings of job performance, in an oil and gas employee's performance context, it is important to test the potential contribution of personality traits of Big Five in it.

To sum up, Nahid (2013) suggested that the five dimensions of Big Five personality exerting different characteristics to influence employees' performance through attitudes and behavior influence to innovation and higher value, contingent reward, and active management by exception. These employees are the asset of the institutions, as they play an important role in managing the customers or clients, meeting their needs and giving them satisfaction. Therefore, it is important to analyze and understand the personality of employees.

3. Literature Review

3.1 Job Performance

For an organization to progress well, workers must progress in their performance as it will affect the company's production growth. It consists of the knowledge, skills and attitude that are required to enable an employee to perform the tasks listed in the job description as per the competency profile that a human resource may have developed through job a checklist (Alessandri & Vecchione, 2012). Job performance is the combination between effort, ability, and opportunity that can be measured from the results of the work (Sulistiyani, Ambar, & Rosidah, 2003). Robbins (2000) stated that job performance is also a relative value of an employee to an organization in terms of competence, skill, potential, and capabilities. Therefore, the performance will show the extent to which an employee is able to complete the work and be responsible so that it can improve the performance of the organization to stay competitive with other companies (Campbell, 1990). Hence, according to Noor (2003) job performance defined as the behavioral generated by an employee that relevant with organization objectives. According to Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (1993) job performance is whether the people perform the job well. There are

some aspects to help clarify the definition of job performance, namely are: outcomes, organizational goal relevance, and multidimensionality (Campbell et al., 1993).

Campbell (1990) proposed eight majors of performance based on factor analytic in order to capture components of job performance including task specific behaviors, non-task specific behaviors, written and oral communication, individual performance, personal discipline, highly interdependent, supervision or leadership component, and managerial administrative performance. Firstly, task specific behaviors means the individual undertakes as part of job. Secondly, non-task specific behaviors are the individual requires undertaking which do not refer only to certain job task. Thirdly, written and oral communication tasks refer to formal and informal activities of employee in order to create the oral and written presentations to convey a message necessary in many different jobs and various audiences. Fourthly, demonstration of effort means either time to time the individual changes their behavior. This major reflects the degree to which people commit themselves to job tasks. Fifthly, the performance domain might also include the major of maintenance of personal discipline. Sixthly, highly interdependent and performance are include the degree to which employee helps out the teams and the colleagues in the job task. Seventhly, supervision or leadership component is the important aspect in performance due to job requires good oversight and direction to perform well. The functions of leadership is guiding and unifying individuals, groups and entire organization for attaining and establishing the organizational objectives. Eighthly, managerial and administrative performance entailed in job performance to achieve the organizational goal.

Murphy and Kroeker (1998) defined taxonomy of job performance into four dimensions namely are: task oriented behaviors, interpersonally oriented behaviors, down-time behaviors, and destructive or hazardous behaviors. These dimensions are quite similar with Campbell's model. Task oriented behaviors includes any major tasks relevant to individual's job. Then, interpersonally oriented behaviors are referred by some interactions the focal employees with others. Down-time behaviors are the other attitudes of employee in outside of job task that can be subsequently effect to job performance. For example, outside behavior that causes absenteeism. The last is destructive or hazardous behaviors that can be significant influence to job performance such as: employee who using alcohol, drugs, and other bad habits (Murphy et al., 1998).

Lee (2000) stated that job performance consists of three aspects to measure whether the people achieve the target or job task well or not. The three aspects are namely: task performance, job dedication, and interpersonal facilitation. Firstly, task performance is activities that related to technical core, contribute directly in implementation the technology process, and might be critical to organization effectiveness. In other words, task performance refers to formally defined job activities in workplace (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). There are many activities to refers task performance in organization, such as: keep relationship and good cooperation with colleagues, still doing the job even though is not formally job, enthusiasm to complete the job task successfully, and so on (Borman et al., 1993). Secondly, job dedication related to work means that a devotion. It is how people giving full power and the best performance to an organization. For instance, not estimate working hours if the company gives more work beyond office hours, when in a meeting, not solely for self-promotion but also introduces the company as a whole. Thirdly, interpersonal facilitation is using the facility as much as to create conducive working atmosphere and help generate the expected performance (Borman et al., 1993).

Job performance model by Lee (2000) is more easily to measure whether the people achieve the job task well or not. For example, in order to determine whether the employee complete the job task through aspect task performance refers to implementation of technology process. Then, for the employee who has high dedicate to organization, make good cooperate with colleagues, and enthusiasm to complete the job task successfully can be called as job dedication of employee to organization. Hence, interpersonal facilitation can be seen when the employee using the facility as much as to create conducive working atmosphere in workplace. Furthermore, Lee's Model is the easily aspects to determine whether the employee complete job task well or not rather than Campbell (1990) and Murphy et al. (1998). Based on the managerial theories and the visions of the contemporary commentators, the relationship between personality traits and job performance has been examined.

3.2 Big Five Personality

Personality is consistent pattern of thoughts, feelings, and actions that distinguish people from others (Kramer, Bhawe, & Johnson, 2013). McGraw-Hill (2008) defined personality refers to behavioral tendencies due to

individual's activities are not perfectly consistent with the personality characteristics in certain situations at workplace. Personality is characteristics of individuals that comes from inside of self and will look out through the action (Simbala, 2011). Judge and Illies. (2002), defined personality refers to consistent internal states which explains a person' behavioral tendencies and relatively stable pattern of behaviors including internal and external elements. Internal element represents of values, thoughts, and genetic characteristics that infer from the observable behaviors (Roccas, 2002). For instance, personality can be coded through shaped from childhood or other early life experiences. Meanwhile, the observable behaviors that can be identifying trough individual's personality are called as external element (Roccas, 2002). For instance, the way of people interacts with other people in their life.

Costa et al. (2000) stated that Big Five personality is the most prominent model of personality that being highest predictor to job performance. The dimensions of Big Five personality are used to explain individual differences in personality ratings. The dimensions of Big Five namely are Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Goldberg (1990) highlighted Big Five personality is the most widely accepted structure of personality among researchers and scientists. Each of dimensions has different characteristics and influence to job performance in workplace (Goldberg, 1990). Tett and Burnett (2003) supported Big Five personality is an important factor influencing test-criterion correlations in work setting. Furthermore, Big Five personality can be applied when investigating the role of individual differences in personality ratings have been successfully used to predict of job performance in workplace (Ziegler, Bensch, Maab, Schult, Vogel, & Buhner, 2014). McGraw-Hill (2008) supported that every dimensions of Big Five personality influence work related to job performance and behavior to varying degrees. Hence, Big Five personality is a way to measure individual's characteristics, behavior, and attitudes which are important for organization in order to improve employees' performance. For instance, dimensions of Big Five personality has influence to task performance, level of society, work activities in workplace, and so forth.

On top of that, Attia (2013) defined Big Five personality has important function in order to generate individual' performance in different occupations. Dimensions of Big Five personality can be influence indirectly to organizational performance. Moreover, these dimensions of personality strongly influence the outcomes of organization such as: different personality traits make employees completing the job task or not, how the great dedication of employee is gives to organization, and how the employee functions the interpersonal facilitation to improve their performance (Lee, 2000). As usual, a person who has high emotional stability tends to work better than other people in high stress conditions (Halepota, 2011). Barrick et al. (2001) has been studied in Industrial Psychology about the relationship between Big Five personality and job performance. The result shows that not all of dimensions give significant relationship to job performance (Barrick et al., 2001).

As summary of this section, the personality cannot be simplified to simple notion (Costa et al., 2000). The Big Five personality is referred as individual characteristics, attitudes, thought, and behavior that affects to performance in workplace. Each dimension is driven by individual who have high spirit and expect to challenge with certain situations. In this study, personality is referred to five dimensions which are from inherent interests and enjoyment, as well as Big Five personality.

4. Methodology

There are two types of research design in this study, which are descriptive research and correlational study. Panneerselvam (2006) stated that descriptive research is used to describe the demographic background of respondents. Other type of this research is correlational study. According to Mayer and Frantz (2004), correlational study is a scientific study in which simply defined the relationship between variables. Sekaran (2006) identified correlational study is to explore the correlations among variables in order to respect the causal research. The research approach used in this study is a self-administered questionnaire of delivery and collection questionnaire which will be completed by the respondents. The data of respondents will be collected through a set of questionnaire that consist of Big Five questionnaire adapted from Wei, Syan, and Teng (2009), in which the instruments was developed based on the NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) that originally developed by McCrae and Costa (1997). The job performance questionnaire will be adapted from Lee (2000) that originally was by Motowidlo and Scotter (1994).

The questionnaire designed divided into 3 sections. Section A consists of demographic information where respondents were required to fill in their personal particulars and this section provides a brief description about the respondents. This part consists of six questions which design to collect the basic information of employees regarding

their academic qualification, gender, age categories, and years of working job position, monthly income level, and job position. Section B consists of five parts whereby each part contains questions that are relevant to each factor that influence employee job performance. Each question in section B will be tested using five-point Likert Scale. These five parts include Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (Emotional stability). Respondents will be asked to choose the one most closest to their viewpoint in the question. For Section C, Likert scale is used as well whereby dependent variable which is job performance among employees in the organization will be tested. This study will utilize the quantitative research methodology. There are three parts to disseminate the questionnaires that employed to gain the specific and statistical data which includes the demographic data, Big Five personality questionnaires (NEO-FFI), and overall job performance scale.

5. Conclusion

The paper proposed a study to examine the relationship between Big Five personality and job performance among employees in an organization in Indonesia. The recent research findings by some experts showed that personality traits are capable of predicting behavioral outcomes at work. This indicates that the findings are universal and that it is possible to generalize the results of such studies across cultures. The dimensions of Big Five personality (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism) have been applied only on limited basis to higher organizational setting; by integrating these five dimensions in the context of this sector, this study will add to the literature. In addition, the findings from this study are to identify the trait and the level of Big Five personality and job performance among employees at an organization in Indonesia.

6. References

- Alessandri, G., & Vecchione, M. (2012). The Higher-Order Factors of the Big Five as Predictors of Job Performance. *Personality and Individual Differences, Department of Psychology, Sapienza, University of Rome, Italy* , 779-784.
- Alvani, & Fard, D. (2002). Explaining the Pathways between Approach Avoidance Personality Traits and Employees' Job Search Behavior. *Journal of Management* .
- Attia, N. (2013). Big Five Personality Factors and Individual Performance. *Personnel Psychology* .
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta Analysis. *Personnel Psychology* , 44, 1-26.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. (2001). *Personality and Performance at the Beginning of the New Millenium: What Do We Know and Where Do We Go Next?* UK and 350 Main Street, Malden, MA 02148, USA, Vol. 9 No. 1/2: Blackwell Publishers Ltd 2001, 108 Cowley Road, Oxford OX4 1JF.
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). *Expanding the Criterion Domain to Include Elements o f Contextual Performance*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass: Personnel Selection in Organizations.
- Burch, G. S., & Anderson, N. (2008). Personality as a Predictor of Work-Related Behavior and Performance: Recent Advances and Directions for Future Research. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* , 23, 261-305.
- Campbell, J. P. (1990). *Modeling the Performance Prediction Problem in Industrial and Organizational Psychology in M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp. 687-732)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). *A Theory of Performance; Personnel Selection in Organization (pp. 35-70)*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Carmeli, A. (2003). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Attitudes, Behavior, and Outcomes: An Examination among Senior Managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol 18 (8)* , 788-813.
- Christiana, M. (2014). *Hubungan antara Faktor Motivasi dan Dimensi Kepribadian terhadap Persepsi Kinerja Karyawan Payroll PT. Carrefour Indonesia*. Jakarta, DKI Jakarta,Indonesia: Bina Nusantara University.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (2000). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory*. PAR Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc. / 16204 North Florida Ave. / Lutz, FL 33549 / 1.800.331.8378.
- Dudley, N. M., Orvis, K. A., Lebiecki, J. E., & Cortina, J. M. (2006). A Meta-Analytic Investigation of Conscientiousness in the Prediction of Job Performance: Examining the Intercorrelations and the Incremental Validity of the Narrow Trait. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 91, 40-57.

- Fitriandini, N. (2013). *Hubungan Kepribadian Extraversi dan Kemampuan Komunikasi Interpersonal dengan Prestasi Kerja agen AJB Bumiputera 1912 cabang Supratman Bandung*. Skripsi Jurusan Psikologi, FIP UPI Bandung.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An Alternative "Description of Personality": The Big Five Factor Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 59, 1216-1229.
- Halepota, J. A. (2011). Determinants of Work Attributes and Personality Aspects towards Employees' Job Satisfaction.
- Ivancevich, J. M., Konopaske, R., & Matteson, M. T. (2008). *Organizational Behavior and Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Judge, T. A., & Illies, R. (2002). Relationship of Personality to Performance Motivation: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 , No. 4, 797-807.
- Klang, A. (2012). *The Relationship between Personality and Job Performance in Sales: A Replication of Past Research and an Extension to a Swedish Context*. Stockholm University - Department of Psychology.
- Kramer, A., Bhawe, D. P., & Johnson, T. D. (2013). Personality and Group Performance: The Importance of Personality Composition and Work Task. *Personality and Individual Differences* , 132-137.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* , 30, 607-610.
- Lee, S. (2000). *Cross-Cultural Validity of Personality Traits for Predicting Job Performance of Korean Engineering*. North America: The Ohio State University.
- Mayer, F. S., & Frantz, C. M. (2004). The Connectedness to Nature Scale: A Measure of Individuals' Feeling in Community with Nature. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* , 24, 503-515.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1997). Personality Stability and Its Implications for Clinical Psychology. *Clinical Psychology Review* .
- McGraw-Hill. (2008). *Organizational Behavior: Emerging Realities for the Workplace Revolution (Fourth Edition)*. New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.
- Motowidlo, S. J., & Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that Task Performance should be Distinguished from Contextual Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 475-480.
- Murphy, K. R., & Kroecker, L. (1998). Dimensions of Job Performance (Rep. No. TN 88-39). San Diego: Navy Personnel Development and Research Center in Murphy, K. R., (1989), Is The Relationship Between Cognitive Ability And Job Performance Stable Over Time? *Human Performance* 2 (3). *Elsevier* , 183-200.
- Nahid, A. (2013). The Relationship between Personality Traits and Job Performance (Case Study: Employees of the Ministry of Education of Kerman). *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, Vol. 1 (5) No. 8
- Panneerselvam, R. (2006). *Research Methodology (Third Edition)*. New Delhi, India: Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited, M-97, Connaught Circus, ISBN-81-203-2452-8.
- Robbins, S. P. (2000). *Organisational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies and Applications (Sixth Edition)*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Roccas, S. (2002). The Big Five Personality Factors and Personal Values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 789-801.
- Sekaran, U. (2006). *Reserach Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Simbala, S. (2011). *Pengaruh Kepribadian terhadap Prestasi Kerja*. Jakarta: Rajagrafindo Persada.
- Sulistiyani, Ambar, T., & Rosidah. (2003). *Manajemen Sumber Daya Manusia*. Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu.
- Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. D. (2003). A Personality Trait based Interactionist Model of Job Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 88, 500-517.
- Wei, F. Y., Syan, T. E., & Teng, T. H. (2009). *Hubungan Antara Personaliti dengan Prestasi Kerja: Satu Kajian di Organisasi XYZ*. Malaysia: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Wijono, S. (2006). *Pengaruh Kepribadian Type A dan Peran Terhadap Stres Kerja Manager Madya Vol. 8 No. 3*. INSAN, Fakultas Psikologi Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana Salatiga.
- Ziegler, M., Bensch, D., Maab, U., Schult, V., Vogel, M., & Buhner, M. (2014). Big Five factes as Predictor of Job Training Performance: The Role of Specific Job Demands. *Learning and Individual Differences* , 29, 1-7.

Exploring the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention of women teachers in the Secondary School of Sibul, Sarawak

Law Pin Siew¹, Nik Norsyamimi Md Nor²⁺, Surena Sabil³ and Heng Chin Siong⁴
 Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development, UNIMAS

Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between women's job satisfaction and turnover intention among teachers who work in secondary school in Sarawak, Malaysia. This study will be measured by using quantitative methods and self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaire survey will be distributed to 295 women teachers from selected secondary schools in Sibul. In addition, the literature on variables, methodology and conclusion are elaborated.

Keywords: turnover intention, job satisfaction, teacher and women.

1. Introduction

Today, women's involvement in the workplace has increased due to the family's needs and job demand. Women also share the responsibilities of earning to have a better family life and show some contributions to the organization (Lakshmi & Gopinath, 2013). According to Ilmia (2014), Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) of female increased from 45.9% to 52.4% from year 2005 until 2013. As shown in Table 1.1, women's involvement in the labour force increased from 45.7% to 51.1% from year 2008 until 2013. However, women's involvement in labour force of Malaysia still low when compared to ASEAN countries, for instance Thailand (64.3%); Singapore (57.7%); and Brunei (56.0%) (Ilmia, 2014).

Table 1.1: Labour force in Malaysia

	Unit	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Labour force	'000	11,968	12,083	12,361	12,646	12,924	13,195
Labour Force Participation Rate:							
Total	%	62.7	63.0	62.8	64.4	65.5	66.2
Male	%	79.0	78.9	79.5	79.7	80.5	80.7
Female	%	<u>45.7</u>	<u>46.4</u>	<u>46.8</u>	<u>47.9</u>	<u>49.5</u>	<u>51.1</u>
Unemployment Rate (over labour force)		3.3	3.7	3.3	3.1	3.0	3.1

Source: Economic Planning Unit & Prime Minister Department, 2013

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + (6082 581547); fax: +(6082 581567).
 E-mail address: (mnnnorsyamimi@fcs.unimas.my).

Besides, according to “Malaysia Educational Statistic”, Quick Facts (2014), there are a large number of female groups who work as a teacher in secondary school compared to males. The number of women teacher in secondary school in Malaysia is around 1,120,000 to 1,150,000 from year 2012 until 2014. On the other hand, the number of male teachers is around 1,110,000 to 1,140,000. Table 1.2 showed the distribution of teachers in Malaysia based on gender differences.

Table 1.2: Enrolment at secondary school level by grade and gender from 2012 until 2014

Grade	Years					
	2012		2013		2014	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Lower Secondary (Form 1-3)	700,428	675,318	700,049	675,917	684,159	662,319
Upper Secondary (Form 4)	217,591	212,668	204,212	214,942	202,063	214,004
Upper Secondary (Form 5)	202,751	212,668	204,212	214,942	202,063	214,004
Upper Secondary (Form 6)	18,141	32,784	21,142	40,008	18,473	31,707
Total	1,138,911	1,142,313	1,143,803	1,152,386	1,114,593	1,120,028

Source: *Malaysia Educational Statistic, Quick Facts, 2014*

Recently, turnover intention of Malaysia’s employees has risen to an extremely high level. Randstad World of Work Report 2013/2014 had revealed that 70% of employees in Malaysia ‘plan’ to leave their current jobs. Based on the online survey conducted, results indicated that almost 7 out of 10 employees are searching for a better job in order to change their existing career. Their intention to leave is not due to the factor that they want to boost their career path but it is due to the factor of job satisfaction in the workplace (Randstad, 2014). There are 55% of them intended to leave because of “uncompetitive salary”, 35% of them are “lack of recognition” and 21% are “lack of trust by their senior leader”. On the other hand, only 30% of the employees are dedicated to achieving organizations’ goal and 16% confidence of being recognized (Randstad, 2014). Thus, it is important for the employers to increase a big amount of awareness towards employee job satisfaction.

In addition, turnover intention among women workers might be caused by several factors of job satisfaction such as lower payment and gender discrimination (Choong, Keh, Tan, & Tan, 2013). According to Awani (2014), employee job satisfactions have dropped from 60.04% to 59.05% from year 2012 until 2013. There are about 46.5% of employee are dissatisfied with career promotion and opportunities at work, 52.7% are dissatisfied with salary and 53.0% are dissatisfied with nature of the job. The survey also showed that male workers have less job satisfaction level at 58.62%, whereas female recorded with 59.28% level of satisfaction. Although woman's job satisfaction level is slightly higher than men, however, women’s turnover intentions are stronger based on the level of commitment towards family and kids. Therefore, it is important to conduct this research in order to find out more information about job satisfaction and turnover intention of women. It is also vital information to every employer in the organization to increase their understanding of factors that lead to employee’s actual turnover.

This paper intends to discuss conceptual view of exploring the influence of job satisfaction towards teacher’s turnover intention. It gives some basic literature review on the variables involved and how research should be conducted based on the gap found and issues revealed.

2. Explanation of the Construct and Literature Review

This study highlights two important variables; job satisfaction and turnover intention. Based on Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012), employees’ voluntary and involuntary turnover is the replacement of old staff to the new workers in a specific period of time due to particular reasons. Voluntary turnover refers to the decision of employees to end up the relationship with the employer based on personal choice (Baiyu, 2010). Meanwhile, involuntary turnover refers to an employer decision to terminate or end up relationship with an employee. In simpler term, employee turnover is the action of which employee willingness to make choices of leaving a company to transform to a new job or unwillingness to leave, where the employee has no choice due to their termination. Turnover can be influenced by the behavioral intention where the employees have the thought and consideration to leave an organization (Castle, Engberg, Anderson & Aiju, 2007). Besides, their turnover may result from some circumstances, for instance, long term sickness, family’s problems, retirement, physical disabilities and so forth (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012)

On the other hand, job satisfaction is an individual's common attitude towards his or her job. Robbin and Judge (2012) explained that job satisfaction is the differences between the total amounts of rewards that employees receive compared to the amount that they believe they should receive. He also stated that the higher the job satisfaction levels of employees, the higher the level of positive attitude of employees towards their job. On the other hand, job satisfaction is defined as "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job" (Parmar, 2012, p. 14). Besides, job satisfaction can be defined as the individual feeling of fulfilment about their expectation of a job (Bushra, 2012). The job satisfaction also can be affected by the individual feeling of fulfilment about their expectation on salary payment, working condition, supervisory support or promotions and etc.

The job satisfaction of employees is the key factor that leads to an organization's success. Gregory (2011) stated that a high rate of employee contentedness is directly related to a lower turnover. This indicates that the high level of job satisfaction will lead to decreases rate of employee's turnover intention. Therefore, employers must pay more attention to earn and retain the job satisfaction among their employees. However, even though the issue seems like recognized by most of the employers, ironically, they have always neglected or put less concern on it and produce more issues in the future. Furthermore, Tnay, Othman, Heng, and Lim (2013), mentioned that turnover has great impact on organization's recruitment and selection, and training development activities. It also will expose the work operation negatively, which includes low productivity and performance as well as the increasing workload of other employees.

According to Mobley Model (1977), the employee turnover decision process is linked to the experience of job satisfaction in the workplace. At first, the employee will evaluate his or her existing job. Next, he/she will experience job satisfaction or dissatisfaction towards their job. Once the employee has a sense of feeling of dissatisfaction, he or she will begin to have the thought of quitting the job. Next, the employee will start to evaluate the expected utility of search and the cost of quitting. The expected utilities for search are such as lost time for work or prediction of possible alternative travel, whereas, cost of quitting such as loss of benefits invested in present job. If the possibility of alternative is accessible and the cost of quitting is not high, the employees will move to the next step, that will carry out the real action to search for alternatives. If the alternative exists, the next step will be followed by evaluation on the benefits of alternatives. The employee will do a comparison between alternatives and the present job. Once the employee found themselves are keener on the alternatives, the intention to quit will be initiated and finally they will make a decision whether to quit or stay in the recent organization (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984). At the present, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention also is widely studied by foreign researchers in a diverse environment context. Based on Bushra (2012), job satisfaction and job characteristics have shown a significant relationship with women's turnover intentions in Pakistan. It's also supported by a research carried out by Singh, Fouad, Fitzpatrick, Liu, Cappaert, and Figueiredo (2013) that job attitude (job satisfaction and organizational) show a significant correlation on predicting engineer's intentions to leave.

Moreover, research findings indicated by Salleh, Nair, and Harun (2012) showed that, employee's satisfaction such as salary, promotion, work itself, and supervision were significantly and negatively related to turnover intention whereas, the satisfaction on the relationship of coworker shows no significant relationship with turnover intention. Thus, all of these findings have an agreement that the exploration of women's turnover intentions is "still need for further research because no significance theory has yet clearly identified in the job satisfaction that lead to voluntary turnover among women" (Bushra, 2012, p.62). On the other hand, Ali (2005) observed that the employee's satisfaction issue will cause turnover intention increase continuously which eventually leads to actual turnover of employment if the issue is not taken into consideration.

In this research, researcher will focus on the women teachers in the public education sector. It is because a large number of educated women are working as teachers in both primary and secondary education sectors based on the education statistic report of Malaysia. Therefore, the large number of women teachers in educational sector need to be studied deeply (Sultana, Norhirdawati & Norzalan, 2014). Based on the literature, it was hypothesized that job satisfaction (i.e. nature work, promotion opportunity, supervisory support and social relation) is negatively related to women's turnover intention as stated below:-

- H1: Nature of work is negatively related to woman's turnover intention;
- H2: Promotion opportunity is negatively related to woman's turnover intention;
- H3: Supervisory support is negatively related to woman's turnover intention;
- H4: Social relation at workplace is negatively related to woman's turnover intention.

3. Methodology

This study will use a cross-sectional research design where it allows the researchers to integrate turnover intention research literature, the pilot study and the actual survey as a main procedure to gather data for this study. As advocated by many researchers, the use of such methods may gather accurate data, decrease bias and increase the quality of data being collected (Sekaran, 2003).

The targeted population of this study is women teachers in secondary school mainly in Sibul, Sarawak. There are twenty one of secondary schools located in Sibul. The total amount of teacher is 1760 with 1261 from the total headcounts is dominated by women teachers. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), sample size for a population between 1200 and 1300 is 291 to 297. Therefore, 295 women teachers will be selected as the respondents for this research. The simple random sampling technique will be applied in this study. Simple random sampling is a kind of probability sampling, where the researcher knows about the group of individuals in the targeted population. The objective of using simple random sampling is because every individual or group will have an equal and independence opportunities to be selected. Besides, this sampling method can avoid individual bias in selecting sample.

In this study, the close-ended questionnaires will be adopted as the main instrument to gather the raw data. This method is complementing the quantitative research and it is also an ideal way to collect the data from a large sample. The questionnaires are prepared based on independent variable and dependent variable in the conceptual framework with the consideration of validity and reliability test. In this research, the questionnaire consists of 3 sections namely Section A for demographic characteristics such as respondents' age, race and other personal background information; Section B for turnover intention and. Section C for job satisfaction which divided into section C (i) nature of job, section C (ii) promotion opportunities, section C (iii) supervisory support and section C (iv) social relationship in the workplace. The format of the questionnaires for section B and C will be designed based on Five-Point Likert's Scale according to the appropriate number of choices which 1= "strongly disagree", 2= "disagree", 3= "neutral" 4="agree" 5= "strongly agree". This is to indicate the degree of agreement of respondents based on the questions asked. The data analysis procedure is the process of analyzing collected data by using Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The inferential statistical method utilized in this study is Pearson Correlation. It is used to determine the relationship between the independent variable (job satisfaction) and dependent variable (turnover intention). This includes the relationship between nature of job and turnover intention, the relationship between promotion opportunities and turnover intention, the relationship between supervisory support and turnover intention and the relationship between social relationship and turnover intention.

4. Conclusion

As a conclusion, the job satisfaction of women teachers in Malaysia should be explored in order to understand its' relationship towards turnover intention. Incontestable that the turnover intentions of women are actually very high due to the job satisfaction factors with 2.5 times more than men (Hoonakker, Carayon & Schoepke, 2006; Miller & Wheeler, 1992). The results of this study will provide some specific advantage such as constructive information to the selected organization, particularly in Sibul, Sarawak. Besides, this study will also help more human resource practitioners to understand more about how far can job satisfaction in the workplace will affect women's turnover intentions. Thus, it will encourage them to find out solutions with the aim to decrease woman's turnover intention and eventually boost up the job productivity of the organization.

5. References

- Ali, N. (2005). Factors affecting overall job satisfaction and turnover intention. *Journal of Managerial Science*, 2(2), 240-252.
- Awani, A. (2014). Malaysia Trade Union congress: Malaysian employees want career advancement. [Online] Available: (January 2, 2014)
- Baiyu, L.I.U (2010). The study on employee turnover management. [Online] Available: <http://www.seiofbluountain.com/upload/product/201004/2010jshchx09a6.pdf>.
- Bushra, A. (2012). Job Satisfaction and Women's Turnover Intentions. *The Lahore Journal of Business*, 1(1), 59-77.
- Castle, N.G., Engberg, J., Anderson, R. & Aiju, M. (2007). Job Satisfaction of nurse aides in nursing homes: Intent to leave and turnover. *The Gerontologist*, 47(2), 193- 204.

- Choong, Y. O., Keh, C.G., Tan, Y. T., Tan, C. E. (2013). Impacts of Demographic Antecedents toward Turnover Intention amongst Academic Staff in Malaysian Private Universities. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 7(6), 46-54.
- Economic Planning Unit & Prime Minister Department (2013). *The Malaysian Economy in Figures 2013*. [Online] Available: <http://www.epu.gov.my/documents/10124/2257e64f-b08d-41b7-bed0-b6e6498c38a3>.
- Gregory, K. (2011). The importance of employee satisfaction. [Online] Available:
- Hom, P. W., Griffeth, R. W., & Sellaro, C. L. (1984). The validity of Mobley's (1977) model of employee turnover. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 34(2), 141-174.
- Hoonakker, P., Carayon, P., & Schoepke, J. (2006). Reasons for Women to Leave the IT Workforce. *Encyclopedia of Gender and Information Technology*. 1068-1074.
- Ilmia. (2014). [Online] Available: <http://www.ilmia.gov.my/index.php/ilmia-researches/publication/publication/malaysia-labour-review>
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.
- Lakshmi, K. S., & Gopinath, S. S. (2013). Work life balance of women employees. *Journal of research in management and technology*, 2, 53-62.
- Mbah, S. E., & Ikemefuna, C. O. (2012). Job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. 2(14), 275-287.
- Miller, J.G., & K.G. Wheeler, 1992. Unraveling the mysteries of gender differences in intentions to leave the organization. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(5): 465-478.
- Mobley, W.H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 62, 237-240.
- Parmar, D. N. (2012). A review of job satisfaction. *International Multidisciplinary e-Journal*, 1, 13-19.
- Quick Facts. (2014). Malaysia Educational Statistics. [Online] Available: http://emisportal.moe.gov.my/emis/emis2/emisportal2/doc/fckeditor/File/Quickfacts_2014/Buku%20Quick%20Facts%202014.pdf?PHPSESSID=6f0e912c366b9e08e2d1e97d78f59373
- Randstad (2014). *World of Work Report 2013/2014*. [Online] Available: <http://www.randstad.com.my/world-of-work-report-201314>
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2012). *Organizational Behavior 15th Edition*. Prentice Hall.
- Salleh, R., Nair, M. S., & Harun, H. (2012). Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intention. *International Journal of Social, Management, Economics and Business Engineering*, 6(12), 702-709.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Singh, R., Fouad, N. A., Fitzpatrick, M., Liu, J. P., Cappaert, K. J., & Figueredo, C. (2013). Predicting women engineers' intentions to leave. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83, 281-294.
- Sultana, A. M., Norhirdawati M. Zahir, and Norzalan H. Yaacob. (2014). Women in the Teaching Profession: Impacts and Challenges. *International Journal of Social, Management, Economics and Business Engineering*, 8(6), 1679-1682.
- Tnay, E., Othman, A. E. A, Heng, C. S., & Lim, S. L. O. (2013). The influences of job satisfaction on turnover intention. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 97, 201 – 208.

Assessing the Relationship between Human Capital and Spiritual Capital on Audit Firm's Performance

Dewi Fariha Earnest¹, Nur Farhana Chamian¹ and Maisarah Mohamed Saat¹

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

Abstract

Audit firm's performance is frequently associated with a high level of human capital and spiritual capital. Hence, the importance of these two values is always the core concern within audit firms to ensure that their professional services offered are consistent with the standard requirements in the profession. This study aimed to determine the relationship between human capital and spiritual capital on audit firm's performance. This study was conducted on audit firms operating in Johor Bahru, Malaysia. The primary data was generated through survey questionnaires which were distributed to auditors attached to the audit firms. Statistical analysis techniques using SPSS which includes descriptive analysis and Pearson correlation analysis were used to determine the relationship of human capital and spiritual capital on the performance of audit firm. The results revealed that both human capital and spiritual capital posed significant positive relationship on audit firm's performance. The result suggests that the top management of audit firms should acknowledge and utilize human capital and spiritual capital to enhance their performance when providing professional services. Finally, several recommendations for future research have been put forward to further investigate the exponential effect of human capital and spiritual capital on the performance of audit firms.

Keywords: human capital, spiritual capital, audit firm's performance

1. Introduction

In Malaysia, the role of human capital is pivotal to the development of a world-class capital market (Muhammad and Ismail, 2009). Importantly, the development of human capital is also an enrichment of the mentality and intellectual capacity of a nation which is one of the areas targeted under the Ninth Malaysian Plan. Hurwitz *et al.* (2002) stated that a firm's profitability is derived primarily from human capital. A firm that possesses skilled employees and experienced managers is expected to yield higher performance because its manpower can bring skills and capabilities into full play (Bontis *et al.*, 2000; Rhyne *et al.*, 2002). While on the other hand, there is another element from core concept of intellectual capital namely spiritual capital which receives increased consideration as a major factor that contributes to firm's performance (Zohar and Marshall, 2004). Spiritual capital is relatively a new component within the areas of intellectual capital mainly due to limited experimental evidence on it. Likewise, Finke (2003) highlighted that spiritual capital is a new emerging concept which came after religious capital however it has no specifically clear definition or measurement related to it. Hence, it is equally important to further explore on the exponent influence of spiritual capital on performance.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Important Values of Human Capital and Spiritual Capital

Human capital and spiritual capital are the components that emerged from the core concept of intellectual capital (Bontis *et al.*, 2000; Tayles *et al.*, 2007). Human capital is the most important asset that resides within a firm. It represents the human factor in an organisation where by combination of intelligence, skills, knowledge, aptitudes and expertise that gives the organisation its distinctive character which those traits contributing to production and profitability, thus improve organizational performance (Bontis *et al.*, 2000; Tayles *et al.*, 2007; Gazor *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, Becker (1993) states that human capital is the key determinant in explaining the rise and fall of nations as well as becoming the main factor in determining individual income.

Spiritual capital is a new emerging concept from the bigger intellectual capital concept. Most past studies emphasize on the relationship between spirituality and religiosity on performance which reveals that a better spiritual condition does improve performance (Osman *et al.*, 2012). Generally, spiritual capital is defined as intangible values that create wealth which includes trust, faith, commitment, determination and emotion of individual of which at the same time it carries organizational vision, direction, guidance, principles, values and culture (Porth *et al.*, 1999; Zohar and Marshall, 2004; Long and Mills, 2010). All these values will eventually help organizations to achieve their business objectives or goals.

2.2 Associating Human Capital and Spiritual Capital on Audit Firm's Performance

Human capital is one of the most important assets of a firm. As for audit firm, auditors play a key role in exercising the right judgment on the reliability of a financial statement. Managers must ensure that they have appropriate and adequate personnel equipped with the required competencies and professional characteristics, so that they perform in accordance with the standards, legal requirements and expectations of the public (Cheng *et al.*, 2008). In addition to the later claims, human capital is among the core resource in public accounting compared to capital resources, organizational resources and financial capital resources, which leads to sustainable competitive advantage and long term performance of accounting firms. Consistent to the added values of human capital, spiritual capital is equally important as a positive value on audit firm's performance. Indeed, values such as honesty, integrity, determined, trust, and high commitment do help to create organizational wealth (Zohar and Marshall, 2004; Desa *et al.*, 2011). These values are vital particularly for auditor in complying with the guidelines on professional ethics where auditors are required to maintain high integrity, objectivity, maintain good professional behaviour and independence.

While, according to Devinney *et al.* (2005), performance is a commonly area studied in organizational research which is rarely being explicitly considered or justified. He also emphasized that firm's performance outcomes are within specific areas such as financial profits (return on assets), market performance (sales, market share) and shareholder return (total shareholder return, economic value added). Generally, performance measurement can be defined as a basic management technique and had widely developed in large firms as to measure performance. Rompho and Siengthai (2012) highlighted that performance measurement has been found to have positive linkage with human capital indicators. In addition, it enhances the effectiveness of a firm's performance through individual and organizational learning.

A number of academic studies have examined and presented evidence of performance measurement practices in various countries related to the audit environment. Cheng *et al.* (2008) studied the association between auditor quality and human capital. However, there is lack evidence relating to human capital or spiritual capital on audit firm performance. One plausible reason for the existence of this gap is the lack of public data available on audit firm activities. In some cases, previous research indicate different methods in measure performance such as impact of training, education, skills and competencies on financial performance, profitability and non-financial performances (Bontis *et al.*, 2000; Tayles *et al.*, 2007). Performance measurement is commonly associated with intellectual capital components (including human capital, structural capital, relational capital and spiritual capital) whereby these components do influence on firm's performance.

3. The Research Framework

Based on the discussed literature on human capital, spiritual capital and firm's performance in the previous section, the research questions set in this study are:

1. Does human capital pose a significant positive relationship on audit firm's performance?
2. Does spiritual capital pose a significant positive relationship on audit firm's performance?

Figure 1 illustrates the research framework of this study. This framework assumes that there is a direct positive and significant relationship between human capital and spiritual capital on audit firm's performance. This research applies the assumption that human capital and spiritual capital, independently has significant positive relationship with audit firm's performance.

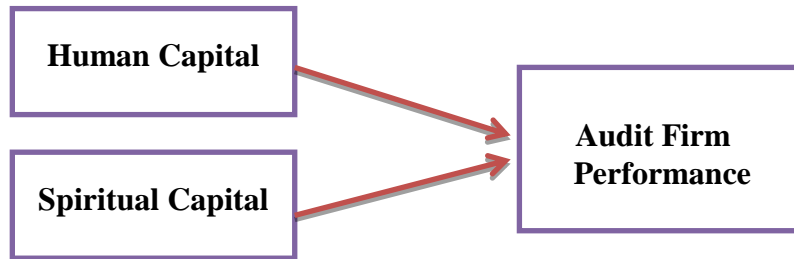


Figure 1- Research Framework

4. Methodology

In this study, two components of intellectual capital namely, human capital and spiritual capital are considered as independent variables while audit firm's performance is the dependent variable. A quantitative method of inquiry was adopted in order to achieve the stipulated objectives. The instrument used in this study is questionnaire which consists of 34 items and it was divided into four sections. Section A taps questions relating human capital. Section B was related to spiritual capital. Whilst, section C comprising the elements of firm's performance. Finally, for the section D captures information of the respondents and the firm.

This study focused on audit firms located in Johor Bahru, Johor. Statistics obtained from Malaysian Institute of Accountant (MIA) has listed over 681 audit firms as their members throughout Malaysia included Sabah and Sarawak. However, this study only selected audit firm in Johor which has been listed in MIA with 127 audit firms around this state. Due to time constraint, audit firms located in Johor Bahru were chosen to participate in this study. Primary data were gathered via survey questionnaire. Auditors attached to the firms were the respondents of this study. They were required to rate their perceptions on the given statements on a Likert-scale between 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Finally, 52 questionnaires have been collected in 2 weeks, giving the response rate of 69%.

5. Results

Data gathered were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Analyses performed include descriptive analysis and Pearson correlation analysis. Cronbach's Alpha was also done to confirm the reliability of the variables in the questionnaire.

5.1 Cronbach's Alpha Test of Reliability

Reliability test among variable should be conducted in order to test the dependent of variables use in a data. Based on reliability test performed, all variable ranked above 0.7 the threshold (Pallant, 2007). The cronbach's alpha for human capital (8 items) is 0.857, spiritual capital is 0.894 (10 items) and audit firm performance (10 items) is 0.886. Value of 0.8 above shown they have very good internal consistency reliability for the scale with this sample.

As mentioned by Pallant (2007), values above 0.7 are considered acceptable; however, values above 0.8 are preferable.

5.2 Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 shows descriptive results on human capital statements. The highest mean achieved are 4.00 on the statement of ‘Possessing ideal knowledge and skills’ and ‘Experts in job functions’. This is followed by ‘Staff are able to develop new ideas, knowledge and innovations to the firm’ with the mean score of 3.98. Overall, the mean of all the items are above 3.0 which indicate that the respondents are inclined into agreeing with the given statements.

Table 1- Findings on Human Capital

Item	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work contribution among staff	52	3.85	0.751
Recruitment plan among employees	52	3.62	0.953
Knowledge sharing	52	3.96	0.839
Encourage staff’s education and training	52	3.71	0.957
Competent in possess ideal knowledge and skills	52	4.00	0.626
Experts in job functions	52	4.00	0.626
Able to develop new ideas	52	3.98	0.727
Possess knowledge on key business risk	52	3.92	0.737

While, Table 2 shows the results pertaining to spiritual capital. Two items which are ‘sincerity and truthfulness’ and ‘promoting good ethics’ gained the highest mean (4.25), indicating auditor’s high agreement on both statements. The lowest mean calculated was 3.77 on the item ‘support community services and activities to a caring culture and society’. The rest of items have mean of 4.00 and above, showing that respondents agree on the statements.

Table 2 - Findings on Spiritual Capital

Item	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sincere, honest and truthful on duties	52	4.25	0.590
Always motivated and committed in perform	52	4.23	0.509
Share common belief to achieve firm's goals	52	4.04	0.713
Competent, independent, and maintain high integrity	52	4.17	0.617
Ensure firm's asset are safeguarded from mismanagement	52	4.12	0.646
Seeks ways promote good ethics and values within firm	52	4.25	0.556
Support community services and activities to a caring culture and society	52	3.77	0.703
Trust, mutual respect, understanding part of firm culture	52	4.00	0.714
Being highly ethical is core value of firm people	52	4.08	0.788
Religious values affect individual performance	52	4.00	0.714

5.3 Pearson Correlation

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to assess the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Findings showed in Table 3 revealed that both the human capital and spiritual capital have significant positive relationship with audit firm’s performance. The correlation between human capital, spiritual capital and audit firm performance were significant at the $p = 0.01$ level (2-tailed). Importantly, it has shown that there exists a positive relationship between the tested variables. Specifically, human capital ($r=0.605^{**}$) shows the strongest

positive relationship with audit firm's performance, followed by spiritual capital ($r=0.597^{**}$). Additionally, between both human capital and spiritual capital, there is a significant positive relationship ($r= 0.688^{**}$). Generally, the results suggest that the level of human capital and spiritual capital are relatively high in audit firms which then bring a positive impact of audit firm's performance.

Table 3 – The Relationship between Variables

Variables	HC	SPC	AFC
HC	1	0.688*	0.605**
SPC		1	0.597**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Note: AFP=Audit Firm Performance; HC=Human Capital; SPC=Spiritual Capital

6. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to examine whether there exist a relationship between human capital and spiritual capital on audit firm's performance. Statistical analysis (Pearson correlation) performed revealed that both human capital ($r = 0.605$, $p < 0.01$) and spiritual capital ($r = 0.597$ $p < 0.01$) do have a significant positive relationship with audit firm's performance. Consistent with notions by Bontis *et al.* (2000) and Gazor *et al.* (2013), this signifies that values in human capital such as intelligence, skills, knowledge, aptitudes and expertise are vital traits that contribute to an improved performance. This holds equally the same with spiritual capital where its values such as sincerity, honesty, trust, promote good ethics, motivated and committed in performing duties are essential in developing greater organizational performance. The outcome pertaining to spiritual capital is consistent with arguments highlighted by Zohar and Marshall (2004) and Desa *et al.* (2011). As for the result, it indicate that level of human capital practice in audit firm in Johor Bahru are capable to generate profitability, foster value and growth, and improve overall organization performance.

Another point worth noting is, based on the descriptive findings, the mean score of 3.66 for 'recruitment plan among employees' is the lowest mean score among all statements given. This indicates that, audit firm is not performing recruiting process otherwise less give impact on this practice. According to Noe *et al.* (2014) identify and attracting potential employees is the primary purpose to get the best, suitable and competitive employees to the firm. Thus, it is very important for the management to establish a recruitment plan in their firm in order to bring in and retain competent employees to achieve firm's goal. Additionally, the statement on 'management encourages and supports on staff's education and training' showed a mean score of 3.71 which is also relatively low. This is inconsistent with the point raised by Brocheler *et al.* (2004), stating that education among auditor will increase the performance of audit firms hence increase the audit firm survival. Thus, with insufficient support from the management it is difficult to audit firm to increase their performance. The practice should be in line with of the study specified human capital is bring positive influence on performance and it is a core resource within public accounting (Bush *et al.*, 2008) and the resource that provides sustainable long-term performance (Barney, 1991).

Interestingly, the findings disclosed have led to a discussion on the need for audit firms to manage human capital and spiritual capital in order to help them achieve higher performance. Since that is the case, therefore it is vital that the audit firm's management or partners take into consideration of establishing a proper recruitment plan and package, scheduled training, encourage innovativeness, knowledge sharing, foster a highly ethical culture and high motivation. This in particular, is pointing out the ultimate need for audit firms to establish a systematic human resource development (HRD) framework which facilitates, among others, employees training, career development, identifying key human capital values and work goals. Likewise, Kim (2012) emphasized that, business and organizations place greater concern on issues including performance, productivity, learning capacity, effective work dynamics and strategic management within the context of HRD. Indeed, with a proper management and utilization of human or spiritual values, it could influence organizational development and performance, economy and sociocultural environments (Zohar and Marshall, 2004).

Since this study was confined to several limitations such as time constraint and availability of respondents, several recommendations are put forward for future research. It includes the need to widen the survey to a larger geographical area in Malaysia, extend the data collection method to include interviews and gather views from audit firm's clients in order to achieve a holistic view of related issues. In conclusion, audit firms and or any other organizations should place a serious attention on identifying, managing and acknowledge these intangible values

which do reside in employees and organization itself. These values when managed strategically could empower firm's performance and business sustainability.

6. References

- Barney, J.B. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120.
- Bontis, N., Chua, W. C. K. & Richardson, S. (2000). Intellectual capital and business performance in Malaysian industries. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 1(1), 85-100.
- Brocheler, V., Maijor, S. & Witteloostuijn, A.V. (2004). Auditor human capital and audit firm survival: The Dutch audit industry in 1930-1992. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 29, 627-646.
- Cheng, Y.S., Liu, Y.P. & Chien, C.Y. (2008). The association between Auditor quality and human capital. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 24(6), 523-539.
- Desa, M., Nasina, & Koh P.P. (2011). The workplace spirituality and affective commitment among auditors in Big Four public accounting firms: Does it matter? *Journal of Global Management*, 2(2), 1-13.
- Devinney, T.M., Richard, P.J., Yip, G.S., & Johnson. G. (2008). Measuring organizational performance in management research: A synthesis of measurement challenges and approaches. Research Paper. Available at www.aimresearch.org
- Finke, R. (2003). Spiritual Capital: Definitions, applications and new frontiers. The Spiritual Capital Planning Meeting, 10-11 October.
- 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), 60-70.
- Hurwitz, J. L., Montgomery, S. & Schmidt, B. J. (2002). The linkage between management practices, intangibles performance and stock returns. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 3(1), 51-61.
- Kim, N. (2012). Societal development through human resource development: Contexts and key change agents. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14(3), 239 -250.
- Muhammad, N.M.N & Ismail, M.K.A (2009). Intellectual capital efficiency and firm's performance study on Malaysia financial sectors. *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 1(2), 206-212.
- Noe, R., Gerhart, B., Wright, P., & Hollenbeck, J. (2011). *Fundamental of human resource management*. (4th ed). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows*. (3rd ed.). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.
- Rhyne, L.C., Teagarden, M.B., & Van den Panhuyzen, W. (2002). Technology-based competitive strategies - The relationship of culture dimension to new product innovation. *Journal of High Technology Management Resource*, 13 (2), 249-277.
- Rompho, B. & Sienthai, S. (2012). Integrated performance measurement system for firm's human capital building. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 13(4), 482-514.
- Tayles, M., Pike, R. & Sofian, S. (2007). Intellectual capital, management accounting practices and corporate performance: Perceptions of managers. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 20 (4), 522-548.
- Zohar, D. and I. Marshall, 2004. *Spiritual capital: Wealth we can live*. San Francisco: Berret-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Employees Welfare And Social Benefits Of Multinational Oil Companies In Nigeria

Umar Usman¹ and Sany Sanuri Mohd Mokhtar²

¹ Department of Management and Information Technology,
Faculty of Management Technology,
Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi -Nigeria

²School of Business Management
College of Business
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Abstract The problem such as discriminatory hiring policies, poor working conditions, lack of compensation for injuries and inadequate employees welfare due to slow legislative process and corruption. Does the global financial crisis affect employee's welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria? The main purpose of the study is to find out the effect of global financial crisis on employees welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria. A sample of 322 employees out of the population of 400 employees and multiples linear regressions was used to assess the relationships among the variables under investigation. The findings show a positive relationship between Employee welfare and social benefit and multinational oil companies at one percent (1%).It was also concluded that employee welfare and social benefit has significant relationship between employee welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria. In theory, welfare motivates workers so also in this case employee welfare and social benefit motivate the employees.

Keywords: Employee welfare and social benefit, slow legislative process, corruption)

1. Introduction

Multinational (MNCs) oil companies have adopted human resource management (HRM) practices in their corporation which have long attracted interest. The initial ideas of the companies are to pursue a global agenda of cost minimization and operating in local contexts (ALMOND et al., 2005). However, research have shown that the continuing influence of the institutional contexts of MNCs countries of origin and of the environments of the countries in which they operate (ALMOND et al., 2005). Although, recent research has returned to the idea of identifying the global influences, arguing that a national level framework gives adequate attention to these forces and that firms adopt common practices as they pursue what they perceive to be a global standard (Pudelko & Harzing, 2007).

In the previous research studies have shown that the three framework which attempt to understand the main role of national and global institutional contexts in shaping the practices of firms: Firstly, the neo-institutionalize analysis of regimes (ALMOND et al., 2005), secondly the varieties of capitalism (VoC) literature (Hall & Soskice, 2001)), and finally, "system, societal and dominance" (SSD) approach (Smith & Meiksins, 1995). Building on critiques of the first two, we develop the third. MNCs are heterogeneous, and they draw in complex ways on the "distinctive and

variegated institutional configurations, including systems of employment relations and employee social welfare benefits in which they are embedded" (Quintanilla & Ferner, 2003).

The problem of the research will further explore the labour regulations in Nigeria multinational companies exploit the labor force in Nigeria. More critically, the current global economic hardship may prompt some multinational companies to exploit loopholes in the labour policies of the host country for their own economic advantage. Case of such malpractices in Nigeria usually include discriminatory hiring policies, poor working conditions, lack of compensation for injuries and lack of protection such malpractices occur due to slow legislative process and corruption by the authorities.

Does the global financial crisis affect employee's welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria?

To find out the effect of the global financial crisis on employees welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria

H01; Global financial crisis has no significant effect on the employees welfare and social benefit of multinational oil companies in Nigeria

The study would help multinational oil companies top management to review their corporate social responsibility policies in line with the existing realities, multinational companies should evaluate their contributions to socio-economic development vis-à-vis other developing nations in the world.

2. Literature Review

The debate on HRM practices has been very extensive, comprehensive and contentious (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Kaufman, 2010). Much of the contention issues turns on the effects of employees and social benefits. But we are interested here in the practices as independent variables and while thus this specific area of contention is less central. Even though HRM practices are the real properties of the firms, not national systems, it is therefore, important to place "the firm at the Centre of analysis" (Hancké, Rhodes, & Thatcher, 2007). Normally the practices of HRM are not random list. According to Wright (2002) there is an emerging consensus "around conceptual categories of employee welfare and social benefits skills, motivation and empowerment." As Boselie and Paauwe, (2005) posit that, the most common way to capture this consensus is the Abilities, Motivation, and Opportunity (AMO) framework. We can take this framework as establishing a benchmark of best or leading practices and thus establish how far MNCs share a set of such HRM practices. The abilities embrace the skills and competencies that employees possess. Motivation addresses the factors that give employees incentives to deploy their abilities. Opportunity covers means through which the resulting to employees' commitment can be put into practice.

There are some unresolved issues about which concrete HRM practices to include under each heading. Some scholars are of the view that HRM practices such as appraisal and Abilities (Boxall & Purcell, 2003). Yet appraisal is at least as much about systems of *control* as it is about abilities. The AMO framework indeed rather underplays the fact that HRM practices are not just about releasing workers' abilities and motivating them. Any HRM system needs discipline and control, as generations of labor process scholars have pointed out (Edwards, 1996): Managers need to regulate employees so that they work in accordance and consistent with the organizational goals. The specific control elements of high-performance systems, such as the market demands that they can put on employees, are also well established and well structured (Aaltonen et al., 2008).

We have seen relatively few measures that may be classified as Abilities and thus say little about this dimension. However, we consider Motivation, Opportunities, and Control dimensions of HR practices. We follow the established practice in this study using the AMO framework of treating each dimension as independent and the multinational oil company as dependent variable, rather than aggregating them as a single variable measure.

Today some previous studies look at a wide-ranging group of employment practices in multinational companies, including the new trends in numbers of employed and use of nonstandard labor (Brewster, Wood, & Brookes, 2008). This lacks precision if the goal is to identify a specific global model of HRM practices that are chosen by MNCs, as opposed to measuring all the dimensions on which they may differ from domestic firms. Lawler, Chen, Wu, Bae, and Bai (2011) use extensive and comprehensive sets of indicators in relation to four main areas which include: training and development; staffing (for example, approaches to selection); compensation; and workplace empowerment. Björkman, Fey, and Park, (2007) similarly, though with the addition of communication as another practices Hocking, Brown, Pudenko and Harzing (2007) list seven areas, though two of these arguably do not measure HR practices

specifically; the other five HRM practices embrace recruitment, training, assessment, incentives, and communication. Walsworth and Verma, (2007) have posit that a similar list of high-performance practices. We cover area such as employee’s compensation, empowerment, training and development, communication, and assessment.

3. Methodology

Survey data was collected from the employees of multinational oil companies. As a matter of fact, a total of 400 questionnaires were distributed randomly among the employees. Where 322 questionnaires were returned and also useful for analysis resulting in to 80.5 percent response rate. The age of the respondents range from 15 years to 55 years and in addition 60.9% of the respondents are male and while 39.1 are female employees of the company. It is worth to mention that 19.1 percent holds SSCE/NECO certificate, 27.6 percent holds OND/NCE certificate 43.1 percent holds a bachelor degree certificate, 8.1 percent holds master degree and while 1.2 percent only holds a PhD degree.

3.1 Measures

A questionnaire survey instrument was used to obtain measures of employee’s perception .The reliability and validity for employee was best established using the population sample of the study. If a survey questionnaire is to be used as a measurement tool for a conceptual model, its validity and reliability must be established before sampling. To check the reliability of the questionnaire, the researchers used the statistical package for social science (SPSS).The first statistical analysis to be performed was Cronbach's Alpha to measure the internal reliability analyses to examine the various scale. From the above table all the items have attained the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient set as criteria set by (Peterson, 1994) Goldsmith, Flynn, & Kim, 2010), a minimum of 0.70 and the researchers found that all of the variables were valid and Cronbach's Alphas ranged from 0.848 to 0.856, thus establishing the reliability of the survey questionnaire. Scale of uni-dimensionality was also tested according to the guideline by Albright & Park, (2009) in which the first component should explain at least 40% of the variance in the items.

4. Results

Evidence have showed that in table two above there was a significant positive relationship between employees welfare and social benefits and multinational oil companies in Nigeria (P=.000).this implies that there is a very strong correction relationship between the multinational oil companies and employee welfare or even with an excellent benefits and a reasonable welfare which influence their productivity in the organization. Thus H1 were supported.

Evidence from table three (3) above has shown that there is statistically significant contribution of multinational oil companies to employee welfare. The ANOVA table indicate that the model as a whole is significant P<0.005. Thus, multinational oil companies contribute significantly to employee welfare and social benefits

Table 1-Correlation analysis

Correlations			
		MNC	EWS
Pearson Correlation	MNC	1.000	.527
	EWS	.527	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	MNC	.	.000
	EWS	.000	.
N	MNC	322	322
	EWS	322	322

Source: Researcher, based on data analysis

Table 2- Regression analysis

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	27.751	1	27.751	123.049	.000 ^b
	Residual	72.169	320	.226		
	Total	99.919	321			
a. Predictors: (Constant), EWS						
b. Predictors: (Constant), EWS						

Source: Researcher, based on data analysis

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The main of the study is to fill the gap in the literature by introducing the empirical investigation between employee's welfare and social benefits and multinational oil companies. Using the Pearson correlation and multiple linear regressions to established a relationship between the variables under study.

While the study is in line with the researcher expectation, it was found that there is a positive relationship between employee's welfare and social benefits and multinational oil companies as indicated in both correlation and linear regression tests.

In conclusion, therefore the multinational oil companies tend to gain an outstanding knowledge and accurate understanding of the employee needs in terms of their welfare. However, when the companies had offered employees was accepted with real gratitude. If employee's expectations and the organization service delivery were matched, this would lead to an even close relationship between them.

Research limitations and recommendations for further research

The current study offers an insight into the unique contribution and relationship between constructs and also provides a clear understanding of the significance of employee welfare and social benefit. However, the findings must temper by several limitations, the researcher used quantitative methods alone and also rely fully on cross-sectional data as the source of information. Therefore, future research can focus on qualitative research such as focus group sessions, structured interviews and other supplemental source of data in the future will be provided. Future studies can also adopt longitudinal that might offset the demerit of cross-sectional research.

6. Reference

- Aaltonen, T., Adelman, J., Akimoto, T., Albrow, M. G., González, B. Á., Amerio, S., ... Zucchelli, S. (2008). Search for standard model Higgs Bosons produced in association with W Bosons. *Physical Review Letters*, 100. doi:10.1103/PhysRevLett.100.041801
- Albright, J. J., & Park, H. M. (2009). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis using Amos , LISREL , Mplus , SAS / STAT CALIS **. *The Trustees of Indiana University* (Vol. 4724, p. 86). Retrieved from <http://www.indiana.edu/~statmath/stat/all/cfa/index.html>
- Almond, P., Edwards, T., Colling, T., Ferner, A., Gunnigle, P., Müller-Camen, M., ... Wächter, H. (2005). Unraveling Home and Host Country Effects: An Investigation of the HR Policies of an American Multinational in Four European Countries. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 44(2), 276–306. doi:10.1111/j.0019-8676.2005.00384.x
- Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (2006). Strategic Human Resources Management: Where Do We Go From Here? *Journal of Management*, 32, 898–925. doi:10.1177/0149206306293668
- Björkman, I., Fey, C. F., & Park, H. J. (2007). Institutional theory and MNC subsidiary HRM practices: evidence from a three-country study. *Journal of International Business Studies*. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400267
- Boselie, P., & Paauwe, J. (2005). Human resource function competencies in European companies. *Personnel Review*. doi:10.1108/00483480510612512
- Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2003). Strategy and Human Resource Management. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 57, 145–146. doi:10.2307/3590989

- Brewster, C., Wood, G., & Brookes, M. (2008). Similarity, Isomorphism or Duality? Recent Survey Evidence on the Human Resource Management Policies of Multinational Corporations. *British Journal of Management*, 19, 320–342. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2007.00546.x
- Edwards, J. R. (1996). An examination of competing versions of the person-environment fit approach to stress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 292–339. doi:10.2307/256782
- Goldsmith, R. E., Flynn, L. R., & Kim, D. (2010). Status Consumption and Price Sensitivity. *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 18(4), 323–338. doi:10.2753/MTP1069-6679180402
- Hall, P. P. A., & Soskice, D. (2001). An Introduction to Varieties of Capitalism. In *Varieties of Capitalism: The Institutional Foundations of Comparative Advantage* (pp. 1–56). doi:10.1093/0199247757.001.0001
- Hancké, B., Rhodes, M., & Thatcher, M. (2007). Introduction: Beyond Varieties of Capitalism. In *Beyond Varieties of Capitalism: Conflict, Contradictions, and Complementarities in the European Economy* (pp. 1–32). doi:10.1093/acprof
- Hocking, J. B., Brown, M., & Harzing, A. W. (2007). Balancing global and local strategic contexts: Expatriate knowledge transfer, applications, and learning within a transnational organization. *Human Resource Management*, 46, 513–533. doi:10.1002/hrm.20180
- Kaufman, B. E. (2010). Shrm theory in the post-huselid era: Why it is fundamentally misspecified. *Industrial Relations*, 49, 286–313. doi:10.1111/j.1468-232X.2009.00600.x
- Lawler, J. J., Chen, S., Wu, P.-C., Bae, J., & Bai, B. (2011). High-performance work systems in foreign subsidiaries of American multinationals: An institutional model. *Journal of International Business Studies*. doi:10.1057/jibs.2010.42
- Peterson, R. a. (1994). Meta-analysis of Cronbach' s Coefficient Alpha. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21, 381–391. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr476
- Pudelko, M., & Harzing, A. W. (2007). Country-of-origin, localization, or dominance effect? An empirical investigation of HRM practices in foreign subsidiaries. *Human Resource Management*, 46, 535–559. doi:10.1002/hrm.20181
- Quintanilla, J., & Ferner, A. (2003). Multinationals and human resource management : between global convergence and national identity. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14, 363–368. doi:10.1080/0958519022000031799
- Smith, C., & Meiksins, P. (1995). System, Society and Dominance Effects in Cross-National Organisational Analysis. *Work, Employment & Society*. doi:10.1177/095001709592002
- Walsworth, S., & Verma, A. (2007). Globalization, human resource practices and innovation: Recent evidence from the Canadian workplace and employee survey. In *Industrial Relations* (Vol. 46, pp. 222–240). doi:10.1111/j.1468-232X.2007.00466.x
- Wright, P. M. (2002). Desegregating HRM: A Review and Synthesis of Micro and Macro Human Resource Management Research. *Journal of Management*, 28, 247–276. doi:10.1177/014920630202800302

Psychosocial Work Environment and Psychological Strain Among Banking Employees

Nurul Farhana Mohd Noordin⁺ and Siti Aisyah Panatik

Department of Human Resource Development

Faculty of Management

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract Psychological strain received considerable research attention in the organizational stress research. The prevalence of psychological strain at the workplace is explained by various theoretical models of psychosocial work environment such as job demand-control model, job demand-resources model, and effort-reward imbalance model. This study aims to investigate the effect of psychosocial work environment on psychological strain among employees in banking sector. In banking sector, the employees' psychological strain is caused by unfeasible sales target, lower salaries, high workload and job insecurity. Thus, this study defines psychosocial work environment as the combination of social and psychological aspect at work. The researcher integrates the effort-reward imbalance model and the organizational justice model as the predictor of psychological strain. The target population for the present study is specifically the bank tellers in a development financial institution (DFI) and a commercial bank. The data was collected quantitatively by distributing questionnaires. This study is a preliminary study. Thus, only 150 respondents were involved in this study. The finding indicates that only reward and overcommitment significantly affect psychological strain. This finding shows the empirical evidence that the effect of psychosocial work environment on employees' health where psychosocial work environment affects psychological strain.

Keywords: effort-reward imbalance, organizational justice, psychological strain

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Overview

The banking sector around the world has grown beyond its major role as a supporter to the development of a country. This is unexceptional in Malaysia where the banks have to attract foreign investments, generate valued-added businesses and provide employment opportunities (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2013). Because of this development, bank employees are subjected to a high degree of work stress. High work stress is dysfunctional, and it has been one of the major reasons for job dissatisfaction, and poor work performances (Spector, 2007; Siti Aisyah Panatik, 2010). Therefore, this research aims to study the factors contributed to psychological strain in terms of their psychosocial work environment. Psychological strain is the reaction of work stress that is related to emotional distress (Idris, 2011).

The prevalence of psychological strain at the workplace is explained by various theoretical models of psychosocial work environment such as job demand-control model, job demand-resources model, and effort-reward imbalance model. In this research, the researcher investigates psychological strain by integrating the effort-reward imbalance model and organizational justice model to identify the psychosocial work environment. Effort-reward

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + (60172112524)
E-mail address: (farhananoordin@gmail.com).

imbalance is defined as a failed reciprocity between high efforts spent at work and low occupational rewards received which cause a state of emotional distress (Siegrist et al., 2004). Meanwhile, organizational justice refers to the extent to which employees perceive the organization as being fair to them (Kenny & McIntyre, 2005).

The integration of the effort-reward imbalance model and the organizational justice model as predictor variables in this study captures a wider range of social context in the working environment. The ERI model covers the work contract that exists between the employers and their employees (Siegrist, 2009). The inequity of effort contributed by the employees and reward given by the employers violates the psychological contract between both parties. In addition to the ERI model, the organizational justice model is related to organizational procedure in dealing with the employees. The organizational procedure refers to the perceived quality of managerial process and interpersonal relationship in the organization (Loi et al., 2011).

In summary, this research intends to investigate the effect of psychosocial work environment on psychological strain among banking employees. The psychosocial work environment components have been extracted from the effort-reward imbalance model and organizational justice model. The three components from the effort-reward imbalance model are effort, reward and overcommitment, while the two components of organizational justice model are procedural justice and interactional justice.

1.2 Research Objective

The objective to be achieved in this research is to identify the effect of psychosocial work environment (i.e. effort, reward, overcommitment, procedural justice and interactional justice) on psychological strain among banking employees.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Effort-reward Imbalance (ERI) Model

Effort reward imbalance is one of the models that explain psychosocial work environment leads to adverse employee's health outcomes. The original version of the ERI model was introduced by Siegrist *et al.* (1996). In 1999, Siegrist had modified the model. Basically, the ERI model refers to the reciprocity concept of social exchange theory. This model postulates that effort spent by the employees at work should be exchanged with adequate rewards. A failed reciprocity between high effort spent and low reward received will then lead to negative effect on employee's health and well-being. Besides effort and reward at work, the ERI model highlights overcommitment as another component that affect employee's health and well-being.

Effort refers to demanding aspects of the work environment i.e. workload and other job demands. The employee expects adequate reward for their efforts. The rewards or also known as organizational gratifications are distributed in terms of three systems; i.e. money, esteem and job security/opportunity. Meanwhile, overcommitment has been defined as "a set of attitudes, behaviours and emotion that reflect excessive striving in combination with a strong desire to be approved of and esteemed" (Siegrist, 2001, p. 55). Overcommitted employees exaggerate their effort beyond what is needed in order to gain rewards.

Previous research has showed that effort, reward and overcommitment have direct effect towards psychological strain. High effort is found to have negative effect on mental distress where effort increased the score of psychological strain measured by general health questionnaire in a research conducted by Calnan et al., (2000). In addition, various rewards in terms of material, esteem and security lead poor psychological outcomes (Griffin et al., 2007; Van Vegchel et al., 2005). Previous research also shows that overcommitment affects psychological well-being negatively where higher level of overcommitment lead to depression, psychosomatic complaints and anxiety (Preckel *et al.*, 2007).

2.2 Organizational Justice

Another psychosocial determinant of employee health is organizational justice. Organizational justice refers to the extent to which employee perceive the organization is being fair to them. According to justice theory, an unfair treatment towards members leads to counter-productive behaviours in a group, including in an organization (Kenny & McIntyre, 2005). With the same ground, organizational justice theory suggests that the employees' perception of

the fairness in the organization will lead to undesired work outcomes. There are three types of justice namely distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

The study of organizational justice is concerned with people's perceptions of fairness violations at work (Spector, 2007). This perception of unfairness creates stressful working environment and have previously found to be related to health risk factor. Previous studies report lower levels of justice to be associated with lower well-being, higher medically certified absence and increased psychological strain problems (Francis & Barling, 2005; Inoue *et al*, 2008; Tepper, 2001).

2.3 Psychological Strain

Psychological strain refers to either momentary or longer period of distressful affective states and emotion (Ganster, 2008). The example of the most prevalent psychological strain is headache and sleep difficulty. Psychological strain is an important construct to investigate employee's mental health (Sharma & Sharma, 2010). Psychological strain is one of the indicators of mental health and the accumulation of psychological strain will lead to severe mental health problems (Ganster, 2008). Anxiety, depression, sleep disturbances, absence due to psychological illness and other related psychiatric symptoms show the prevalence of mental health problems in the organization (Sharma & Sharma, 2010).

3. Methodology

This study utilized quantitative data collection method. Questionnaires were distributed to the employees who work as teller from two banks in Malaysia. One of the banks is local-based financial institution which is also known as the development financial institution (DFI), while the other one is a foreign-based bank. Since this is a preliminary study, the total number of respondents is smaller than the actual study. A total of 150 bank tellers involved in this research. A bank teller is the employee who confronts the customers in a bank branch. The instrument used to measure ERI and organizational justices were the Effort-reward Imbalance Questionnaire (Siegrist, 2004) and Organizational Justice Scale (Neihoff & Moorman, 1993) respectively. Meanwhile, psychological strain was measured by General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) that was developed by Goldberg and Huxley (1988). In this study, the reliability of ERI is 0.82, organizational justice is 0.94 and psychological strain is 0.77. Correlation and multiple regressions were performed using PASW 18 to analyze the data.

4. Results

In terms of the demographic profile of the respondents, the ages ranged from 22-52 years (mean = 33.2, SD = 6.4). 62.7% of the respondents were male. Most of the respondents were Muslim (97.3%), followed by Christian (4%), Hindu (3.3%), and Buddha (2%). Their marital status showed that 73.3% of them were married, 25.3% of them were single and 1.3% of them were divorced. In terms of education, 38.7% of them obtained SPM or STPM, 32.7% diploma, 26% bachelor degree, 0.7% master degree, 0.7% doctoral degree and 1.3% of them selected others. Most of the respondents recorded job tenure more than five years (56%), followed by three to five years tenure (18%), one to three years tenure (15.3%), and less than 1 year tenure (10.7%). In terms of salary, most of them received salary that ranged from RM4001 to RM5000 (46%), followed by RM3001 to RM4000 (31.3%), RM 1001 to RM2000 (16%), and more than RM5000 (6.7%).

Table 1 - Inter-correlation between the study variables (N=150)

Variables	Mean	SD	Effort	Reward	Overcommitment	Procedural Justice	Interactional Justice	Psychological Strain
Effort	3.30	1.00	-	-0.403**	0.623**	0.068	0.062	0.270**
Reward	3.75	0.55	-0.403**	-	0.347**	0.134	0.081	-0.210
Overcommitment	3.38	0.77	0.623**	0.347**	-	0.032	0.012	0.356**
Procedural Justice	3.67	0.74	0.068	0.134	0.032	-	0.812**	-0.205**
Interactional Justice	3.67	0.87	0.062	0.081	0.012	0.812**	-	-0.201**
Psychological Strain	2.78	0.62	0.270**	-0.210	0.356**	-0.205**	-0.201**	-

**Significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 1 demonstrates the relationships between the scale of the ERI questionnaire and the job outcomes variable. Based on the results in Table 1, respondents reported moderate mean scores of effort, reward, overcommitment, procedural justice and interactional justice. However, mean scores of psychological strain among respondents was considerably low. Besides that, it was found that both effort and overcommitment positively correlated with psychological strain ($r = 0.27, p < .01$ and $r = 0.36, p < .01$ respectively). Meanwhile, both procedural and interactional justice negatively correlated to psychological strain ($r = -0.21, p < .01$ and $r = -0.20, p < .01$ respectively).

Table 2 - Linear regression on psychological strain (N = 150)

Predictors	Psychological Strain	
	β	R^2
Effort	0.151	
Reward	-0.171**	
Overcommitment	0.326**	
Procedural Justice	-0.117	
Interactional Justice	-0.105	
R^2		0.205

**Significant at $p < 0.05$

Table 2 presents the finding of linear regression to assess the effect of ERI and organizational justice on psychological strain. Overall, the model explains that the five predictors contribute 20% to psychological strain. Out of the five predictors, only reward and overcommitment have significantly affected psychological strain. The strongest predictor of psychological strain was overcommitment ($\beta = 0.33, p < .005$), followed by reward ($\beta = -0.177, p < .05$).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of psychosocial work environment on psychological strain through the effort-reward imbalance components and organizational justice components. The finding suggested that ERI exhibits a relationship and an effect on the bank tellers' psychological strain. The growing job context in financial sector contributes to greater job demands among the employees especially those who deal directly with the customers such as the bank tellers. Looking through each component of ERI, overcommitment showed a significant positive effect towards psychological strain. When facing with high job demand, employees with high overcommitment tend to exaggerate their effort (Siegrist, 2001). Overcommitted employees will keep thinking about their jobs even when they are out of office. This will result in poor health whether physically or psychologically (Silva & Barreto, 2010; Preckel *et al.*, 2007; Tsutsumi & Kawakami, 2004).

The significant negative effect of reward on psychological strain indicates that what the employees gain at work is important to keep a psychologically healthy employee. Recognition, adequate salary, promotion opportunity and job security are crucial to survive in this globalization era (Kivimaki et al., 2007). Poor reward received by the employees will affect them mentally and psychologically such as depression, anxiety and psychosomatic illness (Griffin et al., 2007; Van Vegchel et al., 2005). This is true especially after they have to deal with difficult customers (Silva & Barreto, 2010).

Meanwhile, effort did not significantly affect psychological strain. A possible explanation for this finding is the use of three-items measure of effort. Previously, many studies investigated effort using five to six items (e.g. Siegrist et al., 2004, Silva & Barreto, 2010, Silva & Barreto, 2012). As stated before, this is a preliminary study. The three-items of effort are adequate to measure effort in the actual study since the actual study involves greater size of respondents. The three-items of effort measure are more suitable and applicable to a larger group of respondents (Siegrist, 2014).

Both organizational justice components also did not affect psychological strain significantly. The speculation of this finding is perhaps procedural and interactional justices are not considered a problem that may disrupt a bank teller's psychological health. However, previous research has found significant negative effect of procedural justice and interactional justice on psychological strain (Francis & Barling, 2005; Tepper, 2001).

In conclusion, this study provides insight on the ERI and organizational justice components as the psychosocial work environment that affects psychological strain; specifically among bank tellers in Malaysian setting. The limitation of this study is the findings that have been obtained by cross-sectional data collection. Therefore, this study could not investigate the long term effect of these predictors on psychological strain. Besides that, the lesser number of respondents in this preliminary study might lead to different findings than the actual study. The study will be continued with the larger size of respondents in the actual study. Despite these limitations, this study provides information to the banking institution to maintain the level of psychological strain by managing the employees' reward system. A suggestion for future research is to conduct a longitudinal research on the same topic. Moreover, more research should be conducted to investigate employee's psychological strain resulted from different types of psychosocial work environment.

6. References

- Bank Negara Malaysia (2013), Financial Sector Development. [Online] Available at <http://www.bnm.gov.my/index.php> (December 30, 2013)
- Calnan, M., Wainwright, D., & Almond, S. (2000). Job strain effort–reward imbalance and mental distress: A study of occupations in general medical practice. *Work and Stress*, 14, 297–311.
- Ganster, D. C. (2008). Measurement challenges for studying work-related stressors and strains. *Human Resource Management Review*, 18, 12.
- Idris, M. K. (2011). Over time effects of role stress on psychological strain among Malaysian public university academics. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2, 154-161.
- Inoue, A., Kawakami, N., Ishizak, M., Shimazu, A., Tsuchiya, M., Tabata, M., et al. (2008). Organizational justice, psychological distress, and work engagement in Japanese workers. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 83, 29-38.
- Francis, L., & Barling, J. (2005). Organizational injustice and psychological strain. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 37(4), 250-261.
- Goldberg, D., & Williams, P. (1988). GHQ: A user's guide to the General Health Questionnaire. Windsor: NFER/Nelson, Windsor
- Griffin, J. M., Greiner, B. A., Stansfeld, S. A., & Marmot. M. (2007). The effect of self-reported and observed job conditions on depression and anxiety symptoms: A comparison of theoretical models. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(4), 334 –349
- Kenny, D., & McIntyre, D. (2005). Constructions of occupational stress: nuisances, nuances or novelties. In Alexander-Stamatios, G. Antonio & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research Companion to Organizational Health Psychology*. United Kingdom: Cornwall
- Kivimäki, M., Ferrie, J. E., Brunner, E., Head, J., Shipley, M. J., Vahtera, J., et al. (2005). Justice at work and reduced risk of coronary heart disease among employees: The Whitehall II Study. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 165(19), 2245-2251.

- Kivimäki, M., Honkonen, T., Wahlbeck, K., Elovainio, M., Pentti, J., Klaukka, T., et al. (2007). Organisational downsizing and increased use of psychotropic drugs among employees who remain in employment. *Journal of Epidemiol Community Health* 61, 154-158.
- Kivimäki, M., Vahtera, J., Elovainio, M., Virtanen, M., & Siegrist, J. (2007). Effort-reward imbalance, procedural injustice and relational injustice as psychosocial predictors of health: complementary or redundant models? *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 64(10), 659-665.
- Loi, R., Lam, L. W., & Chan, K. W. (2011). Coping with job insecurity: The role of procedural justice, ethical leadership and power distance orientation. *Journal of Business Ethics*.
- Niehoff, B.P. and Moorman, R.H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36: 527-556.
- Preckel, D., Meinel, M., Kudielka, B. M., Haug, H. J., & Fischer, J. E. (2007). Effort-reward-imbalance, overcommitment and self-reported health: Is it the interaction that matters. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 91-107.
- Sharma, S., & Sharma, M. (2010). Globalization, threatened identities, coping and well-being. *Psychological Studies*, 55(4), 313-322.
- Siegrist, J. (1996). Adverse health effects of high-effort/low-reward conditions. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 1(1), 27-41.
- Siegrist, J. (2001). A theory of occupational stress. In J. Dunham (Ed.), *Stress in the Workplace, Past, Present and Future*. London: Whurr Publishers.
- Siegrist, J. (1999). Occupational health and public health in Germany. In P. M. L. Blanc, M. C. W. Peeters, A. Bussing & W. B. Schaufeli (Eds.), *Organizational Psychology and Health Care* (pp. 35-44). Munchen: Rainer Hampp Verlag.
- Siegrist, J. (2009). Unfair exchange and health: Social bases of stress-related diseases. *Social Theory and Health*, 7(4), 305-317.
- Siegrist, J., & Peter, R. (1996). Threat to occupational status control and cardiovascular risk. *Israel Journal of Medical Sciences*, 32, 179-184.
- Siegrist, J., Li, J., & Montano, D. (2014). Psychometric properties of the effort-reward imbalance questionnaire. [Online] Available at http://www.uniklinik-duesseldorf.de/fileadmin/Datenpool/einrichtungen/institut_fuer_medizinische_soziologie_id54/ERI/PsychometricProperties.pdf (June 31, 2014)
- Siegrist, J., Starke, D., Chandola, T., Godin, I., Marmot, M., Niedhammer, I., et al. (2004). The measurement of effort-reward imbalance at work: European comparisons. *Social Science and Medicine*, 58(8), 1483-1499.
- Silva, L. S., & Barreto, S. M. (2010). Adverse psychosocial working conditions and minor psychiatric disorders among bank workers. *BMC Public Health*, 10:686
- Silva, L. S., & Barreto, S. M. (2012). Stressful working conditions and poor self-rated health among financial services employees. *Rev Saúde Pública*, 46(3):407-16
- Siti Aisyah Panatik. (2010). Impact of work design on psychological work reactions and job performance among technical workers: A longitudinal study in Malaysia. The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand
- Spector, P. E. (2007). *Industrial and organizational behaviour*. United States of America: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tepper, B. J. (2001). Health consequences of organizational injustice: Tests of main and interactive effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86, 197-215.
- Tsutsumi, A., & Kawakami, N. (2004). A review of empirical studies on the model of effort-reward imbalance at work: Reducing occupational stress by implementing a new theory. *Social Science and Medicine*, 59, 2335-2359.
- Van Vegchel, N., De Jonge, J., Bosma, H., & Schaufeli, W. (2005). Reviewing the effort-reward imbalance model: Drawing up the balance of 45 empirical studies. *Social Science and Medicine*, 60(5), 1117-1131.

Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Guru Pada Sekolah Dasar Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur

Satriadi, Mohd Koharuddin Bin Mohd Balwi and Muammar Rosyadi Manullang
Fakulti Pengurusan
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract : Kajian ini dilakukan bertujuan mengkaji hubungan etika kerja Islam terhadap prestasi kerja guru di SD Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur. Objektif dari kajian ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti tahap amalan etika kerja Islam dan prestasi kerja dalam kalangan guru, mengkaji pengaruh antara etika kerja Islam dengan prestasi kerja guru, serta mengkaji faktor etika kerja Islam yang paling dominan mempengaruhi prestasi kerja. Kajian ini dilakukan di Sekolah Dasar Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur. Populasi kajian itu terdiri daripada 134 orang responden dan sampel kajian yang bersesuaian adalah 118 responden. Teknik persampelan yang digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah teknik sampel rawak. Analisis data menggunakan korelasi pearson dan regresi berganda. Dapatan kajian ini untuk tahap amalan etika kerja Islam adalah pada tahap yang tinggi, tahap amalan prestasi kerja adalah pada tahap yang tinggi, tahap amalan etika kerja Islam mempunyai hubungan yang positif dengan prestasi kerja dan menunjukkan tahap amalan etika kerja mempengaruhi tahap prestasi kerja guru. Melalui statistik ini juga dapat dilihat sekiranya tahap amalan etika kerja Islam pekerja meningkat, tahap prestasi juga meningkat manakala sekiranya tahap amalan etika kerja Islam menurun maka prestasi kerja guru juga menurun. Kemudian didapati bahawa faktor bekerjasama dan berfikiran padu merupakan pemboleh ubah yang paling dominan mempengaruhi prestasi kerja dan faktor yang kurang dominan atau yang paling rendah dalam mempengaruhi prestasi kerja adalah Ikhlas dan Amanah. Implikasi kajian sepatutnya amalan etika kerja Islam boleh menjadi elemen universal untuk Indonesia dalam meningkatkan prestasi kerja dalam kalangan guru.

Keywords: Etika Kerja Islam, Prestasi Kerja

1. Pendahuluan

Etika kerja merupakan dasar utama bagi kejayaan yang sejati dan keaslian. Etika kerja merupakan sekumpulan nilai yang dipegang dan diamalkan oleh sebuah kelompok atau komuniti dalam menjalankan kegiatan kehidupan sehari-hari. Etika bukan sahaja penting diamalkan dalam kehidupan sehari-hari, ia juga dijalankan semasa kita bekerja. Boleh dikatakan setiap profesion pekerjaan perlu mempunyai etika kerja yang tersendiri. Dalam ajaran Islam, etika kerja merupakan sesuatu perilaku yang mempengaruhi hubungan kerja dalam sebuah organisasi. Di dalamnya termasuk hubungan antara sesama usaha, komitmen, kerjasama, tanggungjawab, serta kreativiti seseorang (Rahman, et al., 2006). Manan dan Kamaluddin (2010) mengatakan bahawa ada empat konsep dalam etika kerja Islam, iaitu: usaha, kejujuran, kerja berkelompok, dan tanggungjawab.

Di Indonesia dalam peraturannya yang diatur dalam Undang-Undang nombor 14 Tahun 2005 mengenai guru dan pensyarah menyebutkan bahawa guru adalah pengajar profesional dengan tugas utamanya adalah mendidik, mengajar, membimbing, mengarahkan, melatih, menilai, dan mengevaluasi murid pada pendidikan anak usia dini,

jalur pendidikan formal, pendidikan dasar, dan pendidikan menengah. Kemudian kewajiban seorang guru adalah merencanakan pembelajaran, melaksanakan pembelajaran, menilai pembelajaran, merantail pembelajaran, meningkatkan mengembangkan kompetensi secara berterusan menyesuaikan dengan perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi dan seni. Jawatan guru mempunyai tanggung jawab yang besar dalam meningkatkan kualiti pendidikan di Indonesia.

Namun, jika dilihat dari sisi etika kerja Islam sungguh sangat mengecewakan kerana beberapa kes terjadi pada guru dalam proses mengajar, khususnya mengenai kekerasan dan gangguan seksual yang dilakukan oleh guru terhadap muridnya. Contohnya: pada 14 Januari 2010 empat orang murid menghina gurunya didalam laman sosial facebook yang mengakibatkan keempat murid tersebut dikeluarkan dari sekolah sebab guru yang dihina tidak mahu memaafkan murid tersebut (Tanjung, 2010). Pada tarikh 25 September 2013 terjadi kes di Sekolah Dasar Negeri 05 Kecamatan Singkep seorang guru telah melakukan penganiayaan terhadap seorang muridnya (Kepri, 2013). Selanjutnya pada terjadi kes mengenai kekerasan guru terhadap murid terjadi di Kota Tanjungpinang. Kali ini, menimpa seorang siswa laki-laki kelas 4B, berinisial BP (9), salah seorang murid Sekolah Dasar Negeri Binaan 004 Tanjungpinang Timur, Jalan D.I Panjaitan Kilometer 7 (Yan, 2013).

Jika dilihat dari segi prestasi kerja, menurut Lawler and Porter (As'ad, 1991) prestasi kerja merupakan suatu hasil yang dicapai oleh pekerja dalam mengerjakan tugasnya secara efisien dan efektif. Kejayaan seorang itu sangat berkait rapat dengan prestasi kerjanya. Prestasi kerja yang baik, dapat membantu organisasi dalam meningkatkan lagi pengeluaran dan produktiviti. Zeitz (Baron & Byrne, 1994) menyatakan bahawa prestasi kerja dipengaruhi oleh faktor organisasi dan faktor peribadi. Kajian ini lebih memfokuskan kepada faktor peribadi. Zeitz menyatakan faktor peribadi ini adalah berkaitan dengan nilai-nilai etika seseorang pekerja dalam melaksanakan tugas.

Berdasarkan hasil perbincangan dengan salah seorang guru di Sekolah Dasar Negeri yang ada di Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur, ada beberapa hal yang menyebabkan rendahnya prestasi kerja guru di Sekolah Dasar Negeri, iaitu pertama program kerja tahunan tidak berjalan sebagaimana mestinya, sesuai dengan kalender akademik yang ada di sekolah. Kedua kerana target kurikulum yang selalu tidak tercapai, baik tiap semester maupun satu tahun ajaran. Ketiga ialah penilaian hasil belajar baru pada tahap memberi "angka" atau simbol pada prestasi murid, belum sampai pada analisis hasil evaluasi belajar, baik untuk kepentingan kegiatan belajar-mengajar yang dilakukan, maupun untuk meningkatkan prestasi murid. Keempat program perbaikan pengajaran dan prestasi murid program pengayaan, dan program bimbingan dan penyuluhan belum diamalkan. Kelima administrasi kelas sebahagian besar guru kelas, tidak diamalkan secara keseluruhan sesuai dengan ketentuan yang ada. Kemudian keenam mengenai masalah disiplin guru dalam mengajar. Seringkali ditemukan guru yang datang terlambat ke sekolah dan sering tidak mengajar di kelas saat jam belajar.

Selain itu kajian mengenai etika kerja Islam serta hubungannya terhadap prestasi kerja masih belum banyak dikaji, terutama dalam kalangan jawatan guru. Hal ini bisa dilihat dari kajian- yang sebelumnya iaitu pertama kajian dari Hannah (2013) dengan tajuk "Hubungan Antara Amalan Etika Kerja Dengan Tahap Prestasi Kerja Dalam Kalangan Kakitangan Sokongan di Fakulti Pengurusan Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor Bahru" dengan sampel 34 orang dan kajian ini menggunakan teori etika kerja barat dengan hasil kajiannya adalah terdapat hubungan antara etika kerja terhadap prestasi kerja. Kedua kajian dari Syakir, et.al (2012) dengan tajuk "Etika Kerja Islam Dan Hubungannya Terhadap Prestasi Kerja: Kajian Kes Di Kalangan Pekerja Di Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Johor Bahru" dengan sampel 169 orang dan menggunakan teori etika kerja Islam dengan hasil kajiannya yang menyokong kajian Hannah iaitu terdapat hubungan yang sederhana antara etika kerja Islam dengan prestasi kerja. Ketiga Baddu (2007) dengan tajuk Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Karyawan (Studi Pada Karyawan Koperasi Baitul Maal Wat Tamwil Masalah Mursalah Lil Ummah Sidogiri Kabupaten Pasuruan) dengan sampel 91 orang dengan menggunakan nilai-nilai Islam pada etika kerja dengan hasil kajiannya adalah terdapat pengaruh yang signifikan antara etika kerja Islam dengan prestasi kerja pada karyawan.

Seluruh kajian tersebut semua hanya dilakukan pada sebuah perusahaan atau kantor-kantor dan belum ada yang melakukan kajian tersebut pada sekolah-sekolah. Oleh itu belum banyaknya pengkaji khususnya di Indonesia yang mengetahui pentingnya etika kerja Islam dalam upaya meningkatkan prestasi kerja dan sejauh mana hubungan etika kerja Islam terhadap prestasi kerja guru dalam kalangan guru khususnya di Sekolah Dasar yang berada di Tanjungpinang. Oleh yang demikian, kajian ini diharapkan dapat menjadi sumbangan kajian kepada ilmu yang lain khususnya ilmu pembangunan sumber manusia dan agama.

2. Kajian Teori

Etika Kerja Islam

Menurut Syukri dan Razali (2001) konsep etika kerja Islam adalah berkaitan dengan sistem atau nilai kepercayaan yang dititipkan daripada Al-Quran dan Al-sunnah ke dalam aspek pekerjaan. Adapun yang dimaksud dengan Etika kerja Islam adalah karakter dan kebiasaan manusia berkenaan dengan kerja, terpancar dari keimanan yang merupakan sikap hidup mendasar terhadapnya (Asifudin, 2006).

Menurut Tasmara (2002), etika kerja Islam adalah suatu upaya yang sungguh-sungguh, dengan mengerahkan seluruh aset, fikiran, dan zikirnya sebagai hamba Allah yang harus menundukan dunia dan menempatkan dirinya sebagai bagian dari masyarakat yang terbaik (*khairul ummah*) atau dengan kata lain dapat juga kita katakan bahawa hanya dengan bekerja manusia itu memanusikan dirinya.

Menurut Hussain & Ahmad (2006), etika kerja Islam merupakan nilai dalam menunaikan kerja sebagai pekerja yang dianggap sebagai sebuah ibadah dengan mematuhi prinsip-prinsip peraturan dalam Islam dan bertujuan untuk mencapai keredhaan Allah. Hal ini juga dapat dikatakan bahwa hanya dengan bekerja manusia itu memanusikan dirinya.

Ada beberapa model dalam etika kerja Islam yang dikategorikan berdasarkan ahli yang menemukan dan yang mengembangkannya, iaitu:

1. Model Aji

Menurut Aji (2003) terdapat tiga dimensi dalam etika kerja Islam yang dibuat dalam bentuk model etika kerja Islam iaitu pertanggungjawaban, keadilan dan kebenaran.

2. Model Hussain dan Ahmad

Terdapat lima dimensi dalam etika kerja Islam yang dibuat dalam sebuah model etika kerja Islam iaitu bekerja sebagai ibadah kepada Allah, bekerja dengan ikhlas dan amanah, bekerja dengan tekun dan cekap, bekerja dengan semangat kerjasama serta berpadu fikiran, dan bekerja untuk matlamat kebahagiaan manusia sejagat (Hussain & Ahmad, 2006).

Prestasi Kerja

Menurut Boyett dan Conn (1993) prestasi adalah salah satu aspek yang penting untuk diuruskan dengan baik oleh sesebuah organisasi. Namun begitu, isu utama yang sering wujud dalam prestasi ialah, mengapa ia perlu diukur. Menurut, Suryabrata (1984) menyatakan bahawa prestasi adalah hasil yang dicapai seseorang setelah ia melakukan suatu pekerjaan.

Prabowo (2005), mengemukakan bahawa prestasi merupakan tingkat keberhasilan yang dicapai seseorang untuk mengetahui sejauh mana seseorang mencapai prestasi yang diukur atau dinilai.

Menurut Santoso (1990) prestasi kerja adalah sebagai hasil yang telah dicapai dari suatu kegiatan baik berupa jasa dan barang dalam waktu tertentu sesuai dengan batasan kemampuan seseorang dan harus didukung oleh kualitas dan kecermatan kerja.

Menurut Bernardin dan Russel (1993) prestasi kerja adalah rekod hasil yang dihasilkan di tempat kerja yang ditetapkan fungsi atau aktiviti dalam tempoh masa yang dinyatakan. Menurut Kamus Dewan (1994), prestasi kerja ialah pencapaian atau hasil yang diperolehi daripada kegiatan, usaha atau urusan yang bertujuan untuk menghasilkan, menyelesaikan atau menyediakan dan sebagainya untuk sesuatu benda. Ada beberapa model dalam prestasi kerja yang dikategorikan berdasarkan ahli yang menemukan dan yang mengembangkannya, iaitu:

1. Model Bulmberg dan Pringle

Blumberg dan Pringle (1982), memperkenalkan Model Perkaitan Tiga Dimensi Prestasi Kerja. Bagi mereka, model prestasi yang berasaskan kebolehan dan motivasi gagal menyediakan ramalan yang kukuh dan tidak kekal dalam mengukur prestasi kerja individu. Mengikut Model Perkaitan Tiga Dimensi Prestasi Kerja, prestasi berfungsi kepada tiga perkara iaitu Peluang x Keupayaan x Kesanggupan.

2. Model Dharma

Menurut Dharma (2003) prestasi kerja dapat dilihat dari tiga dimensi iaitu kuantiti, kualiti, dan ketepatan waktu.

3. Model Soedarmayanti

Menurut Soedarmayanti (2001) ada beberapa dimensi yang dijadikan ukuran untuk prestasi kerja yang dibentuk dalam sebuah model prestasi kerja iaitu kualiti kerja, ketepatan waktu, inisiatif, kecakapan, dan komunikasi.

Etika Kerja Islam dan Prestasi Kerja

Berdasarkan teori-teori dan konsep-konsep etika kerja Islam dan prestasi kerja yang telah dikemukakan, maka pemboleh ubah bebas dalam kajian ini iaitu etika kerja Islam yang telah dikemukakan oleh Hussain & Ahmad (2006). Etika kerja Islam dikaji berdasarkan kepada lima dimensi iaitu mengabdikan diri kepada Allah, ikhlas dan amanah, tekun dan cekap, bekerjasama dan berpadu fikiran, matlamat kebahagiaan bersama. Kemudian pemboleh ubah bersandar dalam kajian ini iaitu prestasi kerja yang telah dikemukakan oleh Soedarmayanti (2001). Prestasi kerja dikaji berdasarkan kepada lima dimensi iaitu kualiti kerja, ketepatan waktu, inisiatif, kecekapan, dan komunikasi.

3. Metodologi Kajian

Teknik sampel yang digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah teknik sampel rawak. Sugiyono (2009:92) menerangkan bahwa: sampel rawak adalah teknik pengambilan sampel yang memberikan peluang yang sama bagi setiap anggota populasi untuk dipilih menjadi anggota sampel. Antara kaedah pemilihan sampel yang digunakan oleh pengkaji adalah Jadual Krejcie & Morgan (1970) adalah untuk menentukan bilangan sampel yang bersesuaian dengan saiz populasi tertentu supaya keputusan yang diperolehi daripada kajian ini dapat mewakili populasi dengan tepat. Merujuk kepada Jadual Krejcie & Morgan, populasi kajian itu terdiri daripada 134 orang responden dan sampel kajian yang bersesuaian adalah 118 responden.

Kemudian data yang diperolehi daripada kajian ini melalui dua sumber iaitu melalui iaitu sumber-sumber primer dan juga sumber sekunder. Data primer iaitu daripada soal selidik yang dibahagikan kepada tiga bahagian sebagai sumber data dalam kajian dan dokumen serta sumber sekunder iaitu sumber yang diperolehi daripada buku, tesis, dan jurnal yang berkaitan dengan kajian untuk memperkukuhkan lagi kajian yang dilakukan.

Instrumen kajian digunakan untuk menentukan jenis data dan analisis data (Ghafar, 1999). Instrumen yang digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah borang soal selidik, dengan maksud untuk mendapatkan maklumat dengan cepat dan tepat. Soal selidik direka bentuk untuk mengumpul data personal, sikap, kepercayaan, persepsi dan maklumat yang berkaitan (Desai, 2008). Instrumen kajian ini ialah satu set borang soal selidik yang terdiri dari pada tiga bahagian, iaitu A, B dan C. Borang soal selidik ini akan diedarkan kepada responden yang terdiri daripada guru-guru Sekolah Dasar Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur.

Bahagian A mengandungi soalan yang merujuk kepada ciri-ciri demografi responden. Ia mengandungi jantina, umur, tahap pendidikan dan taraf perkahwinan. Maklumat ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui latar belakang responden untuk dijadikan maklumat tambahan kajian.

Bahagian B pula terdiri daripada soalan-soalan yang berkaitan dengan etika kerja Islam. Ia telah diadaptasi daripada Adiba dkk. (2012) dan Syakir dkk. (2012). Penyelidik telah mengambil 16 item daripada Adiba iaitu soalan dari no.1 sampai 16, 4 item daripada Syakir iaitu soalan no.17 sampai 20 dan telah mengubah kepada soalan yang difikirkan sesuai dengan tajuk kajian.

Seterusnya bahagian C, soalan berkaitan dengan prestasi kerja. Tujuan soalan bahagian C adalah untuk mengetahui prestasi kerja guru. Ia telah diadaptasi daripada Hartini (2009) dan Satriadi (2012). Penyelidik telah mengambil 10 item daripada Hartini iaitu soalan dari no.21 sampai 30, 10 item daripada Satriadi iaitu soalan no.31 sampai 40 dan telah mengubah kepada soalan yang difikirkan sesuai dengan tajuk kajian.

4. Hasil Kajian

Etika Kerja Islam dalam Kalangan Guru

Dalam bahagian ini, pengkaji mengemukakan tahap amalan secara keseluruhan responden terhadap pelaksanaan etika kerja Islam. Penentuan tahap amalan pekerja terhadap pelaksanaan etika kerja Islam iaitu mengabdikan diri kepada Allah, ikhlas dan amanah, tekun dan cekap, bekerjasama dan berpadu fikiran, dan matlamat kebahagiaan bersama. Min skor bagi keempat-empat dimensi ini dicampurkan untuk membentuk satu nilai min skor yang menyeluruh bagi menentukan tahap responden.

Jadual 4.1 : Tahap Amalan Responden Terhadap Etika Kerja Islam

Dimensi Etika Kerja Islam	Min Skor Persepsi	Tafsiran Etika Kerja Islam
Mengabdikan diri kepada Allah	4.46	Tinggi
Bekerja dengan Ikhlas dan amanah	4.43	Tinggi
Bekerja dengan Tekun dan cekap	4.38	Tinggi
Bekerja dengan Semangat Gotong Royong dan berpadu fikiran	4.28	Tinggi
Bekerja dengan Matlamat Kebahagiaan Bersama	4.38	Tinggi
Min Skor Keseluruhan	4.39	Tinggi

Dengan merujuk kepada Jadual 1 menunjukkan jadual min skor bagi tahap amalan etika kerja Islam secara keseluruhan. Berdasarkan dimensi-dimensi etika yang dianalisis, menunjukkan bahawa 5 dimensi tersebut berada di tahap yang tinggi. Secara keseluruhannya, tahap amalan etika kerja Islam bagi kesemua 5 dimensi tersebut adalah pada tahap yang tinggi dengan min skor keseluruhan iaitu 4.39.

Prestasi Kerja dalam Kalangan Guru

Dalam bahagian ini, pengkaji mengemukakan tahap amalan secara keseluruhan responden terhadap prestasi kerja. prestasi kerja yang dikaji dalam Bahagian C soal selidik iaitu kualiti kerja, ketepatan waktu, inisiatif, kecekapan, dan komunikasi. Min skor bagi kelima dimensi ini dicampurkan untuk membentuk satu nilai min skor yang menyeluruh bagi menentukan tahap responden.

Jadual 4.2 : Tahap Amalan Responden Terhadap Prestasi Kerja

Dimensi Prestasi Kerja	Min Skor Persepsi	Tafsiran Prestasi Kerja
1. Kualiti Kerja	4.03	Tinggi
2. Ketepatan Waktu	3.95	Tinggi
3. Inisiatif	3.99	Tinggi
4. Kecekapan	4.01	Tinggi
5. Komunikasi	4.13	Tinggi
Min Skor Keseluruhan	4.02	Tinggi

Dengan merujuk kepada Jadual 2 menunjukkan jadual min skor bagi prestasi kerja secara keseluruhan. Berdasarkan dimensi-dimensi prestasi kerja yang dianalisis, menunjukkan bahawa 5 dimensi tersebut berada di tahap yang tinggi. Secara keseluruhannya, tahap amalan prestasi kerja bagi kesemua 5 dimensi tersebut adalah pada tahap yang tinggi dengan min skor keseluruhan iaitu 4.02.

Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Islam

Analisis dapatan kajian di bahagian ini adalah berdasarkan hipotesis kajian yang telah dibina di peringkat awal kajian.

Jadual 4.3: Korelasi Antara Etika Kerja Islam dengan Prestasi Kerja

Pembolehubah bebas	Prestasi Kerja		
	Korelasi Pearson (r)	Tahap Signifikan (p)	Keputusan
Etika Kerja Islam	0.740**	0.000	Tolak Ho

** Kolerasi adalah signifikan pada paras 0.01

Jadual 4.4 : Penilaian Model Regresi Berganda Etika Kerja Islam dengan Prestasi Kerja *Model Summary*

Model	r	r Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The Estimate	f	Sig
1	.740 ^a	.548	.544	10.53231	140.515	.000 ^b

a. Dependent Variable : Prestasi Kerja

b. Predictors : Etika Kerja Islam

Jadual 4.3 menunjukkan analisis Kolerasi Pearson terhadap jumlah hubungan di antara tahap amalan etika kerja Islam dengan prestasi kerja pekerja. Hasil analisis dapati bahawa tahap amalan etika kerja Islam mempunyai hubungan yang positif dengan prestasi kerja.

Nilai pekali korelasi yang diperolehi ialah $r = 0.740^{**}$, $p < 0.01$. Ini menunjukkan terdapat hubungan secara positif pada tahap yang tinggi antara etika kerja Islam dengan prestasi kerja. Dapatan analisis ini juga menunjukkan hipotesis kajian ini adalah ditolak.

Nilai R^2 menunjukkan sejauh mana perubahan dalam pemboleh ubah bersandar ditentukan atau disebabkan oleh perubahan dalam pemboleh ubah bebas. Berdasarkan jadual 4.4, nilai R^2 adalah 0.548, yang membawa maksud etika kerja Islam membawa 54.8% perubahan kepada prestasi kerja dalam kalangan guru SD Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur

Faktor yang Paling Dominan Mempengaruhi Prestasi Kerja Guru

Bagi memenuhi objektif yang terakhir, pengkaji menggunakan analisis regresi berganda untuk melihat kesan sumbangan dan pengaruh kelima faktor pemboleh ubah bebas terhadap prestasi kerja dan mengenal faktor yang paling dominan yang mempengaruhi prestasi kerja. Satu model regresi dibentuk bagi menganalisis pengaruh pemboleh ubah bebas iaitu mengabdikan diri kepada Allah, ikhlas dan amanah, tekun dan cekap, bekerjasama dan berpadu fikiran, dan matlamat kebahagiaan bersama terhadap pemboleh ubah bersandar iaitu prestasi kerja.

Jadual 4.5: Penilaian Dimensi-Dimensi Etika Kerja Islam yang Dominan Mempengaruhi Prestasi Kerja

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	t	Sign.
	b	Std. Error	Beta		
Constan	3.641	.335	.711	10.883	.000
Mengabdikan diri kepada Allah	3.635	.351	.693	10.354	.000
Bekerja dengan Ikhlas dan amanah	3.735	.339	.715	11.002	.000
1 Bekerja dengan Tekun dan cekap	3.606	.325	.717	11.081	.000
Bekerja dengan Semangat Gotong Royong dan berpadu fikiran	3.750	.346	.710	10.850	.000
Bekerja dengan Matlamat Kebahagiaan Bersama	3.641	.335	.711	10.883	.000

Analisis regresi berganda dalam jadual 4.5 menunjukkan faktor bekerja dengan semangat gotong-royong dan berpadu fikiran merupakan pemboleh ubah yang paling dominan mempengaruhi prestasi kerja dengan nilai pekali tertinggi yang diperolehi iaitu dilihat dengan merujuk nilai Beta di bawah *Standarddized Coeficient*, dimana nilai Beta yang paling tinggi ($\beta=0.717$) adalah bekerja dengan semangat gotong-royong dan berpadu fikiran, dengan signifikan dari segi statistik dalam persamaan regresi dimana nilai $t = 11.081$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$.

Kemudian, dari jadual 4.26 menunjukkan dimensi yang kurang dominan atau yang paling rendah dalam mempengaruhi prestasi kerja adalah bekerja dengan Ikhlas dan Amanah dengan merujuk nilai Beta di bawah *Standarddized Coeficient*, dimana nilai Beta yang paling rendah ($\beta=0.693$) signifikan dari segi statistik dalam persamaan regresi dimana nilai $t = 10.354$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$.

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

Hasil kajian yang dijalankan didapati telah menjawab beberapa persoalan yang dikemukakan dalam bahagian yang lebih awal. Pengkaji telah melihat kepentingan melaksanakan dan mengamalkan nilai etika kerja Islam di tempat kerja. Dalam konteks kajian yang telah dijalankan, pengkaji dapat menyimpulkan bahawa terdapat hubungan yang signifikan di antara etika kerja Islam dan prestasi kerja. Hasil dapatan membuktikan bahawa etika kerja Islam yang tinggi dapat meningkatkan prestasi kerja guru yang seterusnya menjadikan sekolah lebih maju dan berdaya saing. Selain itu, tidak dapat dinafikan amalan etika kerja Islam akan menyumbang kepada satu kualiti yang tinggi kerana guru mengamalkan tatacara perlakuan yang tertentu dan mampu membentuk imej Sekolah. Oleh itu, amalan etika kerja Islam haruslah terus diberi perhatian oleh pihak SD Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur dalam usaha meningkatkan prestasi kerja guru.

Selain daripada itu mengenai tahap etika kerja Islam dan pengaruhnya terhadap prestasi kerja guru di SD Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur mengenai pelaksanaan etika kerja Islam, menunjukkan guru mempunyai kesedaran dan menyokong penerapan nilai-nilai Islam melalui etika kerja di Sekolah sebagai satu tatacara amalan yang memberi kesan yang positif kepada prestasi mereka. Diharapkan juga, sekolah dapat mengambil faedah daripada kajian yang telah dilakukan ini khususnya dalam membentuk tatacara yang dapat memberi kesan yang positif kepada prestasi kerja.

Secara keseluruhannya, kajian ini boleh dianggap berjaya kerana dapat mencapai objektif kajian seterusnya mencapai matlamat kajian yang ditetapkan iaitu mengetahui Hubungan Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Guru di SD Negeri Kecamatan Tanjungpinang Timur. Moga kajian yang dilakukan ini mendatangkan kebaikan kepada pengkaji-pengkaji lain khususnya dalam bidang etika dan usaha-usaha penerapan nilai-nilai Islam dalam seluruh sistem kehidupan

6. Penghargaan

Terlebih dahulu kami mengucapkan setinggi-tinggi syukur kehadirat Ilahi kerana masih lagi member saya peluang untuk mengecapi nikmat hidup. Alhamdulillah dengan izin dan limpah kurnia-Nya, akhirnya dapat saya menyiapkan Jurnal mengikut tempoh yang ditetapkan. Saya ingin mengucapkan jutaan terima kasih kepada penyelia saya iaitu Dr. Mohd Koharuddin Bin Mohd Balwi di atas segala bimbingan, nasihat dan tunjuk ajar yang telah diberikan dalam memastikan projek kajian ilmiah ini sempurna dilaksanakan. Selain itu, penghargaan ini juga ditujukan kepada kedua ibu bapa serta istri saya yang sentiasa menyokong dan mendoakan kejayaan saya supaya cecal dalam menyiapkan kajian ini. Tidak lupa juga ribuan terima kasih diucapkan kepada rakan-rakan saya yang telah menghulurkan bantuan dan sokongan terhadap saya.

7. Rujukan

- Adiba, Hamizah, F., & Hanis, H. (2012). *Hubungan Di Antara Faktor-Faktor Pembuatan Keputusan Kerjaya Dengan Etika Kerja Islam : Kajian Di Kalangan Pekerja Majlis Agama Islam Johor (MAIJ)*. Johor Bahru: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Aji, Gunawan & ArifinSabeni. (2003). Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Komitmen Organisasi dengan Komitmen Profesi sebagai Variabel Intervening (Studi Empiris Terhadap Internal Auditor Bank di Jawa Tengah). Surabaya. Simposium Nasional Akuntansi VI.
- As'ad, M. (1991). *Psikologi Industri*. Yogyakarta: Liberty.
- Asifudin, A. (2006). *Etos Kerja Islami*. Yogyakarta : UII Press.
- Baron, R. A., & Byrne, D. E. (1994). *Social Psychology* (7th edition ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bernardin, H. J., & Russel, E. (1993). *Human resource Management, An Experiential Approach* (Mc. Graw Hill International Edition ed.). Singapore: Mac Graw Hill Book Co.
- Blumberg, M., & Pringle, C. (1982). The missing opportunities in organizational research: Some implications for a theory of work performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 7(4), 560-569.
- Boyett, J., & Conn, H. (1993). *Maximum performance management: How to manage and compensate people to meet world competition* (2nd ed.). New York: Glenbridge Pub.
- Desai, A. D. (2008). *Research Methodologi in Management*. New Delhi: APH Publishing Corporation.
- Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. (1994). *Kamus Dewan*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Dharma. Agus, 2003, *Manajemen Prestasi Kerja: Pedoman Praktis Bagi Para Penyelia untuk Meningkatkan Prestasi Kerja*, Edisi Kelima, Jakarta: Radjawali Pers.
- Ghafar, M. N. (1999). *Penyelidikan Pendidikan*. Skudai : Penerbitan Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Hannah, F. (2013). *Hubungan Antara Amalan Etika Kerja Dengan Tahap Prestasi Kerja Dalam Kalangan Kakitangan Sokongan di Fakulti Pengurusan Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor Bahru*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. Johor Bahru: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Hasan, A. F. (2001). *Pengenalan Falsafah Pendidikan*. Pahang: PTS Publications & Distributor.
- Hussain, M. N., & Ahmad, M. (2006). *Etika Perniagaan Pendekatan Perspektif Islam*. Selangor: Prentice Hall Pearson Malaysia Sdn. Bhd.
- Kamaluddin, N., & Manan., S. (2010). The Conceptual Framework of Islamic Work Ethic (IWE). *Malaysian Accounting Review*, 9(2), 55-70.
- Kepri, H. (2013, September 30). *InilahCom*. Retrieved March 13, 2014, from InilahCom: <http://sindikasi.inilah.com/read/detail/2033810/kppai-prihatin-kasus-pemukulan-siswa>
- Krejcic dan Morgan .1970 .*Tabel Populasi*. Jakarta : Rineka Cipta.
- Prabowo, S. & Setyorini, T.H.D. 2005. "Pengaruh Dversity Quotient, Emotional Intelligence, Dan Intelligence Quotient Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Karyawan". Forum Komunikasi Psikologi. Jurnal. Vol. 1. No. 1. Hal 12-16.
- Rahman, N. M., Muhamad, N., & Othman, A. S. (2006). The Relationship Between Islamic Work Ethics and Organizational Commitment : A Case Analysis. *Malaysian Manusiament Review*, 41(1), 79-89.
- Santoso. (1990). *Pengembangan Sumber Daya Manusia*. . Jakarta: PT. Bumi Aksara.

- Satriadi. (2012). Pengaruh Pengawasan Kepala Sekolah Terhadap Kinerja Guru Sekolah Dasar Negeri Binaan Se-Kota Tanjungpinang. Tanjungpinang : Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Sosial dan Ilmu Politik Raja Haji Tanjungpinang.
- Shukri, A., & Razali, M. Z. (2001). *Adab & etika kerja dalam organisasi*. Sintok: Penerbit Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Soedarmayanti. (2001). *Sumber Daya Manusia dan Produktivitas Kerja*. Bandung : CV Mandar Maju.
- Sugiyono. (2009). *Metode Penelitian Administrasi* (XVII ed.). Bandung: Alfa.
- Suryabrata, S. (1984). *Psikologi Pendidikan*. Jakarta: CV Rajawali.
- Syakir, M., Amalina, N., & Fazdhilah, N. (2012). *Etika Kerja Islam dan Hubungannya Terhadap Prestasi Kerja : Kajian Kes di Kalangan Pekerja di Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Johor Bahru*. Johor Bahru: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Tanjung, C. A. (2010, February 14). *DetikNews*. Retrieved March 13, 2014, from Transcorp: <http://news.detik.com/read/2010/02/14/180115/1299324/10/4-murid-dipecat-karena-guru-tak-mau-memaafkan?nd771104bcj>
- Tasmara, T. (2002). *Membudayaka Etos Kerja Islami*. Jakarta: Gema Islami.
- Yan. (2013, March 21). *Haluan Kepri.Com*. Retrieved March 13, 2014, from Haluan Kepri.Com : <http://haluankepri.com/tanjungpinang/43985-guru-sdn-004-tanjungpinang-pukul-muridnya.html>

Wisdom of *Ulū al-Albāb* in Sustaining Human Resource Development in Muslim World

Suhaimi Mhd Sarif¹

¹ International Islamic University Malaysia

Abstract The wisdom of men that endowed with understanding (*ulū al-albāb*) sustains human resource development in Muslim world for many centuries despite the presence of colonization and dominance of super power from non-Muslim world. The essence of *ulū al-albāb* lies with the *Tawhīdic* paradigm, an Islamic monotheism that guides men and women to execute dual tasks as servant and vicegerent of Allah. This study argues that wisdom of *ulū al-albāb* provides comprehensive elements of sustainability in the human resource development. Based on interviews with selected Muslim business owners and managers from various nationalities operated their business in Klang Valley, most of the wisdom lies in the struggle to survive within the free market systems and reduces the wisdom of *ulū al-albāb* to certain routines and innovation instead of survival of the Muslim nation and civilization. The study provides contingency views on human resource development from the *ulū al-albāb* dimension. Public policy makers and business decision makers would develop *ulū al-albāb* HRD system to acquire, transfer and nurture wisdom to sustain organization. The future research suggest the study to use triangulation case study method for more rigorous and comprehensive results.

Keywords: *Ulū al-albāb*, wisdom, sustainability, Muslim world

1. Introduction

The wisdom of men that endowed with understanding or known as *ulū al-albāb* is the comprehensive, rigorous, and analytical capability possessed by ordinary human being after going through physical, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual training on a certain period of time. This capability can be acquired, maintained, and transferred provided one follows the discipline and routines required. Everyone is required to have such capability, which is in line with the needs of the humanity. The main outcome of the capability is peace, harmonious, and just society.

The discussion of the paper is divided into a few parts. Firstly, it discusses the literature of *ulū al-albāb* in a few areas, namely, in the context of human lifelong learning, its foundation for human resource development, and economic objectives of lifelong learning. Secondly, the methodology section.

2. Literature Review

2.1 *Ulū al-albāb* in the context of human lifelong learning

Human resource development in Islam is based on Tawhidic paradigm. The *Ulū al-albāb* facilitates the process of human development in line with *Tawhidic*-based lifelong learning paradigm. *Tawhidic*-based lifelong learning is based on Islamic monotheism worldview that the dynamism is actually part of the process to attain ultimate victory in this worldly and the hereafter life. Al-Faruqi (1992, p.5) argues that human resource development based on *Tawhidic* paradigm manifests the readiness and willingness to fulfil the Divine trust (*al amānah*) and obligatory duties (*al farā'id*) that are accompanied by the Divine guidance and human unique capability (Qur'ān, Surah Hud, 11: 6 and *Sura Az Zumar* 39: 41). The main argument here is that human resource development can be done with other paradigms for the sake of developing human potentials for the benefit of the humanity, but such aim will not fulfilling the purpose of human creation together with the universe.

In a contemporary context of human resource development with all the economic and materialism driven, Mohd Kamal Hassan (2010, p.187) argues that the *ulū al-albāb* approach to human resource development based on Tawhidic paradigm will serve partially of the required human potential. According to Mohd Kamal Hassan (2010), *ulū al-albāb* approach to human resource development provides the Islamic monotheism thinking on how to live and being developed in this world as the (i) true servants of Allah (*'ibād al-Rahmān*), (ii) vicegerents (*khulafā' fī al-ard*), (iii) true believers (*al-mu'minūn*) for the sake of betterment of mankind (*khayra ummatin ukhrijat lil-Nās*) (Qur'ān, 3:110) and (iv) 'balanced community' (*ummatan wasatan li-takūnū shuhadā' 'alā al-nās*) (Qur'ān, 2:143). Indeed, the *ulū al-albāb* approach to human resource development is not to develop human potential for the sake of economic well-being, but also the individual, collective, and the nation well-being.

According to Zarkasyi (2010), based on Al-Ghazālī's approach of human learning and development, the development of human knowledge can be divided into religious and rational knowledge. Religious knowledge includes the science of the practical religion (*'ilm al-mu'amālah*), God's guided knowledge on how the religion can be executed (*'ilm al-shar'iy*), and knowledge that derived from human intellect (*'ilm al-'aqliyy*). The scope of the practical religion (*'ilm al-mu'amālah*) is available in two forms, exoteric (*zāhir*) and esoteric (*bātin*) sciences. The exoteric (*zāhir*) sciences include the act of worship (*'ibādat*), social ethics (*'ādat*), and matters pertaining to dangerous act (*muhlikāt*). As for esoteric (*bātin*) sciences, it is about spirituality dimension. The second category of knowledge is the rational knowledge (*'ulūm al-'aqliyyah/ulūm ghayr shar'iyah*). This type of knowledge can be divided into fundamental (*usūl*) and subsidiary (*furū'*). The fundamental knowledge includes mathematics/logic, natural science (observation and experiment), and investigation science of existence.

The theoretical classification of knowledge allows organizations to identify priorities, resources, and efforts to convert the knowledge into absorptive capability. Zarkasyi (2010, pp.162-164) argued that there are two ways knowledge can be acquired by individuals, namely through human teaching (*al-ta'lim al-insaniyy*) and Divine teaching (*al-ta'lim al-rabbāniyy*). People learn from other people via face-to-face and other instructional ways (Zabeda, 2004, 2008) with monetary or non-monetary rewards (Zabeda, 2008). However, the Divine teaching is highly spiritual when the learners acquiring knowledge based on Divine revelation (*al-wahy*), inspiration (*ilhām*), reflection and contemplation (*al-ishtighal bi al-tafakkur*).

Zarkasyi (2010, pp.162-164) contended that the absorptive capacity to acquire human and divine teaching (*al-tarbīyah al-wahy*) is through five capabilities (power), namely common sense (*al-hiss al-mushtarak*), representative power (*al-quwwah al-khayāliyyah*), estimate power (*al-quwwah al-wahmiyyah*), retentive power (*al-quwwah al-hāfidah wa al-dhakirah*), imaginative power (*al-quwwah al-mutakhayyilah/ al-quwwah al-mutafakirrah*).

2.2 *Ulū al-albāb* as the foundation of human resource development

This section elaborates *Tawhidic* paradigm can be integrated with lifelong learning because Islamic knowledge and learning is built upon the foundation of Islamic faith (*al-iman al-Islamiyyah*). The Islamic faith is based on *kalima shahaada*, which is to recognize Allah as the only universal God and Prophet Muhammad (Peace Be Upon Him) as the messenger of Allah (Ismail, 1991; Ismail, 1996). With this foundation, the ultimate aim of Islamic management system is to gain the pleasure of Allah by executing all of the duties prescribed by Him (Ismail, 1996; Haneef, 1997; Hamid, 1999). The discussion of this paper begins with the explanation on the major components of *Tawhidic* paradigm.

According to *Tawhidic* paradigm, man's multiple relationships revolve around *Tawhid*. The Islamic worldview links the prerequisites to *Tawhid* and the roles of the believers of the paradigm (Mawdudi, 1992; Ismail, 1996; Osman-Gani & Sarif, 2011). Figure 1 depicts the integrative linking role of *Tawhid* with worship (*'ibadat*), submission of mankind to Allah for the sake of securing His Pleasure vis-à-vis the roles of mankind as servant (*'abd*) and vicegerent (*khalifa*) of Allah.

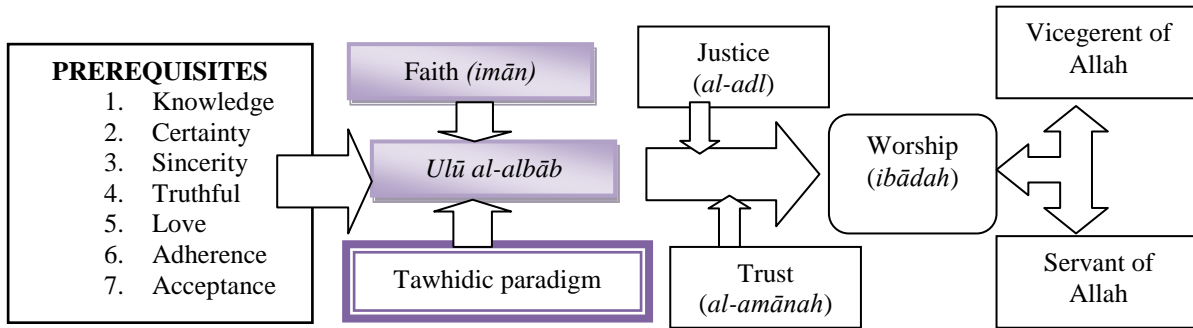


Fig. 1- *Ulū al-albāb* human resource development based on Tawhidic paradigm.

Ulū al-albāb human resource development in the context of lifelong learning environment must be created, nurtured, and built in line with the main reason the creation of man, which is to worship (*‘ibadat*) Allah, in which it has to be performed with trust and justice is depicted in Figure 2 to be consistent with the job description of vicegerent (*khalifa*) as stated in *Sura al Baqarah* 2: 30. This assignment is in line with the purpose that Allah has created mankind to be His servant and also His vicegerent on earth.

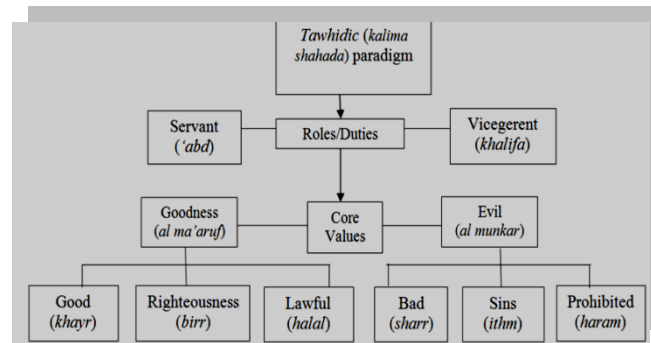


Fig 2- Fundamental Principles of *Duniawi-Ukhwawi* View for *Ulu al-albab* Human Resource Development

2.3 *Ulū al-albāb* and economic objectives in human lifelong learning

The fast changing pace of the economy has resulted many of the traditional jobs are slowly disappearing from the job market. This is also a contribution to the long term unemployment and slow economic growth. Cully and Curtain (2001) contended lifelong learning in the forms of apprenticeships, industrial training and so forth becomes essential. Meyers, Billet, and Kelly (2010) argued that mature workers will participate in lifelong learning if they see potential personal and institutional benefits. Thus, lifelong learning becomes an essential requirement of the contemporary job market.

New requirement for the job market as contended by Cully and Curtain (2001), and Meyers *et.al.* (2010), lifelong learning is also contributed by the need to find for a new source of employment. Hancock (2006) argued that traditional jobs are getting no space in the contemporary business world. New source of employment is essential to buffer the increase of unemployment in the society. Stenberg and Westerlund (2008) argued that the long term unemployment becomes the essential factor to encourage for lifelong learning so that with new knowledge and skill, new employment or entrepreneurial opportunities can be offered to the job market. Hence, the unemployment can be addressed gradually. According to Hancock (2006), the mature workers should be given encouragement in lifelong learning practices to enable them relevant in the current job market so that they will not be phased out from the job market before their retirement age.

As a result of changes in the new job requirement, lifelong learning occurs in all spectrum of life. Cornford (2009) argued that the current workplace and social life requires workers to be updated with the latest news, lifestyle, and social events. The advancement of technology has accelerated the transfer of information, which has substantial

influence on work and social life. However, some practices are not serious in supporting lifelong learning efforts, merely superficial. In the meantime, Jenkins, Vignoles, Wolf and Galindo-Rueda (2003) argued that lifelong learning becomes social and workplace order of the day. Workers are eager to participate as mean in securing individuals' economic outcomes, namely wages and job security. Feinstein and Hammonda (2004) argued that lifelong learning is determined by the ability of adult learning. Active adult learning enhances lifelong learning.

Thus, this study proposes that three main factors contribute to human resource development through lifelong learning at workplace of business organizations based on the *ulū al-albāb* approach: requirement of the job market, new source of employment and social/workplace order. Figure 1 illustrates the framework of the study.

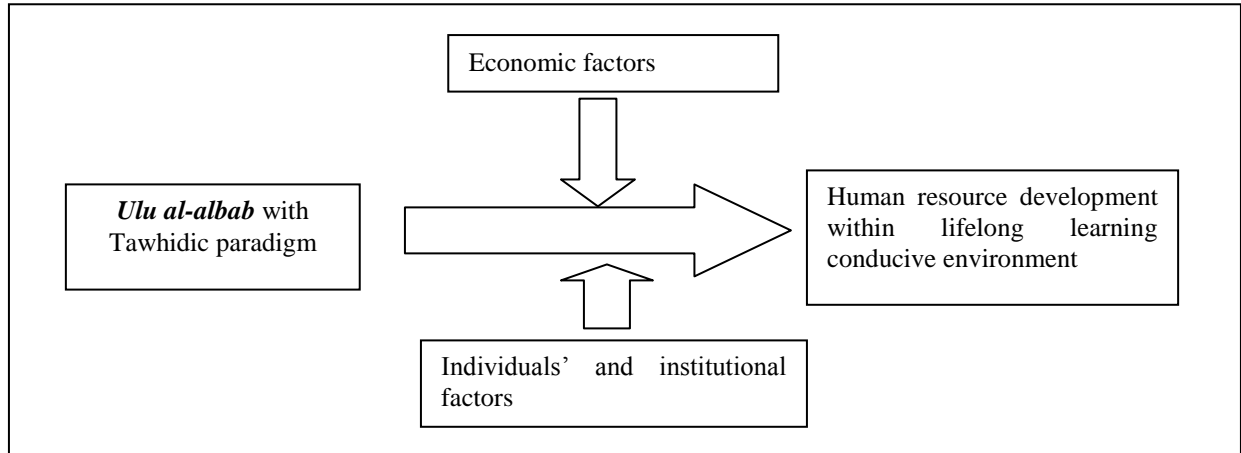


Fig 3- Framework of the study

3. Methodology

The study aims to explore the wisdom of examines *ulū al-albāb* through the feedback selected business owners and managers in Klang Valley on how they managed their business and managed wisdom of *ulū al-albāb* in creating, nurturing and conducting friendly and conducive environment for lifelong learning that contribute to organizational sustainable innovation and competitive advantage.

The data collection method is a qualitative research method. The qualitative method enables the study to explore a context deeply, which could not be done adequately by quantitative methods, such as survey (Wainwright, 1997; Patton, 1990). This method allows the study to explore and solicit the views of the informants on the issues of managing business and wisdom of *ulū al-albāb*.

4. Results

4.1 Profile of informants

The study interviewed 10 informants, three (3) managers and seven (7) business owners from various Muslim countries, namely Turkey, Palestine, Syria, Bangladesh, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Kuwait, Indonesia, Brunei of various companies in Klang Valley. For owners, the official titles are managing director, executive director and president. As for managers, there are senior manager, marketing manager and business development manager. Table 1 summarizes the brief profile of the informants.

Table 1- Profile of informants of the study.

Code	Position	Location
UK1	Managing Director (Turkey)	Bukit Jalil
UK2	Executive Director (Palestine)	Cyberjaya
UK3	Executive Director (Syria)	Bukit Jalil
UK4	President (Bangladesh)	Cyberjaya
UK5	Managing Director (Saudi)	Bukit Jalil
UK6	Managing Director (Yemen)	Shah Alam
UK7	Managing Director (Kuwait)	Subang Jaya
UM1	Senior Manager (Indonesia)	Bukit Jalil
UM2	Marketing Manager (Brunei)	Cyberjaya
UM3	Business Development Manager (Saudi)	Shah Alam

Note: UK = *Ulū al-albāb* owner UM= *Ulū al-albāb* manager

4.2 Analysis

Initially, all informants were not familiar with the term *ulū al-albāb* as it is not widely used. They used to hear some educational initiatives that used the term *ulū al-albāb* such as *Ulū al-Albāb* School, *Ulū al-Albāb* Generation by Terengganu State Government. When they were informed that *ulū al-albāb* refers to men and women that endowed with understanding, or in other words, people that always use brain when reflecting and doing something in daily activities and always trying the best level to seek the Pleasure of Allah, they were comfortable. According to UM1, the company uses *ulū al-albāb* approach in human resource development through the lifelong learning is meaningful because it is in line with the teachings of Islam. However, UM2 has some reservation on the implementation part due to the diversity of faith and races in the workplace. UM2 said: “In the ‘Islamophobia’ situation, any use of Islamic term could be perceived as an attempt to impose Islam to the followers of other faith. Unlike the Japanese and Chinese terms, even though they originated from the Taoism and Buddhism, but the terms are not based on religious faith.” As for UM3, any good framework of practice should be given a trial. UK1 welcomes the initiative at knowledge-based companies because to UK1, knowledge driven technology is just a tool or device. UK1 mentioned: “As a Muslim, any concept from Islam is good for us. I think the use of Islamic concept in technology has no religious or spiritual effects on the users.” UK2’s response is in line with UM1 and UM3 and UK1 that *ulū al-albāb* approach is just an approach offers by Islam. It should be commendable to be practiced.

The views of three managers (UM1, UM2 and UM3) and seven owners of companies (UK1-UK7) pertaining the incorporation of *ulū al-albāb* approach human resource development to create and nurture lifelong learning through organizational tasks, namely interpersonal, information and decisional roles (Mintzberg, 1980). According to Mintzberg (1980), interpersonal roles include figurehead, leadership, and liaison activities. As figureheads, managers perform ceremonial and symbolic duties, such as presenting a letter of appreciation at the company’s dinner. In leadership, managers are involved in the hiring process, appraisal, motivation, and training. Finally, managers provide a bridge for contacting external sources (i.e. individuals or groups) to obtain information for the organisation. UM1 and UM2 used to attend training on Islamic management at their own initiatives and are actually applying the concepts into their work.

As for UK3, UK5 and UK7, they supported the effort to use of *ulū al-albāb* approach in creating and nurturing lifelong learning environment. UM3, UK1, UK2, UK4, and UK6 have positive perception about the approach, but need to attend more training in order to understand them.

The findings of the study can be enhanced with a few aspects. Firstly, the *ulū al-albāb* HRD can be nurtured with the positive perceptions and organizational learning process. Secondly, the process of *ulū al-albāb* HRD life long learning can be monitored and controlled with the four elements, namely (i) the duty as servants of Allah (*‘ibad*), (ii) the trust as vicegerent of Allah (*khalīfah*), (iii) the rewards of work as devotion or worship (*‘ibādah*), and (iv) the achievement of task as fulfilling the trust (*amānah*). Finally, the sense of fear and hope on Allah (*taqwā*) can contribute to the sense of establishing a sense to work in congregation (*jama’ah*) with quality work. Figure 4 provides the illustration.

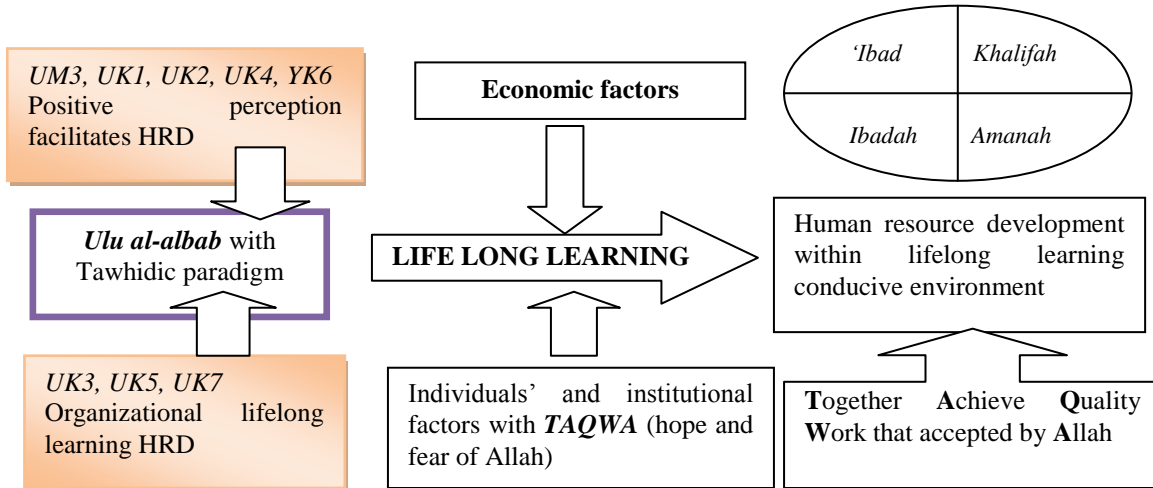


Fig 4- Enhanced framework of the study

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Human resource development through lifelong learning of *ulū al-albāb* lays down the guiding principles for mankind in the organizations to perform their tasks and routines together with the duties as servant and vicegerent of Allah. Hence, the *ulū al-albāb* approach of human resource development stresses that that it is Divine duty of mankind to serve Allah. Besides human beings, other creatures are also the servants of Allah and are created to worship Him. Allah says in *Sura Adh Dhariyat* 51: 56:

We (Allah) have not created jinns and mankind except to worship Me (Allah).

A person becomes more resourceful and humble by worshipping Allah. These two qualities are essential to balance human's physical and spiritual aspects in facing the challenges of life (Mawdudi, 1992; Qutb, 1994; Rahman, 1995; Hamid, 1999). In contrast, one who does not worship Allah will be punished in the form of distracting affairs and timidity (Ismail, 1996; Osman-Gani & Sarif, 2011). It is the power of *Tawhid* that motivates man to worship (perform *ibadat*), submitting himself to the Commandments of Allah in order to secure His Pleasure. He accepts the dual role specified by Allah, i.e. to be servant (*'abd*) and vicegerent (*khalifa*) of Allah. The execution of these roles requires man to uphold certain principles: (a) *Tawhidic* paradigm, (b) vicegerency (*khilafah*), (c) servant (*'abd*), (d) trust (*amanah*) and (e) justice (*'adalah*) (Haneef, 1997, pp.44-49; Hamid, 1999). As servant and vicegerent of Allah, man is commanded to establish *ma'aruf* and forbid *munkar*, as reflected in the following verse (*Sura Ali Imran* 3: 110):

You are the best nation which has ever been raised for guidance of mankind. You enjoin good, forbid evil, and believe in Allah.

“The best nation,” according to Ibn Kathir (2003), refers to the best of peoples for the people. With the best qualities, “the best of peoples” are able them to encourage fellow men to do good deeds and to prevent them from committing sins. This can be interpreted as a collective responsibility towards worshipping Allah. In fact, one's level of faith, whether increasing or decreasing, is very much dependant on the individual's initiatives in enjoining goodness and forbidding evil.

Ulū al-albāb approach must permeate the entire management functions. Daft (2010) identified four management functions, namely planning, organizing, leading and controlling to achieve goals of organization that can please Allah and satisfy the shareholders. Planning is defined as the process to formulate goals for future performance together with the resources required. Organizing refers to the arrangement of tasks, responsibilities, accountability,

and resources allocation to enable the organization to execute activities that attaining the goals. Leading is about the use of influence on employees so that they are motivated, willing and ready to perform the tasks assigned to them. As for controlling, it is about monitoring employees and resources so that they are on the right track to achieve the goals of the organization. The linkages between *Ulū al-Albāb* approach and organizational routines are workable for lifelong learning environment because both are not conflicting and could be complementing. In fact, *Ulū al-Albāb* approach serves as the ‘software,’ whereby organizational routines provide the platform or ‘hardware’ for *Ulū al-Albāb* approach to activate lifelong learning.

In conclusion, based on interviews with selected business owners and managers from various nationalities operated their business in Klang Valley, most of the wisdom lies in the struggle to survive within the free market systems and reduces the wisdom of *ulū al-albāb* to certain routines and innovation instead of survival of the Muslim nation and civilization. The study provides contingency views on human resource development from the *ulū al-albāb* dimension. Public policy makers and business decision makers would develop *ulū al-albāb* HRD system to acquire, transfer and nurture wisdom to sustain organization. The future research suggests the study to use triangulation case study method for more rigorous and comprehensive results.

6. Acknowledgements

This study thanked all informants and parties involved in the project, particularly the Ministry of Education Malaysia for funding this study through Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS 13) with the reference “FRGS13-017-0258 - A unified theory of the firm from *Tawhidic* paradigm.”

7. References

- Al-Faruqi, I.R. (1992). *Al Tawhid: Its Implications for Thought and Life*. Herndon, Virginia: International Institute of Islamic Thought.
- Cornford, I.R. (2009). Mere platitudes or realistically achievable? An evaluation of current lifelong learning policy in Australia. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 28 (1), 19-40.
- Cully, M. and Curtain, R. (2001). New apprenticeships: an unheralded labour market program. *Australian Bulletin of Labour*, 27 (3), 204-215.
- Daft, R.L. (2010). *New era of management* (9th ed). Canada: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Feinstein, L. & Hammonda, C. (2004). The contribution of adult learning to health and social capital, *Oxford Review of Education*, 30 (2), pp.199-221.
- Hamid, A.W. (1999). *Islam the natural way*. London: MELS
- Han, S. (2007). Asian lifelong learning in the context of a global knowledge economy: A task re-visited. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 8 (3), 478-486, DOI: 10.1007/BF03026475
- Han, S. (2001). Creating systems for lifelong learning in Asia. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 2(2), 85-95, DOI: 10.1007/BF03026293
- Hancock, L. (2006). Mature workers, training and using TLM frameworks. *Australian bulletin of labour*, 32 (3), retrieved from freepatentsonline.com
- Haneef, M.A. (1997). Islam, the Islamic Worldview and Islamic economics. *IIUM Journal of Economics and Management*, 5 (1), 39-66.
- Ibn Kathir, I. (2003). *Tafsir Ibn Kathir* (Abridged) (2nd ed.). Riyadh: Darussalam.
- Ismail, Y. (1991). *Mengurus Secara Islam* Kuala Lumpur A. S. Noordeen.
- Ismail, Y. (1996). *Pengurusan Dalam Islam*. Kuala Lumpur: A.S. Noordeen.
- Jenkins, A., Vignoles, A., Wolf, A. and Galindo-Rueda, F. (2003). The determinants and labour market effects of lifelong learning. *Applied Economics*, 35 (16), pp.1711-1721.
- Karim, N.S. & Hussein, R. (2008). Managers’ perception of information management and the role of information and knowledge managers: The Malaysian perspectives. *International Journal of Information Management*, 28 (2), 114-127.
- Kumar, P. (2004). Lifelong learning in Singapore: where are we now? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 23 (6), 559-568.

- Lewis, H. (2006). *Excellence without a soul: how a great university forgot education*. New York: Public Affairs
- Mawdudi, S. A. A. I. (1992). *Meaning of the Qur'an* (Vol. I-III). Lahore: Islamic Publications.
- Meyers, R., Billett, S. and Kelly, A. (2010). Mature-aged workers' learning needs and motivations for participation in training programs. *International Journal of Training Research*, 8 (2), 116-127.
- Mintzberg, H. (1980) *The nature of managerial work*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Mohd Kamal Hassan (2010). A return to the *Qur'ānic* paradigm of development and integrated knowledge: The *Ulū al Albāb* model. *Intellectual Discourse*, 18 (2), 183-210.
- Osman-Gani, A. & Sarif, S.M. (Eds), *Spirituality in Management from Islamic Perspective*, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: IIUM Press.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.
- Stenberg, A and Westerlund, O. (2008). Does comprehensive education work for the long-term unemployed? *Labour Economics*, 15 (1), 54-67.
- Qutb, S. (1994). *This religion of Islam (hadha 'd-din)*. Riyadh :International Islamic Publishing House.
- Rahman, A. (1995). *Islam: Ideology and the way of life*. Kuala Lumpur: A.S. Noordeen.
- Wainwright, D. (1997). Can sociological research be qualitative, critical, and valid? *The Qualitative Report*, 3.
- Zabeda, A.H. (2004). *Knowledge management: issues, process and outcomes* (Unpublished PhD thesis). University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland.
- Zabeda, A.H. (2008). Identifying knowledge and creating knowledgeable employees. *Journal of Knowledge Management Practice*, 9 (2), retrieved from <http://www.tlinc.com/artic1154.htm>
- Zabeda, A.H. (2011). Knowledge sharing in Islam: implications for practice in organisations. In A. Osman-Gani & S.M. Sarif (Eds), *Spirituality in Management from Islamic Perspective* (pp. 153-190), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: IIUM Press.
- Zarkasyi. H.F. (2010). Al-Ghazālī's concept of causality with reference to his interpretation of reality and knowledge. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: IIUM Press.
- Vergragt, P.J. (2012). Technology, Globalization, and Sustainable Development. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 24, 204-206

Penilaian Keberkesanan Program Latihan Pekerja Di Bahagian Ekonomi, Agensi Berita Nasional Malaysia (Bernama) Kuala Lumpur

Dr. Fadilah Binti Zaini and Nur Hamiza Binti Ahmad
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak Program latihan merupakan salah satu usaha kerajaan untuk mengukuh dan mengekalkan persekitaran kerja yang berkualiti dalam organisasi. Matlamat utama diadakan program latihan adalah untuk membentuk pekerja yang berinisiatif serta meningkatkan keyakinan mereka dalam melakukan tugas dan tanggungjawab semasa bekerja. Oleh itu, satu kajian telah dijalankan bagi menilai keberkesanan latihan program latihan di kalangan para pekerja di Bahagian Ekonomi yang terletak di Agensi Berita Nasional Malaysia (BERNAMA) Kuala Lumpur. Matlamat kajian ini adalah untuk menghasilkan satu maklumat lengkap tentang keberkesanan program latihan yang pernah dilaksanakan di organisasi tersebut. Bagi menjayakan kajian ini, borang soal selidik telah diedarkan bagi mendapatkan maklumat yang dikehendaki dan kesemua responden iaitu seramai 50 orang berjaya memulangkan kembali set borang soal selidik yang diedarkan. Kaedah kekerapan, peratusan dan min skor telah di gunakan untuk menganalisis data yang diperolehi daripada borang soal selidik tersebut. Hasil kajian menunjukkan tahap reaksi, pengetahuan, kemahiran, dan tingkahlaku pekerja adalah tinggi. Selain daripada itu, faktor jurulatih, persekitaran serta teknik latihan turut menyumbang ke arah keberkesanan program latihan. Selain daripada itu, faktor jurulatih, persekitaran serta teknik latihan turut menyumbang ke-arah keberkesanan program latihan.

1. Pengenalan

Perkembangan sains dan teknologi yang pesat melanda negara ini menyebabkan permintaan terhadap pekerja-pekerja yang berkemahiran dan berkualiti amat diperlukan. Ia bertujuan untuk menjamin kestabilan negara ke arah sebuah negara maju pada tahun 2020 kelak. Tenaga mahir ini diperlukan untuk menyokong politik, ekonomi dan sosial negara. Ekoran daripada keperluan buruh yang berkemahiran dan berkualiti ini telah melahirkan pelbagai institusi-institusi kemahiran teknik dan vokasional seperti Institut Kemahiran Belia dan Institut Kemahiran Mara (Tajuddin, 1997).

Sehubungan itu, pembangunan sumber manusia adalah satu proses yang amat penting dalam sesebuah organisasi. Organisasi yang berjaya adalah organisasi yang dapat mengurus sumber manusianya dengan cekap dan berkesan. Keperluan pembangunan sumber manusia yang berterusan diperlukan untuk penyesuaian dan pengadaptasian dengan perubahan persekitaran yang mendadak, membaiki kualiti produk dan perkhidmatan di samping meningkatkan produktiviti untuk persaingan. Justeru, program latihan yang diadakan oleh sesebuah organisasi merupakan sebahagian daripada aktiviti pembangunan sumber manusia yang di rancang secara sistematik dan teratur bagi meningkatkan tahap pengetahuan, kemahiran, perubahan tingkahlaku dan prestasi pekerja. Sesuatu program latihan disusun dan direncanakan oleh organisasi atas kepercayaan bahawa latihan dapat memberikan pulangan yang baik kepada organisasi tersebut dan diharapkan dapat meningkatkan prestasi para pekerja.

Ibrahim (1996), menyatakan bahawa latihan adalah satu proses pembelajaran yang tersusun dan dirancang untuk merubah sikap, mempertingkatkan pengetahuan dan kemahiran pekerja agar prestasi mereka dapat dipertingkatkan. Program latihan yang diadakan juga dapat membantu sesebuah organisasi mencapai matlamatnya serta dapat melahirkan pekerja yang berkemahiran serta bermotivasi tinggi. Malah, secara tidak langsung mutu perkhidmatan organisasi tersebut dapat ditingkatkan lagi.

Secara keseluruhannya kejayaan sesuatu program latihan bergantung kepada sokongan semua pihak, terutamanya pihak atasan di dalam sesebuah organisasi. Program latihan yang dijalankan mestilah dapat menonjolkan semua manfaat iaitu yang ketara atau nyata seperti peningkatan produktiviti kerja dan manfaat yang

tidak nyata seperti moral pekerja yang lebih baik serta perubahan sikap terhadap pekerja. Hakikatnya, program latihan yang dijalankan boleh memberikan impak positif.

2. Kajian Lepas

Kamus Dewan (1996) mentakrifkan latihan merupakan pelajaran atau pendidikan untuk memahirkan ajaran yang diterima. Alex (1996) pula menyatakan latihan adalah merupakan sesuatu bentuk pembelajaran yang diusahakan untuk mengubah prestasi kerja seseorang. Definisi ini turut diutarakan oleh Goldestein (1993), Buckley dan Caple (1992) dan How (1995).

Penilaian program latihan ditakrifkan sebagai proses mengukur perubahan tingkahlaku hasil dari program yang di jalankan. Ia juga melihat keberkesanan program latihan yang telah di jalankan (Kirkpatrick, 1976). Oleh itu Kirkpatrick juga mengatakan bahawa penilaian program pembangunan sumber manusia adalah merupakan satu proses membuat keputusan yang terlalu subjektif dimana pengukuran terkumpul di timbangtara bagi menentukan sejauh mana pencapaian sesuatu objektif telah tercapai.

Blanchard dan Thacker (2004) telah membuat kajian tentang amalan penilaian latihan di Kanada mengenai perbezaan antara amalan penilaian latihan dari perspektif akademik dengan amalan penilaian latihan yang sedang dilaksanakan di organisasi seluruh Kanada. Sebanyak 202 organisasi seluruh Kanada telah digunakan sebagai sampel ini. Hasil kajian menunjukkan dari perspektif akademik, penilaian latihan perlu dilaksanakan terhadap keempat-empat tahap yang terdapat dalam model iaitu reaksi, pembelajaran, perlakuan dan hasil.

Tennant C. (2002) telah menjalankan kajian terhadap syarikat-syarikat pengeluaran di United Kingdom untuk mengenalpasti kaedah penilaian semasa dan mengenalpasti halangan yang pra-dominan terhadap pelaksanaan program latihan yang berkesan. Kajian ini mendapati kebanyakan syarikat percaya bahawa program latihan yang dijalankan tidak memberi kesedaran sepenuhnya dari segi produktiviti yang tinggi, prestasi kerja semasa yang lebih baik dan peningkatan terhadap kualiti.

Kraiger (1993) telah membuat kajian ke atas 1400 orang yang bekerja dalam organisasi pengeluaran tentang pelaksanaan program latihan pengeluaran yang baru di kilang tersebut. Pembelajaran pelatih ditentukan berdasarkan prestasi yang di ukur pada tiap-tiap kursus. Pelatih juga dikenhendaki member markah kepada item-item seperti jumlah maklumat baru yang diperolehi, kelebihan latihan tersebut, kelayakan jurulatih, pengetahuan jurulatih dan prosedur jurulatih. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan tidak terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara banyak mana jumlah maklumat yang dapat dipelajari mengikut tanggapan pelatih dengan prestasi kerja sebenar mereka.

McGehee (1979) memberikan definisi latihan sebagai prosedur formal yang digunakan oleh sesebuah organisasi untuk memberi pembelajaran agar hasil perubahan sikap dapat memberi sumbangan kepada pencapaian objektif organisasi. Goldstein (1980), Ramli (1984), Forster (1979) dan Nadler (1984) menggambarkan latihan sebagai satu bentuk pembelajaran di dalam skop pembangunan sumber manusia di mana pelatih dapat memperdalam, memperluas dan meninggikan pengetahuan, mempertajamkan kemahiran, mengubah sikap (selaras dengan kehendak, falsafah, nilai dan etika kerja) bagi meningkatkan prestasi semasa berkhidmat dalam bidang tugas sedia ada.

Barker (2004) pernah membuat kajian mengenai penerokaan terhadap pengalaman pelanggan yang mempunyai persilangan budaya di Australia. Kajian beliau mengatakan latihan persilangan budaya dapat membantu seseorang itu memahami perbezaan di antara kumpulan-kumpulan etnik dan mewujudkan kesedaran budaya dan boleh digunakan untuk kepentingan personal dan profesional mereka.

Sarkar-Barney (2004) yang mengkaji tentang peranan budaya negara bagi meningkatkan keberkesanan latihan berpendapat fokus utama latihan yang melibatkan persilangan budaya adalah bertujuan untuk memberi persediaan kepada pegawai agar dapat bekerja dengan lebih efektif di dalam suasana budaya yang berbeza. Walau bagaimanapun, menurut Cavusgil (1992) yang pernah mengkaji tentang penggunaan sistem pakar dalam pemasaran antarabangsa bagi permohonan untuk pemilihan rakan kongsi dalam koperasi berpendapat bahawa keberkesanan atau kegagalan latihan bergantung kepada proses adaptasi pelatih dengan suasana kehidupan dan pekerjaan yang baru. Keberkesanan pelaksanaan suatu latihan adalah amat sukar untuk diukur dengan efektif. Endres dan Kleiner (1990) pernah membuat kajian mengenai pengukuran keberkesanan latihan pengurusan dan pembangunan. Menurut mereka, pengukuran keberkesanan latihan perlu meliputi penilaian terhadap reaksi emosi dan penambahan pengetahuan oleh peserta selepas mengikuti kursus. Selepas latihan, para peserta mula balik ke tempat kerja masing-masing dan bertemu semula dengan rakan setugasan dengan aneka persediaan seperti pertambahan ilmu dan kemahiran dan dengan penuh harapan baru untuk dapat berkhidmat dengan lebih produktif.

Pelaksanaan latihan kepada peserta kursus dari luar kawasan tertentu mempunyai banyak implikasi persilangan budaya, ini berkaitan dengan isi kandungan latihan dan tahap kompetensi latihan kemahiran bahasa di mana kedua-

duanya adalah antara aspek yang memberi cabaran kepada jurulatih perlu dipertimbangkan yang dihurai oleh Thornhill (1993) yang pernah membuat kajian mengenai latihan pengurusan bagi kesemua budaya yang menjurus kepada cabaran untuk jurulatih.

Selain itu, artikel oleh Nixon dan Dawson (2002) menghuraikan bagaimana kursus komunikasi persilangan budaya boleh dijalankan secara efektif dengan mengambilkira demografi sesebuah masyarakat di kawasan yang hendak ditempatkan bagi mengelakkan masalah komunikasi di antara sesama budaya, kerana interaksi antara kaum merupakan satu jalan ke arah mewujudkan perpaduan nasional dan mencetuskan masyarakat yang harmonis dan bersatu padu (Basri dan Ahmad, 1987).

Pada masa kini, pemindahan latihan telah menjadi pengukuran penting kepada bahagian pembangunan sumber manusia. Broad dan Newstrom (1992) yang pernah membuat kajian mengenai pemindahan latihan yang menjurus kepada strategi atau cara untuk memastikan pekerja mendapat ganjaran yang tinggi hasil daripada pelaburan latihan berpendapat, pemindahan latihan merupakan keberkesanan dan kebolehan pelatih untuk mencurahkan pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang diperoleh daripada latihan untuk digunakan dalam tugas harian mereka di tempat kerja secara berterusan.

Atkinson, 1972 menulis di dalam bukunya bertajuk *Multiparameter Eigenvalue Problems* keberkesanan pemindahan latihan di tempat kerja bukan bergantung kepada input latihan yang disediakan seperti peralatan latihan, kandungan atau pengajar semata-mata.

Pemindahan latihan akan berlaku harga apabila pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang dipelajari semasa program latihan dapat digunakan sepenuhnya dan dikekalkan melebihi tempoh yang diharapkan Baldwin dan Ford (1988) yang pernah menyebut di dalam buku mereka iaitu *The Transfer of Learning Into A Work Enviroment*.

Khairul (1994) menumpukan skop kajian kepada keberkesanan program latihan pembangunan bagi pendekatan “on the job training” sahaja. Melalui kajian yang dijalankan didapati bahawa latihan tersebut memberikan kesan positif kepada responden kajian kerana mereka memanfaatkan apa yang telah dipelajari di tempat kerja sebenar. Selain daripada itu, responden juga mendapati kerja yang mereka lakukan semakin memuaskan dan mencabar ekoran daripada kesan latihan yang diikuti. Pandangan responden ini menunjukkan bahawa responden dapat memperbaiki mutu kerja mereka. Hasil kajian beliau turut mendapati bahawa tenaga pengajar, kesesuaian program dan juga kemudahan yang disediakan merupakan perkara yang penting dalam memastikan keberkesanan program latihan.

David (1996) telah membuat kajian mengenai keberkesanan program latihan kepada pekerja-pekerja di bahagian pengeluaran di kilang Goodyear (Malaysia). Kajian beliau melihat kepada keberkesanan program latihan di dalam meningkatkan prestasi pekerja dan mencapai objektif sebenar latihan. Hasil kajian beliau mendapati program latihan tersebut telah telah member peluang kepada pekerja untuk meningkatkan kemahiran, pengetahuan dan kebolehan dalam segala bidang pekerjaan.

Hamidah (1995) telah menjalankan satu kajian di UTM bagi melihat keberkesanan program latihan untuk ahli teknologi telah mendapati bahawa perancangan program latihan di UTM telah di buat tanpa berpandukan kepada mana- mana model khusus yang pernah di bina oleh pakar-pakar pembangunan sumber manusia dan kesannya beliau mendapati bahawa program latihan yang di buat kurang teratur dan kurang teratur dan kurang mencapai objektif latihan. Justeru itu kajian ini membuktikan bahawa majoriti daripada pelatih berpandangan bahawa kursus yang telah di ikuti kurang mencapai objektif kerana program latihan yang diikuti hanya mampu memberikan pengetahuan secara teori dan bukannya secara praktikal.

Latiffah (1997) dalam kajiannya mengenai persepsi latihan dan hubungan dengan prestasi kerja di kalangan jururawat desa di Daerah Pasir Puteh, Kelantan menunjukkan bahawa wujudnya kolerasi antara latihan dengan prestasi kerja. Walau bagaimanapun, terdapat juga faktor lain yang member sumbangan ke arah peningkatan prestasi kerja seperti motivasi, keadaan persekitaran, kepimpinan dan system pengurusan sesebuah organisasi.

Choong (1994) telah menumpukan perhatian kepada penilaian terhadap Program Kemahiran Penyeliaan yang dijalankan di sebuah pusat latihan di institusi bank. Kajian ini menilai sejauhmana para penyelia di institusi bank tersebut berkemampuan menerima kemahiran penyeliaan dalam program latihan dan pengaplikasiannya di dalam situasi yang sebenar. Kajian ini bertujuan megenalpasti keberkesanan program dari aspek reaksi, pembelajaran dan penggunaan kemahiran peserta. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan para peserta telah memberikan reaksi yang positif terhadap program ini. Secara keseluruhannya, program ini telah berjaya meningkatkan tahap kemahiran peserta. Justeru itu, secara puratanya, didapati peserta berjaya menggunakan 77% daripada kemahiran yang di pelajari di dalam program tersebut.

Kamaruddin (1995) telah membuat penilaian program latihan yang telah dijalankan oleh Latihan Perindustrian Petroleum (ILLP). Beliau ingin melihat sejauhmana program yang dijalankan itu bersesuaian dengan bidang tugas Juruteknik Mekanikal di loji-loji berasaskan petroleum di Malaysia. Melalui penilaian beliau terhadap Program Latihan Skim Perantis Juruteknik Mekanikal telah menunjukkan bahawa program tersebut telah membekalkan pengetahuan teori dan kemahiran amali serta tahap keselamatan bertugas yang bersesuaian dengan bidang tugas

Juruteknik Mekanikal di loji tersebut. Selain daripada itu, beliau juga mendapati bahawa Juruteknik Mekanikal lulusan ILLP masih memerlukan bimbingan dan tunjuk ajar daripada ketuanya untuk bertugas dan sebahagian kecilnya tidak memiliki pengetahuan teori serta amali dan tahap keselamatan yang mencukupi untuk bertugas di loji Petronas.

Josephine et. al. (2006), menjalankan kajian tentang penilaian keberkesanan program latihan pengukuhan kemahiran bahasa Inggeris dalam pengajaran sains dan teknologi berdasarkan persepsi pelatih yang dijalankan di kalangan staf akademik, Fakulti Pendidikan, UTM. Hasil kajian mendapati latihan yang dijalankan berkesan dan dapat memenuhi kehendak pekerja dari aspek pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang diperlukan untuk menjalankan kerja mereka.

Thangaraj (1999) membuat kajian terhadap penilaian keaktifan penyampaian program latihan "Penyelia Efektif" yang dianjurkan oleh sebuah syarikat pembekal latihan persendirian yang berdaftar dengan Tabung Pembangunan Sumber Manusia (PSMB) di bawah Kementerian Buruh, Malaysia. Kajian ini dilakukan bagi melihat sejauhmana pencapaian objektif latihan dari pelbagai aspek seperti kandungan kursus, pelatih dan sebagainya. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan penyampaian latihan memberi kesan yang positif kepada pelatih, reaksi pelatih terhadap kursus, keberkesanan penyampaian latihan dari segi faktor jurulatih juga adalah memuaskan.

Mazidah (1998) membuat satu kajian terhadap penilaian program latihan di Management Development Centre (MDC) Johor Baru. Hasil kajian menunjukkan pihak MDC berjaya menyediakan program latihan yang benar-benar bersesuaian dengan keperluan bidang kerjaya individu. Tahap peratusan yang tinggi diperoleh bagi tahap reaksi, pembelajaran dan prestasi kerja setelah mengikuti program latihan.

Malah, ketua dan rakan setugas di pejabat juga mempunyai sesuatu pengharapan agar pelatih dapat mengaplikasikan apa yang dipelajari semasa bertugas. Apabila sekembalinya pelatih ke pejabat maka bermulalah pula suatu proses pengubahsuaian bagi semua yang terlibat. Umpamanya, kemahiran yang baru dipelajari menjalani ubahsuaian agar dapat sejajar dengan keadaan kerja di tempat berkenaan. Bekas peserta kursus pula barangkali mendapati organisasi tempat kerjanya itu begitu menggalakkan mereka untuk mengamalkan apa yang dilalui dalam latihannya itu di samping memberi segala bantuan dan sokongan terus-menerus untuk meningkatkan prestasi perkhidmatan (Ramli, 1998).

3. Metodologi Kajian

Sampel kajian yang dipilih adalah seramai 50 orang yang terdiri daripada para pekerja di Bahagian Ekonomi, BERNAMA. Kesemua 50 set borang soal selidik yang telah diedarkan telah dikembalikan dengan baik. Responden telah di kategorikan kepada empat peringkat umur. Dapatan menunjukkan hanya seorang responden (2%) sahaja yang berumur kurang dari 20 tahun. Manakala seramai 14 orang (28%) berumur antara 20 hingga 29 tahun. Majoriti responden dalam kajian ini adalah berumur dalam lingkungan antara 30 hingga 39 tahun iaitu seramai 20 orang (40%). Manakala seramai 15 orang (30 %) responden yang berumur 40 tahun ke atas. Kesemua 50 orang responden yang mewakili pekerja di Bahagian Ekonomi, BERNAMA adalah terdiri daripada 27 orang (54%) responden lelaki. Manakala jumlah responden perempuan pula adalah seramai 23 orang (46%) sahaja.

Kesemua 50 orang responden yang mewakili pekerja di Bahagian Ekonomi, BERNAMA adalah terdiri daripada 27 orang (54%) responden lelaki. Manakala jumlah responden perempuan pula adalah seramai 23 orang (46%) sahaja. Responden adalah terdiri daripada tiga kumpulan iaitu Melayu, Cina, dan India. Didapati seramai 44 orang (88%) adalah berbangsa Melayu, manakala seorang (2%) berbangsa Cina. Selebihnya seramai lima orang (10%) adalah berbangsa India. Didapati seramai 16 orang (32%) responden masih belum berkahwin manakala seramai 34 orang (68%) responden telah berkahwin.

Responden juga telah di kategorikan kepada empat peringkat taraf pendidikan iaitu SPM/SPMV, SPM/HSC, Diploma/Ijazah, dan Master/PhD. Seramai 10 orang (20%) responden mempunyai taraf pendidikan SPM/SPMV. Majoriti responden dalam kajian adalah memiliki taraf pendidikan Diploma/Ijazah iaitu seramai 35 orang (70%). Seterusnya, seramai empat orang (8%) responden yang mempunyai taraf pendidikan SPM/HSC manakala hanya seorang sahaja yang mempunyai taraf pendidikan Master/PhD. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan seramai 20 orang (40%) responden mempunyai pendapatan di antara RM1500 hingga RM2000. Manakala selebihnya iaitu seramai 30 orang (60%) adalah berpendapatan sebanyak RM2000 ke atas.

4. Instrumen

Instrumen utama dalam proses pengumpulan data primer ialah melalui pengedaran borang selidik. Ianya merupakan satu instrumen kajian yang paling efektif bagi mendapatkan maklumat mengenai keberkesanan program latihan yang para pekerja ikuti. Soalan-soalan dalam soal selidik ini adalah diambil dan diubahsuai dari tesis-tesis lepas iaitu daripada penulisan Siti Rashidah Binti Mat Yusof (2003). Selain itu, terdapat juga soalan-soalan yang diolah sendiri oleh pengkaji berdasarkan kepada modul program latihan yang dijalankan di BERNAMA.

Kaedah ini dilaksanakan bertujuan untuk menentukan tahap pembelajaran, kemahiran serta tingkahlaku pekerja dalam melaksanakan tugas yang diberikan setelah menjalani kursus tersebut. Keputusan daripada kedua-dua maklumbalas ini akan dapat menentukan keberkesanan program latihan yang pernah dijalankan ataupun tidak. Jadual 3.1 menunjukkan taburan item instrumen kajian.

5. Keputusan

Secara keseluruhannya, berdasarkan kepada nilai min iaitu 4.04, dapatan kajian menunjukkan tahap reaksi pekerja terhadap program latihan yang di anjurkan oleh pihak BERNAMA Kuala Lumpur adalah tinggi. Tahap reaksi yang tinggi di kalangan responden adalah disebabkan mereka diberikan penerangan yang jelas mengenai program latihan serta dapat memahami objektif sebenar program tersebut. Oleh yang demikian, responden kajian berusaha memanfaatkan program latihan ini dengan sebaik mungkin bagi mencapai objektif kursus tersebut.

Tahap pengetahuan pekerja terhadap program latihan juga adalah tinggi iaitu 3.97.

Ini kerana pengetahuan tersebut dapat meningkatkan keyakinan mereka apabila berhadapan dengan situasi kerja yang agak kompleks kerana program latihan tersebut banyak menekankan pengetahuan baru dan isu semasa berkaitan dengan tugas mereka. Secara tidak langsung, ianya dapat membantu pekerja untuk memberikan perkhidmatan yang berkualiti melalui pemahaman sepenuhnya daripada pengetahuan baru yang di perolehinya.

Bagi tahap kemahiran pula, dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa nilai min adalah tinggi iaitu 3.93. Antara faktor yang mempengaruhi keadaan ini ialah sikap para pekerja itu sendiri untuk memperbaiki mutu perkhidmatan kerja mereka serta mendapat sokongan daripada pihak pengurusan. Oleh itu, elemen-elemen yang terkandung dalam program latihan tersebut benar-benar memenuhi keperluan kerja mereka kerana ianya merangkumi pelbagai kemahiran yang diperlukan seperti pembuatan keputusan, kemahiran kerja berkumpulan, kemahiran berinteraksi serta kemahiran menerima kritikan secara membina. Selain itu, sokongan daripada pihak pengurusan juga menyumbang kepada keadaan ini kerana para pekerja diberikan peluang untuk mengaplikasikan kemahiran tersebut di tempat kerja mereka.

Sehubungan itu, dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa tahap tingkahlaku pekerja adalah baik setelah mengikuti program latihan tersebut dimana para penyelia memberikan tahap persetujuan secara puratanya adalah 80% (ya) dan hanya 20% (tidak setuju) dengan kenyataan tersebut. Ini menunjukkan bahawa kebanyakan pekerja dapat memenuhi aspek-aspek yang diperlukan seperti minat yang tinggi terhadap bidang tugas mereka serta dapat menyempurnakan tugas dengan lebih cekap.

Jadual 4.8 : Taburan Kekerapan Tahap Persetujuan Responden Dari Aspek Tahap Reaksi

KENYATAAN	SGT TIDAK SETUJU (STS) (%)	TIDAK SETUJU (TS) (%)	KURANG SETUJU (KS) (%)	SETUJU (S) (%)	SANGAT SETUJU (SS) (%)
Saya benar-benar memahami konsep asas latihan staf yang diberi.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	6 (12%)	41 (82%)	2 (4%)
Saya dapat memahami konsep pendekatan latihan yang diberi.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	5 (10%)	42 (84%)	3 (6%)
Saya mendapati program latihan yang saya jalani memberi kesan yang positif kepada saya.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	8 (16%)	39 (78%)	2 (4%)
Tahap kesedaran diri saya semakin meningkat setelah mengikuti program latihan.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (16%)	38 (76%)	4 (8%)
Keseluruhan pengurusan kursus amat memuaskan.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	6 (12%)	40 (80%)	3 (6%)

Jadual 4.9: Taburan Kekerapan Tahap Persetujuan Responden Dari Aspek Pengetahuan

KENYATAAN	SGT TIDAK SETUJU (STS) (%)	TIDAK SETUJU (TS) (%)	KURANG SETUJU (KS) (%)	SETUJU (S) (%)	SANGAT SETUJU (SS) (%)
Kursus yang diikuti banyak memberikan pengetahuan baru kepada saya.	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	5 (10%)	34 (68%)	9 (18%)
Selepas kursus saya mempunyai pengetahuan yang mendalam tentang bidang tugas.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	6 (12%)	37 (74%)	6 (12%)
Kursus membantu saya dalam membuat perancangan kerja dari semasa ke semasa.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	6 (12%)	36 (72%)	8 (16%)
Maklumat yang diperolehi daripada kursus mencukupi untuk melaksanakan tugas	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	8 (16%)	35 (70%)	5 (10%)

Jadual 4.10: Taburan Kekerasan Tahap Persestujuan Responden Dari Aspek Tahap Kemahiran

KENYATAAN	SGT TIDAK SETUJU (STS)	TIDAK SETUJU (TS)	KURANG SETUJU (KS)	SETUJU (S)	SANGAT SETUJU (SS)
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Kursus secara teori membantu saya melakukan tugas dengan cekap dan berkesan.	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	9 (18%)	24 (68%)	5 (10%)
Kursus memberi saya peluang membuat keputusan bagi menyelesaikan tugas.	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	7 (14%)	37 (74%)	5 (10%)
Kursus meningkatkan kemahiran kerja saya secara berkumpulan.	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	1 (2%)	41 (82%)	6 (12%)
Kursus membolehkan saya berinteraksi dan berkomunikasi dengan baik apabila berhadapan dengan orang ramai	0 (0%)	3 (6%)	4 (8%)	39 (78%)	4 (8%)
Saya bersedia menerima arahan dan kritikan membina berhadapan dengan penyelia.	0 (0%)	3 (0%)	5 (10%)	41 (82%)	4 (8%)
Saya bersedia menerima arahan dan kritikan membina berhadapan dengan penyelia.	0 (0%)	3 (0%)	5 (10%)	41 (82%)	4 (8%)

6. Perbincangan

Secara keseluruhannya dapatan kajian ini selaras dengan kajian David Jesudan (1996) mengenai keberkesanan program latihan di bahagian pengeluaran di kilang Goodyear (Malaysia) yang mendapati bahawa program latihan tersebut telah memberikan peluang kepada pekerja untuk meningkatkan pengetahuan, kemahiran dan kebolehan dalam segala bidang pekerjaan.

Dapatan kajian ini juga selaras dengan kajian Choong (1994) yang bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti keberkesanan program latihan dari aspek reaksi, pembelajaran dan kemahiran peserta. Dapatan kajian beliau menunjukkan bahawa para peserta (responden) telah memberikan reaksi yang positif dan berjaya meningkatkan tahap kemahiran mereka.

Dapatan kajian turut menunjukkan bahawa penilaian keberkesanan latihan dengan menggunakan pendekatan Kirkpatrick adalah sesuai dan baik dimana ianya dapat memberikan penilaian program latihan secara keseluruhannya yang merangkumi tahap reaksi, pengetahuan, kemahiran, dan tingkahlaku. Oleh itu, hasil kajian ini adalah selaras dengan kajian Ahamd Al-Athari dan Mohamed Zairi (2002) yang mendapati Model Kirkpatrick merupakan model penilaian yang paling biasa digunakan untuk menilai keberkesanan program latihan.

7. Cadangan

Pihak Pengurusan Bahagian Sumber Manusia dan Bahagian Ekonomi perlu menjadikan program latihan yang diadakan sebagai satu panduan dalam usaha melahirkan pekerja-pekerja yang mempunyai tahap kompetensi yang tinggi bagi mencapai matlamat organisasi.

Sentiasa mengadakan pemantauan secara berterusan dari semasa ke semasa untuk memastikan setiap pekerja menjadikan pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang dipelajarinya dari program latihan sebagai satu etika kerja yang berterusan. Jawatankuasa unit latihan yang dibentuk boleh memainkan peranan untuk melakukan pemantauan tersebut disamping penguatkuasaan peraturan berkaitan pengaplikasian latihan di tempat kerja sebenar boleh membantu menjayakan proses pemantauan. Pihak pengurusan perlu menyediakan peruntukan yang secukupnya untuk pelaksanaan program latihan supaya dapat dijayakan dengan sempurna. Kejayaan pelaksanaan program latihan tersebut dapat meningkatkan penerimaan pekerja terhadap kepentingan latihan serta membantu meningkatkan prestasi kerja masing-masing.

Pihak pengurusan juga hendaklah memberikan sokongan sepenuhnya terhadap sebarang program latihan yang ingin dijalankan supaya para pekerja yakin terhadap kepentingan latihan tersebut. Ini akan mendorong mereka supaya lebih berminat dan bersedia untuk menghadiri program latihan yang akan dijalankan.

8. Kesimpulan

Melalui kajian yang telah dijalankan di Bahagian Ekonomi, BERNAMA, Jalan Tun Razak, Kuala Lumpur, pengkaji mendapati bahawa program latihan yang pernah diadakan di BERNAMA terutamanya di Bahagian Ekonomi telah dapat dilaksanakan dengan berkesan. Selaras dengan itu, dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa persekitaran kerja yang kondusif dapat membantu semua pihak terutama para pekerja bagi mencapai matlamat organisasi.

Secara keseluruhannya, pelaksanaan program latihan di Bahagian Ekonomi, BERNAMA, Jalan Tun Razak adalah memuaskan. Didapati keempat-empat tahap yang berkaitan dengan penilaian keberkesanan latihan, iaitu reaksi, pengetahuan, kemahiran dan tingkahlaku adalah tinggi. Di samping itu juga, ketiga-tiga faktor iaitu jurulatih, persekitaran dan teknik latihan turut menyumbang ke arah keberkesanan program latihan ini. Oleh yang demikian, dapatan kajian telah memenuhi matlamat dan objektif-objektif yang ingin dicapai.

9 Rujukan

- Alex K.B Yong. (1996). "Malaysian Human Resource." Kuala Lumpur: Institut Pengurusan Malaysia.
- Bass B.M And Voughn J.A.(1996). "Training In Industry." The Management of Learning.The University Of Rochester.
- Buckley R. Dan Caple J. (1992). : The Theory And Practice Of Training: 2nd Edition." Great Britain Kogan Page Limited.
- Cascio.W.F (1987). "Costing Human Resource the Financial Impact of Behaviour in Organization."Boston: Pws. Kent.
- David, Jb And Darrell, KR (1992). "The Training Evaluation Process." USA : Klumber Academic Publishers.
- Dessler.G. (1997). "Human Resource Management : Seven Edition." Prentice – Hall International. Inc.
- Goldstein, I.L. (1993). "Training In Organization: Need Assessment, Development and Evaluation." California: Brooks, Ide Publishing Company.
- How, Tan Kwang. (1995). "Training and Development Human Resource." Kuala Lumpur : Times, Federal Publication, Sdn.Bhd.
- Ibrahim Mamat (1996). "Rekabentuk dan Pengurusan Latihan." Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- "Kamus Dewan." (2003). Edisi Ketiga. Kuala Lumpur : Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Barriers and Drivers of E-learning Sustainability in Nigerian Universities: A Review

AU Alkali¹, Nur Naha Abu Mansoor¹, Bello Sabo² and A I Chikaji¹

¹ Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor Bahru

² Department of Business Administration, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria

Abstract This paper discusses e-learning in Nigerian universities with the purpose of making a case for its sustainable practice. To do that, a literature review of studies on e-learning in Nigerian universities was carried out. The study used articles in peer-review journals from electronic databases and other articles from the Google. Computers/laptops, mobile phones, CD-ROM/DVD, e-mails, electronic databases, e-books, and the internet were discovered to be the major technologies used for e-learning while epileptic power supply, inadequate ICT facilities, low funding, shortage of skilled manpower, and slow access to internet constitute the major barriers. It was revealed that continual use of up-to-date e-learning technologies and contents, quality improvement, cost-effectiveness, satisfaction, and adequate funding are the main e-learning sustainability drivers in Nigerian universities. Recommendations were made based on the review findings.

Keywords: e-learning, sustainability, e-learning barriers, e-learning drivers, Nigeria, universities

1. Introduction

The unprecedented development in information and communication technology (ICT) have affected every sector of the global economy. Education sector is one of those sectors that have impressively benefited from ICT. Universities have extended the horizons of teaching and learning beyond the traditional classroom through e-learning. We refer to e-learning in this paper as any activity that involve the use of information and communications technology (ICT) in facilitating teaching and learning. E-learning systems in the past few years have grown dramatically and became an effective and time saving approach to learning (Babu, Kulkarni, & Sekaran, 2014; Hogo, 2010). Thus, many universities world over are investing substantial resources in e-learning systems to support teaching and learning (Islam, 2012).

Nigeria universities in today's knowledge based economy, where education sector is persistently adjusting to external drivers, like technology and quality standards, they require effective ICT facilities among other important factors. Studies have reported that through e-learning, universities have created an effective modality of learning that is flexible, interactive, personalized, adaptive, convenient, and cost-effective (Gunn, 2010; Ibrahim & Al-Shara, 2007; M. Kamba, 2009; Ma & Yuen, 2011; Shaidullin, Safiullin, Gafurov, & Safiullin, 2014). However, similar e-learning initiatives in other universities have failed soon after commencement (Oliver, 2005; Stepanyan, Littlejohn, & Margaryan, 2013) due to problems of quality, copyright restrictions, barriers to information and knowledge sharing, embedding pedagogical strategies, lack of value-added partnerships and capacity building (Demirkan, Goul, & Gros, 2010; Gunga & Ricketts, 2007; Jenkins, Browne, Walker, & Hewitt, 2011; van Dam-Mieras, Leal Filho, & Schwarz, 2008) among others which necessitate the need to determine how e-learning initiatives can be sustainable.

Although the practice of e-learning in Nigerian universities is still at the growth stage, appreciable efforts of government in formulation of related policies (Aremu & Adediran, 2011), establishment of agencies like: the Education Trust Fund, National Information Technology Development Agency, National Virtual Library Project, etc., were aimed at facilitating ICT development in the universities. Likewise, adoption and use of technology

among academics in their instructional and other research activities is on the increase. (Okon E. Ani, Edem, & Ottong, 2010; Atunde Alao & Lanre Folorunsho, 2008; Erah & Dairo, 2008; Olanike, 2010; W. M. Olatokun & Mala, 2006). Furthermore, Nigerian Research and Education Network (NgREN) established in 2014, has already connected 27 federal universities in its first phase (NUC, 2014).

Despite this progress, challenges of government interference and bureaucratic bottlenecks of the agencies mentioned above, which apparently limit the ideal diffusion of ICT solutions (Eze et al., 2011), Nigerian universities have to operate in an environment characterized by other challenges discussed under 3.4 of this study. Such challenges oppose the ideal virtual educational system driven by infrastructure of hardware and software, professional competency, culture, and financial support (Behroozi, Fadaiyan, Behroozi, & Kamkar, 2014).

1.1 Need for the study

Nigerian universities are more than ever before in need of effective ways to increase access at lower costs without compromising quality. Inadequate space to enroll millions of qualified Nigerian students into the universities remains one of the most critical problems of education. The falling crude oil prices which have negatively affected the country's revenue. Although the universities drive towards e-learning integration could likely be undermined by the dwindling government revenue, e-learning still remains a viable option.

While sustainability of e-learning resources and systems remain an area of great concern for both users and providers of e-learning (Weibel et al., 2009), Nigerian universities need to have comprehensive understanding base of sustainable e-learning practice, its inherent benefits and limitations. One way to provide such evidence is to carry out a review of current understanding of the concept in the extant literature, particularly those relating to Nigerian context. As it is now, no particular study has articulated the above in Nigerian context is available in the literature. Therefore, to bridge this gap, this study will provide a review on:

1. The e-learning technologies used in Nigerian universities
2. The barriers of e-learning in Nigerian universities, and
3. The drivers of e-learning sustainability in Nigerian universities

2. Methodology

This review is based on articles obtained from online databases accessible to the researcher through the **Perpustakaan Sultanah Zanariah Library**, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) via EZproxy and Google Scholar as at the time of the review. The articles used reviewed were obtained from electronic databases which include: Emerald, JSTOR, OECD iLibrary, ProQuest, ScienceDirect, Scopus, Taylor & Francis Online, Web of Science and Wiley Online Library. In addition, relevant articles from the Google Scholar were also included in the review. Articles published from 2004 to 2015 that specifically focused on sustainability of e-learning in Nigerian context were used while priority was given to peer-review journal articles that discussed issues relating to sustainable e-learning practice in Nigerian universities. The results obtained from the initial search were filtered using keywords relating to e-learning sustainability themes as given by Stepanyan et al. (2013). The keywords are: "student achievement", "cost-effectiveness", "efficiency gains", "economies of scale", "skill acquisition", "reusable learning resources", "retention rates", "change management" and "personal development"

3. Results and Findings

In this section, the results and findings of the review are presented.

3.1 E-learning Sustainability

Sustainability, according to Brundtland (1987), is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs. In educational field, sustainability is seen from two perspectives; sustainability of education and education for sustainability. Education for sustainability emphasis on the environmental aspect of sustainability through educationally driven solutions (Bourn, Shiel, Bourn, & Shiel, 2009) while sustainability of education dwells on using effective sustainable practice through leadership, innovation, and educational development, (Davies & West-Burnham, 2003). In this review, we focus on e-learning sustainability as part of sustainable education.

E-learning sustainability has no one generally accepted definition. E-learning sustainability simply means e-learning practice that evidently addresses current educational needs and accommodates continuous adaptation to change, without outrunning its resource base or receding in effectiveness (Stepanyan, Littlejohn, & Margaryan, 2010). Similarly, Robertson (2008), opines that sustainable e-learning has become normative in catering for the needs of the present and future.

Studies have identified factors driving e-learning sustainability in universities to include; cost and value of using technology (Molenda, 2009; Ramage, 2005); gaining continuous advantages (Joyes & Banks, 2009); educational quality (Bates, 2005); ability to offer programmes on a continuous basis (Arneberg et al., 2007; Gunga & Ricketts, 2007); and sound policies and practices that emphasises financial viability of e-learning (Meyer, Bruwelheide, & Poulin, 2006). On the other hand, factors such as quality, managing learning object repository (LOR), barriers to sharing information and knowledge, copyright restrictions, version control and support from LMS to embed more pedagogical strategies, challenge of developing and nurturing value-added partnerships and capacity building to empower technical users and end users (Demirkan et al., 2010; Gunga & Ricketts, 2007; van Dam-Mieras et al., 2008) are barriers towards e-learning sustainability.

3.2 E-learning practice in Nigerian universities

Presently, Nigeria with an estimated population of 160 million has a total of 129 public and private universities (NUC, 2015), only about 30% of the candidates that apply for admission can be admitted. In 2013 for instance, out of 1.7 million candidates that registered for Nigeria's centralized tertiary admissions examinations, all competing for the half million places available (Clark & Ausukuya, 2013). Unfortunately, most candidates prefer university education to vocational and technical education which serve as alternative routes to higher education in the country (FMOE, 2012). Similarly, while expansion efforts of the government have increased access, it has also created instructional quality problems as well. Other problems of the universities include: ill-equipped laboratories, inadequate ICT facilities, lack of motivation, incessant industrial strikes by academic and nonacademic staff, and inadequate training (Achimugu, Oluwagbemi, & Oluwaranti, 2010; Adomi, 2005; M. Kamba, 2009; Nwezeh, 2010; Onuka & Durowoju, 2012).

To salvage the situation, the government made some efforts to integrate technology in education. For instance, the Nigerian policy on education emphasis ICT integration (Aremu & Adediran, 2011). Also, the government promotes open and distance learning (ODL) by establishing the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) and centers for distance learning in six other universities. In addition, agencies established to facilitate ICT development in the universities include: the Education Trust Fund, National Information Technology Development Agency, National Virtual Library Project, and the Nigerian Satellite Systems Programme. Also, improvement in telecommunication services in Nigeria have improved the practice of e-learning (Olaniyi, 2006).

3.3 E-learning technologies used in Nigerian universities

E-learning began in Nigerian universities by using audio and video tapes, radio, and television (Murphy, 2002). Although, they are still in used (Adu, Eze, Salako, & Nyangechi, 2013), the major technologies used for e-learning include in Nigerian universities today include: CD-ROM, desktop computers, laptops, internet, e-books, VCD/DVD, and multimedia projectors (Achimugu et al., 2010; Adu et al., 2013; Ajadi, Salawu, & Adeoye, 2008; Akuegwu, Ntukidem, Ntukidem, & Jaja, 2011; Okon E. Ani et al., 2010; Atunde Alao & Lanre Folorunsho, 2008; Benson Adogbeji & Amina Akporhonor, 2005; Nwezeh, 2010; Olaniyi, 2006).

Interestingly also, academic researchers in Nigerian public universities have access to online databases, while many universities have intranet facilities (W. Olatokun & Utulu, 2012). Also, many students use Short Message Service (SMS) for educational purposes (Nwagwu, 2010). Similarly, majority of students use their mobile phones for e-learning related activities (Olasina, 2012). Universities also use video conferencing (Achimugu et al., 2010) while many others use Learning Management System (LMS). For example University of Jos uses Moodle as a supplement to traditional face-to-face courses (Lawal & Akintunde, 2014) while, University of Lagos and Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) use Moodle and Blackboard (Adewale & Daramola, 2013; Okiki, 2011).

3.4 Barriers of e-learning sustainability

The review have identified the following as critical barriers towards e-learning development and sustainability in the Nigerian universities:

i. Inadequate funding

In most universities funding remains inadequate, while greater part of the statutory funds allocated to the universities are used on overhead costs. This has adversely affected the full integration of technology in the universities by limiting ICT acquisition and utilization (Nwogo, 2009; Ogunsola & Aboyade, 2005; Umeagukwu & Ngozi, 2014).

ii. Inadequate electricity supply

Insufficient power supply remain one of the most critical factors impeding e-learning development in the Nigerian universities (Adomi, 2005; Agbetuyi & Oluwatayo, 2012; Onuka & Durowoju, 2012). While ICT tools function effectively with steady supply of electricity, its irregular supply makes ICT dysfunctional (Aduke, 2008).

iii. Lack of state-of-the-art ICT facilities

The inability of the universities to deploy the required ICT prevent them from exploiting the opportunities offered by the cyberspace in the area of higher education. The ratio of e-learning facilities in the universities to users is low to create significant impact. Umeagukwu and Ngozi (2014) reported that the basic required software for practical works are mostly not available and where they exist, they are not accessible because of the low ratio.

iv. Low internet connectivity

While the universities need full internet connectivity and relevant ICT to make any meaningful impact (Ogunsola & Aboyade, 2005), internet connectivity in most Nigerian universities remains low to facilitate any significant learning activity (Aduke, 2008; Oye, Salleh, & Iahad, 2011).

v. Technical staff shortage

Shortage of technical personnel is always attributed to the internet ineffectiveness (Achimugu et al., 2010). The absence of technical staff forces the universities to rely on the private companies for maintenance of their ICT infrastructures which lack academic content as they are purely commercial (Umeagukwu & Ngozi, 2014).

vi. Low awareness on e-learning

Low awareness is part of the reasons for the e-learning's slow pace of acceptance and use in Nigerian universities (Folorunso, Ogunseye, & Sharma, 2006). While lack of awareness is responsible for the resistance of e-learning use among some academics, it can also affect access.

vii. Cost of ICT

Apart from the fact that acquiring state-of-the-art ICT infrastructures are very costly for the universities (Onuka & Durowoju, 2012), even where they exist they could not meet the high cost of maintenance as most of the ICT equipment are run on generators most of the times while technical faults have to rely on outside consultants usually at a high charges fee.

viii. Change resistance

Another barrier towards e-learning development in the Nigerian universities is the problem of change resistance. Agbatogun (2013), citing Jegede (2009), reported resistance of ICT integration in instructional activities among older academics in Nigerian universities are largely due to fear. Limited perceptions of e-learning, insufficient tools, lack of time or motivation, insufficient ICT literacy also responsible for such resistance (OECD, 2005).

ix. Pedagogy of e-learning

Pedagogy issues have not been given the desired consideration in the efforts to integrate ICT in teaching and learning in Nigerian universities. Akuegwu et al. (2011), while citing Aniebonam (2008) reported that less than 12 percent of the Nigerian academic curricula have digital content despite the fact that contemporary settings now favour curricula that promote competency and performance which require appropriate use of ICTs (Adesote & Fatoki, 2013).

x. Policy formulation and implementation

Past efforts of the government to fund e-policy targeting the enhancement of e-learning facilities in higher institutions in Nigeria were not sustained, and that slowed down its further development (Oye, Salleh, & A Iahad, 2010). Policy backing is required for e-learning initiatives to continuously get the required attention and the necessary support from the universities.

According to Andersson and Grönlund (2009), e-learning challenges can be grouped into four categories as given below:

1. *Course challenges*: Research concerned with content, design and delivery of courses;
2. Challenges pertinent to *individuals' characteristics*, students as well as teachers;
3. *Technological challenges*: Research concerned with infrastructure, costs, usability and appropriateness of technology;
4. *Contextual challenges*: Research concerned with organisational, cultural and societal challenges.

Based on the categories above, e-learning barriers in Nigerian universities have been summarized with the relevant sources are presented table 1.1.

Table 1 – Barriers of e-learning in Nigerian universities and references

Barriers	Sources
Course Challenges	
<i>Pedagogy of e-learning</i> (low ICT content in the curriculum of the universities)	(Agbatogun, 2013; Akuegwu et al., 2011; Kwache, 2007; Nkechinyere, 2011; Nneka Eke, 2010)
<i>Policy</i> (lack of strong policy to back e-learning initiatives so as to be sure of getting the require support needed from the universities)	(Agyeman, 2007; M. A. Kamba, 2010; Oye et al., 2010).
Challenges pertinent to individual characteristics	
<i>Shortage of skilled manpower</i> (existence of few technical personnel to sustain the current and future e-learning practice in the Nigerian universities)	(A Iahad, 2011; Achimugu et al., 2010; Aduke, 2008; Ajadi et al., 2008; Kwache, 2007; Ngozi Anasi & Ali, 2014; Nwezeh, 2010)
<i>Change Resistance</i> (the resistance by some academic staff to integrate ICT in their teaching activities or students in their learning activities)	(Achimugu et al., 2010; Archibong, Ogbiji, & Anijaobi-Idem, 2010; Jegede, 2009; Nkechinyere, 2011)
Technological challenges	
<i>Incessant Power Supply</i> (Epileptic supply of electricity needed for e-learning use)	(Adeyemi, 2011; Adomi, 2005; Agbetuyi & Oluwatayo, 2012; Agyeman, 2007; Ajadi et al., 2008; Bankole, 2013; Oye et al., 2011)
<i>Inadequate ITC facilities</i> (Lack of required up-to-date hardware and software for e-learning use)	(Agbetuyi & Oluwatayo, 2012; Aramide & Bolarinwa, 2010; Lawal & Akintunde, 2014; Onuka & Durowaju, 2012)
<i>Low bandwidth/slow access speed/slow network connections</i> (inability to subscribe to high internet bandwidth which makes it difficult to support any meaningful learning activity)	(Aduke, 2008; Bankole, 2013; Lawal, Akintunde, & O'Connor, 2014; Oye et al., 2011; Oyelaran-Oyeyinka & Adeya, 2004)
<i>Cost of ICT facilities</i> (high cost of procurement and maintenance of ICT facilities in the universities)	(Ajadi et al., 2008; Aminu & Rahaman, 2014; Folorunso et al., 2006; Iwhiwhu, 2005; Umeagukwu & Ngozi, 2014)
Contextual challenges	
<i>Policy</i> (lack of strong policy to back e-learning initiatives so as to be sure of getting the require support needed from the universities)	(Agyeman, 2007; M. A. Kamba, 2010; Oye et al., 2010)
<i>Low awareness</i> (lack of proper awareness creation to unveil the benefits of e-learning to potential users)	(Okon E Ani, 2010; Folorunso & Akinwale, 2010; Folorunso et al., 2006; Ojeaga & Igbinedion, 2012)

3.5 Drivers of e-learning in Nigerian universities

Although, there is a general dearth in literature on e-learning sustainability, very few articles discussed aspects of sustainable e-learning in Nigerian context. Based on this review, the factors below have been identified as drivers of e-learning sustainability in Nigerian universities.

Ensuring continuous funding – sustainable integration of ICT in education and e-learning initiatives depends on the availability of funding and other resources like infrastructures at the disposal of the universities (Adeosun, 2010; Aminu & Rahaman, 2014; M. Kamba, 2009). Folorunso et al. (2006) have advocated that such adequate funding in the universities might be from the government, private or any other concerned bodies.

Being cost-effective – cost is an important factor for e-learning as it determines the type of ICT infrastructure a university acquires for its e-learning initiative and its sustainability. Cost-effectiveness has remain one of the important benefits of e-learning (M. Kamba, 2009). Being cost-effective, means that e-learning will enable the achievement of individual educational objectives at affordable costs and economy of scale as unit cost per learner in the university drops.

Quality assurance – integration of internet and multimedia technologies in learning improves quality of learning (M. Kamba, 2009). System quality, information quality, service quality, internet self-efficacy determine users’ satisfaction which is a prerequisite for intention to continue using e-learning systems (W. M. Olatokun & Mala, 2006) which further affects sustainability of the e-learning initiative.

Using state-of-the-art e-learning technologies and contents – success of e-learning depends largely on the university’s ability to provide state-of-the-art facilities and the environment required for e-learning. Not only should the universities provide the necessary e-learning tools, but should be familiar with the basic required technologies and them available for sustainable e-learning (Ibezim, 2013).

Building collaborations/partnerships- By bringing in private sector, the universities can sustain their e-learning initiatives through donations of e-learning resources and or funding. According to Olanike (2010), collaboration among higher institutions and professionals could help in developing e-learning initiatives. Likewise, e-learning networks could provide alternative strategies for cost sharing and for leveraging access to educational services (Ahmed & Nwagwu, 2006).

Managing change - Creating sustainability means making long-term commitment to continuous response to the dynamics of the ever changing learning environment. To ensure sustainability and maximum learning outcomes, there is need for capacity building and proper coordination of efforts in the universities (Ekundayo & Ekundayo, 2009; Ogbulogo, George, & Olukanni, 2014).

Creating long lasting satisfaction through positive e-learning outcomes – For e-learning to be sustainable, it should have the potentials of facilitating students’ achievement, high retention rates, effective skills acquisition, and personal development on the side of the learner and the needs and concerns of other stakeholders (Jethro, Grace, & Thomas, 2012).

4. Discussion and Conclusion

This section of the study outlines the number major observations arising from the review.

First, it was established through e-learning, access barrier have been reduced, cost-effectiveness increased and quality improved in the universities. Although quite a number of universities around the world have succeeded in their e-learning initiatives, many others have failed. This therefore implies that e-learning initiative if adequately handled, can improve access and quality in Nigerian university education.

Secondly, the practice of e-learning in Nigerian universities is still growing but some appreciable efforts in using technology has been made. The government on its part, is playing a key role in ICT policy formulation, establishment of relevant agencies like the Education Trust Fund, National Information Technology Development Agency, etc. and funding. For instance, the government has increased its funding to universities from N234.8 billion in 2010 to N495.2 billion in 2014 (NUC, 2014). This portrays a good prospect for e-learning development in the universities.

Thirdly, the major technologies used for e-learning purposes in Nigerian universities include: audio and video tapes, radio and television, CD-ROM, VCD/DVD, desktop computers, laptops, internet, e-books, multimedia projectors, online databases. The use of these technologies suggests that e-learning is no longer foreign to Nigerian universities and the level of acceptance is growing.

Fourthly, A part from the government interference and bureaucratic bottlenecks which apparently limit the ideal diffusion of ICT solutions (Eze et al., 2011), other major barriers of e-learning include: inadequate funds, low electricity supply, inadequate ICT facilities, low internet connectivity, lack of technical staff, and lack of strong e-learning policies. Such challenges oppose the ideal virtual educational system which is influenced and improved through factors such as infrastructure of hardware and software, professional competency, culture body, and financial support (Behroozi et al., 2014).

Lastly, e-learning initiatives can be sustainable through continuous funding, cost-effectiveness, building quality assurance, using state-of-the-art e-learning technologies and contents, building collaborations/partnerships, managing change, and creating long lasting satisfaction through positive e-learning outcomes. The ability of the universities to create environment that will nurture and ensure the existence of these drivers determines will determine the sustainability of their e-learning initiatives.

5. Recommendation

Based on the findings and the conclusions drawn in this study, the following recommendations are hereby proffered:

- i. Nigerian universities should invest in awareness creation on the benefits of e-learning and capacity building to boost technology and pedagogical skills.
- ii. The universities should exploit additional sources of funds and reducing costs through accessing reusable learning materials, sponsorship and funding by creating value-added collaborations and partnerships.
- iii. Universities should use alternative sources of power supply like solar and wind energies.
- iv. There is need to carry out empirical studies on the drivers of e-learning sustainability in Nigerian universities.

6. References

- A Iahad, N. (2011). A model of ICT acceptance and use for teachers in higher education institutions. *International Journal of Computer Science & Communication Networks*, 1(1), 22-40.
- Achimugu, P., Oluwagbemi, O., & Oluwaranti, A. (2010). An evaluation of the impact of ICT diffusion in Nigeria's higher educational institutions. *Journal of Information Technology Impact*, 10(1), 25-34.
- Adeosun, O. (2010). Quality basic education development in Nigeria: Imperative for use of ICT. *Journal of International Cooperation in education*, 13(2), 193-211.
- Adesote, S., & Fatoki, O. (2013). The role of ICT in the teaching and learning of history in the 21 st century. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 8(21), 2155-2159.
- Adewale, T. O., & Daramola, C. F. (2013). *E-Learning in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria Distance Learning Centre: An Evaluation of Opportunities and Challenges*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on e-Learning: ICEL 2013.
- Adeyemi, T. (2011). Impact of information and communication technology (ICT) on the effective management of universities in South-West Nigeria. *Am. J. Soc. Mgmt. Sci*, 2(3), 248-257.
- Adomi, E. E. (2005). Internet development and connectivity in Nigeria. *Program*, 39(3), 257-268. doi: doi:10.1108/00330330510610591
- Adu, E., Eze, I., Salako, E., & Nyangechi, J. (2013). E-learning and distance education in Nigeria. *International Journal of Science and Technology*, 2(2), 203-210.
- Aduke, A. F. (2008). Usage and Challenges of Information Communication Technology (ICT) in teaching and learning in Nigerian Universities. *Asian Journal of Information Technology*, 7(7), 290-295.
- Agbatogun, A. O. (2013). Interactive digital technologies' use in Southwest Nigerian universities. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 61(2), 333-357.
- Agbetuyi, P., & Oluwatayo, J. (2012). Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Nigerian Educational System. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3).
- Agyeman, O. T. (2007). ICT for Education in Nigeria. *Survey of ICT and education in Africa: Nigeria Country Report.–June*.
- Ahmed, A., & Nwagwu, W. E. (2006). Challenges and opportunities of e-learning networks in Africa. *Development*, 49(2), 86-92.
- Ajadi, T. O., Salawu, I. O., & Adeoye, F. A. (2008). E-Learning and Distance Education in Nigeria. *Online Submission*, 7(4).
- Akuegwu, B., Ntukidem, E., Ntukidem, P., & Jaja, G. (2011). Information and communications technology (ICT) facilities utilization for quality instructional service delivery among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Review of Higher Education in Africa*, 3(1).
- Aminu, H., & Rahaman, S. (2014). Barriers Thrusting e-learning to the Backseat: Nigeria a Case Study. *International Journal of Information Processing & Management*, 5(4).
- Andersson, A. S., & Grönlund, Å. (2009). A conceptual framework for e-learning in developing countries: A critical review of research challenges. *The Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries*, 38.
- Ani, O. E. (2010). Internet access and use: A study of undergraduate students in three Nigerian universities. *The Electronic Library*, 28(4), 555-567.
- Ani, O. E., Edem, M. B., & Ottong, E. J. (2010). Analysis of internet access and use by academic staff in the University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria. *Library Management*, 31(7), 535-545. doi: doi:10.1108/01435121011071229
- Aramide, K. A., & Bolarinwa, O. M. (2010). Availability and use of audiovisual and electronic resources by Distance Learning Students in Nigerian Universities: A case study of National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), Ibadan Study Centre.
- Archibong, I. A., Ogbiji, J., & Anijaobi-Idem, F. (2010). ICT competence among academic staff in universities in Cross Rivers State, Nigeria. *Computer and Information Science*, 3(4), p109.
- Aremu, A., & Adediran, E. M. (2011). Teacher Readiness to Integrate Information Technology into Teaching and Learning Processes in Nigerian Secondary Schools: A Case Study. *African Research Review*, 5(4).
- Arneberg, P., Guardia, L., Keegan, D., Lössenko, J., Mázár, I., Michels, P., & Rekkedal, T. (2007). *Analyses of European Megaproviders of E-learning*. Bekkestua, Norway: NKI Publishing House.
- Atunde Alao, I., & Lanre Folorunsho, A. (2008). The use of cybercafés in Ilorin, Nigeria. *The Electronic Library*, 26(2), 238-248.

- Babu, S. R., Kulkarni, K. G., & Sekaran, K. C. (2014). *A generic agent based cloud computing architecture for e-learning*. Paper presented at the ICT and Critical Infrastructure: Proceedings of the 48th Annual Convention of Computer Society of India-Vol I.
- Bankole, O. M. (2013). The use of internet services and resources by scientists at Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago Iwoye, Nigeria. *Program*, 47(1), 15-33. doi: doi:10.1108/00330331211296295
- Bates, A. T. (2005). *Technology, e-learning and distance education*: Routledge.
- Behroozi, M., Fadaiyan, B., Behroozi, S., & Kamkar, A. (2014). Effective Factors in Qualifying the Virtual Educational System: An Empirical Study in Higher Education. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 143, 260-264.
- Benson Adogbeji, O., & Amina Akporhonor, B. (2005). The Impact of ICT (Internet) on Research and Studies: The Experience of Delta State University Students in Abraka, Nigeria. *Library Hi Tech News*, 22(10), 17-21. doi: doi:10.1108/07419050510644347
- Bourn, D., Shiel, C., Bourn, D., & Shiel, C. (2009). Global Perspectives : aligning agendas? *Environmental Education Research*, 15(6), 661-677. doi: 10.1080/13504620903244167
- Brundtland, G. H. (1987). *Report of the World Commission on environment and development: " our common future."*: United Nations.
- Clark, N., & Ausukuya, C. (2013). Education in Nigeria. Retrieved 24/02/2015, 2015, from <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/07/an-overview-of-education-in-nigeria/>
- Davies, B., & West-Burnham, J. (2003). *Handbook of educational leadership and management: Financial Times Management*. London, UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Demirkan, H., Goul, M., & Gros, M. (2010). A Reference Model for Sustainable E-Learning Service Systems: Experiences with the Joint University/Teradata Consortium. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education*, 8(1), 151-189.
- Ekundayo, M. S., & Ekundayo, J. M. (2009). Capacity constraints in developing countries: A need for more e-learning space? The case of Nigeria. *Proceeding ascilite Auckland*.
- Erah, P. O., & Dairo, E. A. (2008). Pharmacy students perception of the application of learning management system in patient-oriented pharmacy education: University of Benin experience. *International Journal of Health Research*, 1(2), 63-72.
- Eze, S. C., Okoye, J. C., Nebo, O. G., Ohakwe, S. N., Chukwuemeka, E., & Anazodo, R. (2011). Using the Characteristics of Small Business Managers to Understand Information Technology (IT) Adoption in Nigeria. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(13), 82-90.
- FMOE. (2012). 4-Year Strategic Plan for the Development of Education Sector: 2011-2015.
- Folorunso, O., & Akinwale, A. (2010). Developing visualization support system for teaching/learning database normalization. *Campus-Wide Information Systems*, 27(1), 25-39. doi: doi:10.1108/10650741011011264
- Folorunso, O., Ogunseye, O. S., & Sharma, S. K. (2006). An exploratory study of the critical factors affecting the acceptability of e-learning in Nigerian universities. *Information management & computer security*, 14(5), 496-505.
- Gunga, S. O., & Ricketts, I. W. (2007). Facing the challenges of e-learning initiatives in African universities. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 38(5), 896-906. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8535.2006.00677.x
- Gunn, C. (2010). Sustainability factors for e-learning initiatives. *Research in Learning Technology*, 18(2).
- Hogo, M. A. (2010). Evaluation of e-learning systems based on fuzzy clustering models and statistical tools. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 37(10), 6891-6903. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2010.03.032>
- Ibezim, N. (2013). Technologies Needed for Sustainable E-Learning in University Education. *Modern Economy*, 2013.
- Ibrahim, M., & Al-Shara, O. (2007). Impact of interactive learning on knowledge retention *Human Interface and the Management of Information. Interacting in Information Environments* (pp. 347-355): Springer.
- Islam, A. (2012). The Role of Perceived System Quality as Educators' Motivation to Continue E-learning System Use. *AIS Transactions on Human-Computer Interaction*, 4(1), 25-43.
- Iwhiwhu, E. B. (2005). Management of records in Nigerian universities: problems and prospects. *Electronic Library, The*, 23(3), 345-355.
- Jegede, P. O. (2009). Age and ICT-related behaviours of higher education teachers in Nigeria. *Issues in Informing Science and Information Technology*, 6, 770-777.
- Jenkins, M., Browne, T., Walker, R., & Hewitt, R. (2011). The development of technology enhanced learning: findings from a 2008 survey of UK higher education institutions. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 19(5), 447-465.

- Jethro, O. O., Grace, A. M., & Thomas, A. K. (2012). E-Learning and its effects on teaching and learning in a global age. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(1), 203-210.
- Joyes, G., & Banks, S. (2009). *Achieving sustainability through project-based research*. Paper presented at the HEFC FDTL Conference paper, HE Academy EvidenceNet.
- Kamba, M. (2009). Problems, challenges and benefits of implementing e-learning in Nigerian universities: An empirical study. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, 4(1).
- Kamba, M. A. (2010). Implication of ICT's in libraries of higher education institutes: A panacea catapulting library development in Africa. *DESIDOC Journal of Library & Information Technology*, 31(1).
- Kwache, P. (2007). The imperatives of information and communication technology for teachers in Nigeria higher education. *Merlot Journal of Online Learning and Teaching* 3 (4), 395, 399.
- Lawal, V., & Akintunde, S. (2014). E-learning and information literacy at the University of Jos. *Library Management*, 35(8/9), 607-628. doi: doi:10.1108/LM-07-2013-0062
- Lawal, V., Akintunde, S., & O'Connor, S. (2014). E-learning and information literacy at the University of Jos. *Library Management*, 35(8/9), null. doi: doi:10.1108/LM-07-2013-0062
- Ma, W., & Yuen, A. (2011). E-learning system acceptance and usage pattern *Technology Acceptance in Education* (pp. 201-216): Springer.
- Meyer, K., Bruwelheide, J., & Poulin, R. (2006). Principles of sustainability. Retrieved May, 19, 2010.
- Molenda, M. (2009). Instructional technology must contribute to productivity. *Journal of computing in Higher Education*, 21(1), 80-94.
- Murphy, P. (2002). *Enhancing learning opportunities in Africa: Distance education and information and communication technologies for learning: Africa Region*, the World Bank.
- Ngozi Anasi, S., & Ali, H. (2014). Academic librarians' perceptions of the benefits and challenges of adopting e-learning for continuing professional development in Lagos state, Nigeria. *New Library World*, 115(7/8), 340-354. doi: doi:10.1108/NLW-01-2014-0016
- Nkechinyere, A. M. (2011). Supporting Learning in the Digital Age: E-Learning Strategies for NOUN (National Open University of Nigeria). *Online Submission*.
- Nneka Eke, H. (2010). The perspective of e-learning and libraries in Africa: challenges and opportunities. *Library Review*, 59(4), 274-290. doi: doi:10.1108/00242531011038587
- NUC. (2014). Monday Bulletin. In N. National University Commission (Ed.): NUC.
- NUC. (2015). List of Approved Universities in Nigeria. In N. National University Commission (Ed.), *Monday Bulletin* (Vol. No. 6). Abuja: NUC.
- Nwagwu, W. E. (2010). Educational communication uses short messaging services by students in Nigerian universities. *World Journal of Science, Technology and Sustainable Development*, 7(4), 335-355. doi: doi:10.1108/20425945201000021
- Nwezeh, C. M. (2010). The impact of internet use on teaching, learning and research activities in Nigerian universities: a case study of Obafemi Awolowo University. *Electronic Library, The*, 28(5), 688-701.
- Nwogo, E. (2009). Digitizing projects in developing countries: the case of the University of Nigeria. *Library Hi Tech News*, 26(5/6), 14-15. doi: doi:10.1108/07419050910985273
- OECD. (2005). E-learning in Tertiary Education *Policy Brief*.
- Ogbulogo, C. U., George, T. O., & Olukanni, D. O. (2014). *Teaching Aids, Quality Delivery, and Effective Learning Outcomes in a Nigerian Private University*. Paper presented at the Oral Presentation at the 6th International Conference on Education and New Learning Technologies Barcelona, Spain, 7th-9th of July.
- Ogunsola, L., & Aboyade, W. (2005). Information and communication technology in Nigeria: Revolution or evolution. *Journal of Social science*, 11(1), 7-14.
- Ojeaga, I., & Igbiniedion, V. (2012). Potentials of E-learning as a Study Tool in Business Education in Nigerian Schools. *International Education Studies*, 5(5), p218.
- Okiki, C. O. (2011). Information communication technology support for an elearning environment at the university of lagos, Nigeria.
- Olanike, A. (2010). *E-education in Nigeria: Students' state of readiness for e learning at the University of Lagos*. Paper presented at the Information Society (i-Society), 2010 International Conference on.
- Olaniyi, S. (2006). *E-learning technology: The Nigeria experience*. Paper presented at the Shaping the Change: XXIII FIG Congress, Munich, Germany.
- Olasina, G. (2012). Student's e-Learning/m-Learning Experiences and Impact on Motivation in Nigeria.
- Olatokun, W., & Utulu, S. (2012). Internationalization of information science education in Nigeria: A review of attempts by the Africa Regional Centre for Information Science. *IFLA Journal*, 38(2), 166-174. doi: 10.1177/0340035212444515

- Olatokun, W. M., & Mala, A. (2006). Assessing Students' Satisfaction With an E-Learning System: The Case Of National Open University Of Nigeria. *IEEE Afr J Comp & ICTs - Special Issue on ICTs in the African Environment, Vol. 5. No. 4 (2)*.
- Oliver, R. (2005). Quality assurance and e-learning: blue skies and pragmatism. *Research in Learning Technology, 13(3)*.
- Onuka, A. O., & Durowoju, E. O. (2012). Managing Perceived Challenges of E-Learning in Nigerian Higher Education. *IAMURE International Journal of Education, 4(1)*.
- Oye, N., Salleh, M., & A Iahad, N. (2010). Holistic E-learning in Nigerian higher education institutions. *Journal of Computing, 2(11)*, 20-26.
- Oye, N., Salleh, M., & Iahad, N. (2011). Challenges of E-learning in Nigerian University Education based on the experience of developed countries. *International Journal of Managing Information Technology, 3(2)*, 39-48.
- Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, B., & Adeya, C. N. (2004). Internet access in Africa: empirical evidence from Kenya and Nigeria. *Telematics and Informatics, 21(1)*, 67-81.
- Ramage, T. (2005). A system-level comparison of cost-efficiency and return on investment related to online course delivery. *Journal of Instructional Science and Technology, 8(1)*.
- Robertson, I. (2008). *Sustainable e-learning, activity theory and professional development*. Paper presented at the Ascilite.
- Shaidullin, R. N., Safiullin, L. N., Gafurov, I. R., & Safiullin, N. Z. (2014). Blended Learning: Leading Modern Educational Technologies. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 131(0)*, 105-110. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.087>
- Stepanyan, K., Littlejohn, A., & Margaryan, A. (2010). Sustainable eLearning in a changing landscape: A scoping study (SeLScope). *York, England: UK Higher Education Academy*.
- Stepanyan, K., Littlejohn, A., & Margaryan, A. (2013). Sustainable e-Learning: Toward a Coherent Body of Knowledge. *Educational Technology & Society, 16(2)*, 91-102.
- Umeagukwu, E., & Ngozi, E. (2014). An Analysis of ICT impact on the Curricular of Major Nigerian Universities in the Last Ten Years 2003-2013. *International Journal of Science and Technology, 3(1)*.
- van Dam-Mieras, M. C. E., Leal Filho, W., & Schwarz, J. (2008). Engaging stakeholders in a sustainability context. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education, 9(4)*, 498-508. doi: [doi:10.1108/14676370810905599](https://doi.org/10.1108/14676370810905599)
- Weibel, R., Bleisch, S., Nebiker, S., Fisler, J., Grossmann, T., Niederhuber, M., . . . Hurni, L. (2009). Achieving more sustainable e-learning programs for GIScience. *Geomatica, 63(2)*, 109-118.

The Relationship of Personality and Knowledge Sharing

Saleha Hummad¹ and Khalil Md Nor²
Department of Human Resource Development
Faculty of Management
Universiti teknologi Malaysia,
831010 Skudai, Johor, Malaysia
sqazi@live.com¹, kmdnor@management.utm.my²

Abstract: The objective of this research was to study the relationship of personality traits and knowledge sharing among the management staff of a manufacturing company in Pakistan. Drawing from the previous studies, we hypothesized that four personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience) may have positive relationship with knowledge sharing. Two hundred questionnaires were distributed randomly to the members of management staff of the company. Pearson's Correlation analysis was used to test the hypotheses and Multiple Regression analysis was used to find the most influencing variable. The results of this research show that agreeableness and openness to experience have positive relationship with knowledge sharing and agreeableness has the highest influence on knowledge sharing.

Keywords: Personality traits, knowledge sharing.

1. Introduction

Among all processes of knowledge management, knowledge sharing is considered as the most essential process (Gupta and Govindrajana, 2000). The principal agent of knowledge sharing and the main source of knowledge in the organizations are the individuals (Jarvenpaa and Staples, 2001). In an organization, individuals play an important role in knowledge sharing process through collectively sharing experiences and insights to create new knowledge. To enhance firm performance, intellectual capital and competitive advantages, knowledge exchange and creativity in organizations are encouraged by knowledge sharing activities (Liebowitz, 2001).

However, there are some difficulties and barriers faced by organizations in knowledge sharing (Chennamaneni, 2006; Riege, 2005). These barriers include perceived benefits of individuals who may expect some benefits for sharing their knowledge, time consumption, intensive efforts and workloads, distrust and so on (Bock et al., 2005). To internalize knowledge sharing in organizations, not only directing knowledge sharing strategies are enough, but it is also necessary to change the attitude of organizational towards knowledge sharing (Lin, 2007). According to some researchers (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Haas and Hansen, 2005), individuals could be reluctant to share knowledge with each other and this could lead to decline of the firm's performance and the organizational members' intellectual capacity.

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: +60 (1112144326); fax: +(please specify).
E-mail address: (sqazi@live.com)

In many organizations, it is one of the challenging issues to make employees to share their experience and knowledge. Hiring talented individuals and making use of their expertise to gain organizational competitive advantage is still very important but is not enough. It is also important that people should have personality that supports knowledge sharing and collaboration. This paper attempts to study the relationship of personality traits and knowledge sharing among management staff members of a manufacturing company in Pakistan.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Knowledge Sharing

According to De et al., (2006), knowledge sharing is one of the most important processes of knowledge management, and it is closely related to competitiveness and long-run performance of an organization. Many theories have been used to support knowledge sharing research because the study of knowledge sharing is well grounded in theories (Sharratt and Usoro, 2003). Knowledge, based on organizational theory, is an important source of competitive advantage and it can create or add value to an organization, and based on communication theory, it is transferred through communication from the source to the receiver (Cummings and Teng, 2003). Based on theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour, the researchers (Lin and Lee, 2004) have shown that attitude towards knowledge sharing would influence their intention towards knowledge sharing which in turn would influence their actual knowledge sharing behaviour.

Individuals engaged in knowledge sharing provide some portion of their knowledge to others directly through communication and indirectly through mechanisms (Bock et. al, 2005). Ives (2008) viewed knowledge sharing as a human behaviour that is believed to be very important to the organizations. Knowledge sharing is conceptualized in terms of two knowledge sharing behaviours i.e., knowledge donating and knowledge collecting and two knowledge-sharing attitudes i.e., eagerness to share knowledge and willingness to share knowledge (De Vries, Hooff & Ridder, 2006).

2.2. Personality

Lefton and Brannon (2008) defined personality as a pattern of relatively permanent traits, dispositions or characteristics that give some consistency to an individual's behaviour. Personality is an individual's typical way of feeling, thinking, and acting (Allport, 1961). People tend to describe themselves and others in terms of personality characteristics or traits.

The history of psychologists' study of personality has involved numerous attempts at developing systems that would be helpful in classifying people by their personalities (Gibby & Zickar, 2008). Personality research has experienced immense attention and scientific integration in the last two decades (Funder, 2001). This progress in the study of personality is vast mostly due to the development of the "Five-Factor Model (FFM)" or "Big Five", which is a universal high-level structure defined by five broad domains.

2.3. Previous Studies

Review of literature indicates that enormous studies have been conducted on personality traits and knowledge sharing. The results of these studies show that personality traits significantly influence knowledge sharing. These studies are mostly conducted in educational institutions, engineering firms and public agencies. Summary of some previous studies on personality traits and knowledge sharing is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 – Studies on Personality and Knowledge Sharing

Authors	Relevant Findings
Chong et al. (2014)	Extraversion and conscientiousness are positively related to knowledge sharing patterns whereas emotional stability is negatively related to knowledge sharing patterns
Matzler and Mueller (2011)	Goal orientations: learning orientation and performance orientation, determined by personality traits, have positive and negative influence on knowledge sharing respectively.
Matzler et al. (2011)	Agreeableness influences affective commitment, which influenced both, the documentation of knowledge and knowledge sharing, and conscientiousness influenced documentation of knowledge and documentation of knowledge influenced knowledge sharing.
Teh et al. (2011)	The students with higher levels of extraversion and neuroticism have more favourable attitudes towards online entertainment knowledge sharing, whereas, those with higher levels of openness to experience have less favourable attitudes towards online entertainment knowledge sharing. Conscientiousness and agreeableness do not have influence on attitudes towards online entertainment knowledge sharing.
Ismail and Yusuf (2010)	Among awareness, trust and personality as individual factors, personality seems to be the most significantly correlated factor with the quality of knowledge sharing in Malaysian public agencies.
Matzler et al. (2008)	Agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness are positively related to knowledge sharing
Gupta (2008)	Individuals high on agreeableness and conscientiousness were more involved in knowledge sharing activities than individuals low on agreeableness and conscientiousness. There were no significant differences in knowledge sharing activities between individuals high and low in extraversion, openness and neuroticism.
Hsue et al. (2007)	The mean level of team compositions (personality traits) including conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, and extroversion positively influence knowledge sharing, whereas, emotional stability did not influence knowledge sharing.
Caberera et al. (2006)	Among three personality dimensions: agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience, openness to experience significantly influenced knowledge sharing behaviour.

2.4. Research Model

The objective of this research is to study the relationship of personality traits and knowledge sharing in a manufacturing company. Figure 1 shows the research model of the study. The variables shown in the research model were drawn from the variables used in the previous studies.

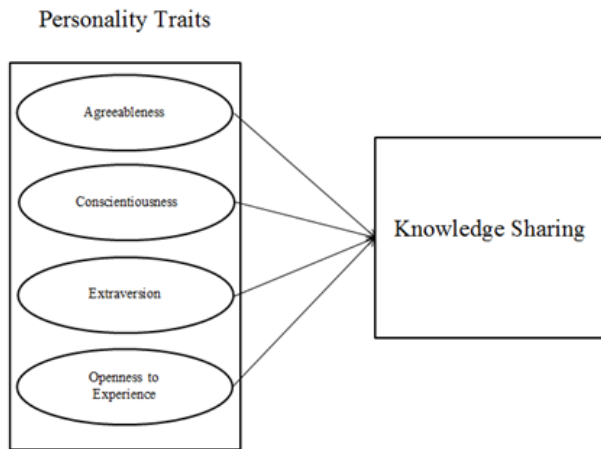


Fig. 1 – Research Model

3. Methodology

Questionnaire was used as the instrument for this study. The questionnaire was distributed to the management staff members in a manufacturing company. After data collection, data were subjected to the reliability test and factor analysis and then the final analysis was conducted. Pearson's Correlation analysis was used to test hypothesis and Multiple Regression analysis was used to identify the most influencing variable.

4. Results

Two hundred questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and one hundred seventy were returned to the researcher for analysis. Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. Respondent's demographic background is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 – Demographic Profile

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	20-29	115	67.6
	30-39	36	21.2
	40-49	17	10
	50-59	2	1.2
Gender	Male	165	97.1
	Female	5	2.9
Tenure in Office	1-5	98	57.6
	6-10	44	25.9
	11-15	19	11.2
	16-20	7	4.1
	21-25	1	0.6
	More than 25	1	0.6
Level of Education	PhD	0	0
	Masters	14	8.2
	Degree	170	91.8

The reliabilities of all variables should meet the desirable value of 0.60 suggested by and Hair et al. (2010). The Cronbach's Alpha value for the components ranged from 0.615 to 0.848, signifying that all the components attained a satisfactory level of reliability. Table 3 shows the Cronbach's Alpha value for all the variables.

Table 3 – Reliability Results

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Agreeableness	5	0.700
Conscientiousness	4	0.660
Extraversion	4	0.616
Openness to Experience	4	0.615
Knowledge Sharing Behaviour	5	0.848

To evaluate the variables' validity, factor analysis was performed using principle components with varimax rotation. Table 4 shows that all items load well on their respective factors

Table 4 – Rotated Component Matrix

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4
Agreeableness 1	.579			
Agreeableness 2	.768			
Agreeableness 3	.621			
Agreeableness 4	.612			
Agreeableness 5	.717			
Conscientiousness 1		.545		
Conscientiousness 2.		.737		
Conscientiousness3		.733		
Conscientiousness 4		.699		
Extraversion 1				.733
Extraversion 2				.586
Extraversion 3				.724
Extraversion 4				.573
Openness to Experience 1			.609	
Openness to Experience 2			.679	
Openness to Experience 3			.707	
Openness to Experience 4			.674	

Notes: Only loadings > 0.5 are shown; Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Table 5 shows the results of hypotheses testing using Pearson's Correlation analysis. The results show that agreeableness ($R = .523$, $\rho = .000 < .01$) and openness to experience ($R = .307$, $\rho = .000 < .01$) have significant relationship with knowledge sharing behaviour and is statistically significant.

Table 5 – Pearson's Correlation Results

		Knowledge Sharing Mean
Agreeableness Mean	Pearson's Correlation	.523**
	Sig (1-tailed)	.000
Conscientiousness Mean	Pearson's Correlation	.007
	Sig (1-tailed)	.463
Extraversion Mean	Pearson's Correlation	-.110
	Sig (1-tailed)	.075
Openness to Experience Mean	Pearson's Correlation	.307**
	Sig (1-tailed)	.000

Table 6 shows the results of multiple regression analysis. VIF obtained in this study ranged between 1.054 and 1.069, indicating that multicollinearity is not present. A shown in Table 6, agreeableness ($\beta = .479$, $\rho = .000 < .05$) and openness to experience ($\beta = .189$, $\rho = .005 < .05$) have significant relationship with knowledge sharing behaviour. Further, it is observed that agreeableness has more influence on knowledge sharing behaviour than openness to experience.

Table 6 – Regression Results

Multiple R = .563 ^a
R Square = .317
Adjusted R Square = .300
Standard error = .58301

Variable	Beta	t	Sig	VIF
Agreeableness	.479	7.223	.000	1.063
Conscientiousness	-.015	-.221	.826	1.054
Extraversion	-.075	-1.126	.262	1.061
Openness to Experience	.189	2.840	.005	1.069

Figure 2 shows the final model of this study.

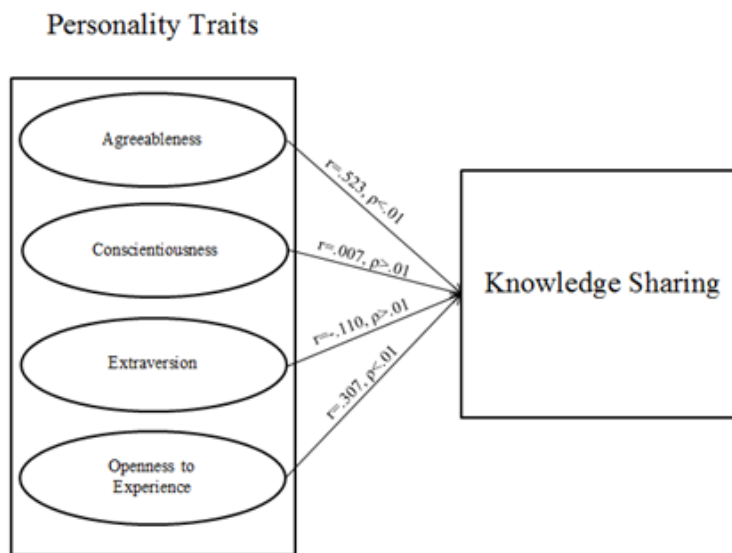


Fig. 2 – Final Model

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The finding from correlation analysis shows that agreeableness among the management staff has a positive significant relationship with knowledge sharing. Cabrera et al., (2006) in their study explained that agreeableness is significantly related to the intention to share knowledge and similarly, Matzler et al. (2008) found that agreeableness is positively related to knowledge sharing. Thus, the result for agreeableness trait is in accordance to the previous studies conducted by Cabrera et al. (2006) and Matzler et al. (2008). This is due to the reason that individuals high in agreeableness are more helpful and unselfish, trusting, considerate and kind to their colleagues, and have a forgiving nature at workplace. These characteristics lead them to higher knowledge sharing at workplace.

In this study, the result of correlation analysis shows that conscientiousness has a positive relationship with knowledge sharing but statistically it is not significant. As people with conscientiousness trait are careful, organized, do their job efficiently and are not easily distracted, most of the previous studies (Matzler et al., 2006; Matzler et al., 2011; Hsu et al., 2007; Chong et al., 2013) have found that people with this trait are more involved in knowledge sharing. But Teh et al. (2011) found that conscientiousness does not have influence on attitude towards knowledge

sharing. One possible explanation of non-supported relationship between conscientiousness and knowledge sharing is due to competitive environment at workplace. In order to get promoted, some individuals with high conscientiousness probably are more careful about their work output and performance. They have high aims at workplace so, they are more cautious in knowledge sharing only to their advantage.

The results of the correlation analysis show that extraversion has a negative relationship with knowledge sharing and not statistically significant. It is found from the previous studies (Teh et al., 2011; Hsu et al., 2007; Chong et al., 2013) that extraversion are positively related to knowledge sharing because individuals with this trait are talkative, full of energy, confident and are not inhibited. One possible explanation of not supported relationship between extraversion and knowledge sharing is the competitive environment of the company. Some individuals being bold, confident and full of energy may perform all the tasks themselves to get promoted, instead of sharing knowledge about the tasks with their colleagues and taking their colleagues along with themselves to complete the tasks.

The findings of correlation analysis show that the relationship of openness to experience and knowledge sharing behaviour is significant. The result of this study is in accordance with previous studies conducted by Matzler et al. (2008), Hsu et al. (2007) and Caberera et al. (2006) that openness to experience positively influence knowledge sharing. This is because individuals with this trait are ingenious, deep thinkers, inventive and play with ideas. Thus, sharing their ideas and knowledge with their colleagues at work place is needed. Further, the results for multiple regression analysis are consistent with correlation analysis and reveals that agreeableness is the most influencing factor on knowledge sharing.

In sum, this study provides important insights into the role of agreeableness and openness to experience in fostering knowledge sharing in the context of management staff, and the results of this study contributes empirically to the existing body of knowledge, on the factors the influence knowledge sharing. This study has limitation too like other studies. This study includes respondents from only one company, which may limit the generalization of the findings of this study. Future research may consider data collection from the employees of various companies.

6. References

- Allport, Gordon W. (1961). Pattern and growth in personality.
- Bock, Gee-Woo, Zmud, Robert W, Kim, Young-Gul, & Lee, Jae-Nam. (2005). Behavioral intention formation in knowledge sharing: Examining the roles of extrinsic motivators, social-psychological forces, and organizational climate. *MIS quarterly*, 87-111.
- Cabrera, Elizabeth F, & Cabrera, Angel. (2005). Fostering knowledge sharing through people management practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(5), 720-735.
- Chennamaneni, Anitha. (2006). Determinants of knowledge sharing behaviors: Developing and testing an integrated theoretical model: The University of Texas at Arlington.
- Chong, Chin Wei, Teh, Pei-Lee, & Tan, Booi Chen. (2014). Knowledge sharing among Malaysian universities' students: do personality traits, class room and technological factors matter? *Educational Studies*, 40(1), 1-25.
- Cummings, Jeffrey L, & Teng, Bing-Sheng. (2003). Transferring R&D knowledge: the key factors affecting knowledge transfer success. *Journal of Engineering and technology management*, 20(1), 39-68.
- Davenport, Thomas H, David, W, & Beers, Michael C. (1998). Successful knowledge management projects. *Sloan management review*, 39(2), 43-57.
- De Vries, Reinout E, Van den Hooff, Bart, & de Ridder, Jan A. (2006). Explaining knowledge sharing the role of team communication styles, job satisfaction, and performance beliefs. *Communication Research*, 33(2), 115-135.
- Funder, D. C. (2001). Personality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 197-221.

- Gibby, Robert E, & Zickar, Michael J. (2008). A history of the early days of personality testing in American industry: an obsession with adjustment. *History of psychology*, 11(3), 164.
- Gupta, Anil K, & Govindarajan, Vijay. (2000). Knowledge flows within multinational corporations. *Strategic management journal*, 21(4), 473-496.
- Gupta, Bindu. (2008). Role of personality in knowledge sharing and knowledge acquisition behavior. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 34(1), 143-149.
- Haas, M. R., & Hansen, M. T. (2005). When using knowledge can hurt performance: The value of organizational capabilities in a management consulting company. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26(1), 1-24. doi: 10.1002/smj.429
- Hair, J.F. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective*: Pearson Education.
- Hsu, Bi-Fen, Wu, Wei-Li, & Yeh, Ryh-Song. (2007). Personality composition, affective tie and knowledge sharing: A team level analysis. Paper presented at the Management of Engineering and Technology, Portland International Center for.
- Ismail, Mohd Bakhari, & Yusof, Zawiyah M. (2010). The impact of individual factors on knowledge sharing quality. *Journal of Organizational Knowledge Management*, 13.
- Ives, Yossi. (2008). What is 'coaching'? An exploration of conflicting paradigms. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 6(2), 100-113.
- Jarvenpaa, Sirkka L, & Staples, D Sandy. (2001). Exploring perceptions of organizational ownership of information and expertise. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 151-184.
- Lefton, L.A., & Brannon, L. (2007). *Psychology*: Allyn & Bacon, Incorporated.
- Liebowitz, Jay, & Chen, Yan. (2001). Developing knowledge-sharing proficiencies. *Knowledge Management Review*, 3, 12-15.
- Lin, Chieh-Peng. (2007). To share or not to share: modeling knowledge sharing using exchange ideology as a moderator. *Personnel Review*, 36(3), 457-475.
- Lin, Hsiu-Fen, & Lee, Gwo-Guang. (2004). Perceptions of senior managers toward knowledge-sharing behaviour. *Management Decision*, 42(1), 108-125.
- Matzler, Kurt, & Mueller, Julia. (2011). Antecedents of knowledge sharing—Examining the influence of learning and performance orientation. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 32(3), 317-329.
- Matzler, Kurt, Renzl, Birgit, Mooradian, Todd, von Krogh, Georg, & Mueller, Julia. (2011). Personality traits, affective commitment, documentation of knowledge, and knowledge sharing. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(02), 296-310.
- Matzler, Kurt, Renzl, Birgit, Müller, Julia, Herting, Stephan, & Mooradian, Todd A. (2008). Personality traits and knowledge sharing. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 29(3), 301-313.
- Riege, Andreas. (2005). Three-dozen knowledge-sharing barriers managers must consider. *Journal of knowledge management*, 9(3), 18-35.
- Sharratt, Mark, & Usoro, Abel. (2003). Understanding knowledge-sharing in online communities of practice. *Electronic Journal on Knowledge Management*, 1(2), 187-196.
- Teh, Pei-Lee, Yong, Chen-Chen, Chong, Chin-Wei, & Yew, Siew-Yong. (2011). Do the Big Five Personality Factors affect knowledge sharing behaviour? A study of Malaysian universities. *Malaysian Journal of Library & Information Science*, 16(1), 47-62.

Analisis Awal Pembelajaran Transformatif Dalam Kalangan Bekas Penagih Dadah

Normala Abu Hassan⁺ dan Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid

¹ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak Kertas kerja ini akan membincangkan mengenai pengalaman transformasi perspektif bekas penagih dadah terhadap ketagihan dadah. Kertas kerja konseptual ini akan menjelas dan menghuraikan fenomena perubahan/transformasi diri bekas penagih dadah dalam konteks pengalaman yang dilaluinya. Seluruh dunia menyatakan bahawa penyalahgunaan dadah telah menjadi satu masalah yang besar kepada negara mereka. Tidak ada satu negara atau masyarakat yang terlepas daripada masalah penagihan dadah ini. Terdapat peningkatan yang drastik terhadap pengeluaran dadah dan penyeludupan pada tahun kebelakangan ini dimana ia merupakan penyebab berlakunya peningkatan terhadap jumlah penagih dadah di seluruh dunia. Menurut laporan dadah dunia 2014, pada tahun 2012 dianggarkan antara 162 juta dan 324 juta penduduk dunia yang terlibat dalam penyalahgunaan dadah. Dianggarkan 183, 000 orang mati akibat najis dadah setiap tahun. Begitu juga dengan Malaysia yang tidak dapat lari dengan penyalahgunaan dadah ini yang mana ia bukanlah masalah baru tetapi telah berlaku sejak empat dekad yang lalu dan menjadi semakin serius. Malaysia menghadapi masalah yang serupa dan gejala ini amat sukar ditangani dan dibendung. Berdasarkan kepada statistik penagih dadah Malaysia pada tahun 2013 sebanyak 13,481 kes baru dikesan dan 7,406 kes merupakan kes penagih berulang. Terdapat peningkatan sebanyak 24% terhadap kes penagihan dadah pada tahun 2013. Saban tahun bilangan penagih dadah semakin meningkat walaupun berbagai langkah-langkah pencegahan telah dijalankan pihak berwajib. Masalah penagihan dadah ini boleh diibaratkan sebagai ‘duri dalam daging’ yang mana ia menimbulkan keresahan masyarakat dan negara. Berdasarkan kepada kajian – kajian literatur terdahulu pembelajaran transformatif lebih berkisar dalam pelbagai perspektif dan disiplin yang berbeza antaranya ialah mengenai budaya, kepercayaan, spiritual dan keagamaan, kesihatan, politik dan kepimpinan, ekonomi dan perniagaan. Oleh itu fokus kertas kerja konseptual ini adalah untuk meneroka kepelbagaian dimensi pembelajaran transformatif khususnya dalam kalangan penagih dadah. Kertas kerja ini akan menyorot beberapa elemen penting dalam pembelajaran transformatif seperti peristiwa pencetus, refleksi kritikal dan dialog. Akhirnya, kertas kerja ini berusaha untuk memahami proses transformasi persektif yang berlaku terhadap bekas penagih dadah yang mana ia boleh membantu pihak lain untuk merangka strategi untuk membantu bekas penagih dadah ini.

Kata kunci: Pembelajaran transformatif; refleksi kritikal, dialog, peristiwa pencetus, penagih dadah.

1. Pengenalan

Transformasi bermaksud perubahan, penjelmaan atau penukaran. Ia merupakan aktiviti yang bersifat dinamik dan progresif dalam kehidupan manusia dari segi politik, ekonomi, sosial, agama dan pembangunan diri individu dan akan mengubah personaliti bagi individu yang terlibat. Ia lebih berfokus kepada kognitif dengan memberi perhatian kepada pengalaman dalam pembentukan mental dan dalaman. Pembelajaran transformatif menggunakan pendekatan konstruktif dalam pembelajaran dewasa dimana pengetahuan bukan berada di luar sana untuk ditemui tetapi dibina melalui tafsiran dan pentafsiran semula berdasarkan pengalaman baru (Mezirow, 1981). Antara ciri pembelajaran dewasa yang unik dan menonjol menurut Mezirow (1990) ialah apabila individu melakukan refleksi

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + 60122228157
E-mail address: normala103@gmail.com.

secara kritikal terhadap kehidupan dan akhirnya sedar kenapa individu memberikan makna tertentu terhadap realiti tersebut, khususnya berkaitan dengan peranan dan hubungan individu.

Gejala Penyalahgunaan Dadah

Masalah penyalahgunaan dadah secara umumnya merupakan gejala penyakit masyarakat yang paling merbahaya di dunia. Ia juga boleh dikategorikan sebagai penyakit degil kerana usaha untuk memulihkan penagih dadah ini amatlah sukar tetapi ada segelintir yang berjaya pulih dan keluar dari penagihan dadah kerana mereka sedar perbuatan mereka ini akan memberi masalah kepada mereka kelak. Dadah boleh melemahkan kekuatan ekonomi dan juga boleh melumpuhkan pembangunan negara dengan meracuni pemikiran dan semangat individu untuk memantapkan diri dengan keperluan semasa dan cabaran yang akan dihadapi pada masa hadapan. Seperti yang kita ketahui dadah boleh dianggap sebagai punca kepada semua jenis jenayah dan maksiat seperti merompak, mencuri, memeras ugut, pergolakkan rumahtangga, pembunuhan dan sebagainya. Penagih dadah boleh dianggap sebagai beban kepada negara. Kerajaan terpaksa menanggung kos dan membelanjakan duit berjuta-juta ringgit setahun untuk menanggung kos rawatan di pusat-pusat pemulihan. Anggaran kos pembiayaan sehari bagi penagih dadah di pusat pemulihan adalah RM35.00 seorang. Berdasarkan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Universiti Utara Malaysia, pada tahun 2009 kerajaan telah membelanjakan RM8.654 billion untuk rawatan pemulihan. Dadah jenis heroin dan morfin merupakan jenis dadah yang biasa yang digunakan oleh penagih dadah dengan cara menghidu atau mengisap dadah tersebut. Berdasarkan statistik 2013 golongan belia berumur antara 19 hingga 39 tahun merupakan golongan yang tertinggi yang terlibat di dalam penagihan dadah iaitu seramai 14,853 orang. Pengaruh kawan dikenali pasti sebagai faktor utama yang menyebabkan individu terjebak ke dalam penagihan dadah.

Jika dilihat terhadap kajian literatur terdahulu, pengkaji lepas lebih cenderung melakukan kajian berkaitan dengan cara atau mencari jalan menyelesaikan penagihan dadah seperti penagihan semula (*relaps*); rawatan dan pemulihan secara kerohanian dan spritual, pencegahan pemulihan psikologi, dadah gantian, modifikasi tingkah laku. Tetapi kajian berkaitan dengan bekas pengguna dadah yang telah pulih tidak diberi tumpuan oleh pengkaji terdahulu. Perhatian terhadap bekas pengguna dadah ini juga perlu diambil berat kerana mereka ini boleh menjadi “role model” kepada pengguna yang baru pulih dari penagih dadah. Adakalanya mereka ini takut untuk berhadapan dengan masyarakat setelah pulih dari ketagihan dadah.

Sebelum menghuraikan fenomena pembelajaran transformatif dalam perspektif penagihan dadah, artikel ini akan menjelaskan konsep-konsep asas pembelajaran dewasa seperti di bawah;

2. Konsep Pembelajaran Transformatif

Pembelajaran transformatif merupakan perubahan “*cognition and consciousness*” (Merriam et. al., 2007). Ia melibatkan kerangka rujukan baru dalam sudut pandangan, tabiat minda dan perspektif yang baru untuk mengenalpasti identiti yang baru. (Kasl & Elias, 2000; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005; Mezirow, 2003). Ia semakin diberi penting dan diberi penekanan dalam pembelajaran dewasa (Mezirow, 1981; Jarvis, 2004 dan 2011; Cranton 2006; Taylor, 2007; Kitchenham, 2008 dan Swartz, 2011). Mezirow menerangkan terdapat tiga jenis pembelajaran iaitu pengetahuan instrumental (*instrumental learning*) komunikasi dan pembebasan (*emancipatory*) (Taylor, 2009). Pembelajaran memainkan peranan penting sebagai satu proses yang mana pengalaman pembelajaran yang berasal dari keperluan digunakan untuk menyelesaikan masalah (Gray, 2006; Mezirow, 1994).

2.1 Elemen Pembelajaran Transformatif

Tiga elemen utama teori pembelajaran transformatif ialah perspektif makna (*meaning perspectives*), refleksi kritikal dan dialog. Perspektif makna membawa maksud pandangan yang boleh diubah setiap hari termasuk kepercayaan, pertimbangan dan perasaan (Gray, 2006). Refleksi merupakan jambatan atau penghubung antara pembelajaran dan pengalaman (Gray, 2007). Apabila orang dewasa melibatkan diri dalam refleksi, mereka mengalami pembelajaran pada tahap yang lebih mendalam tetapi refleksi adalah mencabar untuk dicapai (Marsick, 1998). Tambahan pula, ia adalah proses yang aktif dan penuh makna, kadang – kadang membawa kepada hasil yang tidak dijangka. Mezirow (1994) mentakrifkan refleksi kritikal sebagai andaian untuk menentukan sama ada kepercayaan melalui asimilasi budaya di zaman kanak – kanak masih berfungsi untuk orang dewasa. Refleksi merupakan kompenan penting dalam pembelajaran yang membolehkan persoalan diambil untuk diberikan andaian dan tingkah laku terutama apabila andaian gagal (Mezirow, 1996; Reynolds, 1998; Wilhelsom, 2006). Menurut Mezirow (1999) dialog diperlukan apabila individu mempunyai sebab untuk mempersoalkan sesuatu kebenaran,

kesahihan dan kredibiliti terhadap individu yang memberi kenyataan. Dialog merupakan medium penting kepada refleksi kritikal dimana ia memberi tindakbalas terhadap pengalaman berdasarkan kepada andaian dan kepercayaan yang dipersoalkan (Carter, 2002).

2.2 Perspektif Makna

Perspektif makna membawa maksud pandangan yang boleh diubah setiap hari termasuk kepercayaan, pertimbangan dan perasaan (Gray, 2006). Bagaimana proses individu membuat proses perspektif makna bergantung kepada kerangka rujukan mereka (Mezirow, 1994). Menurut Mezirow, terdapat dua struktur dimensi yang melibatkan perspektif makna (*meaning perspectives*) dan skema makna (*meaning schemes*). Perspektif makna berasal dari andaian dan mendefinisikan keupayaan seseorang untuk meluaskan jangkaan dan skema makna pula perubahan dari nilai – nilai, kepercayaan dan mempengaruhi keupayaan tafsiran individu yang berkaitan secara langsung kepada perspektif makna. Selain itu boleh menyebabkan berlakunya perubahan perspektif. Perubahan perspektif berlaku apabila individu menyemak semula kerangka rujukan mereka dan bersedia untuk mengambil tindakan ke atas perspektif yang baru (Yang, 2004). Perubahan ini berlaku secara tiba – tiba apabila perspektif tidak lagi berguna dalam satu siri langkah – langkah kecil atau tidak sekata (Collard & Law, 1989). Apabila individu mengambil tindakan, perubahan direalisasikan (Cranton, 2000; Gray 2006). Taylor (2000) membincangkan dalam dapatan Clark dan Wilson (1991) terdapat tiga dimensi transformasi perspektif iaitu mengenal pasti psikologi (perubahan dalam memahami diri), keyakinan (*convictional*) (semakan semula kepercayaan) dan tingkah laku (perubahan gaya hidup). Konsep transformasi perspektif merupakan pra – syarat pembebasan (*emancipatory*) (Collard & Law, 1989). Faktor utama yang mempengaruhi atau mengubah struktur ini adalah refleksi kritikal. Bagi bekas penagih dadah, mereka cuba mencari makna dalam kehidupan melalui proses transformasi dan cuba untuk mencari pengalaman baru setelah bebas dari gejala dadah.

2.3 Refleksi Kritikal

Dalam pembelajaran transformatif individu akan melibatkan diri dalam refleksi kritikal. Refleksi adalah penilaian terhadap persepsi, pemikiran, emosi dan tindakan seseorang (Mezirow, 1990). Refleksi merupakan akibat daripada pembelajaran yang lepas, yang memberi tumpuan kepada andaian, masalah atau proses yang digunakan dalam penyelesaian masalah yang timbul (Mezirow, 1990). Refleksi kritikal berlaku apabila individu merenung andaian mereka yang lalu (Mezirow, 1990). Dalam erti kata lain, individu mencabar kesahihan andaian dalam pembelajaran terdahulu. Individu kerap memeriksa pembelajaran terdahulu sebelum individu menyelesaikan sesuatu masalah untuk mengesahkan bahawa individu berada di jalankan yang betul. Menurut Cranton (2006) refleksi kritikal merupakan elemen penting dalam pembelajaran transformatif dimana individu memiliki kebolehan sendiri reflektif secara kritikal (*critically self-reflection*) (Kegan, 2000) dan kebolehan mempraktikkan penilaian reflektif (*reflective judgement*) (King dan Kitchener, 1994). Untuk mencari jalan penyelesaian dari ketagihan dadah, bekas penagih dadah akan melakukan refleksi terhadap pengalaman lampau mereka. Mereka akan merenung, berfikir semula, menyemak dan memeriksa pengalaman sebagai seorang penagih dadah.

2.4 Wacana/Dialog

Salah satu komponen penting pemikiran kritikal dalam teori pembelajaran transformatif adalah wacana/dialog. Teori pembelajaran perlu berasaskan kepada sifat berkomunikasi dengan manusia (Mezirow, 1996). Dalam proses pembelajaran teras komunikasi manusia diperlukan dalam mencari persetujuan tentang tafsiran dan kepercayaan individu. Seterusnya Mezirow (2000) menerangkan wacana/dialog sebagai satu proses dimana individu berdialog secara aktif dengan orang lain untuk memahami makna pengalaman. Ia boleh termasuk berinteraksi dalam kumpulan antara dua orang. Wacana/dialog boleh berlaku sebagai sebahagian daripada membina makna perspektif yang baru. Pembelajaran transformatif melibatkan penglibatan dalam wacana/dialog yang membina berdasarkan kepada pengalaman orang lain untuk menilai sebab-sebab yang mewajarkan andaian dan membuat tindakan berdasarkan matlamat yang terhasil (Mezirow, 2000). Wacana/dialog adalah proses penting yang menjadi elemen penggerak berlakunya pembelajaran transformatif (Cranton, 2006; Mezirow, 1991). Individu perlu terlibat dalam perbualan (*conversation*) dengan individu lain dalam usahanya untuk menemukan perspektif alternatif dan menentukan kesahan perspektif barunya (Mohd Azhar, 2008).

2.5 Peristiwa Pencetus

Peristiwa pencetus tercetus akibat krisis yang besar dalam kehidupan yang mendorong individu untuk mentafsir semula kewujudannya. (Mezirow, 1991; Imel, 1998; Taylor, 2000). Mezirow mengakui bahawa transformasi melalui skema makna, khususnya kepercayaan, sikap dan reaksi emosi berlaku setiap hari. Walau bagaimanapun, transformasi perspektif makna, atau kerangka rujukan kurang berlaku dan lebih melibatkan perasaan diri sendiri, dan sentiasa melakukan refleksi kritikal renungan kepada premis yang sentiasa diputarbelitkan. Transformasi perspektif adalah proses bagaimana andaian dapat menghalang cara kita melihat, memahami dan merasa tentang dunia kita. Melalui perubahan struktur ini kemungkinan ianya lebih inklusif dan akhirnya individu membuat pilihan berubah atau tidak untuk berubah (Mezirow, 1991). Mezirow mengandaikan melalui transformasi perspektif akan berlakunya perubahan dalam tingkah laku.

Peristiwa pencetus juga boleh bermula daripada proses transformasi iaitu melalui perbincangan, buku, sajak atau lukisan atau usaha untuk memahami perbezaan budaya serta adat resam yang sebelum ini bercanggah dengan andaian yang diterima sebelum ini (Mezirow, 1991). Cranton (2002) menyatakan peristiwa pencetus sebagai peristiwa yang benar dan memberi pendedahan kepada seseorang yang sentiasa menganggap terhadap apa sahaja yang mereka alami, mendengar atau membaca. Mezirow (1978) menegaskan apabila terjadinya cabaran dalam krisis atau berlakunya peristiwa pencetus yang mengelirukan dalam kehidupan orang dewasa ianya tidak dapat diselesaikan dengan cara yang biasa kita mengendalikan masalah, iaitu, dengan hanya belajar lebih lanjut mengenai mereka atau belajar untuk menangani secara berkesan. Apabila isu-isu ini dapat diselesaikan melalui pembelajaran transformatif ia menunjukkan perkembangan diri individu itu sendiri. Proses pembelajaran transformasi akan bermula dengan peristiwa pencetus apabila sesuatu peristiwa tidak dapat diselesaikan melalui penyelesaian masalah yang ada sebelum ini (Merriam dan Caffarella, 1999). Peristiwa pencetus boleh berlaku menerusi dua cara iaitu secara serta merta atau mengejut (*single event*) dan peristiwa terintegrasi (*integrating circumstances*) (Mezirow, 1978, 1991, 2000; Taylor, 1998; Clark, 1993 dan Cranton, 2006). Peristiwa pencetus merupakan elemen yang paling penting kepada bekas penagih dadah dimana mereka akan memeriksa kembali andaian terdahulu dalam kehidupan mereka sebagai penagih dadah dan berusaha untuk mencari perspektif baru dalam kehidupan.

3. Fokus Kajian Lepas

Pembelajaran transformatif oleh Mezirow ialah berkaitan dengan pengalaman lepas seseorang yang mana mereka melakukan refleksi terhadap apa yang telah berlaku kepada mereka untuk mencari makna dan mengubah pandangan dan melakukan perubahan atau transformasi dalam kehidupan mereka

Berdasarkan kepada kajian lepas, penyelidik di Malaysia lebih menfokuskan kepada punca, faktor dan cara untuk menangani masalah penagihan dadah. Secara am banyak kajian literatur pembelajaran transformatif terdahulu berkisar mengenai budaya (Moon, 2002; Fletcher, 2003; Cohen, 2004; Ritz 2006; Kung, 2007; Marmon, 2007; Maney, 2008; Dodson, 2009; Magro dan Polyzoi, 2009) , kepercayaan spiritual dan keagamaan (Donnelly, 2001; Hamil, 2002; Wollert, 2003; English, Fenwick dan Parsons, 2003; Mountjoy, 2003; Hietula, 2003; Wade, 2004; Shahjahan, 2004; Lennox, 2005; Weinski, 2006; Chan, 2008; Kao, 2009; Roberts, 2009 dan Mohd Azhar, 2012), kesihatan (Ritchie, 2006, Curry-Stevens, 2007; Strawn, 2008; Taylor, 2008; Pereira, 2008; Beck, 2009; Brendel, 2009; Dodson, 2009), politik dan kepimpinan (Pierce, 1986; Nueman, 1996; Mazalan, 2002; Powell, 2007; Gabriel, 2008 dan Kairson, 2009), ekonomi dan perniagaan (Nordbye, 2009; Kim, 2007). Terdapat juga kajian yang berkaitan dengan bekas pengguna dadah tetapi amatlah sedikit seperti kajian oleh Bolduc (2000), Pereira (2008) dan Ventresca (2012). Namun pendekatan kajian terhadap transformasi perspektif bekas penagih dadah di Malaysia belum pernah dijalankan oleh pengkaji terdahulu. Keadaan ini menyebabkan isu ini kurang difahami dan kurang diberi perhatian oleh penyelidik. Pada pandangan pengkaji, pembelajaran transformatif ini amat penting untuk memahami dan mendalami bagaimana transformasi yang berlaku terhadap bekas penagih dadah. Kajian literatur pembelajaran transformatif banyak tertumpu di negara Barat berbanding di Malaysia. Walaupun begitu terdapat kajian yang dijalankan mengenai pembelajaran transformatif di Malaysia oleh Mohd Azhar (2012) ia berkisar tentang pengalaman transformatif perspektif orang Cina terhadap Islam dan Mazalan (2002) mengenai kesedaran politik terhadap orang melayu bandar yang terpelajar.

Untuk memahami sesuatu fenomena yang berlaku, kajian ini akan memberi tumpuan terhadap proses pembelajaran transformatif dalam kalangan penagih dadah dalam usaha mereka berjuang untuk melakukan perubahan dari segi emosi, jasmani, fizikal dan spiritual mereka. Bagi penagih dadah mereka akan melakukan refleksi dalam diri mereka dengan memeriksa andaian yang berlaku terhadap diri mereka. Ia melibatkan pemikiran terhadap andaian, persepsi dan pemikiran mereka. Dalam usaha untuk keluar dari ketagihan dadah, penagih dadah akan mengalami berbagai-bagai krisis yang berlaku dalam kehidupan mereka. Akibat daripada krisis kehidupan

yang berlaku mereka akan melakukan transformasi perspektif dimana individu membuat keputusan untuk melakukan perubahan untuk dari najis dadah. Ia melibatkan perasaan terhadap diri sendiri dan individu melakukan refleksi kritikal terhadap penagihan dadah ini. Keadaan ini akan tercetusnya refleksi terhadap skema makna. Dalam melakukan transformasi perspektif terhadap ketagihan dadah berbagai cabaran dan halangan yang perlu mereka hadapi tetapi dengan semangat yang kental mereka berjaya keluar dari ketagihan dadah. Peranan dialog juga amat penting dalam pembelajaran transformatif dalam kalangan penagih dadah ini. Mereka memerlukan berkomunikasi dengan pihak lain untuk menceritakan masalah penagihan dadah ini untuk mendapat pandangan dan penjelasan tentang masalah mereka. Dalam konteks pembelajaran transformatif dialog merupakan pencarian tentang kefahaman dan penilaian tafsiran kepercayaan dimana ia melibatkan pandangan orang lain dan cuba tertolak ansur dengan apa yang tersirat (Mezirow, 2000). Oleh itu mereka hendaklah berfikir terbuka apabila diberi teguran dan kritikan oleh orang lain dan cuba untuk melakukan transformasi perspektif terhadap diri sendiri.

Bagi bekas penagih dadah yang benar-benar pulih peratusan perubahan mereka amatlah rendah. Pertubuhan Kesihatan Sedunia (WHO) menyatakan bahawa bekas penagih dadah ini hanya dapat dilihat perubahan mereka setelah dua tahun bebas dari dadah. Pada hemat pengkaji, peratusan untuk penagih pulih adalah rendah dan mengambil masa yang panjang.

Pada pandangan pengkaji kajian yang melibatkan bekas penagih dadah dalam perspektif pembelajaran transformatif tidak banyak dijalankan berdasarkan kepada kajian literatur sama ada dalam negeri atau luar negeri. Kajian lepas tidak memberi fokus kepada proses pembelajaran tetapi ia lebih memberi fokus kepada punca, faktor, cara penyelesaian dan cara mengatasi untuk bekas penagih dadah untuk tidak kembali mengambil dadah. Bekas penagih dadah ini boleh dikategori sebagai orang yang terpinggir (*marginalised people*) kerana mereka ini tidak diberi perhatian. Kajian di Malaysia kurang memberi fokus terhadap perubahan bekas penagih dadah kajian dalam konteks pembelajaran transformatif. Dalam kajian ini pengkaji akan mengkaji bagaimana proses pembelajaran transformatif itu berlaku dalam kalangan bekas penagih dadah dan perkara – perkara yang membantu semasa proses tersebut. Menurut Merriam dan Bierema (2014) melalui pembelajaran kita lebih banyak mengetahui perkara melalui kehidupan, pengalaman hidup dan memeriksa kembali tentang apa yang kita fikirkan.

4. Kesimpulan

Melalui kajian literatur ini penyelidik boleh memahami pengalaman pembelajaran transformatif dalam kalangan bekas penagih dadah dengan lebih mendalam. Melalui pengalaman bekas penagih dadah pengkaji boleh memahami bagaimana proses pembelajaran transformasi berlaku dalam diri bekas penagih dadah itu sendiri dan individu membina keyakinan dalam diri untuk bebas dari najis dadah. Semangat dan keyakinan diri yang tinggi ini akan menentukan pegangan mereka dan menjadikan mereka tidak mudah goyah dalam menghadapi kehidupan yang bakal ditempuhi selepas kembali semula ke pangkuan masyarakat.

Melalui kajian ini penyelidik akan memberi tumpuan kepada proses transformasi perspektif terhadap bekas penagih dadah. Ia melibatkan proses sebelum dan selepas responden pulih dari ketagihan dadah. Ini amat penting kerana pengkaji boleh melihat bagaimana melalui proses tersebut bekas penagih dadah ini berjaya membebaskan diri dari najis dadah dan menjalani kehidupan seperti biasa.

Sebagai kesimpulan, kajian ini merupakan analisis awal tentang kajian pembelajaran transformatif dalam kalangan bekas penagih dadah dimana ia memberi penekanan terhadap elemen pembelajaran transformatif iaitu peristiwa pencetus, refleksi kritikal dan dialog.

5. Rujukan

- Beck, N.T. (2009). *A Self-Study of The Evolution of Fitness Educator*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. St. Francis Xavier University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/9780494558577>.
- Bolduc, A.T. (2000). *Transformative Learning In A Drug Program*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Columbia University Teacher College. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/9959332>.
- Brendel, W. T (2009). *Exploring Meaning-Making Among The Terminally Ill Through The Lens of Transformative Learning Theory and The Medium of Personal Narratives*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Teachers College, Columbia University. UMIDigitalProquestDissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/33687>.

- Carter (2006) *Executive Coaching: Towards a Dynamic Alliance of Psychotherapy and Transformative Learning Processes*. Dalam *Journal Management Learning* Hlm. 475-497,
- Chan, G.T. (2008). *An Exploration of The Transformative Experiences of College Seniors At A Southern California Christian University*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. A Southern California Christian University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3308530>.
- Clark, M.C (1991). *Context and rationality in Mezirow's Theory of Transformational Learning*. Dalam *Adult Education Quarterly*, 40. Hlm. 75 – 91
- Cranton, P. (2006). *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning: A Guide for Educators Adults (2nd. Edition)*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass
- Cohen, J.B. (2004). *Late For School: Stories of Transformation in an Adult Education Program*. Dalam *Journal of Transformative Education*. 2:242. Sage. The Online version. <http://jtd.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/2/3/242/>. Hlm. 242 - 252.
- Collard, S & Law, M. (1989). *The Limits of Perspective Transformation: A Critique of Mezirow's Theory*. Dalam *Adult Education Quarterly*, 39 (2). Hlm. 99 – 107.
- Curry-Stevens, A.C. (2007). *Pedagogy for The Privileged: Building Theory, Curriculum and Practises*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. University of Toronto. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/NR07560>
- Dodson, C.T. (2009). *Negotiating Disorienting Dilemmas and the Transformative Learning Process in a Complex Society*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. The University of Southern Mississippi. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3396153>.
- Donnelly, S (2001). *Building A New Moral, Religious, or Spritual Identity: Perspective Transformation in Lesbian Women*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, Texas A&M University.UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fillcit/301102>.
- English,L.M, Fenwick T.J dan Parsons. J (2003). *Sprituality of Adult Education and Training*. Florida: Krieger Pupliching Company
- Fletcher, A.E. (2003). *A Transformative Journey: Adult Participants' Experiences Engaged On A Foreign Community Service Project*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. University of Missouri. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/.3081314>.
- Gray, D. (2006). *Executive Coaching : Towards A Dynamic Alliance Of Psychotherapy & Transformative Learning Process*. Dalam *Journal Management Learning*. Vol 37, Hlm, 475 – 797
- Gabriel, P. (2008). *Personal Transformation: The Relationship of Transformative Learning Experiences and Transformational Leadership*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. The George Washington University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/.3315444>
- Hamil, D.J. (2002). *Transcedent Transformation: Transformational Adult Learning Through Transcedent Encounters*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Illinois University.UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/.3073163>.
- Hietula, D.A (2003). *Transformative Learning at L'ABRI*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. The Union Institute and University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3077790>
- Imel, S (1998). *Transformative Learning in Adulthood*. ERIC Digest. No. 200.
- Jarvis,P. (2004). *Adult Education and lifelong Learning: Theory and Practice*. New York: Routledge
- Kairson, B (2009). *Livers in Transition: Examining Transformational Learning Process in Ethnically Diverse Women*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Capella University, NovaScotia.UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/33445518>
- Kao, Y.F. Everest. (2009). *Inclusivity and Traditional, First Generation, Elderly, Chinese Christians*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Vancouver School of Theology. UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/9780494573297>
- Kasl, E. & Elias, D. (2000), *Creating New Habits Of Mind In Small Groups*. Dalam Mezirow & Associates. *Learning As Transformation: Critical Perspetives On A Theory In Progress*. Hlm. 229-252 San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Kegan, R. (2000). *What 'form" Transform? A Constructive – developmental Perspektive on Transformational Learning*. Dalam Mezirow, J & Associates (eds.). *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress*. (35 – 70). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Kitchener, K.S. dan King, P. (1990). *The Reflective Judgement Model: Transforming Assumptions About Knowing*. Dalam Mezirow, J. et al. (1990). *Fostering Critical Reflections in Adulthood*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kitchenham, A. (2008). *The Evolution of John Mezirow's Transformative Learning Theory"*. Dalam *Journal of Transformative Education*. 6: 104. <http://www.sagepublications.com>. Hlm. 104 – 123

- Kung, H. C. (2007). *Dancing on The edges: International Students' Transformative Journey in the United States of America*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Oklahoma University.UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3271223>
- Knowles, M.S, Holton, E.F & Swanson, R.A. (2005). *The Adult Learner: The Definitive Classic in Adult Education and Human Resource Development*. Elsevier.
- Leenox, S.L. (2005). *Contemplating The Self: Integrative Approaches to Transformative Learning in Higher Education*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Fielding Graduate University.UMIDigitalProquestDissertations.<http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3184473>
- Magro, K. dan Polyzo, E. (2009). *Geographical and Psychological Terrains of Adults From War-Affected Backgrounds*. Dalam *Jorunal of Transformative Education*. 7: 85. Sage. The Online Version. <http://jtd.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/7/1/85/>. Hlm. 85 – 104
- Marsick, V. J. (1988). *Learning in the workplace: The case for reflectivity and critical reflectivity*. *Adult Education Quarterly*, Vol 38, Hlm 187-198
- Merriam S.B & Caffarella, R.S. (1999). *Learning in Adulthood: A Comprehensive Guide*. San Francisco: The Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam S.B & Caffarella, R.S. & Baumgartner, L.M. (2007). *Learning in Adulthood*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Merriam S.B. & Bierema L.L. (2014). *Adult Learning : Linking Theory & Practice*. San Francncisco: Jossey-Bass
- Mezirow, J. (1978). *Perspective Transformation*. Dalam *Adult Education*. Vol. 28 (2). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Hlm. 100 – 110.
- Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative Learning of Adult Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1994). *Understanding Transformation Theory*. Dalam *Adult Education Quaterly*. 44 (2). (Hlm. 222 – 232)
- Mezirow, J. (1996). *Contemporary Paradigm of Learning*. Dalam *Adult Education Quaterly*. 46 (3). (Hlm. 158 - 172)
- Mezirow, J. (2000). *Learning as Transformation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (2003). *Transformative Learning Theory*. Dalam *Jack Mezirow et al. (eds.) (2009). Transformative Learning in Practice: Insights from Community, Workplace and Higher Education*. New York: John Wiley & Son.
- Mazalan Kamis (2002). *Rising Political Conciousness: Transformative Learning Among Educated Urban Malays in Malaysia*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Serdang: Universiti Pertanian Malaysia.
- Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid dan Azmi Shah Suratman (2008). *Dinamika Pembelajaran Dewasa Dalam Perspektif Islam*, Skudai. Penerbit UTM
- Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid (2012). *Pengalaman Transformasi Perspektif Individu Cina Muslim Terhadap Agama Islam Di Johor Bharu*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Skudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Moon, Soomo (2002). *Intercultural Transformative Learning Experience of Korean Sojourners in The United States*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. California Institute of Integral Studies, San Francisco, California. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/.3042887>.
- Nordbye, M.L. (2009). *How Organization and Individual Achieve Significant and Sustainable Increases in Sales Performance: A Study of Transformational Learning in Sales Environments*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Capella University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3371724>.
- Pereira, S.M. (2008). *Case Study of Women in Recovery: A Transformative Journey of Recovery From Alcohol and Others Drug Dependencies*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. California of Integral Studies, San Francisco, CA. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3306717>
- Ritchie, J.H. (2006). *Transformative Learning A Women's Health Activist Group*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. St. Francis Xavier University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/.2905114>.
- Reynolds, M. (1998), *Reflection and Critical Reflection in Management Learning*. *Management Learning*, Vol. 29(2) Hlm. 183-200.
- Roberts,N.A.(2009). *The Role of Spirituality in Transformative Learning*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Florida International University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3377924>
- Shahjahan, Riyah Ahmed (2004). *Centering Spirituality in the Academy: Toward a Transformative Way of Teaching and Learning*. Dalam *Jorunal of Transformative Education*.2:294.Sage.TheOnlineVersion.<http://jtd.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/2/4/294>. Hlm. 294 - 302.

- Strawn, T. (2008). *Understanding the Phenomenon of Experiencing Dyslexia as an Adult*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Asbury Theology Seminary. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3297977>
- Taylor, E.W. (1998). *Transformative Learning: A Critical Review*. ERIC Clearing House on Adult, Career and Vocational Education (Information Series No. 374).
- Taylor, E.W. (2007). *An Update of Transformative Learning Theory: A Critical Review of The Empirical Research (1999 – 2005)*. Dalam *International Journal of Lifelong Learning*. Vol. 26: No. 2. April-March. Hlm. 173-191.
- Taylor, E.W. (2009). *Fostering Transformative Learning*. Dalam Mezirow, J. dan Taylor, E.W. (2009). *Transformative Learning in Practice: Insights From Community, Workplace and Higher Education*. New York: Jossey-Bass.
- Ventresca M. W. (2012). *Understanding The Role Of Story Telling In The Transformation Of Female Cocaine Addicts In Narcotics Anonymous*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. The Pennsylvanis State University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3521208>.
- Weinski, M.C. (2006). *An Inquiry Into Transformative Learning of Evangelical Theological Students in Germany*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation. Trinity International University. UMI Digital Proquest Dissertations. <http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/fullcit/3221678>
- Wilhelmson, L. (2006). *Transformative Learning in Joint Leadership*. Dalam *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol 18(7-8), Hlm 495-507.
- Yang, B. (2004). *Can Adult Learning Theory Provide a Foundation for Human Resource Development?* Dalam *Journal Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management*, Vol 6(2), Hlm 129 - 145

Perlaksanaan KIK dan Perkongsian Pengetahuan di MPJBT: Suatu Analisis

Ungku Ahmad bin Ungku Zakaria, Muhammed Fauzi bin Othman, Mohd Azhar bin Abd Hamid dan Kassim bin Thukiman

Abstrak Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK) merupakan mekanisme pengurusan yang berkesan untuk membina modal insan dalam Perkhidmatan Awam. Ia dapat meningkatkan kecekapan dan keberkesanan agensi-agensi Kerajaan dalam menyampaikan perkhidmatan kepada rakyat. Perkongsian pengetahuan pula merupakan proses di mana beberapa individu saling bertukar sama ada pengetahuan *tacit* dan *explicit*, dan bersama mewujudkan pengetahuan yang baharu. Kajian ini dijalankan bertujuan untuk melihat hubungan pelaksanaan Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK) dengan perkongsian pengetahuan di Majlis Perbandaran Johor Bahru Tengah. Responden kajian terdiri daripada 125 orang penjawat dari pelbagai jawatan di Majlis Perbandaran Johor Bahru Tengah. Kajian ini juga menggunakan kaedah gabungan di mana kaedah kuantitatif iaitu (soal-selidik) dan kualitatif (perbincangan kumpulan fokus) digunakan. Bagi kaedah kuantitatif, data dianalisis menggunakan analisis statistik deskriptif yang merangkumi peratusan dan min, manakala korelasi *Pearson* digunakan untuk mengukur hubungan. Bagi Perbincangan Kumpulan Berfokus data yang diperolehi dianalisis menggunakan penkodan terbuka. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap pelaksanaan KIK di MPJBT dengan nilai min 4.061 dan tahap amalan budaya perkongsian pengetahuan di MPJBT berada pada tahap tinggi dengan nilai min 4.042. Keputusan mendapati terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara pelaksanaan KIK dan perkongsian pengetahuan pada tahap sederhana dengan nilai (r) iaitu 0.583. PKF pula mendapati bahawa KIK telah memperkukuhkan perkongsian pengetahuan dan melahirkan kualiti dan budaya kerja positif seperti semangat kerja yang tinggi, kerja berpasukan dan kejelikan.

Kata Kunci: KIK, Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK), KS, Perkongsian Pengetahuan

1. Pengenalan

Penyusunan semula ekonomi yang diperkenalkan oleh Kerajaan Malaysia menggariskan perancangan strategik negara untuk meletakkan asas yang lebih kukuh dalam usaha mencapai matlamat Wawasan 2020. Berteraskan gagasan '1Malaysia: Rakyat Didahulukan, Pencapaian Diutamakan', fokus dan penekanan Kerajaan dalam mentransformasikan Perkhidmatan Awam sentiasa diberikan kepada inisiatif dan usaha untuk menaik taraf sistem penyampaian perkhidmatan Kerajaan (MAMPU, 2013). Pelbagai program seperti Program Transformasi Ekonomi (PTE), Program Transformasi Kerajaan (PTK) dan Program Bantuan Rumah (PBR) telah dilaksanakan bagi memenuhi jangkaan rakyat yang mengharapkan perkhidmatan yang cepat, efisien, efektif, mudah dan murah. Kerajaan juga sentiasa memberi komitmen dalam usaha memperkukuhkan dan memantapkan lagi sistem penyampaian kerajaan untuk melonjak kedudukan Malaysia dalam indeks-indeks utama di peringkat nasional global. Selain itu, keperluan kepada transformasi dan inovasi terkini dalam penyampaian perkhidmatan bukanlah lagi satu pilihan tetapi suatu kemestian (Dani Salleh, 2004).

Dalam hal ini, Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan (PBT) memainkan peranan yang penting dalam pentadbiran kerajaan kerana imej sesebuah PBT turut menggambarkan sebuah Kerajaan yang berperingkat. Sebagai agensi barisan hadapan, PBT memberi impak langsung kepada kualiti hidup rakyat seperti terdapatnya kemudahan jalan raya, lampu isyarat, pelesenan, sistem perparitan dan longkang serta sistem pengurusan dan pengutipan sampah sarap.

Menyedari hakikat ini, sistem pentabiran PBT yang disokong dengan penganjuran Konvensyen Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK) dilihat sebagai satu perkembangan yang sangat positif dan merupakan satu pendekatan yang kreatif dan inovatif dalam mempertingkatkan sistem penyampaian perkhidmatan PBT khususnya dalam perkongsian pengetahuan. Usaha ini juga adalah selaras dengan komitmen Perkhidmatan Awam untuk menyediakan perkhidmatan yang benar-benar berorientasikan pelanggan serta menzahirkan tadbir urus yang mantap. Bagi memastikan Malaysia berada setanding dengan negara maju di peringkat antarabangsa, semua agensi Kerajaan, sektor swasta, komuniti perniagaan malah seluruh rakyat Malaysia perlu bersedia melaksanakan dan menerima transformasi digital mengikut arus pemodenan dunia (MAMPU, 2013).

Pengurusan Pengetahuan

Definisi konseptual menerangkan pengurusan pengetahuan yang melibatkan proses penemuan dan mendapatkan pengetahuan daripada program KIK, penapisan dan penyusunan pengetahuan tersebut supaya nilai atau produk atau perkhidmatan yang terhasil dapat digunakan sepenuhnya dalam organisasi (Chawla dan Joshi, 2011). Pengurusan pengetahuan adalah cara sesebuah organisasi mengenalpasti dan memanfaatkan ilmu pengetahuan untuk menjadi kompetitif. Ia boleh dikaitkan dengan KIK dan menjadi modal intelek organisasi. (Mathis dan Jackson, 2010).

Manakala dari sudut definisi operasional membenarkan sesebuah organisasi itu untuk belajar dan bertindak balas dalam usaha membina, mengekal serta menambahkan kelebihan persaingan (Ganesh, 2001). Pengurusan pengetahuan adalah usaha sadar untuk mendapatkan pengetahuan yang betul kepada orang yang betul pada masa yang betul supaya ia boleh dikongsi dan dimasukkan ke dalam tindakan. (Mathis dan Jackson, 2010)

Perkongsian Pengetahuan

Jiacheng *et al.* (2010) dan McKenzie (2003) mencadangkan bahawa perkongsian pengetahuan boleh dikonsepsikan sebagai aktiviti di mana pengetahuan dalam pelbagai bentuk boleh dipindahkan atau ditukar antara pelakon yang berbeza dalam organisasi. Selalunya pengetahuan ini tinggal dalam pelbagai peringkat organisasi seperti dalam kajian semasa (Moller dan Svahn, 2004). Definisi konseptual juga menerangkan perkongsian pengetahuan sebagai pemberian atau penerimaan maklumat tugas, pengetahuan dan maklum balas mengenai produk atau prosedur. (Cummings, 2004). Perkongsian pengetahuan juga adalah satu proses sosial, interaktif dan kompleks termasuk tersirat dan eksplisit pengetahuan (Polanyi, 1966).

Bagi definisi operasional, perkongsian ilmu telah mendapat perhatian (Eisenhardt dan Santos, 2002) kerana proses inovasi, pembelajaran organisasi, dan pembangunan kemahiran baru perlu pengetahuan baru daripada kedua-dua di dalam dan di luar syarikat untuk meningkatkan syarikat produktiviti dan mengekalkan kelebihan daya saing (Senge, 2006; Von Krogh, 1998; Mooradian *et al.*, 2006.; Chua dan Pan, 2008; Leonard-Barton, 1995). Kajian Nonaka dan Takeuchi (1995) menunjukkan bahawa pengetahuan boleh mempunyai pelbagai bentuk seperti sebagai jelas atau tersirat. Perkongsian pengetahuan yang jelas dilihat sebagai relatif lebih mudah daripada itu pengetahuan tersirat kerana sifat lebih ketara atau produk berasaskan daripada pengetahuan. Pengetahuan tersirat oleh alam semula jadi adalah sukar untuk menyatakan dengan jelas atau yang hendak disediakan ke dalam negeri tertentu untuk tujuan perkongsian (McKenzie, 2003; Nonaka dan Takeuchi, 1995).

Kumpulan Inovasi dan Kreatif (KIK)

Definisi konseptual menerangkan KIK sebagai sekumpulan kecil pekerja-pekerja daripada unit yang sama, bermesyuarat secara regular untuk mengenalpasti, memilih, menganalisis masalah-masalah yang berkaitan dengan kerja mereka dan mengemukakan cadangan-cadangan penyelesaian kepada pihak pengurusan untuk pertimbangan dan keputusan, dan mereka melaksanakan sendiri keputusan setelah dipersetujui oleh pihak pengurusan. Selain itu, ia perlu berkonsepkan sesuatu yang boleh mendatangkan idea, pembelajaran, perkongsian ilmu dan penciptaan nilai menerusi strategi pengenalanpastian dan penyelesaian masalah, teknik-teknik penganalisisan serta penghasilan idea-idea baru yang kreatif dan inovatif.

Bagi definisi operasional, KIK dikenali sebagai satu mekanisme yang melibatkan pekerja dalam proses penyelesaian masalah atau penambahbaikan proses kerja dan standard yang sedia ada atau memperkenalkan sesuatu yang baru. Kumpulan kecil pekerja-pekerja yang merangkumi empat (4) hingga sepuluh (10) orang daripada unit kerja yang sama yang bermesyuarat secara tetap untuk mengenalpasti, memilih dan menganalisis masalah-masalah yang berkaitan dengan kerja mereka. Dalam Pelan Strategik 2009-2015, ia merupakan usaha MPJBT memantapkan lagi pengurusannya sebagai PBT di samping meningkatkan mutu penyampaian perkhidmatan menerusi KIK. Ia juga merupakan satu dasar bagi kakitangan dan juga pelanggan tentang peraturan-peraturan yang diamalkan bagi memastikan kelancaran perjalanan penyampaian perkhidmatan khususnya melalui perkongsian pengetahuan untuk kebaikan bersama khususnya penglibatan MPJBT dalam KIK sama ada secara langsung atau tidak.

2. Tinjauan Kajian

Pengurusan Pengetahuan

Pengetahuan adalah sesuatu yang tidak ternilai di dalam sesebuah organisasi. Ini kerana tanpa pengetahuan yang ada pada setiap individu di dalam organisasi, sesebuah organisasi itu tidak akan dapat berfungsi dan berkembang dengan baik. Pengurusan pengetahuan merupakan proses organisasi mendapatkan kekayaan daripada pengetahuan ahli organisasi (Bukowitz dan Williams, 1999). Oleh itu, amatlah penting untuk mengurus pengetahuan yang dimiliki oleh setiap individu agar dapat dijadikan sebagai kelebihan dalam persaingan. Bailey dan Clarke (2000) menyatakan bahawa pengurusan pengetahuan ialah cara dan pendekatan yang diambil oleh seseorang pengurus untuk menghasilkan, mengkomunikasikan dan mengeksploitasikan pengetahuan (idea yang berguna) untuk kebaikan pengurus itu sendiri dan organisasi.

Nonaka dan Takeuchi (1995) menyatakan bahawa pengurusan pengetahuan adalah strategi menukarkan maklumat organisasi kepada peningkatan produktiviti, tambah nilai dan meningkatkan daya saing. Manakala, menurut Rollinson (2005), pengurusan pengetahuan, merupakan satu proses atau praktik untuk mencipta, pemerolehan, menguasai, berkongsi dan menggunakan pengetahuan di mana saja ia berada, untuk meningkatkan pembelajaran dan pencapaian dalam organisasi. Tiwana (2002) pula mencadangkan terdapat tiga proses asas dalam pengurusan pengetahuan iaitu proses pengurusan pengetahuan merangkumi perolehan pengetahuan, perkongsian pengetahuan dan penggunaan pengetahuan.

Pengurusan pengetahuan secara amnya melibatkan proses penemuan dan mendapatkan pengetahuan, penapisan dan penyusunan pengetahuan tersebut, dan nilai yang terhasil dari perkongsian dan penggunaan pengetahuan tersebut dalam organisasi (Chawla & Joshi, 2011). Kesemua fasa ini membenarkan sesebuah organisasi itu untuk belajar dan bertindak balas semasa membina, mengekal serta menambahkan kelebihan persaingan (Ganesh, 2001). Komponen yang penting bagi menentukan kejayaan Pengurusan Pengetahuan ialah kepimpinan, budaya (Anantatmula & Kanungo, 2010), teknologi (Anantatmula & Kanungo, 2010; Tohidinia & Mosakhani, 2010) dan pengukuran (*measuring*) (Ward & Aurum, 2004). Syarikat besar mengakui bahawa teknologi adalah bahagian yang paling mudah untuk menyokong penciptaan dan perkongsian pengetahuan (Allee, 2000). Manakala, bahagian yang paling sukar pula ialah berkaitan dengan budaya perkongsian pengetahuan (Anantatmula & Kanungo, 2010). Perkongsian pengetahuan yang menjadi salah satu dari teras utama dalam pengurusan pengetahuan hendaklah dijadikan sebagai budaya dalam sesebuah organisasi (Lee, 2002).

KIK sebagai Perkongsian Pengetahuan di Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan

Inovasi, menurut Zaltman *et al.* (1973) ialah berkaitan dengan idea, latihan atau bahan artifak yang pada asalnya adalah baru bagi unit yang menggunakannya. Manakala, kreativiti pula adalah proses pemikiran yang mendorong kepada usaha merealisasikan idea baru (Majaro, 1992). Ia juga merupakan proses melihat semula, memilih, menukar ganti, gabungan antara maklumat idea baru dan kemahiran. Tambahan pula, kreativiti merupakan kebolehan atau keupayaan untuk mencipta, mewujudkan dan menghasilkan sesuatu yang baru atau dalam bentuk baru melalui kemahiran imaginasi. Dalam usaha mentransformasikan Perkhidmatan Awam, skop pelaksanaan inovasi dan kreatif adalah merangkumi proses yang menyeluruh termasuklah urustadbir kreatif, inovasi dalam kemasyarakatan (*societal innovation*), inovasi bandar, inovasi desa, inovasi dan kreatif bagi

korporat, inovasi dan kreatif untuk industri, inovasi penjagaan kesihatan, inovasi pengangkutan, inovasi jaringan keselamatan sosial dan inovasi penjenamaan.

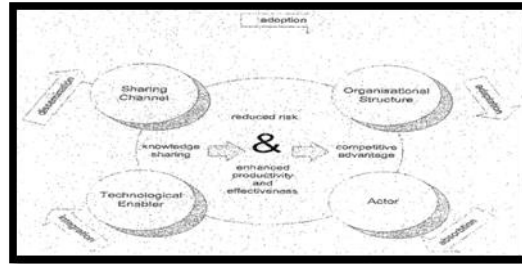
Pengurusan pengetahuan pula adalah kumpulan proses yang mengawal penciptaan, penyebaran dan penghuraian pengetahuan untuk memenuhi objektif syarikat (Ching dan Jie, 2000). Maka, pengurusan pengetahuan adalah berkaitan dengan manusia dan proses yang digunakan untuk berkongsi maklumat dan menjana pengetahuan. Secara asasnya, perkongsian maklumat dapat dilaksanakan dan ditingkatkan dengan menggunakan pengurusan pengetahuan (*knowledge management*) sebagai alat untuk menyokong matlamat memberikan perkhidmatan yang cemerlang (Donald, *et al.*, 2003). Menurut Popoutsakis (2007), berkongsi maklumat di dalam organisasi secara berkesan adalah dengan mewujudkan suasana yang membolehkan pekerja berinteraksi dan berkomunikasi di antara satu sama lain tanpa sebarang kekangan. Perkongsian maklumat adalah amat penting dan mustahak dalam sesebuah organisasi kerana ia membantu mencapai matlamat organisasi yang telah digariskan.

KMK telah digantikan dengan Kumpulan Inovasi dan kreatif (KIK) pada 1 November 2009. Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif yang lebih dikenali sebagai KIK (*Innovative and Creative Circle (ICC)*) adalah kumpulan kecil pekerja-pekerja yang merangkumi di antara empat (4) hingga sepuluh (10) orang daripada unit kerja yang sama yang bermesyuarat secara tetap untuk mengenalpasti, memilih dan menganalisis masalah-masalah yang berkaitan dengan kerja mereka. Kumpulan ini mengemukakan cadangan-cadangan penyelesaian kepada pihak pengurusan untuk dipertimbangkan dan mencapai keputusan. Seterusnya, mereka melaksanakan keputusan seperti yang telah dipersetujui oleh pihak pengurusan (Mohd Fuad, 2009). Pendekatan yang digunakan oleh KIK dalam urusan meningkatkan kualiti kerja ialah mengikut Kitaran Perancangan, Pelaksanaan, Penyemakan dan Tindakan (*Plan, Do, Check, Action*) atau P.D.C.A.



Kitaran Perancangan, Pelaksanaan, Penyemakan dan Tindakan
 Sumber: Panduan Mengenai Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK),
 Jabatan Perdana Menteri, 1 November 2009.

Menurut Yeung dan Holden (2000), dalam kajian mereka terhadap lapan syarikat di United Kingdom (pembuatan, kimia, angkasa lepas, automobil dan industri pertahanan) telah membangunkan sebuah model perkongsian pengetahuan untuk mencapai keberkesanan penggunaan semula pengetahuan antara organisasi perindustrian. Penggunaan semula pengetahuan diperlukan dalam sesetengah industri kerana ia dapat mengurangkan risiko dan dapat meningkatkan produktiviti dengan lebih berkesan. Terdapat lima tahap dalam model yang mereka bangunkan iaitu pengambilan (*adoption*), penyesuaian (*adaptation*), penyerapan (*absorbtion*), persepaduan (*integration*) dan penyebaran (*dissemination*) yang mana disokong oleh empat asas utama iaitu infrastruktur organisasi (*organizational infrastucture*), pelaku (*actor*), kebolehan teknologi (*technological enabler*) dan saluran perkongsian (*sharing channel*).



Rangka Kerja Perkongsian Pengetahuan
Sumber: Yeung dan Holden, 2000

Pada tahap pengambilan (*adoption*), penerima akan melihat kepada persekitaran yang bersesuaian untuk meletakkan pengetahuan yang bersesuaian. Latarbelakang berkenaan pengetahuan penerima dapat membantu penerima untuk mengetahui apa, di mana dan siapa yang memerlukannya. Penyesuaian (*adaptation*) merupakan proses yang kognitif di mana pengguna akan menyingkirkan ketidakpastian, kekaburan dan percanggahan dalaman yang tidak sesuai dengan organisasi. Pada tahap penyerapan (*absorption*), pengguna akan mendapatkan pengalaman dan kecekapan dalam menggunakan pengetahuan, mengaplikasikan pengetahuan dan internalis pengetahuan yang diterima. Persepaduan (*integration*), pengetahuan digabungkan menjadi sesuatu yang baru dan penerima dikatakan sudah pakar terhadap seni dan kemahiran yang diterimanya. Tahap yang terakhir ialah penyebaran (*dissemination*) iaitu pengetahuan sudah sedia ada pada organisasi melalui mekanisma yang pelbagai.

Saluran perkongsian (*sharing channel*) merupakan media dan cara berkomunikasi untuk berkongsi pengetahuan. Teknologi pula memainkan peranan yang penting kerana ia dapat membolehkan ahli organisasi yang berada jauh daripada organisasi yang utama untuk berkomunikasi. Teknologi yang digunakan seharusnya untuk mendapatkan, menapis dan menyimpan pengetahuan, memudahkan untuk bekerjasama dan memudahkan untuk mendapatkan semula pengetahuan yang disimpan. Pelaku (*actor*) adalah individu yang terlibat untuk mendorong perkongsian pengetahuan dan pembelajaran.

3. Kaedah Kajian

Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah gabungan (campuran). Menurut Cresswell (2008), kajian rekabentuk campuran (gabungan) menggabungkan data kuantitatif dan kualitatif yang perlu lebih difahami dan berupaya menerangkan masalah kajian. Tujuan utama kajian secara kaedah campuran (gabungan) ini digunakan adalah untuk menghasilkan penyelidikan kualitatif dan kuantitatif yang kukuh dan mempunyai kesahan untuk menangani fenomena dalam kajian secara menyeluruh. Ia juga berkeupayaan untuk mengolah perbincangan secara kedua-dua kaedah iaitu kualitatif dan kuantitatif secara sendiri, di samping untuk memantapkan sokongan terhadap sesuatu isu, hujah atau dapatan yang diperoleh daripada pelbagai dua perspektif/ kaedah tadi.

Dalam kajian ini, kaedah kuantitatif digunakan sebanyak 80% manakala kualitatif dijalankan sebanyak 20%. Pengumpulan dengan menggunakan kaedah kuantitatif ditentukan berdasarkan borang soal selidik yang diedarkan kepada responden ditentukan sebagaimana yang telah dinyatakan secara lebih terperinci dalam subtopik berikutnya. Manakala, kaedah kualitatif akan ditentukan berdasarkan temubual yang dilakukan kepada responden secara perbincangan kumpulan berfokus seperti yang dibincangkan lebih mendalam dalam subtopik populasi dan sampel.

Populasi dan Sampel

Kajian ini dijalankan dalam kalangan kakitangan di MPJBT yang terdiri daripada pelbagai jabatan/ bahagian/ unit. Responden dipilih mengikut kaedah kajian yang telah ditentukan. Ini adalah kerana untuk mengekalkan hasil kajian yang lebih mantap.

Kaedah Kuantitatif

Kajian ini memberi tumpuan kepada 652 kakitangan di pelbagai jabatan di MPJBT (setakat Mei 2014, MPJBT, 2013). Responden ditentukan dengan melibatkan seluruh kakitangan MPJBT. Semua ahli dalam kelompok ini dipanggil populasi. Langkah seterusnya adalah dengan melibatkan beberapa ahli atau subjek. Contohan ini dipanggil sampel. Sampel adalah sumber untuk mendapatkan data. Ini adalah bagi mewakili populasi 652 kakitangan di MPJBT.

Bagi kaedah kuantitatif, persampelan rawak digunakan dengan memilih jenis sampel mudah. Sampel jenis ini menggunakan kaedah memilih sampel daripada populasi dari senarai yang banyak. Setiap orang mempunyai peluang untuk dipilih. Kajian ini tertumpu terhadap usaha mengenalpasti hubungan antara KIK dengan Perkongsian Pengetahuan di kalangan kakitangan MPJBT. Oleh itu, kaedah persampelan hanya melibatkan kakitangan MPJBT sahaja tanpa mengambilkira latar belakang dan demografi responden. Kaedah persampelan dibuat berdasarkan faktor *reliability* (kesempurnaan) dan *validity* (kesahihan) dengan menekankan aspek keputusan yang boleh dijangkakan (Levy and Lemeshow, 1999). Menurut Szulc (1965), persampelan menggunakan pembolehubah sekata (*sampling without replacement*) menghasilkan keputusan yang lebih tepat (kerana *standard error* yang rendah), berbanding dengan persampelan menggunakan pembolehubah tak sekata (*sampling without replacement*).

Jumlah sampel yang bersesuaian seperti yang dinyatakan oleh Krejcie dan Morgan (1970) yang digunakan sebagai garis panduan bagi menentukan saiz sampel. Berdasarkan Jadual Persampelan yang digunakan Krejcie dan Morgan (1970) seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 3.1, untuk mengenalpasti saiz sampel secara rawak pada tahap signifikan 95% atau .05, maka seramai 242 orang telah dipilih menjadi sampel kajian ini. Pemilihan responden juga adalah secara spesifik kepada kakitangan MPJBT sahaja tetapi tanpa mengambilkira jawatan, faktor demografi atau latar belakang pendidikan. Ini juga penting supaya hasil kajian dapat menterjemahkan persepsi dan pendapat sebenar kakitangan di MPJBT.

Kaedah Kualitatif

Bagi kaedah kualitatif pula, kajian memilih temubual bersama responden secara kumpulan berfokus. Bentuk temubual ini dilakukan untuk menjelajah isu yang kurang dikaji atau untuk memperoleh idea tentang sesuatu yang kontroversial atau spesifik. Apabila peluang untuk temubual individu terbatas, kurang sesuai, memerlukan banyak masa atau sukar diuruskan, maka bentuk temubual secara kumpulan berfokus diperlukan. Ia juga suatu kaedah ekonomikal kerana boleh mendapat data verbal dengan banyak. Kepelbagaian idea dan pandangan boleh didapati daripada sekumpulan manusia. Kumpulan fokus ini akan ditentukan berdasarkan persampelan *snowball*. Ia merupakan teknik pengambilan sampel sumber data, yang pada awalnya jumlahnya sedikit, lama-lama menjadi besar. Hal ini dilakukan kerana dari jumlah sumber data yang sedikit tersebut belum mampu memberikan data yang lengkap, maka mencari orang lain lagi yang dapat digunakan sebagai sumber data.

Bagi kajian ini juga kaedah persampelan bertujuan digunakan iaitu menetapkan responden di kalangan yang terlibat secara langsung dengan pelaksanaan KIK di MPJBT. Ini memudahkan proses mengumpul data bagi kualitatif, kerana telah mempunyai pengalaman dan asas kefahaman mengenai konsep KIK. Kriteria yang ditetapkan bagi responden iaitu sekurang-kurangnya 5 tahun berkhidmat di MPJBT, mempunyai pengalaman dalam penglibatan KIK di MPJBT, dan pernah mewakili jabatan masing-masing untuk Konvesyen KIK peringkat MPJBT.

Instrumen Penyelidikan

Instrumen penyelidikan merupakan salah satu alat untuk pengumpulan data. Setiap kaedah penyelidikan disusuli dengan instrumen penyelidikan masing-masing.

Borang Soal Selidik

Soal selidik adalah mekanisme yang digunakan untuk mengumpul data primer daripada responden. Bagi memastikan responden memahami soalan-soalan/ pernyataan yang dimuatkan, borang soal selidik telah disusun dengan lengkap dan jelas. Isi kandungan yang dimuatkan di dalam borang soal selidik, ia direka khas dengan mengambilkira elemen-elemen pembolehkan bebas iaitu model bagi KIK iaitu Kitaran PDCA dan juga Rangka Kerja Perkongsian Pengetahuan (Yeung dan Holden, 2000) dan dijadikan pembolehkan bersandar. Perkara yang sama juga digunapakai bagi soalan temubual sebagai salah satu kaedah pengumpulan data dalam kajian ini.

Menurut Hague (1993), peranan utama soal selidik adalah untuk mendapatkan maklumat yang tepat daripada responden supaya kajian dapat dijalankan dengan lancar dengan fakta dan komen yang munasabah dan dapat memudahkan pemrosesan data.

Semua soal selidik yang diisi oleh kakitangan yang memegang jawatan pengurusan/ pentadbiran digunakan sebagai alat data yang dikumpulkan. Soal selidik yang telah digunakan untuk kajian ini terdiri daripada empat bahagian. Soal selidik ini menggunakan skala Likert lima mata. Responden diminta untuk menjawab dengan memilih daripada kadar '5' sebagai 'Sangat Setuju' sehingga '1' sebagai 'Sangat Tidak Setuju'.

Soalan Temubual Berstruktur Terbuka

Soalan temubual ini mempunyai soalan umum yang berkaitan dengan perkongsian pengetahuan dalam organisasi. Ia adalah mengenai hubungan antara KIK dan perkongsian pengetahuan. Di samping itu, responden telah diberikan masa untuk berbincang dalam kumpulan berkenaan dengan perkongsian pengetahuan supaya perbincangan lebih berfokus ke arah objektif kajian.

Bagi memenuhi pendekatan yang terdapat di dalam kaedah kualitatif pula, soalan dalam borang soal selidik dimajukan secara perbincangan kumpulan berfokus bagi tujuan untuk mendapatkan validasi kepada jawapan-jawapan yang dijangka dipilih oleh para responden yang terlibat. Soalan-soalan temubual dikemukakan kepada 24 kakitangan yang dipilih di MPJBT supaya peranan KIK dapat dikenalpasti sama ada dapat meningkatkan kualiti perkhidmatan di MPJBT melalui perkongsian pengetahuan.

4. Pengumpulan Data

Soal Selidik

Data dikumpul melalui pengedaran borang soal selidik kepada responden dipilih. Koleksi soal selidik telah diatur dan ia akan mengambil masa selama satu atau dua minggu untuk mendapat maklumbalas yang lengkap. Seramai 242 kakitangan MPJBT terpilih diberikan soal selidik secara memberi dan mengumpul semula. Pada masa yang sama, penyelidik boleh mengingatkan responden mengenai tarikh pengambilan untuk memastikan semua soal selidik yang dikembalikan pada masa yang telah ditetapkan. Selepas dua minggu, soal selidik dikumpulkan dan sekurang-kurangnya 50% daripada soal selidik dapat dikumpul pada masa yang ditetapkan.

Temubual

Bagi kaedah temubual, kajian dilakukan terhadap kakitangan di tiga jabatan di MPJBT, dan setiap 1 bahagian dan unit dalam MPJBT. Temubual telah dijalankan secara perbincangan kumpulan berfokus untuk mendapatkan pengesahan borang soal selidik yang akan diedarkan kepada kakitangan MPJBT. Temubual ini dijalankan dalam mengikut keadaan yang dipersetujui oleh responden. Ia dijalankan terhadap 24 kakitangan yang bekerja dalam jabatan yang telah dipilih dalam MPJBT.

5. Penganalisan Data

Analisis Kuantitatif

Bagi borang soal selidik pula, sebelum melakukan analisis data, penyelidik memeriksa semua borang tersebut untuk memastikan bahawa semua soal selidik dilengkapkan. Perisian *Statistical Package Science Sosial* (SPSS Versi 20.0) digunakan sebagai alat utama untuk menganalisis semua data yang dikumpulkan. Deskriptif digunakan untuk menganalisis data. Kaedah ini digunakan untuk mengetahui nilai purata, peratusan dan taburan kekerapan bagi pembolehubah bebas dan bersandar dalam kajian. Taburan kekerapan digunakan untuk menerangkan taburan demografi responden iaitu jantina, umur, gred pekerja, jawatan, tempoh perkhidmatan, tempoh berada di jawatan dan tahap pendidikan. Taburan kekerapan digunakan kerana ia dapat memberikan gambaran yang ringkas dan mudah dibaca (Sekaran, 1992). Bagi mengukur perbezaan dalam inisiatif perkongsian pengetahuan dan latar belakang kakitangan yang memegang jawatan pengurusan/pentadbiran, min dan sisihan piawai digunakan. Pembolehubah bagi dua kategori seperti jantina, min juga digunakan manakala sisihan piawai digunakan untuk pembolehubah yang lebih daripada dua kategori. Sisihan piawai digunakan untuk mengenalpasti sama ada terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan dalam kumpulan umur yang berbeza, tahap kelayakan pendidikan, penglibatan KIK dan tempoh perkhidmatan menerusi perkongsian pengetahuan.

Bagi mengetahui hubungan antara pembolehubah bersandar (perkongsian pengetahuan) dan pembolehubah bebas KIK (berdasarkan model PDCA), Korelasi Pekali Pearson (r) digunakan. Ini menentukan sama ada pembolehubah mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan. Menurut Zulkarnain dan Hishamuddin (2001), analisis korelasi memberikan gambaran tentang kekuatan yang wujud di antara dua pembolehubah.

Analisis Kualitatif

Analisis data yang dilakukan untuk temubual dilakukan secara kaedah perbandingan berterusan. Kaedah perbandingan berterusan (CCM) disertakan dengan persampelan teori merupakan teras analisis kualitatif dalam pendekatan teori yang mendalam dibangunkan oleh Glaser dan Strauss (Glaser dan Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Glaser, 1992). Perbandingan juga prinsip dominan proses analisis dalam penyelidikan berbentuk kualitatif yang lain. Semua jenis alat bantuan seperti menulis memo, bacaan tepat dan bacaan semula, pengekodan, paparan, matriks data dan rajah menyokong prinsip perbandingan ini. Alat intelektual yang utama adalah perbandingan. Kaedah membandingkan dan membezakan digunakan untuk hampir semua tugas intelektual dalam analisis: membentuk kategori, mewujudkan sempadan kategori, memberikan segmen kategori, ringkasan kandungan setiap kategori, dapatan bukti negatif, dan lain-lain. Matlamatnya adalah untuk membezakan persamaan konsep, mengkategorikan semula kuasa diskriminatif, dan untuk mempelajari corak. (Tesch, 1990: 96). Strauss dan Corbin (1990) menerangkan beberapa garis panduan yang fleksibel untuk pengekodan data apabila melibatkan diri dalam analisis teori asas:

- Pengekodan Terbuka- "Proses melibatkan, pemeriksaan, membandingkan, secara konsepnya, dan mengkategorikan data"

6. Analisis Dapatan Kajian dan Perbincangan

Tahap Pelaksanaan Kumpulan Inovasi dan Kreatif (KIK) di Majlis Perbandaran Johor Bahru Tengah

Hasil dapatan ini membuktikan bahawa KIK di MPJBT sangat aktif dan sentiasa diperbaharui dari tahun ke tahun. Ini adalah kerana setiap tugasan yang dilakukan adalah hasil daripada motivasi yang didapati khususnya daripada penglibatan secara langsung dalam KIK. Ia boleh dicapai melalui dua strategi yang berbeza, iaitu eksploitasi dan penerokaan, di mana eksploitasi adalah menggunakan peluang yang sedia ada dan penerokaan melibatkan carian untuk yang baru (Bhatt, 2001).

Contohnya, KIK bergantung kepada pengumpulan pengetahuan baru dalam sesebuah organisasi, yang memudahkan penyelesaian yang kreatif. Selain itu, apabila pengetahuan dipindahkan antara kumpulan dalam organisasi, idea-idea yang sedia ada dari satu kumpulan menimbulkan hasil yang baru, dan begitu juga sebaliknya, menyebabkan produk atau perkhidmatan baru lebih berpotensi. Dalam kajian ini, maklumbalas yang diterima daripada 125 responden di MPJBT menunjukkan rangkuman bagi perancangan, pelaksanaan,

penyemakan dan tindakan berkaitan dengan KIK di MPJBT adalah pada bacaan Min 4.061 iaitu berada di tahap yang “maksimum”. Semua strategi berhubung KIK telah memenuhi keperluan organisasi supaya ia dipraktikkan di MPJBT dan mendatangkan kebaikan kepada sistem pentadbiran PBT itu secara keseluruhan.

Kesan perkongsian pengetahuan melalui KIK dijelaskan apabila kedua-dua dimensi inovasi dianggap bersama-sama. Kreativiti yang diperlukan untuk inovasi dalam KIK ini adalah berasal dari kedua-dua kepakaran yang jelas dan nyata, dan juga dari pengumpulan yang tidak dapat dilihat daripada pengalaman. Apabila pekerja dalam organisasi berkongsi pengalaman ketara dan pengetahuan terkumpul dengan satu sama lain, kreativiti dan inovasi dapat dipertingkatkan (Barreto, 2003).

Tahap Amalan Budaya Perkongsian Pengetahuan di Majlis Perbandaran Johor Bahru Tengah

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan secara keseluruhan kakitangan menerapkan budaya perkongsian pengetahuan terutamanya di kalangan kakitangan sokongan. Ini adalah kerana kakitangan sokongan banyak terlibat dalam pertandingan KIK dan mempelajari sesuatu yang baru dan inovasi yang boleh dikongsi bersama.

Min yang paling rendah dicatatkan ialah 3.848 iaitu dalam organisasi MPJBT membuktikan bahawa kakitangan sokongan banyak terlibat dalam pertandingan KIK dan mempelajari sesuatu yang baru dan inovasi yang boleh dikongsi bersama. Nilai Min tertinggi pula menghasilkan nilai 4.256 yang mempunyai saluran perkongsian yang tinggi iaitu memastikan bahawa kakitangan dalam organisasi ini berkomunikasi antara satu sama lain dan menjadikan ia sebagai satu saluran utama dalam berkongsi pengetahuan. Min bernilai 4.042 yang terhasil untuk kesemua maklumbalas menunjukkan kecenderungan para responden di MPJBT melihat budaya perkongsian pengetahuan di organisasi mereka adalah positif dan menjurus kepada amalan yang berguna kepada sistem pentadbiran PBT itu sendiri. Bagi pembelajaran dan memperoleh pengetahuan baru, individu perlu berinteraksi dan berkongsi pengetahuan tersirat dan tersurat dengan satu sama lain. Dengan cara ini, individu meningkatkan keupayaan mereka untuk menentukan situasi atau masalah, dan menggunakan pengetahuan mereka untuk menyelesaikan masalah. Kepentingan pengetahuan digariskan untuk organisasi dengan menunjukkan bahawa jumlah pengetahuan diambil dari luaran dan dalaman yang menjadi suatu sumber yang lestari untuk mengekalkan kelebihan daya saing. Ia juga menekankan bahawa pengetahuan organisasi memainkan peranan penting bukan sahaja dalam prestasi keseluruhan, tetapi juga dalam daya saing organisasi. Oleh itu, perkongsian pengetahuan adalah isu penting dalam organisasi (Low *et al.*, 2003).

Hubungan antara Pelaksanaan Kumpulan Inovasi dan Kreatif dengan Budaya Perkongsian Pengetahuan di Majlis Perbandaran Johor Bahru Tengah

Hubungan antara pelaksanaan KIK dengan budaya perkongsian pengetahuan di MPJBT

Pembolehubah Kajian	Pekali Pearson (r)	Korelasi	Signifikan (2-tailed)
Hubungan Antara Pelaksanaan KIK di MPJBT dengan Budaya Perkongsian Pengetahuan di MPJBT	0.583		0.000

Pekali korelasi Pearson (r) digunakan untuk mengetahui lebih lanjut mengenai hubungan antara pembolehubah pengaruh KIK (sokongan kumpulan kerja, sistem ganjaran, teknologi maklumat, dan interaksi sosial) dan pembolehubah bersandar (berkongsi pengetahuan) untuk mencari faktor yang paling mengaitkan. Nilai pekali korelasi pearson (r) ini telah menunjukkan nilai 0.583. Ini menunjukkan kekuatan hubungan pada pelaksanaan KIK dengan perkongsian pengetahuan adalah berada pada tahap sederhana. Nilai-nilai perlu diterapkan dalam diri individu untuk dikongsi pengetahuannya hasil daripada pengetahuan yang diperolehi daripada KIK. Bagi mewujudkan dan mengekalkan budaya perkongsian pengetahuan, ia adalah tugas yang paling mencabar. Oleh itu, kewujudan hubungan antara KIK dan perkongsian pengetahuan perlu diterapkan apabila strategi KIK ini diamalkan. Ini jelas menunjukkan hubungan KIK dan perkongsian pengetahuan di MPJBT adalah positif dan mempunyai potensi yang cerah untuk dimajukan lagi tertakluk kepada usaha-usaha dan perancangan oleh pihak atasan PBT.

Kajian mendapati pasukan dan peringkat organisasi adalah berdasarkan kepada perkongsian pengetahuan individu. Ia hanya jika individu-individu ini mencapai perkongsian pengetahuan di peringkat pasukan dan organisasi yang boleh berlaku sepertimana KIK dilaksanakan. Ini adalah hasil daripada interaksi antara kognisi individu dan tingkah laku (Yi and Jayasingam, 2012).

Hasil Perbincangan Kumpulan Berfokus

Perbincangan kumpulan berfokus ini bertujuan untuk melihat secara keseluruhannya sama ada KIK boleh meningkatkan kualiti perkhidmatan di MPJBT melalui perkongsian pengetahuan. Ini adalah kerana peningkatan kualiti perkhidmatan adalah usaha penambahbaikan dan strategi PBT yang dijalankan secara berterusan.

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan berkenaan dengan KIK yang dibuktikan dapat meningkatkan kualiti perkhidmatan di MPJBT. Hubungan positif wujud signifikan di antara KIK dan perkongsian pengetahuan kerana mempunyai asas kukuh untuk melestarikan sistem pentadbiran dan memastikan kualiti perkhidmatan yang disediakan adalah sentiasa dikemaskini dan diperbaiki. Contohnya, jika wujud aduan awam mengenai pelbagai jenis ketidakpuasan para pelanggan, maka ahli dalam KIK dapat mengolah aktiviti dan strategi supaya aduan itu dapat diminimumkan. Apabila ia berjaya dilakukan, maka penyampaian maklumat melalui perkongsian pengetahuan adalah perlu disusuli supaya persepsi para pelanggan, malahan menghargai usaha penambahbaikan yang dijalankan oleh MPJBT. Perkongsian pengetahuan adalah satu bahagian penting dalam aktiviti organisasi. Jika organisasi terlibat dalam aktiviti menjana pengetahuan, maka kita pasti akan menyimpulkan terdapat aktiviti organisasi tertentu di tempat itu untuk memindahkan dan berkongsi pengetahuan itu. Model produktiviti yang berbeza daripada perkongsian pengetahuan menerusi KIK dalam organisasi boleh disimpulkan bahawa aktiviti perkongsian pengetahuan yang berbeza boleh membantu untuk menjelaskan prestasi tugas ke arah yang lebih baik. Oleh itu, perkongsian pengetahuan memainkan peranan penting dalam organisasi yang boleh dipupuk melalui KIK.

Ini adalah kerana inovasi yang wujud daripada kakitangan yang dijalankan melalui KIK adalah untuk menambahbaikan urusan perkhidmatan dengan orang awam (Yao *et al.*, 2007). Ini adalah secara langsung menaikkan imej MPJBT di hadapan orang awam dengan mutu perkhidmatan yang baik iaitu kesan daripada pengetahuan yang diperolehi daripada penglibatan KIK untuk dikongsi bersama dalam sesebuah organisasi. Selain itu, ia juga mencungkil bakat-bakat di kalangan orang bawahan kerana KIK memupuk semangat bekerjasama dan tidak ada perbezaan gred dalam kumpulan masing-masing.

7. Kesimpulan

Secara keseluruhannya, kakitangan MPJBT mengamalkan perkongsian pengetahuan menerusi pengetahuan yang diperolehi daripada penglibatan dalam KIK khususnya. Kakitangan MPJBT telah menunjukkan diri mereka sangat mementingkan pengetahuan dalam melaksanakan kewajipan mereka untuk melakukan tugas harian dalam urusan pentadbiran dan pengurusan. Semangat kerjasama yang tinggi, semangat kerja berpasukan dan kejelikan terhasil di kalangan staf MPJBT hasil daripada pelaksanaan Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK).

8. Rujukan

- Allee, V. (2000). *Knowledge Networks and Communities of Practice*. OD Practitioner Online. 32 (4).
- Anantamula, V.S. dan Kanungo, S. (2010). Modeling Enablers for Successful KM Implementation. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 14(1), 100 – 113.
- Anantamula, V.S.P. (2004). Criteria for Measuring Knowledge Management Efforts in Organization. The School of Engineering and Applied Science of The George Washington University: Dissertation.
- Bailey, Catherine., Clarke, Martin. (2000). How do managers use knowledge about knowledge management?. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. Volume 4 N0. 3, 2000 pp.235-24
- Barreto, C. (2003). The Motivators and Effects of Formalized Knowledge Sharing Between Employees Through Knowledge Management Initiatives: A Multi Case Study Approach. Syracuse University. Doctor of Philosophy.

- Bhatt, C. D (2001). Knowledge Management in Organisations: Examining the Interaction between Technologies, Technique and People. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 3(1). 68-75.
- Bukowitz, W. R. dan William, R. L. (1999). *The Knowledge Management Fieldhook*. Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited.
- Chawla, D, dan Joshi. H. (2011). Impact of Knowledge Management on Learning Organization in Indian Organizations - A Comparison. *Knowledge and Process Management*. 18(4), 266–277.
- Ching Chyi Lee, Jie Yang, (2000). Knowledge Value Chain. *Journal of Management Development*. 19 (9), pp.783 – 794
- Chua, A.L. and Pan, S.L. (2008), “Knowledge transfer and organizational learning in IS offshore outsourcing”, *Omega – International Journal of Management Science*, Vol. 36 No. 2, pp. 267-81
- Cresswell, J. W. (2008). *Research Methodology*, SAGE Publications
- Cummings, J.N. (2004), “Work groups, structural diversity, and knowledge sharing in a global organization”, *Management Science*, Vol. 50 No. 3, pp. 352-64
- Dani Salleh (2004). *Pembangunan Komuniti: Dasar, Konsep, Strategi Dan Isu di Malaysia*. Sintok: Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Eisenhardt, K.M. and Santos, F.M. (2002), “Knowledge-based view: a new theory of strategy?” in Pettigrew, A.Thomas, H. and Whittinton, R. (Eds), *Handbook of Strategy and Management*, Sage, London, pp. 139-64.
- Ganesh, D.B. (2001). Knowledge Management in Organizations: Examining the Interaction between Technologies, Techniques and People. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 5(1), 68-75.
- Glaser, B. G. (1992). *Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociological Press.
- Glaser, B. G. & Strauss, A. L. (1965). *Awareness of Dying*. Chicago: Aldine Publishers.
- Glaser, B. G. & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative*.
- Hague P. (1993). *Interviewing*. Kogan Page, London.
- HH, Low., Siti Zaleha Omain., dan Hishamuddin Md Som. (2003). *Perkongsian Pengetahuan Di Kalangan Industri Kecil Dan Sederhana Di Malaysia*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia McGraw Education. Pg. 143-145.
- Jiacheng, W., Lu, L. and Francesca, C. (2010), “A cognitive model of intra-organisational knowledge-sharing motivations in the view of cross culture:”, *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol. 30 No. 3, pp. 220-39
- John W. Creswell (2008). *Educational Research - Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. 3rd Ed. <http://penyelidikanpendidikancomputer.blogspot.com/2010/08/apa-itu-kajian-kualitatif.html>.
- Krejcie, Robert V. dan Morgan, Daryle W. (1970). *Determining Sample Size for Research Activities*. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*.
- Lee, C.K. (2002). Factors Affecting Knowledge Sharing. *Journal of Information & Knowledge Management*. 1(1), 49-56.
- Levy, P. S. and Lemeshow, S. (1999). *Sampling of Populations: Method and Applications*. (3rd ed.). New York: A Wiley-Interscience Publications.
- Majaro, S. (1992). Strategy Search And Creativity: The Key To Corporate Renewal. *European Management Journal*. 10 (2), pp. 230-238.
- Mathis R, and Jackson R. (2010). *Human Resource Management*. Cengage Publishing.
- McKenzie, K.M. (2003), “Leveraging organisational tacit knowledge: delivering knowledge based consulting solutions through interpersonal knowledge exchange”, *The International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*, Vol. 3, pp. 141-55
- Mohd. Fuad (2009). *Definisi & Falsafah*. Portal PSZ UTM.
- Moller, K. and Svahn, S. (2004), “Crossing East-West boundaries: knowledge sharing in intercultural business networks”, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 33, pp. 219-28
- Mooradian, T.A., Renzl, B. and Matzler, K. (2006) “Who Trusts? Personality, trust and knowledge sharing”, *Management Learning*, Vol. 37 No. 4, pp. 523-40
- Nonaka I. dan Takeuchi H. (1995). *The Knowledge-Creating Company: How Japanese Companies Create the Dynamics of Innovation*. New York: Oxford University Press. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 8 (3), 106-117.
- Panduan Mengenai Kumpulan Inovatif dan Kreatif (KIK), Jabatan Perdana Menteri, 1 November 2009.

- Pelan Perancangan Strategik MPJBT 2009-2015.
- Polanyi, M. (1966), *The Tacit Dimension*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.
- Popoutsakis, H. (2007). Sharing Knowledge in the Organisation: a Retrospective Analysis and an Empirical Study. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*. 5, 231 – 244.
- Research. Chicago: Aldine. Glaser, B. G. (1992). *Emergence vs. Forcing. Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis*. Mill Valley: Sociology Press.
- Rollinson, D. (2005). *Organizational Behavior and Analysis an Integrated Approach*. 3rd Ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research Methods For Business – A Skill Building Approach*. (2nd Ed). United States of America: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Senge, P.M. (2006), *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*, Currency, New York, NY.
- Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: sage Publications.
- Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Szulc, S. (1965). *Statistical Methods*. Warsaw: Panstwowe Wydawnictwo Economiczne.
- Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative Research. Analysis Types and Software*. London: Falmer press.
- Tohidinia, Z (2010). Knowledge Sharing Behaviour And Its Predictors'. *Industrial Management & Data System*. 110 (4), pp. 611-631.
- Tiwana, A. (2002). *The Knowledge Management Toolkit*. Second Edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Orentice Hall PTR.
- Unit Permodenan, Pentadbiran dan Produktiviti Malaysia (MAMPU) (2013). *Memperkasa Penyampaian Perkhidmatan PBT menerusi penggunaan ICT*.
- Von Krogh, G. (1998). "Care in knowledge creation", *California Management Review*, Vol. 40 No. 3, pp. 133-53
- Ward, J. dan Aurum, A. (2004). *Knowledge Management in Software Engineering – Describing the Process*. Proceedings of the 2004 Australian Software Engineering Community Conference, IEEE Computer Society: Piscataway, New Jersey.
- Yao, L. J, Kam, T. H. Y dan Chan. S. H (2007). Knowledge Sharing in Asian Public Administration Sector: The Case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*. 20(1), 51 -69.
- Yeung. C., dan Holden. T (2000). Knowledge Re-Use as Engineering Re-Use Hunting Value from Knowledge Management. 3rd *International Conference on Practical Aspects of Knowledge Management*. 30-31 October. Basel, Switzerland..
- Yi, L. W. and S. Jayasingam (2012). Factors Driving Knowledge Creation among Private Sector Organisations: Empirical Evidence from Malaysia. *Journal Organisatinal Knowledge Management*.
- Zaltman, G., Duncan, R., & Holbeck, J. (1973). *Innovations And Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Zulkarnain Zakaria & Hishamuddin Md. Som (2001). *Analisis Data Menggunakan SPSS Windows*. Skudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

The Effect of Motivational Training Program on Goal Efficacy among Potential Employees Receiving Scholarship

Zainubiah Abd Aziz and Hamdan Abd Kadir

Fakulti Pengurusan

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract This study is an experiment study which is conducted to examine the effect of motivational training on goal efficacy dimensions among potential employees who are receiving scholarship in Company X. A total of 60 respondents were divided into two groups by random match sampling. 30 respondents were then in the experimental group and 30 respondents in the control group. The goal-efficacy instrument (GEI) developed by Phang et. al (2011), incorporated a few tested nstrumensts for each elements was used. Data analysis was conducted using descriptive and inferential statistic using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20.0. Result shows that the overall goal efficacy level of the sampling is at medium. Results also showed that there are significant difference between the mean of pre and post-test in goal efficacy dimensions for the experimental group. Meanwhile, overall there is no significant difference between the mean of pre and post-test in goal efficacy dimensions for the control group. The result also indicated that there was a significant difference in the post-test between experimental and control groups. In general, the study found that the motivation training effected the goal efficacy dimensions of the experimental group among underperforming undergraduates.

Keywords: Goal Efficacy and Training Effect

1. Introduction

Faculty of Management is pleased to organise the International Conference of Human Resource Development that aims to bring together all professionals, academicians and researchers for networking, developing and sharing knowledge in research findings related to HRD.

In a survey done by the Conference Board on Human Capital Challenges in 2011-2013, they interviewed human capital professionals from 98 companies to determine their greatest areas of concern and strategies used to effectively meet the human capital challenges. Among the findings is that all CEOs in the region rank Human Capital and Innovation as the top 2 challenges. This reflects the unique factors influencing Asia-Pacific companies that are the on-going war to talent, a small talent pool, strategic plan to expand beyond the region, the growing gap between supply and demand. To meet these, the strategies that Asian CEO took the strategies to grow talent internally, improve corporate brand and employee value proposition to attract the employees, improve leadership development programs and increase diversity and cross cultural competencies. (Mitchell et. el, 2012)

One of the celebrated ways of growing talent internally is by 'planting the seeds' from the universities. Many organisations have a scheme of scholarship program in order to prepare the employees in the pipe-line before entering the organisation. Hence, this study will explore the areas relating to academic performance of so called potential employees who are receiving scholarship from Company X.

Bandura (1994) suggested that people's actions and behaviors are guided by their beliefs about how successful they can be in performing a task, termed as self-efficacy. Not only do people need to have the skills

and knowledge to execute a task successfully, they also have to have a certain level of expectation for success before they take on the assignment. Researchers have found that individuals who believe that they can successfully complete a task (or those who have high self-efficacy) tend to perform better as compared to those who lack such a belief (Pajares, 2003). Students' motivation has been proposed to affect their actions and academic achievement in the sense of their self-efficacy (students' beliefs about their capabilities to complete a task successfully) and goal orientation (students' reasons for doing a task).

This research takes the approach of training as a method of intervention as opposed to other interventions of motivation such as counselling, coaching and psychological therapy. Training, normally meant in the method of formal learning has been identified as a means of transferring skills and knowledge from one to another. Historically, as early as 1800 B.C. in Babylon, training was in the form of apprenticeship. It is not restricted to artisan, but also religion, art and soldier training. Apprenticeship was the vehicle of instruction in medicine, law and many other professions where education now is in the domain (Craig, 2000).

Training and development practices are also known as human resources development. Human resource development is defined as any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity (McLean & McLean, 2010). In a more recent world in workplace context, organisation has trust in training and invested USD164.2 billion in 2012 in training and development of their employees (ASTD State of the industry survey).

Students' psychological perspective has been an interesting area of studies predominantly for academic providers. Elements of psychological perspectives may be valuable as a tool for monitoring and intervention for student ability to achieve higher academic performance. The findings of the studies in these areas were then used to decide what would be an efficient intervention and control that gives the greatest result.

The comprehensive theories of students' psychological influenced greatly by Albert Bandura's theory of social learning. The theory recognizes contribution of personal factors to the learning process, providing an explanation of human behaviour in terms of cognitive, environment and behavioural influences (Krouse et al, 2006). It also suggests that self-efficacy can be thought of as a sense of confidence regarding the performance of specific tasks and, consequently, one's sense of self efficacy may influence several aspects of behaviour that are important to learning and performance. Further development of the studies has bundled self-efficacy with a few other factors such as ability, assigned goals and personal goals and called it Goal Efficacy Model (Latham and Locke, 1991).

With the identifications of elements that influence academic performance, opportunities are open to design interventions to support and improve the elements. However, not much research was done on the effectiveness of the interventions. Most of the researches were done in the context of mere measurement of students' self-efficacy at some point of their studies, while others measure the self-efficacy of the students in comparison of different group of students. In relation to that, this research will explore the effect of a training program designed to help university students in enhancing their goal efficacy and eventually academic performance.

The motivation training program that is of interest in the study is called Aspiring Achievers Program (AA Program). AA Program is a training program designed by TDC in 2008 for ESU. The focus of the training is to help company X's sponsored university students to have the motivation and confidence to improve their academic achievement. The objectives of the program are as below:

Aspiring Achievers Training Program Objectives:

- Understand the importance of self- management to achieve success
- Understand and appreciate the need to change in achieving their goals
- Identify the steps to effective techniques of personal management skills
- Apply effective personal management skills in their action plan
- Implement their Visioning and Action Plan to achieve higher CGPA

The two-day residential program will expose students to multiple learning strategies, self-discovery in their areas of strength and weaknesses, time management, values clarification and many more. The training runs in four consecutive weeks with four core modules. The training utilises multiple learning methodology for example lecturing, interactive sharing, experiential learning, role play and peer-coaching or also known as 'buddy-system'. In the training sessions, the potential employees will experience a self-discovery, techniques on handling examination and some skill in time management and study management.

The researcher investigated the effect of the motivation program on the potential employees due to several growing needs. First, the Education Sponsorship Unit (ESU) of company X has approached company X's Training and Development Centre (TDC) to design and developed a training program to help the academic performance of the students. The researcher would like to scrutinize the contributing factors to the improvement of the academic performance. If the contributing factors are something that possibly has a more sustaining effect (like the Goal Efficacy), the intervention may help the sponsored students to be a potential employee. Furthermore, sponsorship is a cost to the organisation. The company will have to answer the return to its investment. Currently, the company statistic shown that only as high as 62.9% of sponsored students were recruited by the company.

From academic stand point, in order to help students to perform better in their study, the common intervention was counselling. Counselling was perceived by clients as positively effecting upon their academic achievement by improving their concentration, motivation to study and attend school, behaviour in class and relationships with teachers (Rupani et al, 2012). Though this method is proven, it is also not very economical as counselling need to be done in a one-to-one manner. In addition to that, there is no study on the effect of counselling on students goal efficacy for their academic performance.

Edwin Locke and Gary Latham wrote an article entitled 'New Direction in Goal Setting Theory'. The article discussed about the advances of goal theory incorporating elements like learning goals, framing affect, group goals, goals & traits, macro-level goals and subconscious priming. According to them, learning goals facilitates or enhances metacognition, namely planning, monitoring and evaluating progress towards goal attainment. This is particularly necessary in environments in which there is minimal structure of guidance. They also mentioned that goal setting is an open theory, there is no limit to the number of discoveries that can be made or to the integrations that might be made between goal theory and other theories. Referring to the discussion above, an experimental study that investigates the effect of motivational training with specific learning goals on goal efficacy of a group of student were done. This will contribute and benefits the field of training and development.

Although there are many studies in the area of self-efficacy and goal efficacy, there the researcher did not find any study of the effect of motivation training program on goal efficacy. In conclusion, it is hope that this study can fill the gap of evidence and empirical supports on the effectiveness of the interventions on students' academic performance, in particular, the goal efficacy of students in academic performance. It is the hope that this study can also provide a valid measurement of the elements of goal efficacy.

The researcher has identified several objectives to be achieved with regards to goal efficacy among the undergraduates who are underperforming. The objectives of this study are as follows:-

- i. To investigate the overall level of goal efficacy among the potential employees.
- ii. To investigate the effect of motivation training program on goal efficacy among the potential employees.
- iii. To investigate the effect the motivational training program on goal efficacy dimensions.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Motivational Training

Training and Development (T&D) focus on changing or improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of individuals. Very often, it is easier to change knowledge and skill then to change attitude. Nevertheless, attitude has been proven by psychologist to be the most important component in human performance or behaviour changes. Training typically involves providing employees the knowledge and skills needed to do a particular task with specific intend of attitude changes. Development, on the other hand, have a longer-term focus on preparing for future work responsibilities while also increasing the capacities of employees to perform their current jobs (Werner and DeSimone, 2009). The training for goal efficacy requires continuous learning proses in order to give an effect to the potential employees. There are arguments to which self-efficacy can be taught in a classroom set up. Multiple studies have indicated that the right method of training deliverable can

effect self-efficacy. Frayne and Latham (1987) studies has proven that some training methods can enhance self-efficacy in the areas of self-management.

According to Blanchard and Thacker (2004), training for behavioural modification requires a systematic process of which enable the learner to have the opportunity to learn the skill and knowledge to enable the learner to implement their learning. And in implementing the learning, learner will accomplish organisation goal through its completion of task using the new knowledge, skill and the right attitude.

For TDC that acted as the training provider, it took an approach of Learning and Development in defining their function to their client. TDC operationalize as Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) in UK define Learning and Development as the following statement (CIPD 2005a:81).

“The organisation process of developing people involves the integration of learning and development processes, operations and relationships. Its most powerful outcomes for the business are to do with enhanced organisational effectiveness and sustainability. For the individual they are to do with enhanced personal competence, adaptability and employability. It is therefore a critical business process, whether in for-profit or not-for-profit organisations.”

TDC aspires to help participants in the motivational program by enhancing personal competence, adaptability at their university and employability to the sponsor. TDC intended to accomplish that through the motivation program called Aspiring Achievers Training Program (AA Program).

2.2 Goal Efficacy

Self-efficacy is rooted from social cognitive theory, is one's judgement about one's capabilities to accomplish specific tasks and to attain designated types of performances (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy determined by skill levels in a particular domain, prior achievement and experiences, both positive and negative. Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, behave and more importantly in our context, motivate themselves. Such beliefs result to vary effects through four major processes namely; cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes. (Bandura, A., 1994)

From the finding of Albert Bandura on self-efficacy, many more development was found on efficacy including goal efficacy. Goal Efficacy is a term coined by Latham and Locke to encompass the elements of Self-Efficacy, Personal Goal, Assigned Goal and Ability in relation to students' academic performance within the socio-cognitive framework. The model was proven to be superior in statistic properties relative to other models of student performance advance by other investigators of educational psychology. Subsequently, Latham and Locke wrote that the elements of Goal Efficacy is not limited to his initial findings and invited researchers to expand the components of goal efficacy (Locke and Latham, 2006).

The measure of goal efficacy was adapted from Goal efficacy Model from Locke and Latham (2006). The goal efficacy model encompasses the elements which are University Self-Efficacy, Academic Self-Concept Ability, Goal Orientation and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy. The operational definitions of each of the elements which is used in this study are as below:-

University Self-Efficacy represent a person's expectation of what he or she can accomplish in a given situation (Bong, 2001), in this case in university. It look into the area of how much the students' belief in their capability to successfully complete university-related tasks. The confident level will be in the interplay in this area.

Academic Self-Concept Ability is formed based on a student's conception of his or her own ability to learn or perception of his or her academic capability (Bong, 2001). It will look into the students' perceived academic ability into achieving their academic expectation result. Among the criteria for self-concept ability would be the likelihood of achievement, how good they are in the subject, how much they like the subject and how much they enjoy the subject.

Goal Orientation is the purpose and meaning that a person ascribes to achievement behaviour (Ames, 1992). This element looks into how directed the students are in wanting to get a better grade. The students will also be assess on the willingness to demonstrate action that lead to achievement.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategy is student's perception about the frequency and effectiveness of their use of various learning strategies to complete their study related activities. This elements look into students' time management, strategizing learning method and modifying learning methods.

3. Methodology

This experimental study measures the effectiveness of AA training program to potential employees in the university in improving their goal efficacy. A research design that is suitable in this research is an experimental research. The research is a quantitative study and used questionnaires as an instrument. The goal-efficacy instrument (GEI) developed by Phang et. Al (2011), incorporated a few tested nstrumensts for each elements was used. There are two parts to the questionnaire, Part 1 (Respondent Background) and Part 2 (Goal Efficacy Instrument). Respondents are given Likert Scale of five scores as an option of their respond.

This research involves a total of 90 subjects of undergraduate students in a university who was receiving scholarship from the Company. In this research, after elimination of extreme scores, sample was divided into two groups; that is an experimental group (30 subject) through random sampling and control group (30 subject) through random matching. According to Christensen (1988), an experimental design is where the treatment effect will be evaluated by measuring the variations between the pre and post-test result of experiment group and control group.

As this instrument has been slightly modified to fit the context of the program and university students, a validity and reliability test was done using the population from the pilot test. The collected data was then analysed using the Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS) version 16.0. The required minimum Cronbach's Alpha is 0.7. From the findings, all of the item questions has more than 0.7 Cronbach's Alpha rest result.

In analysing the data, the researcher used below analysis methods.

Table 1: Analysis Methodology Based on Research Objectives

Research Objective	Analysis Method
To Investigate the level of goal efficacy among the underperforming undergraduates.	Frequency Distribution Percentages Min Score
To investigate the effect AA training program on goal efficacy elements namely: (a) University Self-Efficacy (SE) (b) Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC) (c) Goal Orientation (GO) (d) Self-regulated Learning Strategy (SL).	t-Test (Paired samples t-test) (Independent samples t-test)

4. Research Findings

4.1 Level of Goal Efficacy

All of the potential employees were given a pre-test to assess their level of goal efficacy. Table below shows the frequency distribution of the level of goal efficacy among the students. The table indicated that there are 10 respondents score the highest level off goal efficacy with mean of 4.466. They represent 11.11% of the total respondents. 70 respondents score moderate level of goal efficacy with mean of 3.2. They represent 77.78% of the total respondents. And lastly, 10 respondents score low in the goal efficacy, with mean of 1.891. They represent 11.11% of the total respondents. Respondents who score highest and lowest level of goal efficacy will be eliminated from the other respondents for the continuing study.

Table 2: Frequency Distribution of the Level of Goal Efficacy

Level	Frequency	Mean	Percent
Higher	10	4.466	11.11%
Moderate	70	3.200	77.78%
Low	10	1.891	11.11%
Total	90	3.185	100.00%

4.2 Summary Findings of the Effect of AA training program on Goal Efficacy

The findings of the analysis has answered the hypotheses and the objectives of the research. There are multiple findings whereby some of the hypotheses are being accepted and there are some of the hypotheses are being rejected. The summary of the findings on the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses are listed in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Summary of t-Test Analysis on Overall Hypotheses

Ho	Pembolehubah Kajian	Keputusan Perbezaan Mean	
		A	Keputusan
Ho1	There is no significant different between the pre-test and post-test score of Goal Efficacy (GE) in the experimental group among the potential employees.	0.00	Reject Ho
Ho2	There is no significant different between the pre-test and post-test score of Goal Efficacy (GE) in the Control group among the potential employees.	0.06	Accept Ho
Ho3	There is no significant different in the post-test between experimental group and control group for Goal Efficacy (GE) among the potential employees.	0.01	Reject Ho

Research Summary on Goal Efficacy Dimensions

The summary of the findings on the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses for the second objective are listed in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Summary of t-Test Analysis on Hypotheses of Goal Efficacy Dimension

Ho	Research Variables	Mean Difference	
		A	Result
Ho4	There are no significant differences of the elements of University Self-Efficacy (SE) between the pre-test and post-test score in the experimental group.	0.00	Reject Ho
Ho5	There are no significant differences of the elements of University Self-Efficacy (SE) between the pre-test and post-test score in the control group.	0.00	Reject Ho
Ho6	There are no significant differences of the elements of University Self-Efficacy (SE) in the post-test score between the experimental group and the control group.	0.03	Reject Ho
Ho7	There are no significant differences of the elements of Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC) between the pre-test and post-test score in the experimental group.	0.04	Reject Ho
Ho8	There are no significant differences of the elements of Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC) between the pre-test and post-test score in the control group.	0.20	Accept Ho
Ho9	There are no significant differences of the elements	0.01	Reject Ho

	of Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC) in the post-test score between the experimental group and the control group.		
Ho10	There are no significant differences of the elements of Goal Orientation (GO) between the pre-test and post-test score in the experimental group.	0.00	Reject Ho
Ho11	There are no significant differences of the elements of Goal Orientation (GO) between the pre-test and post-test score in the control group.	0.44	Accept Ho
Ho12	There are no significant differences of the elements of Goal Orientation (GO) in the post-test score between the experimental group and the control group.	0.01	Reject Ho
Ho13	There are no significant differences of the elements of self-regulated Learning Strategy (SL) between the pre-test and post-test score in the experimental group.	0.00	Reject Ho
Ho14	There are no significant differences of the elements of self-regulated Learning Strategy (SL) between the pre-test and post-test score in the control group.	0.29	Accept Ho
Ho15	There are no significant differences of the elements of self-regulated Learning Strategy (SL) in the post-test score between the experimental group and the control group.	0.00	Reject Ho

Based on the analysis and findings, it can be seen as a whole, that the study showed that there is an effect of the motivation training to the Goal Efficacy among potential employees. T test results show that majority of the hypotheses is rejected, this indicates a significant difference between pre-test and post-test for two different groups of Experimental and Control.

5.1 Discussion on Research Result

Discussion of research result below based on research findings. This discussion will follow according to the research objectives indicated in introduction of this chapter.

5.1.1 Objective 1: The overall level of goal efficacy among the potential employees.

From the analysis done, it was found that on general, the Goal Efficacy level at pre-test of all of the potential employees from the sampling group were at medium. As the identification of the sampling were from the underperforming undergraduates, it is expected that their Goal Efficacy are not high. This in itself, has given the researcher a good sample to work on for the study. This realization, in a reverse manner confirm the model/theory that efficacy is an important element in achievement or performance.

As mentioned from Albert Bandura's findings that people with a weak sense of self-efficacy (a component of Goal Efficacy) have distinctive traits like low aspirations and weak commitment to goals that they encounter. They also dwell on their personal deficiencies rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully or achieve better. They would slacken their effort and give up too early in the face of challenges. The worst is when they lose faith in their capabilities. (Bandura, A., 1994).

This is also concurred by the research on Self-theory (a component of Goal Efficacy) and its relation to performance. Self-efficacy theory states that the combination between the four factors of developing self-efficacy (Mastery experiences, Social Modelling, Social Persuasion and Psychological Responses) and three assessment processes (analysis of task requirement, attributional analysis of experience and personal and situational constraint/resources) used to interpret self-efficacy will determine the level of self-efficacy which directly effects the performance outcomes. The higher the level of self-efficacy, the higher the chances that the individual achieving higher performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

5.1.2 Objective 2: The effect of motivation training program on goal efficacy among the potential employees

The objective basically measures the level of goal efficacy among the underperforming undergraduates identified in the study, before and after a specific period of time. In between of this period, for the experiment group, they attended the motivation training. For the control group, there were no treatment given to them.

The result of the study shows significant difference between the mean of pre and post-test in the experiment group. There is also significant difference in the mean post-test between experiment and control group. Furthermore, the difference of pre and post-test for control group showed no significant difference. All the three findings support the conclusion that the motivation program reinforced the increase of goal efficacy level among the underperforming undergraduates.

There are many factors contributing to the effectiveness of training programs. The practice of training evaluation is to assess the very fact of the training effectiveness. CIPP is also a model for training evaluation. The 'I' in CIPP means the 'input' given in the intervention process. In this case, it is the content of the program. The better the content is design to fit the needs of the audience, the more effective the training program. It is good to be reminded that all of the elements in CIPP are taken at an equal importance. (Mathison, 2005)

The content is brilliantly crafted that follow the L&D practices. With the process of program development, the learning goal is kept focus throughout until its implementation. In another word, nothing in the program activity that is not having direct relation to its learning objectives. The design is in direct alignment with the goal efficacy dimensions as illustrated in table above. For example, in the topic of Time Management, the objective is to identify the right use of time contributing to self-regulated time and learning strategies.

Another factor that may support the effectiveness of the program was the emphasize it put on the implementation of the program. For effective intervention of behaviour modification, the program was delivered in four weeks. For each of the weeks, the facilitator will start with refreshing the previous week learning and request feedback on the implementation of feedback. Any challenges will be discussed in lengthy and any means of assistance that need to be given to the undergraduates will take place. The facilitator will then introduce a new knowledge with some skill practice in the classroom. This is in alignment with a 20 year research project by Dr Brent Peterson, from University of Phoenix indicates that only 25% of learning effectiveness comes from the learning event itself, and that 25% comes from learner preparation and 50% from follow up (Squire, 2013). The time given to the undergraduates between the 4 sessions are the kind of follow up that was put in place.

5.1.3 Objective 3: To investigate the effect of motivational training program on Goal Efficacy dimensions.

The discussion for the second objective has four section as per four dimensions following Goal Efficacy model which are; University Self-Efficacy (SE), Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC), Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL). The discussion will deliberate the effect of training on each of the dimensions. The findings of the above was from the fourth hypothesis to the sixth hypothesis. The finding was that the post-test mean of Self-Efficacy (SE) for underperforming undergraduates in experimental group is significantly higher than the pre-test. There is a significant difference in the mean of Self-Efficacy (SE) for underperforming undergraduates in control group. The mean post-test of Self-Efficacy (SE) in the experimental group is significantly higher than the mean post-test of Self-Efficacy (SE) in the control group of potential employees.

This indicates that although there is an effect of the motivational training to the University Self-efficacy, it was not clear if the effect comes from the motivational training or from some other external factor. This is because there is a significant difference in the mean of pre-test and post-test in the control group which does not go through the intervention. However, when compared the mean of post-test between this two groups, it shows a significant difference. This indicates that a structured intervention and conscious effort of changing University Self-Efficacy has effect on the potential employees.

A logical explanation to this is falls in the definition of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy begins to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. The growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth. It continues to evolve throughout one's life as people acquire new skills,

experiences, and understanding. This may come from the changes in the sources of self-efficacy, which was Mastery experiences, Social Modelling, Social Persuasion and Psychological Responses (Bandura, A., 1994). It is possible that some of the control group members may have experience one or more of the sources of self-efficacy during the period of which may have effected their university self-efficacy level. This contributes to the significant difference of the mean in university self-efficacy at pre-test and post-test.

Finding from the research is that the post-test mean of Self-Concept Ability (SC) for potential employees in experimental group is significantly higher than the pre-test. There is no significant difference in the mean of Self-Concept Ability (SC) for potential employees in control group. The mean post-test of Self-Concept Ability (SC) in the experimental group is significantly higher than the mean post-test of Self-Concept Ability (SC) in the control group of potential employees.

This demonstrates that there is an effect of the motivation training to the dimension of Academic Self-Concept to the potential employees. Self-concept comes from a collection of knowledge, ideas, attitude and beliefs we have accumulated upon ourselves through interaction with people in an environment. Although it is built upon ourselves (internal comparison from one activity to another activity), it is influenced by how significant others evaluate us, that is social comparison with peers (Marsh, 1993). In the motivational program, there are some activities of which has affected the thinking of the undergraduates upon themselves. For example, in the program, the undergraduates were requested to reflect their success in the examination that was used as a criteria for admission to the university and acceptance as a scholarship receivers. They were then requested to share this success in the classroom. This has contributed to affect the undergraduates' self-concept.

Similarly, the finding from the research was that the post-test mean of Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL) for potential employees in experimental group is significantly higher than the pre-test. In the control group, there is no significant difference in the mean of Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL) for potential employees. The mean post-test of Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL) in the experimental group is significantly higher than the mean post-test of Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL) in the control group of potential employees.

This demonstrates that there is an effect of the motivation training to the dimension of Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL) to the potential employees.

5.2 Recommendation

From the research findings, summary and discussion, the researcher would like to make a few recommendation to the organisation and to the future researcher. This recommendation is made to improve the Goal Efficacy of the potential employees that are receiving scholarship from Company X.

5.2.1 To the Organisation

From the research, it was proven that the motivational training has an effect on the goal efficacy of underperforming undergraduates that are receiving scholarship. The researcher would like to make some recommendation to the company who is organising the training program as well as the sponsoring unit. The findings align with many other researches that the increase of goal efficacy (self-efficacy as a component) helps to improve academic achievement. Hence, for the organisation, to ensure that the investment is with return, a concerted effort need to be put in place to help the potential employees face the very often temporary challenges in young adults. On top of that, the increase of goal efficacy will help to prepare them as the future employee of the organisation with high goal efficacy.

The first step that the organisation should do is for the organisation to continue this focus intervention on the potential employees receiving the scholarship from the organisation. As of now, the training program is only being perform on the identified targets as undergraduates that are underperforming. The organisation may look into offering this program to the undergraduates who are potentially fall into the category of underperforming.

The organisation may also look into improvising the methodology and learning strategies in delivering the activities relating to enhancing University Self-Efficacy (SE) dimension, as this dimension given a weak effect on the undergraduates. The finding shows that the control group who did not attend the motivation program also have a significant different in their mean of pre-test and post-test result. As the sources of self-

efficacy are Mastery experiences, Social Modelling, Social Persuasion and Psychological Responses, the designer may want to re-design the training whereby more of the elements the above are embedded in the topics and activities. For example, the designer of the training may want to consider to invite someone who have experience failing in the academic but experienced a turning point in their life whereby they pick up the academic achievement. This kind of sharing may inspire the undergraduates attending the training program.

Lastly, as the effectiveness of the training program has been proven by this research, the organising of the motivation training may offer the same training to other organisation's sponsoring units or universities' Students Affairs who have the common need of the program. This is because, very often to start designing a program for that purpose may require a big investment and the stakeholder may not want to invest on it. Therefore, it is more economical and sharing the cost seems to be a viable action to do.

5.2.2 To Future Research

On top of recommendation to the organisation, the researcher would like to make a few recommendation to future researcher who may be interested to do research in this area. The first recommendation is for the researcher to find the best intervention methods to increase goal efficacy and self-efficacy. This could be done by comparing the effect of one method of intervention with another. Different method of intervention to increase goal efficacy among the undergraduates may also considering an integrated approach of intervention on top of training program. For example combining counselling as a follow up after attending the training program.

It is also recommended that other researcher do the same study on Goal Efficacy, but in a different location and different target. Goal setting can be used effectively on any domain in which an individual or group has some control over outcomes (Latham and Locke, 2006). Other domain includes, other undergraduates at different sponsoring companies or other universities' Students Affairs. This study can also be done on the domain of the existing employees as goal efficacy also affect work performance on employees.

By reference to 'New Direction in Goal Setting Theory', Latham and Locke viewed that as goal setting is an open theory, there is no limit to the number of discoveries that can be made or to the integrations that might be made between goal theory and other theories. According to them, future research could include studies of the effects of different types of learning goals and ways of combining them with performance goal. And finally, they also suggested more studies of the relationship between conscious and subconscious goals would also be of interest (Latham and Locke, 2006).

5.3 Contribution to Towards the Development of Knowledge

This research contributes towards the development of knowledge in two ways. Although there are many researches on Goal Efficacy (and more researches in Self-Efficacy), this research is different as it uses experiment method. Not many Malaysian researchers use experimental method in their research. Experimental research method has been identified as one of the most proven methodology in the research. This study will become one of the research that advocates experimental method.

This study also helps organisation and academician realize that in providing intervention for undergraduate academic performance, a direct intervention to increase academic performance may not be the answer but rather by putting the effort on the enhancing the goal efficacy. This also has a longer effect to the undergraduates who will become the employee of the organisation in due time.

5.4 Conclusion

From the study, it was found that Goal Efficacy and its dimensions were positively affected by the motivational program. This findings supported other findings in the academia that training program with focus design have bearing upon the result. In the case of this study, the focus design of the motivational program as outlined is on goal efficacy dimensions namely; University Self-Efficacy (SE), Academic Self-Concept Ability (SC), Goal Orientation (GO) and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy (SL). All these have influence on the underperforming undergraduate's academic achievement or performance receiving scholarship from Company X, which eventually will become the potential employees.

There is a significant mean difference of the dimensions before and after attending training program in the experimental group. This shows that the experimental group bear the fruits of the intervention by the

organisation. It is the hope of the researcher contributed to the exploration of knowledge in the area of Self-Efficacy and Goal Efficacy.

6. Acknowledgements

In preparing this thesis, I was in contact with many helpful people; among others researchers, academicians, and practitioners. They have contributed for me in forming towards my understanding and thoughts. Particular, I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my thesis supervisor, Dr Hj Hamdan Bin Abd Kadir for his encouragement and guidance.

I am also very thankful to the organisation which have given me the opportunity to understudy the program in their offer and the scholarship holders. A special thank you to the leader and colleagues in the organisation who have contributed their idea in the discussion. As this Master program is done part time, I would like to also thank my employer for their understanding and support for me to accomplish this recognition. Without their continued support and interest, this thesis would not have been the same as presented here.

7. References

- Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 260-267.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachandran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior*, 4. New York: Academic Press, pp. 71-81.
- Bandura, A. (1986) *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Blanchard, P.N. and Thacker, J.W., (2004). *Effective Training, System, strategies amd Practie*. New Jersey. Pearson Education Inc.
- Bong, M. (2001) Between-and within-domain relations of academic motivation among middle and high school students: self-efficacy, task-value and achievement goals, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, pp. 23-34.
- Christensen, L. B. 1988. *Experimental Methodology* Newton, MA, Ellyn and Bacon Inc.
- Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2005a) 'The learning and Development Generalist Standard'. In CIPD Practitioner Level Professional standards. London: CIPD; pp81-8
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of Management review*, 17(2), 183-211.
- Krause, Kerri-Lee and Bochner, Sandra and Duchesne, Sue (2006). *Educational Psychology for learning and teaching*. (2nd ed). Nelson Australia Pty Ltd
- Latham GP, and Locke EA. Self-regulation through Goal Setting. *Organisation Behaviour Human Decision Process*. 1991; 50; 212-247
- Locke E.A and Latham, Gary P. New Directions in Goal-Setting Theory. *Current Direction in Psychological Science*. 2006. Vol 15 No 5 p265
- Mathison, S. (Ed.). (2005). *CIPP Model*. Encyclopedia of Evaluation. Sage.
- Marsh, H. W. (1993). Academic self-concept: Theory, measurement and research. In J. Suls (Ed), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (Vol. 4, pp 59 – 98). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- McLean , Gary N. & Mclean, Laird. (2010) If we can't define HRD in one country, how can we define it in an international context? *Human Resource Development International*,
- Mitchell, Charlse & Ray, Rebecca L. & Van Ark, Bart. (2012) *The Conference Board CEO Challenge 2012@: Risky Business–Focusing on Innovation and Talent in a Volatile World*, The Conference Board, Research Report 1491
- Phang, Michelle M.S.; Johl, Shireenjit; Cooper, Barry. (2011) *A Comparison of Domestic and International Accounting Students' Academic Performance Using The Goal Efficacy Framework*. Deakin University.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19, 139-158.

- Rupani, Pooja and Haughey, Nuala & Cooper, Mick. (2012) The effect of school-based counselling on young people's capacity to study and learn. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling* Volume 40, Issue 5, p 499-514
- Squire, Philip (2013), Can a Sales Performance and Learning Culture Co-exist. Training Zone online (www.trainingzone.com)
- Werner, Jon M. and DeSimone, Randy L. (2009) *Human Resource Development*. Mason, Ohio. South-Western Cengage Learning.

Exploring the Feasibility of High Performance Work Practices to Achieve Sustainability Culture

Desmond Bong¹

Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak

Abstract

This study is undertaken to explore the feasibility of high performance work practices to achieve sustainability culture. This is important to establish the underpinning variables that give rise to achieving the sustainability culture in organization. The practical implementation of sustainable development in a company could be considered as new in Malaysia. In achieving a sustainability culture, organization involves in making changes to the organization's system through applying high performance work practices. This study contributes to organizational development's literature by showing how high performance work practices have helped organizations to achieve sustainability culture.

Keywords: High Performance Work Practices, Sustainability, Human Resources

1. Introduction

Sustainable development term means different things to various people with vary interest. Brundtland Commission 1987 defined sustainable development as concerned with meeting the needs of people today without harming the ability of the future generations to have the same rights (Liebowitz & Donahue, 2010). Sustainable development is pursued so every people able to enjoy favorable future that includes healthier environment, secure economic condition without harming the nature, and conservation of biodiversity. Therefore, as the scope is very big, we need participation from everybody through education, systems value, and engagement of communities to shape better future (MPC, 2010).

Nowadays, organizations are racing to get sustainable development in their everyday routine by integrating sustainability culture in their organization. Organization is hardly to succeed if it fails to view sustainable development as a long-term commitment.

The Human Resources Department has the potential capability in the creation of their company's sustainability culture (Harmon, Fairfield & Wirtenberg, 2010). The HR department needs to utilize the high performance work practices approach to successfully implement the sustainability development. Those HR departments that engaged their employee in the sustainability development are more likely successfully in achieving sustainability culture.

2. Literature Review

High Performance Work Practices

In the past two decades, there has been a new understanding of human resource practices in organizations. Appelbaum and Batt (1994) has been popularised a new model of organizational reform, High Performance

¹ Corresponding author. Tel.: + 60146930835
E-mail address: desmond_5161@yahoo.com

Work Practices (HPWP). The HPWP stands on the grounds such as work organisation, skills, and motivation (Appelbaum, 2002).

First, the nature of HPWP distinguishes it from previous approaches to work organisation by increased emphasis on participative decision making (Harley, 2005). Ramsay et al. (2000) suggested the aspects of work organisation are management-employee meetings, employee surveys, information sharing, formal teams and problem-solving groups. These allow employees to voice their views and employees to feel empowered in achieving sustainability culture. Konrad (2006) proposed that participation generates engagement by affecting beliefs, attitudes and behaviour. HPWP could produce behaviour that is indicative of highly engaged employees due to the fact that participation is encouraged. Employees seem to go beyond their job requirement in order to contribute to achieve the sustainability culture.

Second, employees are characterised as having a high skills to facilitate work organisation. These skills achieved by comprehensive training, induction programs, and sophisticated recruitment and selection for employing appropriately skilled employees (Ramsay et al., 2000). For instance, comprehensive training in sustainability provides employees with knowledge which probably causes them engaged in organization's sustainability strategy.

Third, incentives are given as motivation for the successful implementation of HPWP. In comparison to the 'old' reward systems that incorporated job-evaluated grade structures and seniority, the concept of reward systems in HPWP focuses on the reward and the individual's effort, skills, and contribution. For instance, the HR department can provide employee incentive system to promote environmentally responsible behaviour.

Empirical evidence that show a relationship between HPWP and performance abounds (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Huselid, 1995; Luther, 2000; Zang, 2008). Hence, this study seeks to advance this discussion by acknowledging the relationship between HPWP and sustainability culture. With the assumption that, if HPWP are properly configured, they may contribute significantly in achieving sustainability culture in the organization.

To date, there has been no clear view about the specific set of practices to make up an HPWP. Based on the prominent high-performance work studies (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Boxall & Macky, 2007; Huselid & Becker, 1997), most of the high-use HPWPs include comprehensive recruitment, training, employee involvement programs, performance reward systems, developmental performance appraisal, formal grievance system, and job security policies.

Sustainability Culture

According to Leibowitz and Donahue (2010), sustainability culture is means meeting the need for two parties in an organization that is employees and the community, to have better attitude in protecting the environment and to drive success. Meanwhile, HR understanding on the culture, based on Leibowitz and Donahue (2010) is the awareness of both employees and community's need to sustain long-term relationship between these parties, without having the thought to jeopardize one's right.

Hartman and Hayden (2005) defined sustainability culture as a positive culture because it takes into account different parties need to measure organization performance. Thus, it is importance to have a positive view on this culture and sustain it. Additionally, positive culture leads to organizational effectiveness. Employee engagement also increases due to the fact that they are able to work better in a positive culture.

3. Conclusion

Although sustainability culture is still at the early stage for the implementation in Malaysian organization, this study will explored the feasibility of high-performance work practices in achieving the sustainability culture. The literature reviews show that there are reasonably strong evidences to show that HPWP promotes the sustainability culture in organization. In light of this, HR department can take a comprehensive approach such as HPWP in achieving sustainability culture that leading to the organizational success.

4. Acknowledgements

The author would like to thank Jessica John and Caroline Imang for their ideas and suggestions on this study.

5. References

- Appelbaum, E. (2002). The impact of new forms of work organization on workers. In: Murray, G (Eds). *Work and employment relations in the high-performance workplace*. (pp. 120-149). London: Continuum.
- Appelbaum, E. & Batt, R.H. (1994). *The new American workplace: Transforming work systems in the United States*. ILR Press. New York.
- Becker, B. & Huselid, M. (1998). High performance work systems and firm performance: A synthesis of research and managerial implications. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 16, 53-102.
- Blackburn, W. (2007). *The Sustainability Handbook*, Washington, D.C: Environmental Law Institute.
- Bolch, M. (2008). Speaking green, *HR Magazine*, June: 58-61.
- Boxall, P. & Macky, K. (2007). High-performance work systems and organizational performance: Bridging theory and practice. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 45(3), 261-270.
- Brundtland, G.H (Ed.) (1987). *World Commission on Environment and Development, Our Common Future*, Oxford University Press, New York.
- Daily, B.F. & Huang, S. (2001). Achieving sustainability through attention to human resource factor in environmental management, *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 21(12): 1539-1552.
- Esty, D.C. & Winston, A.S. (2006). *Green to Gold*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Harley, B. (2005). Hope or hype? High-performance work systems. In: Harley, B., Hyman, J. & Thompson, P. (Eds). *Participation and democracy at work: Essays in honour of Harvie Ramsay*. Palgrave Macmillan, New York.
- Harmon, J., Fairfield, K.D., & Wirtgenberg, J. (2010). Missing an opportunity: HR leadership and sustainability, *People & Strategy*, 33(1): 16-21.
- Huselid, M. & Becker, B. (1997). The impact of high performance work systems, implementation effectiveness, and alignment with strategy on shareholder wealth. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 144-148.
- Huselid, M. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 635-672.
- Hartman, P. & Hayden, J. (2005). *Creating a positive culture*. [Online] Available: <http://pghrconsulting.com> (February 5, 2015).
- Jalil, M.A. (2010). Sustainable development in Malaysia: A case study on household waste management, *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 3(3): 91-102.
- Konrad, A. (2006). Engaging employees through high-involvement work practices. *Ivey*

- Business Journal, 1-6.
- Liebowitz, J. & Donahue, J.F. (2010). The role of HR in achieving a sustainability culture. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol.3, No. 4.
- Luther, N. (2000). Integrity testing and job performance within high performance work teams: A short note. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 1(1), 3-30.
- Macky, K. & Boxall, P. (2007). The relationship between high-performance work practices and employee attitudes: An investigation of additive and interaction effects. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(4), 537-567.
- McDonough, W. & Braungart, M. (2002). *Cradle to Cradle: Remaking the Way We Make Things*. New York: North Point Press.
- MPC. (2010). *Sustainable Development Initiatives in Malaysia*. Selangor Darul Ekhsan: Malaysia Productivity Corporation.
- Ramsay, H., Scholarios, D. & Harley, B. (2000). Employess and high-performance work systems: Testing inside the black box. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 38(4), 501-531.
- Sroufe, R., Liebowitz, J. & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2010). Are you a leader or a laggard? HR's role in creating a sustainability culture, *People & Strategy*, 33(1): 34-42.
- Tripoli, L. (2010). Sustainability for the rest of us. *Sustainabiity: The Journal of Record*, June, 3(3): 152-156.
- Wirtenberg, J., Harmon, K.D., Russell, W.G. & Fairfield, K.D. (2007). HR's role in building a sustainable enterprise, *Human Resources Planning*, 30(1): 10-20.
- Woodward, N.H. (2008). New breed of Human Resource leader, *HR Magazine*, June: 52-56.
- Zang, Z. (2008). High performance work systems diversified impact on firm's innovation performance in entrepreneurial firms. *International Journal of Psychology*, 43(3), 243-243.

Kaitan Antara Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi Dengan Keadilan Prosedur

Anasty Majus¹, Mai Izzatul Syahirah Binti Mohamad Anuar², Nur Khairun Binti Roselan³

¹Azman Ismail

²Ishak Yussof

³Ros Zam Zam Sopian

⁴Khairul Azman B. Aziz

⁵Ratana Jabir

Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstrak Kajian ini dilaksanakan untuk mengkaji perhubungan di antara sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dan keadilan prosedur menggunakan borang soal selidik telah dikumpulkan daripada pekerja di sektor pendidikan. Keputusan analisis model laluan SmartPLS mengesahkan bahawa kriteria pembayaran dan penyertaan memainkan peranan penting sebagai peramal kepada keadilan prosedur di organisasi kajian. Selanjutnya, perbincangan, implikasi dan kesimpulan turut dihuraikan dalam kajian ini.

Kata Kunci: keadilan prosedur; kriteria pembayaran dan amalan penyertaan pekerja dalam sistem ganjaran

1. Pengenalan

Faktor ganjaran adalah aset penting untuk memotivasikan pekerja untuk menunjukkan prestasi yang baik dalam pekerjaan. Organisasi harus mewujudkan sistem ganjaran yang berkesan dan fleksibel bagi memotivasikan tingkahlaku pekerja dan mempercayai bahawa pekerja mempunyai keperluan, nilai matlamat dan jangkaan yang berbeza terhadap ganjaran yang ditawarkan (Plunket dan Attner,1994). Bagi organisasi yang gagal untuk menyediakan sistem ganjaran yang setimpal hasil daripada prestasi pekerjanya yang baik akan menghadapi kemungkinan seperti perasaan tidak puas hati pekerja, mogok, kemerosotan prestasi pekerja, pekerja tidak ikut spesifikasi bidang tugas dan seumpamanya (Ainon Mohd,1997). Tetapi organisasi yang berjaya menyediakan sistem ganjaran yang baik dapat mengelak kemungkinan tersebut serta dapat mempertingkatkan daya saing dan pekerjanya pula akan maju dalam kerjaya masing-masing.

Penelitian yang mendalam terhadap kajian literatur tentang pengurusan ganjaran organisasi mendapati bahawa kebanyakan organisasi yang berjaya mengamalkan sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi. Sistem ganjaran ini mempunyai dua ciri yang sangat penting: kriteria bayaran dan penyertaan. Dalam konteks pengurusan ganjaran, kriteria bayaran biasanya ditakrifkan secara umum sebagai pemberian ganjaran yang lebih tinggi kepada pekerja bukan berdasarkan ciri-ciri pekerjaan (seperti jawatan dan lama berkhidmat), tetapi dibuat berdasarkan prestasi, merit atau/dan kemahiran yang tinggi dalam melaksanakan tugas (Stankiewicz, 2010). Penyertaan dalam sistem ganjaran kerap kali ditakrifkan sebagai penggalakan penyertaan pekerja di peringkat hierarki yang berbeza dalam membuat keputusan dan aktiviti menyelesaikan masalah yang berkaitan dengan sistem ganjaran (Appelbaum et al,2000; Heery & Noon,2001; Milkovich & Newman,2005; Wallace & Fay,1988).

Agak menarik apabila kajian yang dilaksanakan baru-baru ini mengetengahkan kebolehan pengurus dalam penyertaan pekerja bagi sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dapat meningkatkan perasaan keadilan prosedur dalam kalangan pekerja, sekaligus meningkatkan sikap dan gelagat pekerja yang positif terutama sekali kepuasan kerja dan komitmen kerja(Coyle-Shapiro et al,2002; Skarlichi & Folger,2008). Dalam konteks

pengurusan ganjaran, keadilan prosedur bermaksud keadilan mampu dibuktikan oleh penilai dalam melaksanakan prosedur yang telah ditetapkan oleh organisasi secara konsisten dan telus (Haralombos,1989).

Dalam model pengurusan ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi, kebanyakan sarjana berpendapat bahawa kriteria bayaran, penyertaan dan keadilan prosedur adalah konsep yang berbeza tetapi ia saling berkaitan. Sebagai contoh, kebolehan pengurusan menyediakan ganjaran yang mencukupi berdasarkan kriteria prestasi dan menggalakan penyertaan yang aktif dalam membuat keputusan ganjaran dapat mendorong pekerja meningkatkan perasaan adil terhadap prosedur pemberian ganjaran dalam organisasi. Ketidakadilan prosedur akan memberikan kesan negatif sekaligus memberikan implikasi social dalam pelaksanaan penilaian prestasi sehingga boleh menjejaskan pembangunan organisasi secara keseluruhannya (Greenberg & Barling,1999). Sungguhpun sifat perhubungan ini adalah penting, namun peranan sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi sebagai peramal adalah diabaikan dalam model pengurusan ganjaran organisasi. Seterusnya, keadaan ini menarik minat pengkaji untuk meneroka secara mendalam sifat perhubungan ini.

2. Sorotan Kajian

Kriteria bayaran atau juga dipanggil bayaran berdasarkan kemahiran adalah berkaitan dengan sistem pembayaran dimana sistem yang berasaskan pembayaran terhadap kemahiran. Ini bermakna sistem bayaran berdasarkan kemahiran (Skill Based Pay) turut mempunyai perkaitan antara bayaran berdasarkan pekerjaan dan bayaran berdasarkan gaji pekerja, Stankiewicz (2010). Berdasarkan kajian yang kami lakukan, kami dapati tiada kajian yang khusus dijalankan berkaitan faktor keadilan prosedur dengan kriteria bayaran tetapi kajian yang telah kami lakukan membuktikan bahawa terdapat hubungan yang positif antara keadilan prosedur dengan kriteria bayaran.

Menurut (Bies dan Shapiro, 1988; Kanfer *et al.* 1987), persepsi pekerja terhadap keadilan prosedur yang turut dikaitkan dengan amalan penyertaan dalam proses membuat keputusan bagi sesebuah organisasi. Kajian oleh Wang dan Nayir (2010), turut menyokong pendapat Bies & Shapiro serta Kanfer *et. al.* dimana terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara keadilan prosedur dengan amalan penyertaan dimana individu yang mempunyai nilai kepimpinan yang tinggi (*high power distance*) mempunyai penyertaan yang lebih baik. Selain itu, dapatan kajian juga turut mencadangkan amalan penyertaan dalam proses membuat keputusan yang berkaitan dengan keadilan prosedur adalah dengan membenarkan peserta untuk menyertai proses dalam membuat keputusan supaya dapat memberi peluang kepada mereka untuk menyatakan pandangan mereka kepada pihak yang sepatutnya. Keadaan ini dikenalpasti sebagai salah satu faktor yang dapat mewujudkan kesaksamaan dalam keadilan prosedur, (Lind *et. al.*, 1993).

3. Tujuan Kajian

Kajian ini mempunyai dua objektif utama: pertama, mengukur perhubungan di antara kriteria bayaran dan keadilan prosedur. Kedua, mengukur perhubungan di antara penyertaan dan keadilan prosedur.

4. Metodologi Kajian

Kajian ini menggunakan borang soal selidik tentang sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi yang dibina oleh FRGS Bil.1/2014 (Azman, Ishak, Ros Zam Zam dan Khairul Azman,2014). Borang soal selidik ini mempunyai empat seksyen. Pertama, soalan-soalan mengenai demografi responden. Kedua, soalan-soalan mengenai kriteria pembayaran, amalan penyertaan dan kaedah penilaian prestasi dalam system ganjaran diukur menggunakan 20 soalan yang telah diubahsuai daripada literature pengurusan ganjaran. Ketiga, pertanyaan mengenai keadilan prosedur, keadilan deskriptif dan amalan komunikasi. Akhir sekali, soalan-soalan berkaitan tahap kepuasan komitmen dan tahap motivasi para pekerja dalam sesebuah organisasi. Oleh itu, secara terperinci borang soal selidik ini mempunyai 7 item berkaitan dengan kriteria pembayaran, 7 item bagi amalan penyertaan dan 6 item soalan untuk keadilan prosedur bagi memenuhi kehendak kajian ini.

Kesemua item diukur menggunakan skala tujuh pilihan jawapan yang bermula daripada “sangat tidak setuju/sangat tidak puas hati” (1) kepada “sangat setuju/sangat puas hati” (7). Data demografi responden hanya digunakan sebagai pemboleh ubah kawalan kerana kajian ini memfokuskan kepada tingkah laku pekerja. Jumlah pekerja ialah 1000 guru yang berkhidmat di sekolah – sekolah yang berada di Pahang dan Selangor.

Dengan mengambil kira halangan peraturan sekolah ini, pengkaji menggunakan kaedah persampelan mudah bagi mengedat 160 borang soal selidik kepada pekerja di organisasi kajian. Daripada jumlah tersebut, sebanyak 130 borang soal selidik sahaja yang diisi dengan lengkap. Responden kajian menjawab borang soal selidik ini dengan kerelaan dan persetujuan masing – masing. Jumlah sampel kajian ini melebihi jumlah sampel minimum iaitu 30 orang dan ini membolehkan hipotesis-hipotesis kajian diuji menggunakan analisis statistik inferensi (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Sekaran, 2000). Pakej Statistik untuk Sains Sosial (SPSS) versi 22 telah digunakan untuk mengenal pasti profil sampel kajian, menghasilkan statistik deskriptif, menilai psikometrik data soal selidik kajian, menganalisis korelasi Pearson, dan seterusnya menguji hipotesis kajian.

5. Dapatan Kajian

Jadual 1 menunjukkan profil responden seramai 125 responden yang telah melalui proses saringan daripada 130 responden yang menjawab borang soal selidik dengan lengkap. dan peratusan kumpulan terbesar adalah terdiri daripada kalangan perempuan (72%), lingkungan umur antara 25 tahun hingga 34 tahun (35.2%), para guru yang sudah berumahtangga (71.2%), kumpulan pengurusan dan profesional (93.6%), berpendidikan Ijazah Sarjanamuda (80.8%), mereka yang telah berkhidmat dalam bidang pendidikan antara 15 hingga 24 tahun (38.4%) dan pendapatan bulanan antara RM 4000 sehingga RM 5499 (36.0%)

Jadual 1: Ciri-ciri Responden (N=125)

<u>Jantina (%)</u>		<u>Tahap Pendidikan Tertinggi (%)</u>
Lelaki = 28		LCE/SRP = 2.4
Perempuan = 72		SPM = 0.8
		HSC/STP = 0.8
		Diploma = 11.2
<u>Umur (%)</u>		Ijazah = 80.8
Kurang daripada 25 tahun = 11.2		Lain-lain = 4.0
25-34 tahun = 35.2		
35-44 tahun = 24.8		<u>Tempoh Perkhidmatan (%)</u>
45-54 tahun = 27.2		Kurang daripada 5 tahun = 25.6
55 tahun & ke atas = 1.6		5-14 tahun = 22.4
		15-24 tahun = 38.4
		25 tahun ke atas = 13.6
<u>Taraf Perkahwinan (%)</u>		
Bujang = 28.0		<u>Pendapatan Bulanan (%)</u>
Berkahwin = 71.2		Kurang daripada RM 1000 = 4.0
Lain- lain = 0.8		RM 1000 – RM 2499 = 12.8
		RM 2500 – RM 3999 = 29.6
<u>Jawatan (%)</u>		RM 4000 – RM 5499 = 36.0
Pengurusan = 93.6		RM 5500 – RM 6999 = 11.2
Bukan pengurusan = 6.4		RM 7000 dan ke atas = 6.4

Keputusan statistik kajian mengesahkan bahawa skala pengukuran kajian ini mempunyai tahap kesahan dan kebolehpercayaan yang tinggi seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 2 dibawah ini.

Jadual 2: Ujian Kesahan dan Kebolehpercayaan Skala Pengukuran

Pemboleh Ubah	Bil. Item	KMO	Nilai Muatan Faktor	Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Sig)	AVE	Nilai Eigen	Variance Explained	Nilai Cronbachs Alpha
Keadilan Prosedur	6	0.864	0.79-0.87	0.000	0.69	4.152	69.197	0.91
Kriteria Pembayaran	7	0.811	0.77-0.83	0.000	0.65	3.782	54.032	0.87
Amalan Penyertaan	7	0.865	0.85-0.90	0.000	0.75	4.732	67.605	0.92

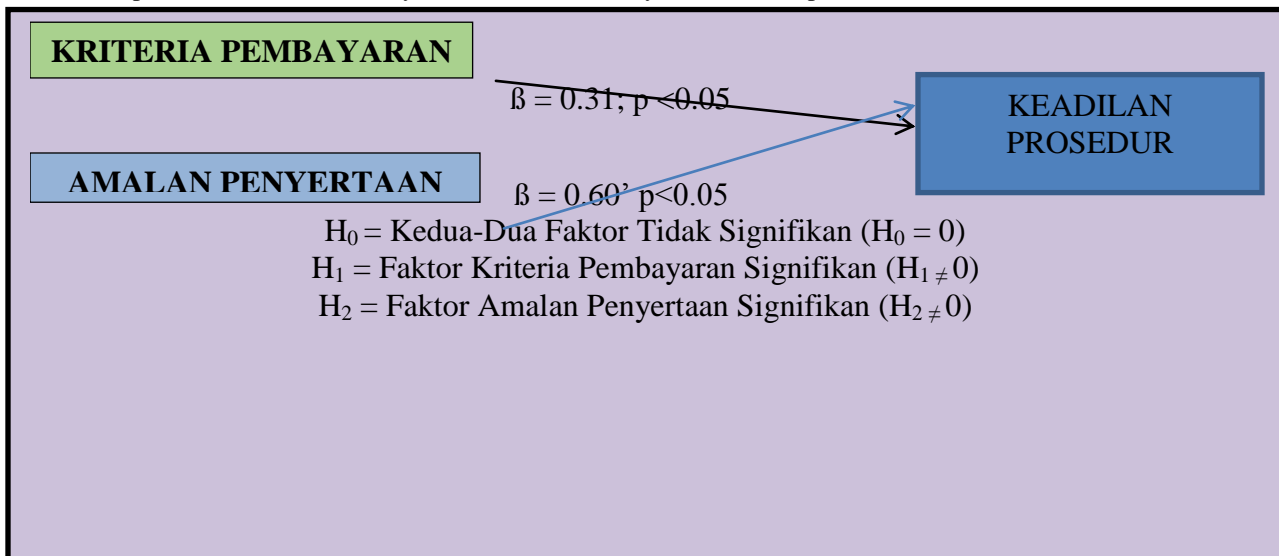
Jadual 3 menunjukkan keputusan ujian statistik asas dan korelasi Pearson. Nilai min bagi setiap pemboleh ubah berada antara 4.3 sehingga 5.1 adalah tahap pengetahuan mengenai sistem ganjaran serta keadilan prosedur berada ditahap neutral (4) dan sangat setuju (7). Pekali korelasi antara pemboleh ubah bebas (kriteria pembayaran dan amalan penyertaan dalam sistem ganjaran) terhadap pemboleh ubah bersandar (keadilan prosedur) berada pada nilai rendah daripada 0.90 yang menunjukkan bahawa data kajian ini tidak mempunyai masalah kolineariti (Hair et al, 1998; Sekaran, 2000).

Jadual 3: Statistik Deskriptif dan Korelasi antara Pemboleh Ubah Kajian

Pemboleh Ubah	Min	Sisihan Piawai	Korelasi Pearson (r)		
			1	2	3
Keadilan Prosedur	4.5	1.1	1		
Kriteria Pembayaran	5.1	0.97	0.609**	1	
Amalan Penyertaan	4.3	1.2	0.778**	0.505**	1

Model hipotesis 1 di bawah menunjukkan bahawa model ini mengambil kira keadilan prosedur sebagai pemboleh ubah bersandar yang dipengaruhi oleh kriteria pembayaran serta amalan penyertaan yang bertindak sebagai pemboleh ubah bebas. Dapatan kajian ini telah membuktikan bahawa hubungan antara kriteria pembayaran dengan keadilan prosedur adalah signifikan ($\beta = 0.31$, $t = 5.03$), ini bermakna H_1 diterima. Begitu juga dengan keputusan hubungan antara amalan penyertaan dengan keadilan yang menunjukkan keputusan yang signifikan juga ($\beta = 0.60$, $t = 10.61$), dan ini bererti H_2 diterima. Kesimpulannya, analisis kajian ini telah membuktikan bahawa keadilan prosedur dipengaruhi secara signifikan oleh faktor kriteria pembayaran dan faktor amalan penyertaan para guru dalam sistem ganjaran berasaskan prestasi seperti dibawah ini.

Model Hipotesis 1: Kriteria Pembayaran dan Amalan Penyertaan terhadap Keadilan Prosedur



5. Perbincangan dan Implikasi

Keputusan kajian mendapati bahawa keadilan prosedur dipengaruhi oleh kriteria pembayaran dan penyertaan dalam sistem ganjaran berasaskan prestasi di organisasi kajian. Dalam konteks organisasi kajian, kebanyakan responden merasakan bahawa tahap kriteria bayaran, penyertaan dan keadilan prosedur adalah tinggi. Situasi ini menerangkan kebolehan pengurus menyediakan ganjaran yang mencukupi berdasarkan kriteria prestasi dan menggalakan penyertaan secara aktif dapat mendorong pekerja untuk merasa adil terhadap prosedur membahagi-bahagikan ganjaran dalam organisasi.

Implikasi kajian dari segi teori, kajian ini telah menunjukkan bahawa kriteria bayaran dan penyertaan berupaya bertindak sebagai pembolehubah peramal kepada keadilan prosedur. Dapatan ini konsisten dengan kajian lepas oleh Bies dan Shapiro, 1988; Kanfer *et al.* 1987, (keadilan prosedur sebagai penyerdahan (moderating) dimana melalui kajian yang telah dilakukan ke atas amalan penyertaan dengan keadilan prosedur iaitu peserta dibenarkan untuk menyertai dalam proses membuat keputusan untuk memberi peluang kepada

pekerja menyuarakan pendapat kepada pihak sepatutnya. Dari segi pementapan kaedah penyelidikan, boring soal selidik yang digunakan dalam kajian ini telah mencapai tahap kesahan dan kebolehpercayaan yang tinggi. Oleh yang demikian, ia boleh menghasilkan dapatan kajian yang tepat dan boleh dipercayai. Seterusnya, dapatan kajian ini juga bermanfaat untuk dijadikan panduan kepada pengamal bagi menambahaik pelaksanaan sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi. Kajian berkaitan hubungan sistem ganjaran berasaskan prestasi dengan keadilan prosedur dalam sektor pendidikan masih lagi kurang (Folger & Konovsky, 1989 ; Lind & Tyler, 1992 ;Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). Jadi, para pengkaji boleh menjadikan kajian ini sebagai pengurus memberi perhatian kepada aspek seperti tahap kepuasan, komitmen dan motivasi pekerja dalam sebuah organisasi kajian. Sekiranya cadangan tersebut diberi perhatian yang serius, ia boleh mendorong pekerja untuk menyokong matlamat sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi.

6. Kesimpulan

Dapatan kajian ini mengesahkan bahawa kriteria pembayaran dan penyertaan bertindak sebagai peramal yang penting kepada keadilan prosedur di organisasi kajian. Oleh itu, kajian yang akan datang perlu mengambilkira kriteria pembayaran dan penyertaan sebagai dimensi utama dalam pengurusan sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi. Keupayaan pengurusan melaksanakan kriteria bayaran dan penyertaan secara teratur dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi akan meningkatkan sikap dan gelagat pekerja yang positif (seperti kepuasan, komitmen dan prestasi). Seterusnya, sikap dan gelagat pekerja yang positif ini dapat pula membantu mencapai misi dan wawasan organisasi dalam era persaingan global.

7. Penghargaan

KOD RUJUKAN: FRGS/1/2014/SS05/UKM/02/7

Kami mengucapkan terima kasih kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia dan CRIM UKM kerana menyediakan peruntukan bagi menjalankan kajian ini.

8. Rujukan

- Bies, R.J. and Shapiro, D.L. 1988. "Voice and justification: their influence on procedural fairness judgments", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 676-85.
- Chua Yan Piaw. 2008. Kaedah dan Statistik Penyelidikan. Asas Statistik Penyelidikan - Analisis Data Skala Ordinal dan Skala Nominal. Mc Graw Hil, Kual Lumpur.
- Cross, W. 1995. *Encyclopedia dictionary of business terms*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall
- Doughlas, F. H. 1999. The role of organizational justice in multi-source performance appraisal: Theory: Based application and direction for research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9 (1). 1-20
- Greenberg, J., & Barling, J. 1999. Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 897-913.
- Haralambos, M. 1989. *Sociology: Themes and perspectives*. London: Unwin Hyman
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. 1988. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Kaiser, H.F. 1974. An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2005. *Practical Research: Planning and Design* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.
- Léné, A. 2014. "Skill-Based Pay in Practice", *European Journal of Training and Development*, Vol.38 Iss 7 pp. 628 – 641.
- Lim, K. C & Leong, W. T. 1999. Iklim kerja dan *burnout* di kalangan guru pendidikan jasmani dan kesihatan. *Jurnal Penyelidikan Institut Perguruan Darulaman*, 1, 1-19.
- Lind, E., Kulik, C., Ambrose, M., & Vera Park, M. (1993). Individual and corporate dispute resolution: Using procedural fairness as a decision heuristic. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38, 224-251.
- Maurer, J. G., Shulman, J. M., Ruwe, M. C., & Becherer, R. G. 1995. *Encyclopedia of business*. New York: Gale Research.
- Milkovich, G. T., & Newman, J. M. 2005. *Compensation*. Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

- Muhammad, A. H. 2004. "Procedural Justice as Mediator between Participation In Decision-Making and Organization Citizenship Behaviour", *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, Vol. 14 Iss 3/4 pp. 58 – 68
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Plunkett, W.A. and Attner, R.F. 1994. *Introduction to management*. 5th ed. Belmont: Wadsworth
- Renn W. R. 1998. "Participation's Effect on Task Performance: Mediating Roles of Goal Acceptance and Procedural Justice", *Journal of Business Research* 41, 115-12.
- Sekaran, U. 2000. *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Stankiewicz, F. (2010), *La GPEC dans un contexte imprévisible*, Ed. Liaisons, Paris
- Wang, K. Y & Nayir, D. Z. 2009. "Procedural Justice, Participation and Power Distance", *Management Research Review*, Vol. 33 Iss 1 pp. 66 – 78
- Yusof, A. A & Ali, J. 2000. The Sociological implications in performance appraisal. *Utara Management Review*, 1(1), 79-91.

Work Engagement and IT Literacy as a Mediator between HPWPs and Job Performance – The Resultant Effect

A I Chikaji¹, Nur Naha Abu Mansor¹, A U Alkali¹, Amina Usman Saleh² and Haris Bin Md Noor²

¹ Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai johor bahru

² Faculty of Technology Management and Business,
Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia 86400 Parit Rajah Batu Pahat, Johor

Abstract This study is based on Work engagement augmented by IT Literacy to achieve superior performance in the workplace. This paper aims to review various literature on work engagement and IT literacy improves job performance at the same time taking as a mediator three items of HPWPs which are Training, Empowerment and Reward in order to boost the outcome. Specifically work engagement based on IT responsibilities, its effect on organizations and job performance is unclear and deserves urgent attention. Thus, the study intends to review the extent of the impact of IT Literacy and work engagement on the relationship between training, empowerment and reward and job performance

Keywords: Training, Empowerment, Reward, work Engagement, IT Literacy, Job Performance

1. Introduction

Among the critical challenges organizations face in recent times are increasing complexity engendered by the forces of globalization, competition, regulatory inspection, legal action and increased reliance on technologies. Substantial problems could occur as a result of failure in any of these areas and may lead to a severe organizational collapse. The basic emphasis on HPWPs to employees' underscores integrated IT work engagement despite its relevance in the organisations today. Recent development is concern with a shift of individual primary responsibility to be engage in a work and the level at which organization support is needed. This lends support to proactively devising a means through which employees might be influence to put in their best in the work place. Within this ambit work motivation such as "autonomous in which employees act with volition and controlled motivation in which they act under internal and external pressure" (Fernet, Austin, & Vallerand, 2012). Thus, articulation was made on the need to integrate a multidimensional attribute to capture the multifarious and versatile impact of IT on organizations (Jacks, Palvia, Schilhavy, & Wang, 2011) because of the inconsistent findings noticeable. However, this strongly suggests that investigation of the association between IT and firm or organizational performance generally is not clear and consistent among the thrust of literature. Therefore work related technology demands are a necessary potential future work to be reviewed (Sawang, 2012).

2. Literature Review

2.1 High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and Job Performance

Training, empowerment, and rewards are the three 3 major indicators of High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) used in this study as introduced earlier. Such indicators are important in frontline service jobs and are crucial to organizational success. As stated before, training, empowerment, and rewards are among

¹ Corresponding author. Tel.: +601126675660.
E-mail address: aliyuchikaji@yahoo.com

the most important indicators of HPWPs (Pfeffer, 1995; Wiblen, Grant & Dery, 2010). They have also been shown to be among the most critical indicators of management commitment to enhanced service delivery (H. J. Kim, Tavitiyaman, & Kim, 2009).

As stated by Bakker (2011), engaged employees are more likely to work harder through elevated levels of unrestricted efforts when compared to those who are disengaged. However, it should be noted that employees cannot always be engaged in their work; they need some time and opportunities for recovery (Bakker, 2011). Otherwise, employees who are always engaged in their work cannot devote their scarce resources (e.g., time) to family domain and therefore will experience work-family conflict, which in turn will affect the organization (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). According to (Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007), training and empowerment signal that employees are regarded as strategic partners for the survival and success of every organization and are recognized of their value and contribution to the organization. Overall, it is important to understand how HPWPs influence employees' motivation to display higher levels of performance in the workplace. By doing so, it would be possible to analyze the black box stage between HPWPs and performance outcomes in human resource management research (Boselie, Dietz, & Boon, 2005; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Tang & Tang, 2012) Rewards motivates employees to deal with customer, clients or students requests and problems effectively (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003).

Work engagement and positive job outcomes are among the ways for employees to reciprocate or repay the benefits given by the organization (Karatepe, 2011; Saks, 2006.) That is, employees devote their cognitive, emotional, and physical resources to work roles by having high levels of energy, being enthusiastic about their work, and being fully engrossed in their work. When employees have HPWPs that are manifested by training, empowerment, and rewards, they repay the organization via their level of work engagement. It seems that if employees believe that the availability of HPWPs emerges from management's commitment to service excellence that is consistent with the organizational mission, they are more engaged in their work and contribute more to service delivery process. In addition, HPWPs improve the quality of the social exchanges between the employer and employees (Takeuchi et al., 2007; Tang & Tang, 2012). In short, the presence of HPWPs creates a work environment where engaged employees seem to have more trusting and high quality relationships with their employer and that will lead to better performance outcomes.

2.2 Work Engagement and Job Performance

A study (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011), opines that it is important to assess whether work engagement simultaneously leads to job performance and extra-role customer service. Such an assessment would enable us to understand whether engaged employees tend to prioritize their in-role or extra-role tasks or pay equal attention to their in-role or extra-role tasks.

Modern organizations need energetic and dedicated employees: people who are engaged with their work. These organizations expect proactivity, initiative and responsibility for personal development from their employees. As a motivational construct, work engagement refers to "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Engagement is related to better performance. For instance, engaged academic or non-academic staff from higher institutions of learning can produce better quality of service. The more engaged university students feel the higher their next year's Grade Point Average. The higher the level of engagement of flight attendant, the better their level of performance on the flight and so it goes with every staff in every organization.

According to (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) "Social exchange relationships evolve when employers take care of employees, which thereby engenders beneficial consequences" (p. 882). Accordingly, it appears that when the organization takes care of employees through the simultaneous implementation of training, empowerment, and rewards, employees are more engaged in their work, leading to better performance outcomes in the workplace. In other words, employees receiving various resources/benefits from the organization would be more likely to feel obliged to repay the organization through greater work engagement, and in turn, display job performance and extra-role customer service (Karatepe, 2011; Saks, 2006)

2.3 Work Engagement, IT Literacy and Job Performance

The presence of HPWPs sends powerful signals to employees that the organization pays utmost attention to human capital for improving service capacity and productivity (Tang & Tang, 2012). According to Ciulu & Dragan, (2011), low pay and inadequate training programs are among the critical problems facing many organisations, because they seem to be responsible for poor services and high employee turnover. Insufficient training programs, coupled with the lack of service standards, hinder efficient and effective service delivery (Carmen, 2011).

Information and Technology (IT) Literacy could also be seen as the ability of an individual, working independently or with others, to use tools, resources, processes, and systems responsibly to access and evaluate information in any medium, and to use that information to solve problems, communicate clearly, make informed decisions, and construct new knowledge, products, or systems (Fortier, Potter, Grady, Lohr, & Klein, 1998). The ever-increasing influence of IT demands that employees acquire the basic knowledge on its operation and application. According to Wilson (2003), Rewards include systems, programs and practices that influence the actions of people. The purpose of reward systems is to provide a systematic way to deliver positive consequences. Fundamental purpose is to provide positive consequences for contributions to desired performance. Reward management is one of the ways used by organizations for attracting and retaining suitable employees as well as facilitating them to improve their performance. According to (Rasmussen & Nielsen, 2011), creating, transforming and utilizing various kinds of knowledge as a firm-specific asset is a very important element of firm competitiveness and innovative performance. Organizations can facilitate and improve on the knowledge, skills, abilities and others (KSAOs) through offering rewards for additional knowledge acquired by their employees.

Traditionally, compensation systems were designed to be strictly job-based – employees were paid for the jobs they performed. In the last few decades, organizations have questioned this tradition and have experimented with increasingly varied forms of compensation based, for example, on the market or on employee skills. However organizations seeking to adopt this reward or skilled based pay system should thread with caution as Skill-based pay systems are intended to encourage the development of a multi-skilled work force, and thus base pay on the number of different jobs an employee can do (Mitra, Gupta, & Shaw, 2011). According to Waal and Jansen (2013), which use of bonuses or implementation of certain types of reward systems have neither a positive nor a negative effect on organizational performance. This may be explained by the fact that reward systems are a hygiene factor for an organization. Additionally, studies that showed that even though incentives worked, in the sense that they had a positive effect on results, they did not always work consistently, or worked with prolonged effects and sometimes even had unintended and unwanted consequences like manipulation of results (Lazear, 2009) and companies with higher pay inequality suffer from greater manager and employee turnover (Bloom, 1999)

Empowerment could be said to refers to as “the freedom and ability to make decisions and commitments”(Forrester, 2000). Empowered frontline employees can fulfill their duties, use their creative personal judgment, and provide quick and fair responses to the complaining customers (Guchait, Kim, & Namasivayam, 2012; Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2010) However, empowering employees without training programs would not produce the intended outcomes or training employees without empowerment for effective complaint management would be useless. Training and empowerment should be accompanied by rewards, because trained and empowered employees should obtain adequate rewards for serving customers and dealing with disgruntled customers successfully (H.-W. Kim & Kankanhalli, 2009; Yavas et al., 2010) argue that HPWPs such as training, empowerment, and rewards enhance employees’ knowledge, skills, and abilities and motivate them to reach high levels of productivity. When these HPWPs are used in a coordinated way, they reinforce and support each other (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006) As a result; the joint presence of training, empowerment, and rewards would create synergy in the organization (Wall & Wood, 2005)

3. Methodology

Dubé and Paré (2003) principles of inductive categorization method was used therefore having observed that we did the following We carefully select the relevant journals that are so imperative to the area of our study Main keywords were selected with which we identified the relevant articles that are published in the journals selected.

We categorize the selected and shortlisted articles by drawing on different categories and so on.

- i. We assessed the articles in different categories and sub categories.
- ii. Analyze the trends
- iii. Develop or come up with findings

Journal Selection – the selection of journal was done considering their relevance to the field and our area of study. Our institution as an International University has a collection of subscribed database for publications of high standard which include ISI Scopus and impact factor journals. However, high quality papers were selected from among these journals. Journals used include –

- International journal of hospitality management (IJHM)
- European journal of work and organizational psychology (EJWOP)
- Work and Stress – An international journal of work, health and organisations
- Journal of Advanced Nursing (JAN)
- International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM)
- Business Process Management Journal
- International Journal of Manpower
- Journal of Applied Psychology
- Journal of Knowledge Management
- Journal of Hospitality Marketing Management
- Career Development International

We then try to identify relevant articles, which are been guided by the keywords of the study. While on the process of building the paper, we also searched for articles that they captured and made efforts in addressing the phenomenon.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

It has been demonstrated recently that a feeling of been engaged makes individuals to be enthusiastic and willing to perform more effectively and efficiently facing challenges as avenues to prove their worth (Valéau, Mignonac, Vandenberghe, & Gatignon Turnau, 2013). As such some extant literatures synthesizes that attitudes, positive perception of employer and employee attachment to place of work determine to a great extent how being engrossed will contribute to organizations success (Bal, De Cooman, & Mol, 2011). Nevertheless a more holistic view of the effect of training on work engagement and IT as its component in achieving job performance indicate the overriding importance of this paper relative to its potential novel perspective. Even though previous work maintained that work engagement is significantly related to job performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005) but, work engagement based on IT responsibilities and job performance is unclear and deserve urgent attention. In contrast to aforementioned recorded success, training and funding support coupled with the level of seriousness of the policy makers among many other plausible attributes constitute some challenges to remain engaged (Curnock, Bowie, Pope, & McKay, 2012). Therefore, this paper concur the importance of reviewing the level of employee presence and involvement in their job specification and how it predict job performance relative to IT knowledge in executing their responsibilities. Invariably delving into sensitive factors underlying employee utilization of IT to enhance performance outcome and value creation is worthy of empirical investigation with a special focus to higher institution of learning. Therefore enhancing maximal training improves job performance and substantiate

additional sustainable workforce. Exploring the relationship between training, work engagement and job performance will contribute immensely to both theory and practice. Furthermore, a state of the art facilities and conducive working environment should be provided to those staff who are so engrossed in their duties and to those who receives training to ensure consistency to goal attainment.

5. References

- Babakus, E., Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(3), 272-286.
- Bakker, A. B. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(4), 265-269.
- Bakker, A. B., & Bal, M. P. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(1), 189-206.
- Bal, P. M., De Cooman, R., & Mol, S. T. (2011). Dynamics of psychological contracts with work engagement and turnover intention: The influence of organizational tenure. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 22(1), 107-122. doi: 10.1080/1359432X.2011.626198
- Bloom, M. (1999). The performance effects of pay dispersion on individuals and organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(1), 25-40.
- Boselie, P., Dietz, G., & Boon, C. (2005). Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and performance research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15(3), 67-94.
- Carmen, S. (2011). TOURISM AND ITS INFLUENCE UPON MACRO-ENVIRONMENT IN ROMANIA. *Annales Univisitatatis Apulensis Series Oeconomica*, 142-154.
- Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 89-136.
- Ciulu, R., & DRĂGAN, L. (2011). Hospitality industry's competition in terms of attracting and retaining valuable HR in Eastern Europe—the case of Romania. *Revista de turism-studii si cercetari in turism*(11), 56-64.
- Combs, J., Liu, Y., Hall, A., & Ketchen, D. (2006). How much do high-performance work practices matter? A meta-analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(3), 501-528.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Curnock, E., Bowie, P., Pope, L., & McKay, J. (2012). Barriers and attitudes influencing non-engagement in a peer feedback model to inform evidence for GP appraisal. *BMC Medical Education*, 12(1), 15.
- Dubé, L., & Paré, G. (2003). Rigor in information systems positivist case research: current practices, trends, and recommendations. *MIS Quarterly*, 597-636.
- Fernet, C., Austin, S., & Vallerand, R. J. (2012). The effects of work motivation on employee exhaustion and commitment: An extension of the JD-R model. *Work & Stress*, 26(3), 213-229. doi: 10.1080/02678373.2012.713202
- Forrester, R. (2000). Empowerment: Rejuvenating a potent idea. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3), 67-80.
- Fortier, J. D., Potter, C. J., Grady, S. M., Lohr, N. J., & Klein, J. (1998). *Wisconsin's model academic standards for information and technology literacy*: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction.
- Guchait, P., Kim, M. G., & Namasivayam, K. (2012). Error management at different organizational levels – Frontline, manager, and company. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), 12-22. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.04.007>
- Halbesleben, J. R., Harvey, J., & Bolino, M. C. (2009). Too engaged? A conservation of resources view of the relationship between work engagement and work interference with family. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(6), 1452.
- Halbesleben, J. R., & Wheeler, A. R. (2008). The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intention to leave. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 242-256.

- Jacks, T., Palvia, P., Schilhavy, R., & Wang, L. (2011). A framework for the impact of IT on organizational performance. *Business Process Management Journal*, 17(5), 846-870. doi: 10.1108/14637151111166213
- Karatepe, O. M. (2011). Procedural justice, work engagement, and job outcomes: Evidence from Nigeria. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(8), 855-878.
- Kim, H.-W., & Kankanhalli, A. (2009). Investigating user resistance to information systems implementation: A status quo bias perspective. *MIS Quarterly*, 33(3), 567-582.
- Kim, H. J., Tavitiyaman, P., & Kim, W. G. (2009). The effect of management commitment to service on employee service behaviors: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(3), 369-390.
- Lazear, E. P. a. O., P. . (2009). *Personnel economics*, in Gibbons, R. and Roberts, J. (Eds), *Handbook of Organizational Economics*: Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, pp. 479-519.
- Mitra, A., Gupta, N., & Shaw, J. D. (2011). A comparative examination of traditional and skill-based pay plans. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 26(4), 278-296. doi: 10.1108/02683941111124827
- Pfeffer, J. (1995). *Competitive advantage through people: Unleashing the power of the work force*: Harvard Business Press.
- Rasmussen, P., & Nielsen, P. (2011). Knowledge management in the firm: concepts and issues. *International Journal of Manpower*, 32(5), 479-493. doi: 10.1108/01437721111158161
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619.
- Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiro, J. M. (2005). Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: the mediation of service climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6), 1217.
- Sawang, S. (2012). Is there an inverted U-shaped relationship between job demands and work engagement: The moderating role of social support? *International Journal of Manpower*, 33(2), 178-186. doi: 10.1108/01437721211225426
- 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.
- Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. (2007). An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1069.
- Tang, T.-W., & Tang, Y.-Y. (2012). Promoting service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in hotels: The role of high-performance human resource practices and organizational social climates. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 885-895. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.10.007>
- Valéau, P., Mignonac, K., Vandenberghe, C., & Gatignon Turnau, A.-L. (2013). A study of the relationships between volunteers' commitments to organizations and beneficiaries and turnover intentions. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 45(2), 85.
- Waal, A. d., & Jansen, P. (2013). The bonus as hygiene factor: the role of reward systems in the high performance organization. *Evidence-based HRM: a Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 1(1), 41-59. doi: 10.1108/20493981311318601
- Wall, T. D., & Wood, S. J. (2005). The romance of human resource management and business performance, and the case for big science. *Human relations*, 58(4), 429-462.
- Wiblen, S., Grant, D., & Dery, K. (2010). Transitioning To A New Hris: The Reshaping Of Human Resources And Information Technology Talent. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 11(4), 251-267.
- Wilson, B. T. (2003). *Innovative Reward Systems for the Changing Work Place*. NewYork: McGraw Hill.
- Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Babakus, E. (2010). Relative efficacy of organizational support and personality traits in predicting service recovery and job performances: a study of frontline employees in Turkey. *Tourism Review*, 65(3), 70-83.

Self-Directed Learning and Academic Performance of University Student in Morocco

Nursyamilah Annuar and Roziana Shaari
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract Increasingly complex needs and expanding roles in the delivery of learning require university student to be capable of critical thinkers and self-directed learners. The main issue highlighted in this paper is what is the effect of self-directed learning abilities on academic performance of university student in Morocco? This study aimed to investigate the effect of self-directed learning abilities on academic performance of university student in Morocco. The abilities being focused in this study are initiative, autonomy, motivation and self-efficacy. This study was conducted on university student in Morocco. Three universities were selected for this study. The sample included all undergraduate students in social science, engineering and education. The Personal Responsibility Orientation and Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (PRO-SDLRS) Instrument were administered to investigate the effect of self-directed learning abilities on academic performance. The mean score for PRO-SDLRS was noticeably higher ($p=.001$) and a significant difference was observed between initiative, autonomy, motivation and self-efficacy. Also, there was a significant difference in academic performance of university student in Morocco. It was concluded that self-directed learning as a method and philosophy is an effective approach to fostering deeper approach to learning and improving academic performance among university students. Successful introduction and monitor of self-directed learning abilities of university students will improve professional performance.

Keywords: Self-directed learning, adult learning, academic performance.

1. Introduction

At present, the responsibility of learning is the student's responsibility and not the responsibility of the teacher or instructor. Students are no longer seen as individuals who only receive information and knowledge, even actively involved in the preparation and reconstruction of existing information with the new information. One strategy that can be applied by students is adapting self-directed learning abilities in their learning process. Understanding of the concept of self-directed learning (SDL) is important for improving student achievement. SDL refers to the process in which the students take the initiative, with or without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, identifying human and material resources, formulating learning goals, setting and implementing learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes (Knowles, 1975, p.18).

To assist the students actively engaged in learning, educators need to provide guidance in term of learning strategies to help them in their learning process. The education system mostly focused on the exam-oriented that will lead students to success in academic examinations. Even though many students get high grades in exams but they do not excel in the knowledge. The SDL ability must be successfully acquired in order to equip students with the ability to be lifelong learners. The contribution of the present study is to test whether having students pattern their abilities in learning environment or practice their own (unstructured) self-directed abilities improves readiness to engage in SDL and prepared students for academic performance. An answer to this

question will enhance the ability of students to generate SDL abilities and become graduates that capable of lifelong learning. Although other factors such as emotional maturity (Villacorta, Koestner, & Lokes, 2003; Williams & Tyson, 2010; Zimmerman, 2000), are important in enhancing SDL abilities of students, those are not the focus of this study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Self-Directed Learning

Self-directed learning defined by Knowles (1975) as the process in which students take the initiative, with or without the help of others in diagnosing learning needs, identifying learning resource, setting and implementing learning strategies and evaluate learning outcomes. Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) stated that self-directed learning is the process of identifying, implementing and evaluating learning process. Self-directed learning helps student to become autonomous learner in which the students have to take control and responsibility for their own learning.

Review by Thoonan, Slegers, Oort, Peetsma and Geijssel (2011) found that student's involvement in learning activities have a significant impact on the academic achievement. The finding is consistent with the view Hargreaves (2011), which states that the learning and development of students is the most critical aspects and the potential to enhance the knowledge and skills which in turn will lead to the improvement of individual's commitment to the goals of the learning. Student's quality becomes a critical issue because of the need for radical improvement and large scales in the field of education; particularly knowledge is very important and applies globally (Karakas & Manisaligil, 2012; Stewart, 2007). Thus, the ability of students to apply knowledge and implementing improvements in learning is very important. This statement is reinforced by Macdougall (2008) who stated that the most important thing in making a lasting improvement is to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Review by Donnelly (2008) and Zeelen, Rampedi, & Linden (2013) related to student's learning through activities in schools, found that students want to be given the opportunity to make observations and make reflections to improve their learning practices. Thus, Jamaliah Abdul Hamid (2008) concluded that the increasing knowledge of students through reading activities, making personal reflection, to record and store important information and discuss about knowledge will improve the quality of student's learning.

2.2 Personal Responsibility Orientation (PRO) Model

Personal Responsibility Orientation (PRO) Model was developed by Brockett & Hiemstra (1991). Personal responsibility in their model means that "individuals assume ownership for their thoughts and actions" (p. 26). However, after some modification, Brockett & Hiemstra (1994) redefined personal responsibility as "personal values to make decisions, taking control, or accepting responsibility for our beliefs and actions" (p.2). The model emphasized self-actualization as stated in Maslow (1970) Hierarchy of needs. This model viewed self-direction in learning as instructional method processes (self-directed learning) and personality characteristics of the individual learner (learner self-direction) (p.26). Both components are within the learner's social context and contribute to the outcome of self-direction in learning.

Within the PRO Model in figure 1, Brockett & Hiemstra (1994) categorized the self-directed learning as characteristics of the Teaching Learning Transaction (TLT) and Learner self-direction as characteristics of the learner (LC). In TLT, Brockett & Hiemstra suggest that "it is the ability and/or willingness of individuals to take control of their own learning that determines their potential for self-direction" (p.26). This refers to the autonomy of the learner. Definition of self-direction in learning by Brockett & Hiemstra is on personal responsibility but Knowles defined it as initiative made by learners. After three-round Delphi survey, initiative is identified as one of the necessary characteristics of self-directedness (Guglielmino, 1977). PRO Model defined the learner self-direction as "an individual's beliefs and attitudes that predispose one toward taking primary responsibility for their learning" (p.29) and "a learner's desire or preference for assuming responsibility for learning" (p.24). Both of this definition is referred as behaviors relating to motivation and self-efficacy of the students.

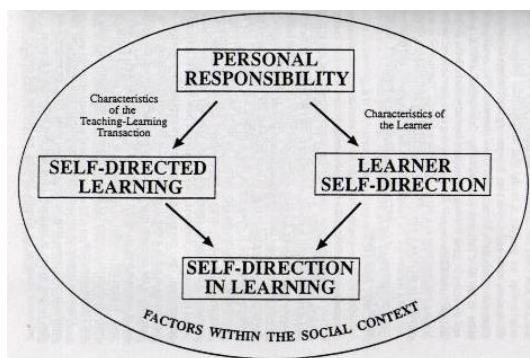


Figure 1: Personal Responsibility Orientation Model (PRO Model)
Source: Brockett & Hiemstra (1994)

Since the introduction of this model, little empirical evidence has been gathered to explore the effectiveness on this model. This is because; Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007) stated that there are lack of data-based studies and critical discussion in self-directed learning about the recently developed conceptual model. PRO model was developed based on revised instrument developed by Guglielmino (1977), Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale. This model have been criticized and modified several times to make it applicable in the field of self-directed learning. Even though PRO model stated factors related to responsibility, it does not highlight the social factors thoroughly.

3. Methodology

This study used Personal Responsibility Orientation and Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (PRO-SDLRS) questionnaires to obtain data from students. A total of 110 undergraduate students from the University Mohammed V Agdal, University Cadi Ayyad and University Hassan II selected for this study. The quantitative approach was used in this study. Data collected will be coded and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Statistical analysis methods used in this study included descriptive and inferential analysis. The first objective of this study was to evaluate the level of self-directedness of students involved in taking initiative, autonomy, motivation and self-efficacy. The second objective of this study is to examine the relationship between self-directed learning and student's academic achievement. The first step to solving this second objective, Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis was used. This correlation is used to determine the degree of correlation between each variable used in the study. Then, multiple regression analysis was used to determine the strength of the relationship between the factors studied. Suitable regression model used in this study were used as the dependent variable is the ratio of the character of the raw data obtained directly from students.

4. Results

Number of questionnaires sent is of 150 questionnaires and only 130 questionnaires received. However, only 110 questionnaires were filled in completely. The sample consisted of 68 female students and 42 male students. All of them were from the field of social science, engineering and education. In the questionnaire, students were asked to fill Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA). Data is taken from the nominal shape of each student to state their CGPA. Low CGPA value is between 2.50-2.99, Moderate CGPA value is between 3.00-3.49 while a CGPA of 3.50-4.00 CGPA categorized as high. A total of 60 students have the CGPA between 3.50-4.00, and most of them were students from education field.

Higher alpha value indicates persistence of respondents in answering the questionnaire. Each variable indicates the alpha value approximately to 1. For the initiative variables the alpha value indicates .865, .811 for the autonomy variable, .892 for the motivation variable, and .809 for self-efficacy variable. This shows that respondents gave answers in consistent and can give different values on different variables. Besides that, each

variable also shows high level of self-directed learning abilities (initiative, autonomy, motivation and self-efficacy). Multi collinearity tests were made to test whether there are very high correlations issues between variables in the regression model that being tested. The serious collinearity problem occurs when the value of tolerance is less than .1, while the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) greater than 10. Table 1 shows the collinearity coefficient.

Table 1: Collinearity Coefficient

Independent Variables	Collinearity Statistic	
	Tolerance	VIF
Initiative	.631	1.575
Autonomy	.791	1.264
Motivation	.899	1.112
Self-efficacy	.446	2.240

Based on the table above, the tolerance value for the four independent variables shown are above .1 while VIF is less than 10. It shows no collinearity problem between all independent variables used. This can be explained by Table 2, which shows the correlation between the independent variables. There are no variables that have highly significant correlation.

Table 2: Correlation between variables

Variables	1	2	3	4
Initiative	-			
Autonomy	.405(**)	-		
Motivation	.087(**)	.171(**)	-	
Self-efficacy	.536(**)	.331(**)	.104(**)	-

Note: *p<.05 **p<.01

Results of correlation analysis also showed that the initiative (r = .536) and autonomy (r = .331) were related to self-efficacy. However, factors of motivation high relationship with self-efficacy. The results of multiple regression analysis in Table 3 showed that motivation factor is an important factor that can explain the student's academic achievement. Other factors such as initiative, autonomy and self-efficacy also found to be important to explain academic achievement of students in this sample. Factors that have a significant effect (motivation) was able to describe as much as .247 of the variance in the CGPA. This is a relatively moderate level and therefore provides support for the model being study using the initiative, autonomy and self-efficacy as a qualifier variable to describe the academic achievement of students in their learning process.

Table 3: Multiple Regression Coefficient

Variables	t-value
Initiative	.988
Autonomy	.442
Motivation	.256
Self-efficacy	.360

Note: *p<.05, one tail t-test, R²= .247

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study tested a model on effect of self-directed learning on academic achievement. Determinant variable that were found to have a strong correlation with academic achievement is motivation. The results

showed that the motivation factors have a positive relationship with academic achievement. This shows that the higher the students' motivation, the higher the results they get. This study was consistent with studies that have been done by (Abd-El-Fattah, 2013; Loyens, Magda, & Rikers, 2008; Zimmerman, 2000). Initiative, autonomy and self-efficacy do not appear to affect students' academic achievement tremendously. This shows that the self-directed learning component affect the students' academic achievement. This can be explained by moderate R^2 value of .247 when regression analysis was conducted. However, through the analysis of open questions the results found that most of the students said that the factors that can motivate them is encouragement from parents, teachers that always inspires them, and friends who can help solve the problem. This means that teachers must play a key role in giving momentum to the students and educate them to self-direct their learning.

Although many findings support the importance of the self-directed learning process of the students, some teachers still provide their students to learn by their own styles (Du, 2011; Dynan, Cate, & Rhee, 2008). The students are rarely given the option to perform academic tasks, methods to perform complex tasks, or learning partner. Only a small proportion of teachers who encourage students to develop specific goals or teach them learning strategy (Hendry & Ginns, 2009). Students are rarely asked to self-assess their work or estimate their efficiency on new tasks. The teachers also rarely assess students' learning beliefs such as self-efficacy or its causation to identify the difficulties related to motivation. Every self-directed learning process such as setting goals, strategies, and self-assessment can be learned from parents, teachers, coaches and peers. Students that able to self-direct their learning seek help from others to improve their learning strategies. Self-directed learning does not mean students depends on methods of learning, but self-initiative, perseverance and skill of its own. Self-directed students able to concentrate on how they stimulate, modify, and maintain certain practices in the social context and also without helps of others.

It was concluded that self-directed learning as a method and philosophy is an effective approach to fostering deeper approach to learning and improving academic performance among university students. Successful introduction and monitor of self-directed learning abilities of university students will improve professional performance.

6. Acknowledgements

We would like to thank School of Graduate Studies (SPS) UTM and Research Management Centre (RMC) UTM for assisting this study financially through UTM Zamalah Scholarship.

7. References

- Abd-El-Fattah, S. M. (2013). Garrison's Model of Self-Directed Learning: Preliminary Validation and Relationship to Academic Achievement. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 13(02), 586–596.
- Brockett, R. G., & Hiemstra, R. (1991). *Self-Direction In Adult Learning: Perspectives On Theory, Research, And Practice*. London, England: Routledge.
- Brockett, R. G., & Hiemstra, R. (1994). *From Behaviorism To Humanism: Incorporating Self-Direction In Learning Concepts Into The Instructional Design Process*. [On-line]. Available: <http://www-distance.syr.edu/sdlhuman.html>
- Donnelly, R. (2008). Lecturers' Self-Perception Of Change In Their Teaching Approaches: Reflections On A Qualitative Study. *Educational Research*, 50(3), 207–222.
- Du, F. (2011). Using Study Plans To Develop Self-Directed Learning Skills: Implications From A Pilot Project. *College Student Journal*, 7(2), 223–233.

- Dynan, L., Cate, T., Rhee, K. (2008). The Impact of Learning Structure on Students' Readiness for Self-Directed Learning. *Journal of Education for Business*, 20(5), 96–100.
- Hendry, G. D., & Ginns, P. (2009). Readiness for self-directed learning: validation of a new scale with medical students. *Medical Teacher*, 31(10), 918–20.
- Karakas, F., & Manisaligil, A. (2012). Reorienting Self-Directed Learning For The Creative Digital Era. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 36(7), 712-731.
- Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-directed Learning: A Guide For Learners And Teachers*. New York: Association Press.
- Loyens, S. M. M., Magda, J., & Rikers, R. M. J. P. (2008). Self-Directed Learning in Problem-Based Learning and its Relationships with Self-Regulated Learning. *Educational Psychology Review*, 20(4), 411–427.
- Macdougall, M. (2008). Ten Tips For Promoting Autonomous Learning And Effective Engagement In The Teaching Of Statistics To Undergraduate Medical Students Involved In Short-Term Research Projects. *Journal of Applied Quantitative Methods*, 3(3), 223–241.
- Stewart, R. A. (2007). Investigating The Link Between Self Directed Learning Readiness And Project-Based Learning Outcomes: The Case Of International Masters Students In An Engineering Management Course. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 32(4), 453–465.
- Villacorta, M., Koestner, R., & Leles, N. (2003). Further Validation of the Motivation Toward the Environment Scale. *Environment and Behavior*, 35(4), 486-505.
- Williams, B., & Tyson, A. (2010). Self-Direction, Place And Community Re-Discovering The Emotional Depths: A Conversation With Social Workers In A London Borough. *Journal of Social Work Practice*, 24(3), 319–333.
- Zeelen, J., Rampedi, M., & van der Linden, J. (2013). Grounding Adult Education Research in Rural Areas: Reflections on the Development of a Research Program at the University of Limpopo in South Africa. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 64(1), 20–38.
- Zimmerman, B. (2000). Self-Efficacy: An Essential Motive to Learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82–91.

Kaitan Antara Sistem Ganjaran Berdasarkan Prestasi Dengan Motivasi Bekerja

Roslawati Yahya

Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pengurusan

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor

Abstrak Kajian ini dilaksanakan untuk mengukur pengaruh persepsi pekerja terhadap sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dan hubungan antara komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran (*pay criteria*) dengan motivasi bekerja di salah sebuah Jabatan Kerajaan di Putrajaya, Malaysia. Kajian ini melibatkan data cross-sectional dan diperoleh dengan mengguna pakai borang soal selidik. Borang soal selidik kajian diedarkan secara rawak kepada anggota di semua bahagian di Ibu Pejabat Jabatan berkenaan dengan kaedah temu bual dan “drop off and pick up” bagi mendapatkan maklumat daripada responden yang terlibat. Permasalahan kajian adakah ketidakpuasan hati pekerja terhadap komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran dalam organisasi akan mempengaruhi motivasi kerja di Jabatan berkenaan. Keputusan analisis yang dijalankan menunjukkan bahawa komunikasi dan kriteria bayaran mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan motivasi bekerja, tetapi penyertaan mempunyai hubungan yang tidak signifikan dengan motivasi bekerja. Dapatan kajian mengesahkan bahawa, komunikasi dan kriteria bayaran mempengaruhi persepsi pekerja terhadap sistem ganjaran manakala sebaliknya bagi penyertaan dalam organisasi kerajaan di Jabatan berkenaan.

Kata kunci: persepsi terhadap sistem ganjaran; prestasi kerja dan motivasi kerja.

1. Pendahuluan

Berdasarkan perspektif organisasi, Ismail (2010), mengatakan ganjaran merupakan salah satu fungsi pengurusan sumber manusia yang kritikal kerana ia perlu direka dan ditadbir secara teratur bagi memperuntukkan pelbagai jenis ganjaran kepada para pekerja yang menyempurnakan tugas atau perkhidmatan (Anthony, Perrew & Kacmar, 1996; Henderson, 2007; Milkovich & Newman, 2008; Wallace & Fay, 1988). Majikan biasanya memperuntukkan ganjaran kewangan (contohnya, gaji, bonus dan elaun) dan ganjaran bukan kewangan (contohnya, cuti, kemudahan kesihatan, perumahan, dan faedah persaraan) kepada para pekerja berdasarkan kesepadanan kerja, tempoh perkhidmatan, keananan dan/atau prestasi seseorang (Maurer, Schulman, Ruwe & Becherer, 1995; Milkovich & Newman, 2008; Warner, 1997). Memetik Ismail (2010), sistem ganjaran yang diurus dengan efisien berkemampuan menarik, mengekal dan mendorong para pekerja yang berketerampilan untuk menjayakan wawasan, misi dan matlamat organisasi (Anthony et al., 1996; Balkin & Gomez-Mejia, 1990; Cascio, 1995).

Menurut Mustaffa (2004), komunikasi antara majikan dan pekerja adalah perkara yang amat penting dalam meneruskan kelangsungan organisasi. Komunikasi dalam organisasi dapat ditakrifkan sebagai “suatu kuasa yang menghubungkan pemimpin dengan orang yang dipimpin supaya dapat menggerakkan tenaga dengan tersusun untuk mencapai objektif bersama”. Dalam organisasi, komunikasi merupakan alat perhubungan antara pemimpin dengan orang yang dipimpin. Masalah ketidakpuasan terhadap komunikasi subordinat timbul apabila kurangnya kepercayaan di pihak subordinat terhadap pihak atasan yang menyebabkan subordinat memutarbelitkan maklumat dengan hanya memberitahu pihak atasan perkara positif dan gambaran baik tentang subordinat (Goldhaber, 1990). Isu berkaitan dengan komunikasi subordinat dalam konteks pengurusan organisasi di Malaysia dibuktikan apabila pihak subordinat dikatakan lebih berkecenderungan untuk mematuhi arahan yang diberikan oleh pihak atasan, menghormati status dan kekuasaan, serta pergantungan terhadap pihak atasan dalam membuat keputusan (Hofstede, 1980).

Ismail et al (2007), menyatakan penyertaan dalam sistem ganjaran sering ditakrifkan sebagai, majikan menggalakkan pekerja di peringkat hierarki yang berbeza dan kategori untuk membincangkan dan berkongsi maklumat, membuat keputusan, dan/atau aktiviti menyelesaikan masalah berkaitan sistem bayaran gaji. Keputusan kolektif yang dibuat melalui gaya penyertaan itu akan digunakan untuk reka bentuk dan mentadbir sistem gaji yang mengambil kira keperluan dan harapan para pekerja (Appelbaum et al, 2000; Heery & tengah hari, 2001; Milkovich & Newman, 2005; Wallace & Fay, 1988). Tahap penyertaan pekerja dalam sistem ganjaran bermula dengan perundingan hingga penyertaan penuh, yang mempengaruhi keputusan gaji (Kim, 1996 & 1999; Lawler, 1992 & 1995; Milkovich & Newman, 2005; Wallace & Fay, 1988). Pekerja memberikan idea dalam mewujudkan sistem ganjaran untuk mencapai membentuk sistem gaji. Penyertaan dalam operasi sistem gaji melibatkan penyertaan pekerja dalam input dan output. Penyertaan dalam input melibatkan cadangan dan input pekerja untuk menentukan matlamat perusahaan, sumber dan kaedah. Penyertaan dalam output melibatkan pandangan pekerja terhadap ganjaran, keuntungan dan /atau pencapaian produktiviti (Sheehan, 1981).

Menurut Azman Che Omar (2001), motivasi bekerja ialah rangsangan dalaman sebagai pencetus semangat, iaitu penggerak kepada kelakuan untuk membangkitkan tindakan yang berpunca daripada satu motif atau beberapa motif. Adakah motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh kriteria bayaran, penyertaan dan komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran terhadap prestasi kerja, menjadi persoalan dalam kajian ini.

Tujuan kajian ini dilaksanakan untuk mengukur pengaruh persepsi pekerja terhadap sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi dan hubungan antara komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran (pay criteria) dengan motivasi bekerja. Sebuah jabatan kerajaan di Putrajaya telah dipilih sebagai kajian kes. Bagi menjaga nama baik organisasi tersebut, nama sebenar organisasi telah dirahsiakan. Kertas ini mengupas sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi daripada perspektif motivasi bekerja di dalam organisasi. Dalam seksyen seterusnya adalah berkenaan sorotan karya, diikuti dengan metodologi, penemuan, perbincangan dan kesimpulan.

2. Kajian Literatur

2.1 Bukti Empirikal

Motivasi Bekerja: Menurut Herzberg (1959) yang dipetik dari Gawel, J. E. (1997) menyatakan motivasi membina paradigma dua faktor dimensi yang memberi kesan kepada pekerja terhadap sikap kerja. Beliau membuat kesimpulan bahawa faktor-faktor seperti dasar syarikat, pengawasan, hubungan interpersonal, persekitaran tempat kerja dan gaji adalah faktor *hygiene* berbanding dengan faktor motivasi. Menurut teori ini, ketiadaan faktor *hygiene* akan menyebabkan ketidakpuasan hati pekerja dalam melakukan kerja, tetapi kehadiran faktor *hygiene* tidak memberi motivasi atau meningkatkan kepuasan. Sebaliknya, data menunjukkan motivasi adalah elemen yang memperkaya kerja seseorang; beliau mendapati lima faktor yang menentukan kepuasan kerja iaitu pencapaian, pengiktirafan, kerja itu sendiri, tanggungjawab, dan kemajuan. Motivasi memberikan kesan jangka panjang yang positif dalam meningkatkan prestasi kerja manakala faktor *hygiene* (dissatisfiers) secara konsisten menghasilkan hanya perubahan jangka pendek dalam sikap kerja dan prestasi, yang dengan cepat akan jatuh kembali kepada yang tahap sebelumnya.

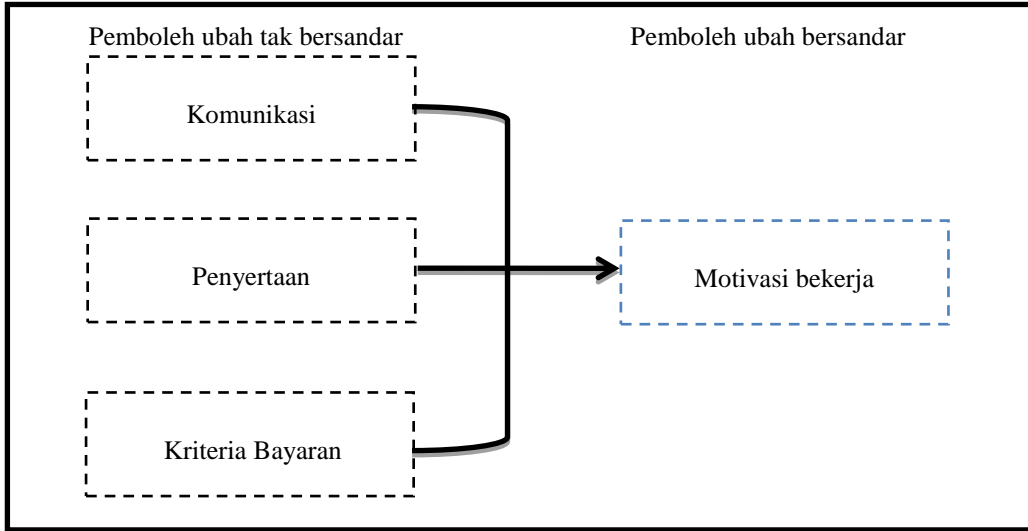
Penyertaan : Dalam aspek penyertaan pula, mutakhir ini kepentingan penyertaan dan penglibatan pekerja dan impaknya dalam organisasi telah mendapat perhatian yang meluas di kalangan para penyelidik dan akademik. Seperti yang dinyatakan oleh Alvi dan Abbasi (2012), walaupun kajian mengenainya masih kurang, terdapat kajian yang telah dijalankan oleh Agensi Gallup dan beberapa agensi lain di Amerika Syarikat pada 2006, menunjukkan bahawa penyertaan yang minimum di kalangan pekerja menyumbang kepada pengurangan produktiviti. Memetik Ismail et al (2007), kajian ini mengkaji peranan keadilan prosedur sebagai penyederhanaan dalam hubungan antara penyertaan dalam sistem gaji dan prestasi kerja. Kajian ini dijalankan menggunakan borang soal selidik yang telah dikumpulkan dari pekerja hotel di Kuching, Sarawak. Hasil daripada ujian model sederhana menggunakan analisis regresi hierarki menunjukkan bahawa kemasukan keadilan prosedur dalam analisis telah meningkat kesan penyertaan dalam sistem gaji pada komitmen kerja, tetapi keadilan prosedur tidak meningkat kesan penyertaan dalam sistem gaji terhadap kepuasan kerja. Keputusan ini menunjukkan bahawa prosedur keadilan tidak bertindak sebagai moderator separa dalam model sistem gaji sektor industri hotel. Penemuan ini telah sebahagiannya disokong kajian gaji dijalankan dalam kebanyakan negara Barat.

Komunikasi : Dalam aspek komunikasi pula kajian dijalankan oleh Ismail (2010), untuk mengukur pengaruh persepsi keadilan prosedur dalam perhubungan antara amalan komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran dan prestasi kerja di sebuah penguasa tempatan berstatus bandar raya di Sarawak, Malaysia. Keputusan analisis regresi berganda hierarki menunjukkan bahawa interaksi antara pengetahuan tentang sistem ganjaran dan keadilan prosedur mempunyai hubungan yang tidak signifikan dengan prestasi kerja, tetapi interaksi antara layanan ketua terdekat dan keadilan prosedur mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan prestasi kerja. Dapatan kajian mengesahkan bahawa keadilan prosedur hanya bertindak sebagai pemboleh ubah penyederhanaan separa dalam model sistem ganjaran dalam organisasi kajian.

Pay Kriteria : Léné, A. (2014), menurut artikel ini, Skill-Based Pay (SBP) bertujuan mengkaji pelaksanaan pelan SBP. Dalam kes ini, SBP boleh dianggap sebagai kriteria bayaran (pay criteria) dan pengkaji melihat hubungannya dengan keadilan organisasi. Pengkaji menggunakan kaedah reka bentuk Yin, di mana dokumen dikumpulkan dan temu bual separa berstruktur telah dijalankan dan pemerhatian direkodkan dalam dua syarikat yang berbeza di Perancis. Konsep keadilan organisasi membenarkan pengkaji untuk memberi penerangan tentang mekanisme melalui pelaksanaan SBP boleh membawa kepada kesan negatif. Pertama, Lene membuat tanggapan ketidakadilan adalah elemen penting dalam pelaksanaan SBP itu. Kedua, rancangan SBP dilaksanakan oleh pengurus pada barisan hadapan mempengaruhi sikap dan tingkah laku pekerja. Apabila pekerja menganggap bahawa keputusan dibuat atas dasar kriteria yang kurang sah, ini akan mempengaruhi tingkah laku pekerja. Adalah dicadangkan bahawa rangka kerja keadilan organisasi harus digunakan untuk meningkatkan pemahaman penulis mengenai bentuk reaksi pekerja terhadap rancangan tersebut. Lene berpendapat keadilan dan amanah akan digunakan untuk menilai motivasi pekerja untuk mengambil bahagian (atau tidak) dalam SBP. Pemboleh ubah bebas adalah keadilan dan amanah manakala pemboleh ubah bersandar ialah motivasi pekerja.

2.2 Kerangka Konseptual dan Hipotesis Kajian

Berdasarkan sorotan karya di atas, dijadikan panduan untuk membina kerangka konseptual kajian seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam Rajah 1 di bawah. Pemboleh ubah tak bersandar ialah komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran dan pemboleh ubah bersandar ialah motivasi kerja.



Rajah 1 : Kerangka Konseptual Kajian

Kerangka konseptual ini memberi panduan kepada para penyelidik untuk mencadangkan dan menguji hipotesis-hipotesis berikut:

- H1: Motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran terhadap prestasi kerja.
- H2: Motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh penyertaan dalam sistem ganjaran terhadap prestasi kerja.
- H3: Motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh kriteria bayaran dalam sistem ganjaran terhadap prestasi kerja.

3. Metodologi

3.1 Kaedah Kajian

Kajian ini dijalankan menggunakan borang soal selidik yang melibatkan data cross-sectional. Data dipungut daripada responden di salah satu Jabatan kerajaan di Putrajaya secara rawak daripada kesemua lapan belas bahagian di Ibu Pejabat Jabatan berkenaan di Putrajaya mengikut kuota setiap bahagian tanpa mengira jantina dan gred pekerja. Kaedah temu bual dan drop off & pick up telah digunakan bagi mendapatkan maklumat daripada responden. Soal selidik yang diberikan turut disertakan dengan surat iringan menyatakan tujuan, objektif kajian dan kerahsiaan maklumat yang dikumpul. Ini bagi memastikan responden yakin terhadap kerahsiaan data yang diberikan. Proses pengumpulan data mengambil masa lebih kurang tiga minggu. Sebanyak 180 borang soal selidik diedarkan dengan 160 borang soal selidik dikembalikan iaitu kadar respons sebanyak 88.9 peratus. Data diproses dan proses penyingkiran data outliers telah dibuat dan mendapati daripada 160 kes, hanya 99 kes (61.9 peratus) yang boleh digunakan bagi tujuan analisis.

3.2 Pengukuran

Borang soal selidik yang digunakan mempunyai empat (4) bahagian merangkumi maklumat peribadi responden; persepsi terhadap pengurusan sistem ganjaran kerja; persepsi terhadap penentuan ganjaran di dalam

organisasi; dan tahap kepuasan, komitmen dan prestasi. Soalan menggunakan 7 Point Likert Scale (1 hingga 7) daripada 'Sangat Tidak Setuju' kepada 'Sangat Setuju'.

Pemboleh ubah bersandar bagi kajian ini adalah Motivasi Kerja. Pemboleh ubah ini diukur daripada beberapa soalan berkaitan dengan motivasi untuk bekerja seperti sama ada mereka dapat mengatasi cabaran untuk menyelesaikan tugas, cekap menjalankan tugas, tugas dapat diselesaikan secara bebas, melakukan tugas dengan cemerlang dan memberikan kepuasan, melakukan tugas dengan cemerlang dan menyumbang kepada perkembangan dan pertumbuhan peribadi, melakukan tugas dengan cemerlang dan meningkatkan harga diri, percaya tugas yang cemerlang dapat mempengaruhi peluang mendapat ganjaran yang baik, meningkatkan peluang kenaikan pangkat dan prestasi mencapai jangkauan pegawai atasan.

Manakala, pemboleh ubah tidak bersandar pula terdiri daripada tiga (3) komponen iaitu komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran. Kesemua pemboleh ubah ini diukur daripada soalan-soalan yang berkaitan dengan komponen masing-masing daripada persepsi terhadap sistem ganjaran kerja. Contohnya, bagi komunikasi antara soalan yang ditanya berkaitan dengan tangga gaji jawatan, kenaikan gaji tahunan, kriteria anugerah perkhidmatan cemerlang dan peluang kenaikan pangkat. Manakala soalan berkaitan penyertaan seperti perbincangan responden dengan pegawai atasan bagi penentuan prestasi, penglibatan responden dalam pemilihan calon serta penentuan anugerah cemerlang dan berpeluang untuk memberikan pendapat mengenai gaji yang diterima berbanding dengan prestasi. Bagi kriteria bayaran pula antara soalan yang ditanya ialah penentuan tahap ganjaran yang sesuai, peluang kenaikan pangkat, berkursus dan menentukan kadar kenaikan gaji yang lebih tinggi.

Analisis data menggunakan perisian *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) dan SmartPLS 3.0. Perisian SPSS digunakan untuk memproses dan menyemak kualiti data seterusnya membuat penyingkiran data yang outliers dan mendapatkan profil responden. SmartPLS 3.0 pula digunakan bagi memperoleh ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan data yang merangkumi Factor Loading, Average Variance Extracted (AVE),

Cronbach Alpha dan Composite Reliability. Selain daripada itu, maklumat berkenaan R^2 , β dan t -statistics juga diperoleh menggunakan perisian SmartPLS 3.0.

4. Penemuan

4.1 Profil Responden

Penemuan kajian ke atas profil responden dalam kajian persepsi ini mendapati majoriti responden adalah terdiri daripada anggota perempuan (73.76%), dalam lingkungan umur 25 hingga 34 tahun (53.5%). Lebih 50 peratus responden berpendidikan Ijazah dan ke atas iaitu (45.5 %) pendidikan Ijazah dan lain-lain/sarjana dan ke atas (6.1%). Majoriti mereka memperoleh gaji kasar bulanan antara RM2500 hingga RM3999 (37.4%) dan 98 peratus adalah pekerja taraf perkhidmatan tetap seperti yang ditunjukkan pada Jadual 1 di sebelah.

4.2 Analisis Kesahihan dan Kebolehpercayaan

Penemuan ini berdasarkan maklum balas responden terhadap soal selidik yang mengandungi soalan berkaitan dengan pemboleh ubah komunikasi (6 soalan), penyertaan (7 soalan) dan kriteria bayaran (6 soalan) serta dipadankan dengan pemboleh ubah motivasi bekerja (9 soalan). Kaedah *confirmatory factor analysis* (CFA) membuktikan bahawa *construct* konsisten dengan hipotesis kajian dengan nilai *factor loadings* melebihi 0.5 bagi kesemua pemboleh ubah. Keputusan *cronbach alpha* melebihi 0.8 menunjukkan kesemua pemboleh ubah mempunyai *internal consistency* yang tinggi. Keputusan average variance extracted (AVE) yang melebihi 0.5 dan *composite reliability* melebihi 0.8 bagi kesemua pemboleh ubah membuktikan wujudnya elemen kebolehpercayaan pada model kajian. Jadual 2 di bawah menunjukkan keputusan yang membuktikan skala ukuran yang digunakan dalam kajian ini memenuhi piawaian bagi ujian kesahihan dan kebolehpercayaan.

Jadual 2 : Keputusan Ujian Kesahihan dan Kebolehpercayaan

<i>Ukuran</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Factor Loadings</i>	<i>Cronbach Alpha</i>	<i>Average Variance Extracted (AVE)</i>	<i>Composite Reliability</i>
Komunikasi	6	0.571 hingga 0.851	0.809	0.502	0.86
Penyertaan	7	0.687 hingga 0.856	0.905	0.637	0.93
Kriteria bayaran	6	0.659 hingga 0.833	0.843	0.557	0.89
Motivasi kerja	9	0.521 hingga 0.784	0.881	0.507	0.92

Jadual 1 : Demografi dan Profil Responden (N = 99)

<i>Perkara</i>	<i>Kumpulan</i>	<i>Peratus (%)</i>
Jantina	Lelaki	26.3
	Perempuan	73.7
Umur	Kurang daripada 25 tahun	1.0
	25 hingga 34 tahun	53.5
	35 hingga 44 tahun	36.4
	45 hingga 54 tahun	5.1
	55 tahun ke atas	4.0
Pendidikan Tertinggi	LCE/SRP	1.0
	MCE/SPM	17.2
	HSC/STP	8.1
	Diploma	22.2
	Ijazah	45.5
	Lain-lain	6.1
Jawatan	Pengurusan & professional	47.5
	Penyeliaan	8.1
	Teknikal	1.0
	Perkeranian & sokongan	42.4
	Lain-lain	1.0
Taraf Perkhidmatan	Tetap	98.0
	Sementara	2.0
Tempoh Perkhidmatan	Kurang dari 5 tahun	20.2
	5 hingga 14 tahun	56.6
	15 hingga 24 tahun	17.2
	25 tahun ke atas	6.1
Gaji Kasar Bulanan	RM1000 hingga RM2499	29.3
	RM2500 hingga RM3999	37.4
	RM4000 hingga RM5499	19.2
	RM5500 hingga RM6999	8.1
	RM7000 ke atas	6.1
Taraf Perkahwinan	Bujang	22.2
	Berkahwin	77.8

4.3 Keputusan Ujian Hipotesis

Jadual 2 menunjukkan keputusan ujian hipotesis menggunakan kaedah bootstrapping. Melalui kaedah ini, didapati nilai β bagi pemboleh ubah komunikasi ($\beta = 0.240$) dan kriteria bayaran ($\beta = 0.333$) menunjukkan bahawa kedua-dua pemboleh ubah ini mempunyai hubungan yang positif dan berkorelasi secara signifikan dengan motivasi bekerja, berdasarkan keputusan ujian t statistik. Keputusan ini menunjukkan H1 dan H3 gagal ditolak, iaitu motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh komunikasi dan kriteria bayaran dalam sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi kerja. Walau bagaimanapun, pemboleh ubah penyertaan ($\beta = 0.080$) didapati mempunyai hubungan positif tetapi tidak signifikan dengan motivasi bekerja, menyebabkan H2 ditolak. Secara keseluruhan, didapati sebanyak 29.5 peratus motivasi bekerja dipengaruhi oleh perubahan pemboleh ubah komunikasi, penyertaan dan kriteria bayaran. Walaupun hanya 29.5 peratus, namun disebabkan data yang diguna pakai adalah keratan rentas (cross sectional) dan saiz sampel yang agak kecil, ini sudah cukup untuk membuktikan bahawa responden berpuas hati dengan sistem ganjaran yang diamalkan kerana mereka berpendapat sistem ganjaran yang diamalkan telah meningkatkan motivasi.

Jadual 3 : Keputusan Ujian Hipotesis

<i>Pemboleh Ubah Tak Bersandar</i>	R^2	β	t statistik
Komunikasi	0.295	0.240	2.089
Penyertaan		0.080	0.605
Kriteria bayaran		0.333	3.035

5. Perbincangan dan Kesimpulan

Berdasarkan kepada keputusan kajian didapati bahawa responden di Jabatan tersebut beranggapan wujudnya komunikasi terhadap sistem ganjaran yang digunakan bagi penganugerahan perkhidmatan cemerlang dan prestasi Elemen komunikasi yang diamalkan di Jabatan ini telah meningkatkan motivasi bekerja. Maklumat tentang sistem ganjaran yang diamalkan adalah diketahui oleh semua penjawat awam sejak mereka menerima surat tawaran kerja lagi. Maklumat juga boleh diperoleh daripada Pekeliling Perkhidmatan yang dikeluarkan oleh Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam. Selain itu, kriteria bagi penganugerahan cemerlang juga jelas diperincikan berdasarkan aspek yang dinilai dalam Laporan Nilain Pencapaian Tahunan (LNPT). Sasaran kerja tahunan yang perlu dicapai oleh pekerja juga telah ditetapkan di awal tahun dan disemak semula di pertengahan tahun dan amalan ini membuatkan pekerja memahami sasaran yang perlu dicapai sepanjang tahun.

Di samping komunikasi, motivasi bekerja juga dipengaruhi oleh kriteria bayaran di jabatan ini. Didapati bahawa pekerja berpuas hati dengan skor penilaian prestasi yang digunakan sebagai instrumen untuk penganugerahan perkhidmatan cemerlang, tahap ganjaran, kenaikan gaji, kenaikan pangkat, peluang berkursus dan pengiktirafan lain. Responden berpendapat sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi yang diamalkan mewujudkan motivasi bekerja.

Namun begitu, penyertaan tidak mempengaruhi motivasi bekerja yang diamalkan di Jabatan ini. Pekerja tidak perlu mempersoalkan mengenai tahap ganjaran yang diterima oleh pekerja yang berlainan prestasi kerjanya. Sebagai penjawat awam, jumlah gaji yang diperoleh adalah berdasarkan tangga gaji mengikut gred jawatan, dan bukannya berdasarkan prestasi. Dalam kes-kes tertentu di mana pekerja yang mendapat penilaian prestasi yang rendah pada tahap tertentu yang telah ditetapkan, berkemungkinan mereka tidak mendapat kenaikan gaji tahunan dan perkara ini dimaklumkan kepada pekerja. Penentuan calon anugerah perkhidmatan cemerlang pula hanya melibatkan pihak pengurusan atasan Jabatan sahaja. Pekerja tidak terlibat dalam menentukan calon untuk anugerah perkhidmatan cemerlang. Peluang berkursus pula digalakkan kepada semua pekerja dengan menyediakan pusat latihan di Institusi Latihan yang dibina oleh Jabatan dan menawarkan kursus mengikut kesesuaian bidang tugas pekerja sama ada dalam atau di luar negara.

Kajian ini mencadangkan sistem ganjaran berdasarkan prestasi mempengaruhi motivasi bekerja di Jabatan yang dikaji. Skala ukuran yang digunakan dalam kajian ini mencapai piawai analisis kesahihan dan

kebolehpercayaan. Ujian hipotesis mengesahkan bahawa elemen komunikasi dan kriteria bayaran mempengaruhi motivasi bekerja dalam organisasi manakala penyertaan didapati tidak mempengaruhi motivasi bekerja dalam organisasi. Kajian ini menyarankan agar penyertaan pekerja dalam aspek pemberian dan penentuan ganjaran dipertingkatkan. Walau bagaimanapun, keputusan kajian ini adalah berdasarkan saiz sampel yang kecil dan hanya menjurus kepada penjawat awam di sebuah Jabatan sahaja. Kajian lanjut bagi menguji pemboleh ubah penyertaan dalam mempengaruhi motivasi bekerja dapat dijalankan dengan menambah saiz sampel serta mempelbagaikan jabatan atau kementerian bagi melihat persepsi penjawat awam terhadap sistem ganjaran yang digunakan di organisasi yang lain.

6. Penghargaan

Saya ingin menyampaikan ucapan terima kasih kepada pensyarah subjek Pengurusan Sumber Manusia Prof. Dr. Ishak Yussof dan Ketua Penyelidik Prof. Madya Dr. Azman Ismail dan rakan-rakan sekelas yang turut serta menjayakan kajian ini. Penghargaan juga diberikan kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia dan CRIM UKM kerana menyediakan peruntukan bagi menjalankan kajian ini. Kod Rujukan: FRGS/1/2014/SS05/UKM/02/7.

7. Rujukan

- Alvi, Abdul Khaliq & Abbasi, Abdus Sattar (2012). Impact of Organizational Justice on Employee Engagement in Banking Sector of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research* 12 (5), pp. 643-649.
- Azman Che Omar (2001), Motivasi [Online] Available:
http://pendaftar.uitm.edu.my/latihan/images/stories/Nota_Induksi/Kump1/motivasi.pdf
- Gawel, J. E. (1997). Herzberg's Theory of Motivation and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. ERIC/AE Digest.
- Ismail, A., Abdullah, D. N. M. A., Wahid, N., & Shariff, M. N. M. (2010). Kesan amalan komunikasi dalam sistem ganjaran dan keadilan prosedur terhadap prestasi kerja. *International Journal of Management Studies (IJMS)*, 17(1), 203-223.
- Ismail, A., Abdul Rahman, H., & Wan Ismail, W. K. (2007). Moderating effect of procedural justice in the relationship between participation in pay systems and personal outcomes. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, (9), 83-96.
- Léné, A. (2014). Skill-based pay in practice: an interactional justice perspective. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 38(7), 628-641.
- Marsden, D., & Richardson, R. (1992). Motivation and performance related pay in the public sector: a case study of the Inland Revenue.
- Mustaffa, C. S. (2004). Keberkesanan komunikasi organisasi: Satu analisis multidimensi. *International Journal of Management Studies (IJMS)*, 11(2), 91-122.
- Palaiologos. Anastasios, Papazekos Panagiotis & Panayotopoulou. Leda, (2011), "Organizational justice and employee satisfaction in performance appraisal", *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 35 Iss 8, pp. 826 – 840.
- Pooyan, A., & Eberhardt, B. J. (1989). Correlates of performance appraisal satisfaction among supervisory and nonsupervisory employees. *Journal of Business Research*, 19(3), 215-226.

Relationship between organizational antecedent, work performance and knowledge sharing practices among academicians at Malaysia Research Universities.

Nurfarahin Jasmine See Abdullah and Ismi Arif Ismail

Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education
Faculty of Educational Studies
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 Serdang, Selangor.

Abstract The purpose of this research is to determine relationship between organization antecedent, work performance and knowledge sharing practice among academicians at Malaysia Research Universities. The hypothesis for this research are organization antecedent has relationship with work performance and knowledge sharing, and work performance has relationship with knowledge sharing practice. The variable in this research are organizational antecedent which consist of people, organization and technology, as for work performance consist of work, ability, discipline, relationship and innovation and for knowledge sharing practice consist of socialization, externalization, combination and internalization. Applying the theory of multiple perspective for organizational antecedent, theory of needs for work performance and SECI for knowledge sharing practice. The data analysis measured this research were using software of statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 22 and measuring for structural equation modelling (SEM) software of analysis of moment structures (AMOS) version 22. The findings show support the hypothesized relationship proposed in the theoretical model. Specifically, the results of organizational antecedent on single mediation show that organization has full mediation relationship between work performance. As for work performance the organizational antecedent for human show no mediation relationship but as for organizational antecedent for technology show indirect effect relationship.

Keywords: knowledge sharing practice, organization antecedent, work performance, SECI, Single Mediation

1. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge is power mentioned by Francis Bacon. Knowledge is a very important resource for solving problems and creating core competences for individuals and organizations to remain competitive. Knowledge management (KM) has become an important issue in the last few decades. Successful knowledge management initiatives implies a good combination of both human participation and technology collaboration tools. An organization that remains competitive and innovative is viewed in knowledge sharing (KS) as an important platform. For the knowledge sharing (KS) researcher believed that the participant who practice sharing of knowledge would increase goodwill in human resource development. In other words, the unwillingness to share knowledge becomes an issue as well as to manage it. This research is to explore in developing a framework for human resource development (HRD) that is organizational antecedent (OA), work performance (WP) towards knowledge sharing practice (KSP) among academicians within the content of Research Universities (RU) from the Malaysia higher education institution (MHEI). Knowledge-sharing is an important action for an organization whether it requires a breather in the public, private or in the civil society to enhance learning, to

improve efficiencies and to build better organizations. In relation to this, the researcher does not deny that the research on knowledge-sharing practice (KSP) would be meaningful to academicians in higher education institutions, in order for them to be able to research any problems pertinent to the topic such as the extent to which sharing of knowledge is needed among the staff members themselves. This research report will also await at the knowledge-sharing practice in depth, and its significance to academician in institutions of higher learning. Mentioned by Ipe, M. (2003), knowledge-sharing is vital, to assure that knowledge grows and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) have added to this that knowledge increases when it is dealt.

2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this research is to determine evidence on the organizational antecedent, work performance and knowledge sharing practices in the context of research universities. In this regard, an investigation is extended out on the organizational antecedent, work performance and knowledge sharing practices of the respondents and whether there are relationship in organizational antecedents that are human, organization and technology between knowledge sharing practices. The specific research objectives of this study is to determine relationship between organizational antecedent with work performance (WP) as mediate relationships towards knowledge sharing practices.

3. ORGANIZATIONAL ANTECEDENT

Organizational antecedent consist of human factors is knowledge resides within individual and KS behavior is determined by a person, therefore the study focuses on two dimensions of personal perspective namely, attitude and feeling of enjoyment in helping others. For an individual to possess positive attitude and personality to share knowledge (Sveiby and Simons, 2002). It is believed that normative commitment is believed to further the process of KS. For organizational factors that knowledge sharing and human resource development, stress that creates managing environment for social interaction and collaboration is indispensable for knowledge sharing. As for technology factors that the “hard” issue or factor which includes technical aspects of using applied science is important to facilitate KS (Van den Hooff and de Ridder, 2004; Stoddart, 2001; Song, 2002).

4. WORK PERFORMANCE

Work performance is whether a person performs their work well. Work performance is studied in industrial and organizational psychology, the branch of psychology that deals with the workplace. Work performance is also part of human resources management. Performance is an important criterion for organizational outcomes and success. John P. Campbell, (1990), describes work performance as an individual level variable, or something a single person does. Work performance can be define as the work related activities expected of an employee and how well those activities were completed. Many business personnel directors assess that work performance of each employee on an annual or quarterly basis in order to help them identify suggested areas for improvement. Work performance measure on the six dimensions of Day and Silverman (1989, pp. 28–29) scale, which assessed the work performance. The work-performance scale included the following work, ability, discipline, relationship and innovation.

5. KNOWLEDGE SHARING PRACTICES

This is related to how knowledge sharing practices are starting to be institutionalized and become a culture in an establishment. This research examines how knowledge is being shared within an organization such as, between individuals, colleagues, departments, as well as between the head of departments to academic staff and with other institutions. To build knowledge sharing practices as a civilization, knowledge must be effectively shared and an organization must facilitate the operation. Knowledge sharing practices consist of socialization that this dimension explains social interaction as tacit to tacit knowledge transfer, sharing tacit knowledge through face-to-face or share knowledge through experiences. For example, meetings and brainstorm can support this sort of

interaction. Since tacit knowledge is hard to formalize and often time and space specific, tacit knowledge can be gained only through shared experience, such as spending time together or being in the same surroundings. Socialization typically occurs in a traditional apprenticeship, where apprentices learn the tacit knowledge needed in their craft through hands-on experience, rather than from writing manuals or texts. (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995). For externalization mean between tacit and explicit knowledge of Externalization (publishing, articulating knowledge), developmental genes, which embed the combined tacit knowledge which enable its communication. For example, concepts, images, and written text files can stand this sort of interaction. When tacit knowledge is made explicit, knowledge is crystallized, then leaving it to be shared by others, and it becomes the basis of fresh cognition. Concept creation in new product evolution is an exemplar of this conversion procedure. (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995). As well as combination that explicit to explicit, by combination (organizing, integrating knowledge), aggregating different types of explicit knowledge, for example building prototypes. The creative use of computerized communication networks and large-scale databases can support this mode of knowledge conversion. Explicit knowledge is collected from inside or outside the establishment and then combined, edited or processed to acquire fresh knowledge. The new explicit knowledge is then distributed among the members of the ruling body. (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995). As for internalization mean explicit to tacit by Internalization (knowledge receiving an application by an individual), enclosed by learning by doing; on the other hand, explicit knowledge becomes part of an individual's knowledge and will be assets for an arrangement. Internalization is also a procedure of continuous individual and collective reflection and the ability to see connections and recognize patterns and the mental power to make sense between fields, ideas, and concepts. (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995).

6. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In Figure 1 expresses the conceptual framework of this survey. Independent variables from organizational antecedent are human, organization and technology while for dependent variables of knowledge sharing practices are socialization, externalization, combination and internalization. As for mediator of work performance. Following the reference of David MacKinnon, (2004) the framework is single mediation.

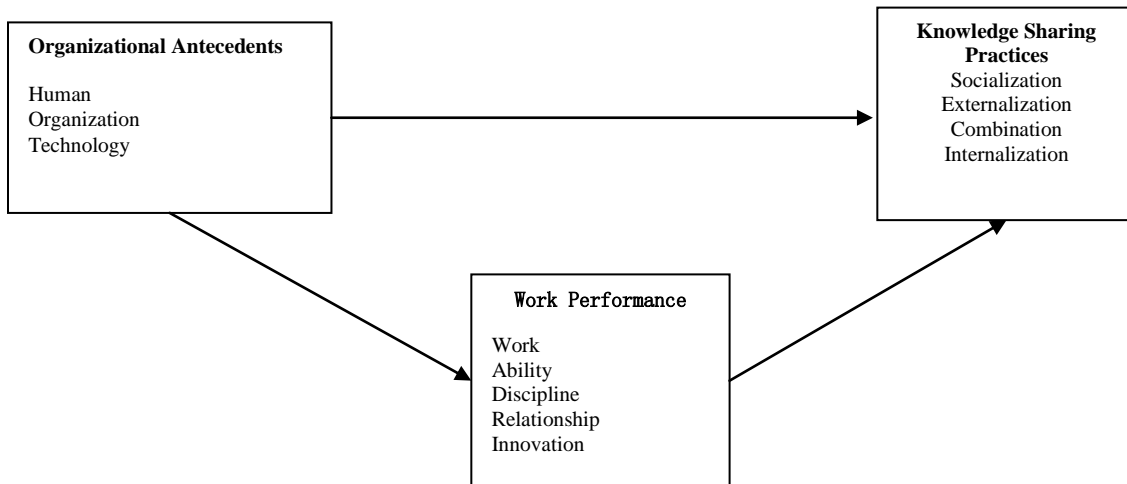


Figure 1: Conceptual framework of Organizational Antecedent, Work Performance and Knowledge Sharing Practices

7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Figure 2 show the theoretical framework of this study. Independent variables from organizational antecedent are human, organization and technology refer to the theory of multiple perspective while for dependent variables of knowledge sharing practices are socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization refer to SECI model. As for mediators are job satisfaction and work performance refer to theory of needs.

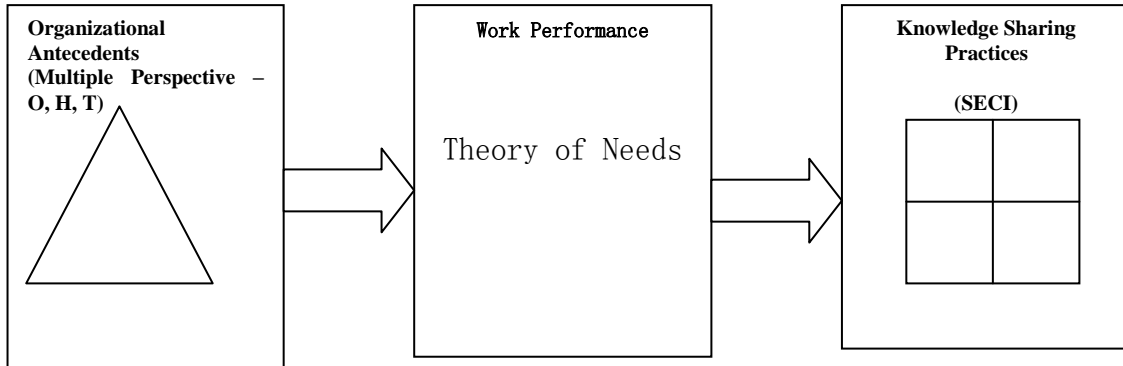


Figure 2: Theoretical framework

8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This section discusses the research approach used, strategy of inquiry and research method. In the past, research approaches have multiplied to a point at which investigation or inquires have many choices. For those planning a proposal or plan, researcher suggested that a general framework be adopted to provide counsel about all facets of the field, from assessing the general philosophical. This research methodology is a quantitative approach. A survey research design which adapted from the past research were applied. An online survey questionnaire were used to collect data from the academician at MRU. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis was employed in order to identify that organizational antecedent that influence the knowledge sharing practice among academician at Malaysia Research Universities (MRU). The analysis that used to identify where using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 22. The data analysis consists of two phases that are phase one preliminary analysis and phrased to consist of two stages that are stage one and stage two of structural equation modelling. The first point deals with data screening procedures in parliamentary procedure to insure that data have been correctly enter and understand the normality assumption. The second point is the application of a two stages structural equation modelling process (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The two level approach to SEM analysis is popular in existing research (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Gerbing and Hamilton 1996; Kaplan 2000). The first phase is to evaluate the measurement properties of SEM, which affect assessment of uni-dimensionality of each latent variable, model re-specification or modification and test of reliability and validity of measurement attributes. The second stage involves specification of the paths relationship between the underlying theoretical latent constructs. Formerly a good fitting structural model is placed, the structural model is then used for hypothesis testing of mediation.

Research Instrument and Participants

Instrument

The instrument is choosing and modify for this field. All details were judged on seven-points Likert-type scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 strongly agree. There are participants' demographic variables, the organizational antecedents (OA) as independent variables and knowledge sharing practices (KSP) as dependent variables and work performance (WP) as mediator variable. A survey instrument shall be distributed to participants. The participants shall have their survey online that is by a person of the researcher along with a brief oral explanation about the subject and the direction on how to fill in the survey, by electronic-mail and by stamped mail. The other participant shall have their study via e-mail with instructions similar to those participants in person. All survey instruments were online.

Participants

As of the year 2013, Malaysia had twenty universities in the public domain (source from : <http://www.moe.gov.my/v/ipta>) which was categorized in to three groups. The first categorise research universities that consist of five universities, focus universities that consist of 4 universities and comprehensive universities consists of eleven universities. As this study is for research universities there are 5 universities, Table 1 shows the numbers of academicians in research universities.

Table 1: Total Academic Staff at Research Universities.

No.	Research Universities	Overall Total
1.	A	2,756
2.	B	1,907
3.	C	2,175
4.	D	1,934
5.	E	2,074
		10,845

Source : <http://www.moe.gov.my/v/ipta>

9. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of Respondents

Table 2 shows a profile of respondents. All information is read in actual figures and percents to facilitate interpretation. The sample consists of a total of 369 respondents from the five research universities. The majority of the respondents are Malay (82.9%), followed by Chinese (7.3%), Indian (3%) and, Others (6.8%). The respondents are male (51.5%) and the remaining (48.5%) is female. Almost all of the respondents (95.7%) are Malaysian citizen and (4.3%) or non-citizen. As for age, the majority of the respondents are under 40 years old (49.9%) and between age 41 till 50 years old (28.7%). The respondents mostly have a Doctorate qualification (65.9%) and travel along with master qualification (32.8%). Finally, 44.2 percent of the respondents have work experience of 10 years and above 10 years till 20 years (34.4%), well above 20 years (18.2%).

Table 2: Profile of Respondents

Demographic profile	Number of respondents (N = 369)	Valid percentage (%)
Gender :		
Male	190	51.5
Female	179	48.5
Race:		
Malay	306	82.9
Chinese	27	7.3
Indian	11	3.0
Others	25	6.8
Research Universities :		
A/1	73	19.8
B/2	74	20.1
C/3	75	20.3
D/4	74	20.1
E/5	73	19.8
Citizen :		
Malaysian	353	95.7
Non-Citizen	16	4.3
Age:		
21-30yrs	24	6.5
31-40yrs	160	43.4
41-50yrs	106	28.7
51-55yrs	54	14.6
Above 56yrs	25	6.8
Marital Status:		
Single	54	14.6
Married	308	83.5
Divorce	7	1.90
Qualification :		
Doctorate	243	65.9
Master	121	32.8
Degree	2	.5
Professional	3	.8
Working Experience :		
Under 1 yr	12	3.3
1-10yrs	163	44.2
11-20yrs	127	34.4
21-30yrs	49	13.3
Above 30 years	18	4.9

Note: Table in parentheses indicate percentage of N
% = percentage

Structural Model for Knowledge Sharing Practices

The above show the results of single mediation for organizational antecedent-organization on mediate relationship between work performance and knowledge sharing practices.

Testing Mediation of Organizational Antecedent, Work Performance and Knowledge Sharing Practices

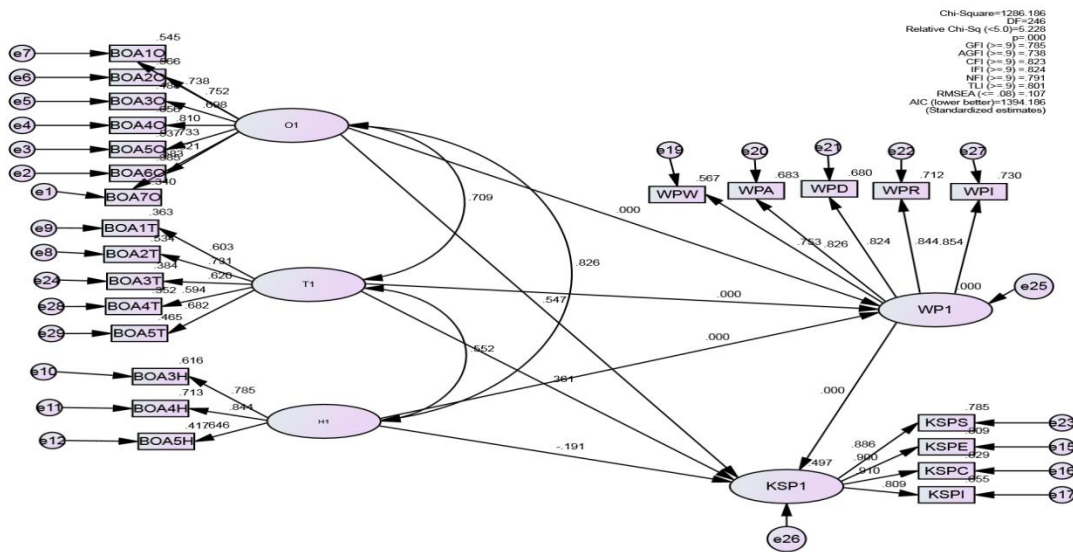


Figure 3: Structural Model for Organizational Antecedent, Work Performance and Knowledge Sharing Practices

Result show that organization antecedent that organization has full mediation relationship between work performance and knowledge sharing practice. Table 3 is the result of mediation test for organizational antecedent for organization between work performance and knowledge sharing practices

Table 3: Results of Mediation Test for Organizational Antecedent – Organization between Work Performance and Knowledge Sharing Practices

Construct	Beta	p	95% Bootstrap BC CI	
			LB	UB
Direct Model				
OAO → KSP	0.547	0.000		
Full Mediation				
OAO → WP	0.241	0.520		
Standard Indirect Effect (SIE)	0.306	0.003	0.156	0.5231

The table 4 show the results of single mediation for organizational antecedent-human on relationship between job satisfaction and knowledge sharing. Result show that organization antecedent that human has no mediation relationship between job satisfaction and knowledge sharing practice.

Table 4: Results of Mediation Test for Organizational Antecedent – Human between Job Satisfaction and Knowledge Sharing Practices

Construct	Beta	p	95% Bootstrap BC CI	
			LB	UB
Direct Model				
OAH → KSP	-0.191	0.000		
Full Mediation				
OAH → WP	-0.044	0.437		
Standard Indirect Effect (SIE)	-0.115	0.019	-0.278	-0.190

The Table 5 show the results of single mediation for organizational antecedent-technology on relationship between job satisfaction and knowledge sharing. Result show that organization antecedent that technology has indirect effect relationship between job satisfaction and knowledge sharing practice.

Table 5: Results of Mediation Test for Organizational Antecedent – Technology between Job Satisfaction and Knowledge Sharing Practices

Construct	Beta	p	95% Bootstrap BC CI	
			LB	UB
Direct Model				
OAT → KSP	0.361	0.075		
Full Mediation				
OAT → WP	0.293	0.073		
Standard Indirect Effect (SIE)	0.259	0.005	0.050	0.259

10. CONCLUSION

In this study, as result of organizational antecedent on single mediation show that organization has full mediation relationship between work performance. As for work performance the organizational antecedent for human show no mediation relationship but as for organizational antecedent for technology show indirect effect relationship.

11. REFERENCES

- Anderson and Gerbing, (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in practice: a review and recommended two-steps approach. *Psychology Bulletin*. Vol. 103, No. 3, pp 411-423
- Babbie, E. (1992). *The Practice of Social Research* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Bagozzi and Yi, (1988). On the evaluation of Structural Equation Modeling. *Academy of Marketing Science*. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*. Spring 1988. Vol 16
- 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, 1173-1182.
- Bauer, D. J., Preacher, K. J., & Gil, K. M. (2006). Conceptualizing and testing random indirect effects and moderated mediation in multilevel models: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 11, 142-163.
- Bolger, N., & Laurenceau, J.-P. (2013). *Intensive longitudinal methods: An introduction to diary and experience sampling research*. New: York, Guilford Press.

- Bollen, K. A., & Stine, R., (1990). Direct and indirect effects: Classical and bootstrap estimates of variability. *Sociological Methodology*, 20, 115-40.
- Campbell, J. P. (1990). Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 687-732). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.;
- Campbell, D. T. and Fiske, D. W. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait – multimethod matrix. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56(1), pp. 81-105.
- Chow, W. S. and Lui, K. H. (2001). Discriminating factors of information systems function performance in Hong Kong firms practicing TQM. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 21(5/6), pp. 749-771.
- Churchill, (1995). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research* (pre-1986); Feb 1979; 16, 000001; ABI/INFORM Globalpg. 64
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (rev. ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cohen, J.W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cole, D. A., & Maxwell, S. E. (2003). Testing mediational models with longitudinal data: Questions and tips in the use of structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 112, 558-577.
- Day, D. V., & Silverman, S. B. (1989). Personality and job performance: Evidence of incremental validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 42, 25–36.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 12, 1-22.
- Fornell and Larcker, (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with unobserved variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*. Vol 18. No. 1, pp 39-50
- Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. P., & Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 51, 115-134.
- Fritz, M. S., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2007). Required sample size to detect the mediated effect. *Psychological Science*, 18, 233-239
- Fritz, M. S., Kenny, D. A., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2014). The opposing effects of simultaneously ignoring measurement error and omitting confounders in a single-mediator model. Unpublished paper, the University of Nebraska.
- Fritz, M. S., Taylor, A. B., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2012). Explanation of two anomalous results in statistical mediation analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 47, 61-87.
- Hair, J. F., W. C. Black, B. J. Babin, R. E. Anderson, and R. L. Tatham. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. 6th ed. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Hayes, A. F., & Scharkow, M. (2013). The relative trustworthiness of inferential tests of the indirect effect in statistical mediation analysis: Does method really matter?
- Hoyle, R. H., & Kenny, D. A. (1999). Statistical power and tests of mediation. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Statistical strategies for small sample research*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Hyman, H. H. (1955). *Survey design and analysis*. New York: Glencoe, IL: The Free Press.
- Imai, K., Keele, L., & Tingley, D. (2010). A general approach to causal mediation analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 15, 309-334.
- Ipe, M. (2003). Knowledge Sharing in Organizations: A Conceptual Framework. *Knowledge Management and HRD. Human Resource Development Review*, 2(4), 337-359.
- James, L. R., & Brett, J. M. (1984). Mediators, moderators and tests for mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 307-321.

- Jose, P. E. (2013). *Doing statistical mediation and moderation*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (2010). Data analysis. In D. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (5th ed., Vol. 1, pp. 115-139), New York.
- Judd, C. M., Kenny, D. A., & McClelland, G. H. (2001). Estimating and testing mediation and moderation in within-subject designs. *Psychological Methods*, 6, 115-134.
- Kaplan, D. (2000). *Structural equation modeling: Foundations and extensions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kenny, D. A. (2008). Reflections on Mediation. doi:10.1177/1094428107308978\Kenny, D. A., & Judd, C. M. (2014). Power anomalies in testing mediation. *Psychological Science*, in press.
- Kenny, D. A., Kashy, D. A., & Bolger, N. (1998). Data analysis in social psychology. In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 1, 4th ed., pp. 233-265). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Kenny, D. A., Korchmaros, J. D., & Bolger, N. (2003). Lower level mediation in multilevel models. *Psychological Methods*, 8, 115-128.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principle and Practice of Structural Modeling*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Kraemer H. C., Wilson G. T., Fairburn C. G., & Agras W. S. (2002). Mediators and moderators of treatment effects in randomized clinical trials. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 59, 877-883.
- Krull, J. L. & MacKinnon, D. P. (1999). Multilevel mediation modeling in group-based intervention studies. *Evaluation Review*, 23, 418-444.
- Ledermann, T., Macho, S., & Kenny, D. A. (2011). Assessing mediation in dyadic data using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 18, 595-612.
- MacCorquodale, K., & Meehl, P. E. (1948). On a distinction between hypothetical constructs and intervening variables. *Psychological Review*, 55, 95-107.
- Macho, S., & Ledermann, T. (2011). Estimating, testing, and comparing specific effects in structural equation models: The phantom model approach. *Psychological Methods*, 16, 34-43.
- MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis*. New York: Erlbaum.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. (2007). Mediation analysis. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 593-614.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 39, 99-128.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Warsi, G., & Dwyer, J. H. (1995). A simulation study of mediated effect measures. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 30, 41-62.
- Muller, D., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2005). When moderation is mediated and mediation is moderated. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89, 852-863.
- Nonaka, I. (1994). The dynamic theory of organizational knowledge creation. *Organization Science*, 5(1), 14-37.
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1967). *Psychometric theory*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pallant, J. (2001). *SPSS Survival Manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows (Version 10)*, NSW, Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Pearl J. (2001). Direct and indirect effects." In *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, pp. 411-420. Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco, CA.
- Pearl, J. (2011). The causal mediation formula -- A guide to the assessment of pathways and mechanisms. *Prevention Science*, 13, 426-436.
- Pearl, J. (2013). Interpretation and identification of causal mediation. *Psychological Methods*, in press.
- Polanyi, M. (1966). *The tacit dimension*. London: Routledge Kegan Paul
- Preacher, K. J., & Kelley, K. (2011). Effect size measures for mediation models: Quantitative strategies for communicating indirect effects. *Psychological Methods*, 16, 93-115.

- Preacher, K. J., Zyphur, M. J., & Zhang, Z. (2010). A general multilevel SEM framework for assessing multilevel mediation. *Psychological Methods*, 15, 209-233.
- Robins J. M., & Greenland S. (1992). Identifiability and exchangeability for direct and indirect effects. *Epidemiology*, 3, 143-155.
- Sekaran, U. (2003) *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. USA: John Wiley and Sons.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 422-445.
- Smith, E. (1982). Beliefs, attributions, and evaluations: Nonhierarchical models of mediation in social cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 248-259.
- Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. In S. Leinhardt (Ed.), *Sociological Methodology 1982* (pp. 290-312). Washington DC: American Sociological Association.
- Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. (1996). *Using Multivariate statistics*, New York: Harper Collins.
- Valeri, L., & VanderWeele, T.J. (2013). Mediation analysis allowing for exposure-mediator interactions and causal interpretation: theoretical assumptions and implementation with SAS and SPSS macros. *Psychological Methods*, 18, 137-150.
- Wright, S. (1934). The method of path coefficients. *Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 5, 161-215.
- Yeop Abdullah Ibrahim (1994). Human Resource Development for Industrialization. *Malaysian Management Review*, 29(1). Available online at <http://resources.mim.edu.my/mmr/MA1010.htm>
- Zikmund, W. G. (1994). *Business research methods*. 4th ed. Fort Worth: Dryden. (2003). *Exploring marketing research*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.

Lean manufacturing Practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry

Sivaprakash Vatumalai and Norhani Bakri ⁺

Abstract This research aims to determine the factors that influence the lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry where the objectives of this study are to identify the relationship between senior manager's support and lean manufacturing practices and to analyze the relationship between employee's attitude and lean manufacturing practices. Questionnaire was used as an instrument to collect data from 110 respondents which consist of technicians and supervisors from 13 Malaysian automotive component manufacturing companies. The data was then analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 in the form of percentage and multiple regression models. The findings show that there is a significant relationship between senior manager's support and employee's attitude towards the lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry where the most influential senior manager's support factors affects lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry is having a clear vision and the most influential employee's attitude factor affects lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry is openness towards change.

Keywords: Lean manufacturing practices, senior manager, employee's attitude, Malaysian automotive industry.

1. Introduction

The growing challenges in today's global competition have pressure many manufacturing companies to adopt new manufacturing management strategies to enhance the firm's efficiency. According to Wong *et al.* (2009), global market requires the best management practices in order to compete in the competitive environment with the penetration of Chinese and Indian goods into Malaysian market. One of the strategies is by eliminating manufacturing waste. Organizations notice that somehow they need to be "lean" in order to survive and also to be competitive. The way the organizations look at profit has changed due to the high competition in the market. They understood that there is no other alternative other than to minimize waste to make profit and survive in the global market (Wong and Wong, 2011).

Malaysian automotive industry has highly contributed to the economy in terms of employment, export, and revenue from taxes (Uzir Mahidin and Kanageswary, 2004). Lean manufacturing practices is the most accepted philosophy in Malaysian automotive industry as MAJAICO program which is a Malaysian government vendor development program that has been massively promoting lean practice in Malaysia Automotive Institute (Rasli *et al.*, 2011). The concept of lean of was originally designed for quality improvement in automotive industry but limited research has been done in Malaysian automotive industry and also in other manufacturing industries in Malaysia (Wong *et al.*, 2009).

Most of the developing countries attempt to force automotive industry to recover and recycle their goods due to the level of the production has become unprofitable in the face of increasingly segmented niche market (Farah Izzaida *et al.* (2013). Automotive companies across the world are implementing lean manufacturing

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + (607-5610033); fax: +(607-5610119).
E-mail address: (nhani_b@yahoo.com).

practices tool as their manufacturing management strategies to improve their quality and also to minimize the waste. According to Krizner (2001), 55% to 95% of manufacturing process can contribute to waste which need to be eliminate.

Although, Malaysian automotive industry has implemented lean manufacturing practices since 2001, problems still arise in the implementation. Norani *et al.* (2010) who studied on the implementation of lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry has indicated that most of the companies are still in-transition towards lean manufacturing practices and among the major barriers in implementing lean are lack of understanding on lean concept, inappropriate attitude by managers and employees. Lean manufacturing practices is vital to enhance the quality of the product with no waste and has potential to reduce the overall automotive cost in Malaysia.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Lean manufacturing practices

Lean is one of the leading continuous quality improvement principles that have been used effectively in manufacturing industry for decades across the world. It has become a widely acceptable and adoptable manufacturing practice. The principles of lean manufacturing practices are to increase productivity by make more with less resource, and eliminate source of waste throughout the value chain (Shah and Ward, 2003). The concept of lean is commonly related with Japanese manufacturing, especially the Toyota Production System (TPS) based on the work by W. Edwards Deming. Lean manufacturing practices originally is an assembly line manufacturing method developed for Toyota and the manufacture of automobiles (Ohno, 1988). The purpose of lean is still based on the original ideology of Toyota Production System (TPS) that is activities to reduce waste and provide value added to customers (Womack and Jones 1996). The practice of lean and its interest has increased significantly in recent years (De Souza, 2009).

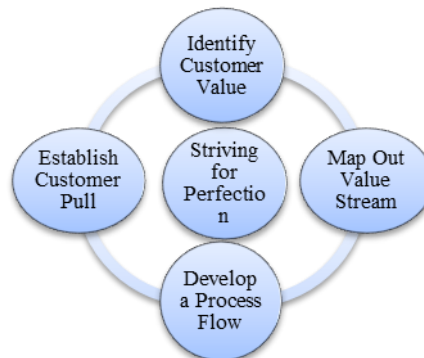


Fig. 1 - The Principles of Lean manufacturing practices

2.2 Senior manager's support

Most of the studies show that engaging senior managers in a change program such as lean manufacturing practices is vital to the success. The change effort cannot be optional for senior managers regardless the change occurring in a department or in a complete organization, it needs large commitment from senior managers. The organization should not underestimate the role of a senior manager in a change program. An article by Queensland Government: Change management best practices guide on the five key factors common to success in managing organizational change, highlighted the organizational leaders or the senior manager's role in a change program. Based on that, senior managers are the number one contributor to success a change program and the senior managers should build change acceptance among those who are affected by the change. It also stated that the change initiative starts from the top of an organization and the senior managers should be the

visionaries, champions, and role models for the change. On top of that, if the change program faces difficulties to achieve, senior manager is the one who should initiate the solution to overcome.

2.3 Employee's Attitude

Beer and Nohria (2000) stated that 70% of the organizational change program fails due to one of the employee's issues that is resistance to change. Employee's attitude on change is the central to the success of any change program. According to Harrison *et al.*, (2006), employee's attitude refers to employee's views about the job which lead to job behaviours. Some employee's like their job and experiences a sense of affection or commitment to their job, while others dislike their job and experience a sense of humiliate their organizations and their working lives. In addition, Elias (2009) said that employee's attitude towards change as is the employee's overall positive or negative evaluative judgement of a change program implemented by the organization.

Many studies have been done in order to measure the various employee's attitudes towards change initiatives such as Fedor *et al.* (2006), Wanberg and Banas (2000) and Caldwell and Liu (2010). This study has focused on the employee's attitude model by Choi (2011). Choi (2011) has identified four dimensions in employee's attitudes towards not only lean manufacturing practices but any change initiatives. This includes include employee's readiness to change, commitment to change, openness to change, and cynicism about the change.

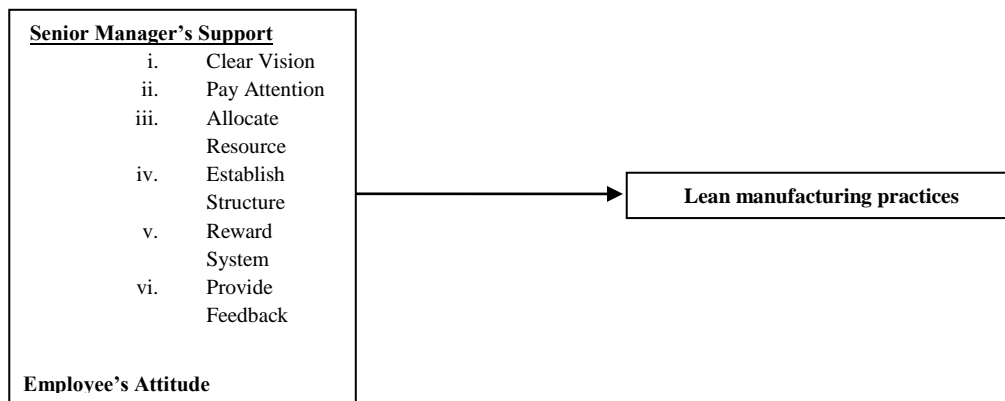


Fig. 2 - Research Framework

3. Methodology

A total of 110 respondents from 13 automotive component manufacturing companies around Malaysia have been selected in this study. The rational on why the researcher targeted on those companies is because they have successfully implemented lean manufacturing practices in their company. Meanwhile, 10 respondents has been selected from each company consist of shop floor employees (technicians and supervisors) who are directly involve in production process and knowledgeable on their firm's lean manufacturing practices.

A set of questionnaire has been developed to obtain primary data for this study. The questionnaire divided into three parts where the first part is the respondent's demographic, second part is on the senior manager's support towards lean manufacturing practices, and the final part is on the employee's attitude towards lean manufacturing practices. The respondents level of agreement has been divided into five scales that are strongly agree, agree, less agreeable, disagree, and strongly disagree. Multiple regression analysis has been used to identify the relationship between the senior manager's support and employee's attitude towards lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry.

4. Results

4.1 Objective 1: The Relationship between Senior Manager’s Support and Lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry

The multiple regression analysis shows that the value of R square is 0.731 which indicates that 73.1% of the variation from the dependent variables is explained by the independent variables. All the p-values of the regression coefficients represent a strong relationship between the independent and dependent variable. In other word, all the aspects in senior manager’s variable show a high association towards lean manufacturing practices in automotive industry. However, the p value for one of the aspect which is feedback aspect was more than 0.05. It shows that senior manager’s feedback towards lean is not significant towards lean manufacturing practices. Thus, the feedback aspect has been eliminated from the variable list using stepwise method. The model below is used to explain the relationship between senior manager’s support towards lean manufacturing practices performance.

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 \chi_1 + \beta_2 \chi_2 + \beta_3 \chi_3 + \beta_4 \chi_4 + \beta_5 \chi_5$$

$$\text{Lean manufacturing practices} = 1.089 + 0.311(\chi_1) + 0.357(\chi_2) + 0.157(\chi_3) + -0.173(\chi_4) + 0.081(\chi_5)$$

Where, Y = Lean manufacturing practices

χ_1 = Having a Clear Vision

χ_2 = Pay Attention

χ_3 = Allocate Resource

χ_4 = Establish Structure

χ_5 = Reward System

α = Intercept of the line on Y-axis

β = Slope of the Line

Table 1 - Multiple Regression Analysis on Senior Manager’s Support and Lean manufacturing practices.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	R Square
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
Constant	1.089	.177		6.038	.000	.731
Clear vision	.311	.051	.421	6.048	.000	
Pay Attention	.357	.061	.416	5.853	.000	
Allocate Resource	.157	.061	.220	2.593	.011	
Establish Structure	-.173	.060	-.217	-2.887	.005	
Reward System	.081	.040	.136	2.018	.046	

Based on table 1, the R square value of 0.731 explains that there is a strong relationship exists between variables. The beta weight for four aspects indicated positive relationship between variables and there is only one variable which has negative relationship with dependent variable. On top of that, all the variables are statistically significant towards lean manufacturing practices since the p values are between 0 until 0.05. In other word, the research model on the relationship between senior manager’s support and lean manufacturing practices at Malaysian automotive industry is proven since the variables are all related.

The highest coefficient value is for having a clear vision (0.421) which seems to be the strongest relationship with lean manufacturing practices. The second highest coefficient value (0.416) for pay attention, followed by allocates resource (0.220). Meanwhile, the lowest coefficient value is for reward system (0.136). On the other hand, establish structure has negative relationship with lean manufacturing practices as the coefficient value indicates negative value of -0.217, which means the more senior manager provides feedback,

the more the lean manufacturing practices will decrease. As mentioned earlier, provide feedback aspect has been removed from the regression analysis since there is no significance between the aspect and lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. To sum up, all the obtained coefficient values indicated a strong positive relationship towards lean manufacturing practices except for provide feedback aspect. Therefore, the senior manager’s support suggested by Susan Heathfield is relevant to be applied for lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. However, establish structure and provide feedback to employees aspects suggested by Susan Heathfield were found to be contrast with this study since the coefficient value shows negative relationship. Therefore, the two senior manager’s support aspects are not applicable for senior managers in Malaysian automotive industry using lean manufacturing practices.

4.2 Objective 2: The Relationship between Employee’s Attitude and Lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry

Table 2 illustrates the multiple regression analysis on the relationship between employee’s attitude and lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. Based on the table, the R square value is 0.424. The value shows that the relationship between these two variables is low where only 40% of the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. The significance between independent and dependent variables is exist where the changes in each unit of independent’s value changes the dependent’s value. Therefore, the coefficient of p value explains that there is a relationship between those variables. Again at this point, one of the aspects which is cynicism on change has possess a coefficient or p value above 0.05 that is 0.678.

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 \chi_1 + \beta_2 \chi_2 + \beta_3 \chi_3$$

$$\text{Lean manufacturing practices} = 1.601 + 0.204(\chi_1) + 0.151(\chi_2) + 0.217(\chi_3)$$

Where, Y = Lean manufacturing practices

χ_1 = Readiness to Change

χ_2 = Commitment to Change

χ_3 = Openness to Change

α = Intercept of the line on Y-axis

β = Slope of the Line

Table 2 - Multiple Regression Analysis on Employee’s Attitude and Lean manufacturing practices.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	R Square
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
Constant	1.601	.243		6.589	.000	
Readiness to Change	.204	.243	.252	2.144	.034	.423
Commitment to Change	.151	.064	.215	2.345	.021	
Openness to Change	.217	.083	.287	2.619	.010	

The latest R square value of 0.423 shows that the relationship between employee’s attitude and lean manufacturing practices exist but the strength of the relationship is low. As mentioned earlier, the association is valid since employee’s attitude is a behavioral study. The coefficient value of all the aspects indicated a positive relationship between variables. Moreover, all the p values are in the range of 0 to 0.05. It means all the aspects in employee’s attitude variables: readiness to change, commitment to change, and openness to change are significant towards lean manufacturing practices except for cynicism on change aspect since it has been removed from the model.

The highest coefficient value for employee’s attitude that has strong relationship with lean manufacturing practices is the openness to change (0.287) (table 4.13), followed by readiness to change (0.252). The least

coefficient value for employee's attitude variable is commitment to change. The coefficient for cynicism on change indicates a negative relationship towards lean manufacturing practices with -0.042 which has been removed from the regression model. Based on this study, all the employee's attitude aspects are relevant to this study. Except for cynicism on change explained by Choi (2011) is seems to be irrelevant for lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 The Relationship between Senior Manager's Support and Lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry

The available evidence seems to suggest that there is a significant relationship between senior manager's support and lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry since the R square value is high which explains a high correlation among variables. The most significant senior manager's support aspect towards lean manufacturing practices is having a clear vision aspect. According to Nanus (1992) and Seelay (1992), a good vision not only helps people to visualize a change but it guides them to accomplish the change. This study has identify that how important is the senior manager's vision towards lean manufacturing practices. Meanwhile, the second highest coefficient value is for pay attention aspect. The third senior manager's support aspect is allocates resources for change initiatives and related programs. Nevertheless, the reward system aspect has gained the least significance with lowest coefficient value. On the other hand, establish structure has negative relationship towards lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. The finding by Brian (2006) seems to be contrast to this study where the structure establishment such as steering committee is not an important aspect in lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. The overall result shows that senior manager's support towards lean manufacturing practices is important except for establish structure and provide feedback aspect. The senior manager's support dimensions towards change program by Susan M. Heathfield has been proven in this study that senior manager's support are in automotive industry in order to implement lean manufacturing practices.

5.2 The Relationship between Employee's Attitude and Lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian Automotive Industry

Similarly, multiple regression analysis has been performed to find out the relationship between employee's attitude and lean manufacturing practices. The R square value indicates that the direction of the relationship between employee's attitude and lean manufacturing practices is positive, yet slightly weak in terms of the strength. Based on the coefficient, openness to change has gained the highest coefficient. This study draws on research conducted by Miller *et al.* (1994) on the employee's openness to change. Openness to change is the most important and initial condition in order to initiate any change programs and also to increase the organizational efficiency. Besides that, readiness to change is the second highest coefficient towards lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. Meanwhile, commitment to change is the least significant with a lowest coefficient value. In contrast, cynicism to change aspect has been removed from the regression model since the p value showed there is no significance between cynicism to change and lean manufacturing practices. This result against the finding by Abraham (2000) and Armon *et al.* (1997) where the cynicism on change has no significance towards change programs. Overall, the model suggested by Choi (2011) has been studied and summarized in this study. According to this study, the four dimensions of employee's attitude model by Choi (2011) is relevant for lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry.

Based on the result, several recommendations can be made. The relationship on the senior manager's support and lean manufacturing practices is very strong which indicating the senior manager's role in lean manufacturing practices is vital. This study also proved that there is a relationship between employee's attitude and lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry. Based on the result, the relationship is

positive yet slightly weak. This shows that the employee's attitude is a contributing factor toward the lean manufacturing practices in Malaysian automotive industry.

6. Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Universiti Teknologi Malaysia for supporting this journal.

7. References

- Beer, M., and Nohria, N. (2000). "Cracking the code of change", Harvard Business Review.
- Choi, M. (2011). Employees' Attitudes Towards Organizational Change. Wiley Online Library .
- De Souza, L. B. (2009). Trends and approaches in Lean healthcare leadership.
- Farah Izzaida, Siti Norhafizan, Nursyazwani and Auni Fatin Nadia. (2013). Green Lean Six Sigma and Financial Performance in Malaysian Automotive Industry.
- Fedor, D. B., Caldwell, S., and Herold, D.M. (2006). The effects of organizational changes on employee commitment: a multilevel investigation. *Personnel Psychology*.
- Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., and Roth, P. L. (2006). How important are job attitudes? Meta-analytic comparisons of integrative behavioral outcomes and time sequences. *Academy of Management Journal*.
- Heathfield Susan M. Executive Support and Leadership in Change Management: http://humanresources.about.com/od/changemanagement/a/change_leaders.htm
- Krizner. K. (2001). "Manufacturers Adopt a Lean Philosophy: Methodologies and tools, mixed with information technology, can allow companies to streamline costs, increase efficiencies", *Frontline Solutions*.
- Mahidin and Kanageswary (2004). The Development of the Automobile Industry and the Road Ahead Department of Statistics Malaysia.
- Norani Nordin, Baba Md Deros, and Dzuraidah Abd Wahab (2010). A Survey on Lean Manufacturing Implementation in Malaysian Automotive Industry. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, Vol. 1.
- Rasli Muslimen, Sha'ri Mohd Yusof, and Ana Sakura Zainal Abidin (2011). Lean manufacturing practices Implementation in Malaysian Automotive Components Manufacturer: a Case Study. *Proceedings of the World Congress on Engineering*.
- Wong, Y. C., and Wong, K. Y. (2011). A Lean manufacturing Framework for the Malaysian Electrical and Electronics Industry.

Divine Work Motivation Lead To High Performance

Dr. Zulkifli Khair¹⁺, Dr. Mohd. Azhar Abd. Hamid¹ and Prof. Dr. Rosman Md. Yusoff²

^{1,2} Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

³ Faculty of Science, Technology and Human Development,
Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to compare conventional work motivation and high performance thought from Islamic perspective. Despite the growing need for knowledge on human resource management from an Islamic perspective, literature on the topic is scarce. This paper is an attempt to discuss conceptually the issue of divine work motivation based on revealed knowledge or divine sources, as well as knowledge from conventional management literature. Divine work motivation is not only related to metaphysics purposes or eternal success in the hereafter but also related to values of high performance culture i.e. *itqan* (attitude of excellence) and *ihsan* (perfection) towards developing high performance culture (HPC) and high performance organization (HPO). Therefore, work motivational concepts and high performance culture in Islamic management are more comprehensive than the conventional theories. The paper will give a better insight for leaders and managers in Muslim countries on the role of divine work motivation in achieving their corporate objectives successfully.

Keywords: Divine work motivation, *itqan* (attitude of excellence), *ihsan* (perfection), high performance culture, high performance organization, human resource management, Muslim

1. Introduction

In the career and corporate world, performance evaluation is utmost important. Higher performance should be achieved by higher effort, which is pushed and drove by higher work motivation. There is relationship between work motivation and high performance that has been discussed by work motivation Theories including Self-Determination Theory, X and Y Theory, Expectancy Theory and Maslow Needs Theory. Hughes et al. (1999) for instance stated that motivation and performance seem clearly related.

Basically, work motivation can be divided into internal and external categories. Internal work motivation deals with satisfaction and fun, meanwhile external work motivation deals with reward and punishment as carrot and stick orientation. In fact, the work motivation is based on certain personal and community values. Therefore, Alizi and Mohamad Zaki (2005) proposed the existence of religious motivation even it should not be posited either in the internal or intrinsic framework.

Does religion play role in work motivation and high performance? What is the concept of work motivation from Islamic perspective? How possible work motivation from Islamic perspective could influence to high performance? In other word, how divine work motivation could direct to higher performance in organization?

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: +016-7393093.
E-mail address: zulkiflih@utm.my.

These are few questions that should be answered. This article perhaps could initiate to answer the questions with few research agendas recommendation.

Both concepts could help employers and organization leaders to motivate their employees, as divine work motivation become an alternative type of motivation compared to conventional motivation. Even non-Muslim possibly will apply it to their Muslim employees, and it is more relevance to be applied in Muslim countries.

2. Work motivation and high performance

Work motivation relates to motivation at work place and motivation among workers either working in organization or as self-employed. However, the discussions on this field are more focus on workers in organization or employees that has strongly related with the discipline of organizational behaviour (OB) as well as industrial and organizational psychology (I-O Psychology). Thus, work motivation is referred to both personal and organization needs and expectations.

In general, motivation is referred to inner force that produces behavior (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Santrock, 2001; Ainley, 2004). Hughes et al. (1999) for instance stated that motivation, satisfaction and performance seem clearly related.

Work motivation according to Pinder (2008: 11) is ‘as a set of energetic forces, originating both within and beyond individual being to initiate work-related behaviors and to determine their form, direction, intensity and duration’. Therefore, work motivation relates to ‘working behaviors’, which includes of work effort, job satisfaction, culture etc. Furthermore, work motivation deals with individual and organizational purposes.

Gagné and Deci (2005) reviewed that many theories on work motivation have been greatly influenced by the cybernetic approach and the expectancy–valence approach. Theories on work motivation also could be divided into two major types; internal and external motivation. However there is also element of spirituality that can be referred to divine motivation – so-called divine potential motivation type. By referring to the selected theories, we examined the work motivation types as shown in the following Table 1.

Table 1: Examining the existence of work motivation types on selected work motivation theories.

Type of work motivation	Self-Determination Theory	X and Y Theory	Expectancy Theory	Maslow Needs Theory
External	✓	✓	✓	✓
Internal	✓	✓	✓	✓
Divine Potential	×	×	✓	✓

Almost all of the conventional work motivation theories do not cover the spiritual and religious aspect of motivation. Self-Determination Theory for example divides into three main categories; intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation (without motivation). Alizi and Mohamad Zaki (2005) proposed the existence of religious motivation and it should not be posited either in the internal or intrinsic framework as intrinsic motivation is out of the *ibadah* (worshipping to God) framework. This is supported by Zulkifli (2014) and Kaseh et al. (2010).

McGregor’s X and Y Theory also only focus on non-religious aspect of motivation. X Theory in such way is similar to Physiological Needs of Maslow Needs Theory whereas Y Theory is similar to Safety Needs, Love Needs and Esteems Needs of Maslow Needs Theory. We classify Self-Actualization Needs as a Divine Potential Motivation, as it deals with metaphysical side of needs. However Self-Actualization Needs is not related to *ibadah*, as conforming the Islamic perspective.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory looks more 'universal' compare to others. Based on the theory, Metaphysical Motivation Model had been proposed by Dowson (2005). The belief in religion produces the expected (expectancy) and value (values) specific. These include rewards and heaven be expected to give a boost to a particular behaviour. He concluded that religious belief is a motivational because it can lead to results that are highly valued, hopes to convince, and efficacy of positive religion (positive religious efficacy).

Based on the conventional modern theories, divine or religious aspect was not being emphasized. Work motivation should be concerned in achieving better performance.

3. Work motivation from Islamic perspective

'Islamic perspective' according to Alizi and Mohamad Zaki (2005) refers to the verses of Al-Quran, Hadith of the Prophet, stories of the Prophet and his Companions (the first generation of Muslims who lived with the Prophet Muhammad), as well as the works of classical Islamic scholars.

Wlodkowski (2008) acknowledges that motivation has a very wide definition refers to the diversity of disciplines and orientations. For example, the metaphysical assumptions used to motivation in the perspective of religion and philosophy, but it almost did not happen in a social science perspective. Thus, centred on the Islamic philosophy, the concept of motivation is unique compare to the conventional theories.

Based on the Islamic perspective, Zulkifli (2014) proposed grounded theory which consist aspects of faith, religious intention and purpose as well as determination. Religious motivation is also represented by the term Divine Motivation, with the equation of MI (Divine Motivation) = I (Faith) x N (Religious intention and purpose) x K (Determination).

Based on the equation, multiplication operation is used to indicate the existence of important variables that affect the existence of the Divine Motivation (MI). This applies to every variable I, N and K, a key to the existence of variable MI. If Faith, I zero (I = 0), then the Divine Motivation, MI also worth zero (MI = 0). Consequently practices are futile in the face of God in as much as he is not motivated by Divine Motivation.

Abdel-Kawi and Kole (1991) and Ansari (1996) have explained work motivation through Expectancy Theory from Islamic perspective as there are world and hereafter expectances. Consistently, Muslim scholars are believed in the hereafter as the behaviour as well as the motive and intention should be complied with the belief.

Itqan and *ihsan* as mentioned explicitly by prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h. are referred to excellence and high performance as according in the modern terms. The related hadith are shown below:

- a) Prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h. said, "Allah loves to see one's job done at the level of itqan." [Narrated by Muslim]
- b) Prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h. said, "Verily Allah has prescribed ihsan in all things. Thus if you kill, kill well; and if you slaughter, slaughter well. Let each one of you sharpen his blade and let him spare suffering to the animal he slaughters." [Narrated by Muslim]

Itqan could be understood as 'the attitude of being careful, meticulous, hardworking and excellent in carrying out responsibilities and tasks [as] our responsibilities are not only towards Allah, but towards our employers, teachers, students, partners and all.' (Islamic Religious Council of Singapore, 2007). Meanwhile ihsan means 'doing things completely, nicely and in a tasteful manner' and it comprises four components; sincerity, completeness, tastefulness (doing things in a pleasant manner), and correctness (doing things the right way) (40HadithNawawi.com, 2013).

Although the hadith talking about ihsan is followed by the proper slaughtering manner and practice, the concept is applicable to other practices including in the administration and management practice (al-Hanbali, 2009). In fact, the concept of ihsan is also enjoined by Allah in the Qur'an, 16: 90. According to Wahid (2014), the value of high performance is behind the concept of *ihsan* (perfection), where it should be achieved through amanah (trustworthiness) and hikmah (wisdom).

Indeed, Islam promotes and highlights Muslims to be excelled and performed in any field, grounded within the concept of itqan (attitude of excellence) and ihsan (perfection). Prophets in Islam have become the role models to excel as messengers of God, led by prophet Muhammad, Ibrahim, Musa, Nuh and Isa.

They also have become role model in career. Despite of spiritual figures and leaders, they have their own job without begging from others as shown in the following Table 2. Prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h. for example has shown excellent performance during stints as a merchant and caravan leader, lead to be a great leader (Adair, 2010) as well as transformational and most influential leader (Hart, 1978).

Table 2: 25 prophets in Islam and their career.

Prophets	Career
Adam	Farmer and goatherd
Idris	Tailor and goatherd
Nuh	Carpenter and goatherd
Nabi Hud AS	Goatherd
Nabi Saleh AS	Goatherd
Nabi Ibrahim AS	Goatherd
Nabi Lut AS	Goatherd
Nabi Ismail AS	Goatherd
Nabi Ishak AS	Goatherd
Nabi Yaakub AS	Goatherd
Nabi Yusuf AS	Minister, helper and goatherd
Nabi Ayub AS	Goatherd
Nabi Syuaib AS	Goatherd
Nabi Musa AS	Goatherd
Nabi Harun AS	Goatherd
Nabi Zulkifli AS	Goatherd
Nabi Daud AS	King, blacksmith and goatherd
Nabi Sulaiman AS	King and goatherd
Nabi Ilyas AS	Goatherd
Nabi Ilyasa' AS	Goatherd
Nabi Yunus AS	Goatherd
Nabi Zakaria AS	Carpenter and goatherd
Nabi Yahya AS	Goatherd
Nabi Isa AS	Goatherd
Nabi Muhammad SAW	Nation leader, merchant and goatherd

One of the important indicators for high performance in Islam is the important achievement in Islamic civilization through knowledge, science and technology, and innovation achievements. In the modern world, Cochrane (2011) has shown relationship between spiritual work motivation and high performance in Senegal, where the Quran became source of motivation as to alleviate poverty and injustice. Cochrane's review (2011) includes, "The common purpose, communitywide participation, and local relevancy embedded in such projects, motivated by religious principles, give them direction and collective strength."

4. Recommendation

The leaders should be trained on work motivation and high performance from the Islamic perspective. For Muslim organization leaders, it is most recommendation for them to apply the Islamic approach in managing employees towards *itqan* and *ihsan* that have been requested by the divine sources. Non-Muslim leaders would have an alternative choice within the Islamic perspective to understand the expected and acceptable behaviors of their Muslim employees at the workplace.

5. References

- 40HadithNawawi.com (2013). 'Hadith 17: Prescription of Ihsan (perfection)' (Retrieved on 13 February 2015 from <http://www.40hadithnawawi.com/index.php/the-hadiths/hadith-17>).
- Adair, J. (2010). *The Leadership of Muhammad*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Ainley, M. (2004). 'What do we know about student motivation and engagement'. Paper work that has been presented at Australian Association for Research in Education Annual General Meeting, Melbourne (November 2004)

- Al-Hanbali, Ibnu Rajab (2009). *Himpunan Ilmu dan Hikmah – Huraian 50 Hadis Jawami' al-Kalim* (Translator: Pustaka Salam). Kuala Lumpur: Pustaka Salam.
- Cochrane, L.L. (2011). 'Religious motivations for local economic development in Senegal' in *Africa Today* 58(4), p. 3-19.
- Deci, E.L. dan Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and and Self-determination in Human Behaviour*. Newy York: Plenum.
- Hart, M. H. (1978). *The 100: A Ranking of the Most Influential Persons in History*. New York: Citadel Press.
- Islamic Religious Council of Singapore (2007). 'Itqan in achieving succes' (Friday Surmon 13 April 2007). (Retrieved on 12 February 2015 from www.muis.gov.sg/cms/...%20Itqan%20in%20Achieving%20Success.doc).
- Jones, M. R. (ed.) (1955). *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Junaidah Hashim (2009) Islamic revival in human resource management practices among selected Islamic organisations in Malaysia. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, 2 (3). pp. 251-267.
- Kleinginna, P.R., & Kleinginna, A.M. (1981). A categorized list of motivation definitions with a suggestion for a consensual definition. *Motivation and Emotion*, 263-292.
- Latham, G. (2007). *Work Motivation: History, theory, research and practice*. Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi.
- Pinder, C. C. (2008). *Work motivation in organizational behavior*. Psychology Press: New York and Hove.
- Santrock, J.W. (2001). *Child Development*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Wahid Omar (2014). *Realising UTM Global: Consensus, Inclusiveness & Engagement*. Johor Bahru: Penerbit Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Zulkifli Khair, Rosman Md. Yusoff & Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid (2013). 'Divine Motivation and Adult Learning' in *Prosiding Conference of Management Entrepreneurship and Technology (COMET 2013)*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 18 February 2013.
- Zulkifli Khair (2014). 'Pembelajaran Arah Diri dalam Pembelajaran Dewasa dan Peranan Motivasi Keagamaan' (Ph.D. Thesis). Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Gaya Pengurusan Konflik Dalam Kalangan Pekerja

Hamidah Abdul Rahman¹, Azizah Rajab², Shahrollah Abdul Wahab¹, Nur Syazwin Mansor¹
and Hidayatul Pertiwi Daim¹

¹Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

²Akademi Bahasa, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak: Konflik di tempat kerja bukanlah suatu perkara yang asing kerana secara fitrahnya manusia saling berinteraksi antara satu sama lain. Kajian ini bertujuan mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik paling kerap yang digunakan oleh pekerja di sektor awam apabila berhadapan konflik di tempat kerja mereka. Dengan pemilihan gaya pengurusan konflik yang sesuai mengikut situasi dan persekitaran kerja, pekerja dapat menguruskan konflik secara efektif di mana konflik tersebut boleh memberi manfaat kepada mereka mahupun organisasi. Responden kajian adalah 65 orang kakitangan Jabatan Pengangkutan Jalan (JPJ) Negeri Johor, Taman Daya menggunakan Soal Selidik Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II (ROCI II) yang mengandungi 28 item dengan Skala Likert 5 Mata. Data telah dianalisis dengan menggunakan kekerapan, peratusan dan min. Hasil kajian mendapati kakitangan JPJ menggunakan kelima-lima gaya pengurusan konflik berdasarkan model Rahim (1983) didahului oleh gaya integratif, gaya berkompromi, gaya menyesuaikan, gaya menguasai dan akhir sekali gaya mengelak. Responden memahami kesemua gaya pengurusan konflik dan mengambil kira setiap gaya yang sesuai bagi situasi konflik yang dihadapi mereka.

1. Pengenalan

Konflik bukanlah suatu perkara yang asing dalam kehidupan hari ini, bahkan ia adalah sesuatu perkara lumrah yang tidak dapat dielakkan dalam hubungan sesama manusia. Konflik boleh berlaku tanpa mengira waktu, tempat mahupun status individu tersebut disebabkan manusia secara fitrahnya akan berinteraksi antara satu sama lain dalam aktiviti kehidupan mereka. Konflik berlaku apabila wujudnya percanggahan, perbezaan atau perselisihan pendapat, idea, atau pengetahuan di antara seseorang individu dengan individu yang lain. Justeru, pengurusan konflik yang sesuai dan berkesan perlu dititikberatkan agar konflik tersebut dapat mewujudkan kesan yang positif serta dapat menjaga kepentingan pihak yang berkonflik. Kajian ini lebih memfokuskan gaya pengurusan konflik yang digunakan oleh pekerja di sektor awam apabila berhadapan konflik di tempat kerja mereka.

Hakikatnya, konflik tidak perlu dihapuskan sama sekali, tetapi ia perlu diurus dan ditangani secara baik dan berkesan bagi mewujudkan hubungan yang harmoni dalam kalangan individu yang berkonflik. Konflik boleh berlaku antara individu dengan individu, individu dengan kumpulan individu, dan kumpulan individu dengan kumpulan individu lain. Selain itu, konflik wujud dalam hubungan intrapersonal, hubungan interpersonal, dan juga di organisasi.

Menurut Sharifah Hayaati dan Mohd Mauli Azli (2006), konflik dalam sesebuah organisasi boleh berpunca disebabkan faktor-faktor seperti perbezaan nilai, perubahan peranan dan tanggungjawab daripada peranan sedia ada, perubahan pembahagian kuasa termasuk perubahan kepimpinan dalam organisasi, sempadan tanggungjawab atau bidang kuasa dan bidang kerja, perubahan matlamat, peraturan, pertindihan tugas,

perebutan ganjaran yang terhad, ketidakselarasan aliran kerja dan sebagainya. Oleh kerana konflik boleh berlaku tanpa mengira masa dan tempat, sesuatu konflik yang terjadi dalam kalangan pekerja perlu dikenalpasti supaya konflik tersebut dapat diuruskan secara efektif. Ini kerana konflik yang tidak diuruskan dan dibiarkan berpanjangan boleh membawa kesan negatif dalam jangka masa pendek mahupun dalam jangka masa panjang. Justeru, setiap pekerja hendaklah bertanggungjawab untuk menguruskan konflik yang berlaku supaya kepentingan mereka dan organisasi serta hubungan sesama manusia lain akan terpelihara.

Dengan pemilihan gaya pengurusan konflik yang sesuai mengikut situasi dan keadaan, pekerja dapat menguruskan konflik secara berkesan di mana konflik tersebut boleh memberi manfaat kepada mereka yang berkonflik mahupun organisasi. Sebaliknya, konflik yang tidak diuruskan secara baik akan menyebabkan timbulnya pelbagai kesan negatif yang bukan sahaja akan menjejaskan hubungan interpersonal dalam kalangan pekerja, bahkan boleh menjejaskan produktiviti mereka di tempat kerja. Ini adalah kerana situasi konflik yang berlaku di tempat kerja memberi peluang kepada pekerja untuk memilih gaya pengurusan konflik yang mereka hadapi.

Pentadbir yang proaktif dapat merasakan kewujudan konflik, mengenalpasti dan cuba bertindak untuk mengatasi konflik. Justeru, pekerja perlu mempunyai kefahaman yang jelas dan mengetahui cara untuk menguruskan konflik dengan memilih gaya pengurusan konflik yang sesuai dan berkesan apabila menghadapi konflik yang berlaku di tempat kerja mereka (Di Paola dan Hoy, 2001). Ini adalah sangat penting kerana konflik merupakan elemen yang boleh mempengaruhi produktiviti dan prestasi pekerja selain pencapaian organisasi. Menurut Francis-Smith (2003) terdapat lebih daripada 65% daripada masalah pencapaian organisasi adalah disebabkan oleh ketegangan hubungan dalam kalangan pekerja. Gaya pengurusan konflik perlu diberi perhatian pada masa kini kerana pelbagai jenis konflik yang wujud dalam sesebuah organisasi tidak selalunya membawa kesan yang negatif kerana konflik adakalanya boleh memberi kesan positif di mana wujudnya peningkatan pembuatan keputusan dalam kalangan pihak yang berkonflik yang seterusnya boleh menyumbang kepada peningkatan produktiviti (Hellriegel dan Slocum, 2004).

Kajian ini dijalankan bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik paling kerap yang digunakan oleh pekerja di Jabatan Pengangkutan Jalan (JPJ) Negeri Johor, Taman Daya. Ini kerana mereka mungkin menggunakan cara yang berbeza apabila berhadapan dengan konflik kerana sesuatu cara atau gaya pengurusan konflik mungkin hanya sesuai untuk situasi tertentu sahaja dan pekerja ini tidak semestinya menghadkan penggunaan kepada satu gaya sahaja bahkan mereka perlu menggunakan kombinasi gaya-gaya lain yang tertentu untuk mengurus konflik secara berkesan. Oleh itu objektif kajian ini adalah untuk mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik yang paling kerap digunakan dalam kalangan pekerja

2.0 Model Gaya Pengurusan Konflik Rahim

Model ini membezakan gaya pengurusan konflik berdasarkan dua dimensi yang asas iaitu mengambil berat tentang diri sendiri dan mengambil berat terhadap orang lain. Dimensi pertama menerangkan tahap seseorang individu cuba memuaskan kepentingan sendiri. Manakala, dimensi kedua pula menerangkan tahap seseorang individu cuba memuaskan kepentingan orang lain. Kombinasi terhadap dua dimensi ini menghasilkan lima gaya pengurusan konflik iaitu gaya integratif, gaya menyesuaikan, gaya menguasai, gaya mengelak dan gaya berkompromi yang menjelaskan orientasi motivasi seseorang individu semasa konflik (Rahim, 1983).

Gaya integratif adalah gaya yang berkaitan dengan penyelesaian masalah atau gaya yang melibatkan kerjasama antara pihak yang berkonflik. Gaya ini melibatkan ciri-ciri seperti sifat keterbukaan, saling bertukar maklumat, mencari alternatif, dan mengenalpasti perbezaan-perbezaan bagi mencapai satu penyelesaian yang berkesan yang dipersetujui kedua-dua pihak yang menghadapi konflik. Gaya ini dapat digunakan secara efektif apabila berhadapan dengan masalah yang kompleks. Menurut Mohd Zulkifli *et al* (2008), gaya integratif merujuk kepada pendekatan menang-menang dalam mengurus konflik organisasi. Mereka melihat konflik sebagai satu perkara semulajadi dan menjana idea yang kreatif.

Rahim (2002) menyatakan bahawa gaya menyesuaikan adalah satu tindakan yang mengabaikan perbezaan yang wujud dan lebih menekankan persamaan-persamaan bagi memuaskan kepentingan kedua-dua pihak yang berkonflik. Sekiranya berlaku sebarang konflik di antara dua pihak dalam sesebuah organisasi, pihak yang

mempunyai sifat ini akan lebih mengambil berat pada orang lain. Mereka tidak mementingkan diri sendiri, lebih gemar bertolak ansur dan memberikan penilaian yang positif pada orang lain

Gaya menguasai pula diandaikan sebagai situasi menang-kalah atau paksaan bagi memenangi posisi pihak lain (Rahim, 2002). Kadar gaya dominasi adalah tinggi bagi dimensi mengambil berat pada diri sendiri dan rendah bagi dimensi mengambil berat pada orang lain. Menurut Mohd Zulkifli *et al* (2008), individu yang menggunakan gaya ini bagi menyelesaikan konflik biasanya adalah seorang yang tegas dan sering menolak pandangan orang lain.

Gaya berkompromi melibatkan tindakan memberi dan menerima di mana kedua-dua pihak melepaskan kepentingan masing-masing bagi mencapai keputusan yang dipersetujui bersama (Rahim, 2002). Berkompromi merujuk kepada tingkah laku pertengahan dalam kedua-dua dimensi. Penggunaan gaya ini tidak dapat memaksimumkan kehendak pihak-pihak yang berkonflik atau dengan perkataan lain, kehendak mereka hanya dapat dicapai secara sederhana sahaja. Walau bagaimanapun gaya berkompromi adalah suatu kaedah penyelesaian konflik yang selalu digunakan dan diterima umum (Mohd Zulkifli *et al*, 2008).

Gaya mengelak pula melibatkan tindakan menarik diri atau menjauhkan diri dari situasi konflik yang timbul. Individu terbabit gagal untuk memuaskan kepentingan matlamat dirinya sendiri mahupun pihak yang lain. Pada pandangan Mohd Zulkifli *et al* (2008) gaya mengelak bererti memutuskan untuk tidak terlibat dalam konflik, menyisihkan pertengkaran, mengelakkan permusuhan atau mewujudkan keadaan yang neutral.

3.0 Metodologi

3.1 Populasi, Sampel, Instrumen dan Analisis

Kajian dijalankan di JPJ Negeri Johor, Taman Daya. Populasi dalam kajian ini adalah seramai 340 orang yang terdiri daripada semua kakitangan JPJ Negeri Johor, Taman Daya. Terdapat 10 bahagian di JPJ Negeri Johor, Taman Daya iaitu Bahagian Pelesenan Kenderaan, Bahagian Penguatkuasa, Bahagian Kejuruteraan Aotomotif, Bahagian Pelesenan Pemandu, Bahagian Korporat, Bahagian Kewangan, Bahagian Teknologi Maklumat, Bahagian Hasil dan Bahagian Pengurusan bagi memastikan pentadbiran yang lebih cekap. Selepas di edarkan, hanya 65 borang soal selidik yang lengkap telah diterima. Pemilihan sampel dibuat dengan menggunakan kaedah *convenience sampling*. Pemilihan ini digunakan apabila responden mudah diperolehi, senang ditemui atau mewakili sesuatu ciri yang perlu dikaji oleh penyelidik menggunakan kaedah penentuan saiz sampel oleh Krejcie dan Morgan (1970). Instrumen yang digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah satu set soal selidik *Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II* (ROCI II, 1983) yang mengandungi 28 item dengan Skala Likert 5 Mata digunakan bagi mengenalpasti kecenderungan responden dalam menggunakan gaya pengurusan konflik dan mengandungi item yang berkaitan lima gaya pengurusan konflik iaitu gaya integratif, gaya menguasai, gaya menyesuaikan, gaya mengelak, dan gaya berkompromi. Ia juga dipilih kerana nilai koefisien kebolehpercayaan uji semula dan nilai koefisien kebolehpercayaan konsisten dalaman bagi lima gaya tersebut adalah memuaskan dengan nilai sebanyak 0.72 hingga 0.77. Kajian ini telah menjalankan kajian rintis bagi menentukan nilai kebolehpercayaan instrumen ROCI II meskipun soal selidik ROCI II ini telah diuji kebolehpercayaannya oleh Rahim (1983). Ini kerana terdapat perbezaan dalam konteks nilai dan budaya masyarakat tempatan dengan masyarakat negara Barat. Setelah kajian rintis dijalankan, nilai kebolehpercayaan bagi instrumen ROCI II menunjukkan koefisien alpha sebanyak 0.93.

Kajian ini telah dianalisis dengan menggunakan kaedah statistik deskriptif iaitu kekerapan, peratusan dan min bagi menganalisis tentang gaya pengurusan konflik yang paling kerap dan gaya pengurusan konflik paling dominan yang digunakan oleh kakitangan di tempat kerja. Nilai skala 5 seperti disebutkan diatas menunjukkan aras persetujuan yang sangat rendah, manakala nilai skala 1, menunjukkan aras persetujuan yang sangat tinggi. Nilai min antara 1.00 hingga 2.33 dianggap tinggi atau baik, nilai min antara 2.34 hingga 3.67 dianggap sederhana dan nilai min antara 3.68 hingga 5.00 dianggap rendah atau lemah disebabkan oleh nilai skala 1 (persetujuan sangat tinggi) dan nilai skala 5 (persetujuan sangat rendah) seperti di Jadual 2.

Jadual 1: Taburan Responden Berdasarkan Ciri-ciri Demografi

Ciri-ciri Demografi	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)
1. Jantina		
Lelaki	29	44.6
Perempuan	36	55.4
Jumlah	65	100

Jadual 2: Kategori Tahap Penilaian Min

Tahap	Skor Min
Tinggi	1.00 - 2.33
Sederhana	2.34 - 3.67
Rendah	3.68 - 4.00

4. Keputusan

Hasil analisis menunjukkan bahawa gaya pengurusan konflik yang paling ketara adalah gaya integratif dengan nilai skor min 2.45. Gaya kedua diikuti oleh gaya berkompromi dengan nilai purata min ialah 2.56. Gaya menyesuaikan merupakan gaya ketiga yang menjadi pilihan dengan nilai purata min adalah 2.57. Nilai purata min bagi gaya keempat iaitu gaya menguasai adalah 2.62 dan gaya mengelak mempunyai nilai purata min sebanyak 2.64.

Jadual 3 : Nilai Purata Min Bagi Lima Gaya Pengurusan Konflik

Gaya Pengurusan Konflik	Nilai Purata Min	Sisihan Piawai
Gaya Integratif	2.45	.51
Gaya Mengelak	2.64	.50
Gaya Menguasai	2.62	.52
Gaya Menyesuai	2.57	.46
Gaya Berkompromi	2.56	.59

5. Perbincangan

5.1 Gaya Pengurusan Konflik Paling Kerap Digunakan

Kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik yang paling kerap digunakan oleh kakitangan JPJ Negeri Johor, Taman Daya. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan kakitangan JPJ menggunakan kelima-lima gaya pengurusan konflik seperti yang dikemukakan oleh model Rahim (1983). Walau bagaimanapun hasil kajian ini mendapati responden kajian lebih kerap menggunakan gaya integratif dalam menguruskan situasi

konflik di tempat kerja. Ini diikuti dengan gaya berkompromi, gaya menyesuaikan, gaya menguasai dan gaya mengelak merupakan gaya pengurusan paling kurang digunakan (rujuk Jadual 3).

Gaya integratif lebih kerap digunakan oleh responden kajian (min=2.45) didapati amat bersesuaian dalam menguruskan konflik yang berlaku di tempat kerja. Mereka yang menggunakan gaya ini di kategorikan sebagai mengambil berat pada diri sendiri dan juga orang lain. Responden kajian didapati cenderung untuk bekerjasama, bersikap terbuka, mencari alternatif, dan bersedia untuk berkongsi maklumat dengan orang lain bagi mencari jalan penyelesaian yang diterima oleh kedua-dua pihak yang berkonflik. Mereka berusaha untuk menyelesaikan masalah dengan menjelaskan perbezaan yang wujud dan mencari penyelesaian yang dapat mencapai matlamat demi kepentingan mereka bersama. Dapatan ini selari dengan kajian Suppiah (2008) yang telah mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik yang digunakan oleh pengurus sektor awam di Malaysia terhadap subordinat mereka. Majoriti pengurus dalam kajian tersebut lebih gemar menggunakan gaya integratif dalam menguruskan konflik. Dapatan ini juga bertepatan dengan gaya pengurusan yang diutarakan oleh model Rahim (1983) dimana gaya integratif ini diandaikan sebagai melibatkan individu atau pengurus yang sangat mengambil berat pada diri sendiri mahupun orang lain. Gaya ini juga menekankan untuk mencapai persetujuan antara kedua-dua pihak dimana kemahiran, maklumat dan sumber-sumber lain daripada pihak lain dikenalpasti sebagai punca konflik tersebut dan mencari alternatif penyelesaian yang terbaik. Malah, gaya ini dianggap sebagai paling sesuai dalam menghadapi isu-isu strategik yang melibatkan objektif dan polisi organisasi, perancangan jangka masa panjang, dan lain-lain. Dapatan ini jelas menunjukkan bahawa responden kajian mengambil pendekatan gaya pengurusan yang bersesuaian dengan tempat kerja mereka untuk memahami kehendak pekerja dengan tidak melupakan kepentingan organisasi. Antara dapatan kajian yang menyokong kajian ini adalah kajian Adams (2006) yang telah mendapati bahawa pentadbir kolej di North Carolina cenderung menggunakan gaya integratif apabila menguruskan konflik.

Dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan gaya berkompromi adalah gaya pengurusan konflik yang kedua digunakan oleh responden kajian ini (min=2.56). Gaya berkompromi di katakan sebagai gaya pengurusan konflik yang mengambil berat terhadap diri sendiri dan pihak lain secara adil. Pengurusan JPJ Johor atau responden kajian ini memilih gaya pengurusan konflik ini sebagai kedua terbaik dimana kedua-dua pihak melepaskan sesuatu untuk mencari penyelesaian yang dipersetujui bersama. Gaya ini dirasakan sesuai digunakan apabila satu persetujuan tidak berjaya dicapai dan mahu mengelakkan konflik daripada berterusan di dalam organisasi. Seperti yang ditekankan oleh model Rahim (2002) gaya ini melibatkan tindakan memberi dan menerima dimana kedua-dua pihak melepaskan kepentingan masing-masing bagi mencapai keputusan yang dipersetujui bersama. Dapatan kajian ini bersamaan dengan dapatan kajian Fathiyah (1997) untuk mengenalpasti gaya pengurusan konflik dalam kalangan pentadbir Sekolah Menengah Daerah Kubang Pasu, Kedah dimana dapatan kajian tersebut menunjukkan pentadbir menggunakan gaya berkompromi dalam pengurusan konflik di organisasi mereka. Keputusan ini berkemungkinan kerana adakalanya pengurusan di JPJ perlu menggunakan gaya berkompromi untuk menimbulkan situasi dimana apa yang dikehendaki oleh subordinate selari dengan matlamat yang hendak dicapai oleh organisasi. Dapatan ini disokong oleh kajian Noor Rashidah (2011) yang mendapati gaya pengurusan konflik yang lebih cenderung digunakan oleh Pegawai Kumpulan Pengurusan dan Profesional Jabatan Ketua Pengarah Tanah dan Galian Persekutuan, Putrajaya adalah gaya berkompromi, begitu juga dapatan kajian Hignite et al. (2002) yang telah mendapati responden menggunakan gaya berkompromi ketika berhadapan dengan situasi konflik .

Gaya menyesuaikan adalah gaya pengurusan konflik ketiga paling kerap digunakan oleh responden kajian ini (min=2.57) manakala gaya menguasai (min=2.62) adalah gaya pengurusan konflik keempat digunakan untuk menyelesaikan konflik oleh pengurusan JPJ, Johor. Gaya pengurusan yang paling kurang digunakan dan seharusnya dielakkan penggunaannya kecuali dalam keadaan yang tiada pilihan lain ialah gaya pengurusan konflik mengelak (min=2.64). Ini bersesuaian dengan kajian Rahim (2002), yang mengatakan gaya mengelak ialah gaya yang kurang mengambil berat sama ada terhadap diri sendiri dan juga orang lain. Gaya ini sesuai digunakan apabila terdapat potensi untuk wujudnya lebih banyak kesan negatif ketika berhadapan dengan pihak lain berbanding memperoleh manfaat dalam menguruskan konflik yang timbul. Dari itu pengurusan JPJ Johor memilih gaya pengurusan ini sebagai gaya pengurusan terakhir dalam kajian ini kerana gaya ini melibatkan mereka yang memiliki tingkahlaku pasif, tidak tegas, tidak mengambil berat kepentingan orang lain malah menolak untuk melibatkan diri apabila sesuatu konflik timbul dan amat tidak sesuai untuk di amalkan oleh kakitangan JPJ, Johor.

6. Kesimpulan

Secara keseluruhannya dapatan kajian menunjukkan kakitangan JPJ melihat konflik sebagai masalah bersama yang perlu diatasi dengan mencari penyelesaian yang boleh menguntungkan kedua-dua pihak yang berkonflik atau lebih dikenali dengan situasi menang-menang. Mereka lebih cenderung menggunakan gaya integratif apabila berhadapan dengan konflik di tempat kerja untuk dapat mencapai matlamat bersama yang diinginkan. Namun, tidak wujud jurang perbezaan yang besar antara nilai skor min yang diperoleh bagi kelima-lima gaya yang digunakan (rujuk Jadual 3). Ini adalah kerana kakitangan JPJ mengambil kira faktor situasi dan persekitaran kerja mereka yang memerlukan mereka untuk menggunakan kelima-lima gaya pengurusan konflik iaitu gaya integratif, gaya berkompromi, gaya menyesuaikan, gaya menguasai dan gaya mengelak. Ini bertepatan dengan kebanyakan kajian lepas yang menegaskan kesesuaian penggunaan gaya pengurusan konflik adalah berdasarkan kepada situasi konflik. Rahim (2002) dan Rahim dan Bonoma (1979) menegaskan kesesuaian gaya pengurusan konflik adalah bergantung kepada situasi konflik bagi mengurus konflik secara fungsional. Thomas (1976) juga menyokong penggunaan sesuatu gaya pengurusan konflik yang terbaik untuk menyelesaikan sesuatu situasi konflik.

7. Rujukan

- Di Paola, M.F., dan Hoy, W.K. (2001). Formalization, conflict, and change: constructive and destructive consequences in schools. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(5), 238 – 244.
- Fathiyah Abu Bakar (1997). Gaya pengurusan konflik di kalangan pentadbir Sekolah Menengah Di Daerah Kubang Pasu. *Tesis Sarjana*. Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok.
- Francis-Smith, J. (2003). Neil Katz to present workshop on conflict resolution. *Rekod Jurnal (Suratkhobar)*, Oklahama City.
- Hignite, M., Margavio, T. dan Chin, J. (2002). Assessing the conflict resolution profiles of emerging information systems professionals. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, Vol. 13(4). 123-150.
- Krejcie, R.V., dan Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.
- Mohd Zulkifli Muhammad, Minah Japang dan Mohd Faisol Ibrahim. (2010). Gaya Pengurusan Konflik Antara Pengurus-Subordinat Menurut Perspektif Islam: Kajian Empirik Di Pusat Kewangan Luar Pesisir Antarabangsa. *Jurnal Syariah*, 2(18), 415-432: Universiti Malaysia Sabah.
- Rahim, M. A. (1983). A Measure of Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26 (2), 368-376.
- Rahim, M. A. (2002). Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(3), 206-235
- Rahim, M. A., dan Bonoma, T. V. (1979). Managing organizational conflict: A model for diagnosis and intervention. *Psychological Reports*, 44, 1323-1344.
- Sharifah Hayaati, S. I., dan Mohd Mauli Azli, A. B. (2006). Etika Penyelesaian Konflik dalam Pentadbiran Islam: Suatu Perbandingan. *Jurnal Syariah*, 14 (1), 1-22.
- Suppiah, W.R.R.V. (2007). *Conflict management styles among public sector managers in Malaysia*. Tesis Doktor Falsafah, University Putra Malaysia, Serdang.
- Thomas, K. W. (1976). Conflict and conflict management. In M. Kunnette (Ed.) *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 889-935. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Faktor Tekanan Kerja Dalam Kalangan Pekerja

Hamidah Abdul Rahman¹, Azizah Rajab², Siti Aisyah Panatik¹, Nursyazwin Mansor¹ and Siti Hanisah Dzulkifli¹

¹Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor

²Akademi Bahasa, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor

Abstrak: Sumber manusia adalah aset penting dan kunci kejayaan sesuatu organisasi terutama dalam menrealisasikan kejayaan organisasi tersebut. Jika pekerja di organisasi tersebut mengalami masalah tekanan, organisasi akan mengalami masalah bukan sahaja dari segi produksi tetapi boleh juga melumpuhkan keseluruhan organisasi. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti tahap dan faktor tekanan kerja dalam kalangan pekerja pengeluaran di Petronas, Melaka. 45 orang responden terlibat dalam kajian ini dan soal selidik telah digunakan sebagai intrumen kajian. Dapatan menunjukkan bahawa faktor tekanan berada pada tahap sederhana dan faktor tekanan utama ialah faktor hubungan ditempat kerja, diikuti oleh faktor kawalan lokus luaran, kekaburan peranan, personaliti jenis A dan akhir sekali faktor bebanan kerja.

1. Pengenalan

Penggunaan sumber manusia yang terlatih dan berketrampilan amat dititikberatkan oleh sesebuah organisasi dimana sumber manusia tersebut diharap mampu memberi pulangan kepada organisasi. Setiap pekerja dalam organisasi diberi tugas bagi merealisasikan matlamat organisasi. Walau bagaimanapun, dalam menjalankan tugas yang dilakukan terdapat konflik dalaman yang berlaku yang tidak diingini oleh pekerja tersebut. Selye (1956), menyatakan tanpa tekanan adalah serupa mati dan tekanan adalah gerak balas yang tidak khusus kepada sebarang desakan. Ini menunjukkan tekanan merupakan sebahagian daripada kehidupan manusia dan ia boleh berlaku dalam kehidupan seharian mahupun dalam pekerjaan. Begitu juga organisasi tidak dapat lari daripada tekanan kerja. Masalah tekanan kerja menjadi semakin serius dalam organisasi apabila penggunaan teknologi komputer semakin meluas sehingga ada pekerja yang mengalami tekanan kerja yang teruk (Jaafar, 1997). Seseorang yang gagal mengatasi masalah tekanan kerja boleh menjejaskan prestasi kerja individu tersebut dan seterusnya memberi impak kepada organisasi. Menurut Holt (1993), tekanan mempunyai perkaitan dengan perasaan cemas dan kebimbangan. Greenberg (1999), pula menjelaskan bahawa tekanan di tempat kerja bermaksud tekanan ke atas sesuatu pekerjaan yang memberi kesan kepada seseorang.

Hubungan dua hala yang terjalin antara majikan dan pekerja mendorong kepada komitmen yang tinggi. Hubungan dan komunikasi yang baik antara majikan dan pekerja membantu pekerja dalam melakukan tugas dengan sebaiknya. Majikan harus memotivasikan pekerja untuk terus kekal dalam kerjanya dan membentuk pekerja yang cekap dan produktif. Walau bagaimanapun, apabila wujud hubungan yang tidak serasi antara pekerja dan majikan atau rakan sekerja, ia mewujudkan tekanan dalam diri pekerja tersebut. Menurut Ward (1987), tekanan merupakan reaksi psikologi dan fisiologi yang berlaku apabila seseorang khususnya pekerja mengalami fenomena ketidakstabilan atau ketidakseimbangan di antara tahap permintaan yang dikenakan ke atas dirinya dengan keupayaan untuk memenuhi permintaan berkenaan.

Di Malaysia, kehadiran teknologi di tempat kerja juga menyebabkan ramai pekerja menghadapi tekanan. Komputer, mesin fotostat, perisian baru, rangkaian internet yang canggih memaksa pekerja mempelajari dan terus menggunakannya bagi meningkatkan produktiviti kerja masing-masing, seandainya mereka kurang mampu mempelajarinya dalam masa yang ditetapkan, ia akan membawa kepada tekanan (Sabitha, 2005). Individu yang menghadapi tekanan kerja akan memaparkan simptom seperti kurang daya ingatan, tahap kebimbangan yang tinggi, tidak hadir kerja tanpa sebab, kemurungan, menggunakan ubat-ubatan secara berlebihan atau memaparkan tahap kemarahan dan kekecewaan yang melampau.

Tekanan kerja juga akan menyumbang kepada masalah-masalah organisasi seperti ketidakhadiran, kemerosotan perolehan, prestasi kerja yang lemah, peningkatan kes kemalangan, kesalahan pengambilan alkohol dan juga penyalahgunaan dadah (Williams *et. al.*, 2001). Oleh itu dapat disimpulkan bahawa tekanan yang dihadapi oleh para pekerja merupakan satu kos yang perlu ditanggung oleh majikan. Menurut Williams dan Cooper (2002), keadaan ini berlaku disebabkan oleh kesan negatif yang diterima oleh para pekerja akibat kegagalannya dalam

mengurus tekanan dengan berkesan.

Laporan *National Institute of Occupational Safety And Health* (NIOSH) pada tahun 2000 mendapati 75 peratus pekerja menghadapi tekanan dan daripada jumlah ini, 26 peratus pekerja mengadu menghadapi masalah sakit-sakit badan, 62 peratus menghadapi sakit tengkuk selepas hari kerja, 44 peratus mengalami masalah pedih mata, 30 peratus mengalami sakit belakang, 38 peratus mengalami sakit dibahagian tangan, 17 peratus mengadu sakit otot, 13 peratus mengatakan mereka pening dan 34 peratus mengadu tidak dapat tidur. Kajian Muhammad, (2008) mendapati bahawa tekanan kerja berada pada tahap serius di Britain. Hampir 60 peratus ketidakhadiran pekerja adalah disebabkan oleh penyakit yang berkaitan dengan tekanan kerja. Menurutnya lagi, kesan tekanan kerja juga telah menyebabkan organisasi di Britain terpaksa menanggung kos sebanyak 1.5 juta billion pound.

Justeru mengenalpasti punca berlakunya tekanan dalam diri pekerja itu amat penting agar langkah menanganinya dapat dilaksanakan kerana pekerja merupakan sumber tenaga manusia yang sangat berharga kerana ia merupakan asset penting dalam mencapai matlamat organisasi. Oleh itu, jika tekanan berlaku ke atas seseorang individu boleh melumpuhkan sesebuah organisasi sekiranya tindakan yang sewajarnya tidak diambil. Tambahan lagi, tekanan boleh menyebabkan seseorang individu hilang motivasi untuk terus bekerja. Yates (1979), menjelaskan bahawa tekanan boleh memberi kesan terhadap pencapaian atau prestasi seseorang pekerja terutama dalam aspek daya pengeluaran. Jika pekerja mengalami tekanan, ia juga akan turut memberi kesan kepada hasil kerja yang kurang bermutu dan ini boleh membantutkan harapan organisasi dalam mencapai sesuatu kejayaan. Oleh itu, objektif kajian ini adalah untuk mengenalpasti tahap dan faktor utama yang mempengaruhi tekanan kerja dalam kalangan pekerja di Unit Pengeluaran Kawasan 5, Petronas (Penapisan), Melaka.

2.0 Faktor Tekanan

2.1.1 Faktor Hubungan Di Tempat Kerja

Pekerja tersebut mempunyai masalah dengan rakan sekerja, majikan atau pekerja dibahagian yang lain. Tekanan boleh wujud apabila faktor hubungan dalam organisasi timbul dan ini berlaku sekiranya hubungan pekerja dengan majikan atau rakan sekerjanya kurang menggalakkan. Mereka kurang komunikasi dan kurang mendapat kerjasama daripada rakan sekerja dalam melakukan sesuatu tugas. Kesan daripada ini menyebabkan pekerja terbabit merasa mereka tiada kepentingan dalam organisasi.

2.1.2 Faktor Bebanan Kerja

Bebanan kerja merujuk apabila seseorang cuba untuk mencapai sesuatu yang melebihi keupayaannya, ini akan menyebabkan tekanan itu berlaku. Lebih peranan kuantitatif berlaku bila seseorang itu ingin melakukan lebih kerja dalam sesuatu masa manakala lebih peranan kualitatif pula wujud bila kerja yang diminta melebihi keupayaan pengetahuan dan kemahiran pekerja. Beban kerja boleh dilihat dari segi kerja yang terlalu banyak untuk diselesaikan atau terlalu sukar untuk disiapkan dalam jangkamasa yang ditetapkan.

2.1.3 Faktor Personaliti Jenis A

Seseorang yang mempunyai personaliti jenis ini lebih cenderung untuk berhadapan dengan tekanan dalam keadaan kurang sabar, ingin melakukan sesuatu kerja dengan cepat dan berusaha menyempurnakan pelbagai kerja dalam satu masa.

2.1.4 Faktor Kawalan Lokus Luaran

Kawalan lokus luaran merujuk apabila pekerja yang tinggi lokus luaran percaya bahawa kehidupan mereka ditentukan oleh orang lain dan peristiwa luaran yang mencabar. Umumnya, konteks ini merujuk sama ada pekerja berasa tekanan yang dialami mempunyai kaitan dengan orang lain ataupun tidak.

2.1.5 Faktor Kekaburan Peranan

Kekaburan peranan merujuk kepada matlamat, objektif, tanggungjawab, tugas dan skop kerja yang hendak dilakukan tetapi tidak jelas.

2.2 Model Tekanan Kerja Cooper dan Marshall

Model yang diperkenalkan oleh Cooper dan Marshall (1976) ini menjelaskan dan mengklafikasikan punca

tekanan kerja dan bagaimana tekanan saling bertindak dengan ciri-ciri individu dan punca-punca tekanan organisasi yang lain. Model ini telah membahagikan lima punca utama iaitu faktor instrinsik kerja, peranan dalam organisasi, pembentukan peranan dalam kerjaya, hubungan di tempat kerja dan faktor yang berkaitan struktur dan iklim organisasi. Menurut model ini, punca tekanan mempunyai perkaitan dengan keperluan kerja. Model ini telah menyenaraikan punca tekanan instrinsik kerja yang berdasarkan hubungan pertalian dengan keperluan kerja seperti kebosanan, keadaan tempat kerja yang kurang selesa, tekanan kepada masa, tarikh akhir penghantaran tugas, maklumat yang berulang-ulang, bertindih atau berlapis, reka bentuk kerja, masalah teknikal dan juga permintaan kerja yang keterlaluan atau bebanan kerja daripada majikan. Disamping itu, model ini juga menerangkan peranan individu dalam organisasi akan berubah menjadi satu tekanan apabila berlaku situasi yang mana konflik peranan, tanggungjawab terhadap masyarakat dan had peranan individu dalam organisasi saling bertindih. Cooper dan Marshall (1976), juga menyentuh dan menjelaskan bahawa pembentukan kerjaya turut memberi tekanan apabila pekerja tidak berjaya memperolehi apa yang ingin dicapainya, keadaan yang tidak selamat dalam melakukan kerja, promosi yang berlebihan atau sebaliknya daripada majikan dan kecewa dalam mencapai cita-cita. Model ini juga menekankan tentang hubungan di tempat kerja yang mana hubungan antara individu dengan kakitangan organisasi yang lain.

Tekanan mula timbul apabila hubungan antara kakitangan dan organisasi yang tidak memuaskan dan dingin. Faktor lain pula adalah dari aspek struktur dan iklim organisasi dimana individu akan mengalami tekanan apabila berlakunya kurang penglibatan dalam organisasi, terlalu banyak birokrasi, tekanan terhadap penyesuaian dan penerimaan kerja dan kurang tindak balas dalam organisasi.

Menurut model ini, tekanan kerja merupakan sebahagian daripada punca tekanan. Tekanan juga dipengaruhi oleh dua faktor lain iaitu individu dan *extraorganizational* dan menganggap organisasi dan *stressor extraorganizational* adalah ditentukan oleh personaliti dan masalah sosial individu. Model ini juga menghuraikan berkenaan tekanan peribadi yang wujud hasil gabungan personaliti dan kerja yang dilakukan. Di antara punca *extraorganizational* ialah krisis dalam diri, masalah keluarga, masalah kewangan dan perubahan dalam hidup, manakala tekanan individu pula ialah tidak berminat menjalankan kerja, kekecewaan dalam mencapai cita-cita, tahap kebimbangan, emosi dan kekaburan, sikap tolak ansur dan terlalu mengambil berat dan ingin sempurna dalam soal kerja.

Hasil daripada kedua-dua punca tekanan di tempat kerja dan tekanan peribadi menunjukkan tanda-tanda tekanan yang keterlaluan seperti *hypertension*, kecewa, pengambilan minuman keras, merokok, dadah, dan kadar kolesterol yang tinggi. Akibatnya individu itu akan mendapat penyakit seperti psikosomatik, masalah kesihatan mental, penyakit koronari dan pelbagai penyakit yang lain.

2.3 Model Tekanan Coefey *et. al.*, (1994)

Model ini telah dikemukakan oleh Coefey *et. al.*, (1994) di mana terdapat lima faktor yang menyumbang kepada tekanan kerja iaitu faktor pekerjaan, peranan kerja, personaliti, persekitaran peribadi dan persekitaran kerja. Antara faktor yang dikemukakan iaitu faktor pekerjaan merangkumi dari segi tiada kawalan, tekanan masa, keadaan fizikal, tanggungjawab dan pembangunan kerjaya. Manakala bagi peranan kerja ia diklasifikasikan dari segi lebihan kerja, tiada penyeliaan, pertindihan peranan, konflik peranan dan tanggungjawab lain. Faktor tekanan dari segi personaliti pula, beberapa aspek dikategorikan sebagai personaliti jenis A, keyakinan yang rendah dan kawalan lokus luaran. Disamping itu, dari segi tiada kawalan ia memberi maksud yang mana pekerjaan yang dilakukan itu mengundang tekanan kerana tidak mendapat kawalan yang sebaiknya. Ini dapat disimpulkan bahawa model yang dikemukakan oleh Coffey *et. al.*, (1994) lebih menjurus kepada penentu faktor tekanan yang terdiri daripada pelbagai aspek. Antara aspek yang dijelaskan dalam model ini dapat menjelaskan dengan ringkas dan mudah tahap dan faktor tekanan kerja yang dihadapi oleh pekerja Unit Pengeluaran Kawasan 5 di Jabatan Pengeluaran, Petronas (Penapisan), Melaka. Model kajian ini berdasarkan model kajian yang telah dibina oleh Cooper dan Marshall (1976) iaitu mengandungi elemen punca-punca tekanan dan kesannya kepada individu manakala pengkaji turut menggunakan model yang direka oleh Coffey *et. al.*, (1994) yang memberi fokus kepada punca tekanan kerja sahaja. Secara relatifnya kajian ini mengambil sebahagian daripada model Cooper dan Marshall (1976) yang mana terdiri dari faktor hubungan di tempat kerja, bebanan kerja dan kekaburan peranan manakala selebihnya iaitu faktor personaliti jenis A dan faktor kawalan lokus luaran diambil dari model yang dibangunkan oleh Coffey *et. al.*, (1994).

3. Metodologi

3.1 Populasi, Sampel, Instrumen dan Analisis

Populasi kajian ini terdiri daripada pekerja di Unit Pengeluaran Kawasan 5 di Jabatan Pengeluaran di Petronas (Penapisan), Melaka. Jumlah sampel yang terpilih adalah seramai 45 orang menggunakan persampelan teknik rawak mudah dengan cara cabutan undi menggunakan kaedah Krejcie dan Morgan (1970). Soal selidik yang mengandungi 25 item telah di ubah suai dari Mohd Izdihar (2009) dan Chai *et.al.*, (2010) untuk menentukan faktor tekanan kerja dalam kajian ini. Item soal selidik adalah berdasarkan pada faktor tekanan kerja yang terdiri daripada hubungan di tempat kerja, bebanan kerja, personaliti jenis A, kawalan lokus luaran dan kekaburan peranan. Soal selidik ini berdasarkan skala pemarkatan lima skala likert. 1 – Sangat Tidak Setuju, 2 – Tidak Setuju, 3 – Kurang Setuju, 4 – Setuju dan 5 – Sangat Setuju

Faktor tekanan dianalisis dengan menggunakan kaedah deskriptif yang mana merujuk kepada kaedah peratusan, taburan kekerapan dan min skor. Tahap skor bagi setiap julat min yang digunakan bagi menentukan faktor tekanan kerja di tafsirkan kepada 3 tahap 1.00 hingga 2.33 menunjukkan tahap yang rendah, 2.34 hingga 3.67 tahap sederhana dan 3.68 hingga 5.00 tahap tinggi.

Sebelum kajian sebenar dijalankan, kajian rintis ke atas 10 orang pekerja di Petronas Penapisan Melaka, yang bukan responden dalam kajian sebenar telah dilakukan bagi mengenalpasti keberkesanan instrumen kajian dengan nilai kebolehpercayaan Alpha Cronbach adalah 0.901.

4. Keputusan

Jadual 1: Responden Kajian

Perkara	Penyataan	Kekerapan (n=45)	Peratus (%)
Umur	Bawah 25 tahun	21	46.7
	25-30 tahun	7	15.6
	31-35 tahun	2	4.4
	36-40 tahun	0	0
	41-45 tahun	8	17.8
	46-50 tahun	3	6.7
	50 tahun dan ke atas	4	8.9
Jantina	Lelaki	41	91.9
	Perempuan	4	8.9

Jadual 1 menunjukkan taburan latarbelakang responden kajian iaitu 41 lelaki dan 4 perempuan berumur di bawah 25 tahun dan 50 tahun keatas.

Jadual 2: Min Skor Faktor Tekanan Kerja

Bil	Faktor Tekanan Kerja	Purata Min	Tahap
1.	Hubungan Di tempat Kerja	4.00	Tinggi
2.	Bebanan Kerja	3.34	Sederhana
3	Personaliti A	3.44	Sederhana
4	Kawalan Lokus Luaran	3.65	Sederhana
5	Kekaburan Peranan	3.65	Sederhana
Purata		3.62	Sederhana

Jadual 3 menunjukkan min skor bagi faktor tekanan kerja. Min skor yang paling tinggi bagi faktor tekanan kerja adalah faktor hubungan di tempat kerja dengan nilai min sebanyak 4.00, diikuti oleh kawalan Lokus Luaran dan Kekaburan Peranan, Personaliti A manakala yang paling rendah adalah faktor bebanan kerja dengan min sebanyak 3.34. Skor purata bagi faktor tekanan kerja secara keseluruhan adalah 3.62 iaitu pada tahap sederhana.

5. Perbincangan

5.1 Faktor Yang Mempengaruhi Tekanan Kerja

Hasil kajian mendapati faktor tekanan dari segi hubungan di tempat kerja merupakan faktor yang paling tinggi dalam mempengaruhi tekanan ($m=4.0$, rujuk Jadual 2). Dapatan kajian ini selaras dengan model tekanan kerja yang dikemukakan daripada Coefey et al (1994) dan Cooper dan Marshall (1976) yang menjelaskan tekanan di tempat kerja mula timbul apabila hubungan antara kakitangan dan organisasi tidak memuaskan atau kurang penglibatan dalam organisasi tersebut oleh kedua-dua pihak. Dalam erti kata lain penyesuaian dan penerimaan hubungan haruslah berlaku secara dua hala. Ini adalah kerana sokongan dan bantuan samada dari pihak pentadbiran atau rakan adalah penting di mana apabila responden merasa diri mereka tidak disukai atau diterima oleh rakan sekerja, ia boleh menimbulkan faktor tekanan yang tinggi. Begitu juga apabila mereka merasa tidak boleh berbincang dengan rakan sekerja atau berhubung dengan pihak yang lebih tinggi dari mereka akan menimbulkan tekanan kerja yang tidak seharusnya terjadi. Oleh kerana dapatan kajian menunjukkan faktor tekanan dari segi hubungan merupakan faktor tertinggi dalam kajian ini, sesuatu harus dilakukan oleh organisasi kajian untuk mendapatkan penyelesaian terhadap situasi yang dihadapi pekerja atau mencari alternatif sesuai bagi mengurangkan tekanan dari segi hubungan supaya berada pada tahap rendah kerana ia boleh memberi pulangan yang besar kepada organisasi seperti mendapat hasil kerja yang lebih baik dan sekaligus meningkatkan produktiviti kerja dan keberkesanan dalam melaksanakan tugas dengan lebih efektif oleh pekerja.

Faktor kawalan lokus luaran menjadi penyumbang kedua kepada faktor tekanan kerja kepada organisasi kajian walaupun pada tahap sederhana ($m=3.65$, rujuk Jadual 2), yang mana ia menunjukkan model penentu tekanan yang diperkenalkan oleh Coffey *et. al.*, (1994) relevan dalam kajian ini kerana menurut beliau tanggapan negatif dalam kehidupan berlaku apabila rasa bimbang terhadap sesuatu perkara dan memberi tekanan dalam kalangan pekerja di organisasi yang di kaji. Dapatan ini juga di sokong oleh Mohd Azhar (2004) yang berpendapat faktor luaran diri individu seperti faktor organisasi atau pun majikan dan pekerjaan boleh memberi tekanan kepada mana-mana pekerja dan boleh menjadi faktor tekanan menyebabkan produktiviti organisasi menurun jika ia berlaku secara keterlaluan. Dalam kajian ini, faktor lokus luaran berada di tahap sederhana, menjadikan ia masih ditahap yang boleh dikawal oleh responden kajian. Walau bagaimanapun jika organisasi boleh membantu responden agar mereka merasa bahawa mereka mempunyai keupayaan untuk mengawal perkara luaran yang boleh membentuk kehidupan mereka dengan tidak merasa tergugat bahawa kehidupan mereka ditentukan oleh orang lain, maka faktor tekanan ini boleh berada pada tahap rendah dan sekaligus membantu organisasi kerana pekerja yang merasa selamat di tempat kerja adalah lebih baik dari mereka yang sentiasa merasa tergugat dan tidak boleh mencapai apa yang ingin mereka lakukan. Ini bertepatan dengan pendapat Charles (2000) yang menyatakan tekanan luaran contohnya dari sumber persekitaran luar adalah berbahaya kerana menimbulkan ketegangan atau gangguan yang tidak menyenangkan terhadap pekerjaan.

Faktor kekaburan peranan dalam kajian ini berada pada tahap sederhana dan mempunyai min yang sama dengan faktor kawalan lokus luaran ($m=3.65$, rujuk Jadual 2). Dapatan menunjukkan ketelusan peranan individu dalam organisasi adalah sangat penting. Ini adalah kerana apabila individu tidak mendapat maklumat yang cukup untuk menjalankan tugas mereka, atau tidak mempunyai matlamat yang jelas untuk melaksanakan tugas dalam pekerjaan, tekanan berlaku. Organisasi bertanggungjawab sepenuhnya untuk memberi penerangan yang jelas tentang apa yang perlu dilakukan oleh setiap individu dalam organisasi supaya setiap individu memahami tanggungjawab dan peranan mereka. Kekaburan peranan dalam pekerjaan boleh memberi tekanan kepada pekerja. Ini disokong oleh teori "*Pearson Environment Fit*" yang diasaskan oleh French dan Khan (1962), dimana apabila individu tidak berupaya untuk melaksanakan peranan kerja dengan kebolehan dan kemahiran yang sedia ada, atau apabila pekerja tidak faham dan kabur dengan peranan yang hendak dilakukan oleh mereka ia boleh menimbulkan tekanan. Model tekanan kerja Cooper dan Marshall (1976) juga menekankan bahawa peranan individu dalam organisasi akan berubah menjadi satu tekanan apabila berlaku situasi yang mana konflik peranan, tanggungjawab dan had peranan individu dalam organisasi saling bertindih. Walau pun dapatan kajian menunjukkan kekaburan peranan berada pada tahap sederhana, adalah lebih baik jika organisasi dimana kajian dijalankan mengambil tindakan susulan diperingkat awal pekerjaan iaitu semasa pekerja baru memasuki organisasi supaya kekaburan peranan boleh diatasi dan dielakkan terus daripada berlaku dan secara tidak langsung tahap itu terus berada pada tahap paling sesuai iaitu tahap rendah.

Dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa faktor tekanan personaliti jenis A berada pada tahap sederhana. Dapatan kajian ini walaubagaimana pun bercanggah dengan kenyataan Coffey *et. al.*, (1994) yang mengatakan kategori jenis A ini mempunyai sikap yang lebih agresif, suka melakukan banyak kerja dalam masa yang singkat

dan mengabaikan sifat-sifat kemanusiaan demi untuk memenuhi matlamatnya dan terus menyumbang kepada faktor tekanan di tempat kerja. Dapatan ini bercanggah dengan kenyataan tersebut kerana tahap tekanan berada pada tahap sederhana dan secara tidak langsung menjurus kepada personaliti jenis B yang mana individu kurang berada dalam keadaan tertekan kerana mereka melakukan tugas atau pekerjaan dengan lebih tenang dan dapat bergembira dengan pelbagai aktiviti yang tidak beroreintasikan kerja. Dapatan juga menunjukkan bahawa pekerja di organisasi kajian adalah pekerja yang sabar dan tidak bertindak terburu-buru dalam membuat keputusan apabila melibatkan tugas mereka. Keseluruhan keputusan menunjukkan pekerja di organisasi ini akan memastikan sesuatu kerja yang diberi kepada mereka disiapkan dalam masa yang diberi.

Dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa faktor bebanan kerja mempunyai nilai min yang paling rendah antara faktor tekanan. Walaupun keputusan berada pada tahap sederhana tetapi hasil kajian menunjukkan secara keseluruhan pekerja di organisasi kajian berpuas hati dengan beban tugas mereka dan secara tidak langsung beban kerja tidak memberi kesan yang serius kepada pekerja di organisasi tersebut. Ini juga bercanggah dengan model Coffey *et. al.*, (1994) dimana faktor bebanan atau lebih kerja menjadi salah satu punca dan penentu berlakunya tekanan. Dapatan juga bercanggah dengan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Henk (2007) dalam kalangan pengurus dimana dapatan kajian Henk menunjukkan faktor tekanan adalah berpunca dari segi lebihan kerja dan tekanan masa. Ini menunjukkan bahawa pekerja di organisasi kajian berupaya untuk mencapai sasaran organisasi kerana tugas yang diberikan bersesuaian dengan keupayaan, pengetahuan dan kemahiran pekerja di organisasi tersebut walaupun berada pada tahap sederhana.

6. Kesimpulan

Secara keseluruhan, faktor tekanan kerja yang dihadapi oleh pekerja Pengeluaran di Petronas (Penapisan), Melaka berada pada tahap sederhana. Selaras dengan itu, pihak organisasi adalah disarankan agar meningkatkan lagi tahap kesedaran kepada pekerja untuk menyediakan langkah-langkah tertentu dalam mengurangkan faktor tekanan dalam diri pekerja dengan mengambil kira faktor hubungan di tempat kerja sebagai aras awal untuk mengurangkan tekanan kerja kerana faktor tersebut merupakan penyumbang utama kepada tekanan di organisasi kajian dan apabila pekerja dibantu dalam menangani masalah tersebut, ia diharap dapat memberi kesan yang lebih baik kepada peningkatan produktiviti individu mahupun organisasi itu sendiri. Ini adalah kerana hubungan, sokongan dan bantuan positif antara rakan dan pihak pentadbiran organisasi berupaya untuk menjadi dorongan dan merangsang pekerja supaya berprestasi lebih baik.

7. Rujukan

- Cooper, C.L dan Marshall, A. (1976). Occupational Sources of Stress: A review of the literature relating to coronary heart disease and mental–Health. *Journal Of occupational Psychology*, v.49, 1-28
- Coffey *et. al.*, (1994). *Management and Organizational Behaviour*, Richard D: Irwin Publications
- Chai Per Cher, Lee Yin Jez dan Ong Li Xin (2010). *Hubungan Antara Tekanan Kerja Dengan Kepuasan Kerja dalam Kalangan Pekerja di Pearl International Hotel*. Kuala Lumpur.Universiti Teknologi Malaysia: Tesis Sarjana Muda
- Greenberg, J. (1999). *Stress Management* New York : McGraw Hill
- Holt, D.H. (1993). *Management: Principles and Practice*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Jaafar, M. (1997). *Managing Stress*. New York: Managing Stress. New York : A division of American management Associations
- Krejcie, R., dan Morgan, D. (1970). Determining Sampling Size for Research Activities. *Education and Psychological Measurement*. 30: 607- 610
- Mohd Izdihar B.O. (2009). *Kajian Tekanan Kerja Dalam kalangan Operator Pengeluaran Di Consobiz Ventures Sdn Bhd*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia: Tesis Sarjana Muda
- Muhammad B.D. (2008). *Kajian Tekanan Kerja Terhadap Prestasi Kerja Dikalangan Staf CICT UTM*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia: Tesis Sarjana Muda
- Sabitha M. (2005). *Hubungan Manusia dalam Organisasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Melayu Publications
- Selye, H. (1956). *The Stress of life*. New York : Mc Graw-Hill
- Ward, J, C (1987). *Managing Stress*. Essex: Gower Publishing Ltd
- Williams, E.S., Konrad, T.R., Schecklert, W.E., Pathman, D.E., Linzer, M., McMurray, Gerrity, J. E., dan Schwartz, M. (2001). Understanding physicians' intentions to withdraw from practice: the role of job satisfaction, job stress, mental, and physical health, *Health Care Management Review*, v. 26 ms.7-19

William, E.R., & Cooper,A (2002). *Introduction to Management*. Boston: PWS-Kent
Yates, J.E (1979). *Managing Stress*. New York: A division of American management Associations

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment: The Mediating Affect of Empowerment

Azman Ismail¹, Nurshahira Ibrahim², Nor Azima Ahmad², Nurasilah Kithuru Mohamed², Siti Salwa Salim² and Munirah Hanim Yusuf¹

¹ Faculty of Economic & Management, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

² Institute Islam Hadhari, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstract The purpose of this paper is to examine the influence of empowerment (EMP) in the relationship between transformational leadership (TL) and organizational commitment (OC). Using 77 usable questionnaires gathered from employees who worked at a subsidiary company in Sarawak. Results of SmartPLS path analysis model confirm that EMP acts as a mediating variable in TL and OC in the organizational sample. Further, conclusion and implications of this study are elaborated.

Keywords: Transformational leadership, Empowerment, Organizational Commitment

1. Introduction

Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence and encouraged his followers to act for accomplish specific goals (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Hartog et al., 1997; Gupta & Krishnan, 2004; Ismail et al., 2011). Bass and Avolio (1994), Hartog et al. (1997), Ismail et al. (2011) and Verma & Krishnan (2013) defines TL as an important leadership style in dynamic organization. It consists of four main features, which are idealized influence (IDF) or also called charismatic, inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), individualized consideration (IC) (Chandna & Krishnan, 2009; Sharma & Krishnan, 2012; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Krishnan, 2012). IDF can be divided into two factors – attributed and individualized influence behavior (Kandalla & Krishnan, 2004; Chadna & Krishnan, 2009; Loshali & Krishnan, 2013). An IDF leader helps subordinates feel their work meaningful (Chadna & Krishnan, 2009; Loshali & Krishnan, 2013). IM is defined as the ability of a leader to motivate, energize and inspire their followers to produce a positive vision of the future (Sharma & Krishnan, 2012; Jung et al., 2008; Ganguli & Krishnan, 2005; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). IS is often related to a leader emphasizes the concept of intelligence, rational, logic and problem solving organization with caution (Ismail et al., 2011). This emphasis can help followers to become more creative (Avolio et al., 2004; Jung et al., 2008; Balaji & Krishnan, 2014), innovative, imaginative and recognition of their values, beliefs and mindset (Avolio et al., 2004). IC is usually viewed as a leader cares about the needs and achievement of his followers. These concerns can develop potential leaders as a coach and mentor. Consequently, the followers will be more likely to provide feedback on their level of commitment to the organization and its goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994; Kark & Shamir, 2002, Avolio et al., 2004; Jung et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2011).

Extent studies in organizational leadership show that the ability of leaders to properly implement TL in doing job may invoke employees' feelings of EMP in organizations (Ismail et al., 2011). According to many scholars, EMP is broadly defined as leaders willing to delegate power to their followers in managing organizational functions (Honold, 1997;

Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Lashley, 1999; Ismail et al., 2011). As a result, it may lead to achieved organizational strategy and goals (Honold, 1997; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Lashley, 1999; Lee & Koh, 2001; Ismail et al., 2011).

Surprisingly, a careful observation on effective leadership styles reveals that relationship between TL and EMP may lead to an enhanced OC (Avolio et al., 2004; Kark et al., 2003, Ismail et al., 2011). According to Ismail et al. (2011), OC is normally defined as an interaction between job and employees that invoke his/her work commitment. Besides that, most researchers stated that TL, EMP and OC are different, but it is an interrelated concept. It's reflected in studies by (Kark et al., 2003; Avolio et al., 2004; Boonyarit et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2011; Shah et al., 2011; Ahmadi, 2014) where the ability of leaders to evoke the EMP feelings within the followers may lead to enhance OC. Although this relationship is interesting, but little is known about the role of EMP as a mediating variable in the TL models (Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Klidas et al., 2007; Ismail et al., 2011). Many scholars argue that this condition is due to the previous studies have not emphasized the role of employee EMP in developing TL model even more studies emphasis on the nature of their internal constructs (i.e. TL, EMP and OC) using a segmented approach in analyzing TL (Bycio et al., 1995; Dubinsky et al., 1995; Meyerson & Klien, 2008; Ozaralli, 2002; Ismail et al., 2011). Consequently, it may not be able to highlight the leadership literature (Avolio et al., 2004; Kark et al., 2003; Meyerson & Kline, 2008; Ismail et al., 2011). Thus, it motivates the researchers to further explore the issue. This study has two important objectives: firstly, to examine the correlation between TL and EMP. Secondly, to examine the effect of EMP as a mediating in correlation of TL and OC.

2. Literature Review

Several recent studies using an indirect effects to measure organizational leadership style on different samples, such as 520 staff nurses in a large public hospital in Singapore (Avolio et al., 2004), bank employees in several US banking organizations (Kark et al., 2003), 118 usable questionnaire gathered from employees in USFIRMKK (Ismail et al., 2011), 154 public school teachers from a central province of Thailand (Boonyarit et al., 2010) 310 employees in the Interior Ministry (Ahmadi, 2014) and 88 employees in six companies from telecom industry (Shah et al., 2011). Findings from these studies reported that the ability of leaders to implies practice TL style (IDF, IM, IS and IC) had invoked follower's EMP feelings of efficiently, effectively and responsibility managing job functions. As a result, it could lead to higher OC in the organizations.

The leadership research literature is consistent with the notion of leadership theory. For example, Burns' (1978) TL theory highlights that mutual understanding of leaders and followers in managing organizational functions may increase their moralities. Besides that, Bass's (1985) TL theory posits that interaction between leaders and followers in managing organizational functions can inspire followers to go beyond their self-interests for supporting the organization interests. An application of these theories in an organizational leadership framework shows that followers' moralities and concern about organizational interests can be developed if leaders stimulate followers' intellectuals, develop followers' potentials, design and communicating targeted goals and motivate followers' think beyond their self interest in organizations (Avolio et al., 2004; Bartram & Casimir, 2007). If such transformational processes are properly implemented this will increase followers' EMP to perform their job efficiently and effectively (Kirkman et al., 2004; Lashley, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995) As a result, it may lead to a greater OC (Avolio et al., 2004; Kark et al., 2003).

Based on the framework, it was hypothesized that:

- H1 : There is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment.
- H2 : Empowerment mediates the effect of transformational leadership on the organizational commitment.

3. Methodology

This study used a cross-sectional research design that allowed the researchers to integrate training management literature and the actual survey as a main procedure to gather data. The use of such methods may gather accurate and less biased data (Cresswell, 1998; Sekaran, 2000). This study was conducted at one US subsidiary company in Sarawak.

The survey questionnaire has 3 sections. Firstly, TL had 12 items that were modified from the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ-Form 5X) which are IDF had 4 items, IC had 4 items and IS had 3 items (Bass, 1994, 1999; Bycio et al., 1995; Dionne et al., 2003; Hartog et al., 1997). Secondly, the EMP had 4 items that were adapted from EMP literature (Ashforth, 1989; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Jones, 1986; Tymon, 1988). Thirdly, the OC had 7 items that were developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1982) OC Questionnaire. All items used in the questionnaires were measured using a 7-item scale ranging from "strong disagree" (1) to "strong agree" (7). Demographic variables were used as a controlling variable because this study also focused on employees' attitudes.

A convenience sampling technique was used to distribute 150 survey questionnaires to employees in the organizations. Of the number, 77 usable questionnaires were only returned to the researchers, yielding a response rate of 51.3 percent. Further, the studies conducted were analyzed using SmartPLS 3.0.

4. Results

In term of respondents' characteristics, that majority respondents were males (63.6%), ages between 26 to 30 years old (32.5%), Malay (39%), diploma holders (35.1%), lower-level management (70%), and working experienced more than 10 years (28.6%). Table 1 shows the results of convergent and discriminant validity analyses. All constructs had values of AVE larger than 0.5, indicating that they met the acceptable standard of convergent validity (Barclay et al., 1995; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Henseler et al., 2009). Besides that, all construct had the value $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ in diagonal were greater than the squared correlation with other concepts in off diagonal, signifying that all concepts met the acceptable standard of discriminant validity (Yang, 2009).

Table 1: The Results of Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analyses

Variable	AVE	IDF	IC	IS	EMP	OC
IDF	0.605	0.778				
IC	0.564	0.673	0.751			
IS	0.633	0.744	0.616	0.796		
EMP	0.615	0.637	0.497	0.514	0.784	
OC	0.654	0.410	0.388	0.337	0.470	0.808

Table 2 shows the factor loadings and cross loading for different constructs. The correlation between items and factors had higher loadings than other items in the different constructs, as well as the loadings of variables were greater than 0.7 in their own constructs in the model are considered adequate (Henseler et al., 2009). In sum, the validity of the

measurement model met the criteria. Besides that, the values of composite reliability were greater than 0.8, indicating that the instrument used in this study had high internal consistency (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994; Henseler et al., 2009).

Table 2: The Results of Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings for Different Constructs

Construct/Item	Number of Item	Cross Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability
IDF	5	0.741-0.797	0.884
IC	4	0.702-0.847	0.837
IS	3	0.770-0.819	0.838
EMP	4	0.710-0.876	0.864
OC	7	0.721-0.888	0.929

Table 3 shows the results of Pearson correlation analysis and descriptive statistics. The means for all variables were from 4.6 to 5.6 signifying that the levels of IDF, IC, IS, EMP and OC from high (4) to highest level (7). The correlation coefficients for the relationship between the independent variable (i.e., IDF, IC and IS), the mediating variable (i.e., EMP) and the dependent variable (i.e., OC) were less than 0.90, indicating the data were not affected by serious collinearity problem (Hair et al., 2006). Hence, all the constructs had value 1 that was shown in a diagonal, showing that these constructs met the requirements of reliability standard (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, these statistical results provide further evidence of validity and reliability for the constructs used in this study.

Table 3: Pearson Correlation Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Pearson Correlation Analysis (r)				
			1	2	3	4	5
IDF	5.5	.67	1				
IC	5.6	.64	.693**	1			
IS	5.4	.77	.722**	.635**	1		
EMP	5.5	.72	.632**	.573**	.566**	1	
OC	4.6	1.06	.368**	.369**	.341**	.392**	1

*Note: Significant at ** $p < 0.01$*
Reliability Estimation is shown in a Diagonal

4.1 Outcomes of Testing Hypotheses 1

Figure 1 presents the outcomes of testing a direct effects model using SmartPLS. It shows that the inclusion of IDF, IC and IS in the analysis had explained 41.6% of the variance in the dependent variable. Specifically, the result of SmartPLS path analysis revealed three important results: first, IDF is positively and significantly correlated with EMP ($\beta=0.517$, $t=2.93$), therefore H1a was supported. Second, IC positively and not significantly correlated with EMP ($\beta=0.111$, $t=0.82$), therefore H1b was not supported. Third, IS positively and not significantly correlated with EMP ($\beta=0.061$, $t=0.33$), therefore H1c was not supported. In sum, the result confirms that IDF is not important determinant of EMP, but IC and IS is an important determinant of EMP in the studied organization.

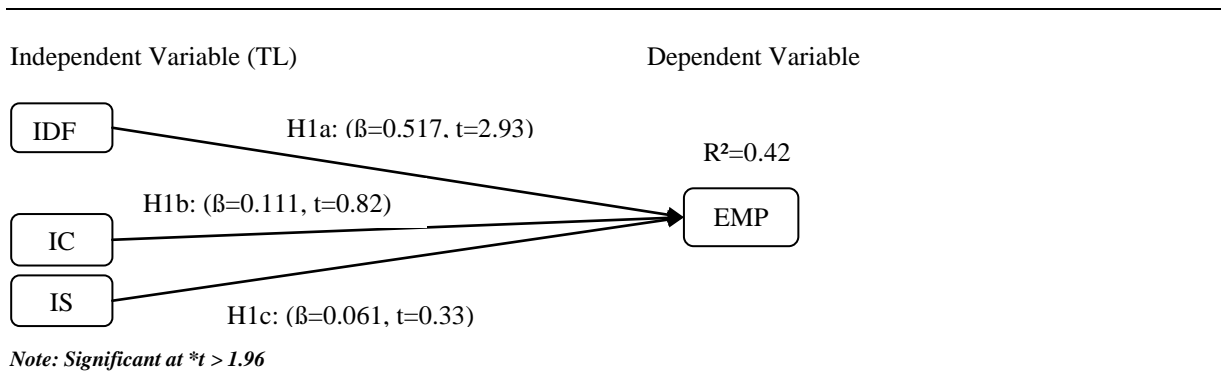


Figure 1: The outcomes of SmartPLS Path Model Showing the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Empowerment.

4.2. Outcomes of Testing Hypotheses 2

Figure 2 presents the outcomes of testing a mediating model using SmartPLS. The inclusion of items of TL (IDF, IC and IS) and EMP in the analysis had explained 22.1% of the variance in OC. Specifically, the result of SmartPLS path analysis revealed three important findings: First, IDF and EMP significantly correlated with the OC ($\beta=0.47$, $t=4.5$), therefore H2a was supported. Second, IC and EMP significantly correlated with the OC ($\beta=0.47$, $t=4.5$), therefore H2b was supported. Third, IS and EMP significantly correlated with OC ($\beta=0.47$, $t=4.5$), therefore H2c was supported. In sum, the result confirms that EMP does act as an important mediating variable in the relationship between TL and OC.

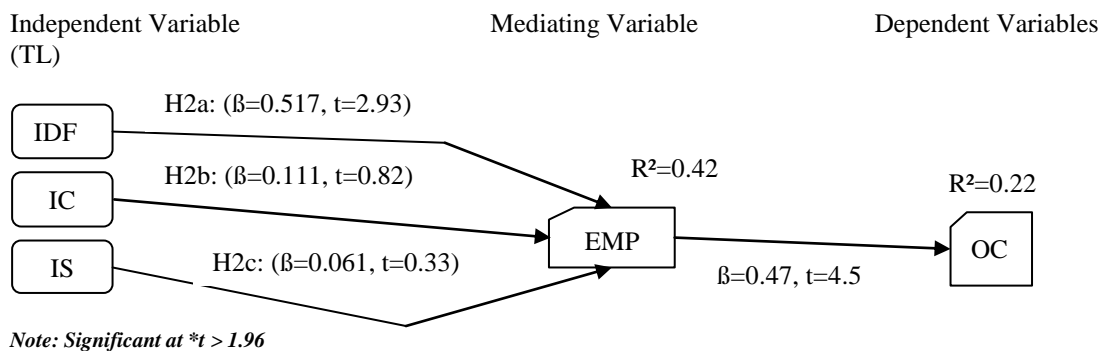


Figure 2: The outcomes of SmartPLS Path Model Showing the Empowerment Mediates Effects of Transformational Leadership on the Organizational Commitment.

In order to determine a global fit PLS path model, we carried out a global fit measure (GoF) based on Wetzels et.al. (2009) guidelines as follows: $GoF = \sqrt{\{MEAN(Communality\ of\ Endogenous) \times MEAN(R^2)\}} = 0.38$, signifying that it exceeds the cut-off value of 0.36 for large effect sizes of R². This result confirms that the PLS path model has better explaining power in comparison with the baseline values (GoF small=0.1, GoF medium=0.25, GoF large=0.36). It also provides strong support to validate the PLS model globally (Wetzels et al., 2009).

5. Discussion

This study confirms that EMP does act as an important mediating variable in the relationship between TL and OC. The implications of this study can be divided into three major aspects: theoretical contribution, robustness of research methodology, and contribution

to practitioners. In term of theoretical contribution, the study Kark et al., (2003), Avolio et al., (2004), Boonyarit et al., (2010), Ismail et.al. (2011), Shah et al., (2011) and Ahmadi (2014) reveals that EMP does act as an important mediating variable in the relationship between TL practices and OC. The findings of this study have supported by previous literature. With respect to the robustness of research methodology, the data gathered using leadership management literature, and survey questionnaires have exceeded an acceptable standard of validity and reliability analysis, this may lead to the production of accurate and reliable findings.

On a practical contribution, the results of this study can be used as a guide by management to improve the effectiveness of leadership style in their organizations. This objective can be achieved if management's consider the following suggestions: first, the leadership style of a manager should be trained so that they have a good performance in term of knowledge, skills and moral values. This training program can help to handle the needs and demands of workers who have socio-economic background are different. Second, implement participatory leadership style which allows workers to join together to make a decision. Therefore, it can motivate them to use their creativity and innovation in carrying out its duties. Finally, the interaction between followers and leaders will enhance positive personal for each person (e.g. satisfaction, commitment, performance and ethics). For example, if the organization provides merit based pay (such as, financial incentives) to a high performing employee, then, this can motivate followers and leaders to focus more on achieving their goals. If managers pay attention to these recommendations, this will make it easier for an organization to achieve the objectives because this proposal provides a positive stimulus between leaders and followers.

6. Conclusion

This study tested a conceptual framework based on the TL literature. This study confirms that EMP does act as a mediating role in the relationship between TL and the OC. This result had supported and extended leadership research literature mostly published in Western and Eastern organizational setting. Therefore, current research and practices within TL models needs to consider EMP as a crucial aspect of organizational leadership styles where increasing followers' EMP in planning and implementing their jobs may strongly induce positive subsequent personal outcomes (e.g., competency, performance, satisfaction, commitment, trust, and positive moral values).Therefore, positive results can lead workers to maintain and support the organization's competitiveness in the global economy.

7. References

- Ahmadi, O. (2014). Impact of transformational leadership and psychological empowerment on organizational commitment in interior ministry. *Management and Administrative Sciences Review*, 3(3), 440-449
- Ashforth, B.E. (1989). The experince of powerlessness in organizations. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 43, 207-242
- Avolio B.J., Zhu W., Koh W. & Bhatia P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: mediating role of psychology empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 25, 951-968
- Balaji, M. & Krishnan, V.R. (2014). Impact of transformational leadership on empowerment: mediating role of social identify. *International Journal of Leadership*, 2(1), 34-42

-
- Barclay, D. Hinggens, C. & Thompson, R. (1995). The partial least squares (PLS) approach to causal modeling: personal computer adoption and use as an illustration. *Technology study*, 2 (2), 285-309.
- Bartram, T. & Casimir, G. (2007). The relationship between leadership and follower in-role performance and satisfaction with the leaders: the mediating effects of empowerment and trust in the leader. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28(1), 4-19
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press New York. NY
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 17, 112-21
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Sage Thousand Oaks. CA
- Boonyarit, I., Chomphupart, S., & Arin, N. (2010). Leadership, empowerment, and attitude outcomes. *The Journal of Behavioral Science*, 5(1), 1-14
- Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper & Row New York. NY
- Bycio, P., Hackett, R.D., & Allen, J.S. (1995). Further assessment of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 468-478
- Chandra, P. & Krishnan, V.R. (2009). Organizational commitment of information technology professionals: role of transformational leadership and work-related beliefs. *Tecnia Journal of Management Studies*, 4(1), 1-13
- Cresswell, J.W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. London: SAGE Publications
- Dionne S.D., Yammarino F.J., Atwater L.E., & Spangler, W.D. (2003). Transformational leadership and team performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 17(2), 17-193
- Dubinsky, A.J., Yammarino, F.J., Jolson, M.A., & Spangler, W.D. (1995). Transformational leadership: an initial investigation in salespeople. *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 15(2), 17-35
- Fornell, C.G. & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation model with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50
- Ganguli, I., & Krishnan, V. R. (2005). Impact of family values and gender on transformational leadership. *Asia-Pacific Business Review*, 1(1), 18-25
- Gumusluoglu, L. & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research*, 6, 461-473
- Gupta, V., & Krishnan, V. R. (2004). Impact of socialization on transformational leadership: role of leader member exchange. *South Asian Journal of Management*, 11(3), 7-20
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley
- Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black W.C. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall International, Inc
- Hartog, D.N.D., Muijen J.J., & Koopman, V. (1997). Transactional vs. transformational leadership: an analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70, 19-34
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sinkovics, R.R. (2009). The use of partial least square path modelling in international marketing. *New Challenges to International Marketing. Advances in International Marketing*, 20, 277-319
- Honold, L. (1997). A review of the literature on employee empowerment. *Empowerment in Organizations*, 5 (4), 202-212.

-
- Howell, J.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control and support for innovation: key predictors of consolidated-business unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 891-902
- Howell, J.M., & Hall-Merenda, K.E. (1999). The ties that bind: the impact of leader-member exchange transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 680-694
- Ismail, A., Hassan AL-Banna, M., Ahmad Zaidi, S., Mohd Hamran, M. & Munirah Hanim, Y. (2011). An empirical study of the relationship between transformational leadership, empowerment and organizational commitment. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 2(1), 89-107
- Jones, G.R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy and newcomers to organization. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29, 262-279
- Jung, D., Wu, A. & Chow, C.W. (2008). Towards understanding the direct and indirect effects of CEO's transformational leadership on firm innovation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 582-594
- Kandalla, H.V. & Krishnan, V.R. (2004). Impact of follower personality and organizational structure on transformational leadership. *Sage Publication*, 5(1), 15-25
- Kark, R., & Shamir, B. (2002). The dual effects of transformational leadership: priming relational and collective selves and further effects on followers. *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The road Ahead*, 267-291. Elsevier Science, Oxford
- Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The two faces of transformational leadership: empowerment and dependancy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 264-255
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Tesluk, P. E. & Gibson, C. B. (2004). The impact of team empowerment on virtual team performance: the moderating role of face-to-face interaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(2), 175-192
- Klidas, A., Van Den Berg, P.T. & Wilderom, C.P.M. (2007). Managing employee empowerment in luxury hotels in Europe. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 18(1), 70-88
- Krishnan, V.R. (2012). Transformational leadership and personal outcomes: empowerment as mediator. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 33(60), 550-563
- Lashley, C. (1999). Employee empowerment in services: A framework for analysis. *Personnel Review*, 28 (3), 169-191
- Lee, M., & Koh, J. (2001). Is empowerment really a new concept? *International of Human Resource Management*, 12(4), 684-695
- Loshali, S. & Krishnan, V.R. (2013). Strategic human resource management and firm performance: mediating role of transformational leadership. *Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management*, 2(1), 9-19
- Meyerson, S.L., & Kline, T. J. B. (2008). Psychological and environmental empowerment: antecedents and consequences. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 29(5), 444-460
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkage*. New York: Academic Press.
- Nunally, J.C. & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Ozaralli, N. (2002). Effects of transformational leadership on empowerment and team effectiveness. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24(6), 335-344
- Sekaran, U. (2000). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

-
- Shah, T.A., Nisar, M., Rehman, K. & Rehman, I. (2011). Influence of transformational leadership on employees outcomes: mediating role of empowerment. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(21), 8558-8566
- Sharma, D. & Krishnan, V.R. (2012). The impact of pay satisfaction and transformational leadership on employee engagement. *Proceeding of the 5th International Conference of Manegement and Behavioural Sciences*, Haridwar, India, June
- Spreitzer, G. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimensions, measurement and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38 (5), 1442-65.
- Tymon, W.G., Jr. (1988). An empirical investigation of a cognitive model of empowerment. Doctoral dissertation, Temple University, Philadelpdia
- Verma, S.P. & Krishnan, V.R. (2013). Transformational leadership and followers organizational commitment: role of leader's gender
- Wetzels, M., Odekerken-Schroder, G., & van Oppen, C. (2009). Using PLS path modeling for assessing hierarchical construct models: guidelines and empirical illustration. *MIS Quarterly*, 33 (1), 177-195.
- Yang, Z. (2009). A study of corporate reputation's influence on customer loyalty based on PLS-SEM model. *International Business Research*, 2(3), 28-35

Mentor's Role in Mentorship as a Method of Developing Mentee's Self-confident in Performing a Task

Azman Ismail³, Nor' Ain Abdullah⁴, Nor Shaffika Izzaty Zaidey⁵, Asmuni Ab Ghani⁶,
Najihah Omar⁷

Abstract Mentors often play two salient roles in mentorship programs: communication and support. The ability of mentors to appropriately implement these roles may have a significant impact on mentees' self-confident in performing a task. Even though the nature of this relationship is interesting, the role of mentor as an important determinant is given less emphasized in the tertiary mentorship research literature. Therefore, this study was undertaken to measure the correlated between mentor's role in mentorship and mentees 'self-confident to perform a task using self-report administered questionnaires collected from bachelor degree business student at a public research university in Peninsular Malaysia. The outcomes of SmartPLS path model displayed two major findings: first, communication was positively and significantly correlated with mentees 'self-confident in performing a task, secondly, support was positively and significantly correlated with mentees' self-confident in performing a task. The result confirmed that mentor's role in mentorship does act as an essential determinant of mentees 'self-confident to perform a task in the studied organization. Further, discussion, implications and conclusion are elaborated.

Keywords: mentorship, communication, support, self-confident to perform a task

1. Introduction

In an ancient Greek literature, mentorship is first highlighted in the epic story of 'The Odyssey' written by Homer. In this story, Odysseus tells his loyal and experienced friend, namely, Mentor (a person who has great wisdom and trustworthy) to teach his son, namely, Telemachus (a mentee or protégé who has less experience) about the tips for handling challenging lifestyles before he goes to the Trojan War (Edlind & Haensly, 1985; Ismail et al., 2005, 2006; Merriam, 1993). Mentorship has transcended this classical story and has become an important field of education (Little et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 1991) and/or counseling (Gregson, 1994; Zuraidah et al., 2004) whereby mentors are represented by the elderly who have wisdom, experiences and can be trusted to educate young men who have little experience and knowledge (Little et al., 2010; Mohono-Mahlatsi & Tonder, 2006; Johnson et al., 1991; Russell & Adams, 1997; Wanguri, 1996). The traditional concept mentorship has been given new interpretations by contemporary educationists, social psychologists and management scholars in order to be in line with the current organizational development and challenges (Dennison, 2000; Ismail et al., 2005, 2006; Ismail & Ridzwan, 2012; Oliver & Aggleton, 2002).

In today's organizations, mentorship is generally defined as an experienced employee who serves as a role model and provides support and direction to a protégé. Mentorship provide feedback regarding career plans and interpersonal development and are committed to helping the protégé succeed in the adult working world

³ Associate Professor, PhD, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Faculty of Economics & Management, Address: 43600 Bangi, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia, e-mail: azisma80@gmail.com.

⁴ PhD Candidate, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Institute Islam Hadhari, Address: 43600 Bangi, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia, **corresponding author:** norainabdullah_ukm@yahoo.com

⁵ Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Faculty of Social Sciences & Humanities, Address: 43600 Bangi, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia, e-mail: shaffika.izzaty@ukm.edu.my

⁶ Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Faculty of Social Sciences & Humanities, Address: 43600 Bangi, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia, e-mail: asmuni@ukm.edu.my

⁷ Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Faculty of Economics & Management, Address: 43600 Bangi, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia, e-mail: najihahomar777@yahoo.com.

(Kram, 1985; Anderson & Shannon, 1988). It also acts as an instrument to develop group and/or individuals' potentials in carrying out duties and responsibilities, learn new techniques, and well-being of mentees (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Little et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 1991; Long, 2002; Noe et al., 2002). According to Kram (1985), mentorship provide two broad categories of mentoring functions. *Career functions* include sponsorship, coaching, exposure/visibility, protection and the provision of challenging assignments. *Psychosocial functions* relate more to the interpersonal aspect of the relationship and include role modelling, counselling, friendship and acceptance (Kram, 1985).

There is no one best mentorship program model to fit all organizations, because it has to be designed and implemented according to the uniqueness of organizational contexts in terms of beliefs, policy, orientations, stresses, strengths and weaknesses (Irving et al., 2003; Ismail et al., 2005, 2006; Santos & Reigadas, 2002, 2005). These factors have influenced organizations in the designing and administering of the various types of mentorship program, especially informal one (e.g., specific demands, spontaneous and adhoc) and/or the ones dealing with formal relationship (e.g., structured and coordinated relationship between mentor and mentee, using standard norms, continuously action plans, time frame, and particular objectives). In organizations, formal and informal mentoring programs are viewed as equally important, but informal mentorship programs are often implemented to complement and strengthen formal mentorship programs in order to achieve organizational strategies and goal (Friday & Friday, 2002); Hansford & Enrich, 2006; Hansford et al., 2003; Ismail et al., 2005, 2006).

Among the areas that applied mentorship program include are health profession (Byrne & Keefe, 2002; Ljungberg et al. 2011), corporate and organizational settings (Lyness & Thompson, 2000) and academic context (Campbell & Campbell, 1997). According to Byrne and Keefe (2002), mentorship is an effective strategy in various discipline including health profession, the aim which are to develop skills, expertise and leadership. In addition, mentorship program is used to help and facilitate patients to face and overcome psychosocial challenges in their lives (Ljungberg et al., 2011). In the other hand, in an academic context, student that undergo mentorship program obtain better academic achievement, complete more units completed per semester and show lower dropout rate than those who are not involved in mentorship program (Campbell & Campbell, 1997). Result of the studies show that many mentorship programs have been applied in various settings to help individuals in need.

A review of current literature on higher education of student development program literature highlights that effective mentorship programs have two important dimensions, i.e., communication and support (Bernier et al., 2005; Ismail & Ridzwan, 2012). In the context of university mentorship program, communication is generally defined as mentors openly delivering information about the procedures, content, tasks and objectives of the mentorship programs, conducting discussions about tasks that should be learned, giving detailed explanations about the benefits of attending mentorship programs and providing performance feedback (Allen et al., 2005; Fox et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2005, 2006). Conversely, support is broadly defined as mentors providing mentees emotional support (e.g., acquire new knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and guide them to properly apply in daily life) and instrumental support (e.g., assist mentees to adapt campus environments) at varying times (Allen & Finkelstein, 2003; Davis, 2007; Fox et al., 2010; Zuraidah et al., 2004).

Surprisingly, recent studies in university/faculty mentorship programs reveal that the ability of mentors to appropriately implement such mentorship characteristics may have a significant impact on positive mentee outcomes, especially self-confident (Ismail & Ridzwan, 2012; Rayle et al., 2006). From an adult learning perspective, self-confident is generally interpreted as individuals' beliefs and confidence about their abilities to perform certain functions (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007). For example, individuals who have high self-confident tend to learn, transfer learning, and put greater effort to overcome difficult situations and continuously improve his/her performance. Conversely, individuals with low self-confident tend to exhibit minimal effort, tend to give up hope easily and have no confidence to deal with difficult situations (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007; Kozlowski et al., 2001).

The nature of this relationship is interesting, but the role of mentorship program as an important predictor of mentees' self-confident in performing a task is little explained in the research literature of higher education mentorship program (Ismail & Ridzwan, 2012; Santos and Reigadas, 2005). Many scholars argue that this situation is due to many factors. Previous studies have much emphasized on the mentorship program characteristics, employed a simple survey method to explains different respondent perceptions toward the types of mentorship program, used a simple correlation method to determine the strength of association between specific mentorship program and global mentee outcomes, and ignored the magnitude and nature of the relationship between mentorship program and mentees' self-confident in performing a task. Consequently, the studies have provided insufficient information to be used as guidelines by practitioners in understanding the complexity of mentorship program, and formulating strategic action plans to improve the management of

mentorship programs in dynamic institutions of higher learning (Ismail & Ridzwan, 2012; Rayle et al., 2006; Santos and Reigadas, 2005). This gap has motivated the researchers to uncover the nature of this relationship.

2. Purpose of the Study

This study has three major objectives: firstly, is to determine the levels of communication, support and mentees' self-confident in performing a task. Secondly, to examine the correlation between communication and mentees' self-confident in performing a task. Finally, is to examine the correlation between support and mentees' self-confident in performing a task.

3. Literature Review

Several recent studies have used a direct effects model to discover mentorship activities based on different samples such as perceptions of 21 Malaysia teachers (Lyne M, 2013), perception of 39 big brothers/big sisters and undergraduate students mentors at an American university (DuBois and Neville, 1997), perceptions of 65 college students in a Faculty Mentoring Program (FMP) at a four-year institution in the United States (Santos and Reigadas, 2005), and 527 female undergraduates in Southwestern University (Rayle et al., 2006). The results of these studies reported that the readiness of mentors to appropriately implement communication and provide support in formal and/or informal mentorship relationships had motivates mentees to improve their self-confident in the respective organizations (DuBois and Neville, 1997; Rayle et al., 2006; Santos and Reigadas, 2005).

The empirical studies support the notion of adult learning theories. For example, Bandura's (1986, 1997) self-confident theory explains that individuals who believe in their capabilities will serve as a self-regulating agent for their behaviour and motivation such as effort, perseverance and resilience to be put on a task. According to the social cognitive view, self-confident is not a static trait, it is dynamic, directly changeable, and is linked to particular performance domains (Bandura, 1986; VanVianen, 1999). Self-confidence beliefs are usually determined and modified by four informational sources: performance attainment (personal accomplishments), vicarious experience (modeling), verbal persuasion, and physiological states and reactions (VanVianen, 1999). Application of these theories in institutions of higher learning shows that the readiness of mentors to appropriately provide meaningful communication and adequate support in formal and/or informal mentorship relationships may lead to enhanced mentees' self-confident in organizations (DuBois and Neville, 1997; Rayle et al., 2006; Santos and Reigadas, 2005) does it was hypothesized that:

H1: There is a positive correlation between communication and mentees' self-confident in performing a task

H2: There is a positive correlation between support and mentees' self-confident in performing a task

4. Methodology

4.1 Research Design

This study used a cross-sectional research design where it allowed the researchers to integrate the mentorship program literature, the pilot study and the actual study as a main procedure to gather its empirical data. Using such methods may gather accurate data, decrease bias and increase quality of data being collected (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, 2000). This study was conducted to assess the relationship between mentorship program and mentees' self-confident in performing a task at a research university in Malaysia. For confidential reasons, the name of the organizations used is kept anonymous. At the initial stage of data collection, the survey questionnaires were drafted based on the information gathered from the mentoring program literature. After that, a back translation technique was employed to translate the survey questionnaires into English and Malay languages in order to increase the validity and ensure the reliability of research findings (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, 2000).

4.2 Participants

The target population of this study is undergraduate students in a research university in Malaysia. A convenient sampling technique was employed to distribute 150 survey questionnaires to undergraduate students in the organization. This sampling technique was chosen because the management of the organizations had not given

the list of undergraduate students and this situation did not allow the researchers to randomly select respondents for this study. From the total number, 136 usable questionnaires from participants were returned to the researchers, yielding 90.7 percent of the response rate. The survey questionnaires were answered by participants based on their consents and on voluntarily basis. The number of this sample exceeds the minimum sample of 30 participants as required by probability sampling technique, showing that it may be analyzed using inferential statistics (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, 2000).

4.3 Measures

The survey questionnaire used in this study had three sections. Firstly, communication was measured using 4 items that were adapted from mentoring communication system literature (Foxon, 1993; Sullivan, 2000; Yamnill & McLean, 2001; Young & Cates, 2005). The elements used to measure communication are knowledge, understanding and information. Secondly, support was measured using 7 items that were adapted from mentoring support system literature (Tsai & Tai, 2003; Chiaburu & Takleab, 2005; Langhout et al., 2004; Rayle et al., 2006; Vieno et al., 2007). The elements used to measure support are motivation, opinion, praise and help. Thirdly, self-confident was measured using 9 items that were adapted from undergraduate student performance literature (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Butler and Winne, 1995; Rayle et al., 2006). The elements used to measure self-confident are belief and confident with the mentoring program. All items used in the questionnaires were measured using a 7-item Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree/dissatisfied” (1) to “strongly agree/satisfied” (7). Demographic variables were used as controlling variables because this study focused on undergraduate business student attitudes.

5. Results

5.1 Sample Profile

The respondents’ characteristics shows that majority of the respondents were female (80.1 percent), their ages varying from 19 to 21 years (73.5 percent), the highest education level amongst the respondents was matriculation certificate (75.0 percent). These respondents were third year students (77.2 percent), studying in the School of Management (54.4 percent), and who achieving CGPA between 3.33 to 3.66 (50.7 percent), and students who study in School of Management (54.4 percent).

5.2 Validity and Reliability Analyses

The confirmatory factor analysis was employed to assess the psychometric of survey questionnaire data. Table 1 shows the results of convergent and discriminant validity analyses. All constructs had the values of average variance extracted (AVE) larger than 0.5, indicating that they met the acceptable standard of convergent validity (Henseler et al., 2009). Besides that, all constructs had the values of AVE square root in diagonal were greater than the squared correlation with other constructs in off diagonal, showing that all constructs met the acceptable standard of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2009; Yang, 2009).

Table 1. The Results of Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analyses.

Variable	AVE	Communication	Support	Self-confident
Communication	0.7997	0.8942		
Support	0.7222	0.57642	0.8498	
Self-confident	0.7348	0.66227	0.7590	0.8572

Table 2 shows the factor loadings and cross loadings for different constructs. The correlation between items and factors had higher loadings than other items in the different constructs, as well as the loadings of variables were greater than 0.7 in their own constructs in the model are considered adequate (Henseler et al., 2009). In sum, the validity of measurement model met the criteria. While, The values of composite reliability and Cronbach’s Alpha were greater than 0.8, indicating that the instrument used in this study had high internal consistency

(Henseler et al., 2009; Nunally & Benstein, 1994). These statistical analyses confirmed that the measurement scales met the acceptable standard of validity and reliability analyses as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The Results of Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings for Different Construct.

Construct/ Item	Cross factor Loading	Composite Reability	Cronbach Alpha
Communication	0.887-0.899	0.941	0.917
Support	0.809-0.875	0.948	0.936
Self-Confident	0.830-0.879	0.961	0.955

5.3 Analysis of Constructs

Table 3 shows that the mean values for the variables are between 5.3 and 5.7, showing that the levels of communication, support and academic performance are ranging from high (4) to highest level (7). The correlation coefficients for the relationship between the independent variable (i.e., communication and support) and the dependent variable (i.e., academic performance) are less than 0.90, showing the data are not affected by serious collinearity problem (Hair et al, 2006).

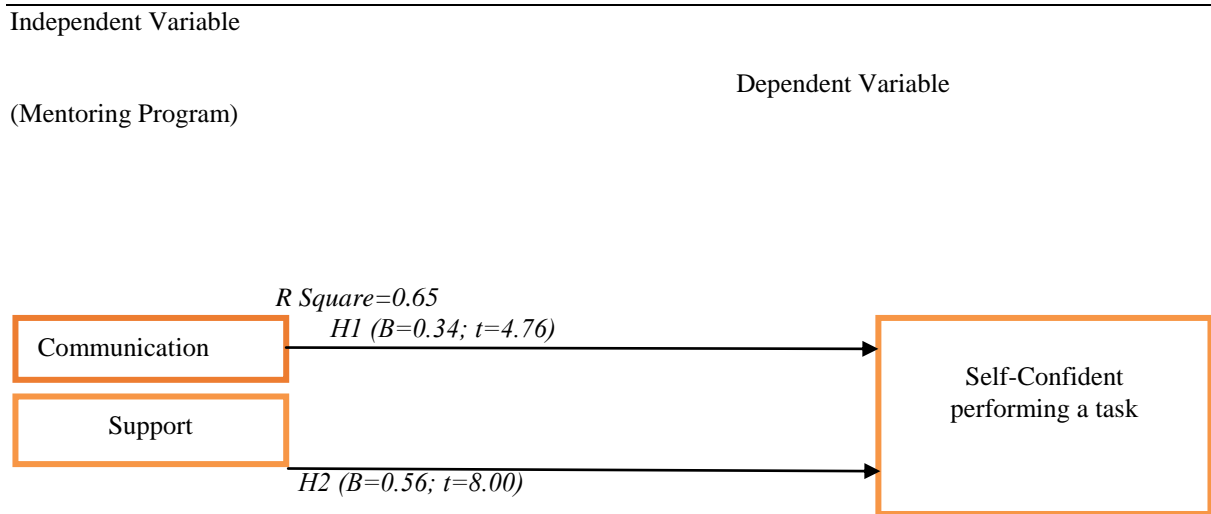
Table 3. Pearson Correlation Analysis and Descriptive Statistics.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Pearson Correlation analysis (r)		
			1	2	4
1. Communication	5.7	.81	1		
2. Support	5.3	.99	.57**	1	
3. Self-Confident	5.6	.87	.66**	.76**	1

Note: Significant at ** $p < 0.01$

5.4 Outcomes of Testing Hypotheses 1 and 2

Figure 1 shows the outcomes of SmartPLS path model for testing the direct effects model. In terms of exploratory of the model, the inclusion of communication and support in the analysis had explained 65 percent of the variance in dependent variable. Specifically, results of testing hypothesis highlighted two important findings: first, communication significantly correlated with self-efficacy ($\beta=0.34$; $t=4.76$), therefore H1 was supported. Second, support significantly correlated with self-efficacy ($\beta=0.56$; $t=8.00$), therefore H2 was supported. In sum, the result confirms that mentoring program does act as an important determinant of mentees' self-efficacy in the organizational sample.



Note: Significant at $t > 1.96$

Figure 1. The Outcomes of SmartPLS Path Model.

In order to determine a global fit PLS path model, we carried out a global fit measure (GoF) based on Wetzels et al.'s (2009) guideline as follows: $GoF = \sqrt{\{MEAN(Communality\ of\ Endogenous) \times MEAN(R^2)\}} = 0.70$, signifying that it exceeds the cut-off value of 0.36 for large effect sizes of R^2 . This result confirms that the PLS path model has better explaining power in comparison with the baseline values (GoF small=0.1, GoF medium=0.25, GoF large=0.36). It also provides strong support to validate the PLS model globally (Wetzel et al., 2009).

6. Discussion and Implications

The findings of this study confirm that mentorship program does act as an important predictor of mentees' self-confident in performing a task in the organization studied. In the context of this study, mentors plan and implement mentorship activities based on the stakeholder's needs and expectations. The majority of the respondents perceived that the levels of communication, support and self-confident is high. This situation explains that the readiness of mentors to properly implement communication and support program has enhanced mentees' self-confident in performing a task in the organization.

This study presents three major implications: theoretical contribution, robustness of research methodology, and practical contribution. In terms of theoretical contribution, the results of this study highlight that communication and support have been important determinants of mentees' self-confident in performing a task. This result is consistent with studies by DuBois and Neville (1997), Santos and Reigadas (2005), Rayle et al. (2006), and Ismail and Ridzwan (2012).

With respect to the robustness of research methodology, the survey questionnaires used in this study have met the acceptable standards of validity and reliability analyses. This may lead to the production of valid and reliable findings. With regards to practical contributions, the findings of this study may be used to improve the design and administration of mentorship programs in institutions of higher learning. Compatible suggestion would be: firstly, update training content and methods for mentors to in order to improve their competencies in teaching, counselling and guiding students who have different ability levels. Secondly, form mentorship groups according to students' academic achievement in order to ease mentors fulfilling their needs and expectations. Thirdly, mentors who have high teaching loads and active in research, but can show high commitment in improving student studies need to be given a high priority in getting better promotions. Fourthly, plan various kinds of learning activities in order to attract students who have different interests and capabilities to be

actively involved in mentorship programs. If these suggestions are given more attention this may motivate mentees to support mentorship program strategy and goals.

7. Conclusion

The study tested a conceptual framework based on the higher education mentorship program research literature. The confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that the instrument used in this study met the acceptable standards of validity and reliability analyses. Thus, the results of SmartPLS path model showed two important findings: first, communication was positively and significantly correlated with mentees' self-confident in performing a task. Second, support was positively and significantly correlated with mentees' self-confident in performing a task. This result confirms that mentorship program does act as an important predictor of mentees' self-confident in the organizational sample. This result also support and broadened mentorship program research literature mostly published in Western countries. Therefore, current research and practice within higher education student development program needs to consider communication and support as fundamental elements in the mentorship program domain. This study further suggests that the readiness of mentors to practice openness communication and provide adequate support will be important factors that may induce subsequent positive mentee outcomes (e.g., commitment, career, psychosocial and ethics). These, positive outcomes may lead to enhanced the performance of higher learning institutions in an area of knowledge.

8. References

- Allen, T. D., & Finkelstein, L. M. (2003). Beyond mentoring: Alternative sources and functions of developmental support. *The Career Development Quarterly* 51, 346-355.
- Allen, T. D., Day, R., & Lentz, E. (2005). The role of interpersonal comfort in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Career Development* 31(3), 155-169.
- Anderson, E. M., & Shannon, A. L. (1988). Toward a conceptualization of mentoring. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 38—42.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, 84(2),191. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bernier, A., Larose, S., & Soucy, N. (2005). Academic mentoring in college: The interactive role of student's and mentor's interpersonal dispositions. *Research in Higher Education* 46(1), 29-51.
- Blanchard, P. N., & Thacker, J. W. (2007). *Effective training: Systems, strategies, and practices* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Byrne, M.W. & Keefe, M. R. (2002). Building research competence in nursing through mentoring. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 34(4), 391-396.
- Campbell, T. A., & Campbell, D. E. (1997). Faculty/student mentor program: Effects on academic performance and retention. *Research in Higher Education* 38(6), 727-742.
- Chin, W.W. (1998). The Partial Least Squares approach to Structural Equation Modelling. In Hoyle, R.H. (eds.) *Statistical Strategies for Small Sample Research* (pp. 307-341). California: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2009). *Organization development & change*, (9th Edition). Masan: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- David L. DuBois and; Helen A. Neville. 1997. Youth mentoring: Investigation of relationship characteristics and perceived benefits. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 25 (3), 227–234
- Davis, D. J. (2007). Access to academe: The importance of mentoring to black students. *Negro Educational Review*, 58(3/4), 217-279.
- Dennison, S. (2000). *A win-win peer mentoring guidebook: A practical manual for designing and managing a mentoring program*. Clemson, SC: National Dropout Prevention Center.

- Fox, A., Stevenson, L., Connelly, P., Duff, A., & Dunlop, A. 2010. Peer-mentoring undergraduate accounting students: The influence on approaches to learning and academic performance. *Active Learning in Higher Education* 11(2), 145-156.
- Foxon, M. (1993). A process approach to the transfer of training: The impact of motivation and supervisor support on transfer maintenance. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology* 9(2), 130-143.
- Friday, E., & Friday, S. S. (2002). Formal mentoring: Is there a strategic fit?. *Management Decision* 40(2), 152-157.
- Gregson, K. 1994. Mentoring. *Employee Counseling Today*, 6(4), 26-27.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall International.
- Hansford, B., & Ehrich, L. C. 2006. The principalship: How significant is mentoring? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 44(1), 36-52.
- Hansford, B., Tennent, L., & Ehrich, L. 2003. Educational mentoring: Is it worth the effort? *Educational Research & Perspectives*, 30(1), 42-75.
- Henseler, J., Christain, M., Ringle, R., & Sinkovics. 2009. The use of Partial Least Square Path modeling in international Marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, 20, 277-319.
- Hornby, A. S. (2005). *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English* (7th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Irving, E. S., Moore, W. D., & Hamilton, R. J. (2003). Mentoring for high ability school students. *Education and Training*, 45(2), 100-109.
- Ismail, A., & Ridzuan, A.A. (2012). Relationship between mentoring program and academic performance. The mediating effect of self-efficacy. *The Proceeding of the 3rd International Conference on Business and Economics Research (ICBER)*, 12-13 March 2012, Indonesia
- Ismail, A., Hasbullah, K., Bakar, R. A., & Boerhanoeddin, A. (2005). Amalan komunikasi dalam program mentoring: Pemindahan pengetahuan, kemahiran dan kebolehan memainkan peranan bersyarat dalam organisasi. *Jurnal Pendidikan*, 93-115.
- Ismail, A., Hasbullah, K., Bakar, R. A., Ahmad, R., & Junoh, A. M. (2006). Pemindahan pengetahuan, kemahiran dan kebolehan mempengaruhi kesan amalan komunikasi antara mentor dan mentee: Satu kajian di sebuah institusi pengajian tinggi awam di Malaysia Timur. *Jurnal Kemusiaan*, 7, 33-55.
- Johnson, S. K., Geroy, G. D., & Griego, O. V. (1991). The mentoring model theory: Dimensions in mentoring protocols. *Career Development International*, 4 (7), 384-391.
- Kozlowski, S., Gully, S., Brown, K., Salas, E., Smith, E., & Nason, E. (2001). Effects of training goals and goal orientation traits on multidimensional training outcomes and performance adaptability. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 85, 1-31.
- Little, C. A., Kearney, K. L., & Britner, P. A. (2010). Students' self-concept and perceptions of mentoring relationships in a summer mentorship program for talented adolescent. *Roeper Review*, 32, 189-199.
- Ljungberg, I., Kroll, T., Libin, A. & Gordon, S. (2011). Using peer mentoring for people with spinal cord injury to enhance self-efficacy beliefs and prevent medical complications. *Journal of clinical nursing*, 20, 351-358.
- Long, S. (2002). Mentoring: A personal reflection. *New Library World*, 103(1174), 94-97.
- Lyness, K. S., & Thompson, D. E. (2000). Climbing the corporate ladder: Do female and male executives follow the same route? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(1), 86-101.
- Lynes, M. (2013). Effect of Teacher Mentoring Programme in Malaysia on Improving Teachers' Self-Efficacy. *Malaysian Journal Of ELT Research*, 9(1), 1-18.
- Merriam, S. (1993). Mentors and protégés: A critical review of the literature. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 33(3), 161-173.
- Mohono-Mahlatsi, L. & Tonder, F. (2006). The effectiveness of mentoring in the Distance Teacher Education Programme at the Lesotho College of Education: Student teachers' and tutors' perceptions. *South African Journal of Education, EASA*. 26(3), pp. 383-396.
- Noe, R. A., Greenberger, D. B., & Wang, S. (2002). *Mentoring: What we know and where we might go*. New York: Elsevier Science.
- Oliver, C., & Aggleton, P. (2002). Mentoring for professional development in health promotion: A review of issues raised by recent research. *Health Education*, 102(1), 30-38.
- Rayle, A. D., Kurpius, S. E. R., & Arredondo, P. (2006). Relationship of self-beliefs, social support, and university comfort with the academic success of freshman college women. *J. College Student Retention*, 8(3), 325-343.

-
- Riggle, R., Edmondson, D., & Hansen, J. (2009). A Meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 Years of Research. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(10), 1027-1030.
- Riley, S., & Wrench, D. (1985). Mentoring among women lawyers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 15(4), 374-386.
- Russell, J. E. A., & Adams, D. M. (1997). The changing nature of mentoring in organizations: An introduction to the special issue on mentoring in organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51, 1-14.
- Santos, S. J. & Reigadas, E. T. (2002). Latinos in higher education: an evaluation of university faculty mentoring program. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, 1(1), 40-50.
- Santos, S. J., & Reigadas, E. T. (2005). Understanding the student-faculty mentoring process: Its effect on at-risk university students. *J. College Student Retention*, 6(3), 337-357.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Stewart, J., & Knowles, V. (2003). Mentoring in undergraduate business management programmes. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 27/2(3/4), 147-159.
- Sullivan, R. (2000). Entrepreneurial learning and mentoring. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*, 6(3), 160-175.
- Tammy D. Allen and; Kimberly E. O'Brien. 2006. Formal mentoring programs and organizational attraction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 17 (1), 43–58.
- Tennenbaum, H. R., Crosby, F. J., & Gliner, M. D. (2001). Mentoring relationships in graduate school. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 59, 326-341.
- Tsai, W. C & Tai, W. T. (2003). Perceived importance as a mediator of the relationship between training assignment and training motivation. *Personal Review*, 31(2), 151-163.
- Vieno, A., Santinello, M., Pastore, M., & Perkins, D. D. (2007). Social support, sense of community in school, and self-efficacy as resources during early adolescence: An integrative model. *Am J Community Psychol*, 39, 177-190.
- VanVianen, A. E. M. (1999). Managerial self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and work-role salience as determinants of ambition for a managerial position. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(3), 639–665.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Wanguri, D. M. (1996). Diversity, perceptions of equity, and communicative openness in the workplace. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 33(4), 443-457.
- Wetzel, C.M. Kneebone, R.L., Woloshynowych, H., Moorthy, K., & Darsy, A.D. (2006). The effects of stress on surgical performance. *The American Journal of Surgery*, 191(1), 5-10.
- Wood, R. and Bandura, A. (1989). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56, 407-415.
- Yamhill, S. & McLean, G. N. (2001). Theories Supporting Transfer of Training. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12, 195-208.
- Yang, Z. (2009). A study of corporate reputation's influence on customer loyalty based on PLS-SEM model. *International Business Research*, 2(3), 28-35.
- Young, R. W., & Cates, C. M. (2005). Playful communication in mentoring. *College Student Journal*, 39(4), 692-701.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2000). *Business research methods*, 6th Edition. Chicago: The Dryden Press.
- Zuraidah, A. R., Zaiton, H., Masiniah, M., Jamayah, S., Sabasiah, H., & Abdul Halim, B. (2004). *Pengenalan mentoring di Institusi Pengajian Tinggi*. Kuala Lumpur: IBS.

Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank, Kuala Lumpur

Norhani Bakri dan Nur Farah Hanee Rosli

Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, 81310, Johor

E mel : nhani_b@yahoo.com, fara_h92@ymail.com

ABSTRAK Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dalam kalangan pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank, Kuala Lumpur. Ianya dilakukan dengan meneliti hubungan antara faktor-faktor ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi dengan tahap penguasaan HRIS. Kajian ini melibatkan 80 orang pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank di Kuala Lumpur. Data dianalisis dengan menggunakan kaedah analisis deskriptif iaitu taburan kekerapan dan peratusan bagi julat skor min dan kaedah analisis inferensi iaitu ujian-t, ANOVA serta korelasi Pearson melalui program *Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 16.0*. Pekerja Standard Chartered. Analisis hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa ketiga-tiga faktor ini berhubung kait secara sederhana dan positif ($r=0.567$) terhadap tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS).

Kata Kunci: Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS), Ciri-ciri Individu, Teknologi, Persekitaran Organisasi, Tahap Penguasaan

1. PENDAHULUAN

Pengurusan rekod dalam bidang sumber manusia telah berlaku sejak awal tahun 1940-an dengan melibatkan aktiviti seperti menyimpan nama, alamat, nombor telefon dan sejarah pekerjaan pekerja, terutamanya bagi yang terlibat sewaktu Perang Dunia Kedua. Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) telah diperkenalkan di General Electric, Amerika Syarikat buat pertama kalinya di sekitar tahun 1950-an (Brown, 2007). Kewujudan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) ketika itu hanya menggunakan istilah kakitangan (*personnel*) (Society For Human Resource Management). Bermula pada tahun 1980-an Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) telah digunakan di jabatan-jabatan Sumber Manusia (HR) secara meluas.

Walau bagaimanapun, hanya baru-baru ini penggunaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) telah diubah untuk memainkan peranan yang lebih strategik dalam menyokong kakitangan Sumber Manusia

(HR). Ini berlaku disebabkan oleh peningkatan fungsi dan aplikasi mereka dalam pengurusan sesebuah organisasi (Mabey, *et. al.*, 2000). Sebagai contoh, sesebuah organisasi hanya menggunakan e-dokumen (*e-filing*) iaitu perisian yang terdapat maklumat pekerja tetapi perisian lain seperti e-cuti (*e-leave*) iaitu perisian secara talian yang harus diisi sekiranya pekerja ingin cuti masih belum sepenuhnya diaplikasikan. Razali dan Vrontis (2010), menyatakan bahawa terdapat enam faktor yang membolehkan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dapat digunakan dengan lancar dalam sesebuah organisasi iaitu penglibatan pengurusan tertinggi, komitmen organisasi, iklim organisasi (ganjaran, kehangatan, sokongan), sokongan penyeliaan, persekitaran dan kebebasan penglibatan, dan kepuasan kerja.

Peranan Sumber Manusia (HR) yang dahulunya kurang penting kini mendapat status dalam organisasi malah mempunyai nilai tambah dan keunikan mereka tersendiri dengan membantu memberikan sokongan strategik kepada organisasi (Robinson, 1999). Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) sedang berkembang pesat secara global mahupun tempatan dan kini sudah mula digunakan bukan sahaja oleh organisasi-organisasi besar (Ball, 2001) tetapi juga oleh organisasi-organisasi kecil malahan lebih baik berbanding organisasi-organisasi besar (Hussain, *et. al.*, 2007). Di Uganda, Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) sedang diperkukuhkan di dalam bidang kesihatan dengan melaksanakan 'Lima Langkah Proses Pengukuhan Sistem Sumber Manusia (HRIS)' dalam menjejaki dan menyimpan data pekerja (Spero, *et. al.*, 2011).

Walaupun sejarah perkembangan sistem maklumat pengurusan bermula di negara Barat, terutama di Amerika Syarikat, negara kita tidak ketinggalan daripada arus perdana ini (Sulaiman, *et. al.*, 2002). Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Malaysia melibatkan sektor awam dan juga swasta. Sebagai contoh, di sektor swasta, bidang penerbangan iaitu Malaysia Airlines (MAS) telah mengubah proses pengurusan daripada berkonsepkan kertas dan kabinet (*paper-based process*) kepada perkomputeran dan dokumen (*computer-based process*). Proses ini telah berlanjutan kepada penggunaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) yang sehingga sekarang masih digunakan. Ianya bukan sahaja menjimatkan masa malahan dapat meningkatkan kualiti perkhidmatan yang diberikan (Vrontis, *et. al.*, 2010). Di sektor awam pula, e-kerajaan (*e-government*) merupakan salah satu Sistem Maklumat Awam Malaysia (MPIS) yang telah diwujudkan oleh kerajaan bagi memudahkan rakyat dalam melakukan urusan rasmi seharian (Masrek, 2009).

2. KAJIAN LITERATUR

Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)

Tannenbaum (1990) mendefinisikan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) sebagai sebuah sistem yang digunakan untuk memperoleh, menyimpan, memanipulasi, menganalisis, mendapatkan semula, dan menyebarkan maklumat mengenai aktiviti organisasi sumber manusia. Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia

(HRIS) juga boleh ditakrifkan sebagai gabungan antara pangkalan data, aplikasi komputer, dan perkakasan serta perisian yang perlu untuk mengumpul rekod, menyimpan, mengurus, menyampaikan, dan memanipulasi data bagi Sumber Manusia (HR) (Broderick dan Boudreau, 1992). Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) juga boleh ditakrifkan sebagai sistem bersepadu yang digunakan untuk mengumpul, menyimpan dan menganalisis maklumat mengenai aktiviti organisasi Sumber Manusia (HR) (Hendrickson, 2003). Gibson (2009), Kamus Perniagaan (*Business Dictionary*) memberi maksud Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS).

Sebagai satu sistem yang bertujuan untuk menggabungkan aktiviti yang berkaitan dengan Pengurusan Sumber Manusia (HRM) dan Teknologi Maklumat (IT) ke dalam satu pangkalan data yang sama melalui penggunaan perisian. Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) digunakan bagi membangunkan dan membawa sistem maklumat ke arah memenuhi organisasi data automasi, rekod dan keperluan pengurusan maklumat. Ia adalah kepada pembinaan sistem bersepadu bagi pentadbiran dan penggunaan maklumat Sumber Manusia (HR) strategik, program dan perkhidmatan. Salah satu objektif utama Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) adalah untuk meningkatkan kapasiti Pengurusan Sumber Manusia (HRM) untuk memberi kuasa dan mengasimilasikan teknologi yang baru muncul; menyelaraskan aliran kerja; memaksimumkan ketepatan, kebolehpercayaan, dan kesahihan data tenaga kerja serta memudahkan penempatan dan pengumpulan data dan maklumat untuk meningkatkan prestasi pekerja. Oleh itu, keupayaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) adalah penting untuk penggunaan organisasi di samping membangunkan, mengekalkan dan juga meningkatkan kerja, prestasi dan konteks tugas pekerja.

3. MATLAMAT KAJIAN

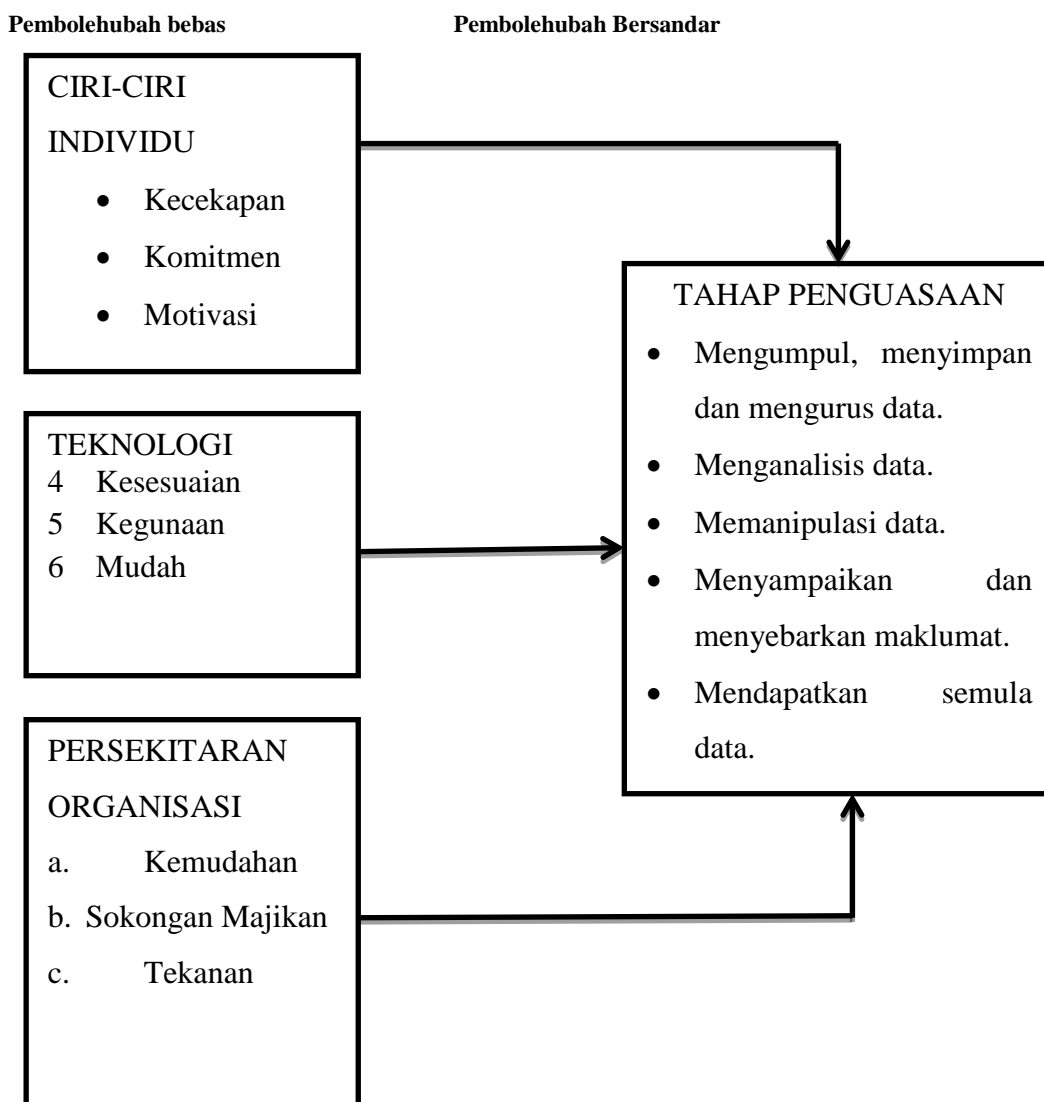
Kajian ini bertujuan untuk memberi gambaran kepada Standard Chartered Bank akan tahap penguasaan para pekerja dalam menggunakan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) terhadap kerja mereka. Ianya diharapkan dapat membantu organisasi dalam menghasilkan pekerja-pekerja yang berpengetahuan, berkemahiran serta mampu untuk menguasai sesuatu sistem dalam organisasi bagi menghasilkan pekerja yang lebih kompeten dalam mengharungi persaingan di era globalisasi ini.

Objektif Kajian

- i. Mengenal pasti tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank, Kuala Lumpur.
- ii. Mengkaji sama ada terdapat perbezaan dari segi tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) berdasarkan faktor demografi seperti jantina, jenis pekerjaan dan tempoh perkhidmatan pekerja.
- iii. Mengenal pasti hubungan antara faktor-faktor ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi dengan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank.

Kerangka Kajian

Kerangka kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi sebagai pembolehubah bebas manakala tahap penguasaan sebagai pembolehubah bersandar. Elemen-elemen dalam ciri-ciri individu meliputi kecekapan, komitmen dan motivasi seseorang individu dalam menguasai Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Teknologi pula dikaji berdasarkan kesesuaian, kegunaan dan teknologi yang mudah yang diperlukan dalam menguasai Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Persekitaran organisasi pula dilihat dari segi kemudahan yang disediakan, sokongan majikan dan tekanan yang dihadapi dalam menguasai Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pula dilihat dari segi mengumpul, menyimpan dan mengurus data, menganalisis data, memanipulasi data, menyampaikan dan menyebarkan maklum



Rajah 1: Kerangka Kajian

4. METODOLOGI KAJIAN

Rekabentuk Kajian

Kajian berbentuk tinjauan ini menggunakan soal selidik sebagai instrumen untuk mendapatkan maklumat bagi meneliti tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dalam kalangan pekerja Standard Chartered Bank. Pembolehubah bebas yang diukur dalam kajian ini ialah faktor-faktor yang berkaitan dengan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Faktor-faktor yang terlibat ialah ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi. Penetapan kajian ialah sejauh mana gangguan pengkaji dengan kajian.

Populasi dan Sampel Kajian

Kajian ini melibatkan semua jabatan yang terdapat dalam Standard Chartered Bank, Kuala Lumpur. Oleh itu, populasi yang ingin dikaji adalah 100 responden yang terlibat dalam penggunaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank. Saiz sampel ditentukan berdasarkan populasi sampel berpandukan jadual Krejcie dan Morgan (1970). Borang soal selidik yang diedarkan adalah sebanyak 100 keping dan hanya 80 keping dikembalikan untuk di analisis. Jenis persampelan yang digunakan adalah persampelan tidak kebarangkalian (*non-probability*) iaitu teknik persampelan yang ada tujuan (*purposive sampling*) kerana data yang dikumpul adalah berdasarkan pekerja yang menggunakan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di tempat kerja.

Responden kajian ini adalah terdiri dari pekerja-pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank yang menggunakan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dalam kerja mereka dan terdiri daripada pelbagai faktor demografi. Ini adalah penting untuk dilakukan untuk mengkaji Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dan terangkan perbezaan di antara mereka. Kajian ini akan dilakukan hanya pada satu masa dan data akan dikumpul pada masa yang sama tanpa perlu mengumpul banyak kali. Dalam kes ini, data yang akan dikutip daripada pekerja-pekerja pada satu masa iaitu dalam satu hari untuk soal selidik dan pengumpulan semula kertas soal selidik yang akan dilakukan oleh pengkaji sendiri di Standard Chartered Bank.

3. DAPATAN KAJIAN

Objektif 1: Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan responden adalah positif ke arah usaha meningkatkan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) dengan meningkatkan tahap kemahiran di dalam setiap dimensi Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di tempat kerja. Hasil dapatan kajian yang ditunjukkan sejajar dengan kajian yang lepas dibuat di dalam mahupun di luar negara. Ini dapat dibuktikan menerusi kajian Gibson (2009) yang menyatakan bahawa Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) boleh dikuasai apabila adanya kemahiran dalam sistem yang bertujuan untuk menggabungkan aktiviti yang berkaitan dengan Pengurusan Sumber Manusia (HRM) dan Teknologi Maklumat (IT) ke dalam satu pangkalan data yang sama melalui penggunaan perisian. Oleh itu, Standard Chartered Bank sebagai sebuah organisasi swasta yang besar perlu memastikan setiap pekerjanya diberi kemahiran yang secukupnya bagi meningkatkan tahap penguasaan Sistem

Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) agar mereka dapat mempersiapkan diri dalam melaksanakan tugas yang diberikan serta meningkatkan prestasi kerja.

Jadual 1 : Analisis Keseluruhan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)

Dimensi	Rendah	Sederhana	Tinggi	Min	Sisihan Piawai
	1.00-2.33	2.34-3.66	3.67-5.00		
Mengumpul, Menyimpan dan Mengurus Data	2 (2.4%)	13 (16.1%)	65 (81.5%)	4.01	0.60
Menganalisis Data	4 (4.9%)	21 (26.2%)	55 (68.9%)	3.88	0.67
Memanipulasi Data	12 (14.8%)	27 (33.7%)	41 (51.5%)	3.36	0.94
Menyampaikan dan Menyebarkan Maklumat	3 (3.8%)	13 (16.2%)	64 (80.0%)	3.94	0.66
Mendapatkan Semula Data	6 (7.5%)	34 (42.6%)	40 (49.9%)	3.57	0.77
Jumlah				3.75	0.58

Objektif 2: Perbezaan dari segi Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) berdasarkan Faktor Demografi seperti Jantina, Tahap Pendidikan dan Tempoh Perkhidmatan di Standard Chartered Bank

Keputusan kajian ini mendapati bahawa tidak terdapat perbezaan signifikan di antara ciri-ciri demografi iaitu jantina, tahap pendidikan dan tempoh perkhidmatan responden di Standard Chartered Bank. Cawangan Kuala Lumpur. Keadaan ini menunjukkan ciri-ciri demografi tidak memberi kesan terhadap tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) responden di tempat kerja. Dapatan kajian ini juga disokong oleh dapatan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Lippert dan Swiercz (2005) melalui hasil penyelidikannya mengatakan bahawa faktor manusia seperti penyesuaian pengguna, penerimaan, latihan dan sokongan adalah penting berbanding dengan aspek teknikal proses pelaksanaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS).

Jadual 2 : Analisis Perbezaan di antara Jantina Responden dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)

Jantina	Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)				
	Ujian-T				
	Kekerapan	Min	t	df	Sig.
Lelaki	33	3.704	- 0.597	78	0.552
Perempuan	47	3.7838			

Nota: ** Sig. = Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Jadual 3 : Analisis Perbezaan di antara Tahap Pendidikan dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)

Tahap Pendidikan	Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)				
	ANOVA				
	Jumlah Kuasa Dua	df	Min Kuasa Dua	F	Sig.
Antara Kumpulan	0.435	4	0.109	0.307	0.873
Dalam Kumpulan	26.554	75	0.354		
Jumlah	26.989	79			

Nota: ** Sig. = Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Jadual 4 : Analisis Perbezaan di antara Tempoh Perkhidmatan dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)

Tempoh Perkhidmatan	Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)				
	ANOVA				
	Jumlah Kuasa Dua	df	Min Kuasa Dua	F	Sig.
Antara Kumpulan	1.896	3	0.632	1.915	0.134
Dalam Kumpulan	25.092	76	0.330		
Jumlah	26.989	79			

Nota: ** Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Objektif 3: Hubungan antara Faktor-faktor: Ciri-ciri Individu, Teknologi dan Persekitaran Organisasi dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) di Standard Chartered Bank

Analisis korelasi Pearson ini menunjukkan hubungan di antara faktor-faktor; ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi dengan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank ini wujudnya hubungan yang sederhana dan signifikan kepada ketiga-tiga faktor yang berkaitan. Ini merangkumi dan dipengaruhi oleh setiap dimensi yang terdapat dalam ketiga-tiga faktor berkenaan. Ini juga membuktikan bahawa terdapat hubungan yang positif di mana sekiranya salah satu faktor itu meningkat maka tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja juga akan meningkat.

Jadual 5 : Tahap Korelasi antara Faktor Ciri-ciri Individu dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank

Pembolehubah Bebas / Pembolehubah Bersandar	r	Sig.	n
Faktor Ciri-ciri Individu dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)	0.528**	0.000	80

Nota: ** Sig. = Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Jadual 6 : Tahap Korelasi antara Faktor Teknologi dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank

Pembolehubah Bebas / Pembolehubah Bersandar	r	Sig.	n
Faktor Teknologi dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)	0.480**	0.000	80

Nota: ** Sig. = Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Jadual 7 : Tahap Korelasi antara Faktor Persekitaran Organisasi dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja di Standard Chartered Bank

Pembolehubah Bebas / Pembolehubah Bersandar	r	Sig.	n
Faktor Persekitaran Organisasi dengan Tahap Penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS)	0.556**	0.000	80

Nota: ** Sig. = Signifikan pada tahap 0.05

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa faktor persekitaran organisasi merupakan faktor yang mempunyai hubungan yang paling kuat dengan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) diikuti oleh faktor ciri-ciri individu dan kemudian faktor teknologi. Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Ini disokong oleh DeLone dan McLean (2003), yang mengatakan faktor teknologi, faktor organisasi dan juga faktor pengguna merupakan pengaruh penting terhadap pelaksanaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS).

Terdapat tiga dimensi di dalam faktor persekitaran organisasi yang mendorong kepada wujudnya hubungan sederhana dan signifikan. Dimensi tersebut adalah kemudahan yang disediakan, sokongan majikan dan tekanan yang dihadapi dalam penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS). Dimensi kemudahan yang disediakan menunjukkan nilai min yang paling tinggi di antara ketiga-tiga dimensi. Ini memperlihatkan bahawa kemudahan-kemudahan yang disediakan oleh organisasi amat diperlukan oleh setiap individu berikutan ini dapat menyempurnakan tugas harian pekerja dengan lebih efektif dan efisien. Kemudahan ini termasuklah kemudahan teknologi, peralatan dan kemudahan harian pekerja. Kemudahan ini berkait rapat dengan peredaran zaman pada hari ini yang menuntut setiap pekerja peka terhadap semua perkara. Dalam aspek penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS), kemudahan ini membantu pekerja mengaplikasikan kemahiran Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) ke tempat kerja yang sebenar.

4. RUMUSAN

Secara keseluruhannya, boleh dirumuskan bahawa, tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) tidak boleh berlaku secara semulajadi. Keberkesanan tahap penguasaan Sistem Maklumat Sumber Manusia (HRIS) pekerja disesebuah organisasi tidak akan dapat dicapai tanpa disokong dengan penyediaan kemudahan teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi yang baik oleh pihak majikan. Tahap penguasaan yang tinggi akan tercapai sekiranya wujud daya usaha yang berterusan bukan sahaja daripada pekerja malahan organisasi. Secara positifnya, melalui kajian ini, ia dapat memberi gambaran yang jelas kepada pekerja dan organisasi untuk memperbaiki segala

kelemahan dan kekurangan yang ada. Kajian ini membuktikan bahawa faktor-faktor yang berkaitan seperti ciri-ciri individu, teknologi dan persekitaran organisasi mempunyai perkaitan dengan tahap penguasaan HRIS dalam kalangan pekerja dengan adanya semangat toleransi , persefahaman, kerjasama serta rasa tanggungjawab yang tinggi di antara pekerja dan organisasi.

5. BIBLIOGRAFI

- Ball, K. S. (2001). The Use of Human Resource Information Systems: A Survey. *Personnel Review*. 30(6), 677–693. University Press.
- Brown, W., Stouffer, R. dan Hardee, K. (2007). *Data Quality Assurance Tool for Program-Level Indicators*. University of North Carolina: Chapel Hill.
- Gibson, K., (2009). BusinessDictionary.com. *Reference Reviews*. 23(2), 25–26. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Hendrickson, A. R. (2003). Human Resource Information Systems: Backbone Technology of Contemporary Human Resources. *Journal of Labor Research*. 24(3), 381-394.
- Hussain, Z., Wallace, J., dan Cornelius, N.E. (2007). The Use and Impact of Human Resource Information Systems on Human Resource Management Professionals. *Journal of Information and Management*. 44(1), 74-89.
- Krejcie, R. V. dan Morgan, D. V. (1970). *Determining Sample Size for Research Activities*. Educational and Psychological Measurement. 30, 607-610.
- Lippert, S. K. dan Swiercz, P. M. (2005). Human Resource Information Systems (HRIS) and Technology Trust. *Journal of Information Science*. 31(5), 340-353. Sage Publications.
- Mabey, C., Salaman, G. dan Storey, J. (2000). *Human Resource Management: A Strategic Introduction*. 2nd edition.
- Masrek, M. N. (2009). Reinventing Public Service Delivery: The Case Of Public Information Systems Implementation In Malaysia. *International Journal of Public Information Systems*. 1, 9-15.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H. dan Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An Integrative Model of Organizational Trust. *Academy of Management Review*. 709-734.
- Razali, M. Z. dan Vrontis, D. (2010). The Reactions of Employees toward the Implementation of Human Resources Information Systems (HRIS) as a Planned Change Program: A Case Study in Malaysia. *Journal of Transnational Management*. 15(3), 229-245.
- Robinson. (1999). *HR Information Systems Audit*. Cambridge Strategy Publications.
- Sulaiman, A., Zakaria, S. B. dan Yahaya, S. R. (2002). *Pengurusan Sistem Maklumat*. Edisi Keenam. Universiti Malaya. Prentice Hall. 102-126.
- Tannennbaum, S. I. (1990). HRIS: User Group Implications. *Journal of System Management*. 41(1), 27-32.
- Vrontis, D., Thrassou, A. dan Razali, M. Z. (2010). Internal Marketing as an Agent of Change - Implementing a New Human Resource Information System for Malaysian Airlines. *Journal of General Management*. 36(1), 21-42. The Braybrooke Press Limited

Influence of Work-Life Balance towards Level of Job Satisfaction among Research Academics in Malaysia

Siti Khadijah Zainal Badri¹ and Siti Aisyah Panatik²

^{1&2}Faculty of Management,
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
81300 Skudai, Johor

¹skhadijahzbadri89@gmail.com, ²sitiasiyah@fppsm.utm.my

Abstract Malaysian Research University academics often exposed to the issues of work-life balance. Work-life balance is suggested as one of potential factor which contribute to the level of job satisfaction among academics. Imbalance between work and life may cause low level of job satisfaction while balance will trigger high level of job satisfaction. This paper aims to foresee the effect of work-life balance towards job satisfaction among academicians in Malaysia. This study is a preliminary study which utilized a survey method to gather the data. A total of 97 respondents were participated in this preliminary study which gathered thru online survey. PASW 18 was executed to analyze the data. Correlation was used to identify relationship between work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict towards job satisfaction. While regression was executed to identify the effect of work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict towards job satisfaction. Result had indicated that work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict significantly influence job satisfaction. In this paper, the researchers discuss the preliminary result of this study and how this study contributes to the knowledge enhancement in area of work-life balance in academia setting

Keywords: Work-to-family Enrichment, Work-to-family Conflict, Job Satisfaction

1. Introduction

For decades, work and life balance had been recognized as significant factor which contributes to the experience of workers job satisfaction. According to Perrons (2003), work-life balance not only essential to health and well-being of individuals, yet it is cost-efficient and stability-enhancing for institutions and work-environments. When a person feeling balance, they will perform better in work environment thus increases productivity of the organization. Among professional that been widely linked with issue work-life balance is university academics in Malaysia. As been highlighted by Panatik and friends (2012), challenging job in university setting had affected work-life balance of the academics population in Malaysia causing them to experience higher level of stress. Consequently, Panatik *et. al.*, (2012) in more detail report had revealed association of high level of stress with lower level of job satisfaction among the academics. Therefore, the sole aim in this paper is to investigate on how work-life balance affecting job satisfaction among research university academics in Malaysia.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Work-life balance

In the 20th century, there is arising concern on work-life balance issue in the realm of organisational study. This concern begun when numbers of dual-earner couple was arisen (Aminah,1996).Dual-earner couple is a situation referring to marriage in which both partners

pursue occupational career. The shifting to the pattern of dual-earner couple causing different perspective of marriage role unlike traditional viewpoint of the marriage. Recent statistics of Malaysian workforce distribution shows a constant increase in ration of working men and men with 6:4 (Department of Statistics Malaysia,2013). This means that nowadays couple practicing equal participation in both maintaining family role and economy in both gender. As participation was equally distributed there were arising problem of the balance between work and life. That is, imbalance between work and life triggers work-to-family conflict. Work-to-family conflict is a conflict where imbalance caused from work domain interfering family domain (Greenhaus and Beutell,1985). Too much workload,overspent time in workplace and emotionally drained are few examples of work-to-family situation which can triggers work-to-family conflict. However,those who successfully maintain both work and family will encounter with work-to-family enrichment. Work-to-family enrichment is a situation where participation in work domain helps individual to sustain in family domain (Greenhaus and Powell,2006). The concept of work-to-family enrichment is totally opposite with work-to-family conflict which it enlighten on how works bring constructive effects towards family rather than destructive it. That is, positive situation which encounters when work participation helps to enhance quality in family participation.

2.2 Job satisfaction and work-life balance

As issue of work-life balance kept arisen, it has been constantly discussed within the organisational context. Work-life balance said have affect to various organisational outcome and work-related attitude such as job satisfaction (Zulfiqar *et al.*,2013). Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which a person believes that his/her work give significant impact on a personal well-being and satisfaction of employee's life (Spector,1997). It is a part of organisational commitment component which is important to develop positive work-environment in the organisation (Kovach,1977). According to Jijena Michel and Jijena Michel (2012) job satisfaction function as evidence-based approach that is pre-requisite to trigger positive changes in institution or university. Panatik *et al.*(2012), suggested that work-to-family had significant negative relationship with work-to-family conflict among academics in Malaysia. That is, the increasing level of work-to-family conflict decreases level of job satisfaction among the academics. In their study, they suggested that perhaps stress from conflicting events from work causing academics to poorly perform in family which in turn reducing the level of job satisfaction among them. Anafarta (2011) supported this statement by his research which found that when work causing difficulties in fulfilling family responsibilities, individual will have lower satisfaction from work. Therefore, we have come out with the first and second hypotheses that:

H1: There is negative relationship between work-to-family conflict and job satisfaction among Research University academics in Malaysia

H2: Work-to-family conflict have effect towards job satisfaction among Research University academics in Malaysia.

Meanwhile, efforts have been made to investigate the positive impact work-life balance of work-to-family enrichment. Unlike work-to-family conflict, work-to-family enrichment was found to be more familiar with positive organisational consequences. Previous researchers had postulated that work-to-family enrichment was associated with positive work-related attitude. For instance, Jijena Mivheal and Jijena Mivheal (2012) had found that work-to-family enrichment was positively associated with job satisfaction among academics in Economics and Finance Faculty of Juan Misael Saracho Autonomous University. They highlighted that work-to-family enrichment can be a potential tool in promoting improvements in job satisfaction among academics. This has been supported by Swee Fung, Ahmad and Omar (2014) research which found that high level of work-to-family enrichment helps increases level of job satisfaction among teacher in secondary school in Bangsar Zone, Malaysia. Their findings suggested that good working condition promoting higher level of work-to-family enrichment which in turn increases teachers level of job satisfaction. Therefore, from the literature we have come out with the third and fourth hypotheses which are:

H3: There is positive relationship between work-to-family enrichment and job satisfaction among Research University academics in Malaysia.

H4: Work-to-family enrichment effect towards job satisfaction among Research University academics in Malaysia.

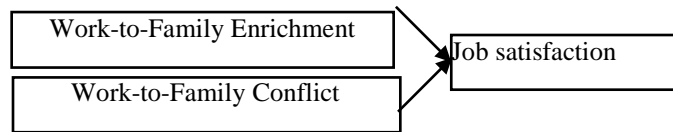


Fig. 1- Model of the study

3. Methodology

3.1 Sample and procedure

This paper is a preliminary study which had been executed via survey method. Data had been collected using online survey with total of 77 participating respondent. All the data were administered using self-administered questionnaire which had been distributed via online google document.

3.2 Measurement

Work-to-family conflict had been measured using nine items questionnaire of Carlson *et al.* (2006). It consists of three sub-domains which are development, affects and capital. Example of the item is “Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member”. The items were scored with 5 point Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree until 5=strongly agree. The previous reported Cronbach Alpha values of the instrument are 0.84 which considered good (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007).

Work-to-family enrichment had been measured by nine items of work-family conflict scale by Carlson *et al.*, (2000) since it reported to have less sampling bias as it had been tested across five types of population (Carlson *et al.*, 2000). All items were rated using 5-point Likert scale from 1=strongly disagree until 5=strongly agree. Examples of the question are “*The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home*”

Job satisfaction had been measured by eight items of Michigan Organizational Assessment (MOAQ) of Job Satisfaction subscale (JSS). JSS reported to have good psychometric properties where it had good overall validity (Bowling & Hammond, 2008). Examples of JSS items are “*Regarding your work in general. How pleased you with the people you work with?*” and “*Regarding your work in general. How pleased you with the way your department is run?*” Answer was rated with 5-point Likert scale start from 1=very satisfied, 2=satisfied, 3=unsatisfied, 4=highly unsatisfied and 5=not relevant.

3.3 Data analysis

All data were analyzed using descriptive statistical correlational and inferential statistical analysis using PASW18.

4. Result

Correlational analysis in table 1 shows work-to-family conflict have weak negative relationship with job satisfaction ($p < 0.01, r = -0.325$). It is shows that higher level of work-to-

Table 1-Correlation of the variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Overall work-to-family enrichment	-	.879**	.918**	.901**	-.631**	-.461**	-.607**	-.561**	.463**
2. Work-to-family enrichment development	.879**	-	.685**	.702**	-.474**	-.358**	-.447**	-.420**	.365**
3. Work-to-family enrichment affect	.918**	.685**	-	.756**	-.671**	-.497**	-.661**	-.570**	.442**
4. Work-to-family enrichment capital	.901**	.702**	.756**	-	-.539**	-.372**	-.507**	-.515**	.441**
5. Overall work-to-family conflict	-.631**	-.474**	-.671**	-.539**	-	.884**	.878**	.816**	-.325**
6. Work-to-family conflict time based	-.461**	-.358**	-.497**	-.372**	.884**	-	.673**	.602**	-.380**
7. Work-to-family conflict strain based	-.607**	-.447**	-.661**	-.507**	.878**	.673**	-	.553**	-.185
8. Work-to-family conflict behavioral	-.561**	-.420**	-.570**	-.515**	.816**	.602**	.553**	-	-.286**
9. Job satisfaction	.463**	.365**	.442**	.441**	-.325**	-.380**	-.185	-.286**	-

Notes: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

family conflict decreases level of job satisfaction among research university academics in Malaysia. Therefore, hypotheses H1 is accepted. In specific, time-based work-to-family conflict shows highest correlation with job satisfaction ($p < 0.01, r = -0.380$). While, behavioural based work-to-family conflict shows weak relationship with job satisfaction with $p < 0.01, r = -0.286$. Meanwhile, it is found that work-to-family enrichment has a positive moderate relationship with job satisfaction ($p < 0.01, r = 0.463$). The result indicates that higher level of work-to-family enrichment contributing to the increasing level of job satisfaction among research university academics in Malaysia. Therefore, hypotheses H3 is accepted in this study. Specifically, it is found that affect ($p < 0.01, r = 0.442$) dimension of work-to-family enrichment score higher correlation with job satisfaction compare to development and capital dimension.

Table 2 below shows the result of regression analysis. Result shows that overall work-life balance is significantly related with job satisfaction. In specific, result indicates that all the work-life balance variables and dimensions explained 34 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. This means that both work-to-family conflict and enrichment explained the occurrence of job satisfaction with 34 percent. It is found that only work-to-family enrichment affect ($\beta = 0.345, p < 0.05$) dimension were significantly affected job satisfaction. Whereas, for work-to-family conflict, both time-based ($\beta = -0.45, p < 0.001$) and strain-based ($\beta = 0.445, p < 0.001$) dimension were significantly affected job satisfaction respectively. Therefore, based on these result, hypotheses H2 and H4 are accepted

Table 2-Regression of work-to-family enrichment, work-to-family conflict and job satisfaction

Variables	Job satisfaction
	Standardized β
Work-to-family enrichment development	0.007
Work-to-family enrichment affect	0.345*
Work-to-family enrichment capital	0.275
Work-to-family conflict time based	-0.452***
Work-to-family conflict strain based	0.445***
Work-to-family conflict behavioral based	0.081
R ²	0.343***
F	7.816

5. Discussion

In this study we had identified how work-life balance influence job satisfaction, respectively. Testing these across the variables of work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enrichment, we had found that both of the variables gives significant impact towards job satisfaction. To be exact, both variables found explaining 34 percent of job satisfaction. Our findings suggests that academics who has high level of work-to-family enrichment have high level job satisfaction. This was inline with previous study which point out work-to-family as one of possible determinant in increasing level of job satisfaction (e.g. Swee Fung, Ahmad and Omar, 2013). Specific result indicated that only affect dimension of work-to-family enrichment was significantly affect job satisfaction. The significant result on affect dimension of work-to-family enrichment shows that positive emotional states or attitude in work involvement is one of big contribution in promoting high level of job satisfaction. This was

explained through the meaning of work-to-family enrichment affect itself which referring to positive emotional state or attitude that are develop when works experience effectively helps individual to be a better family member (Stoddart and Madsen,2007). Academics who is develop positive emotion and attitude towards their job feels more satisfied and happy towards completing their job which in turn making them to experience higher level of job satisfaction. For work-to-family conflict, our result also suggest that there is negative relationship of work-to-family conflict to job satisfaction. Work-to-family conflict found to negatively associated with job satisfaction. This findings was supported by few research such as Zulfiqar,Khan, Afaq and Khan (2013), Buonocore and Russo (2013), Burke, Konyucu and Fiksenb (2013) and Huffman, Casper and Payne (2014). That is, all of them agreed that increasing level of work-to-family conflict will reducing level of job satisfaction among workers across field and countries.While in Malaysian perspective, our result was inline with prior research by Panatik and friends (2012) which reported the negative association of work-to-family conflict with job satisfaction among Research Universities academics in Malaysia. Our findings also suggest that specifically time-based work-to-family conflict shows highest correlation with job satisfaction compares to strain-based and behavioural based work-to-family conflict. Perhaps limited time with family caused by too much work accumulating stresses among academics which in turn causing them feel unsatisfied with their job. Interestingly we have found different perspective on impact of work-to-family conflict towards job satisfaction via strain-based work-to-family conflict. Surprisingly, we have found that work-to-family conflict found to positively affect job satisfaction. That is, experience of strain-based work-to-family conflict not decreasing the level job satisfaction but increasing it. This result is opposite with most of the prior research on work-to-family conflict study (e.g. Kalliath & Kalliath (2013)). Perhaps this unique findings can be explain by presence of eustress which referring to the positive type of stress that is gain when individual practicing positive adapting attitude to handle with perceived stressors (Kupriyanov and Zhdanove, 2014). Positive stress develop from positive attitude consequently help maximising academics capability to perceive stressor as platform to greatly perform in their work instead of deteriorating it.

6. Conclusion and Practical Implication

In conclusion, this study had highlighted on how work-life balance may influence the experiences of job satisfaction. It was concluded that work-to-family enrichment can serves as a potential influencer towards increasing level of job satisfaction among academics while work-to-family conflict as a potential factor which reduces job satisfaction among academics in Research University academics in Malaysia. Therefore proper guidelines that promotes work-to-family enrichment whereas reducing work-to-family conflict is needed to make sure positive work-life balance can be achieved to ensure high level of job satisfaction among Research University academics in the future.

7. Limitations

The limitations in the present study are acknowledged. First, the study is limited to the population of Research University academics in Malaysia. Therefore, the result may be appropriately generalize towards the same population. Second, this is cross-sectional study which limiting its capabilities to ascertain causal relationship among variables examined.

8. References

- Aminah, A. (1996). Work-family conflict among married professional women in Malaysia. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 136(5), 663-665.
- Anafarta, N. (2011). The Relationship between Work-Family Conflict and Job Satisfaction: A Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Approach. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(4), 168-177.
- Bunocore, F., Russo M., (2013). Reducing Effects of Work-Family Conflict on Job Satisfaction: The Kind of Commitment Matters. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 23(1), 91-108.
- Bowling, N.A. and Burke, R. J., Koyuncu, M., Fiksenb, L., (2013). Antecedents and Consequences of Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict among Frontline Employees in Turkish Hotel. *The IUP of Management Research*, 5(4), 39-56.
- Carlson D.S., Kacmar K.M., Williams L.J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 56:249-76.
- Department of Statistic Malaysia. (2013). Analysis of Labourforce in Malaysia 2010 and 2011 [Online] Available: http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/images/stories/files/LatestReleases/findings/RINGKASAN_PENEMUAN_PT2011.pdf.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When Work and Family Are Allies: A Theory of Work-Family Enrichment. *The Academy of Management Review*, 31(1), 72-92.
- Greenhaus, J.H, & Beutell, N.J. (1985). Sources of Conflict between Work and Family Roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88.
- Huffman, A. H., Casper, W.J., Payne, S. C., (2014). How Does Spouse Career Support Relate to Employee Turnover? Work Interfering with Family and Job Satisfaction as Mediators. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 35, 194-212.
- Hammond, G.D., (2008). "A meta-analytic examination of the construct validity of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(1), 63-77.
- Jijena Michel, R. D., Jijena Michel, C. E. (2012). Faculty Satisfaction and Work-Family Enrichment: The Moderating Effect of Human Resource Flexibility. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 46, 5168-5172.
- Kovach, K. A. (1977). Organization size, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover. Washington D.C.: University Press of America.
- Kupriyanov, R., Zhdanove, R., (2014). The Eustress Concept: Problems and Outlooks. *World Journal of Medical Sciences*, 11(2), 179-185.
- Perrons, D. (2003). The new economy y, labour market inequalities and the work life balance In R. Martin & P. Morrison, *Geographies of labour market inequality* (pp. 129-148). London, U.K.: Routledge.
- Panatik, S. A., Zainal Badri, S. K., Rajab, A., Mohd. Yusof, R., (2012). Work-Family and Work-related Attitude: The Mediating Effects of Stress Reactions. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies*, 4 (1), 377-387.
- Panatik, S. A, Rajab, A., Md. Shah, I., Abdul Rahman, H., Mohd. Yusoff, R., Zainal Badri, S. K., (2012). Work-Family Conflict, Stress and Psychological Strain in Higher Education. *2012 International Conference on Education and Management Innovation*, 30, 67-71.
- Swee Fung, N., Ahmad, A., Omar, Z. (2014). Role of Work-Family Enrichment in Improving Job Satisfaction. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 11(1), 96-104.
- Swee Fung, N., Ahmad, A., Omar, Z., (2013). Role of Work-Family Enrichment in Improving Job Satisfaction. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 11(1), 96-104.
- Stoddart, M., Madsen, S. R., (2007). Towards Understanding of the Link between Work-Family Enrichment and Individual Health. *Institute of Behavioural and Applied Management*, 1-15.

- Spector, P. 1997. *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes and Consequences*. California:Sage.
- Stoddard, M., & Madsen. S. R. (2007). Toward an Understanding of the Link between Work- Family Enrichment and Individual Health. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 9(1), 2-15.
- .Zulfiqar, A., Khan, N. U., Afaq Q., Khan, S.,(2013). Evaluating The Relationship between Work-Family Conflict and Job Satisfaction (A Survey of Nursing Staff in Public Sector Hospital in Bhakkar District). *Gomal University Journal of Research*, 29(2),128-133.

Self-efficacy towards Career Satisfaction among Female Engineers

Ainul Syakira binti Mahidi @ Mohyedin and Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman
Faculty of Management Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract This conceptual paper reviews the influence of self-efficacy towards career satisfaction among female engineers. It reviews the basis from Bandura (1977)'s social cognitive theory – that, with self-efficacy, one can achieve what one sets out to do. Self-efficacy has the capability to influence an individual's belief regarding his or her ability to successfully complete tasks necessary to making career decisions. In the case of female engineers, working in a male-dominated profession, self-efficacy plays an important role on female's career satisfaction. The purpose of this conceptual paper is to understand the role of self-efficacy on female employees' career satisfaction.

Keywords: self-efficacy, career satisfaction, subjective career success and female engineers.

1. Introduction

Malaysia has the highest number of female participation in the workforce, up to 40 percent compared to other ASEAN countries. However, the female in the engineering field is considered very low (The Star Online, March 2013). According to ACCA-TalentCorp report of Retaining Female in the Workforce (2013), the labour force participation rate among female remains low at 46 percent compared to ASEAN countries like Singapore (60 percent) and Thailand (70 percent). Malaysian female's participation in the workforce, even though is lower than other countries with similar income levels has increased from 44.7 percent in 1995 to 47.3 percent in 2004 (UNICEF Malaysia, 2005). This number signifies very little difference in female participation within 10 years. To improve this condition, the government has shown commitment and dedication in many of its programs and policies in the last two decades. The Government of Malaysia has formulated the National Policy on Female and also established the Ministry of Female and Family Development in 2011 with a mandate to address issues on female and uplift the stature of female in the country.

Zeldin, et. al (2008) mentioned that self-efficacy was initially brought to the career literature to explain the underrepresentation of female in traditionally male college courses, majors, and careers, including those in science, technology, mathematics, and engineering. Researchers have demonstrated that the lack of participation by female in male-dominated careers may have been due in part to their low mathematics and science self-efficacy. Self-efficacy theory suggests that increasing the self-efficacy of employees will boost motivation and performance. This basic idea behind this theory is that motivation and performance are determined by how successful people believe they can be (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy beliefs also play a mediational role in that they serve as filters between prior achievements or abilities and subsequent behavior. Moreover, self-efficacy could enhance the impact of other determinants of career success by way of moderation (Ballout, 2009). Betz and Hackett (1997) suggest that

differential background experiences associated with gender role socialization might have led to gender differences in self-efficacy and confidence with respect to specific domains of career behavior. Organizational scholars have recommended that self-efficacy is an important motivational and social cognitive predictor of career success. Studies examining self-efficacy have found it to be a major construct that may help explain and predict motivation and performance and to influence career success (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Day & Allen, 2004). Employees who exhibit high career self-efficacy would increase their commitment to attain successfully career success as opposed to those who are less successful and less committed (Ballout, 2009).

There are two types of career success that is widely discussed in the literature which are the objective career success and subjective career success. A lot of researches mainly focused on the subjective career success and not many has been discussing about the objective career success. According to Greenhaus (2002), the shift away from the organizationally defined careers to the individually defined careers has highlighted the importance of the subjective aspects of career that refer to the individuals' own perceptions and interpretations of their own career situations. Most previous studies have consistently suggested that career success (objective) and non-organizational success (subjective) are inter-related, and then formed a basic assumption that a successful individual considers himself/herself to have succeeded in both areas (Baruch, 1998). Furthermore, Judge et.al (1995), Seibert et. al (1999), Judge et. al (2004) and Ng et. al (2005) found that objective career success will positively predict subjective career success.

Female may go through numerous cycles as they seek to create careers that satisfy their own personal needs and definition of success (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). As opposed to men, female's definitions of career success often focus on subjective rather than just objective outcomes because they generally have more non-work responsibilities than men, making it difficult to adhere to the norms of the workplace. Female engineers' participation in the field of engineering is very low. As such the seniors who can be the mentor and guides new female engineer is not many. Female are typically viewed as 'honorary men' or 'flawed female' for trying to inVol.ve in fields that are usually dominated by men (Powell et. al, 2006). According to Powell et. al (2006), if the female is an efficient, competent manager, she is likely to be judged unfeminine, but if she demonstrates the supposedly female qualities of care and sensitivity she is likely to be assessed either as an inappropriate and inefficient manager or as a good female manager. Various research studies indicate those females who seek jobs in a male dominated culture of profession are likely to act the same as men in order to be successful.

Research on the work experiences of female indicates that professional female experience a gender gap in wages, and the lack of corporate policies on child-care issues. It is stated that the female role reinforces many behaviors contradictory to those defined as managerial; men are raised to be aggressive and independent, while female are raised to be social and receptive (Igbaria et. al, 1999). According to Wahat (2011), female much more than men, is subjected to a range of controls over the way they look, behave, dress, talk, or choose to lead their lives. Clearly, female still occupy a secondary position in society. Female tend to draw back from using technical devices and from trying to understand the behind of the operational principles. Furthermore lack of encouragement from the family and society leads to the lack of interest for female to pursue their career (Wahat, 2011).

Although both objective and subjective career success appear to be inter-related, objective career success is seen as having an influential role towards subjective career success and not vice versa. In regards to female employees, subjective career success is found to be more significant than objective career success. Since objective career success is normally measured in terms of salary, age and position of an employee, they are considered as uncontrollable factors. On contrary, subjective career success is relative to an employee's interpretation and definition and thus is seen as more dynamic and varied compared to objective career success. This highlights the significance of investigating subjective career success over objective career success.

2. Literature Review

Self-efficacy is the result of interactions between the outside environment and other self-adjustment mechanisms and personal capabilities, experience and achievements. Furthermore, self-efficacy is a critical factor for the change of behavior, and is a part of self-control. It is also a kind of motive recognition mechanism (Niu, 2010). In this study, self-efficacy is defined as employees' feelings of confidence in solving problems, in facing political issues in the organization, their motivations to accomplish the goals and work, as well as learning new skills. Career satisfaction takes an individualistic approach. This paper conceptualize subjective career success as how satisfied female employees are as well as their feelings of accomplishment towards their capability to achieve success in their career, the progress they have made towards meeting their career, income and advancement of goals and new skills.

Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy is derived from the social cognitive theory, which states that human functioning is a result of interplay between personal, behavioral, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1986; Zeldin & Pajares, 2002). Social cognitive theory argues for the importance of human agency, viewing an individual as being influential in his or her own development. In keeping with this view, an individual is able to exercise control over his or her own thoughts, feelings, and actions, and this control is heavily influenced by an individual's view of self.

According to Maddux (2000), "Self-efficacy is not perceived skill; it is what I believe I can do with my skills under certain conditions. It is not concerned with by beliefs about my ability to perform specific and trivial motor acts, but with my beliefs about my ability to coordinate and orchestrate skills and abilities in changing and challenging situations." The basic premise of self – efficacy theory is that "people's beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own" (Bandura, 1997). It is the most important determinant of behaviour that people choose to engage in and how much they persevere in their efforts in facing obstacles and challenges. Self - efficacy is developed through time and experience that will continue through out the life of a person.

Self-efficacy influenced three major outcomes or criterion behaviors which are (1) approach versus avoidance as "approach" is often conceptualized as "choice" in vocational or career behavior parlance, (2) level of performance, and (3) persistence (Betz, 2007). Low self-efficacy expectations regarding a behavior or behavioral domain lead to avoidance of those behaviors, poorer performance, and a tendency to give up at the first sign of difficulty. In the

context of career development, “approach” behavior often refers to an individual’s willingness to choose, or even consider, a given career option.

People form their self-efficacy perceptions by interpreting information from four sources: (1) authentic mastery experiences, (2) vicarious experiences, (3) social persuasions, and (4) physiological indexes (Bandura, 1997). According to Zeldin et. al (2008), Bandura theorized that the most influential source of information comes from the interpreted results of past performance, which he called mastery experiences. These past performance accomplishments can create a strong sense of efficacy to accomplish similar tasks in the future. Alternatively, repeated failure can lower efficacy perceptions, especially when such failures occur early in the course of events and cannot be attributed to lack of effort or external circumstances. The second source of self-efficacy information is the vicarious experience gained by observing others performing tasks. By observing the successes and failures of others, people gather information that contributes to their judgments about their own capabilities. Social or verbal persuasions messages from others about one’s ability to accomplish a task are hypothesized to exert the most positive influence on those who already have a strong sense of self-efficacy. Social messages can encourage people to exert the extra effort to succeed, resulting in further development of skills and personal efficacy. People look to their physical and emotional states as a fourth source of information about their capabilities. Powerful emotional arousal, such as anxiety, can effectively alter individuals’ beliefs about their capabilities. People may view a state of arousal as an energizing factor that can contribute to a successful performance, or they may view arousal as completely disabling. Thus, individuals construct their self-efficacy beliefs through the interpretation and integration of information from these four sources.

Subjective Career Success

Subjectively, a career is the moving perspective in which the person sees his life as a whole and interprets the meanings of his various attribute, actions and the things which happen to him. Career success was defined by Judge *et. al* (2010), as the positive psychological outcomes or achievement one has accumulated as a result of experiences over the span of working life. Career success research increasingly assesses both objective and subjective career outcomes, apparently presuming that people define their career success unanimously (i.e, current salary, promotions and job satisfaction). Career success potentially means much more to people engaged in a career than has typically been measured by empirical research (Heslin, 2005).

Subjective career success refers to an employee’s evaluation of his/her own career success with reference to self defined standards, age (career stage), aspirations and opinions of significant others. Intrinsic is only experienced directly by the person engaged in her or his career. Subjective career success was measured by an individual’s intrinsic feelings over what constitutes career accomplishment. Subjective career measures such as career satisfaction, self-awareness and adaptability, and learning, essentially individual-level factors, rather than organizational-level factors, have taken on greater salience in today’s environment.

Subjective career success is also defined as an individual’s reaction to the career experiences that happen directly or indirectly (Supa`ad et, al, 2013). The outcome of this can be assessed through personal standards of self-reference criteria or standards or achievement while others’ criteria are used as a reference (Heslin, 2005). As such it is related with the confidence, resourcefulness, coping abilities, experience, independent of the individual itself in determining their successfulness in the workplace.

Traditional career research was consistent with hierarchical, position-oriented organizations in which promotions, income differentials, rank, and job retention were relevant to ‘captive’ individuals as they navigated their careers. In contrast, in a turbulent environmental context, characterized by technological advances, globalization, and other complex factors, individuals are less dependent on organizational career arrangements. Instead, individuals experience more career transitions, have greater agency in career decisions, and must be adaptable and able learners (e.g, Hall, 2002). Consequently, subjective career measures such as job satisfaction, self-awareness and adaptability, and learning, essentially individual-level factors, rather than organizational-level factors, have taken on greater salience in today’s environment.

In this review, subjective career success refers to how satisfied female employees are as well as their feelings of accomplishment towards their capability to achieve success in their career, the progress they have made towards meeting their career, income and advancement of goals and new skills.

Relationship between Self-efficacy and Subjective Career Success

Ballout (2009) has done a research investigating the role of self-efficacy as the moderator for the relationship between career commitment and career success. The results showed that career commitment predicted both objective (i.e. salary level) and subjective career success (i.e. career satisfaction) only for employees with average to high self-efficacy but not for those with low self-efficacy. He is the first researcher to examine the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationships between these important career concepts. He also mentioned that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set higher career goals, put in more effort, and pursue career strategies that lead to the achievement of those goals.

As Zeldin & Pajares (2000) have suggested, female’s sense of confidence may be especially affected by the encouragement or discouragement received from people they deem important in their lives. An analysis of 15 narratives revealed that verbal persuasions and vicarious experiences were critical sources of the female's self-efficacy beliefs. These findings suggest that the perceived importance of these sources of self-efficacy beliefs may be stronger for female in male-oriented domains than for individuals operating in traditional settings.

Coping self-efficacy, or an individual's beliefs about their ability to deal with career barriers, has also been shown to be related to having greater goals related to academics and their careers (Lent, Brown, Schmidt, et al, 2003; Lent, Brown, Sheu, et al, 2003). According to Bandura (1977), the stronger an individual perceived self-efficacy, the more active their coping efforts in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences.

Moreover, individuals often experience success or failure in an endeavor while at the same time observing others engaging in the same activity. It is also possible, if not likely, for an individual to receive feedback that constitutes social persuasion and to experience physiological and affective states during and after an experience which will be integrated into future self-efficacy beliefs. It is this cognitive processing and integration of information from multiple sources that determines an individual’s self-efficacy beliefs (Zeldin et.al, 2008).

The concept of personal efficacy can be considered to have broad and significant implications for both career theory and career counseling (Betz, 2000). Betz & Hackett (2006) both realized the huge relevance of self-efficacy theory to the understanding of the career

development of female in general and to female's underrepresentation in scientific and technical careers in particular. In sum, self-efficacy theory presented a way to understand and integrate a host of factors known to influence female's career choices, thereafter affecting their subjective career success.

3. Conceptual Framework

Based on the above reviews, the following conceptual framework has been developed.

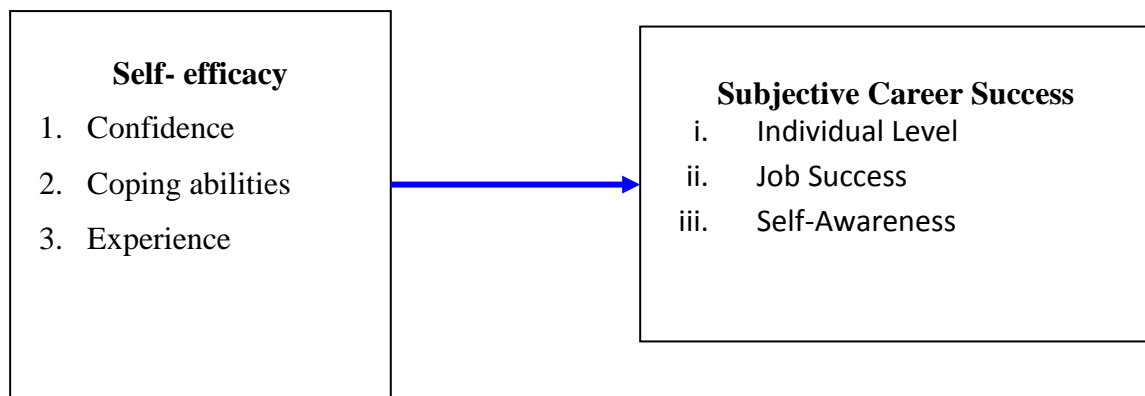


Fig. 1 - Conceptual Framework

4. Conclusion

This paper has reviewed the concept of self-efficacy and its relationship with employees' perceived career success. It briefly highlights the lower participation rate of female workforce compared to male workforce. Although various initiatives have been employed by the Malaysian government, the number of female participation is still considered lower compared to other ASEAN countries, and with small improvement from 1995. In the case of female engineers, working in a male-dominated profession, such as the oil and gas industry, self-efficacy plays an even important role towards their perception of career success. This study hypothesizes that female engineer who possesses high confidence, coping abilities and have varied experienced are more likely to achieve their subjective career success i.e. their feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction towards their career, income, advancement etc.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Ministry of Education, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia and Vote No. (00K98) for supporting and sponsoring this publication.

5. References

ACCA-TalentCorp Report.Retaining Women in the Workforce. (2013).[Online] Available : <http://www.talentcorp.com.my/wp-content/themes/agenda/ACCA-50-Champions.pdf>(September 6, 2014)

- Ballout, H. I. (2009). Career commitment and career success: moderating role of self-efficacy. *Career Development International*, Vol. 14 (No. 7), 655-670.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Baruch, Y. (1998), "The rise and fall of organizational commitment", *Human Systems Management*, Vol. 17 No. 2, 135-43.
- Betz, N. E. (2000). Self-Efficacy Theory as a Basis for Career Assessment. *Journal of Career Assessment*, Vol. 8(3), 205-222.
- Betz, N. E., & Hackett, G. (1997). Applications of Self-Efficacy Theory to the Career Assessment of Women. *Journal of Career Assessment*, Vol. 5(4), 383-402.
- Betz, N. E., & Hackett, G. (2006). Career Self-Efficacy Theory: Back to the Future. *Journal of Career Assessment*, Vol. 14(3).
- Day, R. and Allen, T. (2004), "The Relationship between Career Motivation And Self-Efficacy With Protege Career Success", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 64, pp. 72-91.
- Heslin, P.A. (2005), "Experiencing Career Success", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 34(4), 376-90
- Johari, H., Mat, N., Mat, N., Othman, S. N., & Mohamed, A. H. (2013). Exploring Career Success Among Women Engineers: The Malaysian Case. *International Journal of Education and Research*, Vol. 1(11), 1-8.
- Jothiratnam. (2005). Women's Participation In The Workforce Increasing. [Online] Available :http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/sowc_6068.html. (October 16, 2014)
- Judge, T. A., Klinger, R. L., & Simon, L. S. (2010). Time Is on My Side: Time, General Mental Ability, Human Capital, and Extrinsic Career Success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 95(1), 92-107.
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2005). Predictors of Objective and Subjective Career Success: A Meta-Analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 58, 367-408.
- Niu, H. J. (2010). Investigating the effects of self-efficacy on foodservice industry employees' career commitment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 29, 743-750.
- Powell, A., Bagilhole, B., & Dainty, A. (2006). How Women Engineers 'Do' and 'Un-do' Gender : Consequences for Gender Equality. *Gender, Work and Organization*.
- Rancangan Malaysia ke- 10. (2010).[Online] Available : http://www.pmo.gov.my/dokumenattached/RMK/RMK10_Mds.pdf(October 15, 2014)
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2001). A Social Capital Theory Of Career Success. *Academy Of Management Journal*, Vol. 44(2), 219-237.
- Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1988). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 124(2), 240-261.
- Supa`ad, M., Wahat, N. W. A., Fakhrudin, F. M., & Suandi, T. (2013). Factors Contributing to the Subjective Career Success among Islamic Educators in Primary Schools. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, Vol. 1(1), 55-60.
- Valcour, P.M. and Ladge, J.J. (2008), "Family and career path characteristics as predictors of women's career success outcomes", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 73(2), 300-9.
- Wahat, N. W. A. (2011). Towards Developing a Theoretical Framework on Career Success of People with Disabilities. *Asian Social Science*, Vol. 7(3), 62-70.

-
- Xu, H., & Tracey, T. J. G. (2014). Ambiguity Tolerance With Career Indecision: An Examination of the Mediation Effect of Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 1-14.
- Zeldin, A. L., & Pajares, F. (2000). Against the Odds: Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Women in Mathematical, Scientific, and Technological Careers. *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 37(1), 215-246.
- Zeldin, A. L., Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). A Comparative Study of the Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Successful Men and Women in Mathematics, Science, and Technology Careers. *Journal Of Research In Science Teaching*, Vol. 45(9), 1036–1058.

Emotional Intelligence Theory Revisited

Halimah M. Yusof

Abstract Emotional Intelligence is an interesting contemporary theory in human psychology. In which, the emotional intelligence is known as the ability to understand, perceive, manage and regulate emotions in self and others. However, there are many theories underpinning the actual definition and characteristics of the emotional intelligence. In fact, there are two different approaches on emotional intelligence, which the ability and trait model. The ability model, proposed by Mayer and Salovey focused more on the cognitive-emotional abilities. While the trait model, introduced by Bar-On and Goleman refer to the emotion and self-perception competencies. Nevertheless, the emotional intelligence has been seen as an important attribute in individuals. Researchers found many benefits from the use of emotional intelligence in wide variety of setting such as in personal, education and work environment. In order to reap the real benefit of EI, a good understanding on the concept is required. Therefore, this paper is going to address all the theories that are related to EI to provide clearer foresight on the concept of emotional intelligence.

Keywords: Emotional competencies, emotional intelligence

1. Introduction

Emotion is an important aspect in human being. The competency in managing emotions is a requisite in our daily life. The ability to understand and manage our own emotions is essential, and equally important, is the ability to understand and manage others emotions as well. Good use of emotional competencies would help us to succeed in life, be it in the personal or work-related aspects. Every day we are exposed to variety of situations that might trigger our emotions. There are times that we will feel angry, sad or even disappointed with the people around us. These emotions should be managed effectively to avoid emotional outburst or excessive stress. Thus, the ability to understand and manage emotions is undeniable important in order for us to overcome these emotional ups and downs, and to keep our sanity intact. To further understand this indispensable idea of emotional competencies, this article will discuss on the definition and theoretical aspects of emotional intelligence (EI).

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Definition of EI

Emotional competencies or better known as emotional intelligence is a popular idea in psychological studies that has captured the attention of layman, researchers, management, and commercial entities. In fact, EI has been seen as an indispensable capability in daily life (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). EI is said to provide the intangible personal characteristics that are essential for the psychological and emotional development of each individual (Shipper et al., 2003). EI has been defined in many ways, but the most acceptable definition is “the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others” (Mayer et al., 2000: 396). While the most recent definition of EI is “the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought” (Mayer et al., 2008b:511). EI is a complicated idea as it involves the capabilities of understanding and communicating with others (Assanova & McGuire, 2009). As a result, there have been many

differing definitions on EI which is based on each researcher's line of work. Although there are various different definitions on EI, it can be summarized that the key aspects of it is that EI involves the emotional abilities in human being (Yusof, Kadir, & Mahfar, 2014). In summary, the emotional competency is the essence of the EI theory despite the various debates on its definitions.

2.2 Theoretical Background

The theory of emotional intelligence has started in 1920 when Edward Thorndike mentioned about the probability of other types of intelligence in the *Harper's Magazine* (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). However, during that time, the model of social intelligence proposed by Thorndike did not receive much attention and not many studies have been done on the topic until much later years (Landy, 2005).

The first time the term '*emotional intelligence*' being used was in 1961 by Van Ghent's in one of his literature critics. However, not much information on EI could be gathered from his articles. Later, in 1983, Howard Gardner introduced the "multiple intelligences" theory. In his theory, Gardner proposed seven intelligences, among them are interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). Then, in his book titled "Multiple Intelligence", he stated that interpersonal intelligences is the capability to recognize the differences between individuals, especially the differences in the emotions, characteristics, motivations, and life purposes of each individual (Gardner, 1993). Many arguments on his theory have been made during that time.

Two decades later, Wayne Leon Payne used the phrase of EI as a part of the title of his doctoral dissertation in 1985 (Barrett & Salovey, 2002). It is believed that Payne was the first researcher to use the EI term in the academic field (Serrat, 2009). Then in 1990, two academic journals have been written by Peter Salovey and John Mayer which clearly provides the definition of EI (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In their research, they establish that there are individuals who have a good understanding of their own emotion, understanding the others and could handle problems regarding emotions better than the others (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Since then, Mayer and Salovey have written multiple academic articles regarding EI and managed to develop two tests that could measure the EI of individuals.

Despite all the studies and contributions made by Mayer and Salovey, it was Goleman whom had publicized the theory of EI through his publication entitled '*emotional intelligence*', which was published in 1995. Not much later, he published another book on the same topic "Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ" (Goleman, 1996). The publication became a best seller and since then, the term EI has been extensively used. In his book, Goleman asserts that in the present changing environment, the EI of an individual is the most significant factor in individual's achievements and it has the ability to bring significant success in life. This idea has attracted many people in the business world. Then, Goleman wrote his third book on EI in 1998, titled "Working with Emotional Intelligence". This book suggested that EI of an individual influence the accomplishment of an organization; and it has the capability to create a better and profitable working environment. EI has then been seen as an essential factors in the workforces and considered as a critical aspect of human resources as countries change from a machine based industrial to a service based industry (Assanova & McGuire, 2009).

2.2.1 EI Model

There have been many models of EI proposed by various researchers over the years. However, only three of the most significant and widely accepted models are discussed here. According to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) in their book chapter titled: 'Models of Emotional Intelligence', the theoretical models that are recognized by the scientific researchers are: (a) *Ability model of EI* (Mayer and Salovey, 1997), (b) *Bar-On's emotional-social intelligence model* (Bar-On, 1997), and (c) *Emotional competencies model* (Goleman, 1995).

These three EI models can be further classified into two categories; (a) ability-models that associates both emotions and intelligence as talents, and (b) mixed-models concept which includes mental capabilities, dispositions, and characteristics (Mayer et al., 2004). These ability and mixed model theories of EI has been the centre of focus in EI's literatures and reviews. For the purpose of this study, these three models will serve as the theoretical framework and the detail reviews of each model will be discussed as follow.

2.2.1.1 The Ability-Based Model of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)

The EI ability model was first introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990). They theorized that EI consists of the ability to appraise and express, regulate and utilize emotion. From this conceptualization, Mayer and Salovey (1997) extended that there are four constructs which characterize all the abilities that could add to an individual's EI. These building blocks are in a chain of command, where every level integrate with one another and constructed the competence of the earlier competence. The building blocks stated by Mayer and Salovey (1997) are as listed below:

1. The initial branch is the *perception and appraisal of own and others' emotion*. It is the capacity to observe, assess, and convey their emotion precisely. For instance, the capability to recognize emotions by looking at individual's expression and notice the pitch of their voice. These capabilities might leads to the competencies to recognize and notice even the slightest changes in a person facial expression.
2. The second branch represents the capability to *assimilate emotions*. It is the capacity to precipitate emotions accordingly. It refer to the skills to differentiate between the various emotions felt by an individual and recognize the emotions that manipulate an individual's function of the mind.
3. The third branch represents the capabilities to *understand and reason the emotions*. It is the capacity to comprehend feelings and the information that is originating from the feelings. It refer to the capability to recognize multifaceted emotions, for instance, individuals would be able to recognize few types of emotions and are capable in identifying the changes in emotions while it occurs in an individual.
4. The last branch is the capabilities to *manage and regulate one's emotion*. It is the capacity to control feelings in order to develop one's emotion and intellect. It refers to the skills to associate or disassociate from a certain emotion in regards to the circumstances.

Compared to the previous theoretical approach by these two researchers in 1990, their 1997 proposal is the most accepted proposal (Geher, 2004). In their new model, they consider EI specifically as a mental ability. Mayer and Salovey's ability model is said to be the most mentioned and be acquainted with by many other scientific researchers compared to any other models (Matthews et al., 2002). As what Matthews *et al.*(2002) had described, the main reasons for this enormous attention to their theory is based on the fact that; (a) The theoretical foundation of the model is concrete and vindicated, (b) The proposed measurement inventory used to measure EI is original, and (c) The experimental researches' statistics gathered from the fundamental and applied settings are efficiently organized and are adequately proven to support the theory.

In addition to that, the ability theory proposed by Mayer and Salovey is regarded as a valid concept by many of the reviewers of the EI theory as it is believed to contribute significantly to a person personality even from diverse backgrounds (Geher, 2004; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Matthews et al., 2002).

2.2.1.2 The Emotional-Social Intelligence Mixed Model (Bar-On, 1997)

The EI model proposed by Bar-On is a mixed model of EI. Compared to the earlier mentioned Mayer and Salovey's model (1997), Bar-On's (1997) EI model is much broader and more extensive which integrates both the emotions and social capability. For instance, Bar-On define EI as

“a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands”

(Bar-On, 2006: 14)

Bar-On's (1997) model concludes the interconnection between the emotions and a person characteristic. He believed that these two is connected with each other. In his model, Bar-On suggested that the emotional and social intelligence consists of five factors. These Bar-On's (1997) factors are separated into fifteen sub-factors and as listed below:

1. The capability of detecting and recognizing own emotions is called the *Intrapersonal skills*. It consists of five sub-factors which is *Self-Regards, Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence and Self-Actualization*;
2. The capability realizing and understanding of others' emotions and sentiments is called *Interpersonal skills*. It consists of three sub-factors which is *Empathy, Social Responsibility and Interpersonal Relationship*;

3. The capability to cope with emotional disturbances and manage feelings is called *Stress Management*. It consists of two sub-factors which is *Stress Tolerance* and *Impulse Control*;
4. The capability to adapt with changes in emotions in accordance to different conditions and circumstances is called *Adaptability*. It consists of three sub-factors which is *Reality Testing*, *Flexibility* and *Problem-Solving*;
5. The capability of having and showing positive emotions, besides being able to look at the bright side in difficult situations is called *General Mood*. It consists of two sub-factors which is *Optimism* and *Happiness*.

2.2.1.3 The Emotional Competencies Mixed Model (Goleman, 1995)

Inspired by Salovey and Mayer work in 1990, Daniel Goleman explore deeper on the EI theory. Although in the beginning Goleman agrees with Mayer and Salovey model, he then suggested his own model of EI that consists of four EI constructs in 1998. Goleman (1998) outlines of the four main EI constructs is shown as below:

1. *Self-awareness* is the capability to identify own emotions; understand its effects and use their own judgment in making choices.
2. *Self-management* is the capability to control own emotions and urges, besides being able to adjust to change in conditions.
3. *Social awareness* is the capability to detect, comprehend and respond to others emotions, besides the ability to connect socially.
4. *Relationship management* is the capability to motivate, persuade and develop others, besides the ability to handle conflict.

In addition to that, Goleman (2001) postulates that EI is an ability that can be taught and which, in return would yield success in the working environment. He believed that with high EI, individuals could achieve greater success in their career.

Although these three models have diverse argument on the basis of what EI really is, they do overlap with one another in some areas. It could be seen that the primary differences between these three theories are; (a) Mayer and Salovey's idea emphasizes solely on the interaction between emotional qualities and cognitive abilities, while (b) Goleman's and Bar-On's theories comprise of motivation, emotion and cognition that includes some human characteristics such as faith, positivism and selflessness.

Not only there are some differences in the theories among these three models, the measurement instruments that were used to measure EI differ too. In which, Mayer and Salovey ability model used the *Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)* as the measurement inventory. MSCEIT tests the subject by asking them to recognize a person facial expression and try to relate it to the person emotions in a given picture (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). The subject is tested whether he could understand a person's feelings simply by observing their facial looks. Besides that, the test assesses subject's evaluation on how different actions could results in different outcomes when there is involvement of other people. Also, the subject is required to evaluate the importance of emotional management in controlling our behaviour in various circumstances. Although MSCEIT is a well-known EI inventory, there are many criticisms on the MSCEIT's capacity to really measures an individuals' EI due to few factors such as the validity and reliability of the questions in the inventory (Conte, 2005; Geher, 2004; Matthews et al., 2002). As for the Bar-On's mixed-model of EI, the *Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)* was used as the measurement inventory. The *EQ-i* is identical to the Goleman's *Emotional Competencies Inventory* as both inventories are measuring the outcomes of EI instead of measuring the EI itself. For instance, it measures the subject's ability to have a good interaction with others and how well he collaborates with others. However, similar to the MSCEIT, the *EQ-i* received many critics on its ability to accurately measures a person's EI too (Geher, 2004). Aside from these two inventory, Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee developed the *Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)*, a multi-rater feedback tool that assesses the emotional capabilities and social behaviour (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). Unlike the MSCEIT and *EQ-i*, the *ECI* uses 360-degree measurement methods, which consist of self-report test, peer ratings, and supervisor ratings (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). Researches on the *ECI* factors shows that it is correlated to the 'Big Five' personality dimensions of *meticulousness*, *emotional steadiness*, *extraversion*, and *frankness* (Matthews et al., 2002). Besides that, it has few similar characteristics with the other theories in the field of psychology such as in motivation and leadership (Matthews et al., 2002).

In conclusion, although there are many measurement tools available that claims to measure the EI of an individual, its capability to accurately measures EI is still being debated by many researchers in the related fields (Conte, 2005; Dasborough & Ashakansy, 2003; Geher, 2004; Matthews et al., 2002). For instance, there are currently few theories on measuring EI with only few similarities between them. This distinctive dissimilarity between the measurements of EI has further added to the arguments.

It is important to notice that the measurement tools that are used to evaluate the changes in participant's EI from a training program is really essentials. As can be seen from the reviews, some EI measuring tools measured a person traits and not their ability, for example, the ECI includes the measurement of the subject's characteristics such as conscientiousness. In such cases, the measurement used should really measure the level of EI that had resulted from the training rather than measuring the individual's traits. As traits are somewhat unalterable, the researcher might not be able to see significant results from the training and this would definitely affects the accuracy of the results and the outcomes of the training.

3. Discussion and Conclusion

Referring to the discussion on EI theories in the previous section, it is found that although the above mentioned models exist separately, there are some resemblance and connection in its theory between these three models. In fact, the similarity and connections between aspects of the three major EI models has been proven through few data analysis (Marc A. Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Apparently, all the three models have the same ideas on some of the key factors that contributed to EI and agreed with it. For instance, all the models concluded that EI is somehow associated with the understanding and dealing of emotions either in self or in others. Overall, the three models intended to understand and determine the basics of the identification and regulation of own emotions; as well as understandings of others' emotions (Goleman, 2001).

Besides the similarity in its theories and models, it is also found that the EI measurement tools are correlated with each other and measured almost the same components too. For instance, a considerable resemblance have been detected among the '*regulation of emotion*' sub-scale in the MSCEIT and the '*interpersonal EQ*' sub-scale in the Bar-On's EQ-*i* (Marc A. Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Additionally, more similarities are being seen between the EI self-report measurement tools. For example, the correlation between the EQ-*i* and the *Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test* (SSEIT), which followed Mayer & Salovey's EI model were reported to be quite significant ($r = .43$) (Mark A. Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 1998). These findings proved that there are some similarity between all the three models and their measurements despite their discrepancy in the idea of EI.

Looking at the three of the most significant theories and its measurement's instruments in the field of EI, it is important to understand the significance of applying these ideas in the workplace. Although some researcher argued on the EI theory (e.g. Harmon, 2000; Matthews et al., 2002; Murphy & Sideman, 2006), there are many rationales to clarify the quick and extensive dispersal of the term EI in the business industry. In fact, studies have been done to evaluate the importance of EI in various setting. For instance, it has been found that EI is the basis for many personal qualities such as self-esteem, self-motivation, self-determination, understanding own capabilities, and having good relationship with others (Cherniss & Adler, 2000). In addition to that, Cross and Travaglione (2003) stated that EI is a very important factor in creating a successful working environment. Furthermore, many other researchers support and validates the importance of EI in individual and working environment success (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2010; Hein, 1996; Henry, 2011; Howells, 2007; Weinberger, 2009). Besides that, many professionals have recognized the significance and magnitude of emotional capability in their workplace success (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). Therefore, EI has turn into an acceptable and appropriate theory in organization and education (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). Thus, EI should be carefully studied and understand to get the most benefit out of it.

4. References

- Assanova, M., & McGuire, M. (2009). *Applicability analysis of the emotional intelligence theory*. Indiana University.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Bar-On emotional quotation inventory (EQ-I): A test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2005). The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence. In P. Fernández-Berrocal and N. Extremera (Guest Editors), *Special Issue on Emotional Intelligence*. *Psicothema*, 17.
- Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema*, 18, 13-25.

-
- Bar-On, R. (Ed.). (2004). *The Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i): Rationale, description and psychometric properties*. Hauppauge, N.Y: Nova Science Publishers.
- Barrett, L. F., & Salovey, P. (2002). *The wisdom in feeling: Psychological processes in emotional intelligence*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Sala, F. (2004). The Emotional Competence Inventory. In G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence* (pp. 147-180). New York: Nova Science Publisher.
- Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Validity of Competing Measures of Emotional Intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(9), 1147-1158.
- Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D., & Warner, R. M. (1998). Emotional Intelligence and the prediction of everyday behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1387-1402.
- Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2004). *The emotionally intelligence manager: How to develop and use the four key emotional skills of leadership*. CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (2001). *The emotionally intelligence workplace: How to measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups and organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Conte, J. M. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 433-440.
- Dasborough, M. T., & Ashakansy, N. M. (2003). Is emotional intelligence training for leaders justified? *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 55, 120-121.
- Derksen, J., Kramer, I., & Katzko, M. (2002). Does a self-report measure for emotional intelligence assess something different than general intelligence? *Journal of Personality and Individual Differences*, 32(1), 37-48.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2010). Leadership at the top: the need for emotional intelligence in organizations. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(3), 193-210.
- Fernandez-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. *Psicothema*, 18, 7-12.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple Intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York: Basic Books.
- Geher, G. (2004). *Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy*. New York: Nova Science.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (Ed.). (2001). *Emotional intelligence: Perspectives on theory of performance*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Harmon, P. (2000). Emotional intelligence: Another management fad, or skill of leverage? *Center for Quality of Management Journal*, 9(1), 43-51.
- Hein, S. (1996). *EQ for everybody: a practical guide to emotional intelligence*: Aristotle Press.
- Henry, S. (2011). *EQ and leadership in Asia: Using emotional intelligence to lead and inspire your people*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Howells, G. N. (2007). *Emotional Intelligence and Leadership*. Department of Psychology, University of the Pacific. California.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 54-78.
- Landy, F. J. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 411-424.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2002). *Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of Intelligence* (2nd ed., pp. 396-420). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) User's manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197-215.
- Murphy, K. R., & Sideman, L. (2006). The fadification of emotional intelligence. In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *A critique of emotional intelligence: What are the problems and how can they be fixed?* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

-
- Sala, F. (2002). *Emotional Competence Inventory: Technical manual*. Philadelphia, PA: McClelland Center for Research, Hay Group.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. Imagination, cognition and personality. *Baywood Publication Co., Inc*, 9, 185-211.
- Serrat, O. (2009). Understanding and Developing Emotional Intelligence. *Asian Development Bank, June 2009* (49), 1-9.
- Weinberger, L. A. (2009). Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11(6), 747-772.
- Yusof, H. M., Kadir, H. A., & Mahfar, M. (2014). The Role of Emotions in Leadership. *Asian Social Science*, 10(10), p.41.

Effect of Leader-Member Exchange, Psychological Empowerment, Workplace Spirituality towards Transformational Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Nurses

Junaidah Yusof, Hashim Fauzy Yaacob and Siti Aisyah Panatik

¹Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract Transformational leadership, leader-member exchange (LMX), workplace spirituality and psychological empowerment have been given the credit of bringing success to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in an organization. Thusly, this research will investigate the role of transformational leadership on OCB especially within the context of Malaysia's nurses. Furthermore, it is expected that the efficient role of transformational leadership relies on LMX on interaction to OCB. Additionally, the presence of workplace spirituality as a moderator among subordinate may affect relationship between LMX and OCB. Lastly, the effect of psychological empowerment as a moderator between transformational leadership and OCB also will be studied. The research method will be conducted as a cross-sectional study which the data will be collected by using questionnaire-based survey. Transformational leadership will be measured by adapted from Multiple Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bass (1985), OCB from Organ (1988), LMX adapted from LMX-7 by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), workplace spirituality from Milliman et al., (2003) and psychological empowerment will be adapted from Spreitzer (1995). The total population of this research is 5084 and a minimum sample size is 1396. The hospitals will be divided into five zone clusters. The fishbowl technique and systematic sampling design will be applied. The data will be analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Workplace Spirituality, Transformational Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

1. Introduction

Transformational leadership is one of the most prevailing come ones to understanding individual, group and organizational effectiveness (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders exhibit certain types of trait that include raising subordinates to a higher level of achievement, enabling them to go beyond their personal interests for collective welfare, focusing on their abilities to enhance personal growth, and developing their intellectual ability to approach problems in new ways (Bass, 1985). Studies have shown that in order to improve organizational performance such as organizational citizenship behavior, type of the leadership play an important role (Bass & Riggio, 2005; Wang, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). As a leader, they are directly contact with employees and thus affect them directly. Transformational leadership is one of type of leadership that able to instill values in subordinates so that their activities or goals are congruent with their own authentic interest and values (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

In order to enhance the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), leader-member exchange (LMX) will be conducted in this research as a mediator variable. There have been several calls for a theoretical integration of the transformational leadership and LMX literatures (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Stated alternatively, the assumption has been that it is the quality of the leader-member exchange through which transformational leadership influence subordinate OCB. Consistently with this reasoning, the researcher will develop and test a structural model in which LMX mediates between transformational leadership and OCB.

Over the past century, the increasing organization goal to gain the better efficiency have made employees (as individuals) to identify a greater need and purpose of life (Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003) and organizations (as employers) to recognize the need of workplace spirituality (Neal & Biberman, 2003).

This problem became more challenges when employees need to face life stress and it finally might result decreasing desire of helping each other. The increasing relevance of workplace spirituality is indicative of workplace environment that focuses on the formation of collective vision to fulfill needs higher than only physical support. Workplace spirituality development in organizations has been as important as mind development at workplaces (Steingard, 2005). Spirituality in workplaces is sharing and experiencing attraction, usual attachment and being together in work as a unit and in the organizations as a whole (Neal & Biberman, 2003). This new perspective has been considered to improve greater OCB (Pawar, 2009).

Leadership, in an organizational context, can be understood as the process that unites a diverse group of people to work effectively as a team toward a common purpose (Hoigaard, et, al., 2008). How a leader, or coach in the case of this study, unifies people is determined by the different characteristics of the leader. Study indicates that a positive relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment (Conger, 1999).

Employees who are psychologically empowered feel good about the tasks they are doing and perceive them to be meaningful and challenging (Spreitzer et, al., 1999). Thus, the chances of a psychologically empowered employee performing well and conforming to OCB are higher. Research suggests that empowerment appears when companies implement practices that distribute power, information, knowledge, and rewards throughout the organization (Lawler, et, al., 1992; Nezakati, et, al., 2010). With respect to the service sector, there is a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and measures of OCB. So, psychological empowerment can act as a moderator in relationship between transformational leadership and OCB.

As the front line of healthcare providers, nurses have the most frequent interactions with patients. The value of services that major healthcare organizations and hospitals hope to deliver to patients is transmitted through their nurse's attitudes and behaviors (Altuntas & Baykal, 2010). In an ideal management system, it is nearly impossible to attain the high level of organizational effectiveness needed for employees to effectively perform more than just their assigned duties (Tsai & Wu, 2011). Most management systems encourage some extra behavior that is called OCB to increase organizational effectiveness (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Since nurse's positive behaviors strongly influence respective patient satisfaction, which significantly increases the quality of healthcare services (Hassmiller & Cozine, 2006), it is useful to investigate the concept of OCB in the hospitals.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership refers to a leader who tries to raise the need of employees, promote dramatic change of individuals and motivates them to perform beyond their expectations (Bass, 1985; Boehnke, et, al., 2003). In other words, this type of leadership facilitates the redefinition of people's mission and the leaders motivate subordinates by getting them to prioritize for collective reason rather than personal interest (Roberts, 1885). This leadership attempts to elevate the needs of their subordinate in line with the leader's own goals and objectives (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Transformational leaders influence their subordinates by putting goals away from personal interest towards collective mission and subordinates are motivated by the fear of disappointing the leader (Reuvers et. al., 2008). Transformational leadership refers to four dimensions namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration as introduced by Bass (1985). Idealized influence refers to employees' respect and admiration towards their leaders who communicate important values. Next is inspirational motivation that explains about the leaders' ability to raise employees' enthusiasm through providing them with challenges. Meanwhile, intellectual stimulation is regarded as the leader's initiative to invent new ways of solving workplace problems among employees. And the last is individual consideration that refers to the leaders' ability to recognize the uniqueness of each employee for organizations benefit.

2.2 Leader-member Exchange

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is the quality of the relationship that develops between a leader and a subordinate. It is refer to the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values. It is also the expression of public support for the goals and personal character of the other member of the LMX dyad. The perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit) of the dyad will be calculated in LMX. Finally, LMX is consisting of the perception of the degree to which each

member of the dyad has built a reputation, within or outside the organization for excelling in his or her line of work.

2.3 Workplace Spirituality

Workplace spirituality refers to the involvement of the effort to find one's ultimate purpose in life, to develop a strong connection to co-workers and other people associated with work, and to have consistency (or alignment) between one's core beliefs and the values of their organization (Milliman et al., 2003). In this study, workplace spirituality refers to three dimension namely meaningful work, sense of community and alignment with organizational values that based on Milliman et al., (2003). Meaningful work refer to a fundamental aspect of spirituality at work involves having a deep sense of meaning and purpose in one's work. This dimension of workplace spirituality represents how employees interact with their day-to-day work at the individual level.

Next is sense of community that explains workplace spirituality occurs at the group level of human behaviour and concerns interaction between employees and their co-workers. Community at work is based on the belief that people see themselves as connected to each other and that there is some type relationship between one's inner self and the inner self of other people. And the last is alignment with organizational values that refers to the values involves the concept that employees desire to work in an organization whose goal is to not just be a good corporate citizen, but an organization that seeks to have high sense of ethics or integrity and make a larger contribution than the typical company to the welfare of employees, customers, and society.

2.4 Psychological Empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information. Researchers have also considered empowerment from a cognitive perspective which is from the perspective of the worker's cognitions, which they term psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment was later defined as consisting of four dimensions or individual cognitions (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) that have been empirically validated by Spreitzer (1995). Thus, this research will used the definition from a cognitive perspective which is psychological empowerment consists of an individual's judgment of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Together, these four dimensions display active employee status (Spreitzer, 1996).

2.5 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is characterized as the behaviour of individuals in the organization, defined as extra-role behaviours rather than defined roles and responsibilities (Organ, 1990; Tepper, et, al., 2001). When an individual moves out of the frame of his or her job description and works in a pro-social manner (Karriker & Williams, 2009; Puffer, 1987), this can be termed OCB. OCB was defined by Organ (1988) as an individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. Based on this definition, Organ (1997) identified five dimensions of OCB which are altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Thus, it can be said that OCB is characterized by the individual's willingness to voluntarily meet and exceed expectations. These individuals have the desire to demonstrate such behaviour despite knowing that the extra effort will not be rewarded.

2.6 Proposed Model and Hypotheses

Transformational leadership, defined as influencing subordinates by broadening and elevating subordinates' goals and providing them with confidence to perform beyond the expectations specified in the implicit or explicit change agreement (Dvir, et, al., 2002), has been demonstrated to be a valid determinant of desirable employee outcomes, including organizational citizenship (Organ et al., 2006; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). It is expected that,

H₁: Transformational leadership will give positively effect to organizational citizenship behavior.

Traditionally, an assumption made in the organizational literature is that transformational leadership is a universally positive management practice, and transformational leaders influence employee work behaviors in beneficial ways across many organizational settings (Bass, 1997). Consequently, numerous studies have focused on examining how transformational leaders drive their subordinates' behaviors (Avolio, et, al., 2004; Gong, et, al., 2004; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Pillai, et, al., 1999), while paying less attention to the question of when transformational leadership is more (or less) functional. As a result, we know less about the contingencies

modifying the relationships between transformational leadership and subordinate behaviors (Kirkman, et. al., 2009). In this study, the researcher will provide such qualification by drawing on one of the configurations presented in the substitutes for leadership framework, using leader-member exchange as a mediator in relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. The variables of leader-member exchange will become as mediator. Thus,

H₂: Transformational leadership will give positively effect to leader-member exchange.

H₃: Leader-member exchange will give positively effect to organizational citizenship behavior.

H₄: Leader-member exchange will mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

There has been a growing body of literature on workplace spirituality. However, many of them have more intensified on depicting definition and describing personal spiritual experiences at work, rather than on the impact workplace spirituality dimensions on the individual work attitudes and behaviors (Milliman et al., 2003). Since team working, as groups, and alignment with organization goals have been more considered to improve organizational citizenship behavior (Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997), the influence of workplace spirituality as a moderator will be investigate in this study and the hypotheses as below.

The integrity of workplace spirituality has been still important to improve (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002). It is important to indicate that growing knowledge of workplace spirituality and their positive outcomes are the main reasons to create the workplace environments that can support the spiritual components. Indeed, spirituality in workplaces has been studied and understood in its influence, relatedness and practical importance in working environments (Bosch, 2009). When organizations promote hope and happiness, employees are better able to deal with stressors in the work environment further contributing to organization performance (Jurkiewicz & Giacalone, 2004). With personal fulfillment needs, spirituality comes into the workplace to decrease distrust, unhappiness, stress full environment arise from modern organizations, emotional exhaustion and job insecurity. Therefore, for reviewing employess and moving to organizational goals in the workplace challenge, workplace spirituality has been offered as an appropriate concept to address these challenges for both employees and organizations.

There is a strong feeling among the employees that they are part of a family and that the employees take care of each other as well as their customers. In addition, an important challenge for an organization is to ensure that its employees align their work habits with the core values of the firm. Therefore, spirituality can be examined at both organizational and individual levels (Milliman & Ferguson, 1999). Therefore, it is important to indicate that three core dimensions of workplace spirituality include purpose on one's work or meaningful work (individual level), having a sense of community (group level), and being in alignment with the organization's values (organization level) can be considered influencing organizational attitudinal and behavioral outcomes to increase the organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, the fifth hypotheses of this research is,

H₅: Workplace spirituality will moderate the positive relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior, such that the relationship will be stronger when workplace spirituality is high.

According from an academic point of view, efforts to better understand the relationship between empowerment and employee and organizational outcomes have resulted in mixed and inconsistent findings. Several authors found positive relationships between empowerment cognitions and outcomes at the level of the individual employee. However, turning to the organizational level of analysis, the relations seem less clear. Staw and Epstein (2000) for example, in assessing the effects of popular management techniques on firm outcomes, found that focusing on empowerment did have a significant effect on firm reputation but not on firm performance.

In recent years the traditional, autocratic, superior-subordinate model followed by management professionals has given way to a more democratic approach in which leadership, decision making, responsibility, and authority are shared. The core concepts of this new approach fall within the realm of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), psychological empowerment (Kanter, 1979; Spreitzer, 1995), and organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1990). The OCB construct emphasizes the extra-role behavior (Organ, 1990) that an employee plays in executing responsibility. Numerous researchers have studied OCB in order to identify the positive outcomes it offers to individuals, such as enhanced performance and effective goal realization (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Bowler, 2006). Psychological empowerment gives employees increased feelings of competence, resilience, and responsibility for their work (Kanter, 1983; Spreitzer, 1995).

Transformational leadership facilitates the behavioral changes that are required to make individuals perform better (Bass, 1985; Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Bowler, 2006). In accordance with this, the role of leaders has shifted from control toward guidance and the coordination of organizational work processes. Previous research on transformational leadership has considered the positive impact it has on subordinates' thought processes, while directing them toward making appropriate decisions. According to Prabhakar (2005), good

leaders do inspire confidence in themselves, but a truly great leader inspires confidence within the people they lead to exceed their normal performance level. This can be interpreted as the way in which the concept of OCB emerges in the presence of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders empower others to modify their ways of working (Bowler, 2006). They bring about moral, attitudinal, and process change in individuals and as a consequence in the organization as whole (Pearce et al., 2003; Sims & Manz, 1996).

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to study transformational leadership and psychological empowerment as antecedents for the occurrence of OCB in service sector. This research also examines the moderating role of psychological empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. Thus, the last hypotheses for this research is,

H₆: Psychological empowerment will moderate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior, such that the relationship will be stronger when psychological empowerment is high.

Nurses are the largest group of professionals in hospitals, and they are directly involved in patients' care. Since customer satisfaction hinges on the employee's ability to extend the quality of services and performance (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994), the quality of hospital services is also strongly dependent on nurses' performance, which significantly influences patient satisfaction. Nurses' quality of service is dependent on their performance (Hassmiller & Cozine, 2006), it is useful for hospital managers to attract and retain employees who are competent in exhibiting these behaviors (Bolon, 1997).

Based on the above discussion, it will lead to the below conceptual framework study that stated on Figure 1.1 .

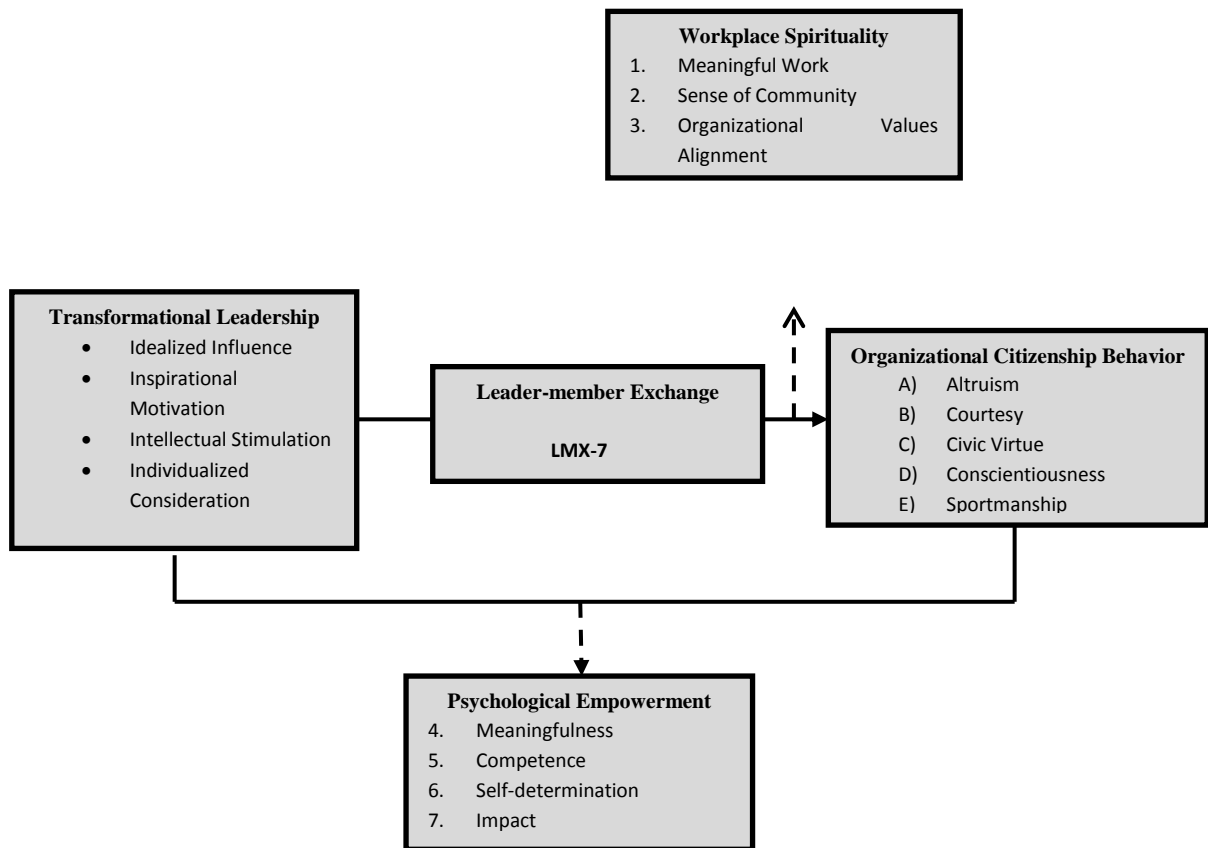


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework of the Research

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Instrument and Analysis Data

The questionnaire will be written in two languages which are Bahasa Malaysia and English. For the Bahasa Malaysia version, the translation process that will be used in this study is a method of back-translation (Brislin, 1970). Recommended by most-cultural researchers, back translation involves asking independent bilinguals to translate the original instrument from the source language to target language, and then having different bilinguals translate it back to the source language.

Multiple Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bass (1985) is used to measure transformational leadership of the respondents' leaders. It comprises four dimensions that are idealized influence (16 items), inspirational motivation (29 items), individualized consideration (7 items) and intellectual stimulation (3 items). MLQ comprises 72 items which measure two types of leadership that is transformational and transactional leadership. However, only 55 items are used to measure the transformational leadership. Five-point Likert scale is adopted to rate the items of MLQ (1=Rarely, 2=Seldom, 3=Quite frequent, 4=frequent, 5= very frequent).

Respondents assessed OCB behavior by using the five-dimensional scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990); the response options ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The scale was based on Organ's (1988) dimensions of OCB. The five dimensions (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, civic virtue) of OCB measured 22 items, the first two dimensions with 5 items and the last three dimensions with 4 items.

For the LMX variable, it will be measured by using LMX-7 questionnaire by Gerstner and Day (1997). This questionnaire will have seven items and will be answered by member because Gerstner and Day (1997) inferred that the LMX is better assessed through member reports than through leader reports.

While, for workplace spirituality variable, it will contain three dimensions which include meaningful work (6 items), sense of community (7 items) and alignment with organizational values (8 items). The instrument for this research will be adapted from Milliman et al. (2003) who initially convert workplace spirituality dimensions to practical scales for measuring its influence in the organizational outcomes. Five-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neither agrees nor disagree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree) will be applied to rate each questionnaire item.

For the last dimension, the psychological empowerment scale constructed by Spreitzer (1995) will be adapted to measure psychological empowerment. It is a self-report questionnaire designed to measure the four dimensions of psychological empowerment conceptualized by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) which are meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. This instrument consists of 12 items, where 3 items for each dimension and it will be measured by using seven-point Likert scale. Data of the research will be analyzed quantitatively by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

3.2 Population and Sampling

To obtain the information required, data will be collected among nurses at government hospitals in Malaysia. The steps to select the sample are stated in Figure 3.1.

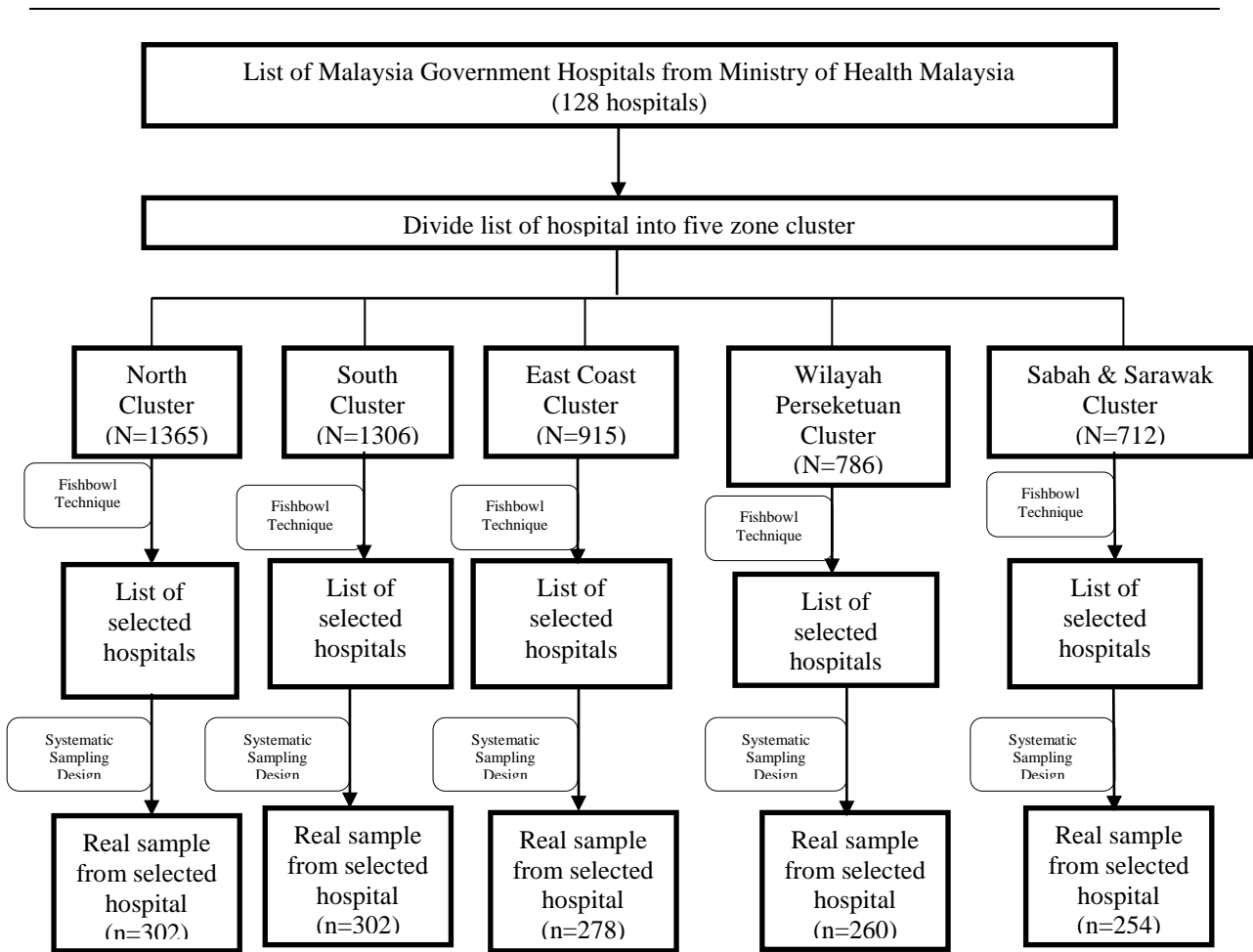


Figure 2.1: Sampling Process

4. References

- Altuntas, S., & Baykal, U. (2010). Relationship between Nurses' Organizational Trust Levels and Their Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 42(2), 186–194.
- Ashmos, D. P., & Duchon, D. (2000). Spirituality at Work: A Conceptualization and Measure. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 9(2), 134–145.
- Avolio, B. J., Sosik, J. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). *Leadership Models, Methods and Applications*. New York: Wiley.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(8), 951–968.
- Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. Retrieved from <http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1992-98503-003>
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, Character and Authentic Transformational Leadership Behavior. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181–218.
- Boehnke, K., Bontis, N., DiStefano, J. J., & Distefano, A. C. (2003). Transformational Leadership: An Examination of Cross-National Differences and Similarities. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24(1), 5–15.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2003). Going the Extra Mile: Cultivating and Managing Employee Citizenship Behavior. *Academy of Management Executive*, 17(3), 60–73.

- Bolon, D. S. (1997). Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Hospital Employees: A Multidimensional Analysis Involving Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. *Hospital and Health Services Administration, 42*(2), 221–241.
- Bosch, L. (2009). The Inevitable Role of Spirituality in the Workplace. *Business Intelligence Journal, 2*(1), 139–157.
- Bowler, W. M. (2006). Organizational Goals Versus The Dominant Coalition: A Critical View of The Value of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management, 7*(3), 258–273.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1*(3), 185–216.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The Empowerment Process: Integrating Theory and Practice. *Academy of Management Review, 13*, 471–482.
- Conger, L. A. (1999). Charismatic and Transformational Leadership in Organizations: An Insider's Perspective on These Developing Streams of Research. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 145–179.
- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of Transformational Leadership on Follower Development and Performance: A Field Experiment. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 735–744.
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analysis Review of Leader-member Exchange Theory: Correlation and Construct Issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 827–844.
- Gong, Y., Huang, J. C., & Farh, J. L. (2004). Employee learning orientation, transformational leadership, and employee creativity: The mediating role of employee creative self-efficacy. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 765–778.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Development of Leader-member Exchange (LMX) Theory of Leadership Over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-level Multi-domain Perspective. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*, 219–247.
- Hassmiller, S. B., & Cozine, M. (2006). Addressing the Nurse Shortage to Improve the Quality of Patient Care. *Journal of Health Affairs, 25*(1), 268–274.
- Heskett, J. L., Jones, T. O., Loveman, G. W., Sasser, W. E., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1994). Putting the Service-Profit Chain to Work. *Harvard Business Review, 72*(2), 164–174.
- Hoigaard, R., Jones, G. W., & Peters, D. M. (2008). Preferred Coach Leadership Behavior in Elite Soccer in Relation to Success and Failure. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 3*(2), 241–250.
- Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The Ties That Bind: The Impact of Leader-member Exchange, Transformational leadership and Transactional Leadership, and Distance on Predicting Follower Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 680–694.
- Hyatt, D. E., & Ruddy, T. M. (1997). An Examination of the Relationship between Work Group Characteristics and Performance: Once More into the Breach. *Personnel Psychology, 50*(3), 553–585.
- Jurkiewicz, C. L., & Giacalone, R. A. (2004). A Values Framework for Measuring the Impact of Workplace Spirituality on organizational Performance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 49*(2), 129–142.
- Kanter, R. M. (1979). *Financial Support of Women's Programs in 1970s*. New York, NY: Ford Foundation.
- Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The Change Masters*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Karriker, J. H., & Williams, M. L. (2009). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: A mediated multifoci model. *Journal of Management, 35*(1), 112–135.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(4), 744–764.
- Krishnakumar, S., & Neck, C. P. (2002). The What, Why and How of Spirituality in the Workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17*(3), 153–164.
- Lawler, E. E., Moharman, S. A., & Ledford, G. E. (1992). *Employee Involvement and Total Quality Management: Practices and Results in Fortune 1000 Companies*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publisher.
- Milliman, J., Czaplewski, A. J., & Ferguson, J. (2003). Workplace Spirituality and Employee Work Attitudes: An Exploratory Empirical Assessment. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 16*(4), 426–447.
- Milliman, J., & Ferguson, J. (1999). Spirit and Community at Southwest Airlines: An Investigation of a Spiritual Values-Based Model. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 12*(3), 221–233.
- Neal, J., & Biberman, J. (2003). Introduction: The Leading Edge in Research on Spirituality and Organizations. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 16*(4), 363–366.
- Nezakati, H., Asgari, O., Karimi, F., & Kohzadi, V. (2010). Fostering Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Through Human Resources Empowerment (HRE). *World Journal of Management, 2*(3), 47–64.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The good Soldier Syndrome*. DC: Lexington.
- Organ, D. W. (1990). The Motivational Basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 12*, 43–72.

-
- Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct cleanup time. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85–97.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences*. New Delhi: Sage Publications Inc.
- Pawar, B. S. (2009). Some of the Recent Organizational Behavior Concepts as Precursors to Workplace Spirituality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 88(2), 245–261.
- Pearce, C. L., Sims, H. P., Cox, J. F., Ball, G., Schnell, E., Smith, K. A., & Trevino, L. (2003). Transactor, Transformers and Beyond: A Multi-method Development of a Theoretical Typology of Leadership. *Journal of Management Development*, 22(4), 273–307.
- Piccolo, R., & Colquitt, J. (2006). Transformational Leadership and Job Behaviors: The Mediating Role of Core Job Characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 327–340.
- Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C. A., & Williams, E. S. (1999). Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management*, 25(6), 897–933.
- Podsakoff, N. P., MacKenzie, S. B., & Moorman, R. H. (1990). Transformational Leader Behaviors and Their Effects on Followers' Trust in Leader, Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107–142.
- Prabhakar, G. (2005). Switch Leadership in Projects: An Empirical Importance of The Transformational Leadership on Project Success Across Twenty-eight Nations. *Project Management Journal*, 36(4), 53–60.
- Puffer, S. (1987). Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 36(4), 53–60.
- Reuvers, M., Engen, M. L. V., Vinkenburg, C. J., & Wilson-Evered, E. (2008). Transformational Leadership and Innovative Work Behaviour: Exploring the Relevance of Gender Differences. *Leadership and Innovation*, 17(3), 227–244.
- Sims, H. P., & Manz, C. C. (1996). *Company of Heroes: Unleashing the Power of Self-Leadership*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement and Validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1442–1485.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1996). Social Structural Characteristics of Psychological Empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2), 1442–1265.
- Spreitzer, G. M., De Janasz, S. C., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). Empowered to Lead: The Role of Psychological Empowerment in Leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(4), 511–526.
- Staw, B. M., & Epstein, L. D. (2000). What Bandwagons Bring: Effects of Popular Management Techniques on Corporate Performance, Reputation, and CEO Pay. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45(3), 523–560.
- Steingard, D. S. (2005). Spirituality-informed Management Theory: Toward Profound Possibilities for Inquiry and Transformation. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 14(3), 227–241.
- Tepper, B. J., Lockhart, D., & Hoobler, J. M. (2001). Justice, citizenship, and role definition effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(4), 789–796.
- Thomas, K., & Velthouse, B. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), 666–681.
- Tsai, Y., & Wu, S. W. (2011). The Relationships between Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 20(9), 1504–1514.
- Wang, G., Oh, I. S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group and Organization Management*, 36(2), 223–270.
- Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member Exchanges as a Mediator of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Followers' Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 420–432.

Work-Family Facilitation, Job Satisfaction and Psychological Strain Among Malaysian Female Employees

Ruhaya Hussin

Department of Psychology, International Islamic University Malaysia

Abstract Previously, work-family conflict has been the main focus of work and family studies in Malaysia. However, recent research has found that combining work and family domains does not always result in negative outcomes for employees. In this study, the relationships between the positive aspect of work-family interface (work-family facilitation) and job satisfaction with psychological strain among employees were tested. Additionally, the roles of job satisfaction as a mediator between work-family facilitation and psychological strain were examined. A total number of 740 female employees from several organisations in Malaysia completed the survey. The hierarchical regression and structural equation modelling analyses were conducted to analyse the data. As expected, the findings provided evidences for (i) direct effects of work-family facilitation and job satisfaction on psychological strain and (ii) mediating effects of job satisfaction on the relationship between work-family facilitation and psychological strain. The implications, limitations, and recommendations were also discussed.

Keywords: work-family facilitation, job satisfaction, psychological strain, female employees, Malaysia, mediation.

1. Introduction

Work and family are closely related in employed women's lives. Work and family domains represents important components of their self identity (Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992). While work provides employed women with financial security and status, family provides the foundation of support and intimacy. Although women work, they are still actively act as the homemakers for the family. Therefore, there is a need to examine how work and family positively affect employed women's lives.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Work-family facilitation

Work-family facilitation occurs when participation in work and family roles benefit each other. In other words, work-family facilitation represents the extent to which individuals' involvement in their work role makes it easier for them to fulfil the requirements of their family role and vice versa. According to Barnett (1998), despite consistent evidence of the benefits of work-family facilitation on well-being, this area has been largely ignored by researchers and policy makers. In Malaysia, only a small number of published research (e.g. Hussin, 2014; Nasurdin, 2013; Mustapha, 201) has been focused in this area. By understanding the role of work-family facilitation in employed women's lives, organisations and policy makers will be able to develop programmes and policies that will benefit the employees and enhance their productivity. In return, the employees will optimally serve the organisations they work in. This paper aims at investigating the direct effects of work-family

facilitation and job satisfaction on psychological strain. Another objective of this paper is to test the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between work-family facilitation and psychological strain.

2.2 Role accumulation

Researchers (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) suggested that role accumulation underlies the notion of work-family facilitation. According to Sieber (1974), individuals earn multiple rewards when participating in work and family domains, such as more role privileges (e.g., job control and job autonomy) and greater status enhancement (e.g., networking and invitations to social gathering). Marks (1977) also stressed that certain roles such as being a parents at home might create energy (e.g., enjoyment and happiness) for individuals and the energy benefits them when they perform other roles (e.g., be in a good mood at work).

This perspective was supported by empirical research in which work-family facilitation was found to be negatively related to distress (Shimada, Shimazu, Bakker, Demerouti, & Kawakami, 2010) and intentions to leave (Russo & Buonocore, 2012). Past studies also shown that work-family facilitation predicted better physical health, lower absenteeism, and increased job performance over time (van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009).

2.3 Work-family facilitation, job satisfaction, and psychological strain

Previous studies found that both directions of work-family facilitation (WFF and FWF) were associated with work and non-work outcomes. Work-to-family facilitation (WFF) is associated with lower turnover intention (Russo & Buonocore, 2012), increased job satisfaction (Hunter, Perry, Carlson, & Smith, 2010), and higher organisational commitment (Gordon et al., 2007). Family-to-work facilitation (FWF) is positively associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005), organisational citizenship behaviour (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006), and elevated family satisfaction (Nicklin & McNall, 2013). While some researchers agree that the outcomes of work-family facilitation are domain-specific (e.g., Nicklin & McNall, 2013), others did not find any difference in the outcomes of WFF and FWF (e.g., Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009). Thus, it is generally accepted in the literature that work-family facilitation increased well-being (Russo & Buonocore, 2012).

Job satisfaction on the other hand was found to be related to positively flexible work hours (Scandura & Lankau, 1997) and organizational commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), and negatively related to strain and burnout (Ramirez, Graham, Richards, Gregory, & Cull, 1996). Apart from its direct effects, job satisfaction also acts as mediators between predictors and criterion variables. For example, job satisfaction was found to be a mediator between role overload and lack of career development on organizational commitment. Specifically, employees who perceive (a) the assignments and duties required by the job to be far more than they can tolerate, and (b) that there are no opportunities or very few opportunities for advancement in the job might be less satisfied with the job and in turn less committed to the organization (Yousef, 2002).

Hence, in this study, it is hypothesized that (i) the higher the work-family facilitation and job satisfaction, the lower the psychological strain and (ii) job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-family facilitation and psychological strain.

3. Methodology

The participants in this study consisted of full-time (at least those who worked 30 hours per week) employed women in Malaysia representing the local authority, construction industry, education and training industry, manufacturing, finance, and other industries (i.e., legal, optometry, jewellery, and automobile). The questionnaires and returned envelopes (with stamp and researcher's name and address) were distributed to all participants through Human Resource Managers. A number of 740 participants returned the completed questionnaires via mail.

The questionnaire consisted of twenty one items measuring three constructs and four demographic variables. All constructs were assessed with pre existing measures from the literature. The constructs include:

Work-family facilitation

The Multidimensional Work-Family Spillover Scale (Hanson et al., 2006), which consists of 22 items, was utilised to measure facilitation. The scale consists six types of work-family facilitation: WFF affective ($\alpha = 0.90$), WFF behaviour ($\alpha = 0.94$), WFF value ($\alpha = 0.94$), FWF affective ($\alpha = 0.83$), FWF behaviour ($\alpha = 0.95$), and FWF value ($\alpha = 0.95$) (Hanson et al., 2006). Participants were asked to indicate their agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” to “5 = strongly agree”.

Job Satisfaction

The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire by Cammann and colleagues (1979), consisting of three items was, used to measure overall job satisfaction. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .77 (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). Responses were on a five-point scale, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” to “5 = strongly agree”. This scale consists of two positively worded items (e.g., “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”) and one negatively worded item (e.g., “In general, I don’t like my job”). The score for negatively worded item was reversed before further analysis.

Psychological strain

The General Health Questionnaire-8 (Kalliath et al., 2004) was used to measure psychological well-being. The scale consists of two subscales (i.e. social dysfunction and anxiety/depression) with four items each. Participants were asked to rate on a 6-point scale (“1 = never” to “6 = all the time”), indicating how they felt over the previous three months. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .91 (Kalliath et al., 2004).

4. Results

Table 1 presents the direct effects of work-family facilitation and job satisfaction with psychological strain. Work-to family facilitation was not related to both social dysfunction and anxiety/depression. Family-to-work facilitation (FWF) however was significantly related to social dysfunction, in which higher FWF was related to lower social dysfunction. Additionally, higher job satisfaction was related to reduced social dysfunction and anxiety/depression.

Table 1: Hierarchical regression of social dysfunction and anxiety/depression on work-family facilitation and job satisfaction

Variables ($n = 740$)	Social dysfunction		Anxiety/ depression	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	0.05***		0.06***	
Step 2	0.16***		0.09***	
WFF		-0.03		-0.15
FWF		-0.09**		0.18
Job satisfaction		-0.52***		-0.46***

The model in this study yielded a good fit to the data with $\chi^2/df = 2.47$, RMR = 0.02, RMSEA = 0.04, GFI = 0.94, and CFI = 0.97. Thus, this model was used for further analysis in this study. The main purpose of this analysis was to test the specific mediation effects of job satisfaction in the relationships between work-family facilitation and psychological strain. Hence, the direct, indirect, and total effects of job satisfaction with work-family facilitation and psychological strain (social dysfunction and anxiety/depression) were examined and are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Mediation effects of job satisfaction between work-family facilitation and psychological strain

Predictor → Mediator → Criterion	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect	Mediation types
WFF → job satisfaction → social dysfunction	0.00	-0.12	-0.12	No
FWF → job satisfaction → social dysfunction	0.00	-0.23*	-0.23*	Full
WFF → job satisfaction → anxiety/depression	0.00	-0.03	-0.03	No
FWF → job satisfaction → anxiety/depression	0.00	-0.07**	-0.07**	Full

The results indicated that job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship of family-to-work facilitation and psychological strain (social dysfunction and anxiety/depression).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

As predicted, employees with higher family-to-work facilitation and higher job satisfaction experienced lower psychological strain. Interestingly, high work-to family facilitation was not related to low psychological strain. One possible explanation is even Malaysian women may be the joint-breadwinners of the family, they are still expected by society to be the primary homemakers. Hence, positive experience between work and family domains might not be enough to reduce their psychological strain.

This study also found that job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between family-to-work facilitation and psychological strain (social dysfunction and anxiety/depression), but not work-to family facilitation. The results of this study indicate that employees' family domain facilitates their work domain, which most likely may result in high job satisfaction among them; and in turn may reduce their social dysfunction and anxiety/depression. As a collectivist society, Malaysians view the concept of work differently from an individualistic society. Collectivists believe that family welfare is very important in order to achieve happiness and a meaningful life (Lu, Robin, Kao, & Huang, 2006). Therefore, salary as a work resource might improve family quality and, as a result, increase job satisfaction, which in turn, might reduce psychological strain.

However, the results did not support the mediating effect of job satisfaction between work-to-family facilitation and psychological strain. These findings illustrate that work-family facilitation is not domain specific (Haar & Bardoel, 2008), as FWF but not WFF was related to work outcome. In relation to this, the mediating roles of work and family variables such as job distress, organisational change, or an onset of a critical illness might be worth testing to explain this relationship. Thus, future research that includes mediating variables between work-family facilitation and well-being is needed.

6. References

- Aryee, S., Srinivas, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(1), 132-146.
- Balmforth, K., & Gardner, D. (2006). Conflict and facilitation between work and family: Realizing the outcomes for organizations. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 35*, 69-76.
- Barnett, R. C. (1998). Toward a review and reconceptualization of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*.
- Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). *The Michigan organisational assessment questionnaire*. Unpublished manuscript. University of Michigan. Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- Cook, J. D., Hepworth, S. J., Wall, T. D., & Warr, P. B. (1981). *The experience of work: A compendium and review of 249 measures and their use*. London: Academic Press.
- Frone, M. R., Russel, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(1), 65-78.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review, 31*(1), 72-92.
- Haar, J. M., & Bardoel, E. A. (2008). Positive spillover from the work—family interface: A study of Australian employees. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 46*(3), 275-287.
- Hanson, G. C., Hammer, L. B., & Colton, C. L. (2006). Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Work-Family Positive Spillover. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*(3), 249-265.
- Hunter, E. M., Perry, S. J., Carlson, D. S., & Smith, S. A. (2010). Linking team resources to work—family enrichment and satisfaction. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*(2), 304-312.
- Hussin, R. (2014). *Work-family conflict and well-being among employed women in Malaysia: The roles of coping and work-family facilitation*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Waikato.

-
- Kalliath, T., O'Driscoll, M. P., & Brough, P. (2004). A confirmatory factor analysis of the General Health Questionnaire-12. *Stress & Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 20(1), 11-20.
- Lu, L., Robin, G., Kao, S.-F., & Huang, M.-T. (2006). A cross-cultural study of work/family demands, work/family conflict and wellbeing: the Taiwanese vs British. *Career Development International*, 11(1), 9-27.
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M. and Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14, 244-247.
- Mustapha, N., Ahmad, A., Uli, J., & Idris, K. (2011). Work-family facilitation and family satisfaction as mediators in the relationship between job demands and intention to stay. *Asian Social Science*, 7(6), p142-153.
- Nasurdin, A. M., Ahmad, N. H., & Zainal, S. R. M. (2013). Comparing work-family conflict and facilitation among male and female entrepreneurs in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 14(1), 149-162.
- Nicklin, J. M., & McNall, L. A. (2013). Work-family enrichment, support, and satisfaction: A test of mediation. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 22(1), 67-77.
- Ramirez, A. J., Graham, J., Richards, M. A., Gregory, W. M., & Cull, A. (1996). Mental health of hospital consultants: the effects of stress and satisfaction at work. *The Lancet*, 347(9003), 724-728.
- Russo, M., & Buonocore, F. (2012). The relationship between work-family enrichment and nurse turnover. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(3), 216-236.
- Sieber, S. D. (1974). Towards a theory of role accumulation. *American Sociological Review*, 39, 567-578
- Scandura, T. A., & Lankau, M. J. (1997). Relationships of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(4), 377-391.
- Shimada, K., Shimazu, A., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Kawakami, N. (2010). Work-family spillover among Japanese dual-earner couples: a large community-based study. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 52(6), 335-343.
- van Steenbergen, E. F., & Ellemers, N. (2009). Is managing the work-family interface worthwhile? Benefits for employee health and performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 617-642.

Kecerdasan Emosi Dan Stres Dalam Kalangan Ibu Tunggal Bekerja: Satu Senario

Cathy Suhaila Binti Abdullah⁺ dan Hamdan Bin Hj. Abd. Kadir
Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak: Secara konvensional, senario ketua isi rumah yang terajui oleh kaum wanita wujud apabila wanita bercerai mati atau bercerai hidup, ditinggalkan suami, mempunyai suami yang tidak mampu menyara keluarga kerana dipenjarakan atau wanita yang terpaksa menanggung keluarga kerana suami berhijrah secara kekal atau sementara. Dalam masyarakat Malaysia, golongan wanita yang telah berpisah atau kematian suami dikenali sebagai janda, balu atau pun ibu tunggal. Hal ini menyebabkan seseorang wanita itu memegang status ibu tunggal, maka golongan wanita tersebut jika bekerja akan menghadapi kejutan budaya seperti menyara, mengurus dan memimpin hidup berkeluarga dalam rumah tangga dengan pelbagai masalah sosial, mental, ekonomi dan anak-anak. Berdasarkan kepada senario dan latar belakang ini, kertas kerja ini akan cuba menganalisa peranan latihan kecerdasan emosi dalam meningkatkan tahap kecerdasan emosi serta mengurangkan stres dalam kalangan ibu tunggal bekerja. Kajian ini akan membincangkan beberapa bahagian. Pertama, peranan Persatuan Ibu tunggal bekerja C.A.R.E : Satu Analisis. Kedua, Konsep Kecerdasan Emosi : Perbandingan Perspektif Sarjana Barat Dan Timur. Ketiga, Stres dalam Kalangan Ibu tunggal bekerja. Keempat, Pendekatan Latihan Kecerdasan Emosi Dalam Isu Menangani Stres Ibu tunggal bekerja dan Kelima, kesimpulan dan saranan.

Kata Kunci: Kecerdasan Emosi, Stres, Latihan Kecerdasan Emosi, Ibu tunggal bekerja

1. Pengenalan

Kecerdasan emosi sangat penting kepada kesihatan mental dan psikologikal ibu tunggal bekerja. Oleh itu, latihan kecerdasan emosi penting bagi membangunkan kecerdasan emosi dan psikologikal ibu tunggal bekerja agar kesihatan mental mereka lebih terjamin. Tambahan pula, di era ini latihan kecerdasan emosi menjadi semakin popular dalam membangunkan tahap kecerdasan emosi ibu tunggal bekerja agar mereka tidak terdedah dengan stres dalam kehidupan seharian mereka yang serba mencabar. Kemiskinan, kemurungan, masalah disiplin di kalangan anak-anak, pertambahan kos hidup dengan persekitaran ekonomi yang tidak menentu, masalah sosial dan pelbagai lagi merupakan antara isu yang terpaksa ditangani oleh ibu tunggal bekerja (Ishak *et al.*, 2009). Ini kerana ibu tunggal bekerja telah dikenalpasti sebagai individu yang sering berhadapan dengan kehidupan yang sulit dan serba mencabar termasuklah kesempitan kewangan dan masalah kesihatan mental yang membimbangkan. Oleh itu, latihan kecerdasan emosi mampu memperkasakan kesejahteraan ibu tunggal bekerja bagi menghadapi cabaran semasa menjalani kehidupan melalui psikologi yang lebih sihat dan produktif (Cheeseman *et al.*, 2011).

Ibu tunggal bekerja merupakan antara golongan yang kurang mendapat perhatian daripada semua pihak termasuklah pihak berkuasa, NGO, orang perseorangan, pihak swasta mahupun badan berkanun. Dalam masyarakat Malaysia, golongan wanita yang telah berpisah atau kematian suami dikenali sebagai janda, balu ataupun ibu tunggal. Namun istilah yang akan digunakan dalam kajian ini adalah ibu tunggal bekerja.

□ Corresponding author. Tel.: +60-12-336-7969
E-mail address: Cathy1_suhaila@yahoo.com

Lazimnya pelbagai liku-liku dan cabaran terpaksa dilalui oleh ibu tunggal bekerja dalam meneruskan kehidupan mereka selepas ketiadaan suami di sisi. Apatah lagi bagi mereka yang terpaksa menanggung anak-anak yang masih kecil dan anak remaja yang bermasalah (Zakaria, 2005). Keadaan ini akan bertambah sulit sekiranya mereka tidak mampu untuk memperolehi pekerjaan yang tetap dalam menyara kehidupan keluarga.

Walau bagaimanapun, menurut Nasir (2011) kecerdasan emosi merupakan satu cabang ilmu yang masih baru dalam disiplin psikologi. Apabila kecerdasan emosi mula diperkenalkan kepada dunia, banyak sarjana yang mempersoalkan berkenaan keperluan dan signifikannya kepada kejayaan dan kebahagiaan hidup manusia.

2. Peranan Pertubuhan Ibu Tunggal (C.A.R.E) Bekerja : Satu Analisis

C.A.R.E dengan kata-kata slogan Cabaran, Akhliah, Reda dan Evolusi merupakan satu-satunya landasan bagi pergerakan ibu tunggal di negeri Johor. Pertubuhan ini membawa misi dalam menyediakan cabaran untuk ibu tunggal, menggunakan potensi dan kemantapan minda dan emosi mereka untuk redha menerima perubahan keadaan yang sedia ada iaitu mengubah paradigma dan sistem kepercayaan yang lebih rasional ke arah cara hidup maju jaya demi kepentingan anak-anak dan maruah keluarga mereka. Alamat dan tempat berurusan pertubuhan ini ialah di Pejabat Pengerusi Jawatankuasa Hal Ehwal Wanita dan Kebajikan Negeri Johor, Tingkat Empat, Jalan Ayer Molek, Johor Bahru. Pertubuhan ini merupakan salah satu daripada tiga belas cawangan pertubuhan ibu tunggal yang berada di Malaysia Undang-Undang Pertubuhan Ibu Tunggal, Johor, Malaysia (Riza, 2013). Antara tujuan pertubuhan persatuan ini ialah untuk :

- i. Menyatupadukan ibu-ibu tunggal di negeri Johor daripada semua peringkat dan kaum di negeri Johor tanpa mengira bangsa dan agama.
- ii. Berusaha untuk membela nasib ibu-ibu tunggal dari segi ekonomi, pendidikan, sosial, undang-undang dan peningkatan taraf hidup mereka melalui latihan-latihan dan kursus-kursus serta seminar yang akan dijalankan sepanjang tahun. Program serta aktiviti juga akan diadakan untuk memperluaskan pandangan serta wawasan ibu-ibu tunggal di bandar dan di luar bandar.
- iii. Pertubuhan juga akan bekerjasama dengan badan-badan dan pertubuhan-pertubuhan luar negeri yang berjuang untuk kepentingan ibu-ibu tunggal di negara mereka dan pertubuhan-pertubuhan lain yang selaras kepentingannya dengan pertubuhan ini.
- iv. Memperjuangkan dan mempertahankan kepentingan dan hak ibu-ibu tunggal.
- v. Memungut derma dan sumbangan dari agensi kerajaan, syarikat-syarikat korporat, orang-orang awam dan ahli untuk mengisi tabung kewangan pertubuhan dengan persetujuan mesyuarat agung yang selaras dengan undang-undang Pendaftar Pertubuhan Malaysia.

Berdasarkan laporan bancian pada tahun 2000, terdapat seramai 620,389 ibu tunggal yang berbilang kaum di negara ini (Abu Bakar et al, 2004). Manakala, laporan akhbar berita harian 2003 menyatakan seramai 529,701 ibu tunggal adalah balu dan 90,688 merupakan mereka yang bercerai atau hidup bercerai. Dengan jumlah ibu tunggal yang semakin meningkat dari tahun ke tahun selari dengan jumlah perceraian yang telah menjangkau angka 20,529 kes pada tahun 2007 bagi mereka yang beragama Islam manakala bilangan kes bagi kaum lain tidak dapat diperolehi. Keadaan ini cukup membimbangkan kerana ianya mampu memberikan kesan rantaian yang tinggi kepada pembentukan jiwa kanak-kanak malah institusi kekeluargaan itu sendiri akan turut terancam.

Lazimnya, ibu tunggal merupakan golongan yang ternyata hidup dalam "kesunyian" bersama-sama perubahan teknologi yang begitu pesat membangun, masyarakat yang berbagai-bagai ideologi, diskriminasi, kekeliruan nilai dan amalan-amalan tradisi yang berkonflik, tekanan hidup daripada aspek fizikal dan psikologi, rangsangan atau punca tekanan yang kompleks dan sebagainya. "Kesunyian hidup" di kalangan ibu tunggal yang dimaksudkan di sini ialah yang diertikatakan sebagai kehidupan yang masih jahil dengan amalan tingkahlaku positif bebas daripada kecelaruan tingkah laku yang membantutkan kemajuan dan keharmonian berinteraksi. Dengan itu ibu-ibu tunggal memerlukan kemahiran berkomunikasi interpersonal untuk menerima cabaran di hari muka agar dapat hidup lebih aktif dan produktif dengan diiktiraf oleh masyarakat setempat (Othman, 2005).

3. Konsep Kecerdasan Emosi : Perbandingan Perspektif Sarjana Barat Dan Timur

Emotional Quotient (EQ) atau kecerdasan emosi mula diperkenalkan oleh dua orang ahli psikologi iaitu Salovey dan Mayer (1997). Kemudian takrifan EQ dikembangkan lagi oleh Golernan (1998) dengan menggunakan model Salovey dan Mayor untuk melihat bagaimana EQ berkaitan dengancara hidup kerja melalui buku tersohnya '*Emotional Intelligence*'. EQ didefinisikan sebagai keupayaan untuk mengawal perasaan dan emosi diri sendiri dan orang lain, membezakan antara mereka serta menggunakan maklumat tersebut untuk

memimpin tindakan dan pemikiran seseorang itu (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Dalam definisi ini, EQ mempunyai empat aspek penting:

- i. Mengenalpasti emosi- keupayaan untuk mengenal pasti dengan betul bagaimana perasaan seseorang itu.
- ii. Menggunakan emosi - keupayaan untuk mewujudkan emosi serta mengintegrasikan perasaan ke dalam bentuk pemikiran.
- iii. Memahami emosi - keupayaan untuk memahami punca-punca emosi.
- iv. Menguruskan emosi - keupayaan untuk memikirkan strategi berkesan untuk menggunakan emosi bagi membantu mencapai matlamat daripada hanya digunakan oleh emosi.

EQ sebagai kebolehan untuk mengenalpasti emosi diri sendiri dan orang lain, untuk memotivasikan diri kita dan menguruskan emosi dengan baik dalam diri kita serta pembinaan hubungan antara perorangan (Goleman, 1998). Ia dapat dikategorikan kepada lima dimensi EQ seperti berikut:

- i. Kesedaran Diri (*self-awareness*). Mengamati diri dan mengenali perasaan diri sendiri; mengetahui hubungan antarafikiran, perasaan dan reaksi.
- ii. Kawalan Diri (*self-regulation*). Menguruskan keadaan desakan dan sumber dalaman seseorang
- iii. Motivasi Diri (*motivation*). Kecenderungan emosi yang memimpin atau memudahkan pencapaian matlamat.
- iv. Empati (*empathy*). Memahami perasaan dan masalah orang lain dan berfikir daripada sudut pandangan mereka; menghargai perbezaan perasaan orang mengenai pelbagai hal.
- v. Kemahiran Sosial (*social skills*). Kemahiran berkomunikasi dan keupayaan untuk membantu orang lain menguruskan emosinya.

Definisi EQ juga menunjukkan bahawa EQ merupakan satu kebolehan untuk mengekang perasaan atau emosi negatif seperti marah dan ragu-ragu serta memfokuskan kepada perasaan positif seperti keyakinan diri (Murray, 1998). Selain itu, terdapat empat kebolehan yang harus dimiliki untuk meningkatkan EQ seseorang individu, iaitu kebolehan untuk mengawal dorongan, emosi, berada dalam keadaan bermotivasi walaupun menghadapi kekecewaan dan berempati dengan orang lain (McGarvey, 1997).

Sehubungan itu, EQ merupakan kebolehan untuk merasai, memahami dan mengaplikasikan secara berkesan kuasa dan penilaian yang baik terhadap emosi yang merupakan sumber tenaga, informasi, perhubungan dan pengaruh manusia (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). Memahami kecerdasan emosi sebagai berfikir bersama emosi untuk menunjukkan tingkah laku yang positif dan diperlukan. Secara tidak langsung, kecerdasan emosi dapat mengawal tingkahlaku seseorang (Weisinger, 1998). Berdasarkan buku yang ditulis, beliau membahagikan kecerdasan emosi kepada dua kategori utama iaitu kemahiran untuk diri sendiri, daripada kesedaran sendiri, menguruskan emosi sendiri dan motivasi sendiri. Kategori kedua pula terdiri daripada kemahiran komunikasi yang efektif, kemahiran interpersonal, membantu orang lain dan membantu diri sendiri.

Kecerdasan emosi juga didefinisikan sebagai kemampuan untuk mengawal dan mengelolakan diri sendiri dan orang lain dari aspek perasaan, emosi dan tingkah laku (Goleman, 1998). Ia juga merupakan tindakan dan kepintaran untuk mengubahsuai sesuatu tingkah laku bersesuaian dengan masa dan keadaan. Selain itu, kecerdasan emosi adalah keupayaan untuk melihat emosi untuk mengakses dan menjana emosi supaya dapat membantu pemikiran, untuk memahami emosi dan pengetahuan emosi dan untuk membuat refleksi (iktibar) bagi mengawal emosi untuk menggalakkan pertumbuhan emosi dan intelek (Mayer *et al.*, 2008).

Kecerdasan emosi juga mencakupi pengendalian diri, semangat dan ketekunan serta kemampuan memotivasikan diri sendiri dan bertahan menghadapi kegagalan, kesanggupan mengendalikan dorongan hati dan emosi, tidak melebihi-lebihkan kesenangan, mengatur suasana hati dan menjaganya supaya tekanan tidak melumpuhkan kemampuan berfikir bagi membaca perasaan terhadap orang lain dan berdoa untuk memelihara hubungan dengan sebaik-baiknya, kemampuan untuk menyelesaikan konflik serta untuk memimpin (Abd. Hamid, 2004).

Daripada definisi-definisi di atas kesimpulannya kecerdasan emosi adalah pelbagai keupayaan bukan kognitif, kecekapan, dan kemahiran yang mempengaruhi kemampuan seseorang untuk berjaya dalam menghadapi tuntutan dalam diri dan tekanan alam sekitar (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Oleh itu, Kecerdasan emosi adalah merupakan salah satu faktor penting yang memainkan peranan utama dalam kesihatan mental. Kecerdasan emosi juga adalah sejenis kecerdasan sosial, termasuklah keupayaan mengawal emosi seseorang individu dan individu yang lain, memanipulasi maklumat untuk menguruskan pemikiran dan tindakan seseorang individu itu, mengawal emosi dalam diri dan orang lain, serta menggunakan emosi yang sesuai untuk menyelesaikan sesuatu kesukaran secara efektif walaupun halangan dan kesukaran itu berlaku saban hari (Mayer *et al.*, 2004).

4. Stres Dalam Kalangan Ibu Tunggal Bekerja

Seseorang wanita itu digelar sebagai ibu tunggal bekerja apabila kematian suami dan terpaksa meneruskan kerjaya dan tugas membesarkan anak-anak atau seorang wanita bekerja yang telah bercerai dengan suaminya serta telah diberikan hak penjagaan ke atas anak-anaknya atau pun seorang wanita yang digantung tidak bertali kerana tidak diberi nafkah oleh suaminya ataupun seorang wanita yang dalam proses perceraian (yang mungkin akan mengambil masa yang panjang) dan anak-anaknya masih berada di bawah jagaannya pada waktu ini. Ibu tunggal bekerja ini juga termasuk seorang ibu yang mana suaminya tinggal berasingan dan tidak boleh memainkan peranan aktif sebagai bapa dalam keluarga atau suaminya uzur dan tidak boleh membantu membesarkan anak-anaknya serta memerlukan penjagaan rapi atau pun seorang ibu yang diberi tugas membesarkan anak orang lain tanpa pertolongan suami (Majzub & Abdul Karim, 1999).

Wanita yang dahulunya terkenal dengan sifat-sifat kewanitaannya seperti kelembutan, kesayangan, kesabaran dan sebagainya boleh mengalami suatu perubahan yang drastik dalam gaya hidup khususnya dari segi sikap dan tanggapan, cara mereka berfikir dan pengawalan tingkahlakunya. Sifat dan sikap negatif yang dipelajari atau yang melekat sejak alam kanak-kanak sehingga dewasa terbawa-bawa ke masa ini seterusnya menjadi impak yang besar terhadap tekanan dan masalah psikologi atau kewangan dewasa ini. Oleh itu, apabila seseorang wanita itu memegang status ibu tunggal bekerja, maka golongan wanita tersebut akan menghadapi kejutan budaya seperti menyara, mengurus dan memimpin hidup berkeluarga dalam rumah tangga dengan pelbagai masalah sosial, mental, ekonomi dan anak-anak. Keadaan ini menimbulkan masalah psikologi kepada ibu tunggal bekerja itu sendiri seperti kedukaan, gangguan emosi, ketegangan yang akhirnya menyebabkan mereka mengalami *Psychological Conversion Disorders* iaitu mereka percaya diri mereka sakit walaupun sebenarnya mereka tidak sakit (Abdul Hamid, 2008). Walau bagaimanapun, beliau menjelaskan bahawa kesan yang dialami bergantung kepada kecerdasan emosi, personaliti, konsep sendiri serta cara ibu tunggal bekerja itu menangani masalah. Di samping sokongan moral, kewangan dan material yang diperolehi daripada keluarga, institusi kerajaan dan badan bukan kerajaan (NGO).

Oleh itu, ibu tunggal bekerja ini perlu dilengkapi dengan kecerdasan emosi, kemahiran berkomunikasi secara asertif atau bebas dari stres yang takut jika tidak diurus dengan baik akan berlaku kecelaruan tingkah laku dan kemurungan (Abu Bakar, 2011). Mereka boleh meneruskan hidup berdikari dan jati diri agar mereka berani membuat keputusan dengan lebih yakin demi kemantapan perlakuan, pembangunan diri rohani dan jasmani, hubungan sosial di rumah dan di tempat kerja, pencapaian prestasi dan kepuasan kerja (Abdul Rani, 2008). Tambahan pula, stres mampu menyumbang kepada ketidakstabilan emosi bagi golongan ibu tunggal bekerja dan anak-anak mereka. Keseimbangan dan kestabilan emosi amat penting bagi ibu tunggal bekerja terutamanya dalam konteks bekerja, mereka perlu menguruskan pembesaran anak-anak dan kesediaan untuk berhadapan dengan perubahan yang berlaku dari semasa ke semasa (Husain, 2000). Bagi ibu tunggal bekerja yang kehilangan suami akibat kematian, mereka terpaksa menyesuaikan diri dengan situasi yang baru atau dengan kata lain kehilangan tempat bergantung, orang yang dicintai, teman suka dan duka. Manakala, bagi mereka yang bercerai pula, mereka terpaksa mengisi 'kekosongan' yang ditinggalkan oleh bekas suami. Ini bermakna, mereka terpaksa memainkan peranan sebagai ibu dan juga bapa. Menambahkan lagi stres kepada golongan ini sekiranya bekas suami tidak membayar nafkah bagi membantu menyara anak-anak. Keadaan ini akan menjadi lebih teruk sekiranya ibu tunggal menghadapi masalah dengan pihak mahkamah semasa membuat tuntutan nafkah mahupun harta sepencarian (Asari Abdullah, 2003). Proses perceraian, tuntutan nafkah, harta dan sebagainya yang mengambil masa panjang akan menambahkan lagi kos di samping terpaksa berdepan dengan prosedur yang rumitkan (Ishak *et al.*, 2009).

Oleh itu, ibu tunggal bekerja perlu bersedia dan kuat untuk menghadapi situasi sebegini. Cabaran yang besar untuk ibu tunggal bekerja membentuk sistem dan pengurusan emosi yang baik supaya masalah-masalah sebegini tidak melemahkan mereka dan anak-anak. Dalam konteks anak-anak, perpisahan mahupun kematian bapa akan menimbulkan konflik dalam jiwa mereka. Jika tidak diperhalusi dan dibentuk dengan baik, ia mungkin menyebabkan anak-anak kerap memberontak di mana ia merupakan salah satu medium bagi mereka meluahkan perasaan. Oleh itu, emosi akan menyebabkan keadaan tidak seimbang daripada segi fizikal dan akan menjejaskan tingkahlaku kanak-kanak tersebut (Yahaya, 2008). Tindakbalas seseorang kanak-kanak terhadap sesuatu rangsangan akan menimbulkan sesuatu emosi dan bergantung kepada pengalamannya yang lalu.

Emosi tersebut akan mempengaruhi penyesuaian dirinya. Setengah-tengah kanak-kanak telah belajar menyatakan emosi mereka serta-merta dan ada pula yang belajar menghalang dan menyekat gangguan emosi mereka tetapi akan mengeluarkan perasaan geram itu pada suatu masa yang lebih sesuai. Apabila seseorang kanak-kanak itu meluahkan perasaannya, ia sering dikatakan sebagai tidak matang oleh orang lain. Sebaliknya jika emosi geramnya itu dipendam ia akan merasa murung dan ini akan menyebabkannya menjadi lebih biadab, cepat marah, bengis, tidak mahu bekerjasama dan merenung tentang dirinya sendiri. Tekanan emosi yang tinggi akan menyebabkan kanak-kanak itu merasa gelisah, gentar dan kurang senang. Emosi dominan yang dialami oleh kanak-kanak biasanya lebih mempengaruhi personaliti kanak-kanak jika dibandingkan dengan emosi

ketegangan yang menyeluruh. Persekitaran kerja pula sering menggalakkan pola-pola emosi yang tidak baik. Sebagai contoh perasaan risau atau susah hati yang terlalu banyak dan selalu akan melemahkan keyakinan kendirinya seperti kanak-kanak. Orang dewasa pula akan menilai tingkahlaku kanak-kanak dengan cara yang positif apabila kanak-kanak tersebut menyekat atau mengawal perasaannya yang meluap (Ishak *et al.*, 2009).

5. Pendekatan Latihan Kecerdasan Emosi Dalam Isu Menangani Stres Ibu Tunggal

Di Amerika Syarikat hari ini, golongan ibu tunggal yang pada mulanya mengalami stres dan yang tidak ditangani dengan sempurna telah hidup dalam keadaan “*depressed*” bersendirian, dengan bebanan masalah kewangan serta tanggungjawab mengasuh dan membesarkan anak-anak, menghadapi risiko bersama anak-anak dalam membuat penyesuaian psikososial (Okun, 2000). Tekanan psikologi dan beban emosi yang ditanggung oleh ibu tunggal merupakan satu impak pada jiwa mereka yang melibatkan anak-anak, jiran tetangga, saudara mara dan majikan. Tambahan pula, ibu tunggal mempunyai kesan psikologi implikasi terhadap impak kehilangan pandu arah hidup atau *loss of self-direction* yang terjadi serta merta menimbulkan pelbagai masalah yang berpanjangan daripada aspek psikologikal, ekonomi dan sosial (Doshi & Panalal, 2005).

Dewasa ini, gejala atau simptom kecelaruan tingkah laku dari aspek stres mungkin berbeza daripada tanda-tanda psikosis (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002). Di samping itu, mereka mungkin berpunca secara langsung daripada stres atau mungkin hasil daripada isu-isu kecelaruan tingkah laku yang berlaku sekurang-kurangnya 6 bulan yang lalu. Gejala-gejala atau simptom stres bagi orang dewasa termasuklah kelupaan dan kealpaan yang kronik, kebimbangan, rendah diri, masalah kebosanan pekerjaan, kesukaran mengawal kemarahan, impulsif atau bertindak tanpa berfikir, penyalahgunaan dadah atau ketagihan, lemah dalam kemahiran mengorganisasi, procrastination atau suka berlengah-lengah, toleransi kekecewaan rendah, kebosanan kronik, kesukaran menumpukan perhatian apabila membaca, perubahan emosi, kemurungan (Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2002).

Alangkah malangnya nasib ibu tunggal yang bekerja sekiranya golongan ini juga dibiarkan terpinggir oleh masyarakat. Adalah dikhuatiri yang mereka akan terlazim dengan sikap terlalu bergantung, impulsif atau tidak sedar tentang siapa diri mereka yang sebenarnya. Mereka kurang bersikap optimistik dan implikasi dari sikap pesimis mereka itu menyebabkan mereka sukar menerima hakikat sebenar yang menimpa diri mereka. Walau bagaimanapun, kekuatan diri mereka dan bertambah dan berubah ke arah yang lebih positif secara beransur-ansur dan dapat membantu mereka berkomunikasi lebih efektif dan produktif dalam hidup bermasyarakat.

Justeru itu, hasil dari kejahilan dan kelembaban penggunaan akal serta emosi untuk berdaya maju dalam membangunkan diri menyebabkan orang lain mengambil alih tugas mereka. Mereka boleh berubah ke arah positif atau negatif kerana mereka mempunyai hak kebebasan untuk memilih (D’Mello & Graesser, 2012). Sekiranya mereka mengambil tindakan berkecualan untuk tidak berubah maka implikasinya secara tidak langsung menunjukkan bahawa hidup sesetengah ibu tunggal akan sewenang-wenangnya telah dikawal, dimanipulasi, dieksploitasi atau dipengaruhi oleh orang lain. Dengan itu ketidakupayaan menyelenggara hidup tanpa sokongan masyarakat yang berkomunikatif, berprihatin lagi berikhsan, golongan ibu tunggal tersebut dibimbangi terbiar serta terjerumus ke lembah ketidakpastian tentang kehidupan yang bermakna sehingga menyebabkan mereka alpa, cuai, lupa dan murung terhadap tanggungjawab kepada keluarga, anak-anak dan diri mereka sendiri. Akibat kecelaruan, kemurungan dan kealpaan tersebut secara tidak disedari mereka menjadi sebahagian daripada punca atau penyumbang utama dalam menjana gejala sosial, keganasan rumah tangga jika berkahwin lagi, kepincangan masyarakat dan keruntuhan moral (Hodgson *et al.*, 2001).

Oleh itu, nasib seseorang ibu tunggal bekerja sebagai ahli masyarakat yang berbakti berada di tangannya sendiri untuk memilih arah atau hala tuju dalam kehidupan ini. Jika mereka ingin dan berusaha ke arah kebaikan iaitu bebas daripada kejahilan maka mereka akan mencapainya dan jika mereka, dengan rela, memilih cara hidup yang salah, maka mereka akan bertanggungjawab ke atas gangguan emosi dan kecelaruan tingkahlaku mereka yang menjurus ke dalam kehidupan yang tidak menentu dan selanjutnya membawa kemusnahan kepada diri mereka sendiri (Widjajanti, 2003).

Tambahan pula, konsep kecerdasan emosi menerangkan kualiti-kualiti emosi yang menyumbang kepada penghasilan seseorang supaya kebolehan untuk memahami orang lain dan bertindak secara bijak dalam hubungan antara manusia (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002). Kajian-kajian terkini mendapati bahawa kecerdasan emosi dapat diajar iaitu ia boleh meningkat secara automatik melalui latihan kecerdasan emosi di mana ia dapat mengubah latihan kecerdasan emosi daripada mengelak stress dan memperbaiki tingkahlaku ke arah yang lebih positif.

Kecerdasan emosi juga adalah kebolehan untuk mengenali makna emosi dan hubungan mereka serta menyelesaikan masalah emosi yang ada dalam diri masing-masing (Mayer *et al.*, 2001). Oleh itu, kecerdasan emosi merangkumi semua kemahiran sama ada kemahiran interpersonal dan intrapersonal. Kemahiran interpersonal terdiri daripada kebolehan untuk memahami perasaan orang lain, perasaan, mengekalkan dan membangunkan hubungan interpersonal dan ke atas tanggungjawab sosial kita. Sebaliknya, kemahiran

intrapersonal terdiri daripada keupayaan untuk memahami motivasi sendiri. Kecerdasan emosi memainkan peranan penting dalam menentukan kejayaan hidup.

Selain itu, kesan penceraian serta faktor yang mampu menyumbang kepada permasalahan psikologi ialah stres, beliau melihat kepada kesan positif dan negatif daripada penceraian ibu bapa (Hilton & Kopera-Frye, 2003). Terdapat beberapa faktor yang menyumbang kepada punca penceraian, antaranya termasuk fungsi kawasan, kemelesetan, permusuhan, pemabuk (penggunaan alkohol) dan kesejahteraan. Perbezaan penjagaan ibu dan bapa dinilai berdasarkan satu siri herarki yang digunakan untuk menilai faktor-faktor yang telah membantu kedua-dua kumpulan tersebut (ibu dan bapa). Jika dibandingkan penjagaan ibu dengan bapa, kebanyakan kaum ibu adalah lebih muda, kurang berpendapatan dan lebih banyak mengalami masalah ekonomi. Dari segi fungsi kawasan, pendapatan dan permusuhan, kaum ibu lebih terdedah kepada situasi tersebut, namun sebaliknya bagi penggunaan alkohol, kaum ibu kurang terdedah dengan masalah ini. Oleh itu, isu penceraian tidak boleh dipandang remeh kerana ia melibatkan permasalahan emosi antara anak-anak dan ibu itu sendiri. Pengurusan emosi yang baik mampu memberi ruang dan peluang bagi ibu tunggal untuk mengambil tindakan yang bijak dalam membuat sesuatu keputusan.

Latihan kecerdasan yang diikuti oleh seseorang individu itu mampu untuk mengembangkan dan membangunkan tahap kecerdasan emosi seseorang individu tersebut (Bar-On, 2000). Dalam erti kata yang lain, beberapa kajian telah menunjukkan bahawa kecerdasan emosi adalah merupakan sesuatu kebolehan yang boleh dipelajari (Clyne & Blampied, 2004; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2003; Hein, 2005; Kotsou et al., 2011; dan Ab. Rahman et al., 2003). Selain daripada itu, adalah didapati bahawa tahap penguasaan kecerdasan emosi didapati berbeza berdasarkan faktor jantina, umur, tahap pendidikan dan lain-lain faktor yang berkaitan dengan latar belakang seseorang.

6. Kesimpulan

Akhir kata dapat disimpulkan bahawa usaha mengadakan latihan kecerdasan emosi bagi meningkatkan tahap kecerdasan emosi serta mengurangkan stres dalam kalangan ibu tunggal bekerja sewajarnya diberi perhatian oleh semua pihak sama ada kerajaan, swasta, NGO, badan berkanun mahupun individu perseorangan. Tambahan pula, konsep kecerdasan emosi memberi peluang kepada ibu tunggal bekerja dalam sebuah organisasi itu untuk menyesuaikan diri mereka dengan emosi diri dan membentuk emosi yang sesuai untuk kepentingan diri mereka dan keperluan orang awam. Penerokaan yang dibuat oleh pengkaji-pengkaji menunjukkan kecerdasan emosi merupakan komponen dalaman manusia yang berpotensi untuk dibangunkan bagi mempengaruhi seseorang individu untuk mencapai kejayaan dalam kehidupan dan kerjaya. Kecerdasan emosi boleh dijadikan sebagai satu bentuk pengukuran keunggulan dan keberkesanan seseorang individu itu dalam melayari kehidupan yang serba mencabar ini yang dikaitkan dengan beberapa sikap kelaziman mental seperti kesedaran untuk memahami perasaan diri sendiri dan orang lain, empati, kasih-sayang, motivasi, dan kemampuan untuk memberi tindak balas secara wajar atas situasi-situasi tertentu. Fenomena ibu tunggal bukanlah sesuatu yang baru dalam masyarakat kita. Tetapi, sejak beberapa tahun kebelakangan ini, ia menjadi satu isu yang mengundang perbincangan bila kita berbincang tentang wanita dan keluarga yang mempunyai tanggungjawab untuk menyara keluarga. Baru-baru ini kita didedahkan kepada bilangan ibu tunggal bekerja yang begitu ramai dan meningkat daripada hari ke hari. Sebagai pencari rezeki yang tunggal, sama ada di sektor awam atau sektor swasta majoriti ibu tunggal berpendapatan kecil. Sumber kewangan yang terhad menghadkan pendapatan mereka. Ini tergambarkan dengan keadaan rumah yang sempit dan kurang selesa. Itu belum dikira keperluan lain seperti makanan dan pakaian yang tidak mencukupi. Kemiskinan berlaku kerana faktor-faktor bilangan tanggungan yang ramai, melakukan pekerjaan yang tidak menghasilkan pendapatan yang tinggi terutama di sektor tidak formal, tidak bekerja, tidak melakukan kerja-kerja sampingan, tingkat kemahiran dan pendidikan yang rendah dan faktor umur yang tua.

7. Rujukan

- Ab. Rahman, Hamidah and Abd. Kadir, Hamdan (2003) *Modul intervensi keganasan rumahtangga (penderaan anak) dan jenayah remaja (juvana): cadangan pendekatan untuk belia dan NGO*. Jurnal Kemanusiaan (2). pp. 1-19. ISSN 1675-1930.
- Abdul Kadir Abu Bakar, Noraini Jali, & Mohd Aminuddin Mohd Yusof. (2011). Management of Schizophrenia in Adults. *Malaysian Family Physician*, 6(2&3).
- Abu Hassan Asaari Abdullah, Dr. (2003). Ibu tunggal : Terdedah Kesan Psikologi. Kuala Lumpur: *Utusan Malaysia* keluaran 31 Ogos 2003.

- Ahmad Fauzi Abdul Hamid. (2008). *The Futuristic Thought of Ustaz Ashaari Muhammad of Malaysia. The Blackwell Companion to Contemporary Islamic Thought*, 195-212.
- Azizi Hj. Yahaya. (2008). *Pembentukan Personaliti Remaja. Johor: Sekudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.*
- Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and Social Intelligence: Insights from the Emotional QuotientInventory. In R. Bar-On, and J.D.A. Parker, (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence* (17, 363-388). Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. D. A. (2000). *Handbook of Emotional Intelligence*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cheeseman,S., Ferguson,C., dan Cohen,L (2011). The Experience of Single Mothers:Community and Other External Influences Relating to Resilience. *Edith Cowan University. The Australian Community Psychologist* Volume 23 No 2 August 2011.
- Ciarrochi, J., Deane, F. P, & Anderson, S., (2002). Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between stress and mental health. *Personality and individual differences*, 32(2), 197-209.
- Clyne, C., & Blampied, N. M. (2004). Training in emotion regulation as a treatment for binge eating: A preliminary study. *Behaviour Change*, 21, 269–281.
- Cooper, R.K. & Sawaf, A. (1997). *Executive EQ: Emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations*, New York: Grosseflutnam.
- D’Mello, S., & Graesser, A., (2012). *Emotions during learning with AutoTutor*. Adaptive technologies for training and education, 117.
- Dasborough,M.T & Ashkanasy,N.M, (2003). Emotional awareness and emotional intelligence in leadership teaching. *Journal of Education for Business*, 791: 18-22.
- Diyana Ishak, Doris Padmini Selvaratnam & Nor Aini Haji Idris. (2009). Isu dan Cabaran Ibu Tunggal dalamMenghadapi Perubahan Persekitaran Global. Dlm. Memacu Pembangunan Ekonomi dalam Ketidaktentuan Persekitaran Global: Prosiding Seminar Kebangsaan Ekonomi Malaysia (PERKEM), Ishak Yusoff, Ahmad Mohd Zain, Zainal Abidin Hashim, Nor Aini Hj Idris dan Mohd Shukri Hajinoor (Eds.), 334-336. Bangi: Penerbit UKM.
- Doshi, K, & Panalal, Anjli. (2005). *Family Functioning And Child Well-Being Amongst Urban Malay Single Mother Families Influence Of Risk And ProtectiveFactors*. Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Hein, S. (2005). Introduction to Emotional Intelligence.Retrieved August 30, 2014, from www.htm/ Historyand Definition of Emotional Intelligence.
- Hodgson, J., Dienhart, A., & Daly, K. (2001). Time juggling: Single mothers’ experience of time-pressure following divorce. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*, 35, 1-28.
- Hilton, J.M, & Kopera-Frye, K. (2003). Economic and Non-Economic Factors Contributing To Psychological Adjustment Among Divorced Custodial Parents. *Paper Of The Western Family Economics Association*. p.p 13-28, Vol 18.
- Johari Othman, Mustafa Mohamad, Norwati Roslim dan Rahaidah Muhammad, (2005) *Menyelami dunia ibu tunggal di Mukim Kepis' Kuala Pilah' Negeri Sembilan : tinjauan permasalahan dan keperluan / Johari Othman , Mustafa Mohamad , Norwati Roslim , Rahaidah Muhammad*. Technical Report. Institute of Research, Development and Commercialization , Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Kotsou I, Nelis D, Grégoire J, dan Mikolajczak M (2011) Emotional plasticity: Conditions of improving emotional competence in adulthood. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 96: 827–839.
- Mahroni Husain (2000), *Kajian Kes Penceraian Terhadap Gaya Asuhan Kanak-Kanak: Satu Kajian Kes Di Persatuan Ibu Tunggal Harris Advance Techonology (KITH) di Wilayah Persekutuan dan Selangor. Projek Ijazah Sarjana Muda Yang Tidak Diterbitkan*. Shah Alam: Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P.(1997). *Education Development And Emotional Intelligence*. Basic Book, New York, pp.185-211
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications.*Psychological Inquiry*, 15, 197-215.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist*, 63, 503–517.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. *Emotion*, 1, 232-242.
- McGarvey, R. (1997). Final score: Get more from employees by upping your EQ. *Entrepreneur*, 25, 7, 78-81.
- Mohd Azhar Abd. Hamid (2004). *Panduan Meningkatkan Kecerdasan Emosi*. PTS Publications and Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Murray, B. (1998). Does emotional intelligence matter in the workplace? *APA 'sAnnual Convention*, 29, 7.
- Nabiela Kemal Riza. (2013). *Hukum Keluarga Islam Asia Tenggara Kontemporer: Sejarah, Pembentukan, Dan Dinamikanya Di Malaysia*. Penelitian.

-
- Okun, M.A., Shepard, S.A., & Eisenberg, N. (2000). The relations of emotionality and regulation to dispositional empathy-related responding among volunteers-in-training. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 367-382.
- Rohaty Mohd Majzub & Mohammad Rais Abdul Karim, (1999). *Ibu Tunggal Menelusuri Rintangan Hidup dengan Keyakinan*. Selangor: Pelanduk Publications.
- Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence: *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9: 185- 211.
- Thuaibah @ Suaibah binti Abu Bakar, Azlah bin Md Ali, Rozeyta binti Omar, Hishamuddin Md Som dan Syaharizatul Noorizwan binti Muktar (2004). *Aktiviti Keusahawanan di Kalangan Ibu Tunggal di Negeri Johor*. Johor: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Trinidad, D.R. & Johnson, C.A. (2002). The association between emotional intelligence and early adolescent tobacco and alcohol use. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 32, 95-105.
- Ummi Habibah Abdul Rani (2008). *Kesan latihan asertif terhadap tegas diri di kalangan Ibu tunggal yang berpendapatan tetap*. Penerbit UTM, Johor.
- Weisinger, H., (1998). *Emotional Intelligence at Work: The Untapped Edge for Success*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publisher.
- Widjajanti, C., (2003). *Hubungan antara karakteristik, pengetahuan dan keterampilan pengobatan ibu hamil dengan perilaku mencegah komplikasi hipertensi: studi di Rumah Sakit Umum Koja Jakarta Utara*, November--Desember 2002.
- Zainatul Azura binti Nasir (2011). *Hubungan Kecerdasan Emosi Dengan Kecekapan Kemahiran Dan Perkembangan Personal Dalam Kalangan Guru-Guru Kaunseling Daerah Kulaijaya, Johor*. Disertasi ini dikemukakan sebagai memenuhi sebahagian daripada syarat penganugerahan Sarjana Pendidikan (Bimbingan dan Kaunseling). Fakulti Pendidikan. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Zuraini binti Zakaria, (2005). *Hubungan di Antara Tingkah Laku Asertif dan Konsep Kendiri dengan Stres di Kalangan Ibu Tunggal Bekerja di Mentakab, Pahang*. Disertasi ini dikemukakan sebagai memenuhi sebahagian daripada syarat penganugerahan Sarjana Sains (Pembangunan Sumber Manusia). Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Narrowing FRLT Gap in the Aspect of Culture in Malaysia

Pavani Subramanian
Faculty of Management
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
Pavani.subramanian@gmail.com

Abstract The paper reflects on the changing nature of leadership roles in increasingly globalized environment. There is need to always generate and produce new ideas in any field especially in the condition where all over the world is preparing for a touch of 21st century leadership. As changes are unchangeable, the importance of considering the realistic aspects in leading and leadership is essentially required. We are now in the digital era, where business and organizational networks reach across oceans. The borderless networking is pestering the need of knowing and understanding cultural impacts in the business growth across the nations. Leadership theory considering with only management skills and centralized power is no longer being safely assumed to achieve any organization's goal. This paper discusses on culture in Full-Range Leadership Theory as a new effort in contributing to the existing and established theory for long time ago. It is hoped that these will help to move the leadership paradigm into a new world of leading culturally across the world. The study also proposes a conceptual framework of FRLT to the leadership world. The body of knowledge also predicts the connections between FRLT and organizational commitment in an organization. The paper also suggested that moving forward the leaders necessitate taking into consideration cultural facets on the way of leading in a continuous progress.

Keywords: FRLT, Organizational Commitments, Culture, Malaysia, GLOBE

1. Introduction

Leadership effectiveness in organizational performance has been addressed for a long time ago by the scholars of the field. It is an undeniable statement by Burn, 1978 stating that "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth". In organizational behavioral science, leadership is one of the oldest topics that have allured researchers' interests and it became a fortunate for the upcoming researchers seems much of the leadership research completed over the past several decades assisting us to expand better insight into the history of leadership styles, approaches and their impact on society within the different cultural background. Malaysia has taken its challenge to be a developed country starting in the millennium years. In order for a country to move up on its economic ladder, certain characteristic needs to be either develop or upgrade by a particular leader. In an organization, besides leading the followers, leader also needs to upgrade himself on the field. A resilient leader is always who could easily win the followers attention towards his prescribed behavior. Similarly, Sutcliffe and Vogus (2003) propose that organizations can increase their effectiveness by developing the capability of resilience. It may help him a lot to be an innovative person. On the other hand, leadership should draw upon the creative potential that is spread throughout an organization, across functions and formal levels of leadership. To achieve this it requires new ways of thinking and assumes that innovation leaders are able to act as independent entrepreneurs (John & Hugo, 2013). These innovative leaders

are who may go beyond the border in leading the culturally diverse employees and get the resources optimally utilized. Indisputably Malaysia with the culturally diverse employees need appropriate leaders for the organization, especially in the globalization era where there is much need to understand how cultural differences affect leadership performance.

Many cross-cultural studies claimed to be conducted in Asia or so called The East but it was to be a false generalization if research conducted in The East to cover Southeast Asia together (Sooksan & Parisa, 2013) because Southeast Asian countries are significantly different from East Asian countries and the Middle East in many respects (Gupta et al., 2002). If we look at the study of GLOBE, the countries from The East itself separated partly according to the cultural clustering which was based on Ronen and Shenkar (1985), Inglehart (1997), and Schwartz (1999). It clearly showed that, the national culture is surveyed in detailed and comprehensively to see the impacts on the related variables of the respected researches done. Understanding once national culture and leadership style is a vital part before conducting any survey across the culture or on other nations. It was strongly accepted as the acceptance and effectiveness of specific leadership styles is argued depends on national culture (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012) in culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership (House, 2004). Other past studies has also suggested that for an organization to become an efficient, essentially culture should not be neglected (Schneider & Barsoux, 1997), as it has its own impact on how the organization is run or operates.

This research has been developed to comprehend whether specific culture dimensions in a leadership theory and model might influences the organizational commitments in the data which will be collected from culturally homogeneous sample. Previous studies suggested that it is favourable to investigate the cultural issues in other collectivist cultures or country with high individualism like Iran (Mozhdeh, 2013). This means that differences between the acceptance as well as the outcomes of specific leadership styles and characteristics exist among countries, and they may influence the level of innovation in a country (Robert & Diana, 2014). Therefore in this study, the cultural dimensions will be based on the major elements investigated in the GLOBE research program specifically to describe how different cultures view leadership behaviours in others consisting of the nine attributes of cultures which will be included as one of the quantitative dimensions in the FRLT (1) Uncertainty Avoidance, (2) Power Distance, (3) Collectivism I: Societal Emphasis on Collectivism, (4) Collectivism II: Family Collectivistic Practices, (5) Gender Egalitarianism, (6) Assertiveness, (7) Future Orientation, (8) Performance Orientation and (9) Humane Orientation (House et.al, 2004). Seems the dimensions were selected based on a previous large sample studies and on the basis existing cross culture theory (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, 1995; Inglehart, 1997) it is believed could be a comprehensive leadership theory of FRLT if the nine dimensions included in performing the study in Malaysia. It's strongly suggested by previous studies that cultural values are high in collectivisme (Hofstede, 2012) hence it will a good proposition to conduct research in other collectivist cultures or countries (Mozhdeh, 2013).

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Evolution of Leadership Theories

Developmental leaders believe that the success of the organization depends on the success of its employees (Gilley et.al, 2009) consequently; the leaders will be focusing on the growth and development of their employees, whose well-being they put above their own self interests. Developmental leaders challenge employees constantly to improve and change, encourage and reward risk taking and innovation and provides them with the tools and freedom to be successful (Jerry et. al, 2011). Eventually, a leader is responsible for improving performance of him and also of the followers. Developmental leadership is the process of equipping people with the knowledge, skills and opportunities they need to grow, develop, change, and become more effective (Hudson, 1999).

2.1.1 Trait Approach

The pioneer to the leadership theories flourished from 1930s to the 1950s, derived from the Great Man Theory which is heavily influenced by the political leadership concept. This theory believes that ones who became leaders are special people with their own natural qualities and destined to lead. The philosophy behind this trait theory is that the assumptions of leadership qualities are God gifted and innate. Primarily the leadership

researchers were in search of personal characteristics and personality traits which could be effective for enhancing group productivity and could distinguish the leaders from non-leaders. In general, the traits are classified into three broad categories; physical characteristics (age, height and appearances), personality traits (emotionality, self esteem and dominance capacity) and general aptitude (creativity, art of communication and intelligence) which were mostly explored in earlier leadership studies.

2.1.2 Behavioural Approach

Leaders' behaviours became the main focus after concentrating on the traits at the first phase of leadership theories. Between the years of 1950s to 1960s, the leadership research and theories move the chamber of discussion from traits towards behaviours. It wasn't a question of what is a leader and his skills but about how leaders behave when working with their followers. Precisely, the scholars in the research field diverted their focus into exploring and describing the styles and behaviours of leaders. In this phase, more leadership theory (behavioural theory) was raised and models were also started to be proposed by researchers. In this era two behavioural models that were proposed and had more impacts on subsequent research were Ohio State University's research and Michigan State University's research (Wen, Tsai, 2008 & Yukl, 2011).

2.1.3 Contingency Approach

Stogdill (1948) suggested that leadership effectiveness needed to be considered about situations where the leaders and followers or the subordinates operate in order to develop a thorough understanding about leader, follower and the leadership. Contingency approach is a management theory that suggests the most appropriate style of management is dependent on the context of the situation and that adopting a single, rigid style which is more to typical traditional way of leading the followers and eventually inefficient in the long term. Contingency leader managers typically pay attention to both the situation and their own styles and make efforts to ensure both interact efficiently. It contrasts with other forms of leadership, such as trait-based approach, whereby personality and individual make-up predict patterns of management and responses to given situations over time. Contingency theory is beneficial to the organizations because of the potential for learning from specific situations and using these lessons to influence future management of the same or similar situations or vice versa. The ability to adapt to external pressures and changes is also an advantage included in this approach.

Stogdill's conception on the need of situational approach to leadership gave new ideas to the leadership management world at that time and it was lately endorsed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie and Boomer (1995) and Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1997). This situational approach assumed that leadership style is partly related to major components under situational context such as subordinates, task and organizational characteristics (De Veris, 1997; House, 1971; Kerr and Jermier, 1978). There are four contingency theories in detailed, starting from Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1964, 1967), Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory (1969, 1974), Path-Goal Theory by House (1971) and House and Mitchell (1974) lastly a substitutes for leadership theory of Kerr and Jermier (1978).

2.2 New Leadership Theories

In a recent overview of the current state of leadership research, Avolio et al. (2009) described how the focus of leadership researchers has changed from only the leader to a broader context including followers, peers, supervisors, work setting and culture. Leadership theories are more and more acknowledging the complex process that leadership actually is (Dirk, 2011). Traditional leadership theories which were originally formulated earlier 1930s focused between leader and the subordinates in terms of performance outcomes. Following that, in 1992 Bryman makes a distinction between traditional and new leadership theories which was emerged during 1980s where change became a non-stop process in the business world in predicting the organizational growth. The new leadership theories include charismatic leadership, transformational and transactional theory and most recently LMX or leader member exchange theory. Besides that, leadership scholars have also acknowledged ethical leadership and authentic leadership as contemporary developments in the leadership literature.

2.2.1 Attribution Theory of Leadership

This leadership theory assumes that individuals make inferences about leadership ability by observing and interpreting different types of environmental and behavioral cues. Attribution theory assumes that subordinates respond more positively to a leader who displays the qualities and behaviors that match their implicit leadership theories or schemas held by a person. The main concern of this theory is that leadership is only people's perception of source towards other entities. A research has been done by Coyle (1997) and it was summarized from previous leadership studies on characteristics such as group thinking, resetting direction, guiding cooperative actions, walking the talk and motivating others.

2.2.2 Charismatic Leadership Theory

This theory explained that a devoted leader is a charismatic leader because the skills of charisma made him to lead the team in an organization according to the organization's goal which never forgets about the employees' relation too. This type of leaders always gets full satisfaction from their employees in the working environment. Conger and Kanungo (1998) indicated that charismatic leaders are those with following characteristics; being able to state their visions, willing to take personal responsibility for high risks, having high environmental sympathy, ability to detect and respond to the need of other people and quickly able to suggest alternative plan. This type of leadership focuses more to the leaders and also their followers' development.

2.2.3 Leader Member Exchange Theory

This theory works in two ways; describe and prescribe leadership. In both instances, the central concept is the dyadic relationship that a leader forms with each of the leader's subordinates. Descriptively, LMX theory suggests that it is important to recognize the existence of in-groups and out-groups within a group or an organization. Specifically, this theory focus on how the quality of leader-member exchanges was related to positive outcomes for leaders, followers, groups and the organization in general (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

2.2.4 Transactional Leadership Theory

Transactional leadership does not individualize the needs of subordinates or focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with subordinates to advance their own and their subordinates' agendas (Kuhnert, 1994).

2.2.5 Transformational Leadership Theory

The concept of transformational leadership theory was initially proposed by Burns (1978) and was extended lately by Bass and further refined by Avolio and Bass. According to Bass and Avolio (1995), transformational leadership has four dimensions namely, charismatic influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation. One of the most popular approaches to leadership that has been the focus of much research since early 1980s is the transformational leadership approach. This theory gives more attention to charismatic and effective elements of leadership. As its name, this theory is a process of transforming or changing people with the concern of emotions, values, ethics, standards and long term goal. It is a process that often incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership. This theory is concerned with improving performance of followers and developing followers to their fullest potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1990).

2.2.6 Servant Leadership Theory

Servant leadership which is originated in the writings of Greenleaf (1970, 1972, 1977), had has been of interest to leadership scholars for more than 40 years. Servant leadership is an approach focusing on leadership from the point of view of the leader and his behaviours. It emphasizes that leaders be attentive to the concerns of their followers, empathize with them and nurture them. Servant leaders always put their followers first, empower them and help them to develop their full personal capacity. There are 10 characteristics

comprises the first model of servant leadership such as listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people and building community. It works best when leaders are altruistic and have a strong motivation and deep seated interest in helping others.

2.2.7 Authentic Leadership

This leadership is a pattern that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development (Walumbwa, 2008). In the leadership process, it consisting of four main dimensions of leadership such as self awareness which refers to own reflection of core values, identity, emotions, motives, being aware of and trusting their own self. Secondly is an internalized moral perspective which emphasized on self regulatory process using internal moral standards to guide behaviors. Balanced processing is the third dimension which showing an ability to analyze informational objectively and explore other peoples' opinions before making decision. Lastly, relational transparency showing being open and honest in presenting one's true self to others.

2.2.8 Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership is a still-emerging construct that attempts to explain how people actually perceive ethical leadership. This theory investigates both the antecedents and outcomes of ethical beliefs and perceptions (Brown, 2007; Brown & Trevino, 2006). Ethical leadership is based on three factors including the leader's moral character, the ethical legitimacy of the leader's vision and values; and 3) the morality of the choices and actions that leaders engage in. In this view, leaders and followers are ideally willing to have their behaviour evaluated against generally accepted values that are part of the larger society or social group (Fry, 2005).

2.2.9 Development of Full Range Leadership Theory in a Cultural Look

The components of FRLT with its many variations is measured using (MLQ5X) in the most of the studies. The initial conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership presented by Bass included seven components including charismatic leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward and management by exception and non-transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). Then, more recently, Bass (1988) noted that although charismatic and inspirational aspects of leadership were conceptually distinct constructs yet they were not empirically discernible. Thus, a six-factor model was considered empirically more appropriate for measuring these constructs.

A recent research done and seven additional factors have been included as refinements to the Full Range Leadership Model. House, Spangler and Wokye (1991) supplied evidence in their research that charisma could be conceptualized and measured as both an attribution and behavior. While Hater and Bass (1998) had also provided evidence that the construct of management-by-exception could be divided into active and passive components. Studies using the latest version of the MLQ distinguish attributed charisma from charismatic behavior and active from passive management-by-exception resulting in a nine-factor model. Thus, the Full Range Leadership Model consists of five transformational, three transactional, and one non-transactional leadership factors. Avolio, Bass, and Jung identified one attributed and four behavioural types of transformational leadership.

- **Attributed charisma (AC)**
 - Followers report that their leader is charismatic
- **Idealized influence (II)**
 - Enables a leader to instill pride, faith, and respect in followers causing the followers to identify and emulate their leaders.
- **Inspirational motivation (IM)**
 - Represent behavior that provides symbols and simplified emotional appeals and thus raising expectations and optimism amongst followers.
- **Intellectual stimulation (IS)**
 - Arouses followers on new ways of problem solving through proactive thinking.

-
- **Individualised consideration (IC)**
 - Present when a leader delegates assignments and stimulates and coaches followers on an individual basis.

In contrast, transactional leadership consists of three behavioral factors:

- **Contingent reward (CR)**
 - A behavior that provides rewards for contracts completed
- **Management-by-exception (active) (MBE-A)**
 - Avoids giving directions where current methods work and performance goals are met. It is further divided into active and passive where active category refers to a leadership style where performance is actively monitored for errors.
- **Management-by-exception (passive) (MBE-P)**
 - It describes the leader as waiting to learn of such errors. Both managements by active and passive makes the leader punishes individuals for their failure to reach an expected certain level of performance.

The last construct in FRLT is non-transactional or laissez-faire leadership (LF) indicates an absence of leadership or the avoidance of intervention or both.

Numerous researchers investigated the full range leadership model in different cultures and fields particularly to find out the outcomes by looking at the combinations of leading styles among the leaders. Hence the current study also intends to determine the leadership styles and their differences among the research respondents but additionally little refinement by including culture value dimensions has been done to see the impacts towards the organizational commitments among the followers according to the Malaysian cultures. In this study we will be looking into the FRLT with the combinations of culture value dimensions introduced by the GLOBE research and their findings in Malaysia perspective. The nine culture dimensions, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation will be included in the refined theory. Even though the GLOBE has clustered Malaysia under Southern Asia category and characterized it as one of the six country that exhibited high score on humane orientation and in group collectivism that demonstrated strong family loyalty and deep concern for their communities still time frame effects could probably have impacts on the current outcomes based on the situational or environmental changes. So, in this study we will be looking again on all the dimensions introduced by GLOBE.

Several studies suggest the importance of cultural values in explaining the differences in overall performance of the firm (Hofstede, 1980; Shane, 1993; Tse et al., 1988). Hence, this study will look into in detail about the inter correlation in leadership style by including the culture as its dimensions too. Comparing to other multi racial countries, Malaysia is considered as a unique country with its multi racial residents. Malaysia is of interest of many investors not only because it is a developing country but because there is considerable division based on race, ethnicity and language and the riches in cultures (Shirley and Cheah, 2013). This increases the research needs in identifying the research questions by making Malaysian as the research samples. The varying concepts and dimensions which fall under the umbrella of culture have made it into a complex and dynamic phenomenon (Geraldine & Christian, 2014). The complexity of understanding culture is due to the existence of two important elements occurring simultaneously; the current practices of cultures against the ideal practices of the particular culture (Javidan et al., 2005). These impacts might intervene the relations occurs in leadership with other variables but which might not acting as a moderator variables at the same time. So, by understanding the cultural importance in leading or managing employees, the FRLT in study will be modified accordingly to meet the research questions necessitate by inserting 9 different culture dimensions introduced by GLOBE.

Even there were much research has been conducted on the topic of leadership in a different view or perspective in the past century, yet these studies have produced many theories and differing views on the subject. The different views were because of the chosen samples and the places of researches were conducted. The concept of culture is central to international work and has been used in all the organization to measure country and group level effects that can discriminate between countries and groups and thus help explain variance in the behaviour of organizations and people. Hence, this study attempt to look into the coordination arises between leadership styles in any organization together with the culture.

3. Conclusion

This study is believed to give a new look to the leadership development in terms of theory and models. In conclusion, the study shows the culture pattern and predicted some characteristics of that are associated with leadership. The study would benefit more if it was undertaken in different cultural or society. Culture and leadership have been broadly discussed in many researches and the impacts have been seen either directly or as a moderator. This really showed that in any organization culture is playing a vital role in leading. Organizational culture and leadership are purported to be deeply integrated and intertwined within an organization. Although there is a substantial amount of research demonstrating the importance of the interplay of culture and leadership, there exist few empirical examinations of the nature of this link. Hence, this study is believed to contribute a myriad view about cultural leadership in Malaysia together with a conceptual framework as per figured below

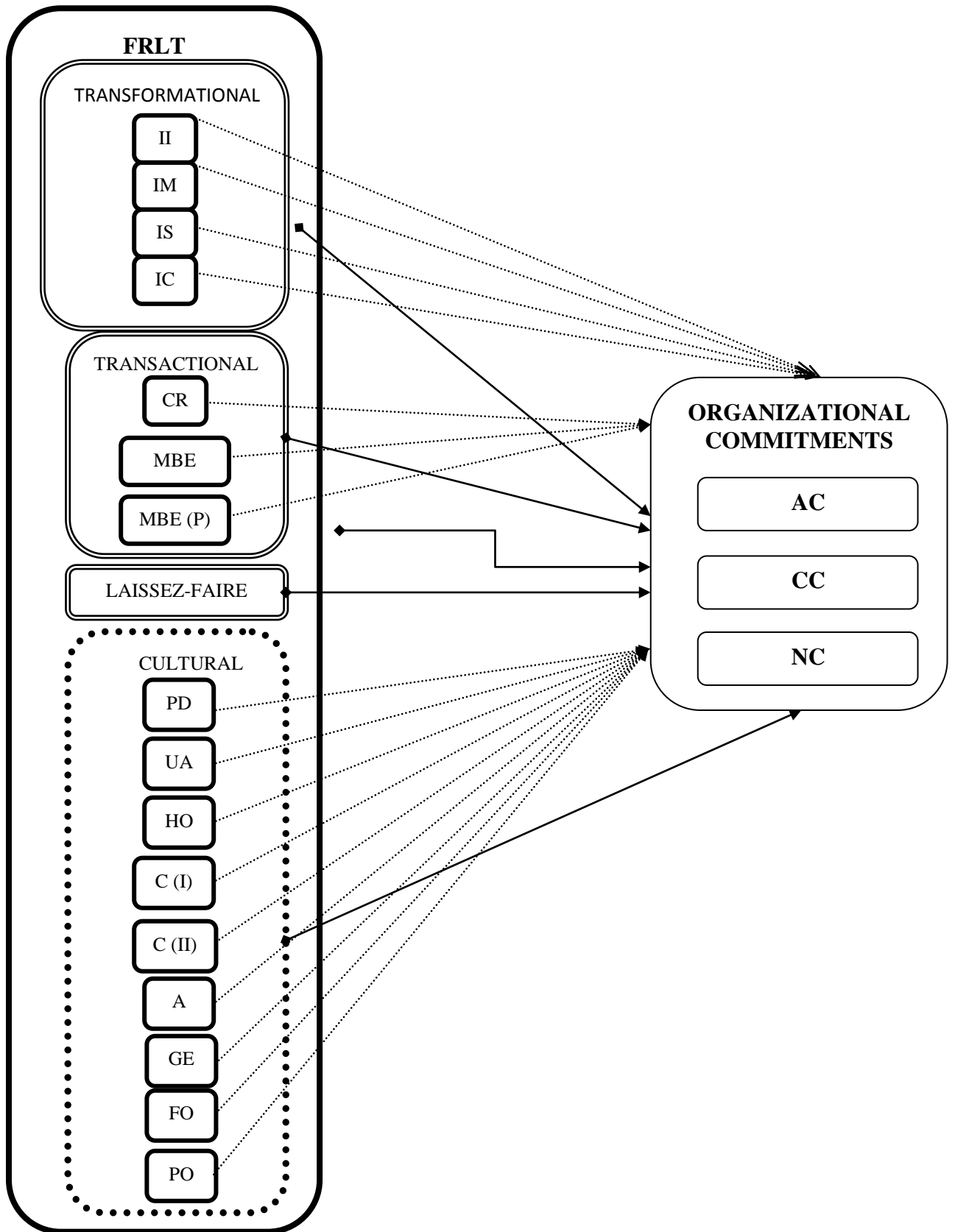


Figure 2.0 Conceptual Framework of This Research

4. Reference

- Bass, B.M. (1988), "The Inspirational Process of Leadership," *Journal of Management Development*, 7, 21-31.
- Burns, J.M. (1978), *Leadership*, Harper Torchbooks, New York, NY.
- Conger, J.A. and Kanungo, R.N. (1988), "Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 12 No. 4, pp. 637-647.
- Fry, L.W. Toward a theory of ethical and spiritual well-being, and corporate social responsibility through spiritual leadership. In R.A. Giacalone, C.L. Jurkiewicz & C. Dunn (Eds), *Positive psychology in business ethics and corporate responsibility*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, 2005a, pp. 47–83
- Geraldine Anne Tan Wern-Yi and Christian Kahla *5th Asia Euro Conference 2014* "Being Malaysian does not mean being Malaysian" – Cultural stereotypes is a hindrance to modern hospitality management
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J. W., Quatro, S., & Dixon, P. (2009). *The Praeger handbook of human resource management*. Westport, CN: Praeger.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1970). *The servant as leader*. Westfield, IN: The Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1972). *The institution as servant* Westfield, IN: The Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate, power and greatness*. New York: Paulist Press.
- Hater, J.J., & Bass, B.M. (1988), Superior's Evaluations and Subordinate's Perceptions of Transformational and Transactional Leadership, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(1), 695-702.
- Hofstede, G. (1980), *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work- Related Values*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hill.
- House, R.J., Spangler, W.D., & Woycke, J. (1991), "Personality and Charisma in the US Presidency: A Psychological Theory of Leadership Effectiveness," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36, 364-396.
- House R.J. et al. (eds.), *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2004.
- Inglehart, R., *Modernization and Post-Modernization: Cultural, Economic, and Political Change in 43 Societies*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1997.
- Jon-Arild Johannessen and Hugo Skalsvik (2013), "The systemic leaders: new leaders in the global economy"Oslo School of Management, Oslo, Norway and Harstad University College, Harstad, Norway.
- Kuhnert, K. W. (1994). *Transforming leadership: Developing people through delegation*. In B. M. Bass & B. J. Avolio (Eds). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.
- Ronen, S. and Shenkar, O., "Clustering Countries on Attitudinal Dimensions: A Review and Synthesis." *Academy of Management Review*, 1985, 10(3), 435-454.
- Shane, S. (1993), "Cultural influences on national rates of innovation", *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 8 No. 1, pp. 59-73.
- Schwartz, S.H., "A Theory of Cultural Values and Some Implications for Work." *Applied Psychology*, 1999, 48(1), 23-47.
- Shirley Ken Tzu Ting and Cheah Yeh Ying *Culture Dimensions Comparison:*

A Study of Malaysia and South Korea.

Tse, D., Lee, K., Vertinsky, I. and Wehrung, D. (1988), "Does culture matter? A cross-cultural study of executives' choice, decisiveness, and risk adjustment in international marketing", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 52 No. 1, pp. 81-95.

The Mediation Effect of Burnout and Moderation Effect of Social Support on Work-Family Conflict -Turnover Intention Relationship among Malaysia Women Engineers: A Proposed Framework

Rozanti A. Hamid¹⁺, Ungku Norulkamar Ungku Ahmad² and Salmiah Mohd Amin¹

¹Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia

² International Business School, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia

Abstract An increasing number of women participate in the work force due to socio-economic development results in a big impact to work and family institution. Failure to meet demand for both work and family leads to work-family conflict and may give negative consequences on work and family. An example of major work-related outcome is burnout which can lead to turnover intention. This paper aims to identify the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention and also the mediation effect of burnout on work-family conflict and turnover intention relationship. It is proposed that there will be a positive relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention and there is an indirect relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention through the mediation effect of burnout. Furthermore it is proposed that the strength of relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention depends on the mediation effect of burnout and moderating effect of social support.

Keywords: Work-family conflict, turnover intention, burnout, social support

1. Introduction

The relationship between work and family has received highly attention because of the emerging of women entering workforce recently (Powell and Greenhaus, 2010). Due to this phenomenon, many individuals face difficulties in managing between work and family responsibilities (McNall *et al.*, 2010). As a consequence individual may be exposed to conflict between work and family. Work-family conflict may deal with conflicting demands of individual career, child care, elder care and personal life issues which lead to negative consequences in the workplace such as decrease organizational commitment (Roehling *et al.*, 2001), increase turnover intention (Berg *et al.*, 2003) and higher level of absenteeism (Dalton and Mesch, 1990).

Balancing between work and family is a critical issue concern by women engineers cause by environmental factors work that demands a long time where it is difficult for them to carry out other responsibilities such as family demand at home (Ballout, 2008; Lewis and Humbert, 2010). It is supported by Ranson (2005) which stated that work and family demand is one of the challengers and barriers among women engineers to be success and satisfied with their career and secured higher position in their organization. Most of women engineers would leave their job after seven years and they did not reach senior level as their male counterpart (APESMA, 2007). Therefore the issue of retention and career development for women engineers must be taken seriously.

In Malaysia it is reported that female engineering student increase from 5% in 1981 to 30% in 1999 and about 50% in 2010 (JURUTERA, 2012). Surprisingly data from department of statistic of Malaysia shows that only 36% of women enter workforce compare to man which is not parallel with the number of female graduate from engineering studies. This phenomenon reflect actual women engineer turnover rate in Malaysia where the percentage of women leaving engineering field include those who did not enter the profession or leave the

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + 6017-7541067; fax: +607-5566159.
E-mail address: ahrozanti@gmail.com.

profession to look for another job after several years of working in engineering field. It shows that women are still under represented in the field of engineering.

A number of studies promotes that work-family conflict linked with burnout (Etzion and Bailyn, 1994; Kossek and Ozeki, 1999; Burke and Greenglass, 1996). Engineering profession consist of high qualified individual surrounded by challenging environment which can easily fall to burnout. Kunda (1992) found a sign of burnout in a qualitative study of high tech engineers. Burnout associate with intention to leave the job which will reflect the actual turnover (Pines and Maslach, 1980).

In this case, according to job demand resources model (JD-R) (Bakker and Demourti, 2007), job demand and job resources function to predict burnout. Burnout is most likely to exist in the condition of high job demands (work-family conflict) and low resources (social support). Social support acts as a useful resource to prevent burnout and may come in the form of work support and family support. Social support can also be considered as an important element to reduce work-family conflict.

A few studies have been done regarding the role of social support as a moderator in work-family conflict and burnout relationship. However most of the study focus only in work support and did not include family support. Moreover at the best of authors' knowledge there is no study conducted regarding the combination effect of burnout and moderation effect of social support in work-family conflict and turnover intention relationship. Therefore the aim of the present study is to identify the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention and to highlight the mediation effect of burnout on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers. In addition the moderation effect of social support on work-family conflict and burnout relationship will also be identified. Finally this study examined the integration of mediating effect of burnout and moderating effect of social support in work-family conflict that may influence the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers. The finding of the present study is expected to help the government and industry in development of policy to improve the quality of human resources especially for women employees.

2. Work-family conflict and turnover intention

Work-family conflict rooted from role theory (Cooke and Rousseau, 1984; Goode, 1960). Conflict between work and family is considered as inter-role conflict where pressure from role at workplace and family are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Based on role theory, role demand from work and family with limited energy and resources leads to strain from competition from each role. Three forms of conflict are time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behavioural-based conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985).

Turnover intention refers to one's intention to disengage from work and seriously considering for actual turnover. Turnover intention model is based from the theory of plan behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) where individual believe rooted from his/her attitude and will finally lead to actual behaviour. It is supported by Richer *et al.*, (2002) in the research from motivational theory stated that turnover intention directly linked to actual turnover behaviour. To an organization, turnover intention rate give more important information that actual turnover so that early steps can be taken in order to avoid actual turnover. Overall turnover give negative consequences to the organization due to its indirect cost that related to its operational cost which linked to business profit (Davidson *et al.*, 2010).

Some studies shows significant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention (Ghayyur and Jamal, 2012; Thanocoody *et al.*, 2009; Haar *et al.*, 2012; Bloome *et al.*, 2010), others have found weak, negative or no relationship between the two variables (Aslam *et al.*, 2011; Post *et al.*, 2009; Riley 2006). According to Ali and Baloch (1999) who investigate how work-family conflict influence turnover intention of medical representatives of national pharmaceuticals companies among Pakistan employee experience high level of work-family conflict significantly related to turnover intention. Furhermore, Ghayyur and Jamal (2012) study the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention of employee in banking and pharmaceutical sector revealed the same result.

The above findings contradict the study by Aslam *et al.*, (2011) who also carried out a study among sample of respondent from banking sectors in Pakistan. Aslam *et al.*, (2011) examined that work-family conflict has a weak relationship with turnover intention. People are not ready to leave their work even though there is a work-family conflict. Karatepe and Karadas (2014) also reported insignificant relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. Both studies conducted among employees in service sector. The analysis of work-family conflict conducted in both research were based on uni-dimensional dimension and not spesifically involve dimension such as time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behavioral based conflict. It is supported by Post *et al.*, (2009) in a study among scientist and engineers working in R & D. Work interfere family do not have any significant relationship with turnover intention. Riley (2006) added that no relationship

between work-family conflict and turnover intention and this study was conducted among health professional group in New Zealand.

Most of past research conducted in service profession, pharmaceutical and banking sector. Little studies have been done regarding the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention in engineering profession especially on women engineers. Thus, this lead to the proposition below.

Proposition 1: Work-family conflict is positively related to turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers.

3. Work-family conflict and burnout

Burnout is a term used in psychological that explain about long term exhaustion and loss of interest in work. It is an extreme form of stress (Worley *et al.*, 2008). Maslach and Jackson (1984) classified burnout as a three dimensional syndrome that includes emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Maslach and Leiter (1997) reconceptualise the new concept on burnout with new measure known as Maslach Burnout Inventory- General Survey (MBI-GS) that focus to other working context apart from doing “people’s work”. The three dimensions of burnout change its terminology to exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. In Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), emotional exhaustion refers to depletion of emotional energy and fatigue and the direction of the source of feeling is direct to people while in Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) exhaustion refers to feeling towards one’s job at workplace. In Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI-GS) cynicism replaces the terms depersonalization. Cynicism refers to indifferent attitude towards one’s job at workplace rather than the feeling of insensitive and unfeeling for others. Professional Efficacy focuses more on direct expectation at work. This includes one’s expectation of long term of effectiveness at work.

JD-R is a model that explains regarding stress-strain relationship introduced by Demourti *et al.*, (2001). Strain is a reaction resulted from the existence of stress condition and can be observed through psychological, behavioural or physiological level such as burnout (Fried *et al.*, 1984). According to JD-R model, work environment can be divided into two categories which are job demands and job resources. Individual may experience strain due to lack of job resources to meet excessive job demands (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). Study conducted by Karatepe *et al.*, (2010) found that work-family conflict increases burnout (exhaustion and disengagement) among frontline service jobs. Work-family conflict is positively related with emotional exhaustion and cynicism. It is supported through study done by Jensen (2014) in oil and gas companies where work-family conflict is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Another study also shows that work-family conflict was associated with high scores on exhaustion and cynicism among software developer (Singh *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, Wang *et al.*, (2012) also found that work interfere family were positively associated with emotional exhaustion and cynicism respectively among nurses. Furthermore, Glaser and Hecht (2013) concluded that work-family conflict is positively related with emotional exhaustion among university employees. This is supported by (Thanooody *et al.*, 2009, Lizano *et al.*, 2014 and Mostert, 2011) study which revealed that negative work home interference was positively associated with burnout. Summary from the above literature confirms that conflict between work and family positively related with burnout.

Proposition 2: Work-family conflict is positively related with burnout among Malaysian women engineers

4. Burnout and turnover intention

Study found that burnout has been connected with various forms of job withdrawal. For example, absenteeism, intention to leave the job and actual turnover. It is supported by Pines and Maslach (1981); Muhammad and Hamdy (2005), where individual who experience burnout has a tendency to leave the workplace. However individual suffering from burnout but still engage with their workplace may be likely tend to show low productivity and ineffectiveness at work.

Study conducted by Kim (2008) found that burnout was significantly associated with turnover intention among social workers. It is supported by Thanooody *et al.*, (2009) who reveal positive correlation between burnout and intention to leave. Burnout predicted turnover intention among ambulance personnel (Bria, 2013). Another study shows that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization both have significant effect on a desire to leave employment among correctional staff (Lambert, 2010). Research finding by Henkens and Leenders (2010) also points towards that emotional exhaustion and cynicism have a positive relationship among older workers. According to past studies, individual who experience burnout may have possibility to leave their organization. So it is proposed that burnout has a positive relationship with intention to leave by Malaysian women engineers.

Proposition 3: Burnout is positively related with turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers

5. Burnout as a mediator in the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention

A study done by Thanooody *et al.*, (2009) among Australian cancer worker found that burnout mediates the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. So it is proposed that work-family conflict has an indirect relationship with turnover intention through burnout among Malaysian women engineers.

Proposition 4: Burnout mediates the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers

6. Social support as a moderator in the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout

According to Van Daalen *et al.* (2006), social support is the exchange of resources between at least two persons, with the goal of helping the person who receives the support. In general, social support helps individuals to retain existing resources and gain new resources (Seiger and Wiese, 2009). For example, according to Grzywacz and Marks (2000), social support from either work or family generates positive effect in the source domain and increases the quality of life in the other domain. The primary functions of social support are emotional and instrumental supports (Adams *et al.*, 1996). Emotional support includes behaviour that provides encouragement, understanding and attention, while instrumental support includes behaviour such as assisting in problem solving and any kind of assistance with the aim to facilitate an individual's participation in the other domain (King *et al.*, 1995). Both types of social support can give positive effect that helps an individual with work domain (Wayne *et al.*, 2006). Work support includes support from supervisor, co-workers and management (Jahn *et al.*, 2003). On the other hand, family support consists of spouse and other family members or friends.

In other study done by Tharmalingan and Bhatti (2014) general terms of social support which not specific to source of support has been used. The findings revealed that social support is negatively related to work-family conflict. Another study done by Hong and Lee (2005) general work social support was negatively related to the aspect of strain-based work-family conflict. However the strength of relationship is weak. Employee work in environment with strong family support reported less work-family conflict (Lapierre *et al.*, 2008) compare to environment perceived less family support.

A study by Karatepe and Kilic (2007) found that supervisor support decreased work-family conflict among frontline employees in Northern Cyprus Hotel and this was confirmed by empirical data. This finding was supported by Frye and Breaugh (2004), which indicated that the supervisor support gave important consequences to work-family conflict and reduced work-family conflict. Achour *et al.*, (2013) added that supervisor support has a negative correlation with work-family conflict in study on female academic staff working the research university in Malaysia.

Social support received at work and home associate with the level of burnout among individuals. Support from work and family helps to decrease burnout (Barunch-Feldman *et al.*, 2002). Study done by Yildirim (2008) among Turkish school counsellors found that spouse support related with personal accomplishment while family support associated with emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. According to Colling and Murray, (1996) social support received at work from co-worker and supervisor can be extremely important to assist employee and reduce the feeling of burnout. Resources can moderate the effect in stress-strain relationship. Thus, it is believe that social support can buffer the relationship between the stressor and its strain outcome. So it is proposed that social support from work and family moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout.

Proposition 5: Work support moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout among Malaysian women engineers.

Proposition 6: Family support moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout among Malaysian women engineers.

7. Integrating work-family conflict, burnout, social support and turnover intention into a single model

Evidence show that burnout mediates the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention (Thanocoody *et al.*, 2009). Apart from that, past study also shows that social support moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout (Lingard and Francis, 2005). Thus, work and family support may influence the mediating effect of burnout on work-family conflict and turnover intention relationship.

Proposition 7: The mediating effect of burnout on work-family conflict and turnover intention is moderated by work support.

Proposition 8: The mediating effect of burnout on work-family conflict and turnover intention is moderated by family support.

8. Propose research framework

The overall proposed framework is shown in figure 1.

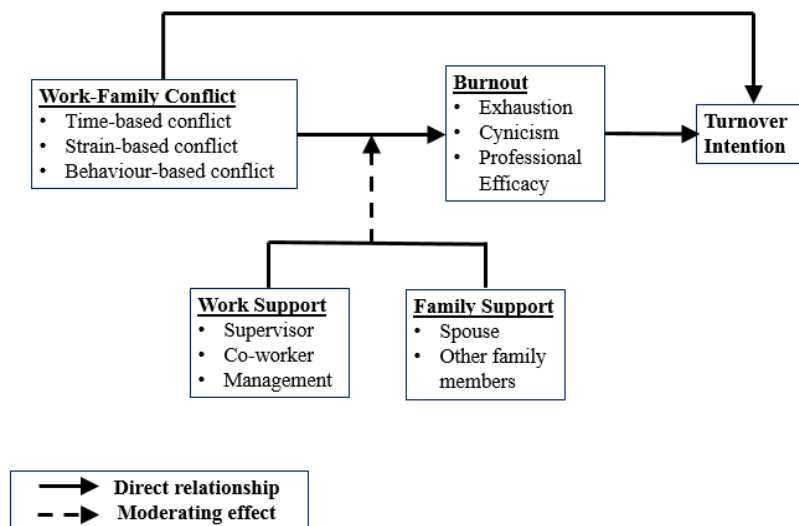


Fig. 1 - Proposed research framework

9. Conclusion

The changing in socio-economy where a woman entering workforce contributes to many issues and one of the major issues is work-family conflict. Fail to meet the demand from both work and family increase intention for working women to quit from their current job. The effect from work-family conflict to an individual includes burnout where a working woman may suffer from long term exhaustion and lost interest in dealing with their job. In order to meet the demand both at work and family social support play an important factor that can help to reduce work-family conflict and burnout which may lead to turnover intention.

By investigating the direct relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention and indirect relationship through burnout among Malaysian women engineers, organization can take further action in helping to reduce the conflict between work and family for example through the implementation family friendly benefit to assist working women in balancing between work and family demand. By confirming the influence of social support in the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout and also turnover intention organization should address social support from work and family as an important factor that can help to reduce work-family conflict and at the same time will help to decrease burnout and turnover intention among Malaysian women engineers.

10. References

- Achour, M., Mohd Yakub Zulkifli, M. Y., Mohd Roslan, M. N., (2013). Moderating Effects of Supervisory Support between Work-Family Demands and Life Satisfaction among Malaysian Female Academicians. Proceedings Book of ICEFMO, 2013, Malaysia Handbook on the Economic, Finance and Management.
- Adams, G. A., King, L.A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support and work family conflict with job and life satisfaction, *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81,411-420.
- Ali, N., Baloch, Q. B. (1999). Predictors of organizational commitment and turnover intention of medical representatives: An empirical evidence of Pakistani companies. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, 3, 263-273.
- Aslam, R., Shumaila, S., Azhar, M. & Sadaqat S. (2011).WFC: Relationship between WLC and employee retention - a comparative study of public and private sector employees. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, 1, 18-29.
- Association of Professional Engineers, Scientists & Managers (APESMA), Women in the Professions Survey Report 2007, Melbourne.
- Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands–resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22, 309-328.
- Ballout, I. H. (2008). Work-family conflict and career success: The effects of domain-specific determinants. *Journal of Management Development*, 27, 437-466.
- Baruch-Feldman, C., Brondolo, E., Ben-Dayana, D., & Schwartz, J. (2002). Sources of social support and burnout, job satisfaction and productivity. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7, 1, 84-93
- Berg, P., Kalleberg, A.L., & Applebaum, E. (2003). Balancing work and family: The role of high-commitment environments. *Industrial Relations*, 42, 168–188.
- Blomme, R.J., Rheed A. V., & Tromp, D.M. (2010).Work-family conflict as a cause for turnover intention in hospitality industry.*Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10, 269-285.
- Bria, M., Baban, A., Andreica, S., & Dumitrascu, D.L. (2013). BO and TOI among Romanian ambulance personel. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 84, 801-805.
- Burke, R. J., & Greenglass, E. 1996. Work stress, social support, psychological burnout and emotional and physical well-being among teachers. *Psychology, Health, & Medicine*, 1, 193-205.
- Collings, J., & Murray, P. (1996). Predictors of stress amongst social workers: An empirical study. *British Journal of Social Work*, 26, 375-387.
- Cooke, R. A., & Rousseau, D. M. (1984). Stress and strain from family roles and work-role expectations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 251-262.
- Dalton, D.R., & Mesch, D.J. (1990). The impact of flexible scheduling on employee attendance and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35, 370–387.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F. and Schaufeli, W.B. (2001a). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*,86, 499-512.
- Etzion, D., & Bailyn, L. (1994). Patterns of adjustment to the career/family conflict of technologically trained women in the U.S. and Israel. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24, 1520-1549.
- Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Addison-Wesley Publishing. Boston.
- Frye, N.K., & Breugh, J.A. (2004). Family-friendly policies, supervisor support, work-family conflict, family–work conflict, and satisfaction: A test of a conceptual model. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19, 197-220.
- Ghayyur, M., & Jamal, W. (2012). Work-family conflict: A case of employees’ turnover intention . *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2 , 168-174.
- Goode, W.J. (1960). A theory of role strain. In: *American Sociological Review* 60, 483-496.
- Greenhaus, J.H. & Beutell, N.J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88.
- Grzywacz, J. G., Marks, N.F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family, *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 5, 111-126.
- Haar, J.M., Rocheb, M., & Taylora, D. (2012).Work–family conflict and turnover intentions of indigenous employees: the importance of thewhanau/family for Maori. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23, 2546-2560.
- Henkens, C. J., & Leenders, M. (2010). Burnout and older workers' intentions to retire. *International Journal of Manpower*, 31, 306-321.
- Hong and Lee (2005). Work-Family Conflict and Its Relationship With Social Support: A Study at Private

- Educational Institutions in Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. *Educational Research Journal* 20, 221-244.
- Jahn, E., Thompson, C. A., & Kopelman, R. E. (2003). Rationale and construct validity evidence for a measure of perceived organizational family support (POFS): Because purported practices may not reflect reality. *Community, Work and Family* 6, 123-140.
- Karatepe O. M., & Karadas, G. (2014). The effect of psychological capital on conflicts in the work–family interface, turnover and absence intentions *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43, 132–143.
- Karatepe, O. M., Shohreh K., & Shima, N. (2010). Do core self-evaluations mediate the effect of coworker support on work engagement? A study of hotel employees in place country-region Iran. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* 17, 62-71.
- Karatepe, O.M., & Kilic, H. (2007). Relationships of supervisor support and conflicts in the work-family interface with the selected job outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism Management*, 28, 238-252.
- Kim, H., & Stoner, M. (2008). Burnout and turnover intention among social workers: effects of role stress, job autonomy, and social support. *Administration in Social Work*, 32, 5-25.
- King, L.A., Mattimore, L.K., King, D. W., Adams, G. A. (1995). Family Support Inventory for Workers: A new measure of perceived social support from family members. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 16,235-258.
- Kossek, E.E., & Ozeki, C. (1999). Bridging the work-family policy and productivity gap: A literature review. *Community, Work, and Family*, 2, 7-32.
- Kunda, G. (1992). *Engineering culture: Control and commitment in a high-tech corporation*. Temple University Press. Philadelphia.
- Lambert, E. (2010). The relationship of organizational citizenship behavior with job satisfaction, turnover intent, life satisfaction, and burnout among correctional staff. *Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law, and Society*, 23, 361-380.
- Lapierre, L. M., Spector, P. E., Allen, T. D., & Poelmans, S. (2008). Family-supportive organization perceptions, multiple dimensions of work-family conflict, and satisfaction: A test of model across five samples. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73, 92-106.
- Lewis, S., & Humbert, A.L. (2010). Discourse or reality? “Work-life balance”, flexible working policies and the gendered organization. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion*, 29, 239-254.
- Lingard, H., & Francis, V. (2005). The decline of the “traditional” family: work-life life benefits as a means of promoting a diverse workforce in the construction industry of Australia. *Construction Management and Economics*, 23, 1045-57.
- Lizano, E. L., & Mor Barak, M.E. (2012). Workplace demands and resources as antecedents of job burnout among public child welfare workers: A longitudinal study, *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34, 1769-1776.
- Maria, T.J.(2014). Exploring business travel with work–family conflict and the emotional exhaustion component of burnout as outcome variables: The job demands–resources perspective. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23, 497-510.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1984). Burnout in organizational settings. *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, 5, 133-153.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1984). Patterns of burnout among a national sample of public contact workers. *Journal of Health and Human Resources Administration*, 7, 189-212.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. (1997). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it*. Jossey-Bass Publishers. San Fransisco.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. In S. T. Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & C. Zahn-Waxler (Eds.), *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397- 422.
- McNall, L. A., Nicklin, J. M., & Masuda, A. D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-family enrichment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 381-396.
- Mostert, K. (2011). Job characteristics, work-home interference and burnout: testing a structural model in the South African context. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22, 1036-1053.
- Muhammad, A.H & Hamdy H.I. (2005). Burnout, supervisor support and work outcomes: A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. *International Journal of Commerce Management*,15, 230-242.
- Pankaj, S., Damodar, S., & Michael P.L. (2012). Antecedents, work-related consequences, and buffers of job burnout among Indian software developers. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19, 83-104.
- Pines, A., & Maslach, C. (1980). Combatting staff burn-out in a day care center: A case study. *Child Care Quarterly*, 9, 5-16.
- Pines. A., & Maslach C (1981) *Burnout, Form Tedium to Personal Growth*, MacMillan New York, NY.
- Post, C., DiTomaso, N., Farris, G. F. (2009). Work-family conflict and turnover intention among scientist and

-
- engineers working in R & D. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 24, 19-32.
- Powell, G. N., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2010). Sex, gender, and decision at the family-to-work interface. *Journal of Management*, 36, 1011-1039.
- Ranson, G. (2005). No longer "One of the boys": Negations with motherhood as prospect or reality, among women in engineering. *The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*, 42, 145-166.
- Riley, D. (2006) The mediation effect of job satisfaction, affective commitment and continuance, Master's thesis, The University of Waikato, New Zealand.
- Roehling, P.V., Roehling, M.V., & Moen, P. (2001). The relationship between work-life policies and practices and employee loyalty: a life course perspective. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 22, 141-170.
- Seiger, C. P., & Wiese, B. S. (2009). Social support from work and family domain as antecedent or moderator in work family conflicts?. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* 75, 26-37.
- Thanacoody, P.R., Bartram, T., & Casimir, G.(2009). The effects of burnout and supervisory social support on the relationship between work-family conflict and intention to leave: A study of Australian cancer workers. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, 23, 53-69.
- Tharmalingam, S. D., & Bhatti, M.A. (2014). Work-Family Conflict: An Investigation on job involvement, role ambiguity and job demand: Moderated by social support. *Journal of Human Resource Management* 2, 52-62.
- Wang, J., Patten, S.B., Currie, S., Sareen, J., & Schmitz, N. (2012). A population-based longitudinal study on work environmental factors and the risk of major depressive disorder. *Am J Epidemiol*, 176, 52-59.
- Wang, Y., Chang, Y., Fu, J., & Wang, L. (2012). Work-family conflict and burnout among Chinese female nurses: the mediating effect of psychological capital *BMC Public Health*, 12:915-922.
- Wayne, J.H., Randel A. E., & Stevens, J.(2006).The role identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 69, 445-461.
- Wendy, G., & Tracy, D. H. (2013). Work-family conflicts, threat-appraisal, self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion.*Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28,164-182.
- Worley, J. A., Vassar, M., Wheeler, D. L., & Barnes, L. L. B. (2008). Factor structure of scores from the Maslach Burnout Inventory: A review and meta-analysis of 45 exploratory and confirmatory factor analytic studies. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 68, 797-823.
- Van Daalen, G., Willemsen, T.M., Sanders, K. (2006). Reducing work-family conflict through different sources of social support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 69, 462-476.
- Yildirim, D., & Aycan, Z. (2008). Nurses' work demands and work-family conflict: a questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45, 1366-1378.

The Relationship between Individual Factors and Organizational Support with Career Development

Salasiah Abbas

Abstract This research focused on the relationship between individual factors and organisational support with career development in particular, self-efficacy, career autonomy, career planning and trainings. The research is a social science case study where the study was conducted at subsidiaries of a property developer. A total of 122 employees were included in this parameter of study. Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and Spearman Correlation data analysis was used to determine the relationship between the factors and career development. The data shows that career planning and training development factors have low correlation coefficient value and low significance level and that the variables are not linearly related. On the other hand, the data shows that self-efficacy and career autonomy factors have high correlation coefficient value and high significance level which indicates that the variables are linearly related and that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and career autonomy with career development. In conclusion, the findings of this research show that employees perceived that they believe more on themselves to achieve career development through self-efficacy and career autonomy instead of the organization helping them through career planning and training and development.

Keywords: Career development, Self-efficacy, Career autonomy, Career planning

1. Introduction

Changes in today's globalised business world are unprecedented. Since the last two decades, people's career attitudes and experiences have been significantly impacted by the changes in the economic, technology, Internet era, knowledge and business environment. Both employees and employers are concerned about career development and issues related to many areas including individual demographics, economic issues, career patterns, workplace justice, employer responsibilities, individual responsibilities, education as well as training and development. Researchers found that individuals believe that they themselves, through their self-efficacy, must play a role to achieve their career goals. Employees prefer to work independently and be responsible on the outcome of their own work. They believe that organisations should facilitate and support them throughout the endeavours by providing them with adequate training and development programs, as well as help structure their career planning. In comparison to traditional career development, the current notion of career development is more towards individual career development. Employees now are seeking for promotion, recognition, autonomy, good remuneration, job satisfaction and quality of work life. As stated by Hall (2004), the traditional "organizational" careers that were externally-oriented, emphasising vertical progression through positions defined by the organisation is now shifting to a protean career model based on "self-direction in the pursuit of psychological success in one's work" where career continues to develop in accordance with individual goals. Current issues of career development lead the researcher to study the relationship between individual factors and organizational support and career development. The research questions aim to understand the relationships between career planning, training and development, self-efficacy and career autonomy and career development.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Previous Research

Saleh (2012) studied the role of human resources practices in improving career development of the NGO staff in the Gaza Strip. This research explored the organization's and employees' role in enhancing career development opportunities. The researcher analyzed organizational role through career management, performance appraisal, and training and development practices, while the individual role was examined through the followed approach in career management and individual characteristics, including autonomy, self-efficacy and career competencies. The data collection was achieved through a survey distributed to 100 local and international NGOs who met the required criteria. Total samples of 887 employees were surveyed. The researcher examined the important roles of organizations and individuals in managing and developing careers and reflected the mutual and balanced relation between both. Saleh (2012) found that employees have self-directed protean career but they are usually not using their own values to guide their career. Furthermore, he also found that that training and development practices have impacted career development for employees but with moderate effect, as they are not well aligned to support career development initiatives for individual employees. Lastly, he found that employees with high self-efficacy are able to enhance their career development.

Meanwhile, Bambacas (2010) studied the relationship between two aspects of career management – the practice of career development activities by the organization (organizational career development) and career development activities by the individual (career self-management). She aimed to investigate whether career management practices influence affective and normative commitment according to the value that individuals place on opportunities for continuous learning provided by the organization. The study provided empirical evidence drawn from 196 manager members of the Australian Institute of Management. Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized relationships of the model. Bambacas (2010) found that levels of commitment improved when organizations provided continuous learning to managers. This was the case, for career management both by the individual, and by the organization. The results of her hypothesis testing suggested that career management in either form (managed by the organization or by the individual) plays an important role in facilitating employee commitment to the organization. Her findings also implied that individuals may become more attached and feel obligated towards the organization when the organization provides opportunities for them to manage their own careers. Similar to Saleh's (2012) research where he examined the importance of self-directed career management in NGOs, Bambacas' (2010) paper highlighted the importance of the value that individuals place on career management practices. It also had drawn attention to career self-management as a positive organizational initiative.

Ismail and Ramly (2011) also studied the influence of self-efficacy, organizational socialization and continuous improvement practices on the career aspirations of R&D professionals in government research institutes and multinational corporations (MNCs) in Malaysia. The study involved 164 respondents from government research institutes and 120 respondents from MNCs in Malaysia. Descriptive statistics and inferential multiple linear regressions were used to analyse the data. The researchers used Bandura's (1978) social cognitive career theory (SCCT) as their study's theoretical framework because the theory is a versatile theory that can be adapted to many contexts including human resources in R&D organizations. This theory features several variables that help to guide career development which include personal aspects (e.g. self-efficacy) and the environment (e.g. organizational supports, socialization and initiatives) within the process of career development. Ismail and Ramly (2011) found that cognitive-person factors (self-efficacy) and behaviour (continuous improvement practices) contributed more than environmental factors (organizational socialization) to the career aspirations. They also found that continuous improvement practices and self-efficacy

influence employees career aspirations. This is similar to Saleh's (2012) research findings where self-efficacy played an important role in career development.

Pinnington (2011) studied the competence development and career advancement in professional service firms. The study aimed to analyse how lawyers' competencies can be developed and how their careers may be advanced. The study considered the competences and careers of a group of junior professional knowledge workers employed full-time in a large law firm and conceptualises their competence development and professional career advancement using a qualitative interpretive research methodology. Pinnington (2011) found that self-understanding of lawyers is shaped by background, education and stage of career. This self-understanding leads to protean or high self-direction. She argued that career moves made by lawyers following success or failure at any stage are once again a prompted individual response to standard institutional career dynamics of the professional labour market and the careers of lawyers studied in this firm remain remarkably similar to Super's (1957) traditional career redux theory which describes career as linear, upward progression with a focus on extrinsic rewards and organizational career management.

Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahmad and Othman (2011) in their study examined individual and organizational factors in managing the career advancement of academics in fast developing private universities. A correlation study was conducted in six private universities. Data were collected using a structured self-administered questionnaire. The dependent variable was academics' career advancement and the independent variables were individual and organizational factors. Using stratified random sampling, 105 full-time academics were selected as the study respondents representing sampling criteria such as pure science and social science disciplines, job positions and academic qualifications. Through regression analysis, Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahmad and Othman (2011) found that organizational variables, specifically mentoring, social network and organizational support, were the significant contributors to the career advancement but they found that individual variables did not significantly contribute to career advancement. The researchers believed that one reason that might explain this difference is that the career examined in this study is very much associated with organization. This is very similar to the research findings of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) who argue that organizational variables are extremely important in determining career advancement of employees because the organization is the context in which the career is in action.

Lewis and Arnold (2012) studied on how organisational career management techniques are used within the UK retail buying and merchandising community. Using the quantitative research methods via an online survey of buying and merchandising community managers across 30 UK-based retailers, the researches explored the extent of organisational career management technique usage, buyers and merchandisers' evaluations of such techniques and the barriers to using them. In their findings, the researchers found that internal job posting, performance appraisal for career development; induction and competencies were the most commonly used as career management techniques. They found that the most consistently favoured techniques were training and educational opportunities, career-planning workshops, PDPs, induction and fast-track programmes. In comparison to other studies, Lewis and Arnold (2012) found that their respondents perceived organisational career management techniques to be relatively unfair and identified the main barriers to their use as time and budget constraints, unsupportive management, poor technique development or implementation and poor employee attitude or understanding.

2.2 Research Framework

From the career development concepts, theories and previous models, the researcher has come up with the research framework to study the current scenario of career development in UMLand:

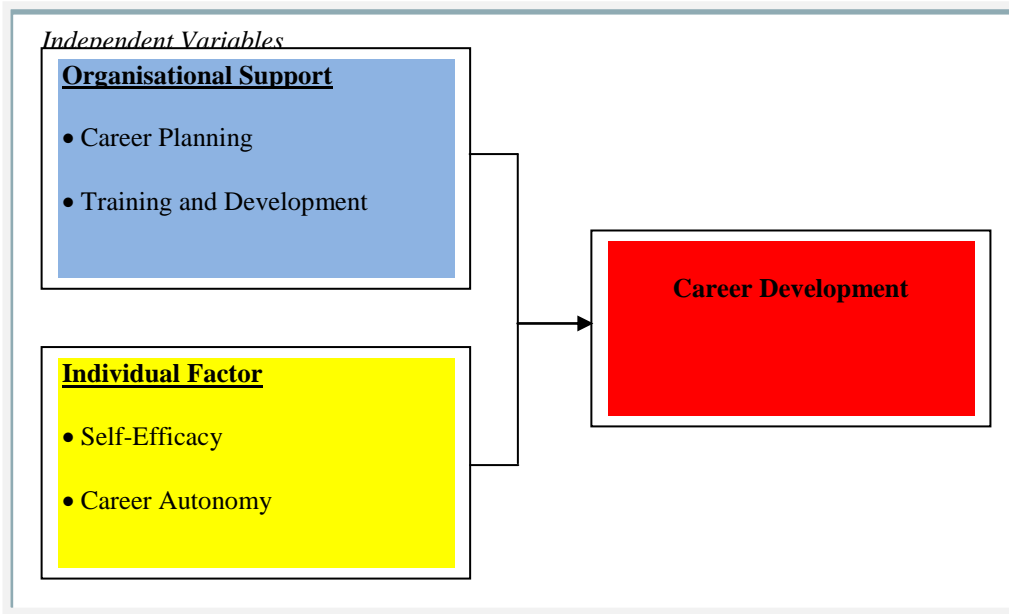


Figure 2.4: Research Framework
Source: Articulated by the researcher

3. Methodology

This research is designed for a case study on career development. The research design is guided by the research objectives of determining the relationship between organisational support and individual factor with career development. The research framework articulated by the researcher also act as the scope of the research. Respondents are identified based on the employees list provided by the management. To speed up data collection, questionnaire with 5-point Likert Scale is employed. Pilot test was conducted to check on face validity of the questionnaire. Data will be analysed using the SPSS 16.0 software and by using the inferential method (Spearman Correlation) to answer the objectives of this study.

Quantitative data are analysed using the descriptive and inference statistical methods by utilising Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0. For this research, Spearman Correlation is used to measure the relationship between variables. The Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient (Spearman's correlation, for short), is a non-parametric measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an ordinal scale. It is denoted by the symbol r_s (or the Greek letter ρ , pronounced rho). Like all correlation coefficients, Spearman's rho measures the strength of association of two variables. As such, the Spearman Correlation Coefficient is a close sibling to Pearson's Bivariate Correlation Coefficient, Point-Biserial Correlation, and the Canonical Correlation.

4. Results

4.1 Analysis on the relationship between career planning and career development

Based on the table 4.1, career planning shows a low correlation coefficient value which was 0.135. This means that there was low relationship between career planning and career development. The significance level or p -value is also more than 0.05 at 0.208 which means the correlation is not significant and the two variables are not linearly related. This indicates that employees perceive that career planning has no relationship with career development.

Table 4.1: Correlation between career planning and career development

Career Planning	Career Development
Correlation Coefficient	.135
Sig. (2-tailed)	.208
N	89

4.2 Analysis on the relationship between training and development and career development

For training and development factor, data shows a low correlation coefficient value of 0.171. Similar to the career planning factor, this indicates that there is no relationship between training and development with career development. The significance level or p -value is also more than 0.05 at 0.108 which means the correlation is not significant and the two variables are not linearly related.

Table 4.2: Correlation between training and development and career development

Training and Development	Career Development
Correlation Coefficient	.171
Sig. (2-tailed)	.108
N	89

4.3 Analysis on the relationship between self-efficacy and career development

On the other hand, self efficacy shows a high correlation coefficient value of 0.634. This indicates a relationship between self-efficacy and career development. The significance level or p -value is also less than 0.05 which means the correlation is significant and the two variables are linearly related. This reflects the respondent perception that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and career development.

Table 4.3: Correlation between self-efficacy and career development

Self-Efficacy	Career Development
Correlation Coefficient	.634
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
N	89

4.4 Analysis on the relationship between career autonomy and career development

Similar to the self efficacy factor, career autonomy shows a high correlation coefficient value of 0.516. This indicates that there was a relationship between career autonomy and career development. The significance level or p -value is also less than 0.05 which means the correlation is significant and the two variables are linearly related.

Table 4.4: Correlation between career autonomy and career development

Career Autonomy	Career Development
Correlation Coefficient	.516
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
N	89

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The Spearman Correlation analysis showed that career planning is not significantly related to career development. This result indicates that employees perceive that there is no relationship between career planning and career development. The implication is employees do not have a long term career plan for them and thus lead the organizations to focus on short-term vision and do not adopt strategic plans for further development. Due to the large supply of human capital in the market, employees are not on the top priority of the organizations' concerns. Consequently, as highlighted by Al Methahab (2007), few organizations are concerned about their staff's career planning and development and rarely do they allocate huge budget for organizational practices to support career development activities.

The Spearman correlation analysis also showed that training and development factor has low correlation with career development. Although employees participated in training courses organised by the company, the individual training and development plans and efficient relations to their career development is absent. This finding also contradicts with previous research and models on the importance of training and development for employees' career development. The implication is that employees are unable to receive a continuous knowledge and skill needed for their present jobs. This is, as described by Mondy and Noe (2005), includes formal training which is a planned, structured, and occurs when people are called away from their workstations to participate in this exercise and development which involves learning that goes beyond today's job and has a more long-term focus, it prepares employees to keep pace with the organization as it changes and grows.

Self-efficacy is found to be positively related to career development. This shows that the employees believe that they are capable of improving and developing their career-relevant skills as they have self-confident in dealing with multiple domains in life. This is in line with the notable Super's (1963) research on "Life-Span" or "Life-Space Theory" which marked as one of the greatest contributions to career development. An individual with a sense of self-efficacy would know their capability to achieve their career goals. It is a physiological state that a person's hold which directs them to perform his work at the best of their capacity. Similarly, Saleh's (2012) research also found that employees have high self-efficacy, which stresses that the individuals can contribute to the success of their career development by their increased ability in acquiring new skills and achieving higher personal goals if they would have the organizational platform and support in enhancing their career development.

Similarly, career autonomy is also positively correlated with career development. Employees perceive that there is a relationship between career and career development. This is in line with Hall's (2002) Protean Career Model which emphasized on self-directed approach to learning and the idea that it is the manager who drives the career. This has similar findings from a comparative study by Cadin, Bender, De Saint Giniez, and Pringle (2001) that showed a mix of career development processes happening with more traditional organizational career patterns in France; more self-directed and mobile careers in New Zealand. In other words, individuals now combine their personal career aspiration with organisational facilities like trainings and mentoring for career development. This is also in line with research findings by Bambacas (2010) which stated

that the more opportunities provided for managing their own career resulted in them feeling less “obliged” to stay. It is likely that career self-management may have positive effects on individuals’ normative commitment when they value continuous learning and are given opportunities to manage their own careers.

5.1 Research Potentials for Future Works

Career development is a novel and rapidly developing area of research. Though the first conceptual study in this area was published in 2002, much research has already been done in order to facilitate our understanding of the concept of career development. Some other potentials for future research which are related to this research includes analysis of demography and career development pattern behaviour on the career development to be considered for better managerial decision. Also, this study was conducted to find the relationship between individual factors and organisational support with career development from the employee’s view point. Another approach is to explore and include the organization’s viewpoints. In other words, it should assess the company and other organizations’ viewpoints and their stance regarding what they might identify as influencing factors that has relationship with career development.

6. References

- Adams, J.M. (1984). When working women become pregnant. *New England Business*, February 1984, pp. 18-21.
- Adamson, S. J. (1997). Career as a vehicle for the realization of self. *Career Development International*. 2/5 [1997] 245–253.
- Ahmad Mahzan Ayob (1991). *Kaedah Penyelidikan Sosioekonomi, Suatu Pengenalan*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. 56 – 60.
- Anakwe, U. P., and Greenhaus, J. H. (2000). Prior work experience and socialization experiences of college graduates. *International Journal of Manpower*, 21(2), 95-111.
- Applebaum, S., and Santiago, V. (1997). Career Development in the Plateaued Organization. *Career Development International*, 2, no. 1 (1997): 11-20.
- Arokiasamy, L., Maimunah Ismail, Aminah Ahmad and Jamilah Othman. Predictors of academics’ career advancement at Malaysian private universities. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 35 No. 6, 2011 pp. 589-605.
- Aumann, K.A. and Ostroff, C. (2006), “Multi-level fit: an integrative framework for understanding HRM practices in cross-cultural contexts”, in Yammarino, F.J. and Dansereau, F. (Eds), *Multi-level Issues in Social Systems*, Vol. 5, Emerald, Bradford, pp. 13-79.
- Ball, B. (1998) "Career management competences – the individual perspective", *Librarian Career Development*, Vol.6 No.7 pp3-11
- Bambacas, M. (2010). Organizational handling of careers influences managers’ organizational commitment. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 29 No. 9, pp. 807-827.
- Bandura, A. (1968). A social learning interpretation of psychological dysfunctions. In: Longon, D., Rosenham, D. (Ed), *Foundations of abnormal psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, pp. 293– 344.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs (NJ): Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. and Walters, R. (1963). *Social Learning and Personality Development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

-
- Bandura, A. (1969). Social-learning theory of identificatory processes. In: Goslin, D.A. (Ed), *Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research*, Rand McNally, Chicago, IL.
- Bank Negara Malaysia: <http://www.bnm.gov.my>
- Bernhard-Oettel, C., Sverke, M., and Witte, H. (2005). Comparing three alternative types of employment with permanent fulltime work: How do employment contract and perceived job conditions relate to health complains? *Work and Stress*, 19, 301- 318.
- Betz, N. E., and Hackett, G. (1997). Applications of Self-efficacy Theory to the Career Assessment of Women. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 5, 383-482.
- Breaston, S. L. and Arnold, J. (2012). Organisational career management in the UK retail buying and merchandising community. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, Vol. 40 No. 6, pp. 451-470.
- Brown, B.L. (1998). Career development: A shared responsibility. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Career and Vocational Education* Columbus OH, Digest No. 201.
- Callanan, G. A., and Greenhaus, J. H. (2008). The Baby Boom Generation and Career Management: A Call to Action. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 10, 70-85.
- Cao, L., Hirschi, A and Deller, J (2012). Self-initiated expatriates and their career success. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 159-172.
- Cadin, L., Bender, A. F., De Saint Giniez, V., & Pringle, J. (2001). Individual odysseys in France and New Zealand. Paper presented at the EGOS 17th Colloquium, July 5–7, Lyon, France.
- Carbery, R. and Garavan, T.N. (2007). Conceptualising the Participation of Managers in Career-Focused Learning and Development: A Framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, Vol. 6 No. 4, pp. 394-418.
- Chantara, Kaewkuekool and Koul (2011), Self-Determination Theory and Career aspirations: A Review of literature, *2011 International Conference on Social Science and Humanity. IPEDR vol.5 (2011) © (2011) IACSIT Press, Singapore.*
- Chen, C. P. (1997). Career Projection: Narrative in Context. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 49, no. 2, 311-326.
- Clarke, M. (2011). Advancing women’s careers through leadership development programs. *Employee Relations*, Vol. 33 No. 5, pp. 498-515.
- Conlon, T. J. (2004). *Career Development Challenges for the 21st Century Workplace: A Review of the Literature*. Paper presented at the Academy of Human Resource Development International Conference (AHRD) (Austin, TX, Mar 3-7, 2004), p779-786 (Symp. 36-2).
- Cummings, T. & Worley, C. (2005). *Organization Development & Change*. (8th ed.) South-Western Publishing.
- Duffy, R. D. (2006). Spirituality, Religion, and Career Development: Current Status and Future Directions. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 55,52-63.
- Deci, E.L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum Publishing Co. Japanese Edition, Tokyo: Seishin Shobo, 1980.
- Duffy, R. D., and Blustein, D. L. (2005). The Relationship between Spirituality, Religiousness, and Career Adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 429-440.
- Duffy, R. D., and Lent, R. W. (2008). Relation of Religious Support to Career Decision Self-Efficacy in College Students. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16, 360-369.
- Duffy, R.D., and Dik, B.J. (2009). Beyond the Self: External Influences in the Career Development Process. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 58, 29-43.
- Ellis, N. and Pompli, A. (2002). *Quality of working life for nurses*. Commonwealth Dept of Health and Ageing. Canberra.

-
- Ewert H. C. (1992). *Christ of the 21st Century*, Rockport, MA: Element, 7- 10.
- Exxonmobil: <https://www.exxonmobil.com>
- Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers (FMM): <http://www.fmm.org.my>
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Festinger, L. and Carlsmith, J.M. (1959). Cognitive Consequences of Forced Compliance. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 58, 203-210.
- Frankl, V. E. (1984). *Man's search for meaning*. New York: *Washington Square Press*. (Original work published 1959).
- General Electric: <https://www.ge.com>
- Gilbert, G.N.(1993), (Ed), *Researching social life*, London: Sage.
- Goldberg, L. R., & Digman, J. M. (1994). Revealing structure in the data: Principles of exploratory factor analysis. In S. Strack & M. Lorr (Eds.), *Differentiating normal and abnormal personality* (pp. 216-242). New York: Springer.
- Gong, Y., Shenkar, O., Luo, Y., and Nyaw, M. (2005). Human resources and international joint venture performance: A system perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(5), 505-518.
- Google: <https://www.google.com.my>
- Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, G. A., and Godshalk, V. M. (2010). *Career management* (4th Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, G. A., and DiRenzo, M. (2008). A Boundaryless Perspective on Careers. In Barling, J., and Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Behavior*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, Volume 1, 277-299.
- Greenhaus, J. H., and Callanan, G. A., Editors. (2006). *Encyclopedia of career development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Greenhaus, J.G., Callanan, G.A., and Godshalk, V.M. (2000). *Career Management*. (3rd ed.). New York: The Dryden Press.
- Greenhaus, J. H. (2002). Career Dynamics. In Borman, W., C., Ilgen, D. R., and Klimoski, R. J. (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of psychology, Volume 12: Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. New York: Wiley, 519-540.
- Guilford J. P. (1965). *Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gutteridge, T.G. (1986). Organisational Career Development Systems: The state of the Practice. In D.T. Hall and Associates (Eds.), *Career Development in Organisations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hackman J.R. and Oldham, G.R. (1976). "Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16:250-279.
- Hair, Joseph, F., Jr., Anderson, Rolph E., Tatham, Ronald L., and Black, William C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th edition, Prentice-Hall International Inc., USA.
- Hall, D. T. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 10(4), 8-16.
- Hall, D. T. (2002). *Careers in and out of organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hall, D. T. (2004). The protean career: A quarter-century journey. School of Management, Boston University, Boston, MA 02215, USA *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 1-13.
- Hall, D.T., and Associates (1986). *Career Development in Organizations*. (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

-
- Hall, D. T., and Mirvis, P. (1995). *The New Protean Career: Psychological Success and the Path with a Heart*. Douglas T. Hall and Associates, *the Career is Dead, Long Live the Career*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hanadi Rebhi Saleh (2012). *The role of HRM practices in improving career development opportunities of the NGO staff in Gaza Strip*. Gaza Postgraduate Department Faculty of Commerce, The Islamic University, May 2012.
- Herr, E. L., and Shahnasarian, M. (2001). Selected milestones in the evolution of career development practices in the twentieth century. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 49, 225-232.
- Herr, E. L. (1999, January). *Career guidance and counseling in the 21st century: Continuity and change*. Paper presented at the National Consultation on Career Development, Ottawa, Canada.
- Herr, E. L., and Cramer, S. H. (1996). *Career guidance and counseling through the lifespan. Systematic approaches* (5th ed.). New York: HarperCollins.
- Herr, E. L. (2001). Career development and its practice: A historical perspective. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 49, 196-211.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories, *Journal of International Business Studies*, Fall, 75-90.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's consequences: international differences in work-related values*, Abridged version, London: Sage, 1984.
- Jackson Jr. DW. and Sirianni NJ. (2009). Building the bottom line by developing the frontline: Career development for service employees, *Business Horizons* Vol. 52 No. 3, pp. 279-287.
- Kapel, C., and Shepherd, C. (2004). Career ladders create common language for defining jobs. *Canadian HR Reporter*, 14(12), 15- 16.
- Kato, I. and Suzuki, R. (2006). Career “mist,” “hope,” and “drift”: conceptual framework for understanding career development in Japan”, *Career Development International* Vol. 11 No. 3, 2006, pp. 265-276.
- Kaye, B. (2005). Build a culture of development. *Leadership Excellence*, 22(3), 18.
- Kerlinger, F. (1986). *Foundations of Behavioral Research*, 3rd edn. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentoring relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 608-625.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.
- Krumboltz, J. D. (1996). A Learning Theory of Career Counseling. In M. L. Savickas and W. B. Walsh (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Counseling Theory and Practice*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black, 55-80.
- Krumboltz, J. D. (1979). A Social Learning Theory of Career Decision Making. In A. M. Mitchell, G. B. Jones, and J. D. Krumboltz (Eds.), *Social Learning and Career Decision Making*. Cranston, RI: Carroll Press, 19-49.
- Krumboltz, J.D. (1998). Counsellor Actions Needed for the New Career Perspective. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 26, 559-564.
- Krumboltz, J.D., Fuqua, D.R., Newman, J.L., and Walsh, W.B. (1994). The Career Beliefs Inventory-- Comment/Reply. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 72, 424-433.
- Kuijpers, M.A.C.T., Schyns, B. and Scheerens, J. (2006). Career competencies for career success. *The Career Development Quarterly*, Vol. 55 No. 2, pp. 168-78.
- Lawler, E. E. (1982). Strategies for improving the quality of work life. *American Psychologist*, 37, 2005, 486-493.

-
- Leibowitz, Z.B., Farren, C., and Kaye, B.L. (1986). *Designing Career Development Systems*. (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., and Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a Unifying Social Cognitive Theory of Career and Academic Interest, Choice, and Performance. [Monograph]. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 45, 79-122.
- Liaw Shu Hui and Goh Kim Leng (2002). *Statistik Asas: Konsep dan Amalan*, Kuala Lumpur: McGraw-Hill
- Litzky, B. E., and Greenhaus, J. H. (2007). The Relationship between Gender and Aspirations to Senior Management. *Career Development International*, 12, 637-659.
- Maanen, J.V. and Schein, E.H. (1977). Improving Life at Work. *Career Development*. In J.R. Hackman and J.L. Suttle (eds.) Santa Monica, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing, 30-95.
- Maimunah Ismail and Efizah Sofiah Ramly (2011). Career aspirations of Malaysian research and development professionals in the knowledge economy. *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Vol. 35 No. 6, 2011, pp. 606-622.
- Malach-Pines, A. and Kaspi-Baruch, O. (2008). The role of culture and gender in the choice of a career in management. *Career Development International*, Vol. 13 Iss: 4, pp.306 – 319.
- Malaysian Employers Federation (MEF): <http://www.mef.org.my>.
- Malhotra, N. K. (1996). *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Marsick, V. J. And Watkins, K. E. (1994). The learning organization: An integrative vision for HRD. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. Volume 5, Issue 4, pages 353–360.
- Martin, A.F., Romero, F.P., Valle, C.R., and Dolan, S.L. (2001). Corporate business strategy, career management and recruitment: Do Spanish firms adhere to contingency model? *Career Development International*, 6(3), 149 - 155.
- Maslow, A.H. (1943). "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review* 50(4): 370-96.
- Maxis: <http://www.maxis.com.my>
- McDaniels, C., and Gysbers, N. C. (1992). *Counseling for career development: Theories, resources, and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McDougall, M. and Vaughan, E. (1996). Changing expectations of career development: Implications for organizations and for social marketing. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 15 Iss: 9, pp.36 – 46.
- McLagan, P. (1989). The Models - Models for HRD Practice. *American Society for Training and Development*. Published by ASTD Alexandria USA.
- McLagan, P. (1989). Models for HRD practice. *Training and Development Journal*, September 1989.
- McDaniels, C. and Gysbers, N. C. (1992). *Counseling for Career Development: Theories, Resources, and Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merel M.S., Kats, I.J., Emmerik, H. V., Blenkinsopp, J. and Khapova, S. N. (2010). Exploring the associations of culture with careers and the mediating role of HR practices: A conceptual model. *Career Development International*, Vol. 15 Iss: 4, pp.401 – 418.
- Meyers, L.S., Gamst, G. and Guarino, A.J. (2006). *Applied Multivariate Research: Design and Interpretation*. (1st). United State of America: Sage Publications.
- Microsoft: <https://www.microsoft.com>
- Mitchell, K.E., Levin, A.S., and Krumboltz, J.D. (1999). Planned Happenstance: Constructing Unexpected Career Opportunities. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 77, 115-124.

- Mirvis, P.H. and Lawler, E.E. (1984). Accounting for the Quality of Work Life. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*. 5. 197-212.
- Mohd Salleh Abu and Zaidatun Tasir (2001). *Pengenalan Kepada Analisis Data Berkomputer SPSS 10.0 for Windows*. Kuala Lumpur: Venton Publishing.
- Mondy, R.W., Noe, R.M. and Gowan, M. (2005). *Human Resource Management* (9th ed. / Mondy, R.W., Noe, R.M.). Upper Saddle River, NJ Prentice Hall.
- Morrison, R.F., and Hock, R.R. (1986). Career building: learning from cumulative work experience. In D.T. Hall and Associates (Eds.), *Career development in organisations* (236-273), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Nankivell, C. and Shoolbred, M. (1997). Mentoring: A Valuable Tool for Career Development. *Librarian Career Development*, Vol. 5, Issue: 3, 98 – 10.
- Naylor, F.D., and Krumboltz, J.D. (1994). The Independence of Aptitudes, Interests, and Career Beliefs. *Career Development Quarterly*, 43, 152-160.
- Ng, T., Eby, L.T., Sorensen, K.L. and Feldman, D.C. (2005), "Predictors of objective and subjective career success: a meta-analysis", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 58 No. 1, pp. 367-408.
- Noe, R. A. (1996). Is career management related to employee development and performance? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. Volume 17, Issue 2, pages 119–133, March 1996.
- Nunnally, J. (1967). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ormrod, J.E. (2006). *Educational psychology: Developing learners* (5th Edition). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill.
- O'Neill, O. A. and O'Reilly III, O. A. (2004), *Women's Careers: The Impact of Sex and Gender Identity on Career Attainment*. Research Paper No. 1775(R). December 2004 Graduate School of Business, Stanford University.
- Parasuraman, S., Greenhaus, J. H., and Linnehan, F. (2000). Time, Person-career Fit, and the Boundaryless Career. In Cooper, C. L., and Rousseau, D. M. (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 7, pp. 63-78). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley and Sons.
- Pelan Strategik KSM 2011-2015. *Buku Pekan Strategik KSM 2011-2015*. Kementerian Sumber Manusia, 2011.
- Petronas: <http://www.petronas.com.my>
- Pietrofesa, J. J., and Splete, H. (1975). *Career development: Theory and research*. New York: Grune and Stratton.
- Pinnington, A. H. (2011). Competence development and career advancement in professional service firms, *Personnel Review*, Vol. 40 No. 4, pp. 443-465.
- Philip S. (2007). *A Brief History of Spirituality*, Wiley-Blackwell 2007, 1-2.
- Portwood, J.D. & Granrose, C.S. (1986), "Organizational Career Management Programs: What's Available? What's Effective?", *Human Resource Planning*, 9(3), 107-119.
- Puah, P. and Ananthram, S. (2006). Exploring the Antecedents and Outcomes of Career Development Initiatives: Empirical Evidence from Singaporean Employees, *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 112-142.
- Rapoport, R. and Rapoport, R.N. (1980). Balancing work, family and leisure: a triple helix model", in Derr, C.B. (Ed.), *Work, Family and the Career*, Praeger Publishing, New York, NY, 1980.
- Rosenbaum, J. E. (1979). Tournament Mobility: Career Patterns in an Corporation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, pp 220-241.
- Rosenbaum, J. E. (1994). *Career Mobility in a Corporate Hierarchy*, New York, Academic.
- Purohit, Y. and Simmers, C. (1994). The Impact of Dual-Earner Couples' Beliefs about Career Priority on the Support Exchange: Well Being Relationship". Erivan K. Haub School of Business. Saint Joseph's University.

-
- Sekaran, U. (2000). *Research Methods for Business*, John Wiley & Sons, United States of America, 28-35.
- Selmer, J. (1999). Career Issues and International Adjustment of Business Expatriates, *Career Development International*, Vol. 4 Iss: 2, pp.77 - 87.
- Skinner, B. F. (1948). *Walden Two*, New York: Macmillan.
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and Human Behavior*, New York: Macmillan.
- Skinner, B. F. (1971). *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*, New York: Knopf.
- Skinner, B. F. (1974). *About Behaviorism*, New York: Vintage.
- Skinner, B. F. (1977). Why I am not a Cognitive Psychologist, *Behaviorism*, 5: 1–10.
- Skinner, B. F. (1984a). Abstract for “An Operant Analysis of Problem Solving”, *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 7: 583.
- Skinner, B. F. (1984b). Coming to Terms with Private Events, *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 7: 573–581.
- Skinner, B. F. (1985). “News from Nowhere, 1984”, *The Behavior Analyst*, 8: 5–14.
- Singh, R., and Greenhaus, J. H. (2004). The Relation between Career Decision-making Strategies and Person-job fit: A study of Job Changers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64, 198-221.
- Sirgy, M. J., Efraty, D., Siegel, P and Lee, D. (2001). A new measure of quality of work life (QoWL) based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. *Social Indicators Research*, 55, 241-302.
- Super, D.E. (1957). *The Psychology of Careers*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Super, D.E., Starishevsky, R., Matlin, N., et al. (1963). *Career Development: A Self-Concept Theory*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.
- Super, D. E., Savickas, M.L., and Super, C. M. (1996). The Life-span, Life-space Approach to Careers. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, et al, (Eds.). *Career Choice and Development: Applying Contemporary Theories to Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 121-178.
- Takahashi, K. (2006). Effects of wage and promotion incentives on the motivation levels of Japanese employees. *Career Development International*, Vol. 11 Issue: 3, pp.193 – 203.
- Taylor, J. C. in Cooper, C. L. and Mumford, E. (1979). *The quality of working life in Western and Eastern Europe*. ABP.
- Tharmaseelan, N., Inkson, K. and Carr, S. C. (2010). Migration and career success: testing a time-sequenced model. *Career Development International*, Vol. 15 Iss: 3 pp. 218 – 238.
- Thite, M. (2001). Help us but help yourself: the paradox of contemporary career management. *Career Development International*, 6(6), 312 - 317.
- Thurasamy, R., Lo, M., Adida Yang Amri and Noorhayati Noor (2011). An analysis of career advancement among engineers in manufacturing organizations. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, Vol. 21 No. 2, pp. 143-157.
- Tiedeman, D. V., and Miller-Tiedeman, A. (1976). A model for structuring person perceptions into career decision-making. *Texas Tech Journal of Education*, 3, 7-31.
- Tiedeman, D. V., and O'Hara, R. P. (1963). *Career development: Choice and adjustment*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.
- Toyota: <https://www.toyota.com>.
- United Malaysian Land Bhd (UMLand): <http://www.umland.com.my>.
- Van, M.J. and Schein, E.H. (1977). *Career Development*. In Hackman, J.R. and Suttle, J.L. (eds). *Improving Life at Work*. Vol. 30 No. 3, pp. 469-486.
- Warr, P.B., J. Cook and T.D. Wall. (1979). Scales for the Measurement of some Work Attitudes and Aspects of Psychological Well-Being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, vol. 52, p. 129-148.

-
- White, B. (1995), The career development of successful women. *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 10. Issue: 3 pp. 4 – 15.
- Williams, B. (2003). The Worldview Dimensions of Individualism and Collectivism: Implications for Counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 81, 370-374.
- Wright, P. and Belcourt, M. (1994).** Management development: A career management perspective. *International Journal of Career Management*, 6 (5), 3 – 10.

Kajian Konseptual Kecerdasan Emosi Dan Budaya Usahawan

Jimisiah Jaafar¹ dan Hamdan Abdul Kadir
Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak Kajian ini adalah untuk melihat kecerdasan emosi dan budaya usahawan secara konseptual di kalangan usahawan. Kecerdasan emosi dan budaya usahawa amat berkait rapat dengan usahawan. Antara faktor kejayaan usahawan adalah dengan memiliki tahap kecerdasan emosi yang tinggi. Selain dari memiliki tahap pendidikan yang tinggi, mempunyai tahap kecerdasan emosi yang tinggi juga dapat membantu seseorang usahawan itu menjadi lebih berjaya dari usahawan yang mempunyai kecerdasan emosi yang rendah. Kedua-duanya perlu seimbang. Dengan memiliki kecerdasan emosi yang tinggi seseorang usahawan itu dapat menguruskan perniagaannya dengan lebih teratur dan lebih berdisiplin. Ini akan dapat membentuk satu budaya usahawan yang positif. Mereka juga dapat menyesuaikan diri mereka di dalam apa juga situasi untuk terus menguruskan perniagaan dan menyelesaikan masalah secara terbaik. Budaya uahawan pula adalah mengenai perilaku serta aktiviti-aktiviti yang selalu dilakukan di dalam menguruskan perniagaan usahawan. Di mana kecerdasan emosi mempengaruhi cara usahawan menjalankan perniagaan mereka. Usahawan perlu melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti usahawan secara positif untuk terus maju dan berdaya tahan dengan pesaing.

Kata kunci: kecerdasan emosi, budaya usahawan

1. Pendahuluan

Keusahawanan adalah satu bidang di mana memerlukan seseorang itu mempunyai kekuatan emosi yang tinggi dan ketahanan mental yang kuat. Seseorang yang memilih kerjaya mereka sebagai seorang usahawan perlu mempunyai sikap berdaya saing dan kompeten di dalam menyelesaikan pelbagai cabaran serta rintangan dan halangan di dalam kerjaya sebagai usahawan. Dengan memiliki kecerdasan emosi yang tinggi ianya akan memberikan input yang positif di dalam pembangunan diri seseorang usahawan dan membantu mereka menjadi lebih sensitif terhadap apa-apa perubahan terutama dari aspek budaya usahawan dan sosial. Artikel ini akan membincangkan secara terperinci mengenai kecerdasan emosi dan budaya usahawan secara konseptual.

2. Kecerdasan Emosi

Kecerdasan emosi dikatakan memberikan ciri-ciri peribadi tidak ketara yang penting untuk perkembangan psikologi dan emosi setiap individu (Lyons, J. B & Schneider, T. R. 2005.). Kecerdasan emosi telah menjadi sangat popular dalam bidang perniagaan sejak penerbitan Goleman bertajuk 'emotional intelligence' diterbitkan pada tahun 1995. Adalah dipercayai bahawa kecerdasan emosi adalah asas kepada banyak sifat peribadi seperti kehormatan diri, motivasi diri, penentuan nasib sendiri, memahami kemampuan sendiri dan mempunyai hubungan yang baik dengan yang lain (Cherniss dan Adler, 2000).

Selain itu, Cross dan Travaglione (2003) menyatakan bahawa kecerdasan emosi adalah faktor yang sangat penting dalam mewujudkan persekitaran kerja yang berjaya. Oleh itu, kecerdasan emosi harus dikaji secara berhati-hati dan difahami untuk mendapatkan manfaat yang besar darinya. Seterusnya, definisi kecerdasan emosi telah disediakan oleh Mayer, Roberts dan Barsade seperti berikut:

Universiti Kuala Lumpur, Persiaran Sinaran Ilmu, Bandar Seri Alam, 81750, Johor Bahru. Tel.: +6019-7293993;
fax: +607-3812500.
E-mail address: jimisiah@unikl.edu.my

'Kecerdasan emosi melibatkan kemampuan untuk melaksanakan pertimbangan yang tepat mengenai emosi dan kemampuan untuk menggunakan emosi dan pengetahuan emosional untuk meningkatkan pemikiran.'

Kecerdasan emosi adalah teori yang rumit kerana ia melibatkan kemampuan pemahaman dan berkomunikasi dengan orang lain (Assanova dan McGuire, 2009). Hasilnya, terdapat banyak definisi yang berbeza pada kecerdasan emosi yang berdasarkan kepada setiap baris penyelidikan kerja.

Sejarah Ringkas Kecerdasan Emosi

1930	Edward Thorndike menerangkan konsep " kecerdasan sosial " sebagai keupayaan untuk mendapatkan kerjasama bersama-sama dengan orang lain.
1940	David Wechsler menunjukkan bahawa komponen afektif kecerdasan mungkin penting untuk kejayaan dalam hidup.
1950	Pakar psikologi kemanusiaan seperti Abraham Maslow menggambarkan bagaimana orang boleh membina kekuatan emosi.
1975	Howard Gardner menerbitkan <i>Shattered Minds</i> , yang memperkenalkan konsep kecerdasan pelbagai atau <i>multiple kecerdasan</i> .
1985	Wayne Payne memperkenalkan kecerdasan emosi dalam disertasi kedoktorannya yang bertajuk "Satu kajian emosi : membangunkan kecerdasan emosi demi integrasi diri ; berkaitan dengan ketakutan, kesakitan dan keinginan (teori , struktur realiti, menyelesaikan masalah, /penguncupan/ pengemangan, penyelarasan masuk / keluar / melepaskan) (<i>theory, structure of reality, problem-solving, contraction/expansion, tuning in/coming out/letting go</i>)."
1987	Dalam artikel yang disiarkan dalam Majalah <i>Mensa</i> , Keith Beasley telah menggunakan "kecerdasan emosi . " Ia menjangka bahawa ia telah mencadangkan EQ sebagai julung kali atau pertama kali istilah ini diterbitkan, walaupun Reuven Bar-On (EQ-i) mendakwa ia telah menggunakan istilah EQ ini dalam versi yang tidak diterbitkan sebagai memenuhi tesis ijazah beliau.
1990	Ahli psikologi Peter Salovey dan John Mayer menyiarkan artikel rujukan asas utama, "Kecerdasan emosi , " dalam jurnal <i>Imagination</i> , <i>Kognisi</i> dan <i>Personaliti</i> .
1995	Konsep kecerdasan emosi adalah dipopularkan selepas penerbitan ahli-ahli psikologi yang lain dan dalam <i>New York Times</i> , "Kecerdasan Emosi" ditulis oleh seorang ahli Sains bernama Daniel Goleman dalam buku popularnya iaitu : <i>Why It Can Matter More Than IQ?</i>

Mengikut Salover dan Mayer, 1990, di antara ciri-ciri EQ ialah:

- Kebolehan mengetahui emosi sendiri
- Kebolehan dalam pengurusan emosi
- Kemahiran meningkatkan motivasi diri
- Kebolehan mengawal emosi orang lain
- Kebolehan menjalinkan persaudaraan.

Sementara Goleman (1998) pula mentakrifkan EQ sebagai kebolehan untuk mengenalpasti emosi diri dan orang lain, untuk memotivasi diri sendiri dan menguruskan emosi dengan baik dalam diri sendiri dalam pembinaan hubungan antara perseorangan yang dapat dikategorikan kepada 5 dimensi EQ seperti:

- 1 Kesedaran diri (Self-awareness) - mengamati diri dan mengenali perasaan diri sendiri; mengetahui hubungan antara fikiran, perasaan dan reaksi.
- 2 Kawalan diri (Self-regulation) - mengurus keadaan, desakan dan sumber dalaman seseorang.
- 3 Motivasi diri (motivation) - Kecenderungan emosi yang memimpin atau memudahkan pencapaian matlamat.
- 4 Empati (emphaty) - Memahami perasaan dan masalah orang lain dan berfikir dari sudut pandangan mereka; menghargai perbezaan perasaan orang mengenai pelbagai hal.
- 5 Kemahiran sosial (Social skills) - Kemahiran berkomunikasi dan keupayaan untuk membantu orang lain menguruskan emosinya.

Menurut Goleman(1995), EQ adalah yang dikaitkan dengan pengalaman tertentu yang diperoleh dalam membentuk trait yang positif dan negative. EQ/EI dapat dibahagikan kepada 4 aspek iaitu:

- Penilaian dan ekspresi emosi
- Emosi dan proses membuat keputusan
- Pengetahuan mengenai emosi
- Pengurusan emosi

Definisi EQ yang diberikan oleh Murray (1998) pula, menunjukkan bahawa EQ merupakan satu kebolehan untuk mengekang perasaan atau emosi negatif seperti marah dan ragu-ragu serta memfokuskan kepada perasaan positif serta keyakinan diri.

Selain itu McGarvey (1997) menyatakan terdapat 4 kebolehan yang harus dimiliki untuk meningkatkan EQ seseorang individu, iaitu kebolehan untuk mengawal dorongan, *impulse* emosi, agar berada dalam keadaan bermotivasi walaupun menghadapi kekecewaan dan sedang berempati dengan orang lain. Sehubungan itu, EQ merupakan kebolehan untuk merasai, memahami dan mengaplikasikan secara berkesan. Penilaian yang baik terhadap emosi yang merupakan sumber tenaga, informasi, perhubungan dan pengaruh manusia (Cooper Sawaf,1997).

Secara ringkasnya, dalam konteks organisasi EQ boleh ditakrifkan sebagai satu mekanisme atau keupayaan dalaman seseorang individu yang wujud untuk mengurus dan mengawal perasaannya (pengurus) dan juga orang lain (pekerja) disamping memberi dorongan positif ke arah mewujudkan satu perhubungan manusia yang dapat membawa kepada pencapaian matlamat bersama serta keberkesanan organisasi.

Budaya Usahawan

Usaha di dalam membudayakan keusahawanan di kalangan rakyat di Negara ini telah dilakukan oleh Kementerian Pendidikan di peringkat sekolah selain dilakukan oleh Agensi-agensi kerajaan ke atas usahawan-usahawan sediakan dan juga bakal-bakal usahawan. Budaya usahawan ini telah mula disemai seawal dari sekolah rendah dengan memperkenalkan unsur-unsur keusahawanan di dalam mata pelajaran matemaik. Kemudian ianya diterapkan pula di peringkat sekolah menengah rendah melalui mata pelajaran Kemahiran Hidup Bersepadu yang diperkenalkan pada tahun 1991. Usaha membudayakan keusahawanan ini diteruskan lagi hingga ke peringkat sekolah menengah atas dimana pelajar diberi peluang mengikuti pendidikan perdagangan dan keusahawanan. Melalui pendidikan keusahawanan sekolah ini akan dapat membentuk pelajar sebagai pencipta kerja yang berpotensi dan bukan sebagai pencari kerja.

Analisa menunjukkan bahawa keputusan untuk menubuhkan sesuatu perniagaan adalah berasaskan kepada pemahaman seseorang terhadap aktiviti keusahawanan. Bekerja sendiri dan memiliki perniagaan adalah satu opsyen yang realistik terutama bagi pelajar yang mempunyai kemahiran vokasional dan teknikal. Budaya usahawan boleh disimpulkan sebagai cara pemikiran, sikap, norma dan kelakuan yang dimiliki dan dipraktikkan oleh individu usahawan itu sendiri. Budaya usahawan itu akan membentuk sikap seorang usahawan. Negara atau masyarakat yang mempunyai budaya berorientasikan keusahawanan yang kukuh akan menjadi lebih berjaya dan makmur jika dibandingkan dengan negara yang kurang budaya keusahawanannya.

Pendedahan terhadap budaya berorientasi keusahawanan ini adalah menepati hasrat dan objektif kerajaan Malaysia untuk mewujudkan masyarakat yang berdaya saing dan berdaya tahan kelas pertama dalam pembangunan modal insan negara (Ahmad Esa, 2012).

“ In entrepreneurship and management literature, entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is considered the important concept for the firm strategy making. EO refers to the decision making styles, practices, process and behaviors that leads to ‘entry’ into new or established markets with new or existing goods or services. ”

(Lumpkin and Dess; Wiklund and Shepherd 2003; Walter et al 2006)

Orientasi keusahawanan (EO) dari segi perspektif Islam pula merupakan suatu konsep dalam proses inovasi bagi merangka strategi keusahawanan insaniah bermotifkan persaingan atau perlumbaan ke arah mendapat keredhaan Illahi (Abdul Sami' Al-Misri, Terjemahan:Ahmad Hj. Hasbullah. 1993). EO merujuk kepada gaya

membuat keputusan, amalan, proses dan tingkah laku dengan akhlak yang murni membawa kepada pengaruh ke pasaran baru atau dengan menemukan barang-barang atau perkhidmatan yang sedia ada dengan yang baru dengan niat mencapai kesejahteraan seluruh umat manusia semata-mata kerana Allah bercontohnya kewibawaan dan akhlak Rasulullah dalam perniagaan (Prof. Madya Dr Ab. Mumin Ab Ghani Suhaili Sarif, 2005).

“Katakanlah, sesungguhnya sembahyangku, ibadatku, hidupku dan matiku semuanya kerana Allah, Tuhan semesta alam. Tiada baginya sekutu dan dengan demikian aku disuruh dan aku orang yang mula-mula Islam (tunduk kepada Allah)”

al-An’am (6): 162-163

Konsep budaya berorientasikan keusahawanan inilah yang cuba diadunkan dengan konsep orientasi keusahawanan barat oleh pihak pengkaji bagi menjelaskan fikiran firma yang terlibat dalam meneroka dan menyediakan rangka kerja yang berguna serta bermakna untuk menyiasat aktiviti keusahawanan dan mencerminkan bagaimana firma beroperasi dengan kemampuan apa yang ada (Lumpkin dan Dess, 1996, 2001).

Dalam lingkungan rangka pendekatan diskriptif bagi keusahawanan "sub-budaya", Max Weber (1917), antara lain, mengambil pendekatan evolusionis dan mentakrifkan budaya keusahawanan sebagai satu daripada "kuasa jentera" menjana kemodenan Barat. Perkara ini terbukti apabila para pengkaji barat terkini telah membuat kajian tentang tingkah laku usahawan : *Entrepreneurs and evolutionary biology: The relationship between testosterone and new venture creation* (Roderick E. White, Stewart Thornhill, Elizabeth Hampson, 2006):

“Accordingly, how we behave is, at least in part, affected by the evolutionary history of our species. This research uses evolutionary psychology as the theoretical perspective for exploring the relationship between a heritable biological characteristic (testosterone level) and an important business behavior (new venture creation).”

Budaya adalah corak perilaku harian yang diamalkan oleh individu atau pun kumpulan individu di dalam menguruskan hal-hal kehidupan mereka. Budaya yang murni selalunya mempengaruhi corak perilaku individu ke arah yang dikehendaki dan diterima oleh kumpulan masyarakat setempat.

Kelemahan utama golongan usahawan bumiputera dalam perniagaan kerana kurangnya ilmu pengetahuan dalam bidang keusahawanan. Pembantu Menteri Pembangunan Luar Bandar negeri, Datuk Sairin Karno Ahli Dewan Undangan Negeri Liawan berkata, ramai usahawan bumiputera yang bijak bertindak secara teori tetapi daripada segi praktikal atau pelaksanaan ramai usahawan atau peniaga yang gagal (Akhbar Utusan Malaysia, 3 Mac 2012)

Kajian mendapati 91 peratus kegagalan perniagaan mereka berpunca daripada kelembapan pengurusan sama ada kelemahan mentadbir, masalah interpersonal, kecuaihan dan penipuan (Institut Keusahawanan Negara, 2012). Kajian tersebut merumuskan bahawa pengurusan perniagaan yang cekap, strategi pemasaran yang berkesan dan keupayaan untuk melihat perubahan pada masa hadapan merupakan satu kelebihan yang tidak ternilai buat usahawan dalam menghadapi risiko perniagaan yang tinggi. Walau bagaimana pun sesuatu kelemahan itu berpunca dari kepentingan akar umbinya iaitu dari sudut pembangunan diri usahawan itu sendiri itu sebagai seorang usahawan yang berilmu dan berkemahiran berkomunikasi, mengurus dan membuat keputusan, sebagai manusia yang memahami tanggungjawab mengisi fitrah semulajadi, dan sebagai insan yang beriman, berakhlak mulia dan berbakti.

Maka dengan ini boleh disimpulkan bahawa dalam usaha menuju ke arah ekonomi berasaskan pengetahuan dan inovasi, Malaysia memerlukan sebilangan besar usahawan yang berkualiti dan bertaraf dunia iaitu yang mempunyai pengetahuan tinggi, memiliki kemahiran dan sahsiah yang utuh dalam membentuk satu budaya yang harmoni.

3. Kesimpulan

Kajian konseptual ini menerangkan betapa pentingnya memiliki kecerdasan emosi yang tinggi di dalam menentukan kejayaan usahawan dan seterusnya dapat menguruskan aktiviti-aktiviti keusahawanan dengan lebih berkesan. Kajian ini juga menerangkan tentang sejarah ringkas mengenai kecerdasan emosi dan budaya

usahawan serta hubungkait antara kecerdasan emosi dan budaya usahawan. Kajian ini juga dapat membantu pemahaman yang lebih mendalam mengenai kecerdasan emosi dan budaya usahawan.

4. Rujukan

- Abdul Sami' Al-Misri, Terjemahan: Ahmad Hj. Hasbullah. 1993. *Perniagaan Dalam Islam*. Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka: Kuala Lumpur.
- Ahmad Esa (2012). Kemahiran Keusahawanan Pemangkin Kecemerlangan Mahasiswa. Tinta IPT, *Berita Harian* (9 Mei 2012).
- Akhbar Utusan Malaysia, 3 Mac 2012
- Assanova, M., & McGuire, M. (2009). *Applicability analysis of the emotional intelligence theory*. Indiana University.
- Cherniss, C. and Adler, M. (2000). *Promoting Emotional Intelligence in Organizations*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASTD.
- Cooper Sawaf (1997) *Executive EQ: Emotional Intelligence in Leadership and Organizations* New York: Berkley Publishing Group
- Coss and Travaglione (2003) Is The Entrepreneur Of The 21st Century Defined By Emotional Intelligence? *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 11 Iss: 3, pp.221 – 228
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. New York : Bantam Book.
- _____ (1998). *Working with Emotional Intelligence/* New York: Bantam Books pp. 317.
- Institut Keusahawanan Negara (2012). *Usahawan Bumiputera Kurang Ilmu Keusahawanan*. Utusan Malaysia, 3 Mac 2012
- Lumpkin, G. T. & Dess, G.G. 2001, Linking Two Dimensions Of Entrepreneurial Orientation To Firm Performance: The Moderating Roles Of Environment And Industry Life Cycle. *Journal Of Business Venturing*, Vol.16, No.5, pp 429-451
- Lyons, J. B & Schneider, T. R. 2005. The Influence Of Emotional Intelligence On Performance. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 39, Issue 4: 693-703.
- McGarvey (1997). Organizational benefits of having emotionally intelligent managers and employees", *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol. 11 Iss: 3, pp.84 - 88
- Murray, H. A. (1998). *Explorations in personality*. New York: Oxford University press.
- Prof. Madya Dr Ab. Mumin Ab Ghani Suhaili Sarif, (2005). Penerapan Budaya Keusahawanan Dalam Masyarakat Islam. Seminar Keusahawanan Islam Peringkat Kebangsaan 2005. Jabatan Syariah Dan Pengurusan (www.Pengurusan.Info) Universiti Malaya.
- Roderick E. White, Stewart Thornhill, Elizabeth Hampson (2006). Entrepreneurs and evolutionary biology: The relationship between testosterone and new venture creation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 100 (2006) 21–34

The influence of employee silence on work-family enrichment and work-family conflict among employees of tertiary educational institutions in Nigeria

Malami Umar¹ and Zaiton Hassan²

Department of Human Resource Development
Faculty of Cognitive Sciences & Human Development
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, 94300 Kota Samarahan, Sarawak
¹malamicaptain@yahoo.com
²ummiiyas@yahoo.com

Abstract Employee silence has attracted the attention of both academics and practitioners in recent times. When employees intentionally withhold potential input and useful information by displaying silence, organisations are deprived access to useful resource that may help garner a competitive advantage. Withholding ideas and inputs on critical success issues is a serious impediment not only to the organisation, but also to the employee's physical and mental well-being. Access to valuable information improves work and possibly working conditions that in turn affect other domains other than work. Thus, this study investigates the effects that the employee intentional withholding of organisationally relevant information has on the family work domain of employees in the tertiary education institutions of the North-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Data was collected from 228 married employees using self administered questionnaires. IBM SPSS Statistics and SmartPLS 3 were used to analyse the data. The findings reveal that employee silence has a significant negative relationship on work-family enrichment and no significant relationship on work-family conflict. The implications of the study and directions for future research are suggested.

Keywords: Silence, work-family enrichment, work-family conflict, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Converging social and ideological trends at the beginning of the new millennium suggest that work-family issues will become increasingly important (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Employees are crucial in addressing and solving the problems that arise as a result of the complexities of today's organisational environments. Withholding ideas and inputs on critical success issues is a serious impediment not only to the organisation, but also to the employee's physical and mental well-being. Greenhaus & Powell (2006) posited that work experiences and family experiences can have additive effects on well-being.

Research has pointed to the unwillingness of most employees in providing clues and headlights in solving the problems and issues that arise in the workplace (Detert & Burris, 2007; Elizabeth Wolfe Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Most often, employees are reluctant to share information for the fear of the unknown, and when asked to provide such, they felt insecure (Deniz, Noyan, & Ertoşun, 2013). The feeling of insecurity and apprehension to

share divergent views with management or co-workers had lead employees not to speak up. (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003)

Employee silence is extremely detrimental to organisations (Bagheri, Zarei, & Aeen, 2012). Withholding of organisationally relevant information affects both performance and employee morale, so the consequences may be significant (Morrison, 2014). Research has shown that employees are very hesitant to engage in voice, particularly when the recipient could view the information as negative or threatening (Detert, Burris, & Harrison, 2010). In situations where employees are faced with the choice of whether or not to raise an issue, employees often choose to remain silent (Morrison & See, 2014). Up 85% of employees in a study reported instances when they had failed to speak up about something of concern (Milliken et al., 2003).

Employee silence has numerous effects on the employees themselves. Indifferent employees, often products of ignored employee silence, tend to feel like cogs at machinery factories (Beheshtifar, Hossein, & Moghadam, 2012). Employee silence also affects the personal well-being of employees. It increases stress and causes them to feel guilty, where they often experience psychological problems and have trouble seeing the possibility of change (Bagheri et al., 2012).

The effects of withholding and non-sharing of ideas on critical organisational matters by employees invariably intersect and interfere with their non-work life. The spill over effect may be disastrous. WFE was found to be positively related to employee voice (Zhang, Zhou, Wang, & Cone, 2011). Could the opposite be with employee silence? There has been a suggestion for the integration of the literature on employee voice and silence (Morrison, 2011). At present, the literatures on voice and silence have sometimes run parallel and at other times intersected (Morrison, 2014).

There have been separate research studies on employee silence, work-family enrichment and conflict by scholars. However, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the effects of employee silence on the work-family enrichment and conflict. Literature is virtually absent on the effects of employee silence on work family interface. Not much is known as to the impact of employee silence on these family domains. No known study so far addresses the problem in the Nigerian context. This study, therefore, attempts to fill the gap by exploring the effects of silence on the work-family enrichment and work-family enrichment of employees at tertiary educational institutions of the North-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Specifically, the study aimed to explore the effects of employee's silence behaviours at work on their work-family enrichment and work-family conflicts. Accessible literatures were analysed, and a simple model develop to test the relationship. SmartPLS 3 software was used statistically to test the effect of employee silence on work family enrichment.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

Employee Silence:

The term employee silence is a recent construct (Morrison, 2014). The construct emerged in the organisational behaviour literature with the publication of Morrison & Milliken's (2000) conceptual paper on organisational silence. It refers to not speak up when one has a suggestion, concern and information about a problem, or a divergent point of view that could be useful or relevant to share (Milliken et al., 2003). It also includes not writing, not being present, negative attitude, not being heard and being ignored (Deniz & Noyan, 2013). Silence also includes "quieting, censorship, suppression, trivialization, exclusion, ghettoization and other forms of discounting" (Hazen & Hazen, 2006).

Employee silence is a multifaceted concept that involves but is not limited to, lack of speech or formal voice; in fact, it may occur in the midst of sound or language. Employee silence can occur simultaneously with either sound or speech: it is not necessarily the opposite of either (Pinder & Harlos, 2001).

Silence being a vague concept can take different meanings depending on the context within which the concept is employed (Brown & Coupland, 2005). The concept is elusive, complex and multidimensional in nature (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003) and yet, also pervasive in organisations (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). The complexity of silence goes beyond what the word seems to stand for. Silence can be an act of communication in itself, involving a range of cognitions, emotions, or intentions, such as an endorsement or objection (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). The silence starts when we choose not to confront a difference (Perlow & Williams, 2003). Individuals

would limit the spread of bad news as far as possible or simply choose to remain silent because they do not want to become bad news communicators for the negative message (J. Lu & Xie, 2013).

The intentional withholding of any form of information, as long as that information is relevant to the job may constitute employee silence (Brinsfield, 2009). Being silent about issues and problems at work has been a common experience among employees most especially when the issue at stake has a potential negative outcomes and risks. Employees may withhold ideas for improvement, concerns about witnessing ethical breaches, information which might be harmful to a co-worker if it was revealed, or something a co-worker needs to know to do their job effectively (Milliken et al., 2003). According to Argyris (1977) there are dominant norms and defensive routines within organisations that often prevent employees from saying what they know. Other scholars noted that organisations are often intolerant of criticism and dissent, and that employees may withhold information in order to not 'rock the boat' or create conflict (Ewing, 1977; Redding, 1985; Sprague and Rudd, 1988).

The virtues of upward communication for organisational health has been extolled by scholars over time (Argyris & Schon, 1978). The extent to which employees communicate upward with suggestions, ideas, information about problems or issues of concern can have tremendous implications for an organisation's performance and even its survival (Morrison, 2011). However, silence has remained the common choice by most organisation members (Deniz & Noyan, 2013). The culture of inconsistent treatment of employees, administrative issues, cultural issues, values and norms, as well as fear of management power, are among the causes of silence (Deniz & Noyan, 2013). Since silence is an inefficient process that can negatively impact all facets of an organisation and manifest itself in various forms (Maria, 2006), its effects on the other domains outside work is an anticipated expectation. Hence, we hypothesised that:

H1: There is a negative relationship between employee silence and work-family enrichment.

Work-family enrichment

Work-family enrichment focuses on the generation and application of resources gained through participating in work and family roles that, when applied, result in improved performance or positive affect (mood) in the other role (Carlson et al., 2006). Work can provide resource gains that enhance performance in the family domain (Carlson et al., 2006). It is concerned with the resources gained through work experience that are transferred to family life, resulting in either increased performance or positive affect in the family role, and it looks at family experiences that translate to increased performance or effect at work.

The work role has been shown to improve the quality of life in other roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Several studies have found relationships between work-family facilitation and individual health (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007). Additive effects and transfer of positive experiences between domains are the positive consequences of WFE. However, work demands that have negative consequences are also likely to affect WFE in a negative form.

Work-family conflict

Work-family conflicts are common among workers (Kelly, Moen, & Tranby, 2011). Work-family conflict is one type of inter role conflict in which role pressures of the work and family domains involve some level of mutual incompatibility (Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001). It is a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures of the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is; participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Recent studies validated that work-family conflict is multidimensional with effects occurring from the work domain as well as from the family domain (Nielson et al., 2001). The focus of this study is on work interference with family.

Both work and family domains have their demands and problems, and can result in either work interfering with family life, or vice versa (Y. Lu, 2007). Studies have found relationships between work-family conflict and adverse health outcomes as well as (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007). Major et al. (2002) found significant correlations between work-family conflict and somatic complaints, as well as depression. Madsen, John, and Miller (2005) on the other hand, found a significant relationship between higher employee perceptions of both work-to-family and family-to-work conflict and their perceptions of personal mental and physical health. These studies present evidence that work-family conflict has an unfavourable effect on employees. (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007)

As an individual's relationships with others can have a significant influence on the work-family conflict (Nielson et al., 2001). The negative outcomes of silence on employee life are numerous. Hence, we hypothesised that:

H2 There is a positive relationship between employee silence and work-family conflict.

3. Methods

Non-probability purposive sampling was used in this study. Data was collected using an adopted self-administered quantitative questionnaires developed and validated by earlier studies. One of the researchers personally administered the questionnaires. A total of 500 questionnaires was issued out to respondents. 363 questionnaires were returned, containing usable data. Of the 363 respondents who returned the usable questionnaires, 228 fit the selection criteria of being married before inclusion in this study. The minimum sample based on G*power 3.1.9.2 required for this study with two indicators calculated was 104 respondents.

There were 73 (32%) females and 155 males (68%) respondents in this study. The respondents' age ranges from 20 years to over sixty years; the mean age was 29 years. The length of service put in by the respondents ranges from less than a year to above 30 years. About two-third of the respondents were non-teaching staff (66.4%). The remaining 33.6% were academic staff.

Instruments

Silence was measured using Brinsfield (2009) seven-point Likert scale. Example items include "I frequently remain silent at work: To avoid conflict, Due to negative experiences I have had in speaking up; because I was instructed not to speak up" etc.). It has the Cronbach's α reliability scale of 0.965. A higher score indicates silence.

Work-family conflict was measured using Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2006) 5-point Likert scale. Sample items include "My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like" and "The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities". It has a Cronbach α of 0.947.

Work-family enrichment was also measured using Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2006) 5-point Likert scale. Sample items include "my involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints, and this helps me be a better family. My involvement in my work helps me gain knowledge, and this helps me be a better family member", etc. It has a Cronbach α of 0.905.

4. Data analysis

Data for this study was analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 and SmartPLS 3 software.

Construct validity

To measure how well the results obtained from the use of the measures employed fit the theories around which the test were designed, the discriminant and convergent validity were assessed. The Fornell-Larcker criterion and the examination of cross-loadings are the dominant approaches employed in the evaluation of discriminant validity in a variance-based structural equation modelling (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). The Fornell-Larcker Criterion and the cross-loadings obtained from the SmartPLS version 3 demonstrated the validity of the constructs:

Discriminant Validity

Table 1 Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	Silence	WFC	WFE
Silence	0.81		
WFC	0.15	0.909	
WFE	-0.24	-0.35	0.81

Analysis of the respective loadings and cross loadings shows no problem with any particular item going by the cutoff value of 0.5 as significant (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). All the items are measuring a construct loaded high on it and loaded very low on the other construct; this confirms construct validity in this study.

Convergent validity

The convergent validity was assessed following the criteria suggested by Hair et al. (2010). The loading of factors, composite reliability and average variance extracted were all above the threshold recommended. All the items factor loadings exceeded the 0.5 values as recommended (Hair et al., 2010). The composite reliabilities were 0.96 for silence, 0.97 for work-family conflict and 0.928 for work-family enrichment. The recommended value is 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). The average variance extracted were greater than the 0.50 recommended by Barclay, Higgins and Thompson (1995). The constructs AVE's were 0.65 for silence, 0.81 for WFC and 0.65 for WFE.

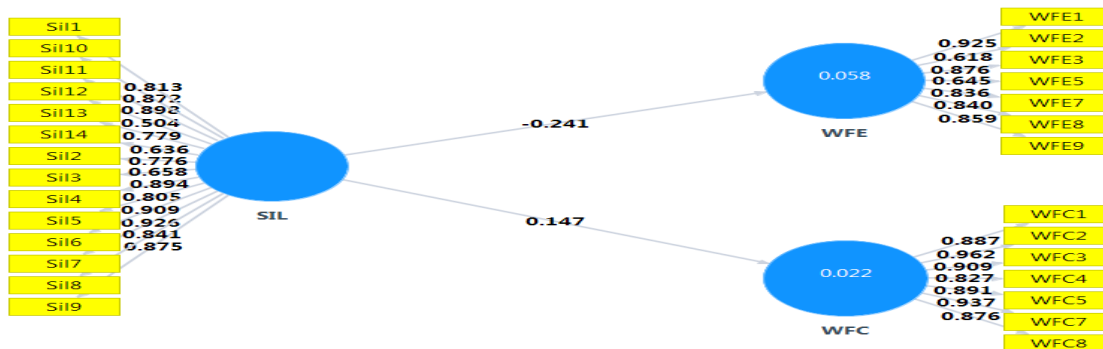


Fig1: The model

The measurement model was evaluated in the first instance and then the structural model was evaluated in the second instance. The relations between manifest variables (observed items) and latent variables (factors) were the issues evaluated in the measurement model. The evaluation of the measurement model was conducted by the assessment of validity and reliability of the construct measures in the model. The essence was to ensure that only reliable and valid constructs' measures were used for the assessment of the nature of relationships in the overall model as suggested by (Hulland, 1999)

Structural model

The relationships between the constructs modelled are evaluated here. Since the objective of PLS is to maximize the variance explained rather than fit, therefore prediction-oriented measures such as R2 are used to evaluate PLS models (Chin, 1998). The bootstrapping procedure of 5000 subsamples was applied based on the recommendations of Hair (2011) to the result of the measurement model obtained. The result so obtained is presented below:

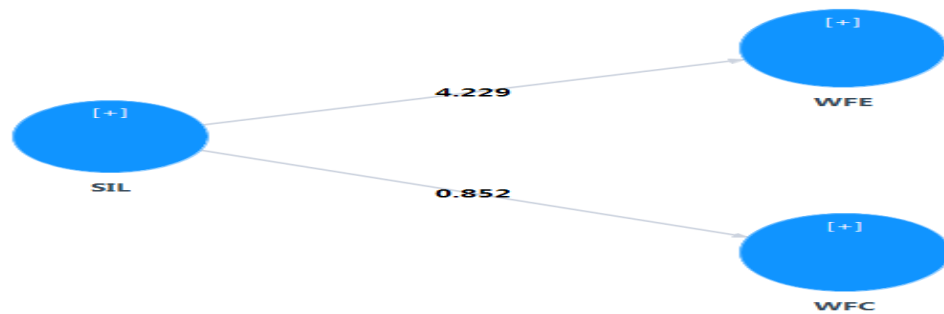


Fig 2: The structural model

The statistics obtained is tabulated in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Standard Error	t Statistics	p Values	Decision
Sil -> WFC	0.18	0.87	0.38	Not supported
Sil -> WFE	0.06	4.19	0.00	Supported

The path analysis presented in the table above shows that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee silence and WFC. The R^2 of this path was 0.023, it $\beta = 0.153$, $t = 0.871$ and the p value = 0.384. The hypothesis formulated is therefore not supported because it is not significant. Employee silence to WFE has an R^2 of 0.059, $\beta = -0.243$, $t = 4.289$ and the p value = 0.000 indicating the expected significant negative relationship between employee silence and WFE.

5. Discussion

This study focused on the effect of employee silence on WFE and WFC. The results obtained show a negative relationship between employee silence and WFE. This is consistent with our expectations as employee silence have been shown to affect both performance and employee morale (Olson, 2014), it was also being found to decrease psychological well-being of employees (Budd, 2013). WFE has also been linked negatively to decreased morale and psychological well-being (Lewis, 2010). Employee silence manifest a way that it draws a lot of energy from the employee (Cheng, Chang, Kuo, & Lu, 2014) thereby affecting the way the employee harness the potentials of his/her other domains.

The results also showed that employee silence has no significant effect on WFC. This relationship was unexpected. The destructive role of employee silence have been highlighted (Beheshtifar, Hossein, & Moghadam, 2012). Work-family conflict have also been shown to give rise to different emotional reactions (Illies, De Pater, & Lim, 2012), leading to an employee’s difficulty to balance the demands of the various role domains. The results in this study, therefore, point to the exclusion of the destructive role of employee silence on WFC.

Implication

From our results, it was established that employee silence is negatively related to WFE. This implies that the more organisation managers make effort in break silence, the more an employee gain and transfer benefit from the work domain to his family domain. The opposite occurs when silence atmosphere is created in the work place. The psychological effect of such will impact negatively on the employee’s WFE.

The role of employees in organisational success has been highlighted. The readiness of employees to come up with useful ideas and suggestions on the best way forward needs to be encouraged and supported. Conducive atmosphere for expression of divergent ideas and opinions should be upheld and encouraged by organisational managers. Negative consequences of providing useful information to both colleagues and management should be done away with so as to allow organisations to reap the full benefits of work-family interaction. Doing away with instances of employee intentional withholding information should be the target of every manager.

Limitation

There are several limitations regarding this study. First, data were collected from sample institutions in the North-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria and generalized for the whole country. Even though the sample has all elements that form the whole country, there is a need for future studies collect data throughout the country. Second, the collection of data from the same source that may subject to common method variance. However, Harman one-factor test was conducted and the results reveal that of the total 82.9% variance explained by the un-rotated factor analysis, the first factor account for only 28.3%.

Literature with a Nigerian background on all variables studied was scanty. The assumption made of non-availability of literature is another limitation. Future studies should consider search data on printed material rather than relying heavily on indexed journals on the internet.

6. Conclusion

The study has modestly modelled a relationship between employee silence and WFE and WFC. The results indicated that employee silence has a negative relationship with WFE. The assumption that silence being an impediment in the work domain is likely to be positively related with WFC was not established. Therefore, management should promote conducive climate for expression of divergent ideas and opinions as silence in organization will also impact the family domain.

7. Bibliography

- Beheshtifar, M., Hossein, B., & Moghadam, M. N. (2012). Destructive Role of Employee Silence in Organizational Success. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(11), 275–282.
- Brinsfield, C. T. (2009). *Employee Silence: Investigation of Dimensionality, Development of Measures, and Examination of related Factors*. The Ohio State University.
- Brown, A. D., & Coupland, C. (2005). Sounds of Silence: Graduate Trainees, Hegemony and Resistance. *Organization Studies*, 26(7), 1049–1069. Retrieved from <http://core.kmi.open.ac.uk/download/pdf/9706564.pdf>
- Cheng, J., Chang, S., Kuo, J., & Lu, K. (2014). Social Relations and Voice Behavior: The Mediating Role of Psychological Safety. *WSEAS Transactions on Business and Economics*, 11.
- Deniz, N., & Noyan, A. (2013). The Relationship between Employee Silence and Organizational Commitment in a Private Healthcare Company. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 99, 691–700. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.540
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of Conflict between Work and Family Roles. *Academy of Management*, 10(1), 76–88.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When Work And Family Are Allies: A Theory Of Work-Family Enrichment. *The Academy of Management Review*, 31(1), 72–92.
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: an ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(99), 111–126. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.5.1.111
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Sadle River: Prentice-Hall.
- Hazen, M. A., & Hazen, M. A. (2006). Silences , perinatal loss , and A post-modern perspective. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 19(2), 237–249. doi:10.1108/09534810610648933
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 115–135. doi:10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8
- Hulland, J. (1999). Use of Partial Least Squares (PLS) in Strategic Management Research: A Review of Four Recent Studies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(2), 195–204.
- Illies, R., De Pater, I. E., & Lim, S. (2012). Attributed causes for work–family conflict: Emotional and behavioral outcomes. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 2(November), 293–310.
- Kelly, E. L., Moen, P., & Tranby, E. (2011). Changing Workplaces to Reduce Work-Family Conflict: Schedule Control in a White-Collar Organization. *American Sociological Review*, 76(2), 265–290. doi:10.1177/0003122411400056

-
- Lewis, J. B. (2010). *Work-Family Conflict and Enrichment: Direct and Indirect Effects towards Mental Health Outcomes*. The University of Waikato.
- Lu, J., & Xie, X. (2013). Research on Employee Silence Behavior: A Review Based on Chinese Family Enterprise. *Asian Social Science*, 9(17), 47–52. doi:10.5539/ass.v9n17p47
- Lu, Y. (2007). *The Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Working Women in Taiwan - the Effects of Organizational Support Submitted to the Award of Doctor of Philosophy October 2007*. Queensland University of Technology. Retrieved from eprints.qut.edu.au/16536
- Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E. W., & Hewlin, P. E. (2003). An Exploratory Study of Employee Silence : Issues that Employees Don ' t Communicate Upward and Why. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1453–1476.
- Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee Voice Behavior: Integration and Directions for Future Research. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 373–412. doi:10.1080/19416520.2011.574506
- Morrison, E. W. (2014). Employee Voice and Silence. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1(1), 173–197. doi:10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091328
- Nielson, T. R., Carlson, D. S., & Lankau, M. J. (2001). The Supportive Mentor as a Means of Reducing Work–Family Conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 59(3), 364–381. doi:10.1006/jvbe.2001.1806
- Perlow, L., & Williams, S. (2003). Is Silence Killing Your Company? Leadership Development : *Harvard Business Review*, (May).
- Pinder, C. C., & Harlos, K. P. (2001). Employee silence: Quiescence and acquiescence as responses to perceived injustice. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 20(20), 331–369. doi:10.1016/S0742-7301(01)20007-3
- Stoddard, M., & Madsen, S. (2007). Toward an understanding of the link between work-family enrichment and health. *Institute of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 2–15. Retrieved from http://works.bepress.com/susan_madsen/42/
- Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing Employee Silence and Employee Voice as Multidimensional Constructs. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40:6(September), 1360–1392.
- Zhang, H., Zhou, X., Wang, Y., & Cone, M. H. (2011). Work-to-Family Enrichment and Voice Behavior in China : The Role of Modernity. *Front Bus Research*, 5(2), 199–218. doi:10.1007/s11782-011-0128-1

Pengaruh Tret Personaliti Lima Faktor Terhadap Kegembiraan

Mas Hanisah Elias and Salwa Abdul Patah
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti sejauhmana lima tret personaliti daripada Model Personaliti Lima Faktor (*extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience*: McCrae & Costa, 1999) menentukan kegembiraan. Seramai 187 orang responden dalam lingkungan umur 20 hingga 50 tahun terlibat dalam kajian ini. Kajian ini menggunakan *Big Five Inventory* (Goldberg, 1992) untuk mengukur tret personaliti responden. Tahap kegembiraan responden diukur menggunakan *Oxford Happiness Inventory* (Argyle, Martin, & Crossland, 1989). Data kajian dianalisis menggunakan kaedah regresi berganda. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan hanya tret personaliti *agreeableness, conscientiousness* dan *neuroticism* mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap kegembiraan secara kolektif.

Keywords: personaliti, kegembiraan

1. Pengenalan

Kajian kegembiraan hanya mendapat perhatian ahli psikologi setelah Bradburn (1969) dalam kajiannya menekankan potensi manusia dalam aspek pengaruh positif dan pengaruh negatif. Beberapa abad yang lalu, ahli psikologi lebih cenderung mengkaji kebimbangan, kemurungan, dan gangguan emosi: aspek-aspek yang berlawanan dengan potensi manusia (Cheng & Furnham, 2002; Furnham & Christoforou, 2007). Kajian Bradburn (1969) telah mengalihkan perhatian ahli psikologi kepada kajian potensi manusia dari aspek positif. Hari ini, kajian kegembiraan bukan sesuatu yang baru dan telah banyak kajian diterbitkan tentang definisi, hubungan dan penentu kepada kegembiraan (Balogun, 2014). Argyle et al. (1989) mendefinisikan kegembiraan sebagai tiga bahagian komponen iaitu pengaruh positif, ketiadaan pengaruh negatif, dan kepuasan dalam kehidupan secara keseluruhan (Argyle & Lu, 1990). Individu yang gembira dikatakan memiliki tahap kesihatan mental dan fizikal yang baik (Meyers, 2000; Peterson, 2000). Individu yang gembira kurang mengalami tekanan dan bertindak balas secara positif terhadap persekitaran (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005). Tahap kegembiraan juga boleh dikaitkan dengan prestasi di tempat kerja. Kajian menunjukkan pekerja yang gembira dikatakan boleh mengurus tekanan kerja dengan baik, mencapai tahap kepuasan dalam pekerjaan, lebih berjaya dalam pekerjaan, dan mempunyai tahap keterlibatan kerja yang tinggi (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Hellen & Saaksjarvi, 2011; Fisher, 2009).

Seiring dengan perkembangan kajian kegembiraan, ahli psikologi tidak hanya mengkaji kesan kegembiraan terhadap kesejahteraan manusia tetapi juga faktor penentu kepada kegembiraan. Hasil kajian lepas menunjukkan faktor pekerjaan itu sendiri boleh mempengaruhi kegembiraan iaitu pendapatan, sokongan moral rakan sekerja dan penyelia, serta penilaian prestasi (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Cropanzano & Wright, 1999; Iverson, Olekaln, & Erwin, 1998). Bagaimanapun sebahagian pengkaji berpendapat tahap kegembiraan seseorang individu bukanlah ditentukan oleh keadaan hidupnya tetapi faktor pembawaan atau lebih tepat lagi tret personaliti (Bahiraei, Eftekhare, Zareimatin, & Soloukdar, 2012). Kajian telah membuktikan secara konsisten hubungan antara personaliti dengan kegembiraan terutama sekali *extraversion* dan *neuroticism* (Cheng & Furnham, 2002; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Furnham & Brewin, 1990; Francis, Rolph, Rolph, & Robbins, 1998; Lu & Hu, 2005; Pishva, Ghalehban, Moradi, & Hoseini, 2011). Namun begitu sebahagian besar kajian tersebut adalah kajian luar negara. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti sejauh mana tret personaliti mempengaruhi kegembiraan dalam konteks pekerja dan organisasi di Malaysia. Kajian ini melibatkan 187 orang pekerja majlis perbandaran di selatan semenanjung Malaysia.

2. Pernyataan Masalah

Kajian tentang personaliti dan kegembiraan telah dijalankan oleh ramai pengkaji (Balogan, 2014; Bahiraei, et al., 2012; Lu & Hu, 2005; Lyubomirsky, 2001; Pishva, et al., 2011; Spangler & Palrecha, 2004). Personaliti telah dibuktikan sebagai penentu kepada kegembiraan setelah dibuat perbandingan dengan beberapa pemboleh ubah lain seperti kelas sosial, wang, hubungan sosial, dan agama (Furnham & Christoforou, 2007). Kajian Brebner, Donaldson, Kirby dan Ward (1995) mendapati skor untuk *extraversion* dan *neuroticism* menyumbang sebanyak 42 peratus varian dalam kegembiraan. Dalam satu kajian ke atas 120 orang pelajar di UK, Furnham dan Cheng (1999) melaporkan korelasi positif untuk skor kegembiraan dengan *extraversion*, dan korelasi negatif untuk skor kegembiraan dengan *neuroticism*. Hasil kajian ini konsisten dengan dapatan kajian personaliti-kegembiraan lain seperti Francis et al. (1999) ke atas 1,076 orang pelajar di empat buah Negara (UK, USA, Canada, Australia); Furnham dan Brewin (1990) ke atas 101 orang pelajar; Argyle dan Lu (1990) ke atas 131 pelajar ijazah sarjana muda; dan Denny dan Steiner (2009) di kalangan atlet di Stanford University. Bagaimanapun kebanyakan kajian tersebut dijalankan dalam kalangan pelajar sekolah, kolej dan universiti. Tidak banyak kajian lepas yang mengukur hubungan antara personaliti dan kegembiraan dalam konteks pekerja dan organisasi lebih-lebih lagi di Malaysia.

Selain itu terdapat percanggahan dalam hasil kajian lepas. Misalnya Lu (1999) mendapati faktor persekitaran (seperti sokongan sosial) sebagai penentu utama kepada kegembiraan berbanding personaliti. Kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengisi jurang dalam kajian terdahulu. Kajian ini melibatkan kakitangan awam berumur antara 20 hingga 50 tahun. Kajian ini menggunakan model personaliti Lima Faktor (McCrae & Costa, 1987) yang terdiri daripada tret personaliti *Openness*, *Agreeableness*, *Conscientiousness*, *Extraversion* dan *Neuroticism* untuk mengukur tret personaliti responden. Model ini dipilih kerana ianya telah sekian lama sinonim dengan kajian personaliti. Model ini telah diadaptasi secara meluas untuk mengukur pengaruh personaliti ke atas tingkahlaku manusia seperti prestasi akademik, pilihan kerjaya, penggunaan alkohol dan tembakau, kesihatan mental, dan kepuasan kerja (Borghans et. al., 2008, Carney et. al., 2008, Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006, Paunonen & Ashon, 2001, dalam Ha & Kim, 2013).

KEGEMBIRAAN

Ahli psikologi melihat kegembiraan dengan cara yang berbeza. Mereka mentakrifkan kegembiraan sebagai matlamat hidup (Lu & Shih, 1997), emosi positif (Myers & Diener, 1995), pengaruh positif (Argyle & Lu, 1990), ketiadaan pengaruh negatif (Argyle & Lu, 1990), dan kepuasan dengan kehidupan secara keseluruhan (Argyle & Lu, 1990). Terdapat pengkaji yang melihat kegembiraan dari aspek budaya (Balogan, 2014; Uchida & Ohgihara, 2012). Menurut Uchida dan Ohgihara (2012) pemahaman mengenai apa itu kegembiraan dalam setiap budaya adalah berbeza-beza. Kayu ukur kegembiraan dalam konteks budaya Eropah-Amerika ialah pencapaian peribadi dan ciri-ciri peribadi positif. Emosi negatif adalah halangan kepada kegembiraan dalam kalangan masyarakat Eropah-Amerika (Uchida & Ohgihara, 2012). Kayu ukur kegembiraan dalam konteks budaya Asia Timur pula ialah keseimbangan dalam hubungan sosial, seperti sokongan moral, keharmonian dalam perhubungan dan hubungan positif (Uchida dan Ohgihara, 2012). Balogun (2014) yang mengkaji kegembiraan di Nigeria berpendapat definisi kegembiraan dalam konteks budaya Afrika tidak jauh berbeza dengan Asia Timur. Takrif kegembiraan di Afrika berkait rapat dengan hubungan sosial, nilai kekeluargaan dan persekitaran sosial yang stabil seperti kekayaan (Pflug, 2009, dalam Balogun, 2014). Oleh yang demikian maksud kegembiraan bagi penduduk Afrika bersifat kolektif bukan individualistik seperti masyarakat Eropah-Amerika (Balogun, 2014).

Sementara itu, Veenhoven (1994) mengaitkan kegembiraan dengan tret atau ciri-ciri individu yang berkait dengan faktor genetik. Pendapat ini diakui dan telah ditekankan oleh Eysenck (1983) sejak berdekad lalu. Menurut Eysenck (1983) kegembiraan ialah perkara yang dipanggil *extraversion* stabil. Terdapat pengaruh positif (*positive affect*) dan pengaruh negatif (*negative affect*) dalam kegembiraan. Pengaruh positif dalam kegembiraan dicirikan sebagai bergaul dan berinteraksi dengan orang lain. Pengaruh negatif pula dicirikan sebagai bimbang dan gelisah (Eysenck, 1983). Ini bermakna masih terdapat persamaan dalam pemahaman mengenai kegembiraan (hubungan sosial) dari perspektif negara Barat (negara maju: Eysenck, 1983; Veenhoven, 1994) dengan Asia Timur, dan negara membangun seperti Afrika dan Nigeria (Balogun, 2014; Pflug, 2009; Uchida & Ohgihara, 2012).

Kegembiraan boleh dipengaruhi oleh pelbagai faktor. Terdapat tiga model yang menjadi rujukan kajian-kajian lepas iaitu model personaliti (Costa & McCrae, 1984); model peristiwa hidup (*life events model*: Abbey & Andrew, 1985), dan model penyesuaian (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1987). Model personaliti mencadangkan kegembiraan sebagai satu tret yang stabil, dan personaliti adalah penentu utama kepada kegembiraan (Costa & McCrae, 1984). Rentetan itu para pengkaji mula mengkaji tret-tret personaliti yang dapat menyumbang kepada tahap kegembiraan stabil. Berbeza dengan model personaliti, model peristiwa hidup mencadangkan bahawa kegembiraan boleh berubah-

ubah (naik turun) dari masa ke semasa, dan peristiwa hidup positif dan negatif boleh menyumbang kepada kegembiraan (Abbey & Andrew, 1985). Bagaimanapun Lu dan Shih (1997) berpendapat peristiwa hidup adalah aspek luaran dan impaknya ke atas individu adalah statik. Model penyesuaian pula menjelaskan tentang kemampuan manusia menyesuaikan diri dengan peristiwa hidupnya samada peristiwa manis mahupun peristiwa pahit. Model penyesuaian mencadangkan bahawa proses penyesuaian tersebutlah yang menyumbang kepada kegembiraan (Brickman et al., 1978 dalam Lu & Shih, 1997).

Berdasarkan kajian lepas, faktor yang mempengaruhi kebahagiaan boleh dibahagikan kepada tiga kategori iaitu persekitaran, sosial dan individu (Pishva et al., 2011). Faktor persekitaran merangkumi status perkahwinan, pencapaian akademik, status kewangan dan tahap kesihatan. Faktor sosial merangkumi hubungan sosial, saiz jaringan sosial dan tingkah laku dalam hubungan sosial. Faktor individu pula terdiri daripada personaliti, faktor genetik (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008), dan cara berfikir (Hellen & Saaksjarji, 2011). Dalam kajian mereka, Boehm dan Lyubomirsky (2008) mendapati faktor genetik merupakan penyumbang utama kepada kegembiraan (50%), diikuti dengan kemahiran personal (40%; seperti berbuat baik, pemaaf dan menghargai hubungan sosial) dan persekitaran (10%). Secara khusus *Extraversion* dan *Neuroticism* adalah dua tret personaliti (faktor individu) yang telah dibuktikan secara konsisten mempunyai hubungan positif dan signifikan dengan kegembiraan (Pishva et al., 2011). Dapatan kajian ini mengesahkan peranan personaliti dalam kegembiraan dan kesejahteraan.

PERSONALITI DAN KEGEMBIRAAN

Kajian lepas telah membuktikan kepentingan personaliti dalam mempengaruhi kegembiraan (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Pishva et al., 2011). Terdapat beberapa taksonomi personaliti yang dibincangkan dalam kajian literatur. Bagaimanapun Model Personaliti Lima Faktor (McCrae & Costa, 1999) telah digunakan secara meluas untuk mengenalpasti peranan personaliti terhadap kegembiraan dan kesejahteraan manusia. Lima tret personaliti yang mewakili model tersebut terdiri daripada *Extraversion*, *Agreeableness*, *Conscientiousness*, *Neuroticism* dan *Openness to experience* (McCrae & Costa, 1999). Model ini juga dikenali sebagai model personaliti *Big Five*. *Extraversion* merujuk kepada individu yang aktif, ramah, asertif, bergaul, dan bersemangat (McCann, 2011; Ha & Kim, 2013). Di tempat kerja, individu *extravert* mempunyai ramai kenalan, boleh bekerja dalam kumpulan dan kerap dipilih sebagai ketua (Ha & Kim, 2013). *Agreeableness* merujuk kepada tolak ansur, kerjasama, responsif, bertimbang rasa, dan jujur lebih-lebih lagi dalam hubungan interpersonal (Ha & Kim, 2013; McCann, 2011). Individu dengan tahap *agreeableness* yang tinggi tidak gemar terlibat dalam konflik dan mudah lembut hati (McCann, 2011).

Individu *conscientiousness* dicirikan sebagai berdisiplin, rajin, berhati-hati, cekap, dan bersemangat (Albuquerque, Pedrosa de Lima, Matos & Figueiredo, 2013, McCann, 2011). Individu *conscientiousness* menepati masa dan mudah memberikan kerjasama (Ha & Kim, 2013). Mereka dikatakan boleh hidup lebih lama kerana amalan pemakanan sihat dan suka beriadah (Ha & Kim, 2013). *Openness to experience* dicirikan sebagai individu kreatif, artistik, sukakan nilai asli dan estetika, fleksibel, berfikiran terbuka dan empati. Mereka yang memiliki tret personaliti ini dikatakan memiliki sikap ingin tahu dan daya imaginasi tinggi (Albuquerque et al., 2013; McCann, 2011; Ha & Kim, 2013).

Individu *Neuroticism* menggambarkan individu dengan emosi negatif dan emosi tidak stabil seperti bimbang, murung, bersedih, dan tidak selamat. Individu *Neuroticism* mudah menjadi impulsif dan bertindak mengikut perasaan (Albuquerque et al., 2013; McCann, 2011). Emosi mereka mudah terganggu dan mudah tertekan lebih-lebih lagi apabila mempunyai masalah (Ha & Kim, 2013).

Kajian lepas telah membuktikan hubungan antara kegembiraan dengan *extraversion* dan *neuroticism*. Furnham dan Brewin (1990) dalam kajian mereka melaporkan hubungan positif antara kegembiraan dan *extraversion*, dan hubungan negatif antara kegembiraan dan *neuroticism* di kalangan 101 orang pelajar. Keputusan kajian ini konsisten dengan dapatan kajian-kajian lepas seperti Brebner et al. (1995) ke atas 95 orang sukarelawan; Francis et al. (1999) ke atas 1,076 orang pelajar di UK, USA, Canada dan Australia (kajian silang-budaya); Furnham dan Cheng (1999) ke atas 120 orang pelajar di UK, Noor (1996) di kalangan 145 orang wanita daripada Oxford; serta Spangler dan Palrechal (2004) ke atas 271 pelajar sarjana dan sarjana muda di Binghamton, USA. Dalam konteks kajian Negara Asia dan Timur Tengah, Ha dan Kim (2013) melaporkan hubungan yang kuat antara kestabilan emosi (lawan kepada *neuroticism*) dan *extraversion* dengan kegembiraan. Bahiraei, Eftekhare, Zarei matin dan Soloukdar (2012) menjalankan kajian ke atas mahasiswa universiti di Tehran dan melaporkan korelasi positif antara kegembiraan dan *conscientiousness* dan *extraversion*. Keputusan kajian tersebut konsisten dengan kajian Mohammadi, Maddahi, Najafimaneh dan Salehi (2013) ke atas pelajar kolej. Menurut Lu dan Shih (1997) hubungan yang kuat antara *extraversion* dengan kegembiraan adalah disebabkan ciri-ciri positif individu *extravert* itu sendiri yang asertif, mudah memberikan kerjasama, mempunyai kemahiran sosial, boleh menggunakan gaya komunikasi verbal dan non-verbal dengan baik. Ciri-ciri ini memudahkan individu *extravert* melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti sosial sekaligus menyumbang kepada kegembiraan. Secara keseluruhan kajian personaliti dan kegembiraan adalah relevan dan konsisten merentasi masa dan budaya (Brebner et al., 1995; Pishva

et al., 2011). Maka kajian ini bertujuan untuk menjawab persoalan berikut:

Sejauh manakah faktor-faktor personaliti menentukan kegembiraan? Adakah faktor-faktor personaliti boleh meramalkan kegembiraan secara kolektif?

3. Metodologi

Responden Kajian

Sebanyak 187 (86 peratus) borang soal selidik yang lengkap berjaya dikumpulkan. Responden kajian terdiri daripada kakitangan kerajaan di salah sebuah majlis perbandaran di selatan semenanjung Malaysia. Separuh daripada responden adalah pekerja wanita ($n = 96$, 51.3 peratus); hampir separuh daripada responden berumur antara 20 hingga 30 tahun ($n = 90$, 48.1 peratus); dan telah berkhidmat lebih dari enam tahun di organisasi kajian ($n = 93$, 49.7 peratus). Hanya sebilangan kecil responden memiliki kelayakan akademik peringkat ijazah sarjana muda dan ke atas ($n = 31$, 16.6 peratus).

Instrumen Kajian

Kajian ini menggunakan 15 item daripada *Oxford Happiness Inventory* (Argyle et al., 1989) untuk mengukur tahap kegembiraan responden. Contoh item: 'Saya berpuashati dengan kehidupan saya' dan 'Saya tidak mendapat tidur yang nyenyak'. Kajian ini menggunakan 35 item daripada *Big Five Inventory* (Goldberg, 1992) untuk mengukur tret personaliti responden. Contoh item 'Saya melihat diri saya sebagai seorang yang banyak bercakap' dan 'Saya meilahrt diri saya sebagai seorang yang dingin dan suka menyendiri'. Nilai kebolehppercayaan bagi *Oxford Happiness Inventory* (Argyle et al., 1989) dan *Big Five Inventory* (Goldberg, 1992) masing-masing ialah $\alpha = 0.86$ dan $\alpha = 0.79$. Kedua-dua alat ukur ini menggunakan skala Likert 1 hingga 5 (1 = sangat tidak setuju hingga 5 = sangat setuju). Borang soal selidik disediakan dalam dwibahasa bagi memudahkan responden memahami maksud item soal selidik dengan tepat. Kajian ini menjalankan analisis regresi berganda untuk menjawab persoalan kajian.

Jadual 1: Jadual taburan kekerapan dan peratus responden mengikut jantina, umur, kaum, taraf perkahwinan, taraf pendidikan, dan pendapatan sebulan

KEKERAPAN (f)	PERATUS (%)	KEKERAPAN (f)	PERATUS (%)		
JANTINA		TARAF			
Lelaki	91	48.7	PENDIDIKAN		
Perempuan	96	51.3	SPM / SPMV	80	42.8
Jumlah	187	100.0	STPM	11	5.9
UMUR		Diploma		65	34.8
< 30 tahun	90	48.1	Ijazah	22	11.8
30 – 40 tahun	73	39.0	Lain-lain	9	4.8
41 – 50 tahun	18	9.6	Jumlah	187	100.0
> 50 tahun	6	3.2	PENDAPATAN		
Jumlah	187	100.0	(SEBULAN)		
KAUM		\leq RM 1000.00		38	20.3
Melayu	183	97.9	RM 1000.01 –	100	53.5
Cina	1	0.5	RM 2000.00		
India	3	1.6	RM 2000.01 –	38	20.3
Lain-lain	0	0	RM 3000.00		
Jumlah	187	100.0	RM 3000.01 –	9	4.8
TARAF		RM 4000.00			
PERKAHWI		> RM 4000.00		2	1.1
NAN		Jumlah		187	100.0
Bujang	61	32.6			
Berkahwin	126	67.4			
Jumlah	187	100.0			

4. Keputusan Kajian

Analisis korelasi digunakan untuk mengukur hubungan antara pemboleh ubah kajian. Keputusan kajian ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 2. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan *extraversion* ($r = 0.41, p < 0.01$), *agreeableness* ($r = 0.63, p < 0.01$), *conscientiousness* ($r = 0.60, p < 0.01$), dan *openness to experience* ($r = 0.33, p < 0.01$) mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dan positif dengan kegembiraan. Keputusan ini menunjukkan individu yang mudah berinteraksi dengan orang lain, bertolak ansur, rajin dan kreatif lebih cenderung untuk mencapai kebahagiaan. Bagaimanapun, *neuroticism* menunjukkan hubungan yang negatif dan signifikan dengan kegembiraan ($r = -0.52, p < 0.01$). Ini menunjukkan semakin tinggi tahap *neurotic* seseorang individu itu, semakin rendah tahap kegembiraannya.

Jadual 2. Korelasi antara pemboleh ubah kajian

Pembolehubah	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. <i>Extraversion</i>	-					
2. <i>Agreeableness</i>	.48**	-				
3. <i>Conscientiousness</i>	.43**	.70**	-			
4. <i>Neuroticism</i>	-.42**	-.58**	-.60**	-		
5. <i>Openness to experience</i>	.55**	.40**	.44**	.23**	-	
6. Kegembiraan	.41*	.63**	.60**	-.52**	.33**	-

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Analisis regresi berganda dijalankan untuk menjawab dua persoalan kajian ini. Keputusan kajian ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 3. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan hanya tiga pembolehubah personaliti iaitu *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness* dan *neuroticism* secara kolektif mempengaruhi kegembiraan ($R^2 = 0.46, F = 31.25, p < 0.01$) dan menyumbang sebanyak 46 peratus daripada varian dalam kegembiraan. Keputusan kajian juga menunjukkan *agreeableness* ($R^2 = 0.33, t = 4.09, p < 0.01$) dan *conscientiousness* ($R^2 = 0.23, t = 2.66, p < 0.05$) dengan sendirinya mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan dan positif terhadap kegembiraan secara berasingan. Dapatan kajian ini memperlihatkan bahawa responden yang mencatatkan skor yang tinggi dalam *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness* dilaporkan lebih gembira daripada responden yang dominan dengan tret personaliti yang lain. Bagaimanapun *neuroticism* dengan sendirinya mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan dan negatif dengan kegembiraan ($R^2 = -0.17, t = -2.68, p < 0.05$). Dapatan ini mencadangkan bahawa responden yang memiliki tret personaliti *neuroticism* yang tinggi akan mengalami tahap kegembiraan yang rendah. Dengan ini persoalan pertama dan persoalan kedua kajian telah terjawab.

Jadual 3. Regresi berganda antara kegembiraan, *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness*, *neuroticism*, dan *openness*

Pembolehubah penentu	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
<i>Model</i>	0.68	0.46	0.46	31.25**	-	-	-
<i>Extraversion</i>					0.07	4.09	<i>ns</i>
<i>Agreeableness</i>					0.33**	2.66	< 0.01
<i>Conscientiousness</i>					0.23*	-2.26	< 0.05
<i>Neuroticism</i>					- 0.17	0.44	<i>ns</i>
<i>Openness to experience</i>					0.03	0.98	<i>ns</i>

**p* < 0.05, ** *p* < 0.01

4. Perbincangan Dan Kesimpulan

Kajian ini mengukur sejauh mana tret personaliti Lima Faktor (McCrae & Costa, 1999) memberi kesan kepada kegembiraan dalam konteks pekerja di Malaysia. Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan hanya *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness* dan *neuroticism* secara kolektif mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan dengan kegembiraan. Keputusan ini didapati konsisten dengan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Chamorro-Premuzic, Bennett, dan Furnham (2007). Chamorro-Premuzic, et al. (2007) melaporkan hubungan yang kuat antara *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness* dengan kegembiraan di kalangan responden yang terdiri daripada pelajar dan bukan pelajar. Kajian lain yang selari dengan keputusan kajian ini ialah Bahirei et al. (2012) dan Weiss, Bates dan Luciano (2008). Bahirei et al. (2012) melaporkan hubungan yang signifikan antara *conscientiousness* dengan kegembiraan di kalangan pelajar universiti di Iran.

Kaitan yang kuat antara tret personaliti *agreeableness* dan kegembiraan di kalangan responden berkemungkinan disebabkan oleh ciri-ciri individu *agreeable* yang lembut hati, bertolak ansur, membantu, dan pemaaf: ciri-ciri yang berlawanan dengan individu antagonis, pentingkan diri sendiri, kejam dan sukar bekerjasama. Responden yang tinggi *agreeableness* sudah tentu mendapat sokongan dan bantuan daripada rakan sekerja dan penyelia kerana sikap mereka yang sederhana dan tidak mementingkan diri sendiri. Keputusan kajian ini juga menunjukkan responden yang memiliki tret personaliti *conscientiousness* mencatatkan tahap kegembiraan yang tinggi. Keputusan ini berkemungkinan disebabkan oleh ciri-ciri individu *conscientiousness* yang rajin, amanah dan bersemangat. Ciri-ciri tersebut jelas bertentangan dengan ciri-ciri individu yang rendah *conscientiousness* seperti malas, cuai, ambil mudah. Individu *conscientiousness* seorang yang bercita-cita tinggi dan tahu bila dan bagaimana mengelak dari masalah. Ciri-ciri ini dan banyak lagi ciri-ciri positif individu *conscientiousness* yang menjadikan mereka lebih gembira berbanding dengan responden yang rendah *conscientiousness* (Strobel, Tumasjan, & Sporrle, 2010).

Selari dengan kebanyakan kajian lepas *neuroticism* mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan dan negatif terhadap kegembiraan. Ini bermakna responden yang mencatatkan skor yang tinggi pada *neuroticism* melaporkan tahap kegembiraan yang rendah. Dapatan kajian ini konsisten dengan kajian longitudinal oleh Daneilsson (2006) di kalangan 120 orang remaja lelaki dan 90 orang remaja perempuan Swedish. Daneilsson (2006) melaporkan individu yang tinggi

neurotic semasa zaman remajanya mengalami tahap kegembiraan yang rendah pada zaman dewasanya. Kajian lain yang melaporkan keputusan yang sama ialah kajian Balogun (2014) di kalangan 251 penghuni penjara di Nigeria; Spangler dan Palrechal (2004) di kalangan 271 orang pelajar sarjana dan sarjana muda di USA; Furnham dan Cheng (1999) di kalangan 120 orang pelajar di UK; Francis et al. (1999) di kalangan 1,076 orang pelajar; Furnham dan Brewin (1990) di kalangan 101 orang pelajar; serta Argyle dan Lu (1990) di kalangan 131 orang pelajar ijazah sarjana muda. Individu yang tinggi *neuroticism* cenderung melihat kehidupan secara negatif, kurang keyakinan dan lebih pesimis (Furnham et al., 2007). Individu seperti ini cenderung untuk bimbang berlebihan dan harga diri rendah. Rentetan itu mereka mudah tersinggung, kecewa, gelisah, dan pada kebanyakan masa bertindak secara keterlaluan (Cheng & Furnham, 2000). Oleh itu logiknya responden yang tinggi *neuroticism* kurang bahagia.

Sementara itu, di luar jangkaan keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan *extraversion* dan *openness to experience* tidak mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap kegembiraan responden. Disamping itu sikap asertif, pergaulan, kreativiti dan sikap ingin tahu tidak menentukan kegembiraan responden. Oleh itu kajian tidak dapat mengesahkan bahawa tret personaliti lima faktor boleh secara kolektif mempengaruhi kegembiraan. Dapatan kajian ini bercanggah dengan beberapa kajian lepas seperti Balogun (2014), Chamorro-Premuzic et al. (2007), Lu et al. (2005), Spangler dan Palrechal (2004) yang melaporkan pengaruh kuat oleh *extraversion* terhadap kegembiraan. Keputusan yang tidak konsisten ini berkemungkinan disebabkan oleh personaliti responden yang dominan kepada *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness*. Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan kebanyakan responden mencatatkan skor tinggi pada tret personaliti *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness* (rajin, berhati-hati, mudah bekerjasama, bertolak ansur, pemaaf dan lembut hati) berbanding dengan tret personaliti lain. Skor tersebut berkemungkinan mempengaruhi dan meningkatkan korelasi antara tahap kegembiraan responden dengan *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness*. Selain itu lebih separuh daripada responden kajian ini bertugas di Jabatan Kewangan dan Jabatan Penilaian dan Pengurusan Harta. Skop kerja di jabatan tersebut memerlukan pekerja yang fokus, teliti dan rajin. Ciri-ciri tersebut sangat relevan dengan tret personaliti *agreeableness* dan *conscientiousness*.

Sumbangan kajian ini adalah dari segi konteks (lokasi dan sampel). Kajian tentang personaliti dan kegembiraan tidak banyak dijalankan di Malaysia. Lebih-lebih lagi kebanyakan pengkaji di Barat menjadikan pelajar sekolah dan universiti sebagai sampel. Kajian ini menunjukkan tahap kegembiraan responden ditentukan oleh faktor personaliti terutama sekali tret personaliti *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness* dan *neuroticism*. Sebagai kesimpulan, kajian ini menekankan tentang kepentingan tret personaliti dalam memahami pekerja dan kegembiraan mereka. Kajian ini membantu meningkatkan pemahaman para penyelia tentang faktor yang boleh memberikan kesan kepada emosi pekerja dan cara mereka bekerja. Kajian ini menunjukkan, pekerja yang bergaul, rajin, bersikap terbuka dan suka mencuba perkara baru cenderung untuk lebih gembira dengan kehidupan dan pekerjaan berbanding mereka yang menyendiri, malas, tidak menerima pendapat orang lain dan tidak suka mencuba pengalaman baru. Cadangan kajian ini kepada pihak organisasi ialah menjalankan ujian personaliti ke atas calon pekerja supaya mereka ditempatkan pada pekerjaan yang sesuai dengan minat dan kebolehan semulajadi. Selain itu pemahaman tentang tret personaliti pekerja boleh membantu penyelia memilih dan mempraktikkan gaya kepimpinan yang sesuai dengan karakter pekerja.

Kajian ini tidak terkecuali daripada beberapa limitasi. Ini kerana kajian ini hanya melibatkan kakitangan awam di sebuah majlis perbandaran sahaja. Oleh itu dapatan kajian ini tidak boleh digeneralisasikan kepada kakitangan awam di organisasi lain. Di samping itu, majoriti daripada responden kajian berbangsa Melayu. Faktor demografi ini berkemungkinan mempengaruhi keputusan kajian. Walaupun tidak secara keseluruhan, keputusan kajian ini mengesahkan kepentingan personaliti terhadap kegembiraan dan kesejahteraan pekerja. Saranan kepada kajian akan datang ialah menjalankan kajian longitudinal di kalangan kakitangan awam dan swasta. Ini kerana emosi manusia boleh berubah-ubah dari masa ke semasa (Lazarus, 1991, dalam Fisher, 2010). Kekangan ini boleh diatasi melalui kajian longitudinal.

5. Rujukan

- Albuquerque, I., Pedrosa de Lima, M., Matos, M., & Figueiredo, C. (2013) The interplay among levels of personality: The mediator effect of personal projects between the big five and subjective well-being. *J Happiness Stud.*, 14, 235 – 250.
- Abbey, A., & Andrews, F.M. (1985) Modelling the psychological determinants of life quality. *Social Indicators Research*, 16, 1-34.
- Argyle, L., & Lu, Luo. (1990). The happiness of extraverts. *Person individ. Diff.*, 11(10), 1011-1017.
- Argyle, M., Martin M., & Crossland, J. (1989) Happiness as function of personality and social encounters. In J. M. Innes, & J. P. Forgas (Eds.), *Recent advances in social psychology: an international perspective*. North Holland: Elsevier, 73-95.
- Bahiraei, S., Eftekhareh, S., Zareimatin, H., & Soloukdar, A. (2012). Studying the relationship and impact of personality on happiness among successful students and other students. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*,

- 2(4), 3636-3641.
- Balogun, A. G. (2014) Dispositional factors, perceived social support and happiness among prison inmates in Nigeria: A new look, *The Journal of Happiness and Well-Being*, 2 (1), 16-33.
- Boehm, J. K., & Lyubomirsky, S., (2008) Does happiness promotes career success? University of California, *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16, 101-116.
- Brebner, J. (1998). Happiness and personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 279 – 296.
- Brebner, J., Donaldson, J., Kirby, N., & Ward, L. (1995) Relationships between personality and Happiness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol. 19, No. 2, 251-258.
- Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman (1978)
- Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Bennett, E., Furnham, A. (2007). The happy personality: Mediation role trait emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42, 1633-1639.
- Cheng, H., & Furnham, A. (2002). Personality, peer relations, and self-confidence as predictors of happiness and loneliness. *Journal of Adolescence*, 25, 327 - 339.
- Cheng H. & Furnham, A. (2000). Attributional style and personality as predictors of happiness and mental health. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 2(3), 307-327.
- Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R. R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 33, 668 - 678.
- Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four Ways Five Factors are Basic. *Person Individ. Diff.* Vol 13, No. 6, 653 – 665.
- Cropanzano, R., & Wright, T. A. (1999). A 5-year study of change in the relationship between well-being and job performance. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 51, 252–265.
- Danielsson, N.S. (2006). The role of adolescent neuroticism for adult partner relationship and happiness. Unpublished thesis. Orebro University Sweden.
- Denny, K. G., & Steiner, H. (2009). External and internal factors influencing happiness in elite collegiate athletes. *Child Psychiatry Hum Dev.*, 40, 55 -72.
- Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will money increase subjective well-being? *Social Indicators Research*, 57, 119–169.
- Fisher, C. D. (2010). Happiness at work. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12, 384-412.
- Francis, L. J., Rolph, J., Rolph, P.W., & Robbins, M. (2010). Personality and the Happiness of Others: A Study Among 13-to 15- Year Old- Adolescent. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 2 (2), 241 – 249.
- Furnham, A., & Cheng, H. (1999). Personality as predictor of mental health and happiness in the East and West. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 27, 395-403.
- Furnham, A. & Brewin, C. R. (1990). Personality and Happiness. *Person Individ. Diff.* Vol. 11, No. 10, 1093 – 1096.
- Furnham, A. & Christoforou, I. (2007). Personality traits, emotional intelligence, and multiple happiness. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 9 (3), 439- 462.
- Goldenberg, L.R. (1992). The development of makers for the Big-Five factor structures. *Psychological Assessment*, 4(1), 26-42.
- Gutierrez, J. L. G., Jimenez, B. M., Hernandez, E. G., & Puente, C. P. (2005). Personality and subjective well-being: big five correlates and demographic variables. *Personality and individual differences* 38, 1561 – 1569.
- Ha, S. E., & Kim, S. (2013). Personality and subjective well-being: Evidence from South Korea. *Soc Indic Res.*, 111, 341 – 359.
- Hellen, K., & Saaksjarvi, M. (2011). Happy people manage better in adverse services. *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*, 3(3), 319 - 336.
- Hornung, B. R. (2006). Happiness and the pursuit of happiness: A sociocybernetic approach. *Kybernetes*, 35(3/4), 323 - 346.
- Iverson, R.D., M. Olekalns, & P.J. Erwin, P.J. (1998). Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 52, 1-23. Affectivity organizational stressors and absenteeism: A causal model of burnout and its consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 52, 1-23.
- Lyubomirsky, S. (2001). Why are some people are happier than others? The role of cognitive and motivational processes in well-being. *American Psychology*. Vol. 56, No. 3, 239 – 249.
- Lyubomirsky, S., Sheldon, K.M., & Schkade, D. (2005). Pursuing happiness: The architecture of sustainable change. *Review of General Psychology*, 9, 111-131.
- Lu, L. (1997). Personality and Happiness: Is Mental Health a Mediator? *Person. Individ. Diff.* Vol. 22, No.2, 249 – 256.
- Lu, L. (1999). Personal or environmental causes of happiness: A longitudinal analysis. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 139 (1), 79-90.
- Lu, L. & Hu, Chia-Hsin. (2005). Personality, Leisure Experiences and Happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 6, 325 – 342.
- Mansoor Momeni, Mohammad Reza Akhavan Anvari, Nader Seyed Kalali, Zeinab Raoofi, & Ali Zarrineh. The effect of personality on happiness: A study in the University of Tehran.
- McCann, S. J. H. (2011). Emotional health and the big five personality factors at the American state level. *J Happiness*

-
- Stud.*, 12, 547 – 560.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. Jr. (1999). A five-factor theory of personality. In L.A. Pervin, & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*. New York: Guilford Press.
- McCrae, R. R., Costa, Jr. P.T. (1987). Validation of the five factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.
- Meyers, D. (2000). The friends, fund and faith of happy people. *American Psychologist*, 55 (1): 59-67.
- Mohammadi, J., Maddahi, M., E., Najafimanesh, Z., & Salesi, M. (2013). The relationship between happiness and NEO-FFI Personality Questionnaire dimensions in high school students in the Mobarekeh. *Zahedan Journal of Research in Medical Sciences*.
- Momeni, M., Seyed Kalali, N., Akhavan Anvari, M. R., Raoofi, Z., & Zarrineh, A. (2011). What kind of people are the happiest? An empirical study. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 7 (3), 42-54.
- Myers, D.G., & Diener, E. (1995). Who is happy? *Psychological Sciences*. Vol. 6, No. 1, 10 – 19.
- Noor, N.M. (1996). Some Demographic, personality and roles variables as correlates of women's well-being. *Sex Roles*, 34(9/10), 603-620.
- Pavot, W., Diener, E., & Fujita, F. (1990). Extraversion and happiness. *Person Individ. Diff*, 11(12), 1299-1306.
- Peterson, C. (2000). The Future of Optimism. *American Psychologist*, 55(1): 44-55.
- Pflug, J. (2009) Folk theories of happiness: A cross-cultural comparison of conceptions of happiness in Germany and South Africa. *Social Indicators Research*, 92, 551-563.
- Pishva, N., Ghalehban, M., Moradi, A., & Hoseini, L. (2011). Personality and Happiness. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 30 (2011) 429-432.
- Spangler, W. E., & Palrechal, R. (2004). The relative contributions of extraversion, neuroticism, and personal strivings to happiness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37, 1193-1203.
- Strobel, M., Tumasjan, A., & Spörkle, M. (2010). Be yourself, believe in yourself, and be happy: Self-efficacy as a mediator between personality and well-being. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 52(1), 43-48.
- Uchida, Y. & Ogihara, Y. (2012) personal or interpersonal construal of happiness: A cultural psychological perspective, *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 2 (4), 354-369.
- Veenhoven, R. (1994). Is happiness a trait? Tests of the theory that a better society does not make people any happier. *Social Indicators Research*, 32, 101-160.
- Weiss, A., Bates, T. C., & Luciano, M. (2008). Happiness is a Personal(ity) thing. *Psychological science*, 19 (3).
- Yang, Y. (2008). Long and Happy Living: Trends and Patterns of Happy Life Expectancy in The U.S. *Social Science Research*, 37: 1235-125.

The Relationship between Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction among Housemen

Christina Tee Siew Khiaw

¹ Postgraduate candidate, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract The current study investigated the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction among housemen. This study also examined the differences of occupational stress level by demographic factors (gender, age and job tenure) and determined the dominant factor of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction among housemen. Housemen working in a Johor Bahru public hospital were selected as a sample. The result of Pearson correlation analysis indicated occupational stress was correlated negatively with job satisfaction in a very weak strength. The findings of current study showed that there is a statistically significant difference between occupational stress levels by gender. However, no statistically significant difference of occupational stress level by age and job tenure. Furthermore, based on a multiple regression analysis, it is found that role conflict was the dominant factor of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction compared to the other dimensions of occupational stress. The study provides discussion and avenues for future research.

Keywords: occupational stress, job satisfaction, demographic factors, housemen, hospital, healthcare provider, Johor Bahru

1. Introduction

Stress is a natural and unavoidable feature of life experienced by most of us. Majority of us will experience some form of stress in our daily life, and eventually stress has become an important role in the psychology of most people. It has now become a major and serving as an essential component to our life, especially for those who engaged in professional work. Most importantly, there is increasing evidence to suggest that stress may be particularly prevalent in the helping professions. (Cherniss, 1980; Appelbaum, 1981, Borg, 1990).

Occupational stress is a common problem in people's working life. It is the combination of exposure to a multitude of factors in the employment conditions and work environment. According to Health and Safety Executive (2001), if occupational health is prolonged or intense it can cause ill-health (both physical and mental). Occupational stress is the study of aspects of work that either have or threaten to have, negative effects. Recently there's a growing amount of research on sources of stress and strain that was already presence within medical practice. According to Cooper et al. (1988), dentists, doctors, pilots, police, miners and social workers are considered to be the category of high stress occupations. One of the reasons that make the doctors' profession so stressful is that their responsibility for "people" rather than "objects". (Caplan et al., 1975).

One negative effect of occupational stress might be low job satisfaction. (Holt R., 1993). Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects the degree to how people like their jobs, and is positively related to job performance and employee health (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction among health care workers has been closely examined in many western nations. Recent studies have investigated job stress and job satisfaction

having inverse relationship. With long hours, ethical dilemmas, conflicting demands, pressing clinical problems and difficult patients makes medicine become inherently stressful profession. Work related stress has become a major factor that contributing to job dissatisfaction among doctors. Work stress not only bringing impacts on doctor's health but also their abilities to cope with their job demands. This will seriously impair the provision of quality health care and the efficacy of health service delivery.

2. Literature Review

Occupational Stress among Housemen

Occupational stress among health care workers has been closely examined in many western nations. Workplace stress become the main problem in health care industry due to inadequate staffing levels, long working hours, exposure to infectious disease and hazardous substances leading to illness or death, workplace violence, and threat of malpractice litigation. According to National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health's report in 2008, "Studies indicate that health care workers have higher rates of substances abuse and suicide than other professions and elevated rates of depression and anxiety linked to job stress". This increasing level of stress will lead to high rates of burnout, absenteeism, diagnostics errors and reduces rates of patient satisfaction.

The problem of stress among health care professionals continues to be a source of concern. Occupational stress is a major occupational health problem among health care workers and doctors are one of the health care provider who are being categorized as one of the professional that having high levels of occupational stress. The suicide rate among doctors has been reported to be higher than other professionals with comparable education and the general population in United Kingdom (Sonneck and Wagner, 1996). McKeivitt *et al.* (1995) lists doctors as among the ten highest risk occupations for suicide; they have a suicide risk 72 per cent higher than the general population. However this statistics are only able to identify those doctors who are reaching extreme failures in coping with pressures placed on them. While in real life, the actual numbers of doctors suffering the adverse effects of stress are likely to be much higher. According to Burke and Desczca (1986), stress may pose a risk to mental and physical well-being resulting in burnout among doctors. As mentioned, there are some researchers does agreed that doctors are the group that experiences the most stress in the health care profession (Olaf G. Aasland *et al.*, 1997; Siying Wu *et al.*, 2008; Susanne Sehlen *et al.*, 2009).

If doctors are the group that experienced the most stress in the health care profession by most of the researchers, the researcher strongly believes that this postulation would be even true for housemen in Malaysia. Housemen can be considered as the more vulnerable group compare with doctors, this is because after spending 5 years in medical college the housemen have to quickly adapt to a very challenging and demanding working environment. On the basis of experience and research, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) favors the view that working conditions play a primary role in causing occupational stress. There are many factors contribute to the problem of occupational stress among housemen. Factors like job demands, job control and social support are some of the main factors that contribute the most to the problem of occupational stress.

Doctor's job satisfaction is important. This is because it will contribute directly to the quality of health care provided by doctors. Past studies shows that the higher level of doctor's satisfaction is associated with appropriate prescribing practices (Melville A., 1980), patient adherence (DiMatteo MR *et al.*, 1993) and greater patient satisfaction (Haas JS *et al.*, 2000; Linn LS *et al.*, 1985).

Medscape's Physician Compensation Survey Report: 2012 shows that more dissatisfaction grows among doctors. This report is based on a survey of more than 24,000 doctors in United States from 25 specialties. From this survey it shows that dissatisfaction with being a doctor has been increased. Only 54% of the respondents would choose medicine as a career compared with the number of 64% from previous year 2011 survey. Only 41% of the respondents stated that they would choose the same specialty again (Leslie K., 2012). "The doctors I work with are unhappier than ever," said Abumishan. "The ones thinking about retirement don't know if the money would be there for them because of declining revenue fears and investment losses over the past few years. They fear that the government and insurers will increasingly tell them how to practice. Younger

doctors are afraid that they won't be able to pay off medical school debt as fast as they expected." (Mark Crane, 2012).

According to Elangovan (2001), high levels of occupational stress will caused low level of job satisfaction. In this study, by using a structural equations analysis Elangovan try to find out the relationship among occupational stress, job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions. The one of the results of this study show that there is strong positive relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction (high level of occupational stress leads to low level of job satisfaction). The unknown effects of this problem may have serious impacts to the job satisfaction and well-being of housemen in hospital. Given the situation, it is high time for the researcher to take serious effort in investigating the problems. Therefore, this study aims to explore the level of occupational stress and job satisfaction facing by housemen and find out what are the main factors that that contribute most to occupational stress level among housemen.

However, it is not clear whether the level of perceived occupational stress among the housemen will be inversely related to their degree of job satisfaction. Therefore, the researcher is also interested to find out the relationship of occupational stress and job satisfaction. Through identifying the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction of housemen, the result of this study could be considered by the authorities and actions could be taken in order to improve the level of job satisfaction of housemen in hospital.

Currently, there is not much research on housemen in Malaysia, as compared to Western countries. For example a study has been done by Antoniou and his group in 2003 to investigate the occupational stress amongst the junior hospital doctors working in the Greater Athens area. There are total of 355 respondents (consisted of 193 males and 162 female junior hospital doctors). The welfare of junior doctors has bring much so much attention that there's a few studies has been done in the past few years that focused on the bullying issue of junior doctors. For example, in 2002 a survey was done in United Kingdom, the results shows that 37% of the respondents (UK junior doctors) were reported being bullied (Quine L, 2002). In 2004, a survey was done among psychiatric trainees in the West Midlands. 47% of the respondents reported had experienced bullying (Hoosen IA, 2004). A survey of doctors in training in hospitals in London found that 18% had been subjected to bullying within their current post (Paice E, Aitken MA, Houghton A. and Firth-Cozens J., 2004). Therefore in order to fill this void, this research was designed to gain an insight into the relationship between houseman's occupational stress level and job satisfaction level, as well as to ascertain whether variables such as housemen's gender, housemen's age, tenure of service affect the level of occupational stress, the level of occupational stress and job satisfaction of housemen and which of are the dominant factors that are mainly contribute to the occupational stress among housemen.

Impact of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction

In recent years, occupational stress has gained more attention from researchers. Organizations have great concern on occupational stress as most of them having serious problem due to high level of occupational stress among their employees. Some occupational stress researchers agree that stress is a serious problem facing by many organizations (Cooper and Cartwright, 1994; Varca, 1999; Ornelas and Kleiner, 2003). Occupational stress if did not managed properly may lead to problems like absenteeism, high turnover rate, low performance, low motivation, conflict, etc. (Schabracq and Cooper, 2000; Murphy, 1995; McHugh, 1993).

Occupational stress can influence an individual either in a positive or negative way. Certain amount and acceptable level of stress given to employees may motivate and improve employee's performance. However, excessive amount and intolerable level of stress will definitely cause the opposite result of decreased efficiency and performance of employees (Stevenson and Harper, 2006). For example, in 1998 from the total number of workers compensation claims in United States, 15 per cent of the claims are for stress. Based on this level of occupational stress, organizations in United States lost about 200 to 300 billion dollars per year due to high turnover rate, decreased productivity and increased health and workers' compensation claims (Wojcik, 1999).

Occupational stress if is not properly managed it will lead to low motivation and moral among employees, internal conflict and absenteeism problem (Christo and Pienaar, 2006). A statistic figure from Britain in 1996 shows that about 70,000 workers are absent from work every year, and the occupational stress is the main cause of the absenteeism (McKee, 1996). In 1998, for every four workers taken leave in Australia there is one worker had taken leave for stress (The Australian Council of Trade Unions – ACTU, 1998). A study conducted in 1996, the result shows that 42 per cent of the respondents of this study in the past 12 months had

taken sick leave due to stress (McKenna, 1996). Prolonged exposure under high levels of stress will cause employees to feel anxiety, depression, absenteeism, sick leave and tendency to leave the organization (Quine, 1998).

Several past studies have found that one of the risk factors that can cause illness and disease is stress (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Quick, Quick, Nelson & Hurrell, 1997). Guyton (1981) claims that illnesses like peptic ulcer, coronary heart disease, hypertension and even stroke is the result from long term stress. Under prolonged psychological stress can cause psychosomatic disorders (Humphrey, 1998).

Organization often will be having problems of high turnover rate, employee absenteeism, low productivity, etc. if the job satisfactions among the employees are low (Baron, 1986; Maghradi, 1999). Employees will become unhappy if their job satisfaction levels are low. Employee who are less satisfied or feeling unhappy towards their job will have the tendency to avoid going to work and this will directly affect their work performance. If an organization did not find the root of the problem and overcome it, eventually it will affect an organization's performance. As the turnover rates are high, this will lead to shortages of skilled employees in an organization (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

Differences of Occupational Stress level by demographic factors

So far there is no general agreement in the literature about the influence of gender on occupational stress. A study done in 1989 has found that there are no significant correlations between gender and occupational stress. A research done by DeFrank and Stroup (1989), aimed to examine the linkages among personal factors, job stress, job satisfaction and symptomatology among elementary school teachers in southeast Texas. A survey of 245 elementary school teachers in southeast Texas shows that demographic factors and teaching backgrounds do not influence satisfaction, stress or health concerns. From the responses of 227 teachers to Quality of Teacher Work Life Survey, it is found that there are no significant correlations between gender and occupational stress.

There are also some studies found that there are significant correlations between gender and occupational stress where men and women are affected differently by occupational stress. A total of 822 managers from four countries (South Africa, Taiwan, UK and US) participated as respondents in a research done by Karen Miller, Mike Greyling, Cary Cooper, Luo Lu, Kate Sparks and Paul E. Spector (2000) to examine the interaction of gender and culture in managers' experiences of work stress. Findings indicated there were differences in the strains experienced by male and female. Especially in mental well-being and physical well-being, men are found to exhibit better mental and physical well-being than women. The study of Archibong, Ijeoma Aniedi, Bassey, Akpo Offiong and Effiom, David Out (2010), to identify stress source among university academic staff from a sample of 279 academic staff (168 males and 111 females) in Nigeria. Overall results show that career development is the greatest source of stress to academic staff. The results also indicated that male and female academic staff differed in perceived stress level in teaching.

There are some studies that show level of stress was found not to be different among male and female. For example, a total of 414 (305 males and 109 females) academic staff participated as respondents in a research done by Abousierie, R. (1996) intended to identify sources of stress and consequent stress levels in university academic staff, to identify the coping strategies used by staff, and to examine the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction. The results showed that there were no significant differences between males and females in stress levels. Next, Ofoegbu and Nwadiami (2006) conducted a research to investigate the level of perceived stress among lecturers in Nigerian universities. A total of 228 (123 males and 105 females) lecturers was selected from eight universities for this study, and the results also show that level of stress was found not to be different among male and female academic staffs.

A study conducted by Jose Humberto Ablanedo-Rosas et al. (2011) aimed to identify the impact of occupational stress on academic and administrative staff, and on students. The findings found that stress levels differ by occupational level not by gender.

1)

The level of stressor threat may be varying with age. Komal Nagar conducted a research at University of Jammu, in his research he has studied and analysed the relationship between age and burnout. In his research, Komal categorized the teachers into three age groups: 20-30 (young), 30-40 (middle) and 40 and above (aging). The result shows that age is only positively related to "middle age" and "aging" (Nagar, 2012). Virk and his

group have done a study on the influence of age, job level and type-A behaviour on work motivation and occupational stress. And they found out that age and job level have a strong influence on occupational stress (Virk et al., 2001).

However, some studies shows that in some circumstances there are cases of young age group experienced more occupational stress compared with older age group. Reddy and Ramamurthy (1991) conducted a study on 200 executives, to find out the influence of age on occupational stress. The respondents are mainly divided into two age group “41-50” and “51-60” and the results shows that age group “41-50” are experiencing more occupational stress compare to age group “51-60”. Anitha Devi (2007), taken 180 professional women as her sample to identify the level of role stress and life stress experienced by professional women. The results from her study shows that younger age professional women experienced more stress compared with older age group from her sample. Chiu (2004) found that when it comes to interpersonal relationships older faculty members are usually the group that would be experienced higher stress. However, other than interpersonal relationships younger age group are the group that experienced the higher level of stress.

From the past studies reviewed as above, we can conclude that most of the older age group experienced higher stress when they are given greater responsibility in the workplace. While younger age group experienced higher stress due to lack of experience. However, there are some studies found the opposite. For example: Schultz & Schultz (2003) suggested that differences in age did not affect an individual stress levels. Level of occupational stress of bank employees is not influenced by age, sex and coping strategies (Aminabhavi & Triveni, 2000). A study conducted Jose Humberto Ablanedo-Rosas et al. (2011) aimed to identify the impact of occupational stress on academic and administrative staff, and on students. The findings found that stress levels differ by occupational level not by age.

Some past studies shows that there’s a significant relationship between occupational stress and job experience (Chiu, 2004; Hawng, 1999; Lin, 2003). A study was conducted in 1994 on occupational stress among lecturers in university and it was found that lecturers with less than 10 years’ experience have higher stress level compared to lecturers with more than 20 years’ experience (Blix et al., 1994). Bhagawan (1997) conducted on job stress and burnout among teachers of secondary school in Orissa. The respondents for this study are 100 teachers from 20 secondary schools in Orissa. The result from this study shows that teachers with longer teaching experience less chances of getting burnout.

But there are some studies found the opposite. For example, a study to analyse the occupational stress among 100 faculty members in a university. The faculty member was dividing into three categories according to their years of teaching experience. The three categories are 5-15 years of teaching experience, 16-25 years of teaching experience and 26-35 years of teaching experience. The results show that the group that had highest occupational stress is “26-35 years of teaching experience”, second group that experienced second highest occupational stress is “16-25 years of teaching experience” and the group that experienced the lowest level of occupational stress is “5-15 years of teaching experience” (Ryhal & Singh, 1996). A similar study has been done in 2005, where a sample of 100 industrial employees from both supervisory and non-supervisory level was divided into two group based on their experience or length of service “2-6 years” and “7-12 years”. The result shows that due to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization employees from supervisory and non-supervisory levels with more experience of service “7-12 years” are experiencing more occupational stress (Bhatia & Kumar, 2005).

From the past studies reviewed as above, we can see that year of experience or length of service has both positive and negative relationship with occupational stress. However, from time to time more and more studies shows that individual with lesser experience most likely to experienced more occupational stress compared with individual with more working experience.

Relationship between Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction among healthcare provider

Most of the previous studies that focuses on occupational stress and job satisfaction among healthcare provider, found that there’s negative correlation/inverse relationship between several job stressors and job satisfaction. A study has been done targeting 532 nurses from two large and influential hospitals in southern Taiwan by Ho, Chang, Shih and Liang (2009). They found that role stress and job rotation could have a negative effect on nurses’ job satisfaction. Herdis Sveinsdottier, Pall Biering and Alfons Ramel (2006), has done a cross-sectional questionnaire survey to explore what factors contribute to work-related stress among Icelandic nurses

who work within and outside the hospital environment. The results show that nurses' occupational stress has caused job satisfaction decrease, turnover rate increase and nursing quality was reduced. Not only for nurses, it is proven by a study, where respondents are physicians from Canada. The result shows that for both male and female physicians in Canada, high level of occupational stress will caused low levels of job satisfaction (Richardson and Burke, 1991). Antoniou, Davidson and Cooper (2003), conducted a research to find out the occupational stress, job satisfaction and health state of junior hospital doctors in Greece. The results shows that there's inverse correlation relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction among junior hospital doctors in Greece.

One study has been done by Cooper et al. that focused on general practitioners in England. The result of the study shows that there are four main stressors which directly caused high level of job dissatisfaction among general practitioners in England. The four main stressors are 1) demands of the job and patients' expectation, 2) interference with family life, 3) constant interruptions at work and home, 4) practice administration. A study done by Landon (2004), to find out the job satisfaction among physicians. The result of the study shows that the ability of physicians to provide good quality care, their interaction with patient and time constraints (factors that caused stress) are strongly associated with changes in career satisfaction (Landon, 2004).

Hypotheses

In light of the aforementioned facts and links, the current study proposed the following hypotheses:

For this study, four hypotheses are proposed as below:

H₁ : There is a differences of occupational stress level by gender

H₂ : There is a differences of occupational stress level by age

H₃ : There is a differences of occupational stress levels by job tenure

H₄ : There is a relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction

3. Methodology

This research conducted in Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor. Hospital Sultanah Aminah (HSA) opened in 1882 is a government-funded multi-specialty hospital located in Johor, Malaysia. It is the biggest hospital in Johor as well as the main referral and tertiary health center for the state. Hospital Sultanah Aminah is also one of the busiest hospitals in Malaysia. The current hospital building was officially opened by His Royal Highness the Sultan of Johor, Sultan Ibrahim on 29th May 1941. The population of this research involved total population of 262 housemen from seven departments (medical, obstetrics and gynecology, general surgery, orthopedics, pediatrics, emergency medicine and anesthesiology) in Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor. Since the total population of housemen is only 236, the researcher has used census survey this study. Census surveys are the types of surveys involving the process of collecting information about each member of a given population. The advantage of census surveys over the other types of surveys is accuracy. Since the respondents involved in census surveys are the members of a given population, the survey data to be collected will be more reliable and accurate than the data gathered from sampling surveys. The main purpose for using census survey in this study is to guarantee the reliability and accuracy of the data in this study. A total of 236 sets of survey questionnaires were distributed among 236 housemen in seven departments of Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor Bahru. And a total of 209 questionnaires were collected, giving a response rate of 88.56%. The set survey questionnaire was divided into three sections which include:

- 2) Section A: contains items related to demographic data of respondents
- 3) Section B: contains items related to factors of occupational stress
- 4) Section C: contains items related to factors of job satisfaction

4. Results

Most (60%) of the respondents are female and rest (40%) were male. The overwhelming majority of the frontline employees (65%) were aged 26 – 30.

Tables

All tables should be numbered with Arabic numerals. Every table should have a caption. Headings should be placed above tables, left justified. Only horizontal lines should be used within a table, to distinguish the column headings from the body of the table, and immediately above and below the table. Tables must be embedded into the text and not supplied separately. Below is an example which the authors may find useful.

Table 1 – Analysis of t-test for the differences of occupational stress level by gender of housemen.

Group Statistics										
Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean					
Occupational Stress Level	Female	125	3.09	0.28	0.03					
	Male	84	3.24	0.37	0.04					

Independent Samples Test										
	Equality of variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		Equality of		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.						Lower	Upper
Occupational Stress Level	Equal variances assumed	7.219	.008	-3.243	207	.001	-0.147	0.045	-0.236	-0.057
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.071	144.466	.003	-0.147	0.048	-0.241	-0.052

From Table 1, shows that the Sig (2-tailed) is 0.003 < 0.05. There is a statistically significant difference between Female and Male. The differences of occupational stress between Female and Male are not likely due to change and probably due to the IV manipulation.

Hypothesis 1: There is a differences of occupational stress by gender

The Sig. (2-Tailed) value is 0.003. This value is less than 0.05. Because of this, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean occupational stress level of Male and Female. The Group Statistics box revealed that the Mean of Male's occupational stress level was higher than the Mean of Female's occupational stress level; we can conclude that male respondents were experiencing slightly higher level of occupational stress than female respondents. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Table 2 – Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the differences of occupational stress level by age of housemen.

ANOVA					
Occupational Stress Level					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.077	1	.077	.712	.400
Within Groups	22.274	207	.108		
Total	22.351	208			

In order to identify the differences of occupational stress level by age of respondents. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the differences occupational stress level by age.

From Table 2, shows that the Sig is $0.400 > 0.05$. There is no statistically significant difference of occupational stress level by age. The differences between occupational stress levels by age are likely due to change and not likely due to the IV manipulation.

Hypothesis 2: There is a difference of occupational stress by age

The Sig value is 0.400. This value is more than 0.05. Because of this, we can conclude that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean occupational stress levels by age. As a result, hypothesis 2 is rejected.

Table 3 – Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the differences of occupational stress level by number of postings of housemen.

ANOVA

Occupational Stress Level

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.640	5	.128	1.196	.312
Within Groups	21.711	203	.107		
Total	22.351	208			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: OccupationalStressLevel

Scheffe

(I) NumberofPostings		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	0.090	0.088	.957	-0.204	0.385
	3	0.117	0.089	.884	-0.181	0.414
	4	-0.007	0.103	1.000	-0.354	0.341
	5	0.144	0.089	.756	-0.154	0.441
	6	0.156	0.091	.710	-0.149	0.461
2	1	-0.090	0.088	.957	-0.385	0.204
	3	0.026	0.069	1.000	-0.207	0.259
	4	-0.097	0.088	.942	-0.391	0.197
	5	0.053	0.069	.988	-0.180	0.286
	6	0.065	0.072	.976	-0.178	0.308
3	1	-0.117	0.089	.884	-0.414	0.181
	2	-0.026	0.069	1.000	-0.259	0.207
	4	-0.123	0.089	.857	-0.421	0.174
	5	0.027	0.071	1.000	-0.210	0.264
	6	0.039	0.073	.998	-0.207	0.285
4	1	0.007	0.103	1.000	-0.341	0.354
	2	0.097	0.088	.942	-0.197	0.391
	3	0.123	0.089	.857	-0.174	0.421
	5	0.150	0.089	.718	-0.147	0.448
	6	0.162	0.091	.670	-0.143	0.467
5	1	-0.144	0.089	.756	-0.441	0.154
	2	-0.053	0.069	.988	-0.286	0.180
	3	-0.027	0.071	1.000	-0.264	0.210
	4	-0.150	0.089	.718	-0.448	0.147
	6	0.012	0.073	1.000	-0.235	0.258
6	1	-0.156	0.091	.710	-0.461	0.149
	2	-0.065	0.072	.976	-0.308	0.178
	3	-0.039	0.073	.998	-0.285	0.207
	4	-0.162	0.091	.670	-0.467	0.143
	5	-0.012	0.073	1.000	-0.258	0.235

In order to identify the differences of occupational stress level by number of posting of respondents. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the differences occupational stress level by job tenure (number of postings).

Hypothesis 3: There is a difference of occupational stress by job tenure (number of postings)

From Table 4.28, shows that the Sig is $0.312 > 0.05$. There is no statistically significant difference of occupational stress level by number of postings. The differences between occupational stress levels by number of postings are likely due to change and not likely due to the IV manipulation.

Table 4 – Relationship between Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction

Correlations			
		Occupational Stress	Job Satisfaction
Occupational Stress	Pearson Correlation	1	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.862
	N	210	210
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.012	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.862	
	N	210	210

The Sig value is 0.312. This value is more than 0.05. Because of this, we can conclude that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean occupational stress levels by number of postings. As a result, hypothesis 3 is rejected.

The relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction was analysed using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine values, significance, and direction of the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction among housemen in this research.

Hypothesis 4: There is a relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction

From the table we can see that the $r = -0.012$. This means that there is a weak relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction. Occupational stress and job satisfaction was correlated negatively and thus any changes in levels of occupational stress would have negative effects on the job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is accepted.

Table 5 – R Square Change for Dimensions of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.457 ^a	.209	.189	.429005

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Overload, Social Support, Organizational Structure, Working Environment, Role Conflict

Table 6 – ANOVA for Regression: Dimensions of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.845	5	1.969	10.699	.000 ^b
	Residual	37.361	203	.184		
	Total	47.207	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Jobsatisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), WorkOverload, SocialSupport, OrganizationalStructure, WorkingEnvironment, RoleConflict

Table 7 – Regression for Dimensions of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.655	.321		8.280	.000
	OrganizationalStructure	.005	.059	.005	.085	.932
	WorkingEnvironment	.225	.063	.240	3.576	.000
	SocialSupport	.228	.072	.213	3.180	.002
	RoleConflict	-.190	.059	-.241	-3.225	.001
	WorkOverload	-.059	.049	-.091	-1.219	.224

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

A multiple regression was computed using dimensions of occupational stress in order to determine the dominant factor of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction. The dimensions of occupational stress are organizational structure, working environment, social support, role conflict, and work overload.

Table 6 shows the result of the analysis of variance between dimensions of occupational stress scores as the independent variable and job satisfaction as the dependent variable. From Table 5, it shows that there was a significant dominant relationship between dimensions of occupational stress and job satisfaction ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, the dimensions of occupational stress had a dominant relationship with job satisfaction. Furthermore, Table 5 shows that value of R^2 for dimensions of occupational stress and job satisfaction is 0.209. Thus, this indicated that dimensions of occupational stress contributed 20.9 percent towards job satisfaction.

In addition, based on Table 7 researcher found that role conflict had a significant dominant relationship with job satisfaction ($p < 0.05$). It also had a greater standardized beta coefficient ($\beta = -0.241$) compared to the other factors of occupational stress. This indicated role conflict had dominant relation with job satisfaction in a negative strength. Therefore, high level of occupational stress due to role conflict causes low level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, occupational stress on working environment was the second dominant factor that influences job satisfaction with beta value of 0.240. Next, social support was the third dominant factor of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction, with beta value of 0.213, followed by work overload ($\beta = -0.091$). Dimensions of organizational structure were least dominant towards organizational commitment with $\beta = 0.005$.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the total level of occupational stress, most of the respondents (94.26%) had moderate level of occupational stress, with mean score value of 3.14. This result indicated that occupational stress among housemen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah was in moderate level. Generally speaking, majority of the housemen are facing stressful events at workplace but the conditions are considered manageable.

The findings of current study showed that there is a statistically significant difference between occupational stress level of male and female housemen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor Bahru. From the result generated by SPSS 21.0, it revealed that the occupational level of male housemen was a bit higher than female housemen's occupational stress level. This shows that male housemen were experiencing slightly higher level of occupational stress than female housemen. This could be due to, sometimes when there's some cases that required bigger strength (for example: help to hold the patients, continuously performing CPR) usually will appoint male housemen to handle. And most of the male housemen, feels they have the obligation to help out or taking care of female housemen. This could resulted the male housemen experiencing slightly higher level of occupational stress.

The result of current study was consistent with the research of Archibong, Ijeoma Aniedi, Bassey, Akpo Offiong and Effiom, David Otu (2010) and Karen Miller, Mike Greyling, Cary Cooper, Luo Lu, Kate Sparks and Paul E. Spector (2000) which proved that there were differences stress level between female and male. The study of Liu and Zhu (2009) found that female academic staffs experience less stress than their male colleagues. Again, the result of this study was consistent with the research of Liu and Zhu (2009).

The results from Table 2 showed that there is no statistically significant difference of occupational stress level by age. We can conclude that the occupational stress level among housemen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah is not influenced by age of housemen. The differences of housemen's age did not shows that neither of the age group are more mature than the others. The differences of the age is because they are from different education system before they enter university for their medical school. Most of them are from STPM stream or A-level and matriculation system. This explains the differences of age even though they graduate at the same year from university. But this does not change the fact that they are fresh graduate. This result was consistent with the research of Jose Humberto Ablanado-Rosas et al. (2011), Schultz & Schultz (2003) and Aminabhavi & Triveni (2000).

In the study of Jose Humberto Ablanado-Rosa et. al. (2011), it was found that the stress levels differ by occupational level not by age. Aminabhavi & Triveni (2000), bank employees' occupational stress level is not influenced by age, sex and coping strategies. Schultz & Schultz (2003) suggested that differences in age did not affect an individual stress levels.

The results from this research showed that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean of occupational stress level by number of postings. Some of past studies shows that there's significant relationship between occupational stress and job experience. Some studies shows that the respondents with longer working experience will have lower occupational stress levels. For example, Bhagawan (1997) and Blix et. al., (1994).

On the other hand, there are some past studies that found opposite. These studies results shows that the group with longer working experience experienced the higher occupational stress level. For example, Bhatia & Kumar (2005) and Ryhal & Singh (1996). However, the results from this studies shows that there is no differences of occupational stress levels by number of housemen's postings. This is because each and every departments required different skills and ways to treat the patients. Even though a housemen he or she can be in their final postings (example: 6th postings), he or she will still have to start the "tagging" system and learn from the basic first for the first week in the new department before start of the new posting. This is why the level of occupational stress is not influenced by the number of housemen's postings.

The findings of current study showed that the total level of occupational stress was associated with job satisfaction. Pearson correlation analysis indicated occupational stress was correlated negatively with job satisfaction in a very weak strength. This means that high level of occupational stress will have lower level of job satisfaction, and vice versa. The result of current study was consistent with the research of Ho, Chang, Shih and Liang (2009), Herdis Sveinsdottier, Pall Biering and Alfons Ramel (2006) and Richardson and Burke (1991) which proved that as occupational stress level increases, job satisfaction decreases. The study of Antoniou, Davidson and Cooper (2003), which found that there's inverse correlation relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction among junior hospital doctor in Greece also supported the findings of current study.

Out of the five dimensions of occupational stress, it was found that job satisfaction has positive relationship with three of the dimension of occupational stress. The three dimensions are organizational structure, working environment and social support. These three dimensions of occupational stress and job satisfaction were found to have positive relation but very weak correlation strength. This means that higher level of in organizational structure, working environment and social support will have lower level of job satisfaction and vice versa.

Job satisfaction also was found to have very weak negative correlation with two dimensions of occupational stress (role conflict and work overload). This means that high level of occupational stress in role conflict and work overload will have lower level of job satisfaction, and vice versa.

Based on a multiple regression analysis, researcher found that occupational stress on role conflict. The dimension of role conflict had greatest standardized beta coefficient ($\beta = -0.241$) among five dimensions of occupational stress. This means that role conflict was the dominant factor of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction compared to the other dimensions of occupational stress. Thus, high level of occupational stress on role conflict leads to lower level of job satisfaction.

The current study which was designed to examine the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction was successful in achieving four objectives in this study. The level of occupational stress and job satisfaction had been identified. The differences of occupational stress level by demographic factors had been identified and the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction and the dominant factors of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction had been determined too.

Overall, the total level of occupational stress among housemen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor Bahru was in moderate level. Where all the four dimensions of occupational stress (organizational structure, working environment, role conflict and work overload) had moderate level of stress. The total level of job satisfaction among housemen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor Bahru was in moderate level too. It is found that under motivator factors, job satisfaction on achievement was in high level. Whereby, under hygiene factors, job satisfaction on co-workers was in high level among the housemen.

By using *t*-test, it was identified that there is difference of occupational stress level between female and male housemen. From the mean score of Male's occupational stress level was higher than the mean score of Female's occupational stress level; we can conclude that male respondents were experiencing slightly higher level of occupational stress than female respondents. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to identify the differences of occupational stress level by respondents' demographic factors. From the results, we can conclude that there is no significant difference of occupational stress level by age and job tenure (number of postings) of houseman in Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor Bahru.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction and several results were obtained. The findings of current study indicated that occupational stress was negatively associated with job satisfaction in a weak strength. Out of the five occupational stress dimensions, job satisfaction was positively correlated with organizational structure, working environment and social support. On the other hand, role conflict and work overload was negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Finally, role conflict was found to be the dominant factors of occupational stress that influences job satisfaction. In other words, occupational stress on role conflict was the best predictor of job satisfaction. Occupational stress on working environment was the second dominant predictor of job satisfaction, followed by social support, work overload and organizational structure.

6. Acknowledgements

During the course of this work, the constant association with the staffs of Hospital Sultanah Aminah has been most pleasurable. Without their help and counsel, always generously and unstintingly given, the completion of this work would have been immeasurably more difficult. The author wishes to take this opportunity to express her sincere appreciation for all the helps and information given to her. To Prof Madya Dr Ishak Bin Mad Shah, who have taken a particular interest in the work, and to the Graduate Studies Office, Faculty Management of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia again and again been of great value, a special debt of gratitude is due.

7. References

- Abousierie, R. (1996). Stress, coping strategies and job satisfaction in university academic staff. *Educational psychology, 16(1)*, 49-56.
- Aminabhavi, V.A. & Triveni, S., (2000). Variables causing occupational stress on the nationalized and non-nationalized bank employees. *J. Com. Gui. Res., 17(1)*, 20-29.
- Anitha Devi, S., (2007). Occupational stress: A comparative study of women indifferent occupations. *Prajnan, 35(1)*, 61-74.
- Antoniou, AS. G., Davidson, M.J. and Cooper, C.L. (2003). Occupational stress, job satisfaction and health state in male and female junior hospital doctors in Greece. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18(6)*, 592-621.
- Appelbaum, S. H. (1981). *Stress Management for health care professionals*. Rockville, MD: Aspen Systems.
- Archibong, Ijeoma Aniedi, Bassey, Akpo Offiong and Effiom, David Otu (2010). Occupational stress sources among university academic staff. *European Journal of Educational Studies, 2(3)*, 217-225
- Australian Council of Trade Unions. (1998). *A Report of the ACTU 1997 National OHS Survey on Stress at Work*. Melbourne: ACTU Occupational Health & Safety Unit.
- Baron, R. (1986). *Behaviour in organizations*. Newton, MA. USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bhagawan, S., (1997). Job stress and burnout in teachers of secondary school in Orissa. *J. Ednal. Res. Extn., 33(4)*, 218-234.
- Bhatia, P. and Kumar, A., (2005). Occupational stress and burnout in industrial employees. *Indian Psychology Review, 64(4)*, 191-198.
- Borg, M. G. (1990). Occupational stress in British occupational settings: A review. *Educational Psychology, 10(2)*, 103-126.
- Blix, A.G., Cruise, R.J., Mitchell, B.M., & Blix, G.G. (1994). Occupational stress among university teachers. *Educational Research, 36(2)*, 157-169.
- Caplan, R.D., Cobb, S., French, J.R.P., Harrison, R.V. and Pinneau, S.R. (1975), *Job Demands and Worker Health: Main Effects and Occupational Difference*. HEW Publication No (NIOSH), US Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, DC, (pp. 109-112).
- Cherniss, C. (1980). *Staff burnout: Job stress in the human services*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Chiu, T.I. (2004). A study of the relationship between work pressure on the teacher who serves concurrently as administrative staff and school organizational climate. *Master's thesis, National Kaohsiung Normal University*.
- Christo, B. and Pienaar, J. (2006), South Africa Correctional Official Occupational Stress: The Role of Psychological Strengths, *Journal of Criminal Justice, 34(1)*: 73-84.
- Cooper, C.L., and Cartwright, S. (1994). Healthy mind; Healthy Organisation – A Proactive Approach to Occupational Stress. *Journal of Human Relations, 47(1)*, 455-471.
- Cooper, C.L., and Payne, R. (1988). *Causes, coping and consequences of stress at work*. New York: Wiley.
- DeFrank, R. S. & Stroup, C. A. (1989). Teacher stress and health: Examination of a model. *Journal of Psychomatic Research, 33(1)*: 99-109.
- DiMatteo MR, Sherbourne CD, Hays RD, et al. Physicians' characteristics influence patients' adherence to medical treatment: results from the Medical Outcomes Study. *Health Psychol 1993;12:93 – 102*.
- Elangovan, A.R. (2001). Causal ordering of stress, satisfaction and organizational commitment and intention to quit: A structural equations analysis. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, 22(4)*, 159-165.
- Guyton, A.C. (1981). *Textbook of Medical Physiology (6th ed.)*. Philadelphia: W.B.
- Haas JS, Cook EF, Puopolo AL, Burstin HR, Cleary PD, Brennan TA. Is the professional satisfaction of general internists associated with patient satisfaction? *J Gen Intern Med 2000; 15:122-8*.
- Health and Safety Executive (2001). *Tackling work-related stress*. London: HSE Books.

- Herdis Sveinsdottir, Pall Biering and Alfons Ramel (2006). Occupational stress, job satisfaction, and working environment among Icelandic nurses: A cross-sectional questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 43(7), 875-889.
- Ho Wen-Hsien, Chang Ching-Sheng, Shih Ying-Ling and Liang Rong-Da (2009). Effects of job rotation and role stress among nurses on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *BMC Health Services Research*. Vol. 9, 8.
- Holt R. (1993). Occupational Stress. In: Goldberger L, Breznitz S, editors. Handbook of stress: theoretical and clinical aspects.(2nd ed.) (342-367). New York: The Free Press
- Hoosen IA. (2004). A survey of workplace bullying of psychiatric trainees in the West Midlands. *Psychiatric Bulletin*;28:225-227.
- Humphrey, J.H. (1998). *Job Stress*. Needman Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jose Humberto Ablanado-Rosas, Randall C. Blevins, Hongman Gao, Wen-Yuan Teng and Joann White. (2011). The impact of occupational stress on academic and administrative staff, and on students: an empirical case analysis. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 33(5), 553-564.
- Karen Miller, Mike Greyling, Cary Cooper, Luo Lu, Kate Sparks & Paul E. Spector (2000). Occupational stress and gender: a cross-cultural study. *Stress Medicine*, 16, 271-278.
- Landon, B.E. (2004). Career satisfaction among physicians. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 291(5), 634.
- Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress Appraisal and Coping*. New York: Springer.
- Leslie Kane (2012). Medscape. *Physician Compensation Survey Report: 2012 Results*. Retrieved July 28, 2013, from <http://www.medscape.com/sites/public/physician-comp/2012>
- Lin, M.K., (2003). A study on the perceptions of job characteristics and job stress among the directors of elementary school in Taiwan. Master's thesis, National Kaohsiung Normal University.
- Linn LS, Brook RH, Clark VA, Davies AR, Fink A, Kosecoff J. Physician and patient satisfaction as factors related to the organization of internal medicine group practices. *Med Care* 1984; 23:1171-8.
- Maghradi, A. (1999). Assessing the effect of job satisfaction on managers. *International Journal of Value Based Management*, 12(1), 1-12.
- Mark Crane. (2012). Physicians Frustration Grows, Income Falls – But a Ray of Hope. *Medscape*. Apr 24, 2012.
- Mathieu, J.E. & Zajac, D. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2). 171-194.
- McHugh, M. (1993), Stress at Work: Do Managers Really Count the Costs, *Journal of Employee Relations*, 15(1), 182-32.
- McKee, V. (1996). Working to a frenzy. *The Guardian*. Tuesday 1 October, p.14.
- McKevitt, C. et al. (1995). Doctors' health and needs for services. London: Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust.
- Melville A. Job satisfaction in general practice: implications for prescribing. *Soc Sci Med [Med Psychol Med Sociol]* 1980; 14A: 495-9.
- Murphy, L.R., (1995), Occupational Stress Management: Current Status and Future Directions, in Cooper, C.L., Rousseau, D.M. (Eds.), *Trends in Organisational Behaviour*, pp. 1-14, John Wiley, Chichester.
- National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (2008). Exposure to Stress: Occupational Hazards in Hospitals. DHHS (NIOSH) Publication No.2008-136.
- Nagar, K. (2012). Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction among Teachers during Times of Burnout. *VIKALPA: The Journal for Decision Makers*, 37, 43-60.
- Ofoegbu, F. & Nwandiani, M. (2006). Level of perceived stress lecturers in Nigerian Universities. *Journal of instructional psychology*, 33(1), 66-74.
- Olaf G. Aasland et al. (1997). Health complaints and job stress in Norwegian physicians: The use of an overlapping questionnaire design. *Soc. Sci. Med.* 45, 1615 – 1629.
- Ornelas, S. and Kleiner, B. H. (2003), New Development in Managing Job Related Stress, *Journal of Equal Opportunities International*, 2(5): 64-70.
- Paice E, Aitken MA, Houghton A, Firth-Cozens J. (2004). Bullying among doctors in training: cross sectional questionnaire survey. *BMJ*;329:658-659.
- Quick, J.C., Quick, J.D., Nelson, D.L., & Hurrell, J.J. (1997). *Preventative Stress Management in Organisations*. Washington, D.C. American Psychological Association.
- Quine, L. (1998). Effects of stress in an NHS trust: a study. *Nursing Standard*. 13, 3, 36-41.
- Quine L. (2002). Workplace bullying in junior doctors: questionnaire survey. *BMJ*; 324:878-879.
- Reddy, V.S. and Ramamurthy, P.V., (1991). The relation between stress experience on the job-age, personality and general ability. *Psychology Studies*, 36(2), 87-95.
- Richardson, A.M., Burke, R.J., 1991. Occupational stress and job satisfaction among physicians: Sex differences. *Social & Science Medicine*, 33(10), 1179-1187.
- Ryhal, P.C., & Singh, K., (1996). A study of correlates of job stress among university faculty. *Indian Psy. Rev.*,

-
- 46(1-2), 20-26.
- Schabracq, M.J., and Cooper, C.L., (2000), The Changing Nature of Work and Stress, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(3), 227-42.
- Schultz, M.C., & Schultz, J.T. (2003, 10-12 February). The effects of age on stress levels and its effect on overall performance. Paper presented at the The American Association of Behavioral and Social Science Sixth Annual Meeting, Las Vegas, Nevada.
- Siying Wu et al. (2008). Relationship between job burnout and occupational stress among doctors in China. *Stress and Health*, 24, 143 – 149.
- Sonneck, G. and Wagner, R. (1996), Suicide and burnout of physicians. *Omega: Journal of Death and Dying*, 33, 255-263.
- Spector, P.E., (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, cause and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Stevenson, A. and Harper, S. (2006). Work Stress and Student Learning Experience, *Journal of Quality Assurance in Education*, 14(2), 167-178.
- Susanne Sehlen et al. (2009). Job stress and job satisfaction of physicians, radiographers, nurses and physicists working in radiotherapy: a multicenter analysis by the DEGRO Quality of Life Work Group. *Radiation Oncology*. Volume 4:6.
- Varca, P.E. (1999), Work Stress and Customer Service Delivery, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 13(3): 229-241.
- Virk, J., Chhabra, J. and Kumar, R., (2001). Occupational stress and work motivation in relation to age, job level and type-A behavior. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 27(1&2), 51-55.
- Wojcik, J. (1999). Stress a major risk in compensation consultant. *Business Insurance*, 18(1), 18-19.

Job Embeddedness and Intellectual Capital Role in Predicting Turnover Intentions of Engineers in the Manufacturing Firms: A Moderating Effect of Self-efficacy

Idris Osman¹ and Fauziah Noordin²

^{1,2}Faculty of Business Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 42450 Shah Alam, Selangor

Abstract A disconnection between high-skilled workforces and talent market have become a major issue with manufacturing firms. The demand of engineers play a significant role in any innovation development into global competitions which affected retention decisions. The objective of this study is to discuss the impact of job embeddedness (JE) and intellectual capital (IC) in predicting turnover intentions (TIs) of engineers in the manufacturing firms. In addition, this study explores the mediating effect of self-efficacy in the relationship between JE and IC. Predictably, a high level of embeddedness is improving the involvement of employees into work activities and encourages competitive thinking. The complement of IC stabilizes work behaviours which values the transferring of intangible human capital (skills and knowledge) of engineers occurring within an organization. Theory of social cognitive, job embeddedness and human capital were adopted to explain the impact of JE, IC and self-efficacy on TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms. A theoretical framework and the propositions were developed and formulated in explaining the association of the variables. More intensive studies on antecedents of turnover intentions should be continuously examined to match the demand and supply of current and future Malaysian's engineers in the manufacturing sector.

Keywords: Turnover intentions, job embeddedness, intellectual capital, self-efficacy, engineers, manufacturing

1. Introduction

Manufacturing firms are facing a high demand in producing quality and competitive products (Baldwin, Reyes, Kumar and Lona, 2014). Business players in this industry highly depend on the internal capability to equalize the strategic advantage, as competition derives to attract high-skilled workforces for business growth. The demands of engineers in the global firms have increased due to the significant roles in all phases of innovation process and development (Williamson, Lounsbury and Han, 2013). Bigliardi, Petroni and Dormio (2005) argued that, even engineers have a strong need for growth compared to other professionals, the changes of economic and technological have contributed to the increasing problem of retaining top talents. Based on the survey of Manpower Talent Shortage 2013, employers are expected to lose 60% of engineering workforces in the next ten years.

Malaysia is facing a disconnection between productivity and skills; and labour market (TalentCorp, 2011). High demand of retaining top talent becomes a priority among Malaysian industries. Key sectors such as oil and gas, electronics and electrical, communication, content and infrastructure, financial services and business services are aimed to support talent competitiveness for Malaysia becoming a talent hub.

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + (017-255 0015); fax: + (03-5544 4693).
E-mail address: (idris424@melaka.uitm.edu.my, fauziah716@salam.uitm.edu.my)

Yet, the effect of Asian financial crisis in 1997 had dropped the number of expatriates serving in main sectors, namely services, manufacturing and other industries. The commitment of them was looking as important platform to exchange knowledge, know-how, experience and skills with local talent to enhance Malaysia's innovation products in the global market. The gaps of expatriates in the manufacturing sector are forcing Malaysia to stand on their own experts and compete with existing strongest players in producing high quality products and services. Addressing this problem, government has allocated a huge budget for 2015 to develop citizen's talent besides establishing the Talent Roadmap 2020 to increase significant number of skilled-workers as a main agenda to transform Malaysia into a high income nation through talent sustainability (Bux and Othman, 2010). As competition of talent relatively greater in many developing countries (Bandura and Lyons, 2014); more measurements and strategies are needed to evaluate talent scares from national and organizations level.

Turnover employee is a worldwide strategic issue (Karatepe, 2013; Sahi and Mahajan, 2014; and McLaughlin, Moutray and Muldoon, 2008). An option for more organizations reducing employees to keep more efficient and productive (Kang, Huh, Cho and Auh, 2014; Varkkey and Kumar, 2013), attracting and retaining talents now are crucial (Islam, Khan, Ungku Ahmad and Ahmed, 2013; Sahi et al, 2014; and Kumar and Arora, 2012). Common impact of turnover on organization's cost (Anvari, Fu and Chermahini, 2014; Gachter, Savage and Torgler, 2013; and Nouri and Parker, 2013), however, the determinants are still in a poor understanding (Biron and Boon, 2013; Flint, Haley and McNally, 2013; and Johnco, Salloum, Oslon and Edwards, 2014).

Turnover intentions (TIs) studies have increased the interest among scholars since 1980s (Suaber, Snyir and Sharifi, 1991). Till to date, losing professional workforces have concerned business practitioners to plan a comprehensive strategies on how to keep them longer. Retaining professional talents are essential for maintaining the continuity of expert's area and abolishing recruiting and selecting costs of replacement (Tymon Jr, Stumpf and Smith, 2011). Previous studies have witnessed turnover has influenced professionals workers, namely specialist contract agencies (Kroon and Charissa, 2013); officers (Gachter et al, 2013); IT skilled workers (Ghapanchi and Aurum, 2011; and Mak and HySocket, 2001); top executives (Bergh, 2001); deans and directors (Davis, 2014); and engineers (Abdull Rahman, 2012; Anvari et al, 2014; Kennedy and Daim, 2010; Singh, Fouad, Fitzpatrick, Liu, Cappaert and Figuereido; 2013). However, a comprehensive study on TIs of manufacturing engineers is still lacking in the literature.

Employee expectations are the key to reduce turnover (Yang, Wan and Fu, 2012). According to Chen and Yu (2014), TIs are the best indicator of turnover behaviour. From organizational or individual context, JE provides a closer connection for predicting employee's TIs (Reitz and Anderson, 2011). Intellectual capital (IC) nearly linked in measuring and identifying current intangible assets owned by organizations (Cortés, Sáez, Manchón and García, 2015) while self-efficacy becomes a mechanism to explain the individual behaviour to perform. So far, however, there has been little discussion about these three elements in predicting TIs among employees (engineers) into a specific study. This study therefore set out to discuss the effect of these elements in predicting TIs. Part of the aim of this study is to develop the propositions and theoretical framework to witness the association among variables.

1.1 Manufacturing sector in Malaysia and engineer's turnover

Manufacturing industry in Malaysia has rapidly grown. It has contributed among the biggest earnings for the nation. Malaysia's economy is projected to grow steadily at 2.7% in 2014 and 3.3% in the manufacturing sector. In the budget 2015, government announces that economic growth is expected remain stronger between 5% and 6%; and manufacturing sector is allocated to improve and develop several industries such as automation and electric vehicles. Ninth Malaysian Plan addresses the failure of attract the high-skilled workers to produce high quality production. This includes developing and enhancing human capital in creating job opportunities for people and makes them to mobile. In 2013, productivity growth of manufacturing sector has increased to 5.4% which employed 2.2 million people, comprising 16.8% of the country's total employment.

National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) have identified three main sub-sectors of manufacturing, which are palm oil, electric and electronics and refined petroleum products to support greater employment opportunities toward achieving high income nation. According to Department of Statistic, Malaysia in 2013, electrical and electronics contribute 25.38% to value contribution, 15.9% of refined petroleum and 10.6% of chemicals and chemicals products. Inconsistency with labour competitiveness, manufacturing sector was declined in 2013 for unit labour costs and labour costs per each employee. The main aspect is labour shortage, skilled workers and a high labour turnover.

Talent shortages are coming from various groups. Study on engineer's turnover has received limited attention to what key factors lead them to leave or stay within current employer. In 1990, Kharbanda and Stallworthy claimed that management of engineering manager has become a crucial role. To succeed, engineers like other professions need a social acceptance to express their creative talents. Teamwork has recognized as an

important attribute as primarily based on the engineer's knowledge and skills. They feel attached if the organization enables to identify them completely with the organization. In 1998, Newman found that engineering industry is facing a shortage of student graduates for the future. The demand of future engineers required a high-quality to understand the ability of graduate students fulfil the gaps of engineer's talent.

Engineers have a strong growth and personal development (Bigliardi et al, 2005). The increasing problems of retaining engineers come with changing of economic, social and technological. Among the reasons of engineer's turnover, this study revealed the negative relationship of external career opportunities and level of organizational socialization on turnover intentions. Supervisor support for career development by promoting career opportunities is important for engineering managers to improve engineer's satisfaction and turnover intentions. Little research has been found the motivation and retention for valuable employees, for example engineers (Kennedy et al, 2010). Abdul Rahman (2012) classified Malaysian engineers under professional worker and a key of workforce in Malaysian labour market. She agreed that engineers are critical in Malaysia and turnover has impact investment of skills, knowledge and experience. In her study, engineers are defined as knowledge workers.

More focus to gender segmentation, Singh et al (2013) examine the related factors of women engineers intentions to leave and the study was found the positive correlations between self-efficacy and job attitudes. Organizational supports affected engineer's self-confidence to lead turnover intentions and enhance job satisfaction and commitment. Williamson et al (2013) identify personality traits of engineers for innovation and technology development. They found several important traits namely openness, teamwork, entrepreneurial roles are related to engineer's career satisfaction, turnover, job performance and career mobility.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Job Embeddedness and Turnover Intentions

Links to other people, fit with the job, organization and community; and sacrifices with changing jobs are the main dimensions of JE. Fit is defined as perceived comfort level of employees with an organization and environment, link connects employee, community and present organization; and sacrifice involves what would employee have to give up by breaking free of these links (Reitz et al, 2011). Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez (2001) define fit as an individual comfort with work and non-work setting, sacrifice perceives of employees to loss material or psychological benefits that may sacrificed by leaving a job and link describes the extent of individuals linked to other people and activities within an organization and community.

Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney and Taylor (2009); Holtom, Mitchell and Lee (2006); and Reitz (2014) state that JE is thoroughly explained employee intentions to leave. The more links (the better fits and more sacrifices), the more promising an employee stays with the current job (Yang, Ma and Hu, 2011). Yang et al (2011) claimed that, JE is measured by fit, link and sacrifice which every dimension influences with environment factors (individual, organizational and contextual). More antecedents' models must develop to analyse those factors in predicting behaviours of engineers, accountants and middle managers leaving to fulfil their needs for achievement. Holtom et al (2006) believe that a person who has more roles, responsibilities and relationships would have survived than those who had lower. JE regards this complexity by analysing on-the-job and of-the-job elements to contribute a person to stay. If the organization values this matter and tries to balance the demands of their employees, the decision of current employees to stay is likely side them.

Career stages and embeddedness are linked in determining job turnover to the extent of decisions of employee's duration with the current employer decisively longer. The positive the individual perceives embedded, the higher the satisfaction and performance will be (Ng and Feldman, 2007). Stumpf (2014) found partially mediated of JE in the relationship between objective and subjective career success. Job fit and sacrifices were linked with subjective career success and young professionals were more embedded if organizations manage to help them develop linkages with others besides provide with interesting benefits and perks. Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh and Callan (2014) found organizational sacrifice was significant to intentions to leave. Although JE was not a strong predictor of turnover, it has more potential to investigate the embeddedness concept to manage employee's turnover.

Bergeil, Nguyen, Clenney and Taylor (2009) found that, human resource practices create link, fit and sacrifice making employees embedded into their jobs and make them stay. In their study, JE has strongly associated with employee's voluntary TIs. Sacrifice is more prominent attribute of JE for any employee who decides to change a job. Addressing shortages among nurses in health care employment, Reitz et al (2011) prove the significant of JE to be adopted in identifying this group of employees.

In another role, on-the-job embeddedness was significant mediated in the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance (Özçelik and Cenkci, 2014). Employees with the low community-

related sacrifice may leave their jobs and fewer responsive to leadership roles within an organization. To increase their job performance, organizational leaders and HR practitioners are suggested to carefully identify the candidates who attach with high community-related sacrifice. JE was a key mediating variable in the relationship between high-performance work practices, work social support and TIs (Karatepe, 2013).

Employees who developed trust and quality relationships with supervisors and peers are gained emotional support then the embeddedness is likely increased. High level of embeddedness in the jobs reduces the emotional exhaustion of employees to deliver high performance. Reitz (2014) claimed that JE should focus on retention, not to prevent nurses from leaving the current organization. The result of study indicates that JE predicts intention to stay (19.4% variance in nurses' retention). The only way to retain nurses is to increase their embeddedness by strengthening the links to the community to serve more incentives to encourage community involvement.

JE works for increasing employee's current performance. From Cheng (2014) study, the interference of JE has proven the improvements of salesperson performance and helps organization to cut the termination costs of hiring new members. Not even that, JE makes organization understand the concept of link to encourage the embeddedness of newcomers in an organization. JE arises when employee react entrenched with present employment as this mechanism becomes an important instrument utmost impact on organizational outcomes (Steel and Lounsbury, 2009). Thus, the propositions of the JE were developed as below:

Proposition 1a: Links have a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 1b: Fits have a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 1c: Sacrifices have a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

2.2 Intellectual Capital and Turnover Intentions

The debate on the emergence of IC has received a wide attention. IC has emerged as a company value-driver (Pedrini, 2007). IC represents knowledge for any organization (Seetharaman, Low and Saravanan, 2004) and related to the investment in knowledge, information, intellectual property and experience (Kong, 2007). Bontis (1998) and Roos et al (1997) classified IC into three major components, namely human capital, structural capital and relational capital. Human capital consists of attitude, competencies, experience and skills, knowledge and talents while Tseng, Lin and Yen (2015) group IC into customer, process, innovation and human capital. Human capital not just consists of knowledge, skills and capabilities but also employee's capability to operate the resources (Cortés et al, 2015).

Managing IC is similar to driving a new economy firm in analysing, structuring and cultivating knowledge assets. The absence of human capital undoubtedly impacts the employee's productivity in measuring an accurate performance of organizations. Peng, Pike and Roos (2007) found that the adoption of IC in Taiwanese healthcare industry is still in an early stage. Consequently, employee satisfaction, turnover rate and productivity become isolate performance indicators in valuing actual achievement of organization. Modern organizations are indicated that IC is the most important asset. IC and organizational performance cannot be separated (Clarke, Seng and Whiting, 2011). IC is the best approach through the dimensions of human capital, structural capital, relational capital and social capital (Ferenhof, Durst, Bialecki and Selig, 2015). However, focusing on other capitals is more important, which are motivation, interpersonal skills, knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Valuing IC in developing nations is still in developing stage. Khaliq, Bontis, Shaari and Md Isa (2015) claimed that, IC is a key indicator for high-tech and knowledge-intensive organizations success. Human capital has recognized a prime element of IC (Cortés et al, 2015; and Longo and Mura, 2011) which comprises competencies, attitudes and intellectual agility. In their study, IC was found a positive role in increasing SMEs performance in Pakistan. Unexpectedly, human capital seems least important to Pakistan business context, managers are suggested to focus on human capital investment to produce high performance among their SMEs. Customer capital, structural capital, social capital, technological capital and spiritual capital were witnessed significant relationship with the performance of SMEs in electrical and electronics manufacturing sector in Pakistan.

IC is positively affected work behaviours. Longo et al (2011) witnessed the direct influenced of structural capital on employee's retention while human capital was positively affected structural and relational capital. However, understandings of factors affecting IC are still limited and investigating their influence on employee's retention is the best step to increase organizational performance. In other investigation, IC works for enhancing career development. Based on social capital theory, Lin and Huang (2005) found that people's roles are positively related to career development potential. The combination of human capital and social capital are relatively important in increasing the development of employee's career outcomes. This study only focuses on human capital, structural capital, relational capital and social capital in predicting TIs. Hence, the propositions were developed below:

Proposition 2a: Human capital has a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 2b: Structural capital has a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 2c: Relational capital has a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 2d: Social capital has a positive impact in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms

2.3 Role of Self-efficacy in Turnover Intentions

Self-efficacy is developed from Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory in 1986 (Niu, 2010). Self-efficacy is as individual's belief about he or she could successfully perform a specific task. According to Bandura, individuals who highly efficacious more likely perceive success in relation to accomplish specific task, think, feel and act differently contrast those who acquired lower. These expectations are developed from various performance accomplishment, experiences, verbal persuasion and emotional stimulation. The strengths of individual beliefs in the relationship between personal behaviour and outcomes have resulted to human motivation, decision making and choices. Individuals who believe that they are able to organize action to reach the desired outcomes in a specific area tend to perform tasks successfully. Bandura claims that self-efficacy influences the organizational decision making, career choices and career development (Klassen and Chiu, 2011).

The significant impact of self-efficacy has revealed in the literatures (Chen and Scannapieco, 2010). High level of self-efficacy expectedly produces a positive work outcome (Chaudhary, Rangnekar and Barua, 2012) and employee's behaviour (Sukserm and Takahashi, 2012). Mclaughlin et al (2008) found self-efficacy was a significant predictor of nursing students' performance to show a strong sense of meeting of-the-job demands and enhancing motivation and commitment to succeed. Pillai and William (2004) have generalized the role of self-efficacy into transformational leadership. The correlation showed lower and the role of specific task self-efficacy (moderator or mediator) should future investigate to facilitate the impact of transformational leadership on organizational outcomes. Ellett (2009) found that, self-efficacy, human caring and professional organizational culture were positively related to child welfare staffs' intention to stay. Human caring has witnessed enhancing the strength of self-efficacy belief, motivation and persistence. When this happened, work task, psychological, verbal persuasion and human caring predictably improved.

Employees with high level of self-efficacy enable to control the demand from working environment as they perceived less from what is expected. Interaction effects played a role in different level of worker's self-efficacy in to response the child welfare intent to stay (Chen et al, 2010). Supportive supervision and interaction has become an important indicator to improve workers retention. Self-efficacy mediated in the relationship between number of counselling sessions and career decidedness and has increased a person's career decision (Restubog, Florentino and Garcia, 2010). They found that career self-efficacy and career decidedness served as mediating mechanism to support students' determination to stay. From other perspective, self-efficacy showed a high level among type Y employees (Niu, 2010) and confirmed that self-efficacy has become an antecedent of commitment. With the high self-efficacy, employees are able to take any responsibility as learning process and develop their own working environment. In Klassen et al (2011) study, self-efficacy has improved teachers' commitment to be more committed and feel confident in managing student behaviour in the classroom. With the management of self-efficacy, stress can be managed more effectively to reduce turnover among teachers.

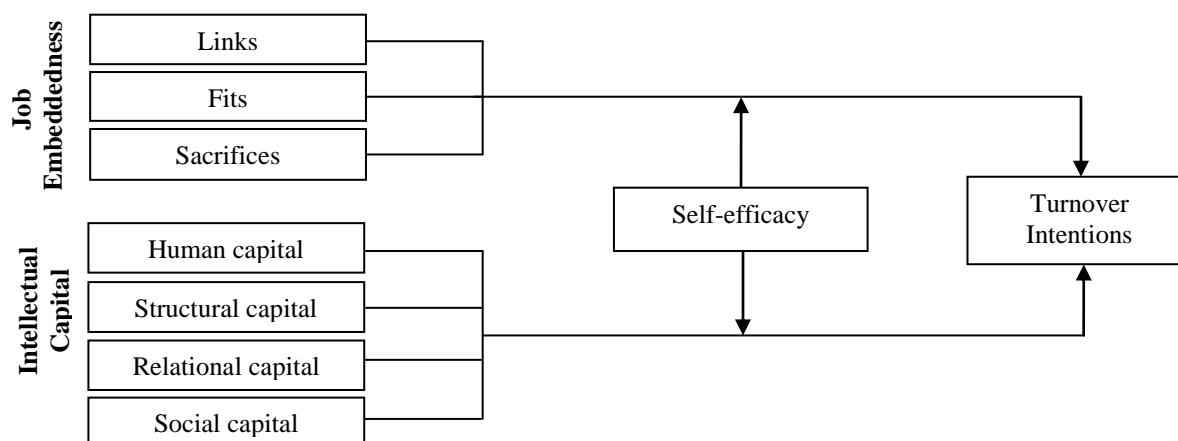
Self-efficacy supports the prediction work engagement of business executive in India (Chaudhary et al, 2012). Employees with high self-efficacy are likely to be engaged and work this collaboration promotes dispositional behaviour of employees to be more interested and enjoy performing their work. Sukserm et al (2012) indicate that self-efficacy encourage employee to develop their ethical behaviour. This study proves a positive mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between learning and ethical behaviour. The influences of self-efficacy have increased employee's self-confidence if they acquired knowledge and skills to improve their working and living life. Additionally, self-efficacy plays a moderator to witness the impact of emotional dissonance and counterproductive behaviour. Cretua and Burcas (2014) found that level of self-efficacy and self-monitoring predicts the decreasing number of counterproductive behaviours. Engagement declines with emotional dissonance of employee if level of self-efficacy constantly lower and potentially lose the vitality and dedication. Due to limited findings of moderating role of self-efficacy between JE and IC in predicting TIs of engineers, these propositions were formulated as follows:

Proposition 3a: Self-efficacy moderates in the relationship of JE in predicting turnover intentions of engineers in the manufacturing firms

Proposition 3b: Self-efficacy moderates in the relationship of IC in predicting turnover intentions of engineers in the manufacturing firms

3. Theoretical Framework

From the discussion, researchers have developed a theoretical framework to the directions of measuring the impact each variable.



4. Discussion and Conclusion

Turnover is a typical problem in the employment relationships. The issue of turnover has received considerable critical attention. Even though many conflicts deserve for management's attention, controlling the movements of employees seem a hard effort to determine the accurate tools to solve this problem. We consider employee's turnover is an obligation for organizations strategizing the competitive tools to address this unresolved issue. This situation enables them to meet the highest demand of attracting high-skilled workers and the competition forces business players analysing the internal and external capability to win over competitors.

Malaysia aims at increasing number of talent pools in various fields to sustain competitive. Talent Corporation Malaysia has found that Malaysian industries have received a high demand retaining the top talents. A serious condition of Malaysia's performance is forecasted to drop in 2015 in the Global Talent Index ranking compared from the last 3 years. To support Malaysia's economic strategy, the availability of high-skilled employees should be matched with industry requirements to gain more investments.

Economic Transformational Programme (ETP) requires more skilled jobs to be created to achieve Vision 2020. The gaps are more prominent with several areas, namely business service (85%); communication, content and infrastructure (81%); electric and electronics; and healthcare (57%); and oil, gas and energy (53%) as these key areas found to be critical sub-sectors of manufacturing for talent growth in Malaysia. Like other sectors, manufacturing sector is also faces a major challenge of talent turnover.

Knowledge-based on understanding the TIs of high-skilled workers are still in a poor condition (Biron et al, 2013; and Flint et al, 2013). The strategic human talent entails the efforts of organizations retaining talents and analysing each of external demand that match with person and organizational requirement. Talented worker is the person who has the exceptional knowledge, skills and capability within an organization. They might portray a different personality, trait and behaviour to decide any uncertainty reaction towards the policies and changes made by current employer. Attracting and retaining them are beyond of employers' control and turnover is a result of employee's decision.

A key aspect of reducing turnover is assessing the expectation of employees deciding towards employment. Traditionally, turnover is the amount of employees left the current organization. Factors found to be influencing TIs have been explored in several studies. Although extensive research has been carried out on this topic, no single study exists which adequately measure JE, IC and self-efficacy in predicting TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms. A holistic approach of JE and IC influence individual's decision attaches with present employer. Recent development of JE and IC has seen to be an important determinant to reduce TIs of employees. Williamson et al (2013) found that engineers are more assertive, customer-oriented, emotionally stable, extraverted, open to new experience, optimistic, analytical, teamwork-oriented and hardworking. These traits are linked to people, fit with the jobs and scarifies with changing jobs. Recent evidence suggests that professional workers developed linkages with others that embed within an organization and showed a high sacrifice when interesting benefits and perks were provided (Stumpf, 2014). In vitro studies have shown that personality and traits can influence the extent of engineer's need of achievement to be found in higher mobility rates (Yang et al, 2011). Kharbanda et al (1990) classifies engineers require social interactions (family and friends), creative talents, teamwork and special intellectual skills.

Known as knowledgeable and skilful workers, engineers should attach with human, social and technological capital to support innovation and development in the manufacturing firms. Engineers are based primarily on their knowledge and skills. Openness and critical thinking have been the most important traits of engineers as they required to new knowledge and skills to response with new demand of technology. Longo et al (2011) draws our attention on an effect of IC towards employee's retention is rarely observed. Detailed investigation showed that human, structural and relational capital positively affected retention. There is a consensus among scholars (Ferenhof et al, 2015; Khalique et al, 2015; Lin et al, 2005; Longo et al, 2011; and Seetharaman et al, 2004) that human capital, structural capital, relational capital and social capital are critical components of IC to produce the individual and organizational outcome.

One of the most important events of the 1980s was self-efficacy. Recently, researchers have shown an increased interest in exploring self-efficacy to witness the positive outcomes of individual and organizational. Self-efficacy proved an individual behaviour matters to build a strong employment relationship with present employer. There have number of longitudinal studies involving self-efficacy that have connected with motivation, commitment, leadership, job satisfaction, career decidedness and work engagement (Chaudhary et al, 2012; Chen et al, 2010; Klassen et al, 2011; McLaughlin et al, 2008; Niu, 2010; and Pillai et al, 2004) . Data from several sources have identified the increased of those variables associated with self-efficacy. In view of all has been mentioned so far, one may suppose that self-efficacy serves as moderating role. Along with this growth, however, much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between JE and IC in predicting TIs mediated by self-efficacy of engineers in the manufacturing firms in Malaysia.

5. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study reviews the evidence for TIs which concern JE, IC and self-efficacy. The evidence presented in this study suggests that employee's expectation and behaviour matter to the decision of staying and leaving. However, due to practical constraints, this paper cannot provide a comprehensive review of these elements since limited empirical data to support each variable influence one to another in the literature. Difficulties arise, however, when an attempt is made to provide strong evidence of engineer's TIs in the manufacturing firms. A more comprehensive study should include all the groups of employees, including core or contingency employees, lowest to upper positions or other nature of works. Future researchers should investigate this issue which calls commendable trend of turnover in Malaysia, such as nursing, hospitality, education, call centres, entertainment, sports and many others.

The existing literatures fail to provide an accurate turnover antecedent through comprehensive model. Apart from Chen et al (2014); and Peachey, Burton and Wells (2014), there is a general lack of research in developing complete turnover models link between the intentions and actual behaviour. The propositions of this study were developed possibly help general practitioners to understand the roles of each variable and their impact on turnover intentions. More turnover variables model should be develop to release the misunderstanding and mistreating the turnover intentions of employees to remain with the same organization. This indicates a need to understand the various perceptions of turnover intentions that exist among employees.

This study purely reviews the impact of JE, IC and self-efficacy in predicting turnover intentions from the secondary data in the literatures. Together this study provides important insights of these elements without supporting the empirical data to measure the TIs of engineers in the manufacturing firms. Thus, future researchers are necessity to measure the actual impact of JE, IC and self-efficacy on TIs using the accurate instruments developed by previous scholars. The findings are important to accept or reject the propositions which developed from this study. Perhaps the most serious advantage of quantitative method is that offering the comprehensive measurement to assess the impact of tested variables.

All the studies reviewed so far, however, there are more other antecedents potentially recognize to reduce turnover. It is believed that employee's traits and personality play important role to support any antecedent underlying the turnover intentions. Strategies to reduce turnover might involve career opportunities, emotional intelligence, work-life balance, compensation and benefits, culture and leadership. Another possible area of future research would be to investigate the interference of diversity in the workplace. An interesting result will be witnessed that diversity plays a moderating or mediating role in influencing the TIs within an organization. The impact of TIs also can be considered from Islamic perspective which rarely addressing in the literature.

6. Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank to the reviewers for the thoughtful comments and suggestions for the improvement of this paper.

7. References

- Abdull Rahman, R. H. (2012). Malaysian Firms' Role in Retaining Engineers. *The Economic and Labour Relations Review*, 23(4) 57–78.
- Anvari, R., Fu, Z. J. and Chermahini, S. H. (2014). Effective Strategy for Solving Voluntary Turnover Problem among Employees. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 129 186 – 190.
- Baldwin, C., Reyes, J. A. G., Kumar, V. and Lona, L. R. (2014). Personal development review (PDR) process and engineering staff motivation. *Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management*, 25(6) 827 – 847.
- Bandura, R. P. and Lyons, P. R. (2014). Short-term fixes fall short when it comes to keeping the best employees. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 22(5) 29 – 32.
- Bergh, D. D. (2001). Executive retention and acquisition outcomes: A test of opposing views on the influence of organizational tenure. *Journal of Management*, 27, 603–622.
- Bergiel, E. B., Nguyen, V. Q., Clenney, B. F. and Taylor, G. S. (2009). Human resource practices, job embeddedness and intention to quit. *Management Research News*, 32(3) 205 – 219.
- Bigliardi, B., Petroni, A. and Dormio, A. I. (2005). Organizational socialization, career aspirations and turnover intentions among design engineers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(6) 424 – 441.
- Biron, M. and Boon, C. (2013). Performance and turnover intentions: a social exchange perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(5) pp. 511 – 531.
- Bontis, N. (1998). Intellectual capital: an exploratory study that develops measures and models. *Management Decision*, 36 (2) 63-76.
- Bux, S. R. & Othman, H. (2010). Talent Management Practices At Government-Linked Companies (GLC) II Prepared, Malaysia Productivity Corporation.
- Chaudhary, R., Rangnekar, M. S. and Barua, U. K. (2012). Relationships between occupational self-efficacy, human resource development climate, and work engagement. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 18(7/8) 370 – 383.
- Chen, C. F. and Yu, T. (2014). Effects of positive vs negative forces on the burnout-commitment-turnover relationship. *Journal of Service Management*, 25(3) 388 – 410.
- Chen, S. Y. and Scannapieco, M. (2010). The influence of job satisfaction on child welfare worker's desire to stay: An examination of the interaction effect of self-efficacy and supportive supervision. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 32, 482–486.
- Cheng, C. Y. (2014). A longitudinal study of newcomer job embeddedness and sales outcomes for life insurance salespersons. *Journal of Business Research*, 67, 1430–1438.
- Clarke, M., Seng, D. and Whiting, R. H. (2011). Intellectual capital and firm performance in Australia. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 12(4) 505 – 530.
- Cortés, E. C., Sáez, P. C. Z., Manchón, H. M. and García, M. U. (2015). Intellectual capital in family firms: human capital identification and measurement. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 16(1) 199 – 223.
- Cretua, R. Z. and Burcas, S. (2014). Self-efficacy: a moderator of the relation between Emotional Dissonance and Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 127, 892 – 896.
- Davis, M. J. D. (2014). Predictors of nursing faculty's job satisfaction and intent to stay in academe. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 30(1) 19–25.
- Ellett, A. J. (2009). Intentions to remain employed in child welfare: The role of human caring, self-efficacy beliefs, and professional organizational culture. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 31, 78–88.
- Ferenhof, H. A., Durst, S., Bialecki, M. B. and Selig, P. M. (2015). Intellectual capital dimensions: state of the art in 2014. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, Vol. 16 Iss 1 pp. 58 – 100.
- Flint, D., Haley, L. M. and McNally, J. J. (2013). Individual and organizational determinants of turnover intent. *Personnel Review*, 42 (5) pp. 552 – 572.
- Gächter, M., Savage, D. A. and Torgler, B. (2013). Retaining the thin blue line: What shapes workers' intentions not to quit the current work environment. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 40(5) 479 – 503.
- Ghapanchi, A. H. and Aurum, A. (2011). Antecedents to IT personnel's intentions to leave: A systematic literature review. *The Journal of Systems and Software*, 84, 238–249.
- Holtom, B. C., Mitchell, T. R. and Lee, T. W. (2006). Increasing human and social capital by applying job embeddedness theory. *Organizational Dynamics*, 35(4) 316–331.
- Islam, T., Khan, S. R., Ungku Ahmad, U. N. and Ahmed, I. (2013). Organizational learning culture and leader-member exchange quality. *The Learning Organization*, 20(4/5) 322 – 337.
- Johnco, C., Salloum, A., Olson, K. R. and Edwards, L. M. (2014). Child welfare workers' perspectives on contributing factors to retention and turnover: recommendations for improvement. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 47, 397–407.
- Kang, C., Huh, S., Cho, S. and Auh, E. Y. (2014). Turnover and Retention in Non-profit Employment: The Korean College Graduates' Experience. *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 1–24.

- Karatepe, O. M. (2013). High-performance work practices, work social support and their effects on job embeddedness and turnover intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(6) 903 – 921.
- Kennedy, E. and Daim, T. U. (2010). A strategy to assist management in workforce engagement and employee retention in the high tech engineering environment. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 33, 468–476.
- Khalique, M., Bontis, N., Shaari, J. A. N. and Md. Isa, A. H. (2015). Intellectual capital in small and medium enterprises in Pakistan. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 16(1) pp. 224 – 238.
- Klassen, R. M. and Chiu, M. M. (2011). The occupational commitment and intention to quit of practicing and pre-service teachers: Influence of self-efficacy, job stress, and teaching context. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36, 114–129.
- Kong, E. (2007). The strategic importance of intellectual capital in the non-profit sector. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(4) 721 – 731.
- Kroon, B. and Charissa, F. (2013). Can HR practices retain flex workers with their agency? *International Journal of Manpower*, 34(8) 899 – 917.
- Kumar, R. and Arora, R. (2012). Determinants of talent retention in BPO. *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 48(2).
- Lin, S. C. and Huang, Y. M. (2005). The role of social capital in the relationship between human capital and career mobility. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 6(2) 191 – 205.
- Longo, M. and Mura, M. (2011). The effect of intellectual capital on employees' satisfaction and retention. *Information & Management*, 48, 278–287.
- Mak, B. L. and HySockel (2001). A confirmatory factor analysis of IS employee motivation and retention. *Information & Management*, 38, 265-276.
- Mclaughlin, K., Moutray, M. and Muldoon, O. T. (2008). The role of personality and self-efficacy in the selection and retention of successful nursing students: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 61(2) 211–221.
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., and Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1102–1121.
- Ng, T. W. H. and Feldman, D. C. (2007). Organizational embeddedness and occupational embeddedness across career stages. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70, 336–351.
- Niu, H. J. (2010). Investigating the effects of self-efficacy on food service industry employees' career commitment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29, 743–750.
- Nouri, H. and Parker, R. J. (2013). Career growth opportunities and employee turnover intentions in public accounting firms. *The British Accounting Review*, 45, 138–148.
- Özçelik, G. and Cenkci, T. (2014). Moderating effects of job embeddedness on the relationship between paternalistic leadership and in-role job performance. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 150, 872 – 880.
- Peachey, J. W., Burton, L. J. and Wells (2014). Examining the influence of transformational leadership, organizational commitment, job embeddedness, and job search behaviors on turnover intentions in intercollegiate athletics. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35(8) 740 – 755.
- Pedrini, M. (2007). Human capital convergences in intellectual capital and sustainability reports. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(2) 346 – 366.
- Peng, T. J. A., Pike, S. and Roos, G. (2007). Intellectual capital and performance indicators: Taiwanese healthcare sector. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 8(3) 538 – 556.
- Pillai, R. and Williams, E. A. (2004). Transformational leadership, self-efficacy, group cohesiveness, commitment, and performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 17(2) 144 – 159.
- Reitz, O. E. (2014). The job embeddedness instrument: An evaluation of validity and reliability. *Geriatric Nursing*, 35, 351-356.
- Reitz, O. E. and Anderson, M. A. (2011). An overview of job embeddedness. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 27(5) 320–327.
- Restubog, S. L. D., Florentino, A. R. and Garcia, P. R. J. M. (2010). The mediating roles of career self-efficacy and career decidedness in the relationship between contextual support and persistence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 186–195.
- Robinson, R. N. S., Kralj, A., Solnet, D. J., Goh, E. and Callan, V. (2014). Thinking job embeddedness not turnover: Towards a better understanding of frontline hotel worker retention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 101– 109.
- Roos, G. and Roos, J. (1997). Measuring your company's intellectual performance. *Long Range Planning*, 30(3) 413-426.

-
- Sahi, G. K. and Mahajan, R. (2014). Employees' organisational commitment and its impact on their actual turnover behaviour through behavioural intentions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 26(4) 621 – 646.
- Sauber, M. H., Snyir, A. G. and Sharifi, M. (1991). Managing Retention in Big Eight Public Accounting: Why Employees Stay. *American Journal of Business*, 6(1) 35 – 39.
- Seetharaman, A., Low, K. L. T. L and Saravanan, A. S. (2004). Comparative justification on intellectual capital. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 5(4) 522 – 539.
- Singh, R., Fouad, N. A., Fitzpatrick, M. E., Liu, J. P., Cappaert, K. J. and Figuereido, C. (2013). Stemming the tide: Predicting women engineers' intentions to leave. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 83,281–294
- Steel, R. P. and Lounsbury, J. W. (2009). Turnover process models: Review and synthesis of a conceptual literature. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19, 271–282.
- Stumpf, S. A. (2014). A longitudinal study of career success, embeddedness, and mobility of early career professionals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 180–190.
- Sukserm, T. and Takahashi, Y. (2012). Self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationships between learning and ethical behavior from human resource development in corporate social responsibility activity. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, 4(1) 8 – 22.
- TalentCorp Malaysia: Plan for Action (2011).
- Tseng, K. A., Lin, C. I. and Yen, S. W. (2015). Contingencies of intellectual capitals and financial capital on value creation. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 16(1) 156 – 173.
- Tymon Jr, W. G., Stumpf, S. A. and Smith, R. R. (2011). Manager support predicts turnover of professionals in India. *Career Development International*, 6(3) 293 – 312.
- Varkkey, B. and Kumar, R. (2013). Keeping the sparkle on Workforce retention in Indian diamond cutting and polishing firms during economic recession. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 21(3) 454 – 470.
- Williamson, J. M., Lounsbury, J. W. and Han, L. D. (2013). Key personality traits of engineers for innovation and technology development. *Journal of Engineering Technology Management*, 30, 157–168.
- Yang, C., Ma, Q. and Hu, L. (2011). Job embeddedness: a new perspective to predict voluntary turnover. *Nankai Business Review International*, 2(4) 418 – 446.
- Yang, J. T., Wan, C. S. and Fu, Y. J. (2012). Qualitative examination of employee turnover and retention strategies in international tourist hotels in Taiwan. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 837– 848.

Human Resource Management Orientation And Market Orientation Effect On Perceived Organizational Performance Mediated By Innovation

Massoud Alam Dad Mohammadi 1, Mohd Noor Azli bin Ali Khan¹, Meisam Karami 1, Seyyed Reza Sadatifar², Reza Ghasemi 1, Mohsen Heydari³ and Ali Malekshahi 4

¹ Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 UTM, Johor Bahru, Johor MALAYSIA

² Faculty of Engineering, Esfaryen University of Technology, Esfaryen 9661998195, North Khorasan, Iran

³ Faculty of human resource, Islamic Azad University of Arak, Arak, Iran

⁴ Faculty of economic, 4103 Islamic Azad University of Kermanshah, Kermanshah, Iran

Abstract This study has focus on human resource orientation and market orientation effect on perceived organizational performance with mediation effect of innovation. Given the centrality of those orientations and of innovation to the perceived organizational performance in both manufacturing and service industries, scholars do not focus on the missing link of innovation among the relationship of those orientations with the performance, particularly in a service industry. Thus, this study aspires to be the bridge among those variables in a highly competitive environment in developing country of whose results indicate that innovation is largely dependent on market orientation and seems to be playing a mediator role to drive perceived organizational performance in private healthcare organizations. However, it does not support the link between HRM orientations and innovation as well as perceived organizational performance. Thus, HRM orientations seem not to be a descriptive variable for and have interaction with perceived organizational performance as well as innovation although they are highly correlated to each other.

Keywords: HRM orientations, market orientation, innovation, perceived organizational performance

1. Introduction

Innovation is very important in organizational performance because without innovation, the organization cannot achieve its goals. Innovation plays an important role in the human resource management (HRM) philosophy (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The main point of HRM practices is the prevalent discussion that it supports organizational performance and also plays a role as promoter and inducement organizational commitment amongst employees. If discussed in pursue of the essential role of organizational commitment that organizations shift from traditional, causes to better performance, (Chang, Lu, Su, Lin, & Chang, 2010) control oriented approach to a commitment oriented moves toward (De Clercq & Rius, 2007). Whereas, create order requires a control-oriented approach, (Donavan, Brown, & Mowen, 2004) exercising control and using efficiency-increasing techniques, (Galletta & Portoghese, 2012) workers will be responsible creatively by giving wider duties as a commitment strategy, (Griffith, 2009) to achieve satisfaction in worker's working, encouraging contribution and assisting them are two important factors. (M. J. Huang & Chen, 2013). Several studies have examined the central role that each of human resource orientation (Nyambegera, Sparrow, & Daniels, 2000) and (Taylor, Levy, Boyacigiller, & Beechler, 2008), market orientation (Raskovic, Morec, & Brencic, 2012), innovation plays in the success of businesses in terms of perceived organizational performance separately (Chiang & Hung, 2010). However, innovation the missing link bet remains unanswered (Hervas-Oliver,

Sempere-Ripoll, & Boronat-Moll, 2014) and (Ju, Chen, Yu, & Wei, 2013). Thus, to better understand those relationships, we posed five specific research questions:

Present study has focus on human resource management orientation and market orientation effect on perceived organizational performance with mediation effect of innovation. To address these questions, we analyze the relevant literature, develop a model and use statistical technics to test the relationships among the variables mentioned above. Although the previous studies shed some light into the relationship between those variables, it is not known whether innovation is the missing link in particularly highly competitive service industry settings. This study also contributes the literature by getting done in a developing country from a different perspective.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between HRM orientations and innovation?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between market orientation and innovation?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between HRM orientations and perceived organizational performance?

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between market orientation and perceived organizational performance?

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between innovation and perceived organizational performance?

2.0 Literature Review

HRM orientations

Two diverse ideas concerning human nature including the human relations movements the more recent strategic management and business policy line of thought are greatly contributed in constitution of philosophy and assumption of HRM (Sanchis-Palacio, Campos-Climent, & Mohedano-Suanes, 2013) and (Schmidt, 2014), which developed what Guest (1987; 1989) mentioned in terms of 'soft' and 'hard' models of HRM respectively (Almond & Menendez, 2014). Furthermore, relevant theoretical paradigms such as best practice, inspired by (Tesauro, Kaban, & Cloetingh, 2013) and best fit, which (Lee, 2010) elaborated on have been studied. Recently researchers have remarkably paid attention to the high performance, high commitment and high involvement. In this regard, the strategic HRM School of other scholars was the origin of the high performance practices involving the typologies of 'traditional' and 'progressive' HRM. This can be inferred that traditional HRM originated in the scientific management school of thought. However, progressive HRM refers to soft HRM. Whereas progressive covers people and personal development which result in high levels of trust, participation, communication and caring (Almond & Menendez, 2014), hard HRM is associated with the traditional model comprising of cost minimization, severe controls and union suppression which is accompanied by low level of communication and trust (Naidoo, 2010; Reimann, Schilke, & Thomas, 2010; Veliyath, Ferris, & Ramaswamy, 1994; Yasuda & Iijima, 2005).

The connotations of soft HRM involve high employee participation, (Arrowsmith & McGoldrick, 1996) considerable training programs and wide job designs which show the systems of the term high involvement HRM strategy. While low participation, limited training and highly specialized jobs indicate as hard HRM that obtained from traditional HRM strategy (Sparrow & Otaye-Ebede, 2014). Tamburino et al expanded the typologies of internal development and acquisition architectures similar to make-HRM and buy-HRM strategies which specify the variations in human resource management orientations between multi-national and host country companies in Asian countries. The similar studies by using the same typologies were done in Spain by, (Katou & Budhwar, 2006) and (Rodriguez & Ventura, 2003) that indicate the relationship between human resource management systems and perceived organizational performance among manufacturing companies there. Their studies inferred that while the 'make' internal development strategies similar to soft HRM have been linked to positive employee outcomes and perceived organizational performance, some organizations choose a 'buy' acquisition strategy, similar to hard HRM, for cost reduction and numerical flexibility.

Although particular definitions have revealed that HRM orientations are not mutually private as firms tend to consume several strategies (Katou & Budhwar, 2006), other indication advices that there are more profits in assuming one model connected to the main business strategy of the firm (BarNir, Gallagher, & Auger, 2003; Bell, Crick, & Young, 2004; Chow & Liu, 2009). (Coltman, Devinney, & Midgley, 2007) and aligned to hard HRM, high participation and high assurance models are resulting from the Harvard construction of (Goll, Johnson, & Rasheed, 2008) and aligned to soft HRM.

Market Orientation

Given today's unreliable environment, malleability and effectiveness are serious for the health of any organization. Once an organization's market orientation produces importance for a customer that is rare and problematic to imitate, it can be a supportable source of inexpensive advantage, which will allow firms to overtake their less market-oriented contenders (Campo, Diaz, & Yague, 2014; Cruceru & Dumitru, 2009; Gray, 2010; Kuzmanovic & Martic, 2012; Valeri, 2011; C. H. Wang & Chen, 2012).

Research in marketing has typically focused on maintaining a market orientation, based on the adoption and implementation of the marketing concept (Joiner, 1998). Throughout the past two decades market orientation has been a crucial concept in the marketing literature (Schleenbecker & Hamm, 2013; Simpson & Radford, 2014; Theodosiou & Katsikea, 2013; Tsou, Chen, & Liao, 2014). The work of (Wong & Tong, 2013; B. T. W. Yu & To, 2013; T. W. Yu & Chen, 2014) impelled a substantial stream of research focusing on this construct's definition, amount, experiences and values. The vast majority of these studies investigate market orientation from either a behavioral or a cultural perspective (Y. G. Wang, Wu, & Yang, 2013). The behavioral perspective underscores specific activities relating to the generation and dissemination of and responsiveness to market intelligence (Wong & Tong, 2013). The cultural perspective focuses on the organizational norms and values that encourage behaviors that are consistent with market orientation and consists of three components: (a) customer orientation, the sufficient understanding of target buyers so as to be able to create superior value for them continuously, (b) competitor orientation; understanding the short- term strengths and weaknesses and the long-term capabilities of both current and potential competitors and (c) inter-functional coordination, the coordinated utilization of company resources for creating superior value for target customers (Vazquez-Casielles, Iglesias, & Varela-Neira, 2013).

The cultural outlook by developing a multilayer conceptualization of market-oriented organizational culture, (Guo, Wang, & Metcalf, 2014) comprising of basic values, (Homburg & Pflesser, 2000) norms and artifacts and behaviors (I. N. Lings & Greenley, 2010). In a further study, adopting a cultural perspective, a four-stage process through which organizations change to adopt a higher level of market orientation is required (Weng, Huang, & Lin, 2013). More recently, Urbonavicius, Dikcius, and Grundey (2006) conceptualize market orientation as consisting of both cultural and behavioral elements, (Celuch, Kasouf, & Strieter, 2000) indicating that organizational-level market orientation culture (Weng et al., 2013) affects unit level market orientation behavior.

Market orientation generates benefits in various direct and indirect patterns involving for example, innovation, customer loyalty, product quality and ultimately firm performance (Casado & Legaz, 2010; Fu & Zheng, 2014; Guan & Fan, 2010; Kitapci & Celik, 2014; Lahiri & Kedia, 2009; Y. J. Li & Zhu, 2009; Lin, Yeh, & Yang, 2014; LiPuma, Newbert, & Doh, 2013; Llach, Perramon, Alonso-Almeida, & Bagur-Femenias, 2013; Long & Li, 2009). Interestingly, literature on the antecedents of market orientation, though also informative, is substantially less expansive; for instance, little is known about key drivers of market orientation from the firm's broader HRM orientations comprised of elements such as risk proclivity, aggressiveness, future orientation, for example (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2012) While market orientation has been itself cast as a HRM orientations (Chow, Teo, & Chew, 2013) and has been juxtaposed with other HRM orientations dimensions to understand its performance implications (Hassan & AL-Hakim, 2011; Hooi & Ngui, 2014; H. J. Huang & Dastmalchian, 2006; Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, & Drake, 2009; S. X. Li, Easterby-Smith, & Lyles, 2008; Liao, Chang, Hu, & Yueh, 2012; I. Lings, Beatson, & Gudergan, 2008; Mikkelsen, Nybo, & Gronhaug, 2002; Panayotopoulou, Bourantas, & Papalexandris, 2003; Patel & Cardon, 2010), little is known about how other various HRM orientations dimensions impact or determine market orientation.

Innovation

The HRM orientations supports risk taking and enhances the possibility of designing and developing completely new and innovative products (Raskovic et al., 2012). Innovation offers significant benefits to firms like maintaining or enhancing market share and outperforming competitors (Raskovic et al., 2012). The exploitation of the opportunities becomes even more important in turbulent markets. In particular, instability in customers' preferences and expectations limits significantly a firm's ability to satisfy them by performing minor modifications to existing products or even by introducing incremental innovations (Banbury & Mitchell, 1995).

Therefore, building on extant literature, it is hypothesized that:

H1: There is a relationship between HRM orientations and innovation.

Marketing orientation leads organizations to embrace an external focus and commitment to innovation, (Naidoo, 2010; Ngo & O'Cass, 2012; Yang & Yuan, 2005) which results for them to achieve and sustain superior performance (Banbury & Mitchell, 1995; Kai, 2009; Mohr & Sarin, 2009). Innovation is a core value-

creating capability that drives the market orientation and performance relationship (Slater & Narver, 1994). Market orientation might facilitate innovation route to perceived organizational performance (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Kohli, Jaworski, & Kumar, 1993; Slater & Narver, 1994; Velenchik, 1993). With market orientation representing organization-wide responsiveness to market information; in addition, other research has presented that market orientation is an antecedent to innovation (Kohli et al., 1993). Market orientation, can thus serve as the catalyst for innovation, since it opens up the firm to new customer needs and new business processes. In other words, market orientation can be a critical part of the innovation (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Velenchik, 1993). Therefore, building on extant literature, it is hypothesized that:

H2: There is a relationship between market orientation and innovation.

Perceived Organizational Performance

Many studies reflect a positive relationship of HRM orientations to a more superior performance (Chow et al., 2013; Onyemah, Rouzies, & Panagopoulos, 2010; Wei & Lau, 2008). In addition, the HRM orientations determine the firm's response to changes in the industries environment and becomes a primary driver of the extent and kinds of innovation efforts the organization makes (Bart, 1998; Choi, Moon, & Ko, 2013; Chow et al., 2013; Cosh, Fu, & Hughes, 2012; Henschel, Kauffeld, & Neininger, 2011; P. L. Huang, Shang, & Li, 2008; Jin, 2011; W. M. Li & Cui, 2008; Magrini & Galliano, 2012; Onyemah et al., 2010; Sampson, 2007; Tidd, 2001; Tohidi & Jabbari, 2012; Wei & Lau, 2008; Wu & Chen, 2014). Therefore, building on extant literature, it is hypothesized that:

H3: There is a relationship between HRM orientations and perceived organizational performance.

Many studies examining market orientation have investigated a direct relationship with performance (Choi et al., 2013; Chow et al., 2013; Cosh et al., 2012; Henschel et al., 2011). However, a few others have inferred innovation as a moderating variable between market orientation and performance (P. L. Huang et al., 2008; Jin, 2011; W. M. Li & Cui, 2008; Magrini & Galliano, 2012; Onyemah et al., 2010). These studies conceptualize innovation as the actual mechanism that transforms market orientation into superior performance. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H4: There is a relationship between market orientation and perceived organizational performance.

H5: There is a relationship between innovation and perceived organizational performance.

3. Methodology

Research Goal and Scope

It is aimed in this study to present the relationships among HRM orientations, market orientation, innovation and perceived organizational performance hypothesized above in private healthcare organizations in Iran. In this respect, the relevant literature is reviewed and a scale is developed to test those hypotheses. The developed scale has been sent to all operating private healthcare organizations (N = 650 as of February 10th, 2013) in Iran without any sampling process. Those 650 private hospitals have been contacted via email or phone whether to or not to participate in the survey, 74 of whose data are obtained yielding a response rate of 11.32% (= 74 / 650).

The Scale

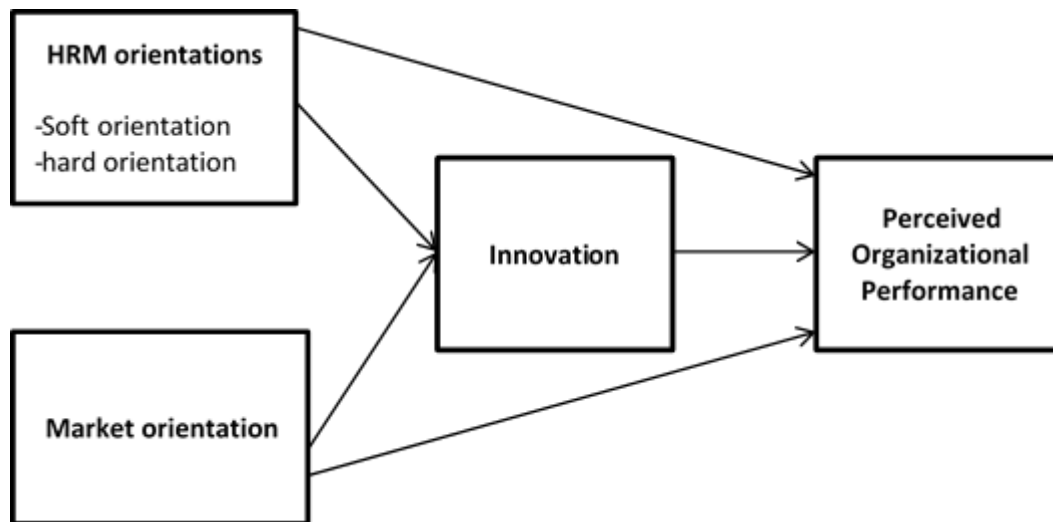
The hypothesized measurement model is shown below in Figure 1. The data are obtained through a developed questionnaire with subsections of HRM orientations (Chiang & Shih, 2011; Ding & Akhtar, 2001; Hayton, 2006; Schmelter, Mauer, Boersch, & Brettel, 2010; Shipton, Zhou, & Mooi, 2013; Simonin & Ozsomer, 2009; Tidd, 2001; Wei & Lau, 2008; Wu & Chen, 2014; Yesil, 2014), market orientation, innovation and perceived organizational performance with 5-point Likert scales and demographic information regarding both respondent and the participant healthcare organization. The gathered data from questionnaires are analyzed through a factor analysis of principal component extraction method with a Varimax-rotation in SPSS 21.0, yielding 11 items for HRM orientations, 15 items for market orientation, 11 items for innovation and 9 items for perceived organizational performance with factor loadings over 0.50 as in Table 1.

Table 1.Results of factor analysis for constructs used in the questionnaire.

Construct	N. of Items	Total Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Human Resource Management Orientation (HRMO)	11	69.796	0.956
Market Orientation (MO)	15	69.745	0.865
Innovation (IN)	11	68.532	0.874
Perceived Organizational Performance (OP)	9	68.392	0.943

The Model

The research is based on an explanatory-model to present the relationships among those constructs with above developed hypotheses as in Figure 1.



Analysis

Having established the reliability, the next step is to test the hypotheses developed before. Thus, a Pearson correlation analysis has been conducted to present the proposed relationships among the constructs of HRM orientations, market orientation, innovation and perceived organizational performance with descriptive statistics for all variables. Right after Pearson correlation analysis, a linear regression analysis has been done to put forth the effects of HRM orientations and market orientation on innovation as well as of HRM orientations, market orientation and innovation on perceived organizational performance as well as.

4. Results

Innovation is significantly correlated with HRM orientations ($r = 0,731$; $p < 0.05$) and market orientation ($r = 0.621$; $p < 0.05$). Perceived organizational performance is also significantly correlated with HRM orientations ($r = 0.711$; $p < 0.05$), market orientation ($r = 0.723$; $p < 0.05$) and innovation ($r = 0.621$; $p < 0.05$). Finally, HRM orientations is significantly correlated with market orientation ($r = 0.579$; $p < 0.01$). Overall, being all the correlations are positive, all hypotheses are accepted.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Table 2.Correlations and descriptive statistics of study variables

Construct	SD	Mean	1	2	3	4
Human resource management orientation (HRMO)	3, 7902	,96153	1			
Market Orientation (MO)	4, 6072	,99764	.579**	1		
Innovation (IN)	3, 4744	,92085	.621**	.607**	1	
Perceived Organizational Performance (OP)	3, 3236	,91327	.711**	.723**	.603**	1

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, **Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Following Pearson correlation analysis, a linear regression analysis has been done to find any interaction among variables. First, perceived organizational performance has been taken as dependent variable and HRM orientations, market orientation and innovation as independents to develop a model to present the effect of independent variables on the dependent one as in Model 1. As can be seen in Table 3, linear regression analysis reveals that the effect of market orientation is 0,337 ($p < 0.05$) and of innovation is 0,518 ($p < 0.01$) for perceived organizational performance whereas there is no interaction between HRM orientations and organization performance. When innovation is taken as dependent variable, there seems for market orientation to have an effect of 0.518 ($p < 0,005$) on the innovation as in Model 2. Excluding HRM orientations and market orientation as in Model 3 to identify solely the interaction between innovation and perceived organizational performance, the effect of innovation is 0.725 ($p < 0.01$) on perceived organizational performance. Finally, when the construct of HRM orientations is excluded since there is no effect of it on (although it is correlated to) all others, there seems for market orientation and innovation to have significant effects such as 0.282 ($p < 0.05$) and 0,508 ($p < 0, 01$) respectively on perceived organizational performance.

Table 3.Model summaries of linear regression analysis

Model No.	Model 1 POP*	Model 2 IN (Excluding POP) *	Model 3 POP (Excluding SO, MO)*	Model 4 POP (Excluding SO)*
R	0.747	0.734	0.727	0.715
R Square	0.559	0.632	0.525	0.561
Adjusted R Square	0. 540	0. 593	0. 518	0. 545
Model F	29.525**	54.089**	79.578**	44.720**
Standardized Coefficient (B) for SO	-0.071	0.243	-	-
Standardized Coefficient (B) for MO	0.337***	0.555**	-	0.282***
Standardized Coefficient (B) for IN	0.518****	-	0.725**	0.508**
Degrees of Freedom	73	73	73	73

* Predictors (Constant): Strategic orientation, market orientation and innovation

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.05$

**** $p < 0.10$

The research indicates that innovation is largely dependent on market orientation and seems to be playing a mediator role to drive perceived organizational performance in private healthcare organizations as parallel to the previous researches (Chiang & Shih, 2011; Ding & Akhtar, 2001; Hayton, 2006; Schmelter et al., 2010; Shipton et al., 2013; Simonin & Ozsomer, 2009; Tidd, 2001; Wei & Lau, 2008; Wu & Chen, 2014; Yesil, 2014). However, a HRM orientation seems not to be a descriptive variable for and have interaction with perceived organizational performance as well as innovation although they are highly correlated to each other unlike previous literature (Simonin & Ozsomer, 2009; Tidd, 2001; Wei & Lau, 2008).

6. References

- Al-Waqfi, M. A., & Forstenlechner, I. (2012). Of private sector fear and prejudice The case of young citizens in an oil-rich Arabian Gulf economy. *Personnel Review*, 41(5-6), 609-629. doi: Doi 10.1108/00483481211249139
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). Organizational Socialization Tactics - a Longitudinal Analysis of Links to Newcomers Commitment and Role-Oriented. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 847-858. doi: Doi 10.2307/256294
- Almond, P., & Menendez, M. C. G. (2014). Cross-national comparative human resource management and the ideational sphere: a critical review. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(18), 2591-2607. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585192.2012.667430
- Arrowsmith, J., & McGoldrick, A. E. (1996). HRM service practices: Flexibility, quality and employee strategy. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 7(3), 46-&. doi: Doi 10.1108/09564239610122956
- Banbury, C. M., & Mitchell, W. (1995). The Effect of Introducing Important Incremental Innovations on Market Share and Business Survival. *Strategic Management Journal*, 16, 161-182. doi: DOI 10.1002/smj.4250160922
- BarNir, A., Gallagher, J. M., & Auger, P. (2003). Business process digitization, strategy, and the impact of firm age and size: the case of the magazine publishing industry. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(6), 789-814. doi: Doi 10.1016/S0883-9026(03)00030-2
- Bart, C. K. (1998). Creating the new high-performance organization through people, innovation and technology - Proceedings of the 18th McMaster Business Conference, McMaster University, Canada, 22-24 January 1997 - Introduction. *International Journal of Technology Management*, 16(1-3), U11-U11.
- Bell, J., Crick, D., & Young, S. (2004). Small firm internationalization and business strategy - An exploratory study of 'knowledge-intensive' and 'traditional' manufacturing firms in the UK. *International Small Business Journal*, 22(1), 23-56. doi: Doi 10.1177/0266242604039479
- Campo, S., Diaz, A. M., & Yague, M. J. (2014). Market orientation in mid-range service, urban hotels: How to apply the MKTOR instrument. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43, 76-86. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.08.006
- Casado, P. C., & Legaz, S. G. (2010). Types of quality awards and firm's performance. *Revista Espanola De Financiacion Y Contabilidad-Spanish Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 39(148), 637-654.
- Celuch, K. G., Kasouf, C. J., & Strieter, J. C. (2000). The influence of organizational market orientation on individual-level market-oriented cognitions. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(11), 935-954. doi: Doi 10.1002/1520-6793(200011)17:11<935::Aid-Mar2>3.0.Co;2-O
- Chang, W. L., Lu, L. C., Su, H. J., Lin, T. A., & Chang, K. Y. (2010). The Mediating Effect of Role Stressors on Market Orientation and Organizational Commitment. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 38(10), 1431-1440. doi: DOI 10.2224/sbp.2010.38.10.1431
- Chiang, Y. H., & Hung, K. P. (2010). Exploring open search strategies and perceived innovation performance from the perspective of inter-organizational knowledge flows. *R & D Management*, 40(3), 292-299.
- Chiang, Y. H., & Shih, H. A. (2011). Knowledge-oriented human resource configurations, the new product development learning process, and perceived new product performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(15), 3202-3221. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585192.2011.560874
- Choi, B. K., Moon, H. K., & Ko, W. (2013). An organization's ethical climate, innovation, and performance Effects of support for innovation and performance evaluation. *Management Decision*, 51(6), 1250-1275. doi: Doi 10.1108/Md-Sep-2011-0334
- Chow, I. H. S., & Liu, S. S. (2009). The effect of aligning organizational culture and business strategy with HR systems on firm performance in Chinese enterprises. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(11), 2292-2310. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585190903239666
- Chow, I. H. S., Teo, S. T. T., & Chew, I. K. H. (2013). HRM systems and firm performance: The mediation role of strategic orientation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 30(1), 53-72. doi: DOI 10.1007/s10490-012-9288-6
- Coltman, T. R., Devinney, T. M., & Midgley, D. F. (2007). e-Business strategy and firm performance: a latent class assessment of the drivers and impediments to success. *Journal of Information Technology*, 22(2), 87-101. doi: DOI 10.1057/palgrave.jit.2000073
- Cosh, A., Fu, X. L., & Hughes, A. (2012). Organisation structure and innovation performance in different environments. *Small Business Economics*, 39(2), 301-317. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11187-010-9304-5
- Crucecu, A. F., & Dumitru, I. (2009). Strategic Orientation Variants of Competitive Firms on the Romanian Market. *Metalurgia International*, 14, 59-60.

- De Clercq, D., & Rius, I. B. (2007). Organizational commitment in Mexican small and medium-sized firms: The role of work status, organizational climate, and entrepreneurial orientation. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 45(4), 467-490. doi: DOI 10.1111/j.1540-627X.2007.00223.x
- Ding, D. Z., & Akhtar, S. (2001). The organizational choice of human resource management practices: a study of Chinese enterprises in three cities in the PRC. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(6), 946-964.
- Donavan, D. T., Brown, T. J., & Mowen, J. C. (2004). Internal benefits of service-worker customer orientation: Job, satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(1), 128-146. doi: DOI 10.1509/jmkg.68.1.128.24034
- Fu, M. Y., & Zheng, S. L. (2014). Implementation Quality of ISO14001 and Firm Performance. *Proceedings of 2013 International Symposium on Applied Engineering, Technical Management, and Innovation*, 249-253.
- Galletta, M., & Portoghese, I. (2012). Organizational citizenship behavior in healthcare: The roles of autonomous motivation, affective commitment and learning orientation. *Revue Internationale De Psychologie Sociale-International Review of Social Psychology*, 25(3-4), 121-145.
- Goll, I., Johnson, N. B., & Rasheed, A. A. (2008). Top management team demographic characteristics, business strategy, and firm performance in the US airline industry - The role of managerial discretion. *Management Decision*, 46(1-2), 201-222. doi: Doi 10.1108/00251740810854122
- Gray, B. (2010). Fine tuning market oriented practices. *Business Horizons*, 53(4), 371-383. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.bushor.2010.03.002
- Griffith, J. (2009). After 9/11, What Kind of Reserve Soldier? Considerations Given to Emerging Demands, Organizational Orientation, and Individual Commitment. *Armed Forces & Society*, 35(2), 214-240. doi: Doi 10.1177/0095327x07312490
- Guan, J. C., & Fan, L. (2010). Impacts of Supply Chain Globalization on Quality Management and Firm Performance: Some Evidences in Shanghai, China. *Advances in Intelligent Decision Technologies*, 4, 259-267.
- Guo, C. Q., Wang, Y. J., & Metcalf, A. (2014). How to calibrate conventional market-oriented organizational culture in 21st century production-centered firms? A customer relationship perspective. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 156, 235-245. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.ijpe.2014.06.013
- Hassan, S., & AL-Hakim, L. A. Y. (2011). The Relationships among Critical success factors of Knowledge Management, Innovation and Organizational Performance: A Conceptual Framework. *Management and Artificial Intelligence*, 6, 94-103.
- Hayton, J. C. (2006). Human Capital Management practices and performance in small and medium sized enterprises - A conceptual framework. *Human Resource Strategies for the High Growth Entrepreneurial Firm*, 51-68.
- Henschel, A., Kauffeld, S., & Neininger, A. (2011). Knowledge organization in self-directed work groups: The importance of shared and unshared object-level knowledge for performance, innovation, and team commitment. *Zeitschrift Fur Arbeits-Und Organisationspsychologie*, 55(3), 132-142. doi: Doi 10.1026/0932-4089/A000054
- Hervas-Oliver, J. L., Sempere-Ripoll, F., & Boronat-Moll, C. (2014). Process innovation strategy in SMEs, organizational innovation and performance: a misleading debate? *Small Business Economics*, 43(4), 873-886. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11187-014-9567-3
- Homburg, C., & Pflesser, C. (2000). A multiple-layer model of market-oriented organizational culture: Measurement issues and performance outcomes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(4), 449-462. doi: DOI 10.1509/jmkr.37.4.449.18786
- Hooi, L. W., & Ngui, K. S. (2014). Enhancing organizational performance of Malaysian SMEs The role of HRM and organizational learning capability. *International Journal of Manpower*, 35(7), 973-995. doi: Doi 10.1108/Ijm-04-2012-0059
- Huang, H. J., & Dastmalchian, A. (2006). Implications of trust and distrust for organizations - Role of customer orientation in a four-nation study. *Personnel Review*, 35(4), 361-377. doi: Doi 10.1108/00483480610670553
- Huang, M. J., & Chen, M. Y. (2013). Internal Marketing, Customer Orientation, and Organizational Commitment: Moderating Effects of Work Status. *Psychological Reports*, 113(1), 180-198. doi: Doi 10.2466/01.11.Pr0.113x18z8
- Huang, P. L., Shang, H. B., & Li, H. F. (2008). A Study on the Relationships Between Organizational Innovation and Organization Performance. *Seventh Wuhan International Conference on E-Business, Vols I-Iii*, 2131-2138.
- Ifie, K. (2014). Customer orientation of frontline employees and organizational commitment. *Service Industries Journal*, 34(8), 699-714. doi: Doi 10.1080/02642069.2014.886197

- Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1993). Market Orientation - Antecedents and Consequences. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(3), 53-70. doi: Doi 10.2307/1251854
- Jin, C. F. (2011). The Organization Styles of Technology Center and Technical Innovation Performance. *Proceedings of the Twelfth West Lake International Conference on Small & Medium Business (Wlicsmb 2010)*, 167-173.
- Joiner, C. (1998). Concept mapping in marketing: A research tool for uncovering consumers' knowledge structure associations. *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. Xxv, 25, 311-317.
- Ju, P. H., Chen, D. N., Yu, Y. C., & Wei, H. L. (2013). Relationships among Open Innovation Processes, Entrepreneurial Orientation, and Organizational Performance of SMEs: The Moderating Role of Technological Turbulence. *Perspectives in Business Informatics Research*, Bir 2013, 158, 140-160.
- Kai, X. (2009). Research on Innovation of Regional Development Pattern Based on Marketing Orientation. *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Product Innovation Management*, Vols I and Ii, 720-724.
- Katou, A. A., & Budhwar, P. S. (2006). Human resource management systems and organizational performance: A test of a mediating model in the Greek manufacturing context. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(7), 1223-1253. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585190600756525
- Kitapci, H., & Celik, V. (2014). The Relationship between Ambidexterity, Organizational Learning Capacity and Firm Quality Performance: An Empirical Study. *2nd World Conference on Business, Economics and Management*, 109, 827-836. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.549
- Kohli, A. K., Jaworski, B. J., & Kumar, A. (1993). Markor - a Measure of Market Orientation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30(4), 467-477. doi: Doi 10.2307/3172691
- Kuzmanovic, M., & Martic, M. (2012). An approach to competitive product line design using conjoint data. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 39(8), 7262-7269. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.eswa.2012.01.097
- Lahiri, S., & Kedia, B. L. (2009). The effects of internal resources and partnership quality on firm performance: An examination of Indian BPO providers. *Journal of International Management*, 15(2), 209-224. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.intman.2008.09.002
- Lee, G. J. (2010). Measuring Business-To-Business Customer Service: A Structural Re-Examination of the INDSERV Scale. *Proceedings of the 9th European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies*, 266-274.
- Lengnick-Hall, M. L., Lengnick-Hall, C. A., Andrade, L. S., & Drake, B. (2009). Strategic human resource management: The evolution of the field. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(2), 64-85. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.01.002
- Li, S. X., Easterby-Smith, M., & Lyles, M. A. (2008). Overcoming corporate rigidities in the dynamic Chinese market. *Business Horizons*, 51(6), 501-509. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.bushor.2008.07.001
- Li, W. M., & Cui, Y. (2008). Technology Innovation Policy, Resource Investments, Organization Incentives and Innovation Performance: Evidence from Chinese Technologic Entrepreneurial Ventures. *2008 4th International Conference on Wireless Communications, Networking and Mobile Computing*, Vols 1-31, 5883-5886.
- Li, Y. J., & Zhu, H. Q. (2009). The effects of independent director system on firm's performance: an earnings quality perspective. *Proceedings of 2009 International Conference of Management Engineering and Information Technology*, Vols 1 and 2, 1021-1025.
- Liao, S. H., Chang, W. J., Hu, D. C., & Yueh, Y. L. (2012). Relationships among organizational culture, knowledge acquisition, organizational learning, and organizational innovation in Taiwan's banking and insurance industries. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(1), 52-70. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585192.2011.599947
- Lin, Y. F., Yeh, Y. M. C., & Yang, F. M. (2014). Supervisory quality of board and firm performance: a perspective of board meeting attendance. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 25(3-4), 264-279. doi: Doi 10.1080/14783363.2012.756751
- Lings, I., Beatson, A., & Gudergan, S. (2008). The impact of implicit and explicit communications on frontline service delivery staff. *Service Industries Journal*, 28(10), 1431-1443. doi: Pii 901334812
Doi 10.1080/02642060802250245
- Lings, I. N., & Greenley, G. E. (2010). Internal market orientation and market-oriented behaviours. *Journal of Service Management*, 21(3), 321-343. doi: Doi 10.1108/09564231011050788
- LiPuma, J. A., Newbert, S. L., & Doh, J. P. (2013). The effect of institutional quality on firm export performance in emerging economies: a contingency model of firm age and size. *Small Business Economics*, 40(4), 817-841. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11187-011-9395-7
- Llach, J., Perramon, J., Alonso-Almeida, M. D., & Bagur-Femenias, L. (2013). Joint impact of quality and environmental practices on firm performance in small service businesses: an empirical study of restaurants. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 44, 96-104. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.10.046

- Long, Y., & Li, J. F. (2009). Advanced Manufacturing Technology and Firm Performance: The Mediating Role of Quality Management Practices. *Icoscm 2009 - Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Operations and Supply Chain Management*, 3, 106-113.
- Magrini, M. B., & Galliano, D. (2012). Agglomeration Economies, Firms' Spatial Organization and Innovation Performance: Some Evidence from the French Industry. *Industry and Innovation*, 19(7), 607-630. doi: Doi 10.1080/13662716.2012.726809
- Mikkelsen, A., Nybo, G., & Gronhaug, K. (2002). Exploring the impact of deregulation on HRM: the case of the Norwegian energy sector. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(6), 942-957. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585190210134291
- Mohr, J. J., & Sarin, S. (2009). Drucker's insights on market orientation and innovation: implications for emerging areas in high-technology marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(1), 85-96. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11747-008-0101-5
- Naidoo, V. (2010). Firm survival through a crisis The influence of market orientation, marketing innovation and business strategy. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 39(8), 1311-1320. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.indmarman.2010.02.005
- Ngo, L. V., & O'Cass, A. (2012). In Search of Innovation and Customer-related Performance Superiority: The Role of Market Orientation, Marketing Capability, and Innovation Capability Interactions. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 29(5), 861-877. doi: DOI 10.1111/j.1540-5885.2012.00939.x
- Nyamberger, S. M., Sparrow, P., & Daniels, K. (2000). The impact of cultural value orientations on individual HRM preferences in developing countries: lessons from Kenyan organizations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(4), 639-663.
- Onyemah, V., Rouzies, D., & Panagopoulos, N. G. (2010). How HRM control affects boundary-spanning employees' behavioural strategies and satisfaction: the moderating impact of cultural performance orientation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(11), 1951-1975. doi: Pii 927394791 Doi 10.1080/09585192.2010.505096
- Panayotopoulou, L., Bourantas, D., & Papalexandris, N. (2003). Strategic human resource management and its effects on firm performance: an implementation of the competing values framework. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(4), 680-699. doi: Doi 10.1080/0958519032000057781
- Patel, P. C., & Cardon, M. S. (2010). Adopting Hrm Practices and Their Effectiveness in Small Firms Facing Product-Market Competition. *Human Resource Management*, 49(2), 265-290. doi: Doi 10.1002/Hrm.20346
- Raskovic, M., Morec, B., & Brencic, M. M. (2012). Market Orientation Business Innovation and Hrm in Top Slovenian Employers. *Ekonomska Istrazivanja-Economic Research*, 25, 1-20.
- Reimann, M., Schilke, O., & Thomas, J. S. (2010). Customer relationship management and firm performance: the mediating role of business strategy. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(3), 326-346. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11747-009-0164-y
- Rodriguez, J. M., & Ventura, J. (2003). Human resource management systems and organizational performance: an analysis of the Spanish manufacturing industry. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), 1206-1226. doi: Doi 10.1080/0958519032000114273
- Sampson, R. C. (2007). R&D alliances and firm performance: The impact of technological diversity and alliance organization on innovation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(2), 364-386.
- Sanchis-Palacio, J. R., Campos-Climent, V., & Mohedano-Suanes, A. (2013). Management in social enterprises: the influence of the use of strategic tools in business performance. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 9(4), 541-555. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11365-013-0262-7
- Schleenbecker, R., & Hamm, U. (2013). Consumers' perception of organic product characteristics. A review. *Appetite*, 71, 420-429. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.appet.2013.08.020
- Schmelter, R., Mauer, R., Boersch, C., & Brettel, M. (2010). Boosting Corporate Entrepreneurship through Hrm Practices: Evidence from German Smes. *Human Resource Management*, 49(4), 715-741. doi: Doi 10.1002/Hrm.20366
- Schmidt, B. (2014). Occupational Health- Management (BGM) A strategic Core Business and Economic Necessity. *Ernahrungs Umschau*, 61(9), M490-M498.
- Shipton, H., Zhou, Q., & Mooi, E. (2013). Is there a global model of learning organizations? An empirical, cross-nation study. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(12), 2278-2298. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585192.2013.781431
- Simonin, B. L., & Ozsomer, A. (2009). Knowledge Processes and Learning Outcomes in Mncs: An Empirical Investigation of the Role of Hrm Practices in Foreign Subsidiaries. *Human Resource Management*, 48(4), 505-530. doi: Doi 10.1002/Hrm.20296
- Simpson, B. J. K., & Radford, S. K. (2014). Situational variables and sustainability in multi-attribute decision-making. *European Journal of Marketing*, 48(5-6), 1046-1069. doi: Doi 10.1108/Ejm-04-2012-0219

- Slater, S. F., & Narver, J. C. (1994). Does Competitive Environment Moderate the Market Orientation-Performance Relationship. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(1), 46-55. doi: Doi 10.2307/1252250
- Sparrow, P., & Otaeye-Ebede, L. (2014). Lean management and HR function capability: the role of HR architecture and the location of intellectual capital. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(21), 2892-2910. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585192.2014.953975
- Tamburino, C., Capodanno, D., Di Salvo, M. E., Caggegi, A., Tomasello, D., Cincotta, G., . . . Calafiore, A. M. (2011). Routine versus selective coronary artery bypass for left main coronary artery revascularization: The appraise a customized strategy for left main revascularization (CUSTOMIZE) study. *International Journal of Cardiology*, 150(3), 307-314. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.ijcard.2010.04.047
- Taylor, S., Levy, O., Boyacigiller, N. A., & Beechler, S. (2008). Employee commitment in MNCs: Impacts of organizational culture, HRM and top management orientations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(4), 501-527. doi: Doi 10.1080/09585190801953491
- Tesauro, M., Kaban, M. K., & Cloetingh, S. A. P. L. (2013). Global model for the lithospheric strength and effective elastic thickness. *Tectonophysics*, 602, 78-86. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.tecto.2013.01.006
- Theodosiou, M., & Katsikea, E. (2013). The Export Information System: An Empirical Investigation of Its Antecedents and Performance Outcomes. *Journal of International Marketing*, 21(3), 72-94.
- Tidd, J. (2001). Innovation management in context: environment, organization and performance. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3(3), 169-183. doi: Doi 10.1111/1468-2370.00062
- Tohidi, H., & Jabbari, M. M. (2012). Product Innovation Performance in Organization. *First World Conference on Innovation and Computer Sciences (Insode 2011)*, 1, 521-523. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.protcy.2012.02.112
- Tsou, H. T., Chen, J. S., & Liao, W. H. (2014). Market and technology orientations for service delivery innovation: the link of innovative competence. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 29(6), 499-513. doi: Doi 10.1108/Jbim-09-2011-0128
- Urbonavicius, S., Dikcius, V., & Grundey, D. (2006). Linking manager-related factors to the level of market orientation in a company. *Transformations in Business & Economics*, 5(1), 131-147.
- Valeri, M. (2011). The Christianization of Usury in Early Modern Europe. *Interpretation-a Journal of Bible and Theology*, 65(2), 142-152.
- Vazquez-Casielles, R., Iglesias, V., & Varela-Neira, C. (2013). Collaborative manufacturer-distributor relationships: the role of governance, information sharing and creativity. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 28(8), 620-637. doi: Doi 10.1108/Jbim-05-2011-0070
- Velenchik, A. (1993). The Industrial-Labor Market and Industrial-Performance in Senegal - a Study in Enterprise Ownership, Export Orientation, and Government-Regulation - Terrell, K., Svejnar, J. *Journal of Development Economics*, 40(2), 410-413. doi: Doi 10.1016/0304-3878(93)90098-8
- Veliyath, R., Ferris, S. P., & Ramaswamy, K. (1994). Business Strategy and Top Management Compensation - the Mediating Effects of Employment Risk, Firm Performance and Size. *Journal of Business Research*, 30(2), 149-159. doi: Doi 10.1016/0148-2963(94)90034-5
- Wang, C. H., & Chen, H. N. (2012). Using quality function deployment for collaborative product design and optimal selection of module mix. *Computers & Industrial Engineering*, 63(4), 1030-1037. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.cie.2012.06.014
- Wang, Y. G., Wu, J. F., & Yang, Z. L. (2013). Customer Participation and Project Performance: The Mediating Role of Knowledge Sharing in the Chinese Telecommunication Service Industry. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 20(4), 227-244. doi: Doi 10.1080/1051712x.2013.840820
- Wei, L. Q., & Lau, C. M. (2008). The impact of market orientation and strategic HRM on firm performance: the case of Chinese enterprises. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(6), 980-995. doi: DOI 10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400395
- Weng, R. H., Huang, C. Y., & Lin, T. E. (2013). Exploring the cross-level impact of market orientation on nursing innovation in hospitals. *Health Care Management Review*, 38(2), 125-136. doi: Doi 10.1097/Hmr.0b013e31824b1c84
- Wong, S. K. S., & Tong, C. (2013). New product success: empirical evidence from SMEs in China. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 28(7), 589-601. doi: Doi 10.1108/Jbim-04-2011-0046
- Wu, I. L., & Chen, J. L. (2014). A stage-based diffusion of IT innovation and the BSC performance impact: A moderator of technology-organization-environment. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 88, 76-90. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.techfore.2014.06.015
- Yang, Z., & Yuan, L. (2005). Market orientation, marketing innovation, and performance: An empirical examination in Chinese firms. *Fourth Wuhan International Conference on E-Business: The Internet Era & The Global Enterprise*, Vols 1 and 2, 1627-1636.
- Yasuda, H., & Iijima, J. (2005). Linkage between strategic alliances and firm's business strategy: the case of semiconductor industry. *Technovation*, 25(5), 513-521. doi: Doi 10.1016/S0166-4972(03)00170-6

-
- Yesil, S. (2014). Exploring the links among organisational commitment, knowledge sharing and innovation capability in a public organisation. *European Journal of International Management*, 8(5), 506-527. doi: Doi 10.1504/Ejim.2014.064602
- Yu, B. T. W., & To, W. M. (2013). The effect of internal information generation and dissemination on casino employee work related behaviors. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 475-483. doi: DOI 10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.11.007
- Yu, T. W., & Chen, M. S. (2014). Developing life insurer-insurance intermediary relationships. *Managing Service Quality*, 24(5), 455-468. doi: Doi 10.1108/Msq-09-2013-0181

Kepimpinan Kreatif Islamik Dalam Organisasi: Suatu Perbahasan Awal

Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid, PhD; Muhammed Fauzi Othman, PhD; Zulkifli Hamisan@Khair, PhD; Kassim Thukiman, PhD

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak Kertas kerja konseptual ini akan membincangkan tentang konsep, elemen dan karakteristik pemimpin kreatif Islamik dalam organisasi. Kejayaan sesebuah organisasi samada yang berorientasikan keuntungan atau tidak banyak bergantung kepada sejauh mana seorang pemimpin menggerak dan memperkasakan organisasinya. Kajian-kajian yang berkaitan dengan kepimpinan dan tingkahlaku organisasi sebelum ini lebih banyak memberi penekanan kepada bentuk kepimpinan tradisional dan kontemporari seperti kepimpinan transaksional dan transformasi serta peranannya kepada organisasi. Justeru, kertas kerja ini akan membahaskan gaya kepimpinan kreatif yang memiliki nilai-nilai Islamik dalam sesebuah organisasi. Kepimpinan kreatif khususnya dalam perspektif barat telah dibincangkan seawal tahun 1980-an. Apatah lagi ia menjadi semakin penting bila mana munculnya persaingan dalam kalangan organisasi yang berorientasikan keuntungan. Pada hari ini, kepimpinan kreatif dalam organisasi menjadi semakin penting di Amerika Syarikat, Eropah dan timur jauh seperti Jepun dan Korea Selatan. Bill Gates, Warren Buffet, Lakshmi Metall, Richard Brenson dan ramai yang lain sering menjadi ikon pemimpin kreatif yang berjaya membawa organisasinya ke persada dunia. Kepimpinan kreatif ikon-ikon inovasi ini menjadi 'benchmark' dan teladan seantero dunia termasuklah Malaysia dan Negara-negara Islam lainnya. Justeru itu, kejayaan mereka seharusnya dapat dipelajari dengan cara memberi nilai tambah dengan apa yang Islam miliki. Oleh yang demikian, kertas kerja ini akan membahaskan perspektif baru ini dalam kerangka Islam. Perbahasan akan mengambilkira nilai-nilai teras seorang pemimpin yang Islami dan bagaimana elemen paradigma tauhid dapat menjadi teras untuk melahirkan kepimpinan kreatif Islamik yang bukan sahaja memberi kesan baik di dunia tetapi juga di akhirat. Impak kepimpinan kreatif Islamik ini adalah bagaimana ia mampu mencipta ruang dan persekitaran yang kreatif kepada pekerjaannya untuk menghasilkan produk yang berinovatif dan memberi manfaat kepada manusia, alam dan kepatuhan kepada Pencipta- Allah SWT.

Kata kunci: Pemimpin kreatif, kreativiti, inovasi, persekitaran kreatif, tamadun Islam

1. Pengenalan

Kreativiti merupakan faktor penting dalam pengurusan dan pembangunan sumber manusia dalam sesebuah organisasi. Kebanyakan sarjana berpandangan kreativiti dan inovasi mampu menjana pertumbuhan dan perkembangan idea serta produk dalam mana-mana organisasi (Tierney, Farmer & Green, 1999; Rickards dan Morgan, 2000; Sisks, 2001; Stoll & Temperley, 2009; Thomson, 2011; Antes dan Schuelke, 2011; Hon & Chan, 2012; Loewenbeger, 2013; Muhamed Rafaz, Muhamad Musrrat & Rizwan Qaiser, 2011; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Muammer Koc, 2014 dan Aamir, 2014). Justeru, Lovelace dan Hunter (2013) berpandangan bahawa kepimpinan kreatif amat penting dan ia merupakan suatu kemahiran yang mesti dan perlu bagi menangani keperluan zaman yang banyak berubah. Florida (2002) turut menegaskan scenario yang sama seperti berikut;

“The driving force is the rise of human creativity as the key factor in our economy and society. Both at work and in other sphere of our lives. We value creativity more highly than ever and cultivate it more intensely”

Pembangunan, kemajuan dan kecemerlangan sesebuah organisasi terletak kepada kebolehan dan keupayaan pemimpinnya memimpin (Anderson, Potocnik dan Zhou, 2014; Khaliq, Rafikul dan Yusof, 2012). Pemimpin kreatif merupakan aset penting sesebuah organisasi (Antes dan Schuelke, 2011). Hal ini telah dibuktikan oleh banyak organisasi ternama dan hebat seperti Microsoft, Apple dan Samsung. Microsoft amat dikenali di dunia bukan sahaja kerana produk yang dihasilkannya malah pemimpin kreatif yang dimilikinya iaitu Bill Gates. Pemimpin kreatif inilah yang memainkan peranan di sebalik tabir kejayaan Microsoft. Pemimpin kreatif inilah yang telah menjadikan Microsoft sebagai pengeluar dan pemacu bisnes perisian yang terhebat di dunia. Tentunya di sebalik kejayaan dan kehebatan organisasi gergasi ini terselindung kejayaan kepimpinan kreatif yang bukan sahaja memberi inspirasi dan sentuhan ajaib terhadap produk yang dihasilkannya (Mohd Azhar, 2004 dan Mohd. Azhar, 2006).

Kepimpinan kreatif dalam perspektif organisasi adalah antara isu penting dalam konteks organisasi di Barat (Mumford, 2012) khususnya dalam konteks globalisasi pada hari ini. Namun begitu, di Malaysia khususnya dalam perspektif Islam ia masih baru dan kurang dibincangkan (Muhammad Mustaqim, 2013) jika adapun ia lebih banyak membincangkan dalam perspektif kepimpinan politik dan isu-isu berkaitan bida'ah (Muhammad Mustaqim et al., 2013) serta ijtihad (Jamal dan Mustapha, 2014; Mohd Azmir et al., 2013). Justeru, amat penting kertas kerja ini mengangkat isu ini agar ia menjadi pemangkin kepada kepimpinan dalam masyarakat Islam dalam membawa perubahan dan pembangunan inovasi yang holistik pada masa depan khususnya dalam konteks organisasi dan Negara amnya.

Sehubungan itu, Kertas kerja ini pada peringkat awal akan membincangkan beberapa konsep penting iaitu kepimpinan kreatif, budaya dan persekitaran kreatif dan produk yang dihasilkan. Ketiga-tiga konsep ini akhirnya akan digarap dengan menonjolkan peranan kepimpinan kreatif dalam membina, membentuk dan membangunkan budaya dan persekitaran kreatif dengan tujuan akhirnya untuk menghasilkan produk yang selari dengan fitrah dan cara hidup Islam.

2. Konsep Kepimpinan Kreatif

Sehingga kini, ribuan konsep dan definisi tentang kepimpinan dalam pelbagai literatur (Khaliq, Rafikul dan Yusof, 2012), namun begitu kebanyakan penyelidik dan sarjana dalam bidang kepimpinan (Syed Othman, 2012; Ali Mohammad, 2012; Kassim, 2012, Khaliq, 2012; Syed Fayyaz, 2012; Rafik, 2012) bersetuju bahawa 'pengaruh' dan 'pengikut' merupakan dua elemen teras yang mencakupi makna dan pemahaman tentang kepimpinan. Seorang pemimpin pada peringkat apa pun mestilah memiliki pengaruh yang dilegitimasi oleh 'pengikut'nya dengan pelbagai cara dan kaedah. Dengan pengaruh yang ada pemimpin berupaya untuk meyakinkan pengikutnya untuk sama-sama merealisasikan misi dan visi sesebuah organisasi. Dalam perspektif Islam pula kepimpinan ialah bukan sekadar pemimpin yang memiliki pengaruh dan pengikut; tetapi sejauhmana pemimpin mampu memandu untuk mencapai suatu misi dan wasan organisasi dalam kalangan pengikutnya dengan apa saja kebaikan di dunia dan di akhirat (Ali, 2012). Justeru itu, visi dan misi yang hendak dicapai bukanlah hanya dalam perspektif organisasi yang sempit dan rigid namun dalam perspektif yang lebih holistik yang menurut Syed Fayyaz (2010); *“a kind of worship”*. Syed Fayyaz (2012) menegaskan;

“It is clear that leadership in Islamic perspective gives an entirely different perspective when compared to secular leadership. It brings in dimension of God’s fear and complete surrendering to His Will”.

Apakah maksud kepemimpinan kreatif? Konsep kepemimpinan kreatif masih merupakan suatu konsep yang barat khususnya dalam konteks kreativiti dalam organisasi (Tierney, Farmer & Green, 1999; Rickards dan Morgan, 2000; Sisks, 2001; Stoll & Temperley, 2009; Thomson, 2011; Antes dan Schulke, 2011; Hon & Chan, 2012; Loewenbeger, 2013; Muhamed Rafaz, Muhamad Musrat & Rizwan Qaiser, 2011; Lovelace & Hunter, 2013; Muammer Koc, 2014 dan Aamir, 2014). Ia bukanlah suatu konsep yang telah *established* seperti mana bentuk dan gaya kepemimpinan yang lain seperti kepemimpinan transformasional, transaksional, karismatik, autokratik, demokratik, pragmatik dan sebagainya. Bagaimana pun, menurut Mohd Azhar (2004) konsep kepemimpinan kreatif sangat penting dan semakin diberi perhatian (dalam membangunkan individu, kumpulan, pasukan dan organisasi pada zaman kreasi dan inovasi). Asas kepada kepemimpinan kreatif adalah individu yang memiliki kepintaran kreatif (big C) dan dapat membina dan membangunkan budaya dan persekitaran kreatif, berkemahiran untuk merealisasikan idea kreatifnya serta menyokong pekerjaannya dalam penghasilan produk kreatif dan inovatif (Mohd Azhar, Zulkifli dan Ida Idayu, 2010). Selain itu, menurut Mumford dan Conelly (1999), pemimpin kreatif penting “...when groups confront turmoil, ambiguity and change”. Pada hemat saya elemen teras kepemimpinan kreatif dalam konteks kertas kerja ini adalah ‘kepintaran kreatif’ (*creative intelligence*). Rowe (2004: 3) berpandangan kepintaran kreatif bermaksud “*Its focuses on how we think and our strong desire to achieve something new or different*”. Bagaimanapun menurut Rowe (2004) indikator kepada kepintaran kreatif adalah individu memiliki tahap tinggi dalam konteks berikut;

- (i) Intuitif – memfokuskan kepada hasil dan bergantung kepada pengalaman lalu untuk memandu tindakan.
- (ii) Inovatif – memfokuskan kepada penyelesaian masalah yang bersistematik dan bergantung kepada data serta maklumat.
- (iii) Imajinatif – berkebolehan untuk membayangkan peluang dan berfikir di luar kotak.
- (iv) Inspirasional – memberi focus kepada perubahan sosial dan memotivasi pengikut.

Dalam hal ini, Leijnen dan Gabora (2010) pula berpendapat bahawa kepemimpinan kreatif hanya akan berkesan bila mana ia dapat memupuk individu, kumpulan, pasukan dan organisasi yang kurang kreatif berbanding yang kreatif. Iaitu bagaimana, ia berjaya menggunakan kepintaran kreatifnya untuk membangunkan budaya dan persekitaran kreatif seterusnya kepada pekerjaannya. Manakala pandangan ini diperkukuhkan oleh Mauzy dan Harriman (2003) iaitu;

“Creative leadership is an inclusive process which the leader functions as a catalyst for navigating change along its full spectrum. Creative leaders must be able to define problems and missions that are worth pursuing and they must also create a work environment that enables generating and transforming ideas into action”

Mauzy dan Harriman (2003) berpendapat pemimpin kreatif berkebolehan dalam menyelesaikan masalah dan berwawasan. Selain itu, kemampuannya untuk mencipta persekitaran kreatif penting dalam penghasilan idea dan produk. Pandangan yang sama turut dikongsi oleh Puccio, Manse dan Murdock (2011: xviii) yang menyatakan;

“...is ability to deliberately engage one’s imagination to define and guide a group toward a novel goal – a direction that is new for the group. As a consequences of bringing about this creative change, a creative leader has a profoundly positive influence on his or her context (i.e. workplace, community, school, family) the individuals in that situation, and the environment in which they collaborate”

Selain itu, berdasarkan kajian-kajian yang telah dijalankan setakat ini jelas menunjukkan bahawa kepemimpinan transformasional dan karismatik merupakan gaya kepemimpinan yang mampu meningkatkan kreativiti dan inovasi dalam organisasi (Anderson, Potocnik dan Zhou, 2014). Kepimpinan transformasional misalnya menurut Burns (1978) dapat mempengaruhi tahap kreativiti individu atau organisasi. Karakteristik kepemimpinan transformasional ini boleh memberikan motivasi, inspirasi dan memberi sokongan serta galakan kepada pekerja dalam pelbagai situasi dan keadaan. Ia juga menjadi pemangkin kepada budaya dan persekitaran organisasi dalam berkreasi. Sebaliknya menurut Anderson, Potocnik dan Zhou (2014) kepemimpinan transaksional memberi

kesan negatif kepada kreativiti dan inovasi pekerja dalam organisasi. Bagaimanapun, menurut kajian oleh (Wang dan Rode, 2010 dan Somech, 2006) mendapati samada kepimpinan transformasional atau transaksional yang paling penting adalah kedua-duanya akan memberi kesan positif sekiranya mereka bersifat partisipatif (turut serta) berbanding direktif (pengarahan) dalam pelaksanaan idea-idea kreatif dan inovatif.

Kajian yang dijalankan oleh Rafik (2012) misalnya menunjukkan bahawa Nabi Muhammad SAW memiliki elemen-elemen kepimpinan transformasional seperti meningkatkan kesedaran, membantu pengikut melihat lebih jauh daripada kepentingan peribadi, memberi rangsang intelektual, berkarismatik, prihatin akan individu lain dan memberi inspirasi. Malah menurut Rafik (2012) Rasulullah S.A.W turut memiliki kepimpinan Hamba (*servant leadership*) seperti mengutamakan pihak lain, kesediaan mendengar, mencipta keyakinan, memberi fokus terhadap sesuatu yang boleh dilaksanakan dan sentiasa membantu tanpa syarat. Justeru itu, berdasarkan gaya dan atribut itulah akhirnya Rasulullah diiktiraf oleh ramai sarjana dan pemimpin Barat sebagai contoh kepimpinan kreatif Islam yang telah berjaya membina sebuah tamadun umah yang hebat. Malah dalam sejarah Islam, terdapat beberapa pemimpin seperti Khulafa ar-Rasyidin, Sultan Muhammad al-Fateh, Sallahuddin al-Ayubi dan Qutuz yang juga boleh dijadikan sandaran dan asas yang memiliki kepimpinan kreatif yang hebat dan luas biasa. Menurut Aamir Ali (2014) elemen lain yang perlu dimiliki oleh kepimpinan kreatif adalah etika dan integriti. Kajian yang dijalankannya dalam kalangan 170 doktor di Pakistan mendapati kreativiti dan inovasi pekerja meningkat apabila bekerja dengan Doktor yang memiliki etika dan integriti yang tinggi. Justeru itu, elemen ini penting dalam kreativiti dan inovasi kerana idea serta penghasilan produk jika tidak berasaskan etika dan integriti akan menyebabkan kesan negatif kepada organisasi, negara dan ummah dalam jangka panjang.

3. Nilai Asas dan Gaya Kepimpinan Kreatif Islamik

Dalam membincangkan kepimpinan kreatif Islamik tidak banyak yang dapat ditonjolkan dalam konteks moden pada hari ini. Justeru itu, kita seharusnya menyorot kebelakang dan menonjolkan kecemerlangan Islam pada zaman Rasulullah, khalifah ar-Rasyidin dan beberapa tokoh kepimpinan yang kreatif dan inovatif seperti beberapa pemimpin utama pada zaman kerajaan Abasiyyah seperti khalifah Harun al-Rashid, al-Makmun, pemimpin pada zaman pemerintahan Othmaniah seperti Sultan Muhammed Al-Fateh, al-Qutuz serta sultan Salahuddin al-Ayubi (Syekh Muhammad Mursi, 2013 dan Ahmad Zahiruddin, 2013). Kejayaan kesemua kepimpinan ini bukan sahaja mampu membina dan membangunkan sebuah organisasi, malah tamadun yang holistik serta membentuk sebuah masyarakat yang bertamadun (Rasid, 2010). Nilai asas yang tidak dimiliki oleh kepimpinan kreatif yang lain adalah kepatuhan dan penyerahan diri kepada Allah SWT serta taat akan ajaran al-Quraan dan as-Sunnah (Rasid, 2010).

Dalam Islam, kepimpinan kreatif bukan hanya bertanggungjawab terhadap organisasinya sahaja dan hanya dalam konteks untuk meraih keuntungan serta bersaing dengan organisasi yang lain. Perannya lebih luas iaitu sebagai khalifah dan imam yang memimpin ke arah kebenaran. Seperti mana yang berlaku dalam konteks hari ini, organisasi yang berasaskan keuntungan akan saling bersaing hingga ke peringkat menjatuhkan antara satu sama lain dan ia pernah berlaku antara Samsung dan Apple pada tahun 2010. Dalam Islam, persaingan itu dibenarkan dengan batas dan nilai akhlak yang tinggi. Tanggungjawab terpenting yang perlu dimainkan oleh kepimpinan kreatif adalah bagaimana untuk memperoleh *mardhatillah* (Mohd Azhar, Koharuddin & Muhammed Fauzi, 2006). Ia juga bersabit dengan bagaimana untuk membawa kesemua ahli dalam organisasi ke arah matlamat yang luhur, benar dan bersih iaitu *mardhatillah*.

Tentu sekali nilai asas dan gaya kepimpinan kreatif Rasulullah serta zaman khulafah ar-Rasyidin dan pemimpin Islam yang adil seperti Sultan Muhamad al-Fateh dan Qutuz. Antara nilai asas yang dimiliki oleh kepimpinan kreatif Islam adalah (Mohd Farid, 2003 dan Shamas-ur-Rehman Toor, 2012);

- i. Kekuatan iman dan amalan
 - a. Menyerah diri kepada Allah
 - b. Akauntabiliti kepada Allah
 - c. Taat kepada Allah dan Rasul
 - d. Berintegriti
 - e. Amanah
- ii. Kekuatan dan budaya ilmu yang tinggi
 - a. Bijaksana dan berhikmah
 - b. Mengikuti petunjuk syari'ah

-
- c. Yakin diri
 - iii. Kehidupan yang sederhana
 - a. Memaafkan
 - b. Rendah diri
 - c. Sabar
 - iv. Keprihatinan dan keadilan kepada umat
 - a. Keadilan sosial
 - b. Berkhidmat dengan ikhlas dan jujur kepada ummah
 - c. Menghargai pengikut/ pekerja
 - d. Belas kasihan
 - e. Baik
 - v. Keberanian
 - a. Tegas
 - b. Optimis
 - c. Menegakkan kebenaran

Syed Fayyaz (2012) memperincikan pandangannya dalam perspektif Islam iaitu nilai asas kepimpinan yang perlu ada dan ia mesti dipenuhi oleh seseorang yang bergelar pemimpin adalah (i) adil (ii) amanah (iii) benar (iv) sabar (v) belas kasihan (vi) dipercayai (vii) syukur (viii) ikhlas. Nilai-nilai asas inilah yang menerasi hubungan antara kepimpinan kreatif Islamik dengan Penciptanya dan pengikutnya. Bila mana nilai asas ini dapat ditanam dan dihayati dalam diri dan jiwa kepimpinan maka organisasi yang dipimpin akan memperoleh keberkatan dan keredhaan Allah SWT. Sebaliknya, Syed Fayyaz (2012) mengingatkan agar seseorang pemimpin menghindarkan diri daripada sifat-sifat mazmumah seperti (i) berbohong (ii) fitnah dan adu domba (iii) hasad dengki (iv) hipokrit dan sebagainya kerana sifat-sifat tercela ini akan menjadikan organisasi itu tidak mendapat redha, petunjuk dan rahmat daripada Allah SWT.

4. Mengapa Kepimpinan Kreatif Islamik Diperlukan Dalam Organisasi?

Pada asasnya, Islam adalah agama yang sangat mementingkan aspek berfikir dan pemikiran (Jamal dan Mustapha, 2012). Malah pemikiran dan keilmuan memang telah sebatu dan diberi keutamaan dalam Islam sehingga berkembangnya kreativiti dan inovasi dalam pelbagai bidang kehidupan (Baharudin, 2008; Rasid, 2010; Azrina, 2012). Justeru itu, seperti bidang yang lain, kreativiti dan inovasi juga semestinya penting kepada Islam dalam membina sebuah tamadun dan cara hidup (Ramli, Zulkiflee dan Mohd Nasir, 2012). Sungguhpun, kreativiti dan inovasi tidak terdapat istilah yang spesifik dalam Islam, namun beberapa sarjana dan penulis seperti Md. Asham (2012), Dzulkifli (2012), Jamal dan Mustapha (2012) menyatakan beberapa istilah seperti ijtihad, qias, tajdid serta bidaah adalah beberapa istilah penting dalam memberi gambaran dan memperincikan tentang konsep kreativiti dan inovasi. Penulis tidak berniat untuk memperpanjangkan perhabahasan yang berkaitan dengan konsep dan istilah kreativiti dalam perspektif Islam, cuma penulis ingin menarik perhatian pembaca bahawa kreativiti dan inovasi adalah 'konsep' yang tidak asing dan janggal dalam Islam (Azrian et. al, 2012). Ia dapat ditelusuri menerusi pembangunan sains dan teknologi semasa zaman keemasan Islam pada zaman kerajaan Abbasiyah iaitu antara abad ke-8 hingga awal abad ke-12 (Rasid, 2010; Azrina, 2012; Jamal dan Mustapha, 2012) dengan pelbagai reka cipta dan inovasi yang dihasilkan sehingga turut memberi sumbangan kepada kebangkitan tamadun Barat (Ramli, 2003 dan Rasid, 2010).

Bagaimana pun, Sejarah kegemilangan tamadun Islam berubah selepas kejatuhan kerajaan Othmaniah - Islam berada dalam keadaan yang lemah dalam pelbagai bidang sehingga menurut Muhammad dan Muhammad Kamal (2012) Malaysia tidak terkecuali menghadapi 'Dilema Ummah'. Kemerosotan berlaku dalam banyak perkara pemikiran, pembangunan sains dan teknologi, penyelidikan, keorganisasian, pembanguna sosioekonomi, pendidikan dan sebagainya. Justeru, pada hemat kami untuk kembali ke landasan yang betul dan benar – kepimpinan kreatif Islamik perlu dibentuk dan diaktifkan dengan kesungguhan yang jitu dan mantap. Model terbaik kepimpinan telah sedia ada dalam Islam sebutlah apa saja – tokoh terkemuka dari kalangan sahabat, penakluk, panglima perang, saintis, perekacipta, gabenor, hakim, ahli fekah, sejarwan, penyair, sarjana dan ilmuwan dan ramai lagi (Syekh Muhammad Sa'id Mursi, 2013)

Pada hari ini, lihatlah berdasarkan senarai yang dikeluarkan oleh *FORBES (The World's Innovative Companies)*, *Business Insider Malaysia (The 50 Most Innovative Companies in the World)*, *Thomson Reuters*

(*Top 100 Global Innovators*), *MIT Technology Review (50 Smartest Companies)*, *Businessweek (Most Innovative Company)*, *USA Today (The World's Most Innovative Companies)*, tidak satupun organisasi yang dimiliki oleh orang Islam tersenarai sebagai antara yang terbaik di dunia. Hal ini menunjukkan betapa kreativiti dan inovasi dalam kalangan organisasi dan negara-negara Islam masih tidak standing dengan negara-negara maju lainnya seperti US, Eropah, Jepun dan Korea Selatan. Malah OIC sebagai salah sebuah organisasi yang menghimpunkan lebih daripada 50 buah negara itu juga tidak mampu berdepan dengan organisasi yang setara dengannya. Kelemahan Islam pada hemat kami adalah kerana tidak memiliki kepimpinan kreatif Islamik yang mampu menggalas peranan dan tanggungjawab ummah. Umat Islam yang jumlahnya lebih 2 billion di seluruh dunia yang ada pada hari ini adalah merupakan 'pengguna' dan 'follower' kepada apa jua produk yang dihasilkan oleh negara-negara maju lainnya. Justeru terdapat banyak kes yang melibatkan produk makanan dan sebagainya menjadi bahan penghinaan terhadap ajaran Islam. Apa yang mampu kita lakukan adalah memprotes dan memboikot produk yang berkaitan tetapi sebaliknya tidak menyediakan penyelesaian alternatif kepada ummah. Agak malang apabila negara-negara Islam kebanyakannya memiliki aset dan sumber alam yang banyak seperti minyak dan sebagainya, namun ia kita tidak mampu mengeksploitasinya dengan berkesan dan optimum. Malah yang lebih penting adalah bagaimana kepimpinan kreatif Islamik itu sendiri bukan sahaja dapat mengubah cara berfikir dan bertindak pengguna produk tetapi dapat membetulkan salah faham bukan Islam terhadap Islam. Mantle (2003) misalnya dalam bukunya '*Companies That Changed the World*' menyenaraikan 50 buah organisasi@syarikat yang mengubah dunia seperti Reuters, Coca-cola, Ford, Boeing, Disney, YSL, Apple, Toyota, EMI, Nokia, Swatch, Google, CNN, Intel, Sony, Unilever, Ebay dan lain-lain lagi. Kesemua 50 organisasi ini dipimpin oleh kepimpinan kreatif yang telah berjaya menghasilkan produk-produk yang mengubah cara manusia bekerja, berfikir, berkomunikasi, belajar, berhibur, berpakaian, berbelanja dan sebagainya. Justeru itu, bayangkan jika kita memiliki kepimpinan kreatif Islamik seperti Jeff Bezos (Apple), Zuckerberg (Facebook), Branson (Virgin), Buffet (Wal Mart), Jobs (Apple) dan gates (Microsoft), sudah tentu dakwah dapat dilakukan seterusnya dapat membetulkan salah faham bukan Islam terhadap Islam.

Pada hemat kami, sungguh pun negara-negara yang disebutkan itu telah jauh meninggalkan kita, namun sesuatu perlu dilakukan agar sekurang-kurangnya tidak terlalu jauh ketinggalan. Namun yang lebih penting daripada itu adalah bagaimana masyarakat Islam mampu melahirkan kepimpinan kreatif Islamik yang dapat mengembalikan kecemerlangan Islam yang pernah dilakar suatu ketika dahulu. Maka, berdasarkan fenomena umat Islam pada masa kini kami berpandangan kepimpinan kreatif Islamik khususnya dalam konteks organisasi amat diperlukan pada masa kini kerana;

- i. segala sumber penyelesaian masalah dan penghasilan produk kreatif amat wajar merujuk daripada sumber yang paling berautoritatif iaitu al-Quraan dan sumber-sumber Islam lainnya.
- ii. sesuatu kerja itu perlu dijalankan dengan tekun, amanah, betul dan benar.
- iii. ia perlu memberi perhatian terhadap bukan sahaja keperluan material tetapi juga keperluan spiritual pekerjaanya.
- iv. banyak masalah-masalah baru yang muncul tidak terdapat sebelumnya yang memerlukan penyelesaian yang kreatif dan inovatif.
- v. menghasilkan produk kreatif dan inovatif selari dengan keperluan umat dan *maqasid syari'ah*.
- vi. menghasilkan produk serta penyelesaian kreatif dan inovatif yang sarat nilai dalam pelbagai bidang dan permasalahan.
- vii. perlu mengembalikan kehebatan dan kecemerlangan Islam dalam mengurus dan mentadbir sumber manusia.
- viii. mengurus dan mentadbir sumber-sumber alam dengan penuh etika dan berintegriti agar memperoleh kualiti produk kreatif dan inovatif yang mengagumkan.

Pada hemat kami, selain daripada pelbagai kriteria dan elemen yang disarankan di atas, terdapat elemen teras yang menerasi sesebuah organisasi itu iaitu budaya ilmu. Budaya ilmu yang subur serta aktif dengan pelbagai penyelidikan dan penemuan akan memberi nilai tambah kejayaan dan kelangsunng sesebuah organisasi. Malah telah terbukti dalam sejarah Islam, gagasan ilmiah yang telah menyebabkan manusia berlumba-lumba menguasai ilmu ukhrawi mahupun duniawi. Mereka meneroka dan menjelajah ke mana saja untuk memperluaskan ufuk pemikiran dan ilmu guna memperoleh keredhaan dan rahmat Allah. Perlumbaan yang sihat dalam mencari dan meneroka ilmu telah menjadikan tamadun Islam mengiatkan pelbagai usaha penyelidikan, penterjemahan karya-karya asing dan penghasilan produk dan idea kreatif dan inovatif (Esa, 2001; Syed Muhammad Dawilah, 2007; Nurazmailail, 2010). Ia ditambah dengan sifat keterbukaan Islam terhadap apa jua ilmu dan sumber pengetahuan yang baik dan bermanfaat (Rasid, 2010). Dengan sifat '*inquisitive*' inilah Islam telah melahirkan ramai tokoh terbilang dalam pelbagai disiplin dan bidang. Selain daripada galakan dan ajaran Islam agar saling tolong menolong dan bantu membantu dalam perkara-perkara kebaikan telah menjadikan umat

Islam menghormati dan menghargai ilmu pengetahuan seperti yang terkandung dalam surah *al-Alaq* (ayat 1 hingga 5) (Muhammad Hassan, 2011); selain surah Taha (ayat 144) yang menyuruh umat Islam yang dahagakan ilmu supaya sentiasa berdoa dan meminta Tuhan menambah ilmu pengetahuan. Apatah lagi Islam sangat memuliakan orang-orang yang menuntut ilmu dan berilmu seperti yang terkandung dalam surah *az-Zummar* (ayat 9) yang bermaksud;

“Katakanlah, adakah sama orang yang mengetahui dengan yang tidak? Sesungguhnya orang yang berakallah yang dapat menerima pelajaran”.

5. Kepimpinan Kreatif dan pembentukan budaya dan persekitaran Kreatif

Alencar (2012) dan Kaufman & Sternberg (2010) berpandangan kepimpinan dalam organisasi boleh memberi dua kesan besar iaitu sebagai faktor penggalak dan perencat kreativiti dan inovasi. Manakala pandangan Alencar (2012) selari dengan Kirpatrick dan Locke (1999) pula berpandangan *“Organizational culture and climate and the way its leaders express it were considered to be key factors for creativity in the work place”*. Alencar (2012) sekali menegaskan *“Among numerous variables that impact in the organizational setting leadership has been taken as one of the most critical”*. Selanjutnya, Ekvall (1999) menegaskan;

“Sixty seven percent of statistical variance accounted for on the climate for creativity in organizations is directly attributed to the behavior of the leader”

Berbalik kepada fokus kepimpinan kreatif kertas kerja ini, Secara umumnya, menurut Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) dalam Dawson & Andriopoulos (2014) kepimpinan yang berkesan (dibaca sebagai apa jua gaya kepimpinan) seharusnya memiliki *traits* seperti *drive*, keinginan tinggi untuk memimpin (*the desire to lead*), jujur dan berintegriti (*honesty and integrity*), yakin diri (*self-confidence*), pintar (*intelligence*) dan pengetahuan sesuai tanggungjawab (*job-relevant knowledge*). Namun, apa yang lebih penting dalam konteks ini adalah bagaimana *traits* dan gaya kepimpinan itu mampu diterjemahkan dalam membentuk dan membangunkan budaya dan persekitaran dalam organisasi. Robinson (2008) menegaskan bahawa peranan penting yang perlu dimainkan oleh kepimpinan kreatif adalah bagaimana ia mampu mencipta budaya dan persekitaran kreatif seperti menurutnya;

“The role of a creative leader is not to have all the ideas; it's to create a culture where everyone can have ideas and feel that they're valued. So it's much more about creating climates. I think it's a big shift for a lot of people”

Dawson & Andriopoulos (2014) pula berpandangan;

“Creative leaders set the tone, climate and conditions where creativity can thrive. This means removing structural barriers that actively prevent people from working together, learning from each other and equipping each other to be creative through interaction and dialogue”.

Menurut Dawson & Andriopoulos (2014) kepimpinan yang berkesan bila mana wujudnya tiga keadaan berdasarkan Fiedler Model iaitu;

- i. **Hubungan pemimpinan dan ahli dalam organisasi** – dimensi ini paling penting kerana dalam mana-mana organisasi hubungan timbal balik yang baik dan harmoni akan memberi kesan positif terhadap objektif, misid an wawasan organisasi. Ahli bersedia untuk sama-sama bekerja dan berusaha untuk mencapai apa yang telah dipersiapkan oleh kepimpinan. Hubungan yang kukuh, teguh dan baik antara kedua-dua pihak akan memudahkan struktur tugas dijalankan.
- ii. **Struktur tugas** – dimensi ini juga penting kerana ia akan menentukan sejauh mana berkesannya objektif yang hendak dicapai. Struktur tugas mestilah mengandungi parameter yang jelas dan boleh diukur agar memudahkan ia dilakukan oleh pemimpin dan ahli. Kedua-dua pihak memahami akan peranan dan tugas masing-masing secara spesifik dan mengetahui bagaimana sesuatu tugas itu dapat diselesaikan. Maka hasil daripada struktur tugas yang jelas akan memberi kesan positif terhadap penyelesaian dan produk kreatif yang dihasilkan. Pemimpin kreatif harus terlibat secara dominan sebagai pencetus dan penerbit idea, usahawan, berwawasan, jurucakap, kaunselor dan jurulatih.
- iii. **Kedudukan kuasa** – dimensi ini merujuk kepada tahap pengaruh pemimpin ke atas ahli serta setakat mana pemimpin mampu mempengaruhi ahlinya serasi dengan misi dan wawasannya. Kedudukan

kuasa juga akan menentukan bagaimana sumber-sumber dalaman dan luaran organisasi dapat dimanfaatkan secara optimum. Kuasa digunakan dengan berhemat, adil dan saksama.

Ketiga-tiga dimensi di atas mestilah berada dalam keadaan yang (i) teguh, kukuh dan baik (ii) tinggi dan (iii) kuat agar budaya dan persekitaran yang kondusif dapat dibina dengan berkesinambungan dan komprehensif. Berdasarkan kajian yang dijalankan oleh Ekvall (1990) dan Rickards dan Morgers (2000) mendapati terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara kepimpinan kreatif, kreativiti dan proses kreatif iaitu penghasilan idea, penyelesaian serta produk yang kreatif dan berinovatif. Selain itu, menurut Robbins dan Coulter (2002), lima karakteristik yang dapat menjadikan kepimpinan kreatif sebagai hero dalam organisasinya adalah (i) ia memiliki wawasan (ii) ia mampu menjangka dan menghuraikan wawasannya dengan jelas (iii) ia bersedia menghadapi risiko untuk mencapai wawasannya (iv) ia sangat sensitive dengan peluang dan risiko daripada dalam dan luar organisasi (v) sensitif dengan keperluan dan kehendak ahli/pekerjanya (vi) ia bertindak, berfikir dan memimpin dengan penuh karismatik dan menurut Robbins dan Coulter (2002) inilah resepi kejayaan Michael Dell (Dell), Steve Jobs (Apple) dan Jeff Bezos (Amazon).

Amabile dan Gryskiewicz (1989) dalam Kaufman (2009) mengenalpasti lapan aspek persekitaran kerja dalam sesebuah organisasi yang dapat merangsang kreativiti iaitu, (i) kebebasan yang mencukupi (ii) kerja yang mencabar (iii) sumber-sumber yang mencukupi (iv) pemimpin yang suportif (v) kepelbagaian ahli/pekerja dan bersifat komunikatif (vi) pengiktirafan (vii) ras kerjasama yang amat tinggi (viii) organisasi yang menyokong kreativiti. Manakala Mohd Azhar, Zulkifli dan Ida Idayu (2010) menambah beberapa elemen lain yang secara spesifik merujuk kepada peranan yang sepatutnya dimainkan oleh kepimpinan kreatif iaitu seperti (i) pemimpin perlu menyediakan persekitaran yang kondusif untuk berkreasi (ii) komunikasi berkesan dari atas ke bawah (iii) menggalakkan sikap bereksperimen dalam kalangan ahli (iv) pastikan agar idea subordinat tidak dibunuh (v) kurangkan birokrasi pentadbiran (vi) sokongan dan kerjasama yang aktif daripada pihak pengurusan (vii) longgarkan tamapt tempoh (viii) agihkan tanggungjawab baru kepada ahli kumpulan (ix) sediakan anugerah dan insentif kepada pekerja dan (xi) Ceritakan kejayaan tokoh dalam organisasi yang tersohor.

Pada asasnya, kami bersetuju dengan apa jua bentuk dan persekitaran budaya dan persekitaran kreatif dalam perspektif Barat asalkan ia tidak menyalahi dan bertentangan dengan nilai dan prinsip Islam. Tentu sekali berbeza masyarakat akan melahirkan budaya dan persekitaran yang berbeza, namun secara umumnya Islam telah menggariskan budaya dan persekitaran yang sesuai dan serasi dengan kreativiti dan inovasi Pada asasnya budaya dan persekitaran kreatif yang dibentuknya menurut Esa (2001) mestilah bercirikan elemen-elemen seperti *Rabbaniyyah* (ketuhanan), *Insaniyyah* (kemanusiaan), *Duniawiyyah* (keduniaan), dan *Syumuliiyyah* (keseluruhan). Inilah kerangka yang dapat dimanfaatkan di samping apa saja teori, model dan idea daripada perspektif selain Islam. Dalam perspektif Islam misalnya, apa yang berlaku semasa zaman Rasulullah, khulafah al-Rasyidin dan pada zaman keemasan Islam adalah sesuatu yang boleh dimanfaatkan pada masa kini dan masa depan.

6. Penyelesaian Kreatif - Produk Kreatif –Inovatif dan *Maqasid Syariah*

Konsep asas kreativiti adalah penghasilan idea dan produk (Mohd Azhar, Zulkifli dan Ida Idayu, 2010). Iaitu idea yang memiliki beberapa sifat dalaman dan luaran yang (i) asli (ii) bernilai atau berkualiti (iii) berguna dan baru. Selain itu, beberapa ciri tambahan lain yang penting adalah ia tidak bebas nilai. Ini bermaksud apa saja produk dan idea yang dihasilkan mestilah memberi impak positif kepada umum dan bukan sebaliknya. Menurut Kaufman (2009) dan Cropley (2010), idea dan produk kreatif yang bersifat negatif (*the dark side*) pada hari ini wujud dalam kebanyakan domain atau bidang – perubatan dan kesihatan, ekonomi, kewangan, kejuruteraan, sains tulen, bioteknologi dan pemakanan, teknologi dan sebagainya. Menurut Al-Karasneh & Jubran Saleh (2010: 421), "*the creative products do not contradict any of the Islamic principles or foundations. All creative products should be in accordance with the Islamic shari'ah*". Dalam situasi ini Islam melarang keras apa jua bentuk produk dan idea yang bertentangan dengan akidah dan syari'at. Justeru, Islam memberikan penyelesaian yang terbaik kepada manusia dalam hal yang berkaitan kelangsungan hidup.

Natijah daripada kepimpinan kreatif Islamik adalah membina budaya dan persekitaran yang dapat memberi inspirasi dan motivasi kepada ahli/pekerja untuk berkreasi. Budaya dan persekitaran yang kondusif pula dapat menjamin rasa psikologi yang selamat untuk menghasilkan penyelesaian dan produk kreatif dan inovatif. Itulah tujuan akhir sesebuah organisasi iaitu menghasilkan produk yang nantinya akan memberikan keuntungan kepada organisasi. Produk terhasil daripada individu/kumpulan yang kreatif daripada budaya dan persekitaran yang kreatif melalui proses kreatif (Kaufman, 2009). Tujuan utama untuk menghasilkan produk asas yang berkaitan dengan keperluan dan kegunaan harian dan sesuatu produk yang berkaitan dengan peribadatan umum dan khusus.

Dalam Islam, tidak dilarang untuk menghasilkan penyelesaian dan produk kreatif malah itulah yang dituntut dalam Islam khususnya bagi memenuhi keperluan asas manusia. Bagaimana pun, sesuatu yang dirancang dan dihasilkan itu mestilah pula berasaskan parameter Islam iaitu *maqasid syariah*. Secara umumnya, maqasid syariah atau objektif syarak ialah lima prinsip asas Islam dan tumpuan hukum syarak yang meliputi menjaga dan memelihara agama, jiwa, akal, keturunan dan harta. Susunan *maqasid* tersebut perlu mengikut tertib keutamaan bermula dengan menjaga dan memelihara agama serta seterusnya. Imam al-Syatibi dan Imam al-Ghazali (Rasid, 2010) telah bersepakat terhadap lima objektif syarak ini. Ia amat mustahak dan perlu diambil kira dalam ijihad hukum, penyelesaian masalah dan pembuatan keputusan. Pematuhan pada *maqasid syariah* ini amat penting bagi memastikan segala keperluan, kehendak dan aspirasi kehidupan manusia dapat dipelihara selaras kehendak syarak. Lima prasyarat yang boleh membebaskan kreativiti dan inovasi manusia daripada nafsu dan keserakahan dalam menghasilkan sesuatu idea dan produk adalah (i) menjaga dan memelihara agama (ii) menjaga dan memelihara jiwa (iii) menjaga dan memelihara akal (iv) menjaga dan memelihara agama dan (v) menjaga dan memelihara harta. Hal ini penting bagi mengelakkan penghasilan penyelesaian produk kreatif dan inovatif yang boleh memusnahkan alam, manusia dan kemanusiaan. Kelima-lima elemen itu harus pula diletakkan dalam parameter hukum fekah iaitu wajib, haram, sunat, harus dan makruh. Selain daripada maqasid syari'ah dan hukum fekah, Islam juga menitikberatkan kesempurnaan, kualiti dan sungguh-sungguh dalam melaksanakan sesuatu sama ada ibadah fardu, sunat atau umum. Justeru, elemen *Itqan* dan *Ihsan* seharusnya menjadi salah satu daripada *compliance* dalam menghasilkan penyelesaian dan produk kreatif dan inovatif seperti mana hadis yang dilaporkan oleh a-Tabrani;

"Sesungguhnya Allah sangat mencintai orang yang jika melaksanakan suatu pekerjaan, maka pekerjaan tersebut dilakukannya dengan itqan."

7. Kesimpulan

Kepimpinan kreatif Islamik adalah konsep baru yang masih belum diterokai secara mendalam sama ada secara empirikal mahupun konseptual khususnya dalam perspektif Islam. Dalam konteks keorganisasian kreatif, kepemimpinan kreatif telah muncul seawal tahun 1970-an di Barat dan terus berkembang dengan pesat pada abad ini. Kepimpinan Kreatif Islamik sebenarnya telah muncul sejak zaman Rasulullah SAW, khulafah ar-Rasyidin, para sahabat dan beberapa pemimpin pada zaman keemasan Islam di Andalusia dan Baghdad. Selepas daripada itu, kepemimpinan kreatif Islam yang serba boleh serta dapat menyelesaikan masalah umat semakin mengecil dan sukar ditemui. Tiada figura lain yang dapat dicontohi selain Rasulullah SAW dalam pelbagai dimensi penyelesaian masalah dan pembuatan keputusan. Justeru, dunia Islam perlu mengembali serta melahirkan seorang pemimpin yang memiliki atribut seperti Rasulullah dalam mentadbir dan menguruskan sumber manusia dan fizikal setelah sekian lama tamadun Islam berada di garis bawah garis kecemerlangan.

8. Rujukan

- Al-Karasneh, Samih Mahmud & Jubran Saleh, Ali Mohammad (2010). "Islamic Perspective of Creativity: A Model for Teachers of Social Studies as Leaders" dalam *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 2 (2010). 413-426.
- Ahmad Zahiruddin Mohd Zabidi (2013). *Hebatnya Rasulullah: Teladan Peribadi & Pengurusan Kekasih Allah*. Kuala Lumpur: Karya Bestari.
- Aamir, A.L (2014). Can Ethical Leaders Enhance their Followers" dalam *Creativity Leadership*. 0 (1). 1-20.
- Alencar, E.M.L.S (2012). "Creativity in Organizations: Facilitators and Inhibitors dlm Michael Mumford (2012). *Handbook of Organizational Creativity*. New York: Academic Press.
- Ali Mohammad Jubran Saleh (2012). "Leadership: An Islamic Perspective". Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Antes, A.L & Schulke, M.J (2011). "Leveraging Technology to Develop Creative Leadership Creativity" dalam *Advances in Developing Human Resources*. 13(3). 318-313.
- Azrina Sobian (ed.) (2011). *Islam: Kreativiti dan Inovasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit IKIM.
- Baharudin Ahmad (ed.) (2008). *Falsafah Sais dari Perspektif Islam*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Cropley, D.H. et al. (eds.) (2010). *The Dark Side of Creativity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Esa Khalid (2001). *Konsep Tamadun Islam: Sains dan Teknologi*. Skudai: Penerbit UTM.
- Ekvall, K.A (1999). "Creative Climate" dalam Runco, M.A dan Pritzker, S.R (1999). *Encyclopedia of Creativity*. San Diego: Academic Press.

- Florida, R. (2002). *The Rise of the Creative Class*. New York: A Member of the Perseus Books Group.
- Leijen, T & Gabora, D (2010). “ An Agent Based Simulation of the Effectiveness of Creative Leadership” dalam *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society*. August, Portland, Oregon. 11-14.
- Lovelace, J.B & hunter, S.V (2013). “Charismatic, Ideological & Pragmatic Leaders’ Influence on Subordinate Creative performance Across the Creative Process” dalam *Creativity Research Journal*, 25(1), 59-74.
- Loewenberger, P. (2013). “The Role of HRD in Stimulating Supporting & Sustaining Creativity & Innovation” dalam . 12 (4). 422-455.
- Mantle, J. (2003). *Company That Changed The World*. London: Quercus Publishing.
- Muhd Farid Mohd Shahrhan (2003).” Kesempurnaan Kepimpinan Khulafa’ al-Rasyidin”. Dalam Asmady Idris, Dzurizah Ibrahim dan Rahminah Muharam (20013). *Isu-isu Sains Sosial Dari Perspektif Islam*. Kota Kinabalu. Penerbit UMS.
- Muamer Koc (2014). “ Understanding Interactive Relationship Between Leadership, organization culture & Innovation Capacity” dalam *International Journal of Business & Management Study*. Vol. 1 (2). 97-102.
- Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid (2004). *Kreativiti: Konsep, Teori & Praktis*. Skudai: Penerbit UTM
- Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid, Mohd koharuddin Balwi & Muhammed Fauzi Othman (2006). *Rekacipta dan Inovasi dalam perspektif Kreativiti*. Skudai: Penerbit UTM
- Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid, Zulkifli Khair & Ida Idayu (2010). *Horizon R&D: Kreativiti Pemacu Inovasi*. Shah Alam: Penerbit UiTM
- Mohd Azmir mohd Nizah et al. (2013). “Political Creativity Among Religious Leaders: The Case of Muhammad”. Dalam *World Applied Science Journal*. 24 (2). 270-275.
- Mumford, M.D dan Conelly, M.S (1999). “ Leadership” dalam Runco, M.A dan Pritzker, S.R (1999). *Encyclopedia of Creativity*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Muhammad Abu Bakar (2012). “Pembangunan dan Dilema Ummah”. Dalam Muhammad Syukri Salleh (ed.). *Dilema Ummah Di Malaysia*. Bangi: Penerbit UKM.
- Muhammad Kamal Hassan (2012). “Dilema Ummah: Antara Tuntutan Agama dan Kelemahan Diri”. Dalam Muhammad Syukri Salleh (ed.). *Dilema Ummah Di Malaysia*. Bangi: Penerbit UKM.
- Muhammad Hassan al-basri (2011). *Ilmu Hikmah*. Kuala Lumpur: PTS Publications & Distributors Sdn Bhd.
- Muhammad Mustaqim mohd zarif et.al. (2013). “Creating Creative and Innovative Muslim Society: Bid’ah as an Approach”. Dalam *Asian Social Science*. Vol. 9, No. 11. 121-275.
- Mumford, M. (ed.) (2012). *Handbook of Organizational Creativity*. New York: Academic Press.
- Md. Asham Ahmad (2012). “Faham Kreativiti dan Inovasi menurut Islam”. Dalam Azrina Sobian (ed.) (2011). *Islam: Kreativiti dan Inovasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit IKIM.
- N. Shaik Mohamed (2012). “Styles and Strategies of Motivation in Islamic Organisations”. Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Nor Hartini Saari (2012). “Inovasi Dalam Organisasi”. Dalam Azrina Sobian (ed.) (2011). *Islam: Kreativiti dan Inovasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit IKIM.
- Jamal Badi dan Mustapha Tajdin (2012). *Creative Thinking: An Islamic Perspective. 2nd Edition*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Kaufman, J.C dan Sternberg, R.J (2010). *The Cambridge handbook of Creativity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Khaliq Ahmad (2012). “Leadership and Work Motivation From The Islamic Perspective”. Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Kirkpatrick, S.A & Locke, E.A (1991). Leadership: Do Traits really Matter?. *Academy of Management Executive*, 5 (2): 48-60.
- Rafik I. Beekun (2012). “Muhammad (SAW) A Transformational Leader”. Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Rasid Muhammad (2010). *Merintis Kecemerlangan Islam*. Shah Alam. Karya Bestari.
- Ramli Awang, Zulkiflee Haron dan Mohd Nasir Ripin (2012). *Sains Tamadun Islam*. Skudai: Penerbit UTM.
- Ramli Awang (2003). *Falsafah Sains dan Teknologi*. Kuala Lumpur: PTS Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Rickards, T & Morges, S (2000). “Creative Leadership Process in Project Team Development: An Alternative to Tuckman’s Stage Model” dalam *British Journal of Management*, vol. 11. 273-283.
- Robbins, S & Coulter, M (2002). *Management*. Englewoods Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Rowe, A.J (2004). *Creative Intellegence: Discovering The Innovative Potential in Ourselves and Others*. New York: Prentice Halls.

-
- Shamas-ur-Rehman Toor (2012). "An Islamic Leadership Theory: Exploring The Extra Dimensions". Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Syed Fayyaz Ahmad (2012). "Ethical Basis of Organization Leadership: An Islamic Perspective". Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.
- Sisk, D.A (2001). "Creative leadership: A Study of Middle Managers, Senior Level managers and CEO's" dalam *Gifted Education International*. Vol, 5. 283-290.
- Thomson, P (2011). "Creative Leadership: A New Category of the Same" dalam *Journal of Educational Administration & History*. Vol. 43. No. 3. August. 249-272.
- Tierney, P, Farmer, S.M & Green, G.B (2009). "An Examination of Leadership and Employee Creativity: The Relavance of Traits & Relationships" dalam *Personel Psychology*, 1999, 52,
- Yusof Ismail & Badruddin Ibrahim (2012). "Leadership Preprogratives and The Rple of Advisors in Organizational Decision Making". Dalam Khaliq Ahmad, Rafikul Islam dan Yusof Ismail (eds.) (2012). *Issues In Islamic Management: Theories and Practices*. Gombak: IIUM Press.

Relationship between Institutional Pressure, Intellectual Capital and Organisational Performance

Dauda Mohammed Atiyaye¹, Roya Anvari², Bala Salisu³ Mohammed Sangiru Umar⁴, A I Chikaji⁵

Faculty of Management, University Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai Johor, Malaysia

Abstract This study examined how institutional pressure and intellectual capital components affects performance in Local Governments in Nigeria. It is still unclear how institutional pressure may influence intellectual capital and in return impact on overall performance. The study argues on the extent to which intellectual capital may mediate the relationship between institutional pressure and performance which need to be examined in the context of Local Government policies and administration. However, there are articulations in the literature of how little attention is given to business ethics and spirituality in the work place. Other factors may still explain the relationship in the model that were not yet explored. Future research could take up the challenge of identifying other factors not accounted for in this study due to its limitation in scope and coverage. Future research could prolifically be built by extending this study in different context and philosophical perspectives.

Keywords: Institutional Pressure; Intellectual Capital; Organisational Performance

1. Introduction

Proper management of intellectual capital would in essence affect organisational performance positively. Lack of infrastructures, heavy administrative bureaucracies and poor human development contribute to the fragile environment of sub-Saharan Africa (Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, 2006). This closely resemble what Whitley (1999) denotes as fragmented environment, characterised by low trust in formal institution, often in terms of large perceived distance between the state and firms. Even though both empirical and conceptual theories have established the link between employee productivity and performance (Rynes *et al.*, (2007), But why do firms not implementing human resources management best practices is still unclear (Rynes *et al.*, 2007).

Articulation was further made for re-examination of the impact of institutional pressures (coercive, normative and mimetic) on organizational performance (Sekiguchi, 2013) and its overall influence on human resource management best practices. However it was empirically revealed that external pressure has a significant impact on human capital which in turn affects the organizational performance (Wulf *et al.*, 2008). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, all the previous researches only looked at the intellectual capital (IC) and organisational performance based on: Firstly, no any research investigates the impact of institutional pressures on intellectual capital and performance. Secondly, most studies focused on the developed economies and failed to study intellectual capital and organisational performance from the context of African economy in general or Nigeria in particular. Thirdly, previous studies narrowed on high technological manufacturing industries (it has been examined from the perspective of financial performance but, no evidence was shown on non-financial performance).

Therefore, it should be noted that this has created a wide gap in the literature. Thus from the above discussion, it is evident that most of these studies are deficient and inconsistent due to: the fact that they focused only on manufacturing sector (Riahi-Belkaoui, 2003), in service or financial sector (Muhammad and Ismail, 2009), stock exchange in Australia (Larke *et al.*, 2011) and in high intensive technological sectors in Malaysia (Mehri *et al.*, 2013). But no evidence was shown from the African perspectives or more specifically in Nigerian context or more deeply the Local Government administration (Kehelwalatenna and Gunaratne, 2010).

Grounded empirical research is however required to determine the relationship between IC components and value creation (Cuganesan, 2005) and calls for empirical testing of IC theories and frameworks (Marr and Chatzkel, 2004). Further emphasis was on the importance of information and knowledge as the catalyst for

competitive advantage (Zubof, 1996). Thus, stressing the relevance of IC management, measurement and reporting (Itami, 1987). There was also a growing concern and continuous criticisms on why little information on IC resourcefulness still existed (Martin, 2004). Therefore, articulation was made on the need for in-depth understanding of tangible and intangible resources of an organisation (Marr *et al.*, 2004). Similarly it is in essence a well-known fact that, empirical investigation of IC inter-relationships is a potential area of research (Cuganesan, 2005) deserving more attention due to its inadequacy. Based on the premise that IC affects value creation and productivity of a firm (Giuliani, 2013), because is the main levers to create value (Edvinsson, 2007).

2. Literature Review

Institutional Pressure and Intellectual Capital

Previous scholars Posited limited attention towards application of institutional pressure (Sarkis *et al.*, 2011; Clemens and Douglas, 2006; Gonzalez-Torre *et al.*, 2010; Sarkis *et al.*, 2010) and how institutional pressure influence technological adoption Hellenic Parliament (Philopidou *et al.*, 2008). Thus, coercion was said to have a significant influence on budgetary practices (Nor-Aziah and Scapens, 2007). Coercive measures were equally used to create and sustained budgetary practices in developing countries (Uddin and Hopper, 2003; Tambulasi, 2007). However, professionals coercively through their professional networks transfer new organisational best practices to their members (Robson *et al.*, 2007; Tsammenyi *et al.*, 2006).

Thus, organizations acquire new knowledge and ideas through coercion, imitation and normative means (Scott, 2001). Enforcement of best practices are legitimize through legislations and regulations by the national governments of a nation (Agbakoba and Ogbonna, 2004; Anessi-Pessina *et al.*, 2008). Noteworthy findings demonstrated that isomorphic pressure was linked with developed performance measures (Phillips, 2013). Interestingly it has been revealed that profession, interest services and provider are meshed with each other as a result of institutional pressures (coercive, normative, mimetic) (DiMaggio and Powell, 1999). While, some scholars considers it as constrains which obligate compliance to environmental conditions.

Therefore, the adoption of information technology was seen to have exhibited a significant relationship with social legitimacy of Hellenic Parliament from EU (Philopidou *et al.*, 2008). Coercive measures were equally used to create and sustained budgetary practices in developing countries (Uddin and Hopper, 2003; Tambulasi, 2007). However, professionals coercively through their professional networks transfer new organizational practices to their members (Robson *et al.*, 2007; Tsammenyi *et al.*, 2006). Thus, organizations acquire new knowledge and ideas through coercion, imitation and normative means (Scott, 2001). Nevertheless, enforcement of best practices are legitimately occurring through legislations and regulations by the national governments of a nation (Agbakoba and Ogbonna, 2004; Anessi-Pessina *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, significant relationship was established between coercive pressure and public utility budgeting practices of Malawi (Nor-Aziah and Scapens, 2007).

Accordingly, firms operating within a particular business environment with enforced legal system tend to perform more responsibly and honestly than those without (Frías-Aceituno *et al.*, 2013). Further evidence showed that government financial intervention leveraged the overall performance of a firm (Sheu and Chen, 2012). Nevertheless, prior study pointed out that investor's network is associated with performance (Ljungqvist *et al.*, 2007) and a positive impact of completion on firm performance (Johnson *et al.*, 2013). It was further stated that, coercive pressure exerted on industries may invariably lead to adaptation of environmental strategies (Milstein *et al.*, 2002). Thus, firms that share the same organizational field are affected in a similar customs by institutional forces that originate from them (Jennings and Zandbergen, 1995). Therefore to this extent this study argues that government can coercively pressure firms to adopt quality standards, reduce information and search cost and provide technical assistance.

A recent study confirms how social capital is strongly significant and related to industry and institutional contexts, firm age and network affiliation (Stam *et al.*, 2014). To some extent, a social network associate responds to macro-environmental pressures through available network information system (Selznick, 1957). It has been since expanded, critique and reformulated that, organizations in most cases only accepts authority of those most prominent partners that are well renowned (Hannan and Freeman, 1989). However previous studies asserted that, under normal circumstances firms reacts to changes made by powerful and influential customers (Cheng and Yu, 2008; O'Neill *et al.*, 1998). Similarly, Dyer and Nobeoka (2000) noted that, powerful external customers may determine the strategic practices of a partner in the network.

Another explanation suggests that, customer demand can to large extent forces organisations to adopt innovation of their competitors (Young *et al.*, 2001). These views reflects that, under ideal situation firms adopts "blind learning under institutional pressures" (Miller, 1996), although more need to be unravel of how those

pressures prohibits firms from learning new practices (Cheng, 2010). Normative pressures metamorphosed from professional bodies and their networks (Greenwood *et al.*, 2002). Those bodies however over sees monitor the rules and regulations guiding the operations and legitimacy of professional bodies (Robson *et al.*, 2007). further studies have confirm the impact of normative pressure on organizational practices (Robson *et al.*, 2007; Tsamenyi *et al.*, 2006; Philopidou *et al.*, 2008; Nor-Aziah and Scapens, 2007). In addition, other findings revealed the role of professionals in institutionalization of the adoption of new technologies (Philopidou *et al.*, 2088).

Thus, normative drivers were found to be associated with women entrepreneurial attitudes and segregation (Baughn *et al.*, 2006), due to the fact that organizations were socially integrated based on the context of institutional theory view. Adequate management of spiritual capital is beneficial to favourable ethical climate and potential future drawbacks (Polley *et al.*, 2005). Failure to adjust equitably to spiritual work environment exposes one to potential manipulative control (Brown, 2003). Even though some anecdotal evidences has it that stronghold of spirituality movement triggers sacrilegious attitudes towards work ethics (Ashforth and Vaidyanath, 2002)

Some theorists posit that unionism is linked with formal performance evaluation (Jackson *et al.*, 1989). Social capital enables organisations to access value resources through their personal networks (Adler and Kwon, 2002) that give them abundant potential opportunities (Bhagavatula *et al.*, 2010). Consequent some scholars emphasised on to what extent specific networks impacted of social capital performance (Stam, 2010). Thus, extant empirical evidences indicated that adaptation of personal networks facilitate evolving resource needs of a firm (Martinez and Aldrich, 2011). However, the ongoing debate was that while strong network ties are good for new firms (Hite and Hesterly, 2001), others espoused that weak network ties are appropriate for newly established firms (Elfring and Hulsink, 2007). Nevertheless, when firms invest in social relations it enhances employee goodwill and in turn leads to attainment of goals (Adler and Kwon, 2002).

Mimetic pressure allows organisations to learn from their competitors (Liu and Buck, 2007). Some firms are better motivated to integrate suitable environmental management practices (Zhu and Sarkis, 2006). This ensures opening a forum and opportunities for most organisations to learn from internationally leading competitors (Zhu and Liu, 2010). Be that as it may, mimetic isomorphism significantly influenced how some firms modelled themselves after the structures and practices of their competitors (Mizruchi and Fein 1999).

Concisely, mimicry occurs despite of the specific technical or economic payback for the adopting firm (Meyer and Rowan 1977). Consistently, the assumption of the technical value of mimetic pressure to the firm might motivate its adoption of new practices (Boiral 2007; Staw and Epstein 2000). Nevertheless, dearth of literature also indicated how mimetic motive determine the implementation of total quality (Westphal *et al.*, 1997), which gravitated towards technical and economic benefits of TQM.

Accordingly, mimetic motive is significantly associated with adaptation of decisions in conformance with strategic fit and better practices (Kostova and Roth 2002). Mimetic pressures will in particular be pertinent in situations where “organizational technologies are poorly understood [or] when goals are ambiguous” (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983, p. 151). While inconsistently some studies have shown how mimetic isomorphism receives less attention (Mizruchi and Fein 1999). Yet articulation was also made to further research the effect of the three types of institutional isomorphism to firm performance (Hillebrand *et al.*, 2011).

Empirical findings have shown that social capital provide access to all those embedded intangible resources supporting the attainment of organizational objective (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Gabbay and Leenders, 2001). Accordingly, serve as a link to several other organizational units, norms and values (Hansen, 2002). Nevertheless, coercion, normative and mimetic pressures were found to have been a driving force to 21st century organizational practices (Scott, 2001). Therefore, Williamson (1975, p. 107) espoused that, “repeated personal contacts across organizational boundaries support some minimum level of courtesy and consideration between the parties [and] discourage efforts to seek a narrow advantage in any particular transaction.” Consequently, literature has also established the position of social capital influencing lack of opportunity, motivation and transfer of group knowledge (Bartcsch *et al.*, 2013).

Advancement in mimetic pressures established how firms and individuals in an organisation normally imitate the behaviour or norms of others in the same network (Henisz and Delios, 2001). Those organisations pay close attention to those firms that belongs to their industries as well as those they have social ties with (Galaskiewicz and Wasserman, 1989). Compelling evidences revealed that trade associations, technical standards may lead to inter-firm trust and collaboration (Lewin *et al.*, 1999). Some theorists posit those unionisms are linked with formal performance evaluation (Jackson *et al.*, 1989).

Mimetic isomorphism is a well-known caused of imitative pressure today (Lu, 2002). For those firms that may likely wish to improve their operational practices mimic their competitors to survive (Guillen, 2002). In essence this simply implies that for the firms that connect for strategically longer relationships with its customers happens to imitate one another (haunschild, 1993). It has been vividly construed that firms do mimic from those who belong to the same social networking than those outside their networks (Dyer and Nobeoka, 2000). So also

was the pressure coming from those organisations serving the same target market succumb to mimetic pressure (Subramani and Ventakaraman, 2003). Nevertheless, organizations resort to mimicry in order to reap the benefit of suitable processes, procedures and practices (Greenwood *et al.*, 2002; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Thus, the study proposed that:

H_{a1}: There's a significant relationship between coercive pressure and HC, SC, RC, SpC.

H_{a2}: There's a significant relationship between normative pressure and HC, SC, RC, SpC.

H_{a3}: There's a significant relationship between mimetic pressure and HC, SC, RC, SpC.

Intellectual Capital and Organizational Performance

Empirical findings have revealed that IC is strongly associated with performance and investors response (Kehelwalatenna and Gunaratne, 2010). Therefore, IC was further found to be related to total firm performance with respect to net value added over total assets (Riahi-Belkaoui, 2003). Similarly relationship was also found between IC and market value and financial performance (Chen *et al.*, 2005). An empirical study in Singapore revealed that IC and company performance (Tan *et al.*, 2007). While another study conducted in Bank in Istanbul showed that there's a significant effect of IC on profitability (Yalama and Coskun, 2007). Thus, these justifications would invariably signify the importance of IC and its contribution on performance. This was further supported from the study that emphasized on how IC has become a major source of competitive advantage (Holland, 2003). Therefore, IC is undoubtedly a very important component in the knowledge intensive economy (Phillips and Phillips, 2002; Amidon, 2003). The aforementioned relevance of IC has led to some studies articulating the fact that less attention was previously given to IC in the social and management domain (Amir and Lev, 1996; Brennan, 2001 and Holland, 2003). Thus, the study hypothesised that:

H_{b1}: There is a significant relationship between HC and organisational performance.

H_{b2}: There is a significant relationship between SC and organisational performance.

H_{b3}: There is a significant relationship between RC and organisational performance.

H_{b4}: There is a significant relationship between SpC and organisational performance.

Institutional Pressure and Organisational Performance

Even with the burgeon of empirical investigation of the impact of institutional pressures on environmental practices, how these drivers affects social assets towards realization of performance remains unclear (Umar *et al.*, 2013). The coercive process "result from both formal and informal pressures exerted on organizations by other organizations upon which they dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organizations functions" (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983, p. 67). Coercive mechanism was however shown to have visibly a determinant of noticeable changes in the budgetary practices of local government administration (Philloppidou *et al.*, 2008). Interestingly, coercive pressure was to some extent used by the World Bank to grant developmental assistance for the enhancement of efficient and effect organizational practices in developing nations (Seal, 1999; Tambulasi, 2007). Therefore, this study posits the following hypotheses:

H_{c1}: There is a significant relationship between coercive pressure and organisational performance.

H_{c2}: There is a significant relationship between normative pressure and organisational performance.

H_{c3}: There is a significant relationship between mimetic pressure and organisational performance.

H_{d1}: IC will mediate the relationship between IP and organisational performance.

3. Methodology

The data collection will take about 4 months to complete collation of responses back and conducting interviews as an effective procedure for sequential mixed method research. The targeted population of the study is Local government senior executives. However, the targeted sample size of the study is six hundred (600) from the identified senior staffs of Local Government in Northern Nigeria. Returned responses will be manually entered into Microsoft Excel software by the researcher. Quantitative sample size will be drawn based on disproportionate stratified random sampling. After data collection we would run for demographic frequency to confirm for missing values which will be adequately sorted out and corrected. The study intends to use five Likert scales measuring the statements in the questionnaire.

A questionnaire will be used for data collection based on the prior established related scales. Normality test of the data will be conducted using the skewness and kurtosis, histogram and P-P plots test to establish normality. Consistent with the validation and reliability of the instrument, a principal component factor matrix with varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalisation will be employed to determine the suitable factors with an eigenvalue of greater than 1.

There after correlation and regression analysis will be conducted to have a feel and examine the relationship between IV, MV and DV. The key informant approach will be adopted by collecting data from an expert or knowledgeable individuals from each firm that has an in-depth understanding about the investigating phenomenon at hand. This study will ensure that each factor loading is greater than 0.3 with an approximate difference of items loadings between factors of greater than 0.5 for convergent and divergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2006) to be established. Inherently, reliability analysis demands that the item to total correlation must be greater than 0.5 with a Cronbach alpha (α) of greater than 0.6 respectively (Hair *et al.*, 2006). Cronbach alpha should have a value above 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). It will serve as a check for internal consistency of the items used in the scales by examining how well the individual items in the scales represents the common underlying constructs (Spector, 1992).

Measurement

Coercive Pressure. A total of four items were adopted (Wu *et al.*, 2012; Zhu and Geng, 2013; Umar *et al.*, 2013) and modified to suit the present purpose using 5 point Likert scale in assessing how corporate policies, plans and decisions of our firm will be influenced by central government's environmental regulations, by regional resource savings and conservation regulations, potential conflicts between products and environmental regulations will affect our firm's strategic environmental management.

Normative Pressure. We adopted the four item scale of (Wu *et al.*, 2012; Zhu and Geng, 2013; Umar *et al.*, 2013), "Environmental requirements tendency from indigenous customers will influence our firm exportation capacity, Environmental awareness and protection of Nigerian customers will influence our firm sales to foreign customers, the influence of news media on our industry image is significant, the influence of public environmental awareness, community, NGO on our firm is extremely important.

Mimetic Pressure. Four items scale were adopted and modified from (Hillebrand *et al.*, 2011; Wu *et al.*, 2012; Zhu and Geng, 2013; Umar *et al.*, 2013) "The corporate policies, plans and decisions on environmental management of our firm will be affected by competitors' environmental protection strategy, Corporate policies, plans and decisions on environmental management of our firm will be affected by professional environmental protection groups, To maintain the competitive advantage of environment-friendly products will influence our firm's corporate policies, plans and decisions on environmental management, Our organization has implemented corporate policies, plans and decisions in response to what informal pressure militants requirements".

Human Capital. We adopted the four items scale of (Bontis, 1998; Ismail, 2005; Youndt, 1998; Mehri *et al.*, 2013) "Our firm has a highly competent management team, our firm's employees can quickly adopt to changes made by firm's management without any difficulty, employees have trust and respect and work together as a partnership team, In comparison to other firms, our employees relatively have the competitive capabilities".

Structural Capital. Is a four measure item scale adopted and modified from (Bontis, 1998 and Youndt, 1998; Mehri *et al.*, 2013) the scales are policies, procedures and work instructions in our firm departments are based on Knowledge and information and embedded in structure, systems, procedures, manuals and databases; if key employees leave our firm departments, vital knowledge and information will always remained with the firm; employees are accessibility to the information system required to perform their jobs; our information system is not integrated with vendor's system; we use extensive and advanced integrated management systems in our business operations to better serve our customers.

Relational Capital. Were adopted and modified from (Bontis, 1998; Ismail, 2005; Youndt, 1998; Mehri *et al.*, 2013), "Our vendors have performed extremely well in supporting my firm to achieve our business targets; my firm's departments use customer feedbacks effectively in our effort to provide quality services to our customers; different stakeholders such as government agencies, suppliers and so on provide good support to us in our effort to serve the people better; my firm's departments use the feedback and recommendations from vendors to produce better products and services to our customers.

Spiritual Capital. Were measured using four item scale based on (Bontis, 1998, 1999; Ismail, 2005; Youndt, 1998; Mehri *et al.*, 2013) “Our employees have strong faith in the management team in performing their duties; our employees are thankful, loyal and committed to their work; our employees will never leave the firm, even though other competitors are offering better salaries and incentives; our firm's management always considers environmental health and public social benefits in planning, development and implementation of our projects.

Organisational Performance. However, a multidimensional measures of performance was adopted and used based on the scales of (Bontis, 1998) “Industry leadership, future outlook, profit growth, sales growth.

4. Conclusion

This study brings to light that the linkages between institutional pressure, intellectual capital and organisational performance are apparently existing but with modest intensity. Thus, it is evident that the more the IC the better for an organisation (Dumay, 2012; Guthrie, *et al.*, 2012; Mouritsen, *et al.*, 2001). However, the fact that IC can also destroy value tends to be overlooked and therefore, intellectual liabilities (IL) are not managed in practice; this aspect has not yet been adequately developed in research (Santis and Giuliani, 2012, p.22). That was why surprising most empirical investigations of IC recorded temperate success (Hislop, 2005).

Even with the burgeon of empirical investigation of the impact of institutional pressures on environmental practices, how these drivers affects social assets towards realization of performance remains unclear (Wu *et al.*, 2012; Umar *et al.*, 2013). As lately pointed out, ‘our understanding of factors that foster strong environmental management practices within a firm, particularly with operations at the plant level, still remains limited’ (Klassen, 2001, p. 257). Developing and maintaining tangible and intangible resources by organisations to guard against environmental practices could sustain competitive advantage (Sarkis *et al.*, 2010; Darnall *et al.*, 2008a). Hence, the field is still open to investigate the effect of coercive and normative pressures on firm strategies (Delmas and Toffel, 2004). Therefore, findings of this study may better explain the relationship between institutional pressure, intellectual capital and organisational performance.

The study further extends the previous Model by inclusion of new-knowledge gap (Institutional Pressure and Organisational performance). Hence, it contributes to the Institutional Theory and resource based view (RBV) theory by employing Intellectual Capital model to evaluate the effect of Intellectual Capital on Institutional Pressure and Organisational Performance. It is a pioneer study in Nigeria to examine the impact of Institutional Pressure on Organisational Performance through Intellectual Capital. It is recommended that organisations should utilize the applicability of intellectual capital in achieving Organisational performance.

It is also recommended that firms should recognize specific metrics relevant to them towards measuring organisational performance. Organisations should increase the use of intellectual capital in reducing the gap in the differences in organisation’s performance perception. Managers should recognised not only the intangible value creation (Positive IC) but, intangible value destruction as well (negative IC; losing trained employee). Further investigation of the consequences of intangible liabilities on organisation’s performance is a potential future research avenue.

Other attributes such as informal social mechanism, culture, power supply, and individual characteristics i.e. gender possess’ potential areas for future research. Future research could also take into account the effect of training, attachment, innovation on both value creation and value destruction. More research on this topic need to be undertaken to broaden our understanding of the contribution of institutional isomorphism to intellectual capital and organisation performance.

5. References

- Clemens, B., Douglas, T.J. (2006). Does coercion drive firms to adopt ‘voluntary’ green initiatives? Relationships among coercion, superior firm resources, and voluntary green initiatives. *Journal Business Research* 59, 483–491.
- Darnall, N., Henriques, I., Sadorsky, P. (2008a). Do environmental management systems improve business performance in an international setting? *Journal of International Management* 14, 364–376.

-
- Delmas, M. and Toffel, M.W. (2004). Stakeholders and Environmental Management Practices: An Institutional Framework, *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 13, 209–222
- Dumay, J. (2012). Grand theories as barriers to using IC concepts. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 13(1), 4-15
- Gonzalez-Torre, P., Alvarez, M., Sarkis, J., Adenso-Diaz, B. (2010). Barriers to the implementation of environmentally oriented reverse logistics: evidence from the automotive industry sector. *British Journal of Management*, 21, 889–904.
- Guthrie, J., Ricceri, F. and Dumay, J. (2012). Reflections and projections: A decade of intellectual capital accounting research. *British Accounting Review*, 44(2), 68-82.
- Hislop, D. (2005). *Knowledge Management in Organizations*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Klassen, R.D. (2001). Plant-level environmental management orientation: the influence of management views and plant characteristics. *Production and Operations Management* 10, 257–275.
- Mehri, M., Shamszadeh, B. and Umar, M.S. (2013). An Overlooked of Intellectual Liabilities within the Intellectual Capital. 5th *International Conference on intellectual Capital Management (IICM2013)*, 11th-12th September, Zanjan Science & Technology Park-IASBS-Iran.
- Mouritsen, J., Larsen, H.T. and Bukh, P.N.D. (2001). Intellectual capital and the 'capable firm': Narrating, visualising and numbering for managing knowledge, *Accounting Organizations and Society*, 26(7-8), 735-762.
- Umar, M.S., Hamid, A.A., Mehri, M., Chikaji, A.I. and Kaigama, N.A. (2013). The Impact of External Drivers on Women Entrepreneurs Perception towards Supplier Performance in Nigerian SME Practices: The Mediating Effect of Enforcement Mechanisms. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*. 3(2), 1-13.
- Santis, F. and Giuliani, M. (2012). A look on the other side: Investigating Intellectual Liabilities not All Sunshine and Roses: Discovering. *Emerald*.
- Sarkis, J., Gonzalez-Torre, P., Adenso-Diaz, B. (2010). Stakeholder pressure and the adoption of environmental practices: the mediating effect of training. *Journal Operations Management*, 28, 163–176
- Sarkis, J., Zhu, Q., Lai, K.-h. (2011). An organizational theoretic review of green supply chain management literature. *International Journal Production Economics*, 130, 1–15.
- Wu, G., Ding, J. and Chen, P. (2012). The effects of GSCM drivers and institutional pressures on GSCM practices in Taiwan's textile and apparel industry. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 135(), 618-636.

The Role of Perceived Organizational Support and Emotional Intelligence towards Workplace Deviance among Teachers

Siti Aisyah Panatik¹⁺, Tan Ah Meng¹, Hamidah Abdul Rahman¹, Azizah Rajab²

¹Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai, Johor

²Language Academy, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai, Johor

Abstract Workplace deviant behaviour has been a challenging issue for the organization today. It is widely recognized as it leads to major loss in organization's productivity. Thus, this research aims to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence towards workplace deviant behaviour among secondary school teachers. The study was carried out at nine secondary schools in Pasir Gudang district by using cross-sectional survey design. A total of 359 respondents were participated in this study. The data were analyzed using correlation and simple regression. The findings indicated that both perceived organizational support ($r=-0.38, p<0.01$) and emotional intelligence ($r=-0.23, p<0.01$) have a weak negative but significant relationship with the workplace deviant behaviour. In addition, the regression result indicated both perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence have significant impact on workplace deviance. The findings may help the school organization to understand the impact of organizational support and emotional intelligence of individual teacher to develop suitable course in handling workplace deviance.

Keywords: workplace deviance, perceived organizational support, emotional intelligence.

1. Introduction

In today's world, productivity is the crucial element in bringing the organization strives towards the strategic goals. The prevalence and occurrence of workplace deviance is recognized as devastating incident which brought to catastrophic loss on organizations and employees. The costs of workplace deviant behaviours are expensive for any organization, and these behaviours can be range from: leaving work earlier (Ferguson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012), work theft (Chen & Spector, 2011), sexual harassment (Popovich & Warren, 2010), workplace bullying (Murray, 2009; Neuman, 2012), and other behaviour like sabotaging company assets and taking excessive break (Robinson, 2008). The effort in dealing workplace deviance has become challenging as it is unnoticed by organization and unreported by employees until the significance loss of productivity.

In Malaysia context, a number of complaints have been made by public towards the civil servants, especially teachers. For instance, there is more than 60 cases received a month regarding the incivility of public servant, which including teachers (Pinvader, 2010, November 29). In addition, it was found that they frequently leave the workplace without permission or even leave earlier before the working hours (Kumar, 2012, August 10). Moreover, 200 complaints regarding problematic teachers in the first six months of 2007 were disclosed, where 37% for absenteeism, 17% for sexual harassment, 15% for bribery and corruption, and 10.5% for dishonesty and failure to obey the directives (Rajagopal & Wasilan, 2007, June 38). However, it is believed there are many cases of deviance remained unreported.

+ Corresponding author Tel.: +607-5610106 (office)

E-mail address: sitiaisyah@management.utm.my.

The concerns towards workplace deviant behaviour has become prominent among researchers in exploring the cause and effect relationship of workplace deviance (Muafi, 2011; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Previous researchers have found limited organizational support given to the employees will lead the employee engaged in deviant behaviour (Alias, Rasdi, Ismail, & Samah, 2013). Moreover, limited emotional regulation

skills also lead the employees act rashly and eventually engaged in deviant behaviour (Deshpande, Joseph, & Shu, 2005). Thus, this study aims to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence towards workplace deviant behaviour among secondary school teachers.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Workplace Deviance

A number of researchers have tried to develop a comprehensive classification of deviant behaviour, but they have only focused on the deviance that affects the well-beings of organization. Based on these frameworks, Robinson and Bennett (1995) has introduced a typology of workplace deviance, which also examining the cost towards individual personnel brought by the interpersonal deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Muafi, 2011; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The framework introduced by Robinson and Bennett (1995) consisted of two dimensions, which is interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. Interpersonal deviance consisted of the deviant behaviour that aims towards other individual worker, such as blaming, bullying, and gossiping about others. In addition, organizational deviance involves destructive behaviour of individual towards the organization, such as sabotage, leave early, or work theft (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson, 2008).

Thus, workplace deviant behaviour is defined as the employees' personal voluntary effort and behaviour that go against and violate the organizational norms which might threaten the well-beings of individual colleague, productivity of organization, or both (Robinson, 2008; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Extensive number of researches has confirmed workplace deviance is negative, unpleasant, and disruptive behaviour that has negative relationship towards individual personnel and organizational well-being (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Jelinek, 2012; Robinson, 2008). In fact, workplace deviance serve as the challenges for organizational growth (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). Furthermore, workplace bullying can eventually leads to lower level of morale and self-esteem, higher level of stress and depression, and profound impact in psychological health of victim employee (de Gouda, Van Vuuren, & Crafford, 2005; Duffy & Sperry, 2007). In the worst situation, organization might need to take responsibility and face the possible lawsuit regarding the workplace aggression, even though these behaviours were aimed at individual workers (Speedy, 2006). Therefore, the first objective in this study is to determine the prevalence of workplace deviance among secondary school teachers.

2.2 Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support is developed from organizational support theory (OST) and it is defined as the extent on the perception of employees believe their organization (1) values their contribution and effort, (2) care about their well-beings and development, and (3) fulfill their socioemotional needs (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It is believed there is positive reciprocity norm existed between the organization and employees, where the employees will perform better when they received rewards and appreciation from the organization (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). For instance, by acknowledge the contribution of individual employee towards the task assigned can help in increasing his/her self-esteem and meet his/her needs for approval and esteem. Individual employee will then treat it as the positive evaluation and recognition from the organization, thus increase their effort in future for the sake of organization growth (Shore & Shore, 1995).

The studies has showed that perceived organizational support is positively related to the organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance of employees (Eisenberger, et al., 2001; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Furthermore, higher level of perceived organizational support among employees will lessen the withdrawal behaviours and alleviate psychological strains and stress of employees (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Jawahar, Stone, & Kisamore, 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As the effort is being recognized, the employees are more likely and willingly engaged in future task assigned by putting fully effort. Unfortunately, there is also reciprocity norm occurred where employees withhold their effort when they did not receive any appreciation or compensation aligned with the contribution towards the tasks. Therefore, the second objective in this study is to examine the level of perceived organizational support among secondary school teachers.

2.3 Emotional Intelligence

The term emotional intelligence was first proposed in the scientific academic literature by Salovey and Mayer in the year of 1990 (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). Emotional intelligence is defined as the set

of abilities that enable a person to recognize, comprehend, monitor, and handle or dealing with one's own and others' feelings and emotional states, to differentiate among them and use this information to direct one's thinking and behaviours that successfully cope with environmental demands and pressures (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Thus, the individuals who are high in emotional intelligence will be better in emotion appraisal ability and emotion regulation ability in order to enhance decision making and living even in the hassle environment, rather than act rashly and aggressively (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998).

Previous researches have also found that higher scores of emotional intelligence is associated with higher interpersonal relationship (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). In addition, lower scores of emotional intelligence means using emotion to facilitate thought, which is then coupled with negative outcomes, including substance abuse, deviant behaviour, and poor relations with friends (Brackett, et al., 2004). Furthermore, those with high emotional intelligence are able to regulate their emotion and avoid themselves engaging in misbehaviours or deviant behaviour that will harm the organization they work. Research also confirmed higher emotional intelligence is related to important workplace outcomes such as stress tolerance and peer and supervisor ratings on interpersonal facilitation (Lopes, Cote, Grewal, Cadis, Gall & Salovey, 2006). Therefore, the third objective in this study is to examine the level of emotional intelligence among secondary school teachers.

2.4 Perceived Organizational Support and Workplace Deviance

A number of studies have been carried out and past researches have supported that perceived organizational support was negatively related to workplace deviant behaviour among employees (Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). A research that involved 173 sales and customer service employees and 122 clerical employees has showed that employees who received high level of organizational support were less likely engaged in interpersonal deviance (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). Moreover, a study involved 187 workers of manufacture factories and 640 employees of electronics and appliances store in U.S. have found that high level of perceived organizational support reduces the organizational deviance in workplaces, especially work group withdrawal and individual withdrawal (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). The researchers suggested that higher level of perceived organizational support indicated the socioemotional needs of employees have been fulfilled, which resulted in higher satisfactions and prevent employees from engage in destructive behaviours.

A study involved 237 employees from various occupations has found that the perceived organizational support is positively correlated with organization-based self-esteem of employees. It was then lessen the chance of employees engaged in organizational deviance like work theft and taking excessive breaks (Ferris, et al., 2009). Researchers suggested that an employee who had received social support from the organization has higher self-esteem and percept himself as important, effectual, and worthwhile within organization. In Pakistan, a study showed limited organizational support has contributed to counterproductive behaviour among 508 employees of telecom and IT companies (Khan, Quratulain, & Crawshaw, 2013). This study showed that procedural injustice and unfair human resource policies have lead to emotional consequences among employees, like anger and sadness. Then, they engaged in destructive behaviours like verbal threaten, purposely worked slow, and work theft. It was providing insight that how organizational support can prevent potential destructive behaviours in workplace. Therefore, the forth objective in this study is to investigate the effect of perceived organizational support on workplace deviance among secondary school teachers.

2.5 Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Deviance

Extensive researches about emotional intelligence and workplace deviance has been carried out. In United States, a study involved 220 employees from various occupation and 100 new entrants of residential treatment centre have found that employees who were high in emotion regulation ability were related to higher task performance, engaged in organizational citizenship behaviour and less likely engaged in workplace deviant behaviour (Kluemper, DeGroot, & Choi, 2013). The researchers suggested that employees who have inadequate emotion regulation ability would express and control their emotion ineffectively which then leads to lower productivity. Contradictory, some studies has showed that emotional intelligence contributed in workplace deviance. In a study conducted among 234 individual employees from diverse industries has showed emotional intelligence is positively related both interpersonal and organization deviance (Winkel, Wyland, Shaffer, & Clason, 2011). Researchers suggested an employee with high emotional intelligence is more effective in adapting environments. They then develop necessary networks in aiding them exert the control and influence to achieve his target deviant behaviours.

In contrast, a study involved 73 undergraduates who have employed experiences and 45 managers in China has found that the emotional intelligence has greater impact in prohibiting the occurrence of workplace deviant behaviour (Deshpande, et al., 2005). Consistently, a study on the relationship between emotional

intelligence and workplace deviant behaviour among 225 police personnel in Nigeria has found that negative significant relationship between emotional intelligence and unethical or deviant workplace behaviours, although it was conducted in effort-rewards imbalance settings (Ojedokun, 2010). The findings suggested emotional intelligence serve as crucial element in preventing workplace deviance, as it helps to better regulation of emotion among personnel when they received unfair treatment in adverse situation. Therefore, fifth objective in this study is to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on workplace deviance among secondary school teachers.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

There were 3038 secondary school teachers service in 33 secondary schools in Pasir Gudang district. According to Krejcie and Morgan's table, a sample size of 346 participants was needed in this study (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The study has utilized simple random sampling. Thus, a total of 465 set of bilingual version self-report questionnaires were distributed to nine secondary schools through the counsellors of each school. A total of 372 questionnaires were returned, giving 80% of return rate. However, 13 questionnaires were eliminated as they were incomplete or ranked in same score for all items. Thus, a total of 359 respondents were participated in this study.

Majority of respondents have average age ranged from 20 years to 29 years and from 30 years to 39 years, which marked 42.3% and 39.3% respectively. Furthermore, they were made up of 76.9% of female and 23.1% of male teachers. With respect to their racial identity, 80.2% were Malay, 10.9% were Indian, 8.4% were Chinese, and 0.6% referred to other racial categories. Moreover, majority of them were married which showed 67.1%, while 32.6% were single and 0.3% were divorced. In addition, the findings indicated that majority of respondents have year of service in teaching less than five years or between five years to ten years, which marked by 39.3% and 28.4% respectively.

3.2 Instrument

This study assessed workplace deviance based on two dimensions, which are interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. Workplace deviance was measured using Workplace Deviant Behaviour Scale (WDBS) developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). This instrument has 19 items, where 7 items represent interpersonal deviance and 12 items represent organizational deviance. The respondents were required to answer on 7-point Likert scale (1 = never; 7 = daily) to measure the frequency they engaged in certain deviant behaviour in workplace.

This study employed eight items shorter version of Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) developed from original 36-items SPOS (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This instrument has four reversed items. The respondents were required to answer on 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) to measure their perception towards the support given by school organization.

This study assessed emotional intelligence of respondents by using Schutte's Emotional Intelligence Scale, SEIS (Schutte, et al., 1998). This instrument has 33 items and it is single factor instrument which developed from original 62-items pool. Moreover, SEIS has three reversed items. The respondents were required to answer on 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) to measure their level of emotional intelligence.

In order to provide respondents a better understanding on the meanings and concepts of each item, the administration of survey was done by using bilingual version, which was original English version item followed by Malay version item. Thus, a careful translation and back-translation technique has been used with the assistance of subject matter expert in Malay and English language. The pilot study which involved 21 secondary school teachers has showed high reliability for each three instruments as the Cronbach's alpha for WDBS, SPOS, and SEIS were 0.82, 0.90, and 0.96 respectively. The Cronbach' alpha for WDBS, SPOS, and SEIS in this study were 0.87, 0.89, 0.94 respectively, which demonstrated high reliability for each three instruments. The analysis is carried out by using SPSS version 18.0.

4. Results

Table 1 showed the level and mean value of each variable. Although the mean value of interpersonal deviance ($m=1.81$) was higher than organizational deviance ($m=1.52$), but both mean values indicated a low level deviant behaviour among the secondary school teachers. In overall, the mean value of workplace deviance was $m=1.63$, which indicated a low level of prevalence in workplace deviance. Then, the mean value of

perceived organizational support was $m=3.51$, which demonstrated medium level. Lastly, the mean value of emotional intelligence was $m=3.81$, which indicated high level of emotional intelligence among secondary school teachers.

Table 1: The level for each variable among secondary school teacher

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level
Workplace Deviance	1.63	0.61	Low
Interpersonal Deviance	1.81	0.89	Low
Organizational Deviance	1.52	0.56	Low
Perceived Organizational Support	3.51	0.70	Medium
Emotional Intelligence	3.81	0.45	High

Table 2 demonstrated the findings of Pearson correlation between dimensions of workplace deviance with perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence among secondary school teachers. The findings showed there was a weak negative correlation between perceived organizational support and interpersonal deviance ($r=-0.30$, $p<0.01$). Moreover, there was also a weak negative correlation between perceived organizational support and organizational deviance ($r=-0.38$, $p<0.01$). In overall, perceived organizational support has a weak and negative relationship with workplace deviance among secondary school teachers ($r=-0.38$, $p<0.01$). Thus, hypothesis 1, 1(a), and 1(b) are accepted.

Furthermore, the findings showed there was a weak negative correlation between emotional intelligence and interpersonal deviance ($r=-0.15$, $p<0.01$). Then, result indicated there was also weak negative correlation between emotional intelligence and organizational deviance ($r=-0.27$, $p<0.01$). In overall, emotional intelligence has a weak and negative relationship with workplace deviance among secondary school teachers ($r=-0.23$, $p<0.01$). Thus, hypothesis 2, 2(a), and 2(b) are accepted. In general, perceived organizational support has a stronger negative relationship with workplace deviance and its dimensions, compared to emotional intelligence.

Table 2: The relationship among the variables

Variables	Interpersonal Deviance		Organizational Deviance		Workplace Deviance	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Perceived Organizational Support	-0.30**	0.00	-0.38**	0.00	-0.38**	0.00
Emotional Intelligence	-0.15**	0.006	-0.27**	0.00	-0.23**	0.00

Note: ** $p<0.01$; N=359

Table 3 demonstrated the findings of simple regression among variables. The results indicated perceived organizational support contributed 15% in predicting the workplace deviance among secondary school teachers. Moreover, emotional intelligence explained 6% in the occurrence of workplace deviance. Specifically, perceived organizational support ($\beta = -0.38$, $p<0.01$) and emotional intelligence ($\beta = -0.23$, $p<0.01$) have significantly predicted the workplace deviance.

Table 3: Simple regression among variables

Variables	Workplace Deviance	
	β	p
Perceived Organizational Support	-0.38**	0.00
$R = 0.38$ $R^2 = 0.15$ $F(1,357) = 60.93$		
Perceived Organizational Support	-0.23**	0.00
$R = 0.23$ $R^2 = 0.06$ $F(1,357) = 20.65$		

Note: ** $p < 0.01$, $N = 359$

5. Discussion

This study has found out the prevalence of workplace deviance among secondary school teachers were remained in low level. Moreover, there was medium level of perceived organizational support. This result showed teachers have received satisfied level of support given by organization, which have meet their socioemotional needs (Eisenberger, et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In addition, the findings showed that emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers were in high level. The high level of emotional intelligence reflected the teachers have better emotional management and regulation (Bar-On, 2000).

The relationship between perceived organizational support and workplace deviance in this study has been supported by previous researches (Colbert, et al., 2004; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Ferris, et al., 2009; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson, 2003; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Thau, et al., 2009). In specific, the perceived organizational support is negatively related to workplace deviance, both interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance among secondary school teachers. This relationship has showed organizational support helps to meet individual employees' needs for approval, esteem, and affiliation (Eisenberger, et al., 2001). As their previous contribution and individual well-beings has been valued by organization, the employees will then decrease their misbehavior and increase their effort for the sake of organization (Shore & Shore, 1995). Thus, it is confirmed that socioemotional needs of employees should not be neglected by organization.

On the other hand, the results of relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace deviance has also been supported by previous researches (Aremu, Pakes, & Johnston, 2011; Deshpande, et al., 2005; Hu, 2012; Kluemper, et al., 2013; Ojedokun, 2010; Samad, 2011; Yunus, Khalid, & Nordin, 2012). In specific, emotional intelligence is negatively related to workplace deviance, both interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance among secondary school teachers. Also, employees high in emotional intelligence better regulate their emotion and manage the unpleasant experience when they are service in people-oriented or customer-oriented task (Hu, 2012). Thus, authorities should not neglected the development of emotional intelligence among teachers and employees, as it can be learned and strengthen through classroom training and life experience (Bar-On, 2000).

Hence, this study serves as an extension of knowledge to get to the bottom of the relationship between perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence towards workplace deviant behaviour, where these studies are limited in Malaysia. Also, this study highlights the importance of organizational support and development of emotional intelligence among employees. Thus, the findings could be serve as references for organization in boosting the productivity of employees and lessen the workplace deviance, by carry out appropriate programs and remedy in correcting previous flaws.

However, there are few limitations in this study. First, this study involved a small sample size and was limited to respondents in Pasir Gudang district. Thus, the findings may not be utilized to represent the whole population of Malaysian teachers. Secondly, the administration of study was conducted through self-report survey. Thus, limitation existed as some participants might not respond honestly and answer in socially acceptable manner. Lastly, current study only examines perceived organizational support and emotional

intelligence on the occurrence of workplace deviance. As there was limited time and resources, limitation existed when this study does not account other factors, such as organizational climate, job stress, and others on the occurrence of workplace deviance.

In conclusion, this study has highlights the importance of organizational support and emotional intelligence in the occurrence of workplace deviance. However, more studies are required to explore other factors related to workplace deviance, in order to provide a more comprehensive explanation for the occurrence of workplace deviance in Malaysia context.

6. References

- Alias, M., Rasdi, R. M., Ismail, M., & Samah, B. A. (2013). Predictors of workplace deviant behaviour: HRD agenda for Malaysian support personnel. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 37(2), 161-182.
- Aremu, A. O., Pakes, F., & Johnston, L. (2011). The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the reduction of corruption in the Nigerian Police. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 12(3), 195-208.
- Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), *Handbook of emotional intelligence*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(3), 349-360.
- Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D., & Warner, R. M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1387-1402.
- Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (2011). Relationships of work stressors with aggression, withdrawal, theft and substance use: An exploratory study. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 65(3), 177-184.
- Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L., & Barrick, M. R. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(4), 599-609.
- Cropanzano, R., Howes, J. C., Grandey, A. A., & Toth, P. (1997). The relationship of organizational politics and support to work behaviors, attitudes, and stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(2), 159-180.
- de Gouda, C., Van Vuuren, L., & Crafford, A. (2005). Towards a Typology of gossip in the workplace. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(2).
- Deshpande, S. P., Joseph, J., & Shu, X. (2005). The impact of emotional intelligence on counterproductive behaviour in China. *Management Research News*, 28(5), 75-85.
- Duffy, M., & Sperry, L. (2007). Workplace mobbing: Individual and family health consequences. *The Family Journal*, 15(4), 398-404.
- Dunlop, P. D., & Lee, K. (2004). Workplace deviance, organizational citizenship behavior, and business unit performance: The bad apples do spoil the whole barrel. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(1), 67-80.
- Eder, P., & Eisenberger, R. (2008). Perceived organizational support: Reducing the negative influence of coworker withdrawal behavior. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 55-68.
- 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.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, 71(3), 500-507.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(3), 565-573.
- Ferguson, M., Carlson, D., Hunter, E., & Whitten, D. (2012). A Two-Study Examination of Work-Family Conflict, Production Deviance and Gender. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*.
- Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. *Psicothema*, 18(Suplemento), 7-12.
- Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., & Heller, D. (2009). Organizational supports and organizational deviance: The mediating role of organization-based self-esteem. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(2), 279-286.
- Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C., Perrewe, P. L., & Johnson, D. (2003). Perceived organizational support as a mediator of the relationship between politics perceptions and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(3), 438-456.

- Hu, H.-H. (2012). The influence of employee emotional intelligence on coping with supervisor abuse in a banking context. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 40(5), 863-874.
- Jawahar, I., Stone, T. H., & Kisamore, J. L. (2007). Role conflict and burnout: The direct and moderating effects of political skill and perceived organizational support on burnout dimensions. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 142.
- Jelinek, K. (2012). Deviance at RKG LLP. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 27(2), 475-491.
- Khan, A. K., Quratulain, S., & Crawshaw, J. R. (2013). The Mediating Role of Discrete Emotions in the Relationship Between Injustice and Counterproductive Work Behaviors: A Study in Pakistan. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 28(1), 49-61.
- Kluemper, D. H., DeGroot, T., & Choi, S. (2013). Emotion management ability: Predicting task performance, citizenship, and deviance. *Journal of Management*, 39(4), 878-905.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educ Psychol Meas.*
- Kumar, S. A. (2012, August 10). Kakitangan awam curi tulang. *Berita Harian*. Retrieved May 15, 2013, from <http://www.bharian.com.my/bharian/articles/Kakitanganawamcuritulang/Article/>
- Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2007). Ain't misbehavin': Workplace deviance as organizational resistance. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 378-394.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: educational implications*. New York: Basic Books.
- Muafi. (2011). Causes and consequences deviant workplace behavior. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 2(2), 123-126.
- Murray, J. S. (2009). Workplace bullying in nursing: A problem that can't be ignored. *MedSurg Nursing*, 18(5), 273-276.
- Neuman, J. H. (2012). Workplace Violence and Aggression: When You Do Not Want Your Company on the News. *Work and Quality of Life*, 343-373.
- Ojedokun, O. (2010). Effort-reward imbalance and attitude towards unethical work behaviour among police personnel: emotional intelligence as a moderator. *IFE Psychologia*, 18(1).
- Pinvader. (2010, November 29). Aduan Babit Penjawat Awam Biadap Makin Meningkatkan – Murugiah. *Utusan Malaysia Online*. Retrieved May 15, 2013, from <http://www.utusan-malaysia-online.com/aduan-babit-penjawat-awam-biadap-makin-meningkat-murugiah>
- Popovich, P. M., & Warren, M. A. (2010). The role of power in sexual harassment as a counterproductive behavior in organizations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(1), 45-53.
- Rajagopal, M., & Wasilan, N. (2007, June 38). 200 guru bermasalah kena tindakan. *The Star*. Retrieved May 15, 2013, from http://mstar.com.my/berita/cerita.asp?file=/2007/6/28/TERKINI/Mutakhir/200_guru_bermasalah_kena_tindakan&sec=mstar_berita
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 698-714.
- Robinson, S. L. (2008). Dysfunctional workplace behavior. *The Sage handbook of organizational behavior*, 1, 141-159.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of management journal*, 38(2), 555-572.
- Samad, S. (2011). Examining the Effects of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship between Organizational Politics and Job Performance. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(6), 119-126.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., et al. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(2), 167-177.
- L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 91(3), 689.
- Shore, L. M., & Shore, T. H. (1995). Perceived organizational support and organizational justice. In R. S. Cropanzano & K. M. Kacmar (Eds.), *Organizational politics, justice, and support: Managing the social climate of the workplace*. Westport: Quorum.
- Speedy, S. (2006). Workplace violence: the dark side of organisational life. *Contemporary Nurse*, 21(2), 239-250.
- Thau, S., Bennett, R. J., Mitchell, M. S., & Marrs, M. B. (2009). How management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance: An uncertainty management theory perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(1), 79-92.

Winkel, D. E., Wyland, R. L., Shaffer, M. A., & Clason, P. (2011). A new perspective on psychological resources: Unanticipated consequences of impulsivity and emotional intelligence. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 84(1), 78-94.

Yunus, O. M., Khalid, K., & Nordin, S. M. (2012). A personality trait and workplace deviant behaviors. *Elixir Human Res. Mgmt.*, 47, 8678-8683.

Peranan Kepimpinan Transformasi terhadap Motivasi Pekerja di Sebuah Kerajaan Tempatan di Johor

Shah Rollah Abdul Wahab⁸, Noorsyazwani Sahari, Azizah Rajab², Mohd Effandi Yusoff¹ dan Roziana Shaari¹

¹Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai, Johor

²Language Academy, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai, Johor

Abstrak: Kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengenalpasti hubungan di antara gaya kepimpinan transformasi penyelia terhadap motivasi pekerja di salah sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor. Berdasarkan kajian lepas, gaya kepimpinan ketua memberi pengaruh yang signifikan kepada motivasi pekerja di tempat kerja. Kajian ini merupakan kajian berbentuk deskriptif dan menggunakan borang soal selidik sebagai instrumen kajian untuk mengumpul data. Borang soal selidik tersebut mengandungi tiga bahagian utama iaitu Bahagian A (Latar Belakang Responden), Bahagian B (Kepimpinan Transformasi) dan Bahagian C (Motivasi Pekerja). Responden kajian telah dipilih secara persampelan rawak mudah iaitu seramai 75 orang daripada salah sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor. Data yang diperolehi telah dianalisis menggunakan perisian *Statistical Package for Sosial Science (SPSS)* versi 22.0. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa kepimpinan transformasi mempunyai hubungan yang positif dan signifikan kepada motivasi pekerja ($r=0.658$). Ia bermaksud peranan ketua yang mengamalkan gaya kepimpinan transformasi dikenalpasti mampu meningkatkan motivasi pekerja untuk bekerja.

Keywords: kepimpinan transformasi, motivasi pekerja, kerajaan tempatan

1. Pengenalan

Kejayaan sesebuah organisasi diukur berdasarkan pendapatan dan produktiviti tahunannya. Kepimpinan dilihat sebagai komponen yang signifikan dalam menentukan kejayaan sebuah organisasi (Abd. Rahim, 2006). Namun demikian, Laporan Pertumbuhan Produktiviti Malaysia menjelaskan bahawa terdapat kemerosotan produktiviti bagi sektor perkhidmatan pada tahun 2011 dan 2012 iaitu sebanyak 0.8 peratus (Laporan Produktiviti 2012/2013, 2013). Salah satu faktor yang menyumbang kepada kemerosotan produktiviti organisasi adalah disebabkan oleh kelemahan daripada segi kepimpinan dan pengurusan (Nuratiqah *et. al.*, 2010). Terdapat pelbagai gaya kepimpinan yang dikemukakan oleh para sarjana dan yang paling mempengaruhi dalam situasi hari ini ialah gaya kepimpinan transformasi (Ungku Norulkamar *et. al.*, 2003).

Kepimpinan transformasi boleh dirujuk sebagai keupayaan seseorang pemimpin untuk meningkatkan motivasi pengikutnya untuk melaksanakan perancangan yang telah dibentuk oleh pihak pengurusan atasan (Krishnan, 2005). Dalam situasi ini, motivasi berperanan sebagai satu agen penggerak dalam diri manusia untuk melakukan atau tidak melakukan sesuatu pekerjaan (Najib, 2004). Oleh yang demikian, pemimpin yang mengamalkan gaya transformasi dikenalpasti berupaya memotivasikan pengikutnya untuk melakukan sesuatu pekerjaan dengan cemerlang (Ghani *et. al.*, 2008). Teori-teori berkaitan motivasi telah mengalami beberapa evolusi dan perkembangan dan antara yang terkemuka adalah Teori Dua Faktor (Higien dan Motivator), Teori Hierarki Keperluan Maslow, Teori Jangkaan Victor-Vroom dan Teori ERG (Ishak, 2006).

⁸ Corresponding author. Tel.: +07 55610110
E-mail address: shah@management.utm.my

2. Kajian Literatur

Kepimpinan transformasi mempunyai hubungan positif dengan pencapaian organisasi termasuklah prestasi pekerja, kepuasan kerja, motivasi kerja, komitmen organisasi, pemberian kuasa, kreatif dan inovatif (Joo *et. al.*, 2012). Sebagai contoh kajian oleh Masi dan Cooke (2000) dan Chaudhry *et al.* (2012) yang menjelaskan bahawa kemampuan pemimpin untuk membangunkan sepenuhnya kebolehan pekerja dapat meningkatkan motivasi kerja mereka dan seterusnya menyumbang kepada produktiviti organisasi. Dalam situasi ini, pemimpin dilihat sebagai seorang yang berusaha untuk meningkatkan kesedaran pengikutnya supaya melaksanakan kerja bukan untuk kepentingan organisasi tetapi untuk pembangunan sendiri dan kerjaya (Hellriegel *et. al.*, 2004). Dalam pada masa yang sama, pekerja juga merasakan pemimpin harus mengubah cara pemikiran pengikut dengan memberi ransangan positif untuk mereka lebih komited di dalam organisasi.

Menurut Bass dan Riggio (2006) seorang ketua boleh memotivasikan pengikutnya dengan cara berkongsi matlamat organisasi dan merangsang pemikiran mereka untuk menjadi seorang yang lebih kreatif dalam penyelesaian masalah di organisasi. Oleh yang demikian, pemimpin haruslah memberikan perhatian yang mencukupi kepada pengikutnya supaya mereka berasa dihargai dan seterusnya memotivasikan diri untuk bekerja (Polychroniou, 2009). Ini kerana, penghargaan tersebut menjadikan pengikutnya merasa kagum, setia, hormat dan percaya terhadap kewibawaan pemimpin dan akhirnya membantu kepada peningkatan motivasi dan kecemerlangan prestasi pekerja (Charbonneau, 2004). Sehubungan dengan situasi ini, kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengenalpasti bagaimana kepemimpinan transformasi boleh mempengaruhi motivasi dalam kalangan pekerja di sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor.

3. Methodologi

Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah persampelan rawak mudah di mana kesemua populasi kajian mempunyai kebarangkalian yang sama untuk dipilih sebagai responden kajian (Babbie, 2013). Seramai 80 orang pekerja daripada kakitangan sokongan dipilih secara rawak melalui bantuan aplikasi Research Randomizer. Sebanyak 75 set sahaja (93.8%) berjaya dipulangkan kepada pengkaji dan digunakan sebagai dapatan kajian. Separuh daripada mereka terdiri daripada golongan lelaki (k=44, %=58.7) dan selebihnya ialah golongan wanita (k=31, %=41.3) dan majoriti daripadanya adalah berketurunan Melayu (k=74, %=98.7). Dari segi umur, kebanyakan mereka merupakan responden dari kalangan usia pertengahan iaitu 21 hingga 40 tahun (k=46, %=61.3) dan selebihnya pula merupakan daripada golongan usia 41 hingga 60 tahun (k=29, %=38.7). Bagi status perkhidmatan pula, lebih separuh daripada mereka merupakan pekerja yang berjawatan tetap (k=51, %=68).

Kajian ini merupakan kajian kuantitatif dan borang soal selidik telah dipilih sebagai alat instrumen kajian. Borang soal selidik tersebut terbahagi kepada tiga bahagian iaitu Bahagian A (Maklumat Demografi), Bahagian B (Kepimpinan Transformasi) dan Bahagian C (Motivasi Pekerja) sebanyak 36 buah item. Pengkaji menggunakan Borang Soal Selidik MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) yang telah dibangunkan oleh Bass (1985) bagi mengukur tahap kepemimpinan transformasi. Manakala bagi mengukur tahap motivasi pekerja pula, pengkaji telah menggunakan Borang Soal Selidik Nilai Kerja (Work Values Questionnaire) yang telah dibangunkan oleh Furham *et. al.*, (2009). Kajian rintis ke atas 15 responden telah dijalankan dan nilai alpha Cronbach berada pada tahap yang tinggi iaitu ($\alpha=0.976$). Ini menjelaskan bahawa borang soal selidik tersebut adalah sesuai untuk digunakan dalam kajian yang sebenar.

4. Dapatan dan Perbincangan

Jadual 1: Korelasi di antara Kepimpinan Transformasi dengan Motivasi Pekerja

Pembolehubah	r value	p value	n
Kepimpinan Transformasi dan Motivasi Pekerja	0.658***	.000	75

*** korelasi adalah signifikan pada tahap 0.001

Jadual 1 menunjukkan tahap korelasi di antara kepemimpinan transformasi dan motivasi dalam kalangan staf sokongan di sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor. Nilai pekali korelasi ($r = 0.658$) dan nilai signifikan ($p\text{ value} = 0.000$) menunjukkan terdapat hubungan yang positif serta signifikan di antara kepemimpinan transformasi dan motivasi pekerja. Ia bermaksud motivasi pekerja akan meningkat sekiranya pihak pengurusan mengamalkan kepemimpinan transformasi di dalam organisasi. Ini menggambarkan bahawa peranan pemimpin sebagai *role model* kepada pekerja adalah sangat penting untuk memotivasikan pekerja di tempat kerja. Pemimpin yang berkarisma dilihat sebagai satu karekteristik yang akan mempengaruhi tingkahlaku pekerja termasuklah motivasi mereka untuk melaksanakan tugas. Selain daripada itu, sikap pemimpin yang mengambil berat

terhadap setiap pekerja juga boleh mendorong mereka untuk bersungguh-sungguh dalam melaksanakan kerja. Ini kerana perhatian yang diberikan oleh pemimpin seolah olah menggambarkan penghargaan seorang pemimpin kepada pengikutnya dan akhirnya menimbulkan rasa tanggungjawab untuk melakukan tugas.

Tambahan lagi, pemimpin yang mengamalkan kepemimpinan transformasi kebiasaannya akan sentiasa menghargai idea, pendapat atau tahap intelektual pengikutnya. Ini sekaligus menggambarkan bahawa kepemimpinan jenis ini amat menitikberatkan penglibatan pekerja dan sentiasa menganggap setiap idea dan pendapat pekerja adalah berharga dan perlu ditambah baik untuk kegunaan organisasi. Situasi ini akan menjadikan pekerja lebih bermotivasi untuk bekerja kerana mereka bersama-sama membuat keputusan ke atas kerja yang sedang atau akan dilaksanakan. Dapatan ini menyokong hasil kajian yang telah dijalankan oleh Masi dan Cooke (2000) ke atas sekumpulan tentera. Kajiannya mendapati terdapat hubungan yang signifikan di antara gaya kepemimpinan transformasi dengan motivasi dalam kalangan anggota tentera. Ini kerana pemimpin memainkan peranan penting dalam memastikan setiap anggota tentera bersama-sama berkongsi matlamat serta memahami objektif tugas yang hendak dilaksanakan.

5. Kesimpulan dan Cadangan

Sebagai kesimpulan, pemimpin perlu memainkan peranan utama bagi menentukan kejayaan dan kegagalan sesebuah organisasi. Selain daripada menentukan visi dan misi organisasi, pemimpin juga bertanggungjawab dalam memastikan pekerjanya sentiasa bermotivasi terhadap tugasnya. Motivasi dilihat sebagai satu elemen yang berupaya merangsang pekerja supaya lebih bersikap positif terhadap pekerjaan mereka. Pekerja yang mempunyai motivasi yang tinggi boleh meningkatkan tahap kepuasan kerja, prestasi, pencapaian dan produktiviti mereka. Oleh yang demikian, pemimpin perlu memberi perhatian kepada pekerja secara individu, memberi penghargaan secara adil dan saksama, tentukan sasaran yang mencabar tetapi realistik dan mewujudkan suasana yang suportif di dalam organisasi. Sebagai cadangan, pengkaji mengesyorkan agar kepemimpinan transformasi bukan terhad kepada pihak pengurusan atasan tetapi ia juga boleh didedahkan kepada pengurusan pertengahan (contohnya penolong pegawai) dan bawahan (contohnya penyelia). Ini kerana kepemimpinan transformasi sering kali dilihat daripada sudut strategik organisasi yang melibatkan pihak pengurusan tertinggi dalam sesebuah organisasi sahaja. Sebaliknya sekiranya diamalkan dalam semua tahap pengurusan (atasan, pertengahan dan bawahan) maka ia mampu meningkatkan motivasi serta rasa tanggungjawab pekerja untuk melakukan kerja dengan lebih baik.

Walaupun bagaimanapun, terdapat beberapa keangan yang dihadapi semasa menjalankan kajian ini seperti isu generalisasi dapatan kajian. Responden yang terlibat dalam kajian ini merupakan staf sokongan di sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor. Oleh yang demikian, segala hasil dapatan hanya menggambarkan persepsi staf sokongan di sebuah kerajaan tempatan di Johor sahaja. Oleh yang demikian, dapatan kajian ini kurang sesuai untuk digeneralisasikan kepada kerajaan tempatan lain mahupun organisasi lain. Selain daripada itu, keadah keratan lintang (cross sectional) yang digunakan hanya mampu untuk menggambarkan situasi pada tempoh kajian dijalankan sahaja. Ia sukar untuk mengenalpasti perubahan motivasi dalam kalangan pekerja pada sebelum dan selepas kepemimpinan transformasi diamalkan dalam sesebuah organisasi. Namun demikian, kaedah ini melibatkan kos yang rendah untuk dikendalikan tetapi ia masih boleh memberikan dapatan yang bermakna.

6. Rujukan

- Ab. Aziz Yusof. (2003). *Perubahan dan Kepimpinan*. Sintok: Penerbit Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Ab. Aziz Yusof. (2005) *Penilaian Prestasi: Kepentingan dan Permasalahan*. Cheras: Utusan Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Abd. Rahim Abd. Rashid. (2006). *Agenda Perubahan: Pengurusan Sumber Manusia dan Kerjaya*. Cheras: Utusan Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Ainon, M. (2003). *Teori dan Teknik Kepimpinan : Panduan Aplikasi di Tempat Kerja*. Bentong, Pahang: PTS Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Armstrong, M. (2012). *Armstrong's Handbook of Reward Management Practice: Improving Performance Through Reward*. New Delhi: Korgan Page.
- Babbie, E. (2013). *The Practice of Social Research*. Belmont: Cengage Learning.
- Barnett, K., McCormick, J., & Conners, R. (2001). Transformational Leadership in Schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 24-46.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectation*. New York: Free Press.
- Bertocci, D. I. (2009). *Leadership in Organizations: There is a Difference Between Leaders and Managers*. United States: University Press of America Inc.
- Boren, J. P. (2014). Department of Communication Santa Clara University. [Online] Available: [HYPERLINK "http://justinboren.com/2011/07/when-workers-are-supported-they-work-harder"](http://justinboren.com/2011/07/when-workers-are-supported-they-work-harder)
<http://justinboren.com/2011/07/when-workers-are-supported-they-work-harder> (July 25, 2014)

- Burke, W. (2008). *Organizational Change Theory and Practice*. United States: Sage Publication.
- Cesare, J. D., & Sadri, G. (2003). Do All Carrots Look The Same? Examining the Impact of Culture on Employee Motivation. California: Management Research News.
- Charbonneau, D. (2004). Influence Tactics and Perceptions of Transformational Leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 565-576.
- Chaudhry, A. Q., Javed, H., & Sabir, M. (2012). The Impact of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on The Motivation of Employees in Pakistan . *Pakistan Economic and Social Review*, 223-231.
- Cheung, F. Y., & Wong, C.-S. (2011). Transformational Leadership, Leader Support, and Employee Creativity. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 656-672.
- Daft, R. (2010). *Management* (9th ed.). USA: Cengage Learning.
- Furnham, A., Eracleous, A, & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2009). Personality, Motivation and Job Satisfaction: Herzberg meets the Big Five. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. 765-779
- Ghani, A. A., Abd.Rahman, A., & Zohir, A. M. (2008). *Gaya-Gaya Kepimpinan dalam Pendidikan*. Kuala Lumpur: PTS Publication & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Hellriegel, D., & Slocum, J. (2004). *Organizational Behavior* (10 ed.). Andover: International Thomson Publishing.
- Ishak, M. S. (2006). *Kepimpinan dan Hubungan Interpersonal dalam Organisasi*. Skudai, Johor: Penerbit, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Joo, B.-K., Yoon, H. J., & Jeung, C.-W. (2012). The Effects of Core Self-Evaluations and Transformational Leadership on Organizational Commitment. *Leadership & Organizational Development journal*, 564-582.
- Kamariah, I., Khurram, W., Hussain, T., & Jafri, S. K. (2011). Perceptions for Transformational leadership, Followers' Psychological Capital and Intent to Leave in Pakistan: An Insight from Medical and Engineering Sector. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business* , 49-61.
- Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. 607-610.
- Krishnan, V. R. (2005). Transformational Leadership and Outcomes: Role of Relationship Duration. *Leadership & Organization Journal*, 442-457. (2013). *Laporan Produktiviti 2012/2013*. Selangor: Malaysia Productivity Corporation.
- Masi, R. J., & Cooke, R. a. (2000). Effects of Transformational Leadership on Subordinate Motivation, Empowering Norms, and Organizational Productivity. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 16-47.
- Maroudas, L., Vacharis, A., & Kyriakidou, O. (2008). Employees' Motivation in The Luxury Hotel Industry: The Perceived Effectiveness of Human-Resource Practices. *Routledge*, 258-271.
- Najib, A. G. (2004). *Pembangunan Organisasi di Malaysia Projek Pendidikan* . Skudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (6th ed.). United States of America: SAGE Publications.
- Nur Atiqah Abdullah, Norsiah Aminudin, Ahmad Khairy Ahmad Domil & Khairul Akmaliah Adham (2010). Faktor Pengkelan Pekerja dalam Firma IT di Malaysia . *Jurnal Teknologi Maklumat & Multimedia* 9, 15-30.
- Polychroniou, P. V. (2009). Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership of Supervisors: The Impact on Team Effectiveness. *Team Performance Management*. 343-356.
- Riggio, B. M., & Bass, R. E. (2006). *Transformational Leadership*. United States of America: Psychology Press.
- Samsuddin, W. (2005). *Mengurus dan Mentadbir Pejabat*. Batu Caves, Selangor: PTS Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Ungku Norulkamar Ungku Ahmad, Ebi Shahrin Suleiman, Ruzita Selamat & Wan Khairuzzaman Wan Ismail (2003). *Tabiat Organisasi*. Petaling Jaya : Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Wilson, F. (2004). *Organizational Behaviour and Work: A Critical Introduction*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2009). Transformational Leadership in the Public Sector: Does Structure Matter? *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 75-89.
- Zainuddin, Z., & Goh, Y. S. (2006). *Memotivasikan Pekerja*. Selangor, Malaysia: PTS Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.

Managing Stress at Workplace Using The Rational-Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) Approach

Mastura Mahfar¹ and Aslan Amat Senin²
Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract This paper discusses how the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) approach can be applied on employees at workplace to manage their stress. Rational-Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) is a useful cognitive-behavioral approach in understanding the sources of stress among individuals who are frequently associated with irrational beliefs. Previous literatures shows that the REBT approach which consists of the multimodal, psychoeducational and comprehensive characteristics has demonstrated its effectiveness in helping to reduce the irrational beliefs system among employees. The REBT approach has contributed mainly to cognitive-behavioral therapy in presenting the roles of beliefs system and its differences on occurring psychological disturbances using the ABCDE Model. This paper also discusses types of irrational belief held by employees such as demandingness, awfulizing, low frustration tolerance, and global evaluation which are a great help to the REBT practitioners to understand emotional disturbances and behavior of employees and the implications on their well-being.

Keywords: irrational beliefs, stress, REBT

1. Introduction

Individuals cannot be separated from experiencing distress in their lives from work to family and society (Beriman, 2007). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1985), each individual experiences different kinds of stress. Stress experienced in a positive manner might motivate or influence an individual to acquire his/her maximum potential (Ellis & Wildle, 2002). Nonetheless, if the stress level exceeds a certain threshold and can no longer be controlled, it may create psychological, physical, mental or physiological problems to the individual (Romas & Sharma, 2004).

Employees who exposed to high levels of job distress are more likely to report more frequent illness symptoms, require more time off work for medical complaints, and increase the company's health care costs (Lazarus, Rodafinos, Matsiggos, & Stamatoulakis, 2009). In addition, job stress has become a significant issue that leads to absenteeism and poor performance among employees (Lazarus et al., 2009). The higher levels of distress will also result in the immune system, exacerbating various medical conditions (Beriman, 2007). After cardiovascular disease and cancer, distress disorders have shown the third biggest health problem worldwide (Alonso et al., 2004).

In addition, 20% of the adult working population was found to present some type of mental health problem (Lahtinen & Lehtinen, 1999). According to the data from the European Agency for Safety and Health Work, at least 28% of the employees in the European Union have experienced stress (Greiner, 2005). Employability, employee performance, interpersonal relations, rates of illness, absenteeism, errors, accidents and staff turnover are result from employees' psychological distress (Simon, Barber & Birnbaum, 2001). Besides that, the American Institute of Stress reported that distress is a major factor that leads to 80% of all work related injuries and 40% of work place turnover (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008).

However, research on job stress is not merely found in Western countries but also found in Asia particularly in Malaysian. For instance, the finding of study by Mohd Awang Idris, Dollard and Winefield (2010) on job stress revealed that 77% of respondents agreed that job stress had increased recently when 48 employees were interviewed.

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + (013-7009356)
E-mail address: (mastura@management.utm.my)

Nilufar et al. (2009) stated that it is crucial for employer and employees in Malaysia to realize the stress and the stressor that result in negative feelings which may impact to organization itself. On top of that, Nurnazirah et al. (2015) stated that the study of job stress predictors is crucial to improve stress management programs in Malaysian organizations.

Although there were many studies on sources of stress that can contribute to stress at workplace such as individual and family factors, socio-economic and financial status, and mental and physical health factors, until now there are limited studies on managing stress among employees based on the cognitive aspects in Malaysian working environment. Ellis (1997) inspired by the view that it is not the event that causes emotional disturbance, but ones view of the event based on the Rational-Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) approach. REBT is currently one of the predominant techniques associated with cognitive behavior therapy (CBT), asserting that beliefs individuals hold in relation to failure, rejection, and poor treatment will mediate their perceptions of events, influencing subsequent emotional and behavioral responses (Ellis & Dryden, 1997). Hence, this paper will discuss how the Rational-Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) could be employed to explain the causes of employees' stress as well as the job stress management using ABCDE Model.

1.1 Research Background

Due to its implication in organizational life, distress among employees is often perceived negatively because it could affect the reduction in productivity (Beriman, 2007). Therefore, there are many stress intervention programs designed to reduce stress among employees in organizations. Generally, the aims of stress intervention programs are to increase individual psychological resources and coping skills and/or changing the environment (Van der Klink, Blonk, Schene, & Van Dijk, 2001). In addition, there are many literatures conducted on the effectiveness of distress intervention programs and outcome variables. Nevertheless, the researchers have debated to find out which of these interventions is the most effective.

At present, Rational-Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) is one of the most prominent cognitive-behavioral approaches which could help employees to understand the mechanisms of employee distress (Ellis, 1962). This theoretical approach which is always being associated with individuals' irrational beliefs system was introduced in 1995 by Albert Ellis (Weinrach et al., 2006). Emotional disturbance of an individual does not originate from external events but due to the individual's perceptions and evaluation on those events (Kachman & Mazer, 1990). This philosophy serves as a foundation of the new formation of therapy (DiGiuseppe, 2007). In fact, employees cognitions are result in their emotional reactions and behavioral reactions (Harris, Davies, & Dryden, 2006; Sporrle, Welpe, & Forsterling, 2006).

According to the ABCDE Model of REBT (Ellis & Bernard, 2006), people's reactions (Cs; behavioral and emotional) are not determined by the activating events (As), but by their beliefs (Bs) which represents the individual's view about events. Many researchers had examined the relationship between irrational beliefs and emotional distress in organizations, indicating strong correlations between irrationality and various measures of distress, such as emotional distress, anxiety, depression, self-esteem, job satisfaction, etc. (Daly & Burton, 1993; DiLorenzo, David, & Montgomery, 2007; Harris, Davies, & Dryden, 2006; Sporrle & Welpe, 2006).

On top of that, a study by Van der Klink et al. (2001) using meta-analytic techniques examined the effectiveness of distress interventions in organizational environment showed that cognitive behavioral based on techniques are the most effective techniques compared with other interventions, such as multimodal approach, relaxation and organization focused programs. Indeed, intervention programs based on cognitive behavioral therapy were most effective in reducing the distress levels in organizations (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Rational-Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT)

Ellis was more influenced by previous philosophers rather than psychologists, mainly Epictetus, a Roman philosopher, who stated that 'men are disturbed not by things, but by their views of things' (Ellis & Bernard, 1985; Dryden & Neenan, 2004). Since Rational Therapy that was introduced before merely focusing on cognition and did not prepare professionals or clients with integrated views on psychological problems, especially on the roles of emotion, the name of this therapy was later converted to Rational-Emotive Therapy in 1961 to formally recognize the role emotions have in mental processes and in therapy. (DiGiuseppe, 2007). In 1993, RET then became Rational-Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) because REBT practitioners encourage

their clients actively to put into practice what they learn in therapy through the use of behavioral methods (Dryden & Neenan, 2004; Weinrach *et al.*, 2006).

As indicated by Ellis (1993), this change was necessary because REBT does not only focus on cognitive aspects, but also on emotive and behavioral aspects to help change an individual. These three aspects are a psychological process which is interactional, dynamic and inseparable from each other. For instance, the change in cognitive aspect will also produce change to others (Ellis & Bernard, 1985; Ellis, 1994; Ellis, Shaughnessy & Mahan, 2003). Though the above three aspects are interactional, the REBT approach also looks at the aspect of thinking as a major determinant to disturbance and happiness of an individual (Walen, DiGiuseppe & Dryden, 1992). Moreover, REBT is distinct from other cognitive-behavioral approaches as it specifically proposes that rigid and extreme beliefs in relation to adversity are considered irrational beliefs, leading to dysfunctional (unhealthy) emotions such as anxiety, unhealthy anger and depression. On the contrary, flexible and nonextreme beliefs are considered rational beliefs, leading to functional (healthy) emotions such as concern, healthy anger and sadness (Dryden, 2009).

As stated by Koffler (2005), the difference between irrational beliefs and rational beliefs system and the roles of beliefs system on emotional disturbance are the main contribution of REBT on cognitive behavior. There are 30 cognitive methods, 30 emotive methods, and 30 behavioral methods in the REBT approach and these methods keep on increasing perpetually (Ellis, 2002). Based on the widespread development of REBT, beside focusing on children and adolescents, this approach could also be focused on adults in helping change irrational beliefs system, (Knaus, 1974; Bernard & Joyce, 1984; Vernon, 2004; Ellis & Bernard, 2006). For instance, it was found that some of the cognitions employees may behold are irrational and self-defeating that are important mechanisms for work distress (Harris, Davies, & Dryden, 2006; Sporrle, Welpel, & Forsterling, 2006). Hence, particularly, taking into account the increased level of distress in work context (Alonso *et al.*, 2004), it becomes essential to understand how employees could manage the mechanisms of job stress based on the REBT approach.

2.2 Managing Job Stress Using ABCDE Model

Model of ABCDE which is the main component in the REBT approach has explained in great details on how emotional disturbance or stress experienced by an individual is due to irrational beliefs system and not negative events experienced (Ellis, 1962; Ellis & Bernard, 1983; Ellis & Dryden, 1997). There are three main components in the ABCDE Model which consists of, activating events (A), belief system (B) and emotional and behavioral consequences (C). The other three components are disputation (D), and new effect (E). Most individuals assume that emotional disturbances and behaviors (C) originate from activating events (A) which may be external or internal. The therapeutic process of REBT first encourages the client or group to understand that their dysfunctional emotional and behavioral responses (C) are largely due to their irrational beliefs (B), not the activating event (A) itself as following:

Activating event (A) - (A) could be defined as activating events which something that occurs in people's life (Walen *et al.*, 1992). People believe it as the cause of their problems (David *et al.*, 2005).

Beliefs (B) - Beliefs (B) represent an individual's view about events (Dryden, 1999). Ellis (2004) proposed that beliefs (B) mediate the impact of activating events (A) on emotions and behavior (C). Beliefs can be held about oneself, others and/or life events. REBT theory advocates that beliefs can either be rational and healthy or irrational and unhealthy (David *et al.*, 2005; Dryden, 1999). Rational beliefs represent any thoughts which are flexible, logical, realistic, and will aid goal attainment. Contrary to rational beliefs, irrational beliefs represent any thoughts that are unrealistic, rigid, extreme, illogical, absolutistic demands toward self, others, or life and prevent peoples from attaining their goals. Irrational beliefs are one of the main long-term sources and factors that maintain the distress and, as a consequence, may lead to many anxiety and mood disorders (David, Szentagotai, Lupu, & Cosman, 2008).

The irrational beliefs will act as a mediator for the relationship between an event that will happen and reaction towards emotional disturbance and behavior (Ellis, 1993; Jacofsky, 2005). To explain in details the irrational beliefs of an individual, Ellis (1962) initially classified 11 irrational beliefs causing emotional disturbances. However, subsequent research has identified four categories of irrational beliefs namely, demandingness, awfulizing, low frustration tolerance, and global evaluation (Ellis & Dryden, 1997; Dryden & Ellis, 2003; DiLorenzo *et al.*, 2007; DiGiuseppe *et al.*, 2012).

i) Demandingness vs Preference

Demandingness is viewed as a core belief in which a person ultimately will emphasize a situation as “must” or “must not” (Dryden & Neenan, 2004). There are three types of demandingness, which are, demands towards self, other people and life situation (Dryden & Neenan, 2004; DiGiuseppe, 2007). For instances, “*I must be accepted by colleagues*”, “*My boss must respect me at all times*” and “*Work environment must be conducive at all times*” (DiGiuseppe et al., 2012). On the contrary, belief of preference has flexible option in which individual’s belief toward any desire without insistent (Dryden & Neenan, 2004). Instead of using absolute phrase such as “must” and “should”, employees were taught in therapy about how to express their rational beliefs in a more flexible context employing flexible phrases “want to”, “want” or “choose” (DiLorenzo et al., 2007). For example. “*I want my boss to respect me, but not necessarily I get it*”

ii) Awfulizing /Catastrophizing vs Non-Awfulizing

Awfulizing refers to an employee’s belief that an event is so awful, that is, more than 100 percent bad (Ellis & Dryden, 2003). Typically, the characteristics of awfulizing are expressed through an example such as, “*It’s awful if my boss does not respect me*“. On the contrary, non-awfulizing belief is a non-extreme belief of individual when his/her demand was not fulfilled (Dryden and Neenan, 2004). Individual who have non-awfulizing beliefs believed that there are advantages and benefits from the event occurred. For example, “*It is not good if my boss does not respect me but the situation happened to me is not awful actually*”.

iii) Low frustration tolerance vs High frustration tolerance

An employee who has low frustration tolerance will not be able to endure the negative events or have any happiness if what he/she wants does not exist (Dryden & Neenan, 2004; DiLorenzo et al., 2007). The characteristics of this irrational belief will be expressed in a statement such as, “*I can’t stand when my boss does not respect me*”. On the other hand, high frustration tolerance is a rational belief that is not extreme although demand of an individual was not fulfilled (Dryden & Neenan, 2004). Individual holding rational belief will have high frustration tolerance even when admitting hard to withstand toward a negative event (Dryden & Ellis, 2003). For example, “*I want to be respected by my boss but I can tolerate if it did not achieved*”.

iv) Global Evaluation vs Self / Others Acceptance

Global evaluation appears when employees overgeneralize about others, themselves, and the world when their demands are not met (Walen, DiGiuseppe & Dryden, 1992; DiLorenzo et al., 2007). This belief also causes the tendency of an employee to downgrade oneself and others by putting failure as part of their life (Ellis & Dryden, 1997). For example, “*I am worthless if my boss does not respect me, others – “My boss is worthless if he/she does not respect me.”* and / or life - “*Life is bad if my boss does not respect me*”. In contrast to global evaluation, acceptance beliefs refer to employees holding rational beliefs which they learn to accept themselves, other people, and their living conditions even met in uncomfortable situations (Dryden & Neenan, 2004). For example, “*I can accept myself as a valuable human being even when I am not respected by others*”.

In short, demandingness, awfulizing, low frustration tolerance, and global evaluation beliefs are rigid and extreme, leading to dysfunctional emotions, while preferences, non-awfulizing, high frustration tolerance and self/other acceptance beliefs are flexible and non-extreme, leading to functional emotions. In relation to job stress, Palmer (1995) suggested that low frustration tolerance beliefs such as “*I can’t stand my working conditions*”, awfulizing beliefs such as “*I won’t do well and that would be awful*” and global evaluation beliefs such as “*If people don’t like me, I am pretty worthless*” often led to stress among employees.

Consequences (C) – Consequences (C) represent the undesirable emotional consequences (ueC) and the undesirable behavioral consequences (ubC). Therefore, C is the result from the people’s beliefs or perceptions. Rational beliefs (RBs) lead to functional consequences, whereas irrational beliefs (IBs) lead to dysfunctional consequences (David, et al., 2005). For example: ueC = “*I feel angry / anxious*”; ubC = withdrawal, yelling, throwing things, etc.

Dispute (D) – The principle goal of REBT is to replace irrational beliefs with rational beliefs to promote functional emotions (Ellis & Dryden, 1997). Once the ABC Model framework is understood, the client is encouraged to dispute (D) their irrational beliefs and replace them with rational alternatives (E) (Dryden, 2009).

Disputation helps the client to understand that their irrational beliefs are false, illogical, and unhelpful, and that rational beliefs are true, logical, and helpful (Dryden, 2009). In order to reduce emotional disturbances of employee, the person actively challenges or disputes his/her irrational beliefs (D) (Dryden, 1999; David, et al., 2005). Disputation comprises three main arguments such as logical, empirical, and pragmatic

i) logical – employee is asked to question the logic of his/her irrational beliefs (*does the belief make sense?*).

The employee’s irrational beliefs will not be logically supported.

ii) empirical - employee is asked to provide evidence for the irrational beliefs (*is there any evidence for the beliefs?; where is written for the beliefs?*). The employee’s irrational belief will usually flounder under empirical questioning.

iii) pragmatic – employee is asked to reflect on the consequences of holding irrational beliefs (*is the belief helpful?*)

Once the irrational beliefs have been successfully disputed and acknowledged as being false, illogical, and unhelpful, the rational alternatives are also disputed, but acknowledged as being true, logical, and helpful (Dryden, 2009; Dryden & Branch, 2008). Through integration of techniques and concepts such as cognitive, emotion and behavioral techniques the REBT approach also helps individuals to change their tendency in thinking from irrational beliefs to the rational one (Ellis, 1997).

Effect (E) - If employees are able to actively and persistently dispute (D) their irrational beliefs, they will be able to create an effective new philosophy (E) which includes strong rational coping statements that can help them to feel better, get better and stay better (David, et al., 2005). The effective rational belief phase (E) represents the final part of the REBT process after successfully locating the adversities (A), the beliefs (B), and the emotional and behavioral consequences (C), and having successfully disputed (D) the irrational beliefs (Turner & Barker, 2014). Figure 1.1 illustrates the main components of the ABC Model comprehensively.

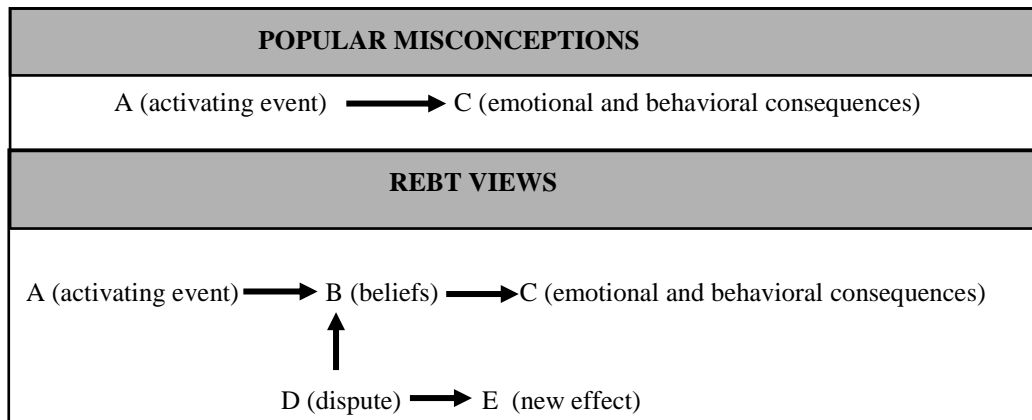


Figure 1.1 :
 ABCDE Model (Source: Adapted from Theory & Practice of
 Counseling and Psychotherapy, Corey (1986))

Hence, early assessment and diagnosis of distress-related beliefs is one of the fundamental components of distress management and other psychological therapies oriented towards reducing distress (David, 2006). On the whole, Ellis (1994) stated that demandingness is the main cause of emotional disturbance and is associated with negative effects (DiGiuseppe, 1996). Hence, demandingness is the core to irrational beliefs among employees in the REBT approach. Other irrational beliefs such as, awfulizing, low frustration tolerance, and global evaluation derived from demandingness (Walen *et al.*, 1992; Dryden & Ellis, 2003).

2.3 Previous Studies

Numerous studies found that ABCDE Model based on the REBT approach could help employees to understand and managing their stress at workplace. This is because most of the organizations now are more demanding for the better job stress management which could impact job outcomes.

For instances, David and Szamoskozi (2011) investigated the effectiveness of psychological programs on reducing emotional distress and its consequences in occupational settings. A meta-analysis was carried out to

determine the effectiveness of programs based on Rational Emotional Behavioral Therapy (REBT) and other CBT programs. After separating the studies in two categories the effect size increased for REBT based intervention programs ($d = -1.14$), while the effect size for the rest of CBT based programs slightly decreased ($d = -0.52$). In addition, the effect sizes for irrationality ($d = -1.6$), direct evaluation of emotional distress ($d = -0.73$), and for measures of distress consequences ($d = -0.69$). The results demonstrated the effectiveness of CBT-based intervention programs in reducing emotional distress, distress consequences and in reducing the level of irrationality in occupational settings.

Gavita and Duta (2013) conducted a study in order to preliminary validate the Employee Rational and Irrational Beliefs Scale (E-RIBS), a new self-report measure for identifying irrational and rational cognitions relevant for employees. 161 employees participated to the study, working in Romanian national and international companies whereby 46% of them were males and 52.2 were females. One to five of the adult working population was found to present some type of mental health problem which affect their employability, employee performance and quality of life. Irrational and rational beliefs represent evaluative cognitive structures, consistently associated with distress and psychopathology. In contrast, rational thinking is considered important for emotional resiliency. Profile of Emotional Distress (PED; Opris & Macavei, 2005) and the General Attitudes and Beliefs Scale–Short Form (GABS-SF; Lindner, Kirkby, Wertheim, & Birch, 1999) were used to measure psychological distress and irrational beliefs. Results show a three-factor solution for the E-RIBS, with an irrational beliefs subscale, a global evaluation subscale, and a rational beliefs subscale. The E-RIBS displayed adequate internal consistencies and concurrent validity. Significant correlations were also found between E-RIBS scores and emotional distress. E-RIBS total score correlates positively with the total emotional distress score reported by the employees [$r = -.24, p = .003$].

Jacofsky (2005) conducted a study on mediating and moderating effects of irrationality on stress among psychology students in U.S. The target respondent of the research was 634 current graduate students from the National Association of School Psychologists' (NASP) membership base. The purpose of the research was to examine the potential role of irrationality, as conceptualizes in REBT, as either a mediator or moderator variable within the relationship between stress exposure and stress severity among the respondents. The finding of the study revealed that the mediating and moderating effects of irrationality on stress in school psychology students was found to be partially mediated the relationship between stress exposure and stress severities but irrationality was not found to be moderate in the relationship between stress exposure and stress severity.

Van der Klink et al. (2001) examined the effectiveness of distress interventions in organizational environment using meta-analytic techniques. The finding of the study shows that cognitive behavioral interventions have been found to have the largest effect size ($d = 0.68$) compared with other interventions which had smaller effect sizes (multimodal $d = 0.51$; relaxation $d = 0.35$; organization focused programs $d = 0.08$). Their analysis was conducted on studies published up to 1996. A mean effect size of $d = 0.34$ was found. Concerning intervention type, cognitive behavioral interventions have been found to have the largest effect size, $d = 0.68$, while the other had smaller effect sizes (multimodal $d = 0.51$; relaxation $d = 0.35$; organization focused programs $d = 0.08$).

Jesus and Conboy (2001) examined the implementation of stress management course among elementary and secondary-level teachers in Coimbra, Portugal. Teachers were between the ages of 30 and 48 ($M = 41.7$ years) with teaching experience ranging from three to 29 years ($M = 18$ years). The sample was predominantly female ($N = 22$; 88 percent). The stress management training was conducted in 10 sessions whereby one of the sessions focused on assessing and helping teachers to alter their irrational beliefs using REBT approach. To assess irrational beliefs, a four-point summative scale was used, anchored from "disagree to agree" which consisting of 17 items. The significance of the difference between the means was calculated for each variable with the t-test for paired samples. The finding of the study revealed that there was significant reductions were observed in stress [$t(24) = \pm 3.07, p < .01$] and irrational beliefs [$t(24) = \pm 2.80, p < 0.02$] among the teachers.

Another meta-analysis conducted by Richardson and Rothstein (2008) extended the analysis including studies published up to 2006. A significant effect size across all studies was found ($d = 0.52$). Based on the intervention type, again cognitive behavioral based interventions had the larger effect size ($d = 1.11$), followed by relaxation ($d = 0.49$); organizational ($d = 0.14$), multimodal ($d = 0.23$), alternative interventions ($d = 0.90$). Both meta-analytical studies presented showed that cognitive behavioral-based techniques are the most effective techniques, but none of them made a distinction within this category (i.e., CBT versus REBT). In general, the REBT approach was found to prove its effectiveness when implemented on employees who experiencing various problems at workplace.

3. Conclusion

From the above explanation, we can conclude that it is important for an employee to recognize the causes of stress as well as managing their stress at workplace. Based on the explanation of the ABC Model in the REBT approach, emotional disturbance and behavior problem among employees truly does not exist alone. On the contrary, the emotional and behavioral disturbance come to life based on perception and reaction of those experiencing them (Palmer & Dryden, 1994). Individuals who experience stress will put less effort to manage it when they think that the event is more prominent than their irrational beliefs system as a reaction to stress. Consequently, they tend to blame the event as a cause to stress that they are facing and will deny the opportunities to improve the situation (Ellis & Dryden, 1997).

Since the REBT approach assumes that human beings have the biological tendency to think rationally and irrationally, the best way to control the irrational beliefs is to change the thinking of an individual (Walen *et al.*, 1992; Ellis, 1994; DiGiuseppe, 2007). Through rational thinking skills learned, employees will have the opportunities to learn problem solving strategies based on rational thinking that enables them to manage their job stress more successfully. Hence, the ABCDE Model introduced in the REBT approach may assist employees in understanding their emotional disturbance owing to their irrational belief system. Through integration of techniques and concepts the REBT approach also helps individuals to change their tendency in thinking which is considered irrational beliefs. Thus, REBT is seen as a cognitive orientation which has the characteristics of being comprehensive, multimodal and psychoeducational to help employees facing with the emotional and behavioral disturbance as inappropriate and to change it to rational beliefs (Bernard & Joyce, 1984; Vernon, 2004; Ellis & Bernard, 2006).

4. References

- Alonso, J., Angermeyer, M.C., Bernert, S., Bruffaerts, R., Brugha, T.S., Bryson, H., De Girolamo, G., & Graaf Brundtland, G. H. (2000). Mental health in the 21st century. *Bulletin of The World Health Organization*, 78(4), 411.
- Beriman, J. (2007). Can coaching combat distress at work? *Occupational Health*, 59, 2730.
- Bernard, M.E. & Joyce, M.R. (1984). *Rational-Emotive therapy with children and adolescents: Theory, treatment strategies, preventative methods*. New York: A Wiley-Interscience Publication.
- Corey, G. (1986). *Theory and practice of counseling and psychotherapy*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks / Cole.
- David, D., Montgomery, G. H., Macavei, B., & Bovbjerg, D. (2005). An empirical investigation of Albert Ellis' binary model of distress. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 61, 499-516.
- David, D., Szentagotai, A., Lupu, V., & Cosman, D. (2008). Rational emotive behavior therapy, cognitive therapy, and medication in the treatment of major depressive disorder: A randomized clinical trial, posttreatment outcomes, and six-month follow-up. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 64, 728-746.
- David, A.R. & Szamoskozi, S. (2011), A meta-analytical study on the effects of cognitive behavioral techniques for reducing distress in organizations. *Journal of Cognitive and Behavioral Psychotherapies*, 11, 221-236.
- DiGiuseppe, R. (1996). The nature of irrational and rational beliefs: Progress in rational-emotive behavior theory. *Journal of Rational-Emotive and Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*, 14(1), 5-28.
- DiGiuseppe, R. (2007). *Rational-Emotive Behavioral Approaches*. In H.T. Prout & D.T. Brown (eds.), *Counseling and psychotherapy with children and adolescents: Theory and practice for school and clinical settings*. (p.279-308). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- DiGiuseppe, R., Doyle, K., Dryden, W., & Backx, W. (2012). *A practitioner's guide to Rational-Emotive Therapy* (3rd Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- DiLorenzo, T.A., David, D. & Montgomery, G.H. (2007). The interrelations between irrational cognitive processes and distress in stressful in academic settings. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 22, 115-177.
- Dryden, W. (1999). *Rational emotive behaviour therapy: A personal approach*. Bicester, Oxon: Winslow Press Limited.
- Dryden, W. & Neenan, M. (2004). *The Rational-Emotive Behavioural approach to a therapeutic change*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Dryden, W. & Ellis (2003). *Albert Ellis !*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Ellis, A. (2004). Why Rational Emotive Behavior therapy is the most comprehensive and effective form of behavior therapy. *Journal of Rational-Emotive and Cognitive Behavior Therapy*, 22,85-92.
- Ellis, A. (2002). *Overcoming resistance: A Rational Emotive Behavior therapy integrative approach*. (2nd ed.). New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Ellis, A. (1994). *Reason and emotion in psychotherapy*. Revised and updated edition. New York: Kensington.
- Ellis, A. (1993). *Changing Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET) to Rational-Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT)*.

-
- The Behavior Therapist, 16(10), 257-258.
- Ellis, A. (1962). Reason and emotion in psychotherapy. Secaucus, NJ: Citadel.
- Ellis, A. & Bernard, M.E. (2006). Rational Emotive Behavioral approaches to childhood disorders: Theory, practice and research. New York: Springer, Inc.
- Ellis, A., Shaughnessy, M.F. & Mahan, V. (2003). An interview with Albert Ellis about Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 4(3), 355-366.
- Ellis, A. & Dryden, W. (1997). The practice of Rational Emotive therapy. (2nd ed.) New York: Springer.
- Ellis, A. & Bernard, M.E. (1985). What is Rational-Emotive therapy. In A. Ellis & M.E. Bernard (eds.), *Clinical applications of Rational-Emotive therapy*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Ellis, A. & Bernard, M.E. (1983). *Rational-Emotive approaches to the problem of childhood*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Ellis, A., & Wildle, E. J. (2002). *Case Studies in Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy with Children and Adolescents*. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.
- Gavita, O.A., & Duta, T. (2004). The employee rational and irrational beliefs scale: preliminary validation. *Transylvanian Journal of Psychology*, 14(1), 19 – 38.
- Greiner, A. (2005). An economic model of work-related stress. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 66, 335–346.
- Goldfried, M., & Sobocinski, D. (1975). Effect of irrational beliefs on emotional arousal. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 43, 504-510.
- Harris, S., Davies, M. F., & Dryden, W. (2006). An experimental test of a core REBT hypothesis: evidence that irrational beliefs lead to physiological as well as psychological arousal. *Journal of Rational Emotive and Cognitive Behaviour Therapy*, 24(2), 101-111.
- Jacofsky, M.D. (2005). Mediating and moderating effects of irrationality on stress in school psychology students. *Dissertation Abstracts International*.
- Jesus, S.N. & Conboy, J. (2001). A stress management course to prevent teacher distress. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(3), 131-137.
- Kachman, D.J. & Mazer, G.E. (1990). Effects of Rational-Emotive Education on the rationality, neuroticism and defense mechanisms of adolescents. *Adolescence*, 25, 131-154.
- Knaus, W.J. (1974). *Rational Emotive Education: A manual for elementary school teachers*. New York: Institut for Rational Living.
- Koffler, A.M. (2005). Perceptions of beliefs in Rational Emotive Therapy among college students: A multidimensional scaling analysis. *Dissertation Abstracts International*.
- Lahtinen, E., & Lehtinen, V. (1999). Framework for promoting mental health in Europe. STAKES National Research and Development Centre for Welfare and Health.
- Lazuras, L., Rodafinos, G., Matsiggos, G., & Stamatoulakis, A. (2009). Perceived occupational distress, affective, and physical well-being among telecommunication employees in Greece. *Social Science & Medicine*, 68, 1075-1081.
- Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (1985). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Linder, H., Kirkby, R., Wertheim, E., & Birch, P. (1999). A brief assessment of irrational thinking: The shortened general attitude and beliefs scales. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 23, 651-663.
- Mohd Awang Idris, Dollard, M.F., & Winefield, A.H. (2010). Lay theory explanations of occupational stress: The Malaysian context. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 17(2), 135-153.
- Nelson, D.L. & Simmons, B.L. (2003). Health psychology and work stress: A more positive approach. In J.C. Quick & L.E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 97–119). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Nilufar Ahsan, Zaini Abdullah, David Yong Gun Fie & Syed Shah Alam (2009). A study of job stress on job satisfaction among university staff in Malaysia: Empirical study. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 8: 121-131.
- Palmer A (1995) A comprehensive approach to industrial rational emotive behaviour stress management workshops. *The Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapist*, 3(1), 45-55.
- Palmer, S. & Dryden, W. (1994). Stress management: Approaches and interventions. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 22 (1), 1-7.
- Richardson, K., & Rothstein, H. (2008). Effects of occupational distress management intervention programs: A meta- analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 13: 69-93.
- Romas, J. A., & Sharma, M. (2004). *Practical Stress Management: A Comprehensive Workbook for Managing Change and Promoting Health*. 3rd ed. Needham Heights: Allyn & Bacon.
- Simon, G. E., Barber, C., & Birnbaum, H. G. (2001). Depression and work productivity: the comparative costs of treatment versus nontreatment. *Journal of Occupational Environmental Medicine*, 43, 2-9.

-
- Sporrle, M., Welpel, I., & Forsterling, F. (2006). Cognitions as determinants of maladaptive emotions and emotionally intelligent behavior in an organizational context. *Psichotema*, 18, 165-171.
- Van der Klink, J., Blonk, R., Schene, A., & van Dijk, F. (2001). The benefits of interventions for work-related distress. *American Journal of Public Health*, 9,2.
- Vernon, A. (2004). Rational Emotive Education. *Romanian Journal of Cognitive and Behavioral Psychotherapies*, 4(1), 23-37.
- Walen, S.R., DiGiuseppe, R., & Dryden, W. (1992). *A practitioner's guide to a Rational-Emotive Therapy*. (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Weinrach, S.G., DiGiuseppe, R., Wolfe, J., Ellis, A., Bernard, M.E., Dryden, W., Kassinove, H., Morris, G.B., & Vernon, A. (2006). Rational Emotive Behavior therapy after Ellis: Predictions for the future. *Journal of Rational-Emotive and Cognitive Behavior Therapy*, 24, 199-215.

Human Capital and Human Resource Development in Islamic Perspective

Hashim Fauzy Yaacob

University Technology Malaysia
hfauzy@utm.my

Abstract This paper will discuss about basic foundation of human capital and human resource development in Islam. Human capital in Islam is based on the concept of *al-insan* itself. The basic aims of human capital is to develop the human or insan to become *al-insan al-kamil*. Therefore to accomplish the development of human capital must be accompanied by human development itself that based on *tawhid*. This is because human development is different from human capital development. Human capital development is the design and production of human capital in all areas required by the state for a particular period but is not necessarily able to perform his duties as a human who have balanced between the spiritual and physical. This paper also discuss and explain how Islam look to the human resource development in organizational context, based on contemporary domain of human resource development namely (a) training and development (b) Career, work and job performance and (c) organizational development. As in the general objective to develop human capital *al-kamil*, the main objectives of HRD in organization are not only focusing on the development of the individual or organization, but to seek the recognition from Allah; and success in the world and Hereafter.

Keywords: Human capital, human resource development, Islamic perspective

1. Introduction

Developmental issues have been discussed by many contemporary and 20th century Islamic scholars. Among them are, Muhammad Qutb, Dr. Said Ramadan, Yusof al-Qaradawi, Khurshid Ahmad, Muhammad Abdullah al-Buraey, Mohd Kamal Hassan. Likewise, similar issues have also been discussed by experts in Islamic economic such as M. Nejatullah Siddiqi, Masudul Alam Choudhury and Syed Othman Al-Habshi. A part of the discussion is related to human capital development and human resource development. History has shown that human capital and human resource have contributed significantly to the glory of the Islamic civilization in *Umawi*, *Abbasid* age, and the Islamic government in Cordova. This chapter will discuss the importance of human capital and human resource development in line with fundamentals Islamic philosophy.

2. Human Capital Development

2.1 Al-Insan as Capital?

According to Sadr (1983) the approach starts from Europe, in which, strength of all mankind is said to be originated from the earth, and very much related to material while putting aside the fact that strength is from God, the creator of the universe. As a result, people become materialistic and are more prone to exploit the world. Sadr further argues, Islam believes that people with the right *tasawwur*, would associate development with the concept of being a Caliph of Allah. Development is then an effort to stay away from the asceticism negative concepts that deviate people from performing duties as Caliph of Allah.

This idea also reflects the fact that development means, striking a balance between life in world and the hereafter, or between material and spiritual. It is thus recommended that if countries and organizations are to develop their human capital they should not put aside the principle of being Caliph of Allah.

Islamic country or Islamic organization needs human capital for their development and performance. An Islamic state requires many scholars, physicians, scientists, technocrats or researchers in accordance with

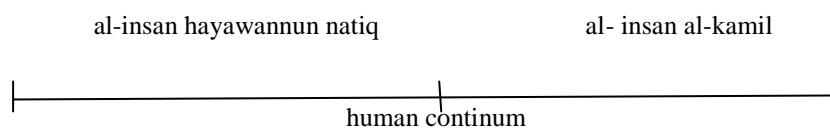
population growth. All sectors need human capital that is capable of handling matters based on *shariah law*. Management of Hajj for example, requires a large workforce to manage transportation, immigration, security, and medical matters for effective handling of pilgrims. Practices in the Hajj were not changed but the increased of pilgrims need for a good infrastructure development, transportation, food preparation, lodging, etc. that require a trained workforce.

For this purpose the society or the Muslim countries need a mobilization of human capital. Abulhassan (2003) divided the mobilization into three objectives of economy, socio-political and moral. Economic development for the purpose of *al-falah* needs for human capital mobilization in the spiritual and economic context for development of entrepreneurship. Socio-political development is mobilization to produce leaders, volunteers, and to create a just and harmonious society. Among the institutions will play this role is *hisbah* or ombudsman. On the other hand human capital mobilization for moral development is to create and produce a good *dai* for the purpose of maintaining the moral of mankind.

To achieve these goals, education, training and development is important. The level of *khaira ummah* (the best people), which calls for *amar makruf* and *nahi munkar* that transformed the quality of human capital development can be achieved through education. The education system should be geared to produce the human knowledge through a systematic, integrated and continuous system. Approach to education has long been advocated by many scholars of Islam. Malik Bennabi who observed this matter since 1959 has been confirmed, any development relating to human life is influenced by a system of ideas that exist in society. This system will catalyzed intellectual development that subsequently influence the idea of the existence of the system (Bennabi,2003).

Islam stress on this issue long time ago, but it should be adjusted according to the contemporary situation. Approach to lifelong learning or adult learning, for example, which is emphasized by the human resource development (HRD) had long been practiced in Islam. The Prophet Muhammad s.a.w Hadith "Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave" clearly shows the concern of Islam to the lifelong education. In Malaysia, adult education and lifelong learning has been adopted by the *pondok* system, known as *umumi* (informal) and *nizomi* (formal) system. Nizomi is the formal education system while *umumi* is learning system that open to all levels of society, especially the elderly. This method can be extended to other knowledge especially in organization and not just confined to *fard ain* only.

Futhermore, human capital in Islam is based on the concept of *al-insan* itself. First, the basic aims of human capital is to develop the human or insan to become *al-insan al-kamil*. Acceptance of Muslim scholars about the phrase '*al insan al-hayawanun natiq*' (man is rational animal) proposed by Aristotle is a general acceptance that refers to the biological nature of man. It also showed the openness of ulama to the views of former classics scholar Aristotle. However, in the Quran Allah never mentions humans as animals instead used the phrase *annas*, *al-insan* or *al-basyar*. Allah just used the concept of animal to the human in the Quran, when human not conform to human nature according to the will of God. The quality of human to be achieved by any human being is *al-insan al-kamil* is certainly different from the concept of *al-insan hayawannun natiq* the man who may very well in knowledge, intelligence, capable of making sophisticated innovations in technology but do not obey God. In a continuum the difference between human as a rational animal and *al-insan al-kamil* can be show in the following diagram:



Therefore to accomplish the development of human capital must be accompanied by human development itself that based on *tawhid*. According to Syed Othman Al-Habshi (1992), this is because human development is different from human capital development. Human capital development is the design and production of human capital in all areas required by the state for a particular period but is not necessarily able to perform his duties as a man who have balanced between the spiritual and physical (Syed Othman, 1992). Thus human capital development should be focused on the development of human capital *al kamil* that is put aside in current development in Muslim country.

2.2 Some Essentials of Human Capital Development in Islam

There is a unity of thought in explaining the concept of development according to the perspective of Islam among Muslim scholars as above, namely to achieve the Islamic ideal. Muhammad Abdullah al-Buarey (1990)

for example, defines development as "Development in the Islamic context means the ability to attain Islamic ideals in the individual, family, social and the umma's lives as well as in the running of the state ". Basic philosophy of development in Islam is tawhid (taqwa), *istikhlaf* (ruler), trust, brotherhood, and *tazkiyah* (purification).

This concept of the development have many differences with other perspectives including in human capital development. Among the basic human capital development in Islamic perspective is Quran and Sunnah is the source of reference for human capital development, the human dependence on God, man is the inheritors of God, human capital development objectives of Islam and the values that must be held when implementing human capital development.

2.2.1 Source of reference for human capital in Islam

The main sources as a guideline for development of human capital in Islam are al-Quran and the Sunnah of the Prophet. In addition any consensus of scholars (*ijmak al ulama*), *qiyas* and *urf* (which is not contrary to Islam) also accepted.

2.2.2 Dependence of human on God

Earth was created by Allah first for human. Any form of new discoveries in any field, including the latest technology is the result of the resources available in the universe at the rates determined by God. None of a new innovation in human life outside or beyond what Allah gives to the human. There are evidences that show everything on earth are created for human needs.

"And He has subjected to (interest and use to) you, as from Him, all that is in heaven and on earth (as a gift of grace) behold in that are signs indeed for those who reflected (Al-Jathiyah:13).

"It is He who created you from earth materials, and settled you therein" (Hud:61)

Similarly, the man himself is a creature that God created to complement each other either between men and women or with other people. Thus Allah gives human the ability to shape their social systems that have institutions such as government, commerce, and so forth.

Although human depend on natural resources and depend on other human, in fact, people depend on the resources of God's creation. For these reasons, even though humans may depend on other people in the workforce, God forbid done oppression, fraud, exploitation and so forth.

2.2.3 Man is the caliph of Allah

Man is the caliph of God on earth. Appointment of man as caliph of God can be identified from the postulates:

"And He made you inheritors of the earth, and He has raised you in ranks, some above others that He may try you in the gifts He has given you" (al-Anam:165)

From Abu Said al-Khudri r.a., Prophet s.a.w. said, *"Surely the world is sweet and beautiful. He has made you inheritors of the world. Then, God see how you do"* (Narrated by Muslim).

The appointment does not mean that people as caliph free to do anything such as administer or carry out development or progress in accordance with the needs. Man as caliph of God should enlighten (forward) in accordance with the Allah as a creator. Al-Zandani (1989) states this as *istikhlaf*.

2.2.4 The objective of human capital in Islam

The objective of human capital in Islam is to achieve *al-falah* and *tazkiyah*. *Al-falah* means the success or prosperity in the world and the hereafter. Human potential that can be built either in terms of skills or expertise

should inhabit the world according to the will of God without being damaged human capital and destroying the earth belong to God as Allah said "*But seek, with the (wealth) which Allah has bestowed on thee, the home of the hereafter. Nor forget thy portion in this world but do thou good to the and seek not mischief in the land. For Allah loves not those who do mischief*"(al-Qashash:77). It is clear whether the objective of development is human development, human capital development or material (which is the main agenda of the people of today), the Islamic approach is very comprehensive, for instance the balance between this world and the hereafter. Islam also concern with equilibrium of human life, eco-system and environment. *Al-fasad* or mischief on earth is forbidden by God.

2.2.5 Values in human capital development

Values emphasized by Islam cannot be excluded from efforts to develop the human capital of Islam. To produce excellent human capital, Islam does not emphasize the potential in terms of skills, knowledge and specific competency only but excellent for upholding the values taught by Islam. According to Mohd Radzi and Ghafarullahuddin (2005), the core values that are considered either for the purpose of economic development or human capital is knowledge, *taqwa*, *tawakkal*, *ikhlas*, ascetic (*zuhud*), pious(*warak*), ridden (*qanaah*) advice, consultation, trust, truth, justice, like for practice (*amal*), inertia (*itqan*), competition spirit(*sibaq*), *amar makruf nahi munkar*, *jihad*, patience, gratitude, generosity (*al-karam*), dignity (*iffah*), helping (*taawun*), courtesy, grace, *tawadhuk*, *istiqamah*, do not do the act is not beneficial, confidence with by the promise of Allah (*ihtisab*), remembrance, prayer and forgiveness. The responsibility for practice not only for individual alone, but must put into system. For example, how employee in the organization will implement the values above if the individual within the organization practices such as competition with unhealthy competition.

3. Human Resource Development

This section will discuss and explain how Islam look to the human resource development in organization based on contemporary human resource development domain namely (a) training and development (b) Career, work and job performance and (c) organizational development.

3.1 Knowledge, training and development

Islam is the way of life. Islamic teachings not only covered towards improving the Muslim belief in Allah; Prophets; Angels and etc, the Islamic teaching is holistic whereby it covers all aspects of human activities such as belief (*Tauhid*), good behavior (*Adab*), commerce (*Muamalat*), even in acquiring knowledge (*Ilm*) and the human resource development aspects.

It is Islam that has given the common man not only right to learn but also made obligatory for everyone to acquire knowledge. In fact, the very first verse of the Holy Qur'an revealed to mankind, the importance of reading, writing and acquiring of knowledge has been expounded in a very clear and decisive manner for the development of inner qualities of men (*Surah Al A'laq : 1-5*).

The Qur'an further says : "*Are those equal, those who know and those who do not know.*" (*Surah Az Zumar : 9*). "*Those truly fear God among His servants, who have knowledge*" (*Surah Al Faathir : 28*); and : "*God will raise up to (suitable) ranks (and degrees) those of you who believe and who have been granted (mystic) knowledge.*" (*Surah Al Mujaadalah : 11*).

The Prophet (PBUH) proclaimed that seeking of knowledge should be the duty of every Muslim man and woman (*Ibn Majah*); *he or she must continue to acquire knowledge from cradle to grave* (*Imam Ghazzali*); *and follow it from wherever they can acquire it* (14). Therefore, development and search for knowledge is enjoined in Islam as a sacred religious obligation. The Holy Prophet (PBUH) frequently prayed to Almighty: "*My Lord ! Advance me in knowledge*" (*Al-Qur'an, Surah Thaahaa : 114*). He himself was the first teacher of the school of Ahl-Al-Suffa, started by him (PBUH) adjacent to Masjid-i-Nabawi at Madina after the Hijra.

In Islam, the purpose of education has got the following dimensions:

- 1- Development of physical and mental competence of the individual in order to explore the bounties of Allah for the benefit of mankind;
- 2- Understanding of his Creator through the study of natural phenomena and the development of love and obedience to Him; and
- 3- Development of spiritual qualities/virtues in order to play the role of vicegernet of Allah in establishing justice and doing welfare to mankind.

In competitive era nowadays, it is become necessity to an organization to train and develop their employees. There are various technique can be manipulated to sharpening skills among workers. Islam as a comprehensive (*Syumul*) religious also support that person must improve their skills and knowledge to success in this world and in the hereafter (*al-Falah*) as a Vicegerent (*Khalifah*).

The view of an organization and a government are the same. Like their contemporary rivals in nearly by, the Muslim saw the training and education as a vital key determinant in improving image and proper conduct. Ibn Khaldun, the medieval Muslim sociologist, considered skilled workers as the creator of profit and prosperity in a society. Furthermore, he asserted that capable employees, even when they are not trustworthy, are preferable to trustworthy but not unskilled employees. Thus, it is necessary to organization to sharpen their employees' skills.

The Quran generally places emphasis on having general knowledge, good listening, and observation skills. In particular, it highlights the importance of apprenticeship. Islam has given these attributes close attention for training and development. The second caliph, Omar, is reported to have said to one of his subordinates, "I appointed you to test you. If you did well I will promote you; but if you did not, then I will dismiss you" (quoted by Abu-Doleh and Ayoun, 2001). Thus, Muslim saw that apprenticeship is a common practice in business and commerce by maintained and promoted who mastered in suitable profession and dismiss unskilled employees.

From the statement above, it can be conclude that Islam is not arguing with the current technique and approach that used by most of organization today. Furthermore, Islam was highlighted that skilled workers as a creator of profit and prosperity. However, education and training development in Islamic perspectives is not complete without combination of collective responsibility (*Fardhu Kifayah*) and individual responsibility (*Fardhu Ain*).

From organization point of view, human resource development is a process for developing and unleashing human expertise through organization development and personal training and development for the purpose of improving performance. It is a process of increasing knowledge, skill and the expertise of people in organization. However, to Islam human development means the development of spiritual and human virtues. The Islamic perspective of education and human resource development corresponding to the three stages of human development (Figure 1).

In fact, Islam encourages its followers to achieve the highest degree of human virtue i.e. *Ihsan* that is also the root of Islamic spiritualism and morality. In Islamic moral teaching it is to be remembered that we will have to provide an account to the Almighty Allah on the Day of Judgment for all of our action on earth. (*Qur'an* 2:281). Islamic education and training development aims at producing spiritually and ethically developed human beings. This Islamic perspective can effectively be imparted to the people of the society in the informal setting of Islamic education through its different ways and the people will be able to play the vital role to build organization with gem culture by being enriched with moral and spiritual values.

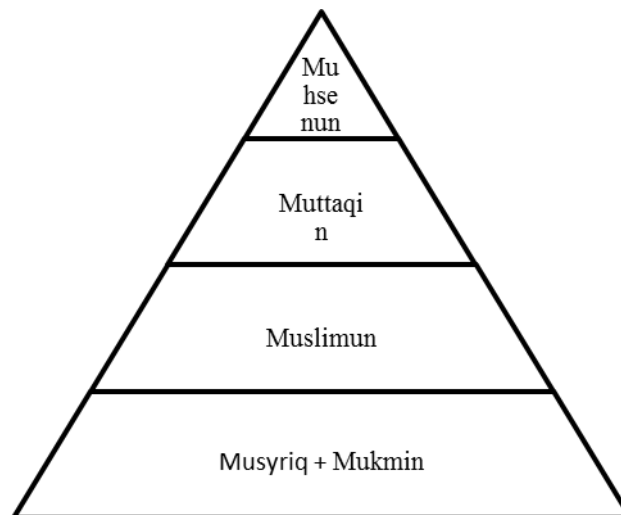


Figure 1: Stages of Islamic Human Resources Development

In fact, Islam encourages its followers to achieve the highest degree of human virtue i.e. *Ihsan* that is also the root of Islamic spiritualism and morality. In Islamic moral teaching it is to be remembered that we will have to provide an account to the Almighty Allah on the Day of Judgment for all of our action on earth. (*Qur'an* 2:281). Islamic education and training development aims at producing spiritually and ethically developed

human beings. This Islamic perspective can effectively be imparted to the people of the society in the informal setting of Islamic education through its different ways and the people will be able to play the vital role to build a organization with gem culture by being enriched with moral and spiritual values.

Skilled workers will become more competence with high moral, ethics and spiritual values. Workers that have high spiritual values sharpen their skills because want to be rewarded not only by their employee but also by almighty Allah S.W.T. They believe and hanging with phrase "Work hard like you will live forever and try best to hereafter as you will die tomorrow". This kind of workers serves to an organization with fully effort as worship (*ibadah*). It is become an advantage to organization to having diligent, honest, and skilled workers.

3.2 Career and Performance

Performance is one aspect of organizational effectiveness. An organization tends to focus on those performance items that will increase its effectiveness. By satisfying its constituent's preferences, an organizational is legitimized by society and gains its license to exist. Since the leadership both inside and outside the organization is an important constituency, effective organizational control is defined in terms of leadership preferences and underscores the importance of the leadership's quality and value system. To design and appraisal system based on Islamic principles, the organizational leadership and its social environment must be positively oriented towards such a system.

Organizational effectiveness is evaluated in both subjective and an objectives term for organizational and individual performance covers quantifiable and non-quantifiable areas. In studies of the relationship between motivational and work, scholars have focused on such variables as needs, performance, rewards, punishment, satisfaction, and expectations. In an appraisal system, an organizational unit or an individual is periodically evaluated in terms of actual outputs as compared to target output and input to determine the distribution of rewards or the imposition of penalties. In other words, the organizational can only address the issue of appraisal, rewards and development in a partial manner, and that the driving force is profit maximization goals. This sometimes creates problems such as fraud, misappropriation, falsification and theft all of which are undesirables elements of organizational behaviour.

As emphasizes earlier, Islam views an individual as having both economic and spiritual goals, as a spiritual entity whose rationality is guided by the *Qur'an* and *Sunnah* and as being engaged in satisfying rather than maximizing economic goals. There is a need to realize the superiority of the soul (eternal) over the body (temporal). In pursuing his/her livelihood, an individual must simultaneously fulfill his physical and spiritual needs. As an example, we examined *Lawlers Expectancy Model*, which is based on a commonly used motivation theory.

According to the *Lawler Expectancy Model*, an Individuals performance is related to the expected outcome which in turn, influences him/her to exert effort according his/her ability. The model has been tested empirically by many scholars, some of whom concluded that goals influenced performance as well as expectancy. It is observed that setting of harder goals with the intent of building higher expectations maximizes performance. It may be observed that motivation is both extrinsic and intrinsic, and that emphasizing extrinsic rewards may reduce intrinsic motivation which in turn may reduce the subsequent inclination to perform that activity.

3.2.1 Performance Evaluation

In today's business environment, performance evaluation generally serves four objectives: measuring organizational progress in meeting goals, enabling senior managers to know what has been done, providing feedback to and developing subordinates and allocating rewards. These general objectives have evolved over centuries. Their ambiguity, articulation, specificity, and enforcement have been influenced mostly by the degree of task specificity, the nature of jobs, and the evolution and progress of management and organizational thought. The latter seems to be the most important factor in shaping the seriousness of and commitment to performance evaluation.

Two considerations have influenced performance evaluation in Islam: normative instruction and the practise of the Prophet Muhammad and his immediate four caliphs. The normative realm in revealed in Quranic instruction. These general instructions can be viewed as relevant to work aspects and employees activities. Employees are expected to have a moral duty to monitor their performance. These intrinsic aspects however are more likely to transform into action in an environment of reciprocal trust and understanding of religious principles.

The sayings and practises of Prophet Muhammad and his immediate four caliphs also influence the outlook toward performance evaluation. Muhammad commands that "*Muslims shall be bound by the conditions which they make*". Furthermore, he makes it obligatory for employees to perfect their work and be responsible for what they do irrespective of their position or social and organizational hierarchy. The second *caliph*, Umar used three approaches to monitor performance: directly reviewed public complaints and asking subordinates for

accountability, sending monitors to access the performance of public officers and giving assessment and feedback to governance and subordinates during the session of pilgrimage. Imam Ali specified that evaluation of subordinates must be strictly based on deed and behaviour toward the public. There were two approaches in carrying out the evaluation direct and indirect. The direct approach was done by the caliph himself for those who were working around him or those who were asked to bring their records with them to be evaluated. The second was done by sending monitors to far regions to evaluate governance and other employees.

3.2.2 Value-based Total Excellence Performance

Value-based total excellence performance is requirements from Islamic Perspective. This standard is a systematic and, scientific mechanism for measuring performance excellence of organization, both in the public and private sectors. The objective of establishing of this value-based model is to institute a constant, conscious focus on Islamic ethics and values which are universal.

The Value-based Total Excellence Performance is the result of two concepts in Islamic- *falah* (highest level of success) and *ihsan* (excellence). The strength of the Value-based Total Performance Excellence Model lies in the direct incorporation of core values in each of the 12 dimension of organizational performance, namely, leadership, objective and strategy, change management, resource management, best practice, innovation, productivity focus, employee focus, customer relationship and stakeholder focus, as well as financial and non-financial results. For example, with regard to productivity focus the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) says, to the effect that: “Allah loves those workers who perform their works to their abilities” (narrated by al-Baihaqi).

The value-based measures are addressed explicitly in the baseline assessment using selected indicators, which are assigned accordingly to each dimension. The incorporation of values is the distinctive fact in the standard. This approach to Baseline Assessment is not alien to Islam. There are many evidence in the Holy Quran explicitly address the issue of measurement. For example, in Chapter 41 verse 10, Allah S.W.T says: “*He set on the (earth). Mountains standing firm, high above it, and bestowed blessing on the earth, and measured therein all things to give them nourishment in due proportion, in four days, in accordance with (the needs of) those who seek sustenance.* In another verse Allah S.W.T says: “*And we send down water from the sky according to (due) measure, and We cause it to soak in the soil; and We certainly are able to drain it off (with ease).* (Chapter 23, Verse 18). With regards to the use of measurement in trades, Allah SWT says: *And O my people! Give just measure and weight, nor withhold from the people the things that are their due: commit not evil in the land with intent to do mischief*” (Chapter 11 Verse 85). It is therefore a step forward from the existing business excellence models developed by others.

3.2.3 Consequence of Performance in Islamic Perspective

There are several factors that shape and influence attitudes toward performance evaluation and subsequently hinder its implementation. Three factors stand out as having the most lasting impact: religious consideration, personal relationship, and bureaucratic tendencies. In term of religion, there are at least three issues that often render performance evaluation irrelevant regarding punishment or disciplinary actions. The first issue pertains to the common understanding and religious edict that firing employees may constitute a violation of spirit guidelines and commitment to the community. The second revolves around *Rehema* (mercy), *ihsan* (kindness), and *adel* (justice). These emphasize the goodness of forgiveness and communicating good news. The last religious concern is related to several factors to be considered before one is subjected to a disciplinary action.

In the workplace, the employees must sustain a good relationship with the employer in order to receive the desired outcome of the evaluation on his or her performance. Those who are responsible for making recommendation avoid being seen as harsh or inconsiderate. The bureaucracy aspects of the evaluation enable managers to follow specific guidelines and procedures. They allow them to produce recommendations regarding the subject under consideration. These recommendation, however, are filed in the personal folder but there is no intention of implementing them. The employees are either not informed about them or are informed informally about them with clear signal that they will not be implemented.

3.3 Organizational Development (OD)

One of the core corners of successor organization and our social activity is based on leadership. It refers to a process of influencing and supporting others to work enthusiastically toward achieving objective. It is the major factor for the success of any organization whether it is small or large, formal or informal. Managerial role is an approach of getting things done through others but in more effectively and efficiently. Prophet Muhammad(sm)

said “the leader of jamaah (an organization/community/nation)Is their servant. Hence, a leader should be in business of serving and helping others get ahead.”

3.3.1 OD consultant/ Manager/ group leader characteristics

There are different types of leadership but in organizational level leader will consider the top management of any organization under whom a whole system is working. On the other hand, a leader could be an OD consultant; in the time of need organization invite them to solving issues. There should some specific characteristics of these aforesaid leaders. So in view of Islam, leader led a group to accomplishing the ethical goal and objectives if he/she has following features:

- **Loyal**

The Islamic leader is bound in loyalty to Allah and for whom he is working. He should do his work as consider his own not in sense to achieve reward form his boss but get it from Allah.

- **Global Islamic goals**

The manager/leader perceives the goals of an organization not only in term of interest of the group but in terms of Islamic objectives that his effort will contribute for the betterment of the whole nation.

- **Adherence to Shariah and Islamic manners**

The leader must adhere Islamic injunctions and continue his work in office as committed. His behavior must conform to Islamic manner.

- **Delegated Trust**

The Islamic leader should respect the job which has given to him and also maintain the trust of organization. “*Those who, if we give them power in the land, establish Salat and pay Zakat and enjoy the right and forbid the wrong, with Allah rests the end of affairs*” (Surah Al Hajj)

3.3.2 Diagnose and Intervention

Intervention is the most important activity in organizational development process. The OD process will manage by internal consultant (internal change agent) or external consultant (external change agent). The data from client organization will be collected through diagnosis before intervention process. There are three criteria for the primary tasks of an interventionist (1) getting a valid and useful information, (2) free choice, and (3) internal commitment (Argyris, 1970). After getting information about the symptom or weaknesses in organization, consultant will suggest a prescription to the organization for change or development. The same practice like diagnose and intervention in Islam is *muhasabah* or self-reflection or evaluation either for personal development or organization (jamaah). This process stress by al-Quran for instance in surah Al-Hasyar (59:18-19) and also by Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. From the Syadad bin Aus from the Prophet s.a.w said “*People who are clever evaluate himself and work for life after death. While poor people are who himself follows his own lusts and daydreaming against God (From Imam Turmidzi, he said, 'This hadith is hasan).* Among companion, most popular statement is by Omar al-Khattab who said “*hasabu qabla an tuhasibu*” means that “*evaluate yourself before you will evaluate hereafter*”. From this practice, we can divide the process of *muhasabah* into *muhasabah al-fardiah* (personal reflection) and *muhasabah al-jamaah* (organizational reflection). Individual or organization should reflect themselves to diagnose their weaknesses for their development.

3.3.3 Group Building In Organization

A group in Islamic point of view defines as a group of people working together on a continuing mission with common (halal) goals and objectives. It has to be organized nourished through effective team leader and

management. It is said in Hadith “The hand of Allah is with the team (jama’ah). Then, whoever singled out for the Hell-Fire.”

Group building encourages team members to examine how they work together, identify their weaknesses and develop more effective ways of organization. Islam encourages to focusing on individual’s strong point and put aside the weak point because it generates strengths amount group member. The main shortcoming of an organization or accompany is the pervasive feeling that unless we agree with a person 100%, we cannot work with him/her. Islam emphasize that no one is perfect in this world except Prophet Muhammad (sm). The organization should build a bridge between top management and their subordinates so they work as a group and support each other to build new attitude.

3.3.4 Organizational Environment or culture

Organizational environment is everything beyond the boundary of the system that can indirectly or directly affect performance and outcome. Open system, organization and people, exchange information and resources with their environment. The primary element which should be practiced in organization is to encourage their employees in offering prayers and look after their interests with justice and also run their activities in disciplined and systematic way. When people in organization will come to the mosque they interact with each other and build relationships which often become helpful for solving miner issues.

3.3.4 Operational Principles

There is some suggested principles mention in the light of Islam which should exist in the organization which equally effective from top management to worker level. The principles are, shura, freedom of thought, source of Islamic jurisprudence, justice, accountability, sincerity, dignity of labour.

Shura means consulting matter with other before taking decision. It is also a fundamental aspect of democratic system. Organization top management should consult with their subordinates in formulating any strategy or policy. It can be seen in Islamic history that Prophet (sm) never took decision without the consultation of their companions.

Allah (SwT) says “*And those who have answered the call of their lord and establish prayer and who conduct their affairs by consultation and spend out what we bestow on them for sustenance.*”

Islam encourages freedom of thought. The organization should create such an environment that all staff members can freely give their opinion on any issues. Umar (R) said that there were people in the Ummah who would correct him if he went astray.

There are four sources of Islamic Jurisprudence. These are *Quran*, *Hadith*, *Ijmah*, and *Kias*. While managing any activity, the organization people should find hints for solution in the light of Islamic jurisprudence simultaneously. Firstly, the hint should try to find out from *Quran* which provide complete guideline about every aspect of life. Secondly, search in *Hadith* if unable to find hints from *Quran* and if not available in *Hadith* then thirdly look into *Ijamah* and lastly go to *Kias* which means consulting a religiously learned person.

The management of the organization should see that they are practicing justly and fairly to their subordinates. The Quran command Muslim to be fair and just in any circumstances even if the verdict goes against them. It’s a vital component of an organization in the light of Islam. All the managers must be accountable for their duties and responsibilities to the board of director. If everyone in the organization follow this role as a part of duty than there will be no need of OD consultant for solving issues. The Quranic terminology of sincerity is *Khulusiat* and Holy Quran urges people to be utmost sincere in his prayers, meditations and good deeds.

Islam strongly emphasized on the matter pertaining to dignity of labor. A very famous saying of Prophet Muhammad (SM) “Pay the wages to the labor before his sweat dries up” (*Hadith Al Bukhari*). It has been mention in *Quran* that earning as the best, which is earned by the toil of the labor. Hence, an organization should duly recognize the dignity of all categories of effort especially physical labor and employees.

4. Conclusion

Drucker (1993) expressed that today’s capitalist world community is a post-capitalist society in which business organizations lead to transnationalism. Community itself leads to a knowledge society. After the fall of the philosophy, ideas or ideology of communism that indicated by the fall of the Soviet Union made the world seem to converge to a new paradigm based on capitalism. The concept of new world order seems to be the process of

convergence through the efforts of United States. Development agenda of the international community seems to capitalism, however, look like face with a greater problems. Some countries are still struggling to face the problems such as exploitation, injustice, imperialism and new forms of imbalances. Clearly the major capitalist countries tend to highlight efforts to dominate and look for hegemony that could affect the growth or recession. These conditions also affect other aspects of development including human resource development. No solution to the problems of the past such as the development gap and the poverty at the global level. Thus, for the Muslim community is more integrated development, including in human capital development must be supported by their own. The question is, why the Muslim community itself does not return to the paradigm of *tawhid*, especially in the context of human capital development ? Islam is a religion that covered every single aspect of human life, which include human capital development and human resource development. The main objectives of a Muslim in the dimension of HRD are not only focusing on the development of the individual or organization, but to seek the recognition from Allah; and success in the world and Hereafter.

5. References

- Al-Quran
Al-Hadith
Abulhassan Muhammad Sadeq (2003). Economic development in Islam. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publications & Distributors.
Al-Zandani, Abdul Majid Aziz (1989). Tawhid: Scientific Approach (book 1). Petaling Jaya: Al-Rahmaniah.
Argyris, C. (1970). Intervention Theory and Method. Reading: Addison Wesley.
Baqir Sadr (1983). Beam power of Islam. Kuala Lumpur: Islamic Media Communication.
Bennabi, M. (2003). The Question of Culture (trans.). Kuala Lumpur: Islamic Book Trust.
Drucker, P.F. (1993). Post capitalist Society. Oxford: Heineman.
Mansour Fakhri (2002). Development Theory and the collapse of Globalisasi. Celeban: INSIST Press.
M. Kamal Hassan (1992). "Construction of Malaysia, the High Berperadaban A Developed Country. " Congress Toward the 21st Century: Islam and the Vision 2020 (pp. 145-164). Kuala Lumpur: IKIM
Mohd Nasir bin Omar (1986). Islamic Civilization and Ideologies Today. NSW: Publication Nahdi
Mohd. Radzi Othman & Ghafarullahuddin Din (2005). Economy in the Perspective of Al-Quran and Al-Sunnah. Pulau Pinang: Penerbit Universiti Sains Malaysia.
Muhammad Abdullah Al-Buraey (1990). Management & Administration in Islam. Dharan: King Fahd University.
Sardar, Ziauddin & Rosser-Owen, David G. (1977). "Science Policy and Developing Countries ". In Ina Spiegel-Rosing & Derek de Solla Price (eds), Science, Technology and Society: A Cross Disciplinary Perspective. London: Sage Publications.
Syed Othman Al-Habshi (1992). "Islam and Economic Development in Malaysia: A Paradigm Change. " Congress Toward the 21st Century: Islam and Vision 2020 (Pp.175-189). Kuala Lumpur: IKIM
Werner, M. & Huntington, S. (1987). Understanding Political Development. Boston: Little Brown & Co.

The 'OCTAPAC' Culture As A Core Component Of HRD Climate: A Survey

Roziana Shaari¹⁺, Abdul Rahman Mohammed Hamed Al Afi², Azizah Rajab¹ and Shah Rollah Abdul Wahab¹

¹ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

² Ministry of Education in the Sultanate of Oman

Abstract The concept of Human Resource Development (HRD) requires a specific and congenial climate to flourish. In other words, it can be said that success of HRD in an organization depends on the existence of a favorable HRD climate. HRD climate deals with the interactions among employees within the organization from different levels using a set of techniques to achieve the objectives of the organization and to ensure the development of the employees who share similar culture that enhances productivity and spirit of innovation. This paper measures HRD culture known as "OCTAPAC culture" as first introduced by Rao and Abraham 1986. In order to understand how it can be function as a source of sustained competitive advantage, this study investigated the practices of OCTAPAC in the Ministry of Education headquarters in the Sultanate of Oman. According to Rao and Abraham model, OCTAPAC culture is determined to be a core component of HRD climate.

Keywords: HRD climate, HRD culture, openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proactivity, autonomy, collaboration

1. Introduction

Human resource development is considered a new science. This term was defined for the first time by Nadler in 1970 (Hamlin & Stewart, 2011) and has become the cornerstone for any organization to go forward and cope with future changes and needs enhancing by its high performance, productivity and ability to read the surrounding environment.

Kayani (2008) cited a definition for T.V. Rao describe HRD as a process by which the employees of an organization are helped, in a continuous, planned way, to acquire or sharpen capabilities required to perform various functions associated with their present or expected future roles; develop their general capabilities as individuals and discover and exploit their own inner potential for their own and/or organizational development purposes; develop an organizational culture in which the supervisor-subordinate relationships, teamwork, and collaboration among sub-units are strong and contribute to the professional well-being, motivation and pride of employees. This definition is considered is the base for HRD climate where it takes into consideration the practice of HRD in the organization and the role of individuals, putting emphasis on the work culture and becoming an integral part of the organization's climate.

HRD climate is considered as a fundamental part of the organization's climate. It deals in-depth with employee-employee and manager-employees relationships, the mechanisms which facilitate these relationships, and the culture that enhances these relationships. Chaudhary et al. (2013), citing Rao and Abraham, suggested that "HRD climate could be defined as a sub-climate of overall organizational climate which reflects the perception that the employees have of the development environment of the organization" (p.42).

The relation between HRD and education is very strong and interdependent; where there is a need for advanced education to provide the market with qualified human recourses, only qualified human resources can produce this type of education. Thus educational institutions are very aware of the need for qualified employees to help them in planning and developing the educational system. For example, in terms of education, Scandinavian countries were ranked within the top 25 countries in the world in human development index, with

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: +607-5610064 (office)
E-mail address: rozianas@management.utm.my.

Norway ranked first internationally in human development. Thus, education plays a major role when it comes to ranking and evaluating human resource development in any given country by taking in consideration the expansion and quality of education and its influences in human lives and the country's development. "In fact the education and skills of the workforce will be the key competitive weapon for the rest of the 1990s as well as for the 21st century (Tan, 1996).

The above statement emphasizes the importance of HRD climate inside the organizations, either public or private because by providing a supportive and productive climate in the organization, individuals can exercise their potential and contribute to the achievement of the goals of the organization. "A good work climate can improve an individual's work habits, while a poor climate can erode good work habits (Galer et al, 2005, p.51)". Most importantly, a positive work climate leads to and sustains staff motivation and high performance. The HRD climate can be related to relation between managers and employees and how the top management looks at the importance of HRD and facilitates employee development. Also, it deals with the relation among the employees themselves and how seniors give hand to juniors in order to improve skills and knowledge, and prepare them for future responsibilities. Moreover, the institution should provide a conducive psychological climate that enhances employee development.

This study however focuses on one of the main components in HRD climate namely the 'OCTAPAC' culture. A strong culture within the organization can facilitate communication, decision making and control, and create cooperation and commitment. The institution's culture could be strong and cohesive when it has a clear and explicit set of principles and values, which the management devotes considerable time to communicate to employees, and which values are shared widely across the organization (Ng'ang'a & Nyongesa, 2012). HRD culture is a wide term, so Rao in 1986 tried to create a framework that makes culture somewhat measurable through focusing on some of its characteristics. The framework became known as OCTAPAC culture. OCTAPAC stands for Openness, Confrontation, Trust, Authenticity, Proactivity, Autonomy and Collaboration. If these characteristics are practiced well in educational institutions, all parties involved will be very supportive of enhancing the quality of education and coping with the rapid change in educational field and technology.

Some researchers discuss HRD culture and organizational culture interchangeably and it is defined as shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms in organizations (Zhu & Engels, 2014). Culture is an open environment that is receptive and where employees are proactive, have the time to introduce and take in new ideas and work together to identify problems and opportunities, and encourage learning. So, by identifying the employees' perceptions about the HRD culture, the ministry of education will determine how far the existing culture is tied and flexible, and if it is able to modify behavior, structures, and systems and examine to what extent the employees have common beliefs, values, and expectations. Also, this study will help the ministry to appreciate the degree to which employees are satisfied with the current culture and to what degree this culture contributes to their performance, their ability to reach their expectations and improves employee retention rates.

Decision makers in the ministry should be aware of the reality and practices of the HRD climate within the ministry headquarters to see the areas that need more attention, as well as finding solutions to the influx of qualified people from headquarters. However, it is not necessary to study perception to discover faults in the organization and solve them, it could be for developmental purposes such as nurturing the ability to predict the coming challenges and recognize possible opportunities for a better future because the core function of HRD core is to be proactive, not reactive. Therefore, studying HRD climate in the field of education and particularly in the Ministry of Education shows the current status of the ministry and what the ministry must do to develop to cope with future demands for the benefit of both current and future generations. In particular, this study attempts to examine the employees' perceptions about HRD culture practiced in the Ministry of Education headquarters.

2. Literature Review

2.1 HRD in Oman

Much effort has been expended to improve human resource in Oman with significant support from HM Sultan Qaboos who emphasizes the importance of developing Omani citizens in his annual speeches. For instance, in his speech at the opening of the Council of Oman's fifth term on 31st October 2011, Sultan Qaboos said: "We have constantly stressed the importance we attach to the development of human resources. We have pointed out that these resources take top priority in our plans and programs, since it is the human being who is the cornerstone of every development enterprise; he is the pivotal element around which every type of development revolves, since its ultimate goal is to ensure the happiness of the individual, enable him to enjoy a decent life and guarantee his security and safety" (Ministry of Information, 2010).

HRD plays a major role in Oman Vision (2020) -which was launched in 1995- in five ways. First, achieving a balance between population and economic growth. Second, provision of basic health services and reduction of the rate of mortality and infectious diseases. Third, dissemination, encouragement and patronage of knowledge and the development of education. Fourth, establishing a post-secondary and technical system based on the provision of the main specializations required by national economy, together with the provision of the necessary facilities for carrying out applied research in the social and economic fields. Fifth, creating employment opportunities for Omanis in public and private sectors in addition to equipping them with training and qualifications that conform to labour market requirement (Siyabi, 2012).

In general, HRD practitioners in Oman think that the government is on the right track. In 2012 the government spent about R.O 121.2 million for learning and R.O 13.4 million for vocational training which means R.O134.5 million (about \$ 347.5 million) (National Center for Statistics and Information, 2013b) in order to develop the human resources. However, no matter how much the government has spent in HRD, the main issue is the real return on this money. Although a number of studies have covered HRD in Oman from general national perspective such as training, learning and employment, there is a shortage of studies which describe HRD within the organization context such as HRD culture, practice or climate which exists there.

2.2 HRD Culture

Historically, the word culture derives from the Latin word ‘colere’, which could be translated as “to build”, “to care for”, “to plant” or “to cultivate” (Dahl, 2004). Culture as defined by Hofstede (1998) is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another. It consists of the beliefs, values, norms, and artefacts within the organization, representing its unique character or personality. Moreover, culture helps to hold an organization together with the use of what Hofstede described as social glue. Another scholar defines a culture an open environment that is receptive and where employees are proactive, have the time to introduce and take in new ideas and work together to identify problems and opportunities, and encourage learning.

T.V. Rao tried to establish a framework to conceptualize HRD culture, or OCTAPAC culture, which define the organizational culture or HRD culture which exists in the organization. It stands for Openness, Confrontation, Trust, Authenticity, Proactivity, Autonomy and Collaboration. These values contribute to foster a continuous development climate for employees in an organization. Also, these values are essential to facilitate HRD. The OCTAPAC culture has elements such as open and frank communication system, creating an environment of trust, participation in decision making and the encouragement of innovation. In addition, it promotes a proactive attitude towards development by employees and line managers, and an authentic approach towards developmental issues. OCTAPAC culture provides a positive environment for settling matters of dispute and grievances forthrightly with positive interaction (Mohanty et al 2012).

2.2.1 Openness

Openness describes an environment where people can express their ideas, opinions and feelings freely to anyone regardless of the title they hold. They have the freedom to communicate, share and interact without hesitation. Abraham (2012) defined it as “an environment where employees feel free to express their ideas and the willingness of the organization to take risks and to experiment with new ideas and new ways of doing things” (p. 916). Openness is displayed when employees feel free to discuss their ideas, activities and feelings with each other as defined by (Agrawal, 2005; Chaudhary et al, 2011). Brown (2007) defined it as a “spontaneous expression of feelings and thoughts and receiving feedback and information without defensiveness” (p. 63).

2.2.2 Confrontation

Confrontation can be defined as facing, and not shying away from problems; deeper analysis of interpersonal problems; taking on challenges (Brown, 2007; Famina, 2009). However, it is not individual work but group work where employees are required to find solutions and tackle issues directly without hiding them or avoiding them for fear of hurting others (Abraham, 2012) or getting hurt (Agrawal, 2005). Therefore, employees should work together to face problems and challenges boldly to find solutions, tackle them directly and frankly, and address the areas that need improvement rather than finding fault with anybody. Thus organizations should

encourage people to recognize a problem, speak up, diagnosis and analyze it and devise ways to overcome it.

2.2.3 Trust

Trust as defined by (Brown, 2007; Famina, 2009) is “maintaining confidentiality of information shared by others and not misusing it; a sense of assurance that others will help when needed and will honour mutual obligations and commitments” (p. 63, p75). Another definition by Abraham (2012) described trust as “the extent to which employees individually and in groups trust each other and can be relied upon to do whatever they say they will do” (p. 619). (Choudhury, 2012) thinks trust is developed slowly and it is related to openness where openness can help to raise trust in the mind of employees. It is about keeping the confidentiality of information shared and not misusing it.

2.2.4 Authenticity

Authenticity is the value underlying trust (Lather et al, 2010). It is the congruence between what one feels, says and does (Famina, 2009) which means that people do what they say. It is about owning one's actions, taking responsibility for mistakes and the unreserved sharing of feelings. Famina suggested that authenticity is closer to openness and can reduce the distortion of information in the organization. Choudhury (2012) agreed with Famina in the definition and its closeness to openness, and stated that authenticity is important in order to develop a mature culture within the organization. The outcome of authenticity enhances openness in the climate of the organization as the behaviour of a person who is authentic or genuine is easy to predict.

2.2.5 Proactivity or Pro-Action

Proactivity is when employees are action-oriented, willing to take initiative and value preplanning. In addition, proactivity dictates that, preventive action and alternatives are explored well in advance. Employees are able to predict certain issues and act or respond to the needs of the future (Abraham, 2012). (Brown, 2007; Famina, 2009) defined proactivity is “taking initiative, preplanning and taking preventive action and calculating the pay offs of an alternative course before taking action”. It enables a person to start a new process or set a new pattern of behavior. In this sense, proactivity means freeing oneself from, and taking action beyond immediate concerns. This culture teaches employees how to form strategic plan and enhance the spirit of initiative.

2.2.6 Autonomy

Autonomy is “giving freedom to let people work independently with responsibility” (Agrawal, 2005). Thus, employees are free to act independently within the margins imposed by their role/job, or certain limits set by the organization. Employees enjoy the power of their position but should respect others and encourage others to do the same. Management should understand and respect this characteristic in employees and delegate them some authority to enable them to experience a sense of worth within the organization, thereby instilling a sense of responsibility to the organization. The result of autonomy is growth of mutual respect between employees and employers, confidence among employees, improved individual initiative, enhanced creativity, and better success planning.

2.2.7 Collaboration

Collaboration is a cooperative process where employees work together, combining individual strengths for a common reason. Collaborative individuals do not solve their problems by themselves, they share their concerns with others in order to help them through preparing strategies, working out plans of action and implementing them together (Abraham, 2012). Agrawal (2005) suggested that “collaboration is to accept inter-dependencies to be helpful to each other and work as teams” (p. 119). It is about how to give help to, and ask help from others, working together as a team to solve problems (Brown, 2007) in a friendly and open climate in the organization.

An empirical study of HRD climate and OCTAPAC culture in FMCG companies in India done by Wani and published in July 2013 pointed out that “Manager Support for subordinate Development” and “HRD towards employee development” are important factors contributing to general supportive climate for HRD. However, there are some factors that do not score that well: “Top managements interest towards Potential Appraisal” and “Top management Support in HRD” with their individual mean values of 2.37 and 2.5 respectively are significantly lower than the group average. For workers “Top management belief in HRD” and “Manager Support for subordinate development” topped the list and “Time and resources towards HRD” and “Manager support to HRD” scored below average. Thus, he recommended more support, time and resources should be provided by the top management towards HRD.

Srimannarayana (2009) conducted a survey which involved 726 employees working in 18 organizations in manufacturing sector in India and found that OCTAPAC culture is ranked first among the three categories of HRD climate with relatively high scores on collaboration, authenticity and trust.

A study done by Saraswathi (2010) to assess the extent of HRD climate prevailing in software and manufacturing organizations in India shows that both organizations practice OCTAPAC culture in a good way. In software organizations, respondents expressed very positively that the employees in their respective organizations are very informal. Employees do not hesitate to discuss their personal problems with their supervisors and employees are not afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their subordinates. On the other hand, openness and proactivity scored excellent in manufacturing organizations, while trust, autonomy and authenticity are moderate in the organizations. Collaborative and confrontation scored an average of 54 percent. The study concludes that the OCTAPAC existing in the software organizations under study is better than the manufacturing organizations.

A study conducted in SBI bank in Bhopal region in India by Mittal and Verma (2013) presents that employees aged between 36 and 45 do not feel free to discuss their ideas, activities and feelings. Rather than hiding them they want someone to listen to their problems and issues openly in order to find a solution. They ask for freedom to work independently and take initiative to experiment with new ideas. Respondents with 11-15 year experience in their career thought that OCTAPAC culture needs to be activated in the workplace. They feel there is a real need for openness in thought and work, enhancing team work and community of trust, exploring new things, and promoting advance thinking about future issue and change. Also, they need to enhance authenticity culture and confront the problems rather than hide them.

3. Methodology

The basic objective of this research is descriptive; it aims to answer fundamental questions regarding to the HRD climate in the Ministry of Education in the Sultanate of Oman. Thus, this chapter primarily describes the methods used to gather and analyze data. Most of the data came from surveys and questionnaire which are the primary sources of gathering information about an issue. This study was applied in the Ministry of Education headquarters in the Sultanate of Oman. The headquarters is located in Muscat, the capital city of Oman. The total number of employees in the ministry headquarters is about 2963. However, this study focuses mainly on the employees who work in three directorates general under undersecretary for educational planning and human resource development: Directorate General of Human Resource development, Directorate General of Planning and Quality Control, and Directorate General of Educational Evaluation. The number of employees in these three directorates is about 530 according to the latest Ministry database in August 2014. Accordingly, the sample should be between 217 and 226 based on the sampling table of regarding to Krejcie and Morgan (1970). However, of 273 questionnaires distributed, only 222 were returned.

The instrument used in this study is adopted from standard research questionnaire developed by Rao and Abraham in 1986. Since that date, it has been used by many researchers. In 2012, Chaudhary et al found the reliability of the questionnaire is .942 which considered strongly reliable (excellent) according to Cronbach's Alpha reliability range (see table 1) cited from (Chen et al, 2002). A recent study done by Dash et al in 2013 found the reliability is 0.844 which considered very reliable (good). Ganihar and Nayak (2007) modified the questionnaire and reduced the number of items to 35; the reliability of the tool was established to be 0.87. Even with 3 less items, the questionnaire is still valid and reliable. In this study, the reliability was tested and for the HRD OCTAPAC culture dimension the reliability index for 15 items tested was 0.928.

Table 1: Interpretation of Reliability Based on Cronbach's Alpha (Chen et al, 2002)

Cronbach's Alpha	Score
Excellent	$0.9 < \alpha \leq$
Good	$0.8 < \alpha \leq 0.9$
Acceptable	$0.7 < \alpha \leq 0.8$
Questionable	$0.6 < \alpha \leq 0.7$
Poor	$0.5 < \alpha \leq 0.6$
Unacceptable	$< \alpha \leq 0.5$

This questionnaire is translated into Arabic because the formal language in Oman is Arabic and most of the employees prefer to answer in their mother tongue. Later the answers are translated back into English to be processed by SPSS software. Del et al. (1987) said: "translation of questionnaires is required when information is collected from people of different language groups". They believe that a literal translation is preferred but it is not always meaningful, so the preliminary translation should be done by someone who is aware of the overall objective of the questionnaire as well as the intent behind each question. The evaluation of the preliminary translation can be done in two ways. The first evaluation is by experts to ensure that the translated version is quite similar to the original in its content, meaning and clarity of expression. The second method is back-translation which involves giving the translated version to someone who is expert in language and asking him to translate it back to the mother language of the original questionnaire. Both methods need to be repeated until the translated questionnaire is satisfactory.

The scale of the instrument was shifted from five to six possible responses. The reason is to break the walls of fear among respondents so that they can choose answers to reflect the reality. Respondents are asked to freely choose their responses to the items. Thus, this questionnaire is redesigned based on a 6 point Likert ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Table 2 represents the six-point scale that is used in the questionnaire and table 3 determines the position of the mean scores in 6-point scale.

Table 2: Six-point Scale of HRD climate Questionnaire

Scale	Response	In Arabic
1	Strongly Disagree	ب شدة مءافق عفر
2	Disagree	مءافق عفر
3	Somewhat Disagree	ما حد إلى مءافق عفر
4	Somewhat Agree	ما حد إلى مءافق
5	Agree	مءافق
6	Strongly Agree	ب شدة مءافق

Table 3: The Determination of the Position of the Mean Scores in 6-Point Likert Scale (Khademfar & Idris, 2012)

Range	Level
1 – 2.66	Low
2.67 – 4.35	Moderate
4.36 – 6	High

4. Results

This section is about respondents' perceptions of the OCTAPAC culture that existed in the Ministry of Education headquarters. The total number of items is 15 and they are all at moderate level. The items are arranged according to OCTAPAC starting with Openness and ending with Collaboration.

More than half (59.4%) of the respondents are afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their superiors while (58.1%) of them are not afraid to do the same with their colleagues (items No 1&2). Almost half (49.6%) of the respondents confront problems which arise and try to solve them rather than continuing to accuse each other behind the back; however, more than half (55.5%) of them do not have the will to learn the truth about their strengths and weaknesses from their supervising officers or colleagues (items No 3&4).

More than half (59%) of respondents think people trust each other in this ministry (item No 5), and accordingly (63%) of them feel there is genuine sharing of information, feelings and thoughts in meetings (item No 6). However, items (No 7&8) show that people in the ministry are not very authentic as more than half

(58.1%) of them think that people in the ministry have some fixed mental impressions about each other, and (64.4%) of them see that employees in the ministry are too formal and hesitate to discuss their personal problems with their supervisor.

It seems that more than half (64%) of the respondents do not get the opportunity to try out what they have learnt from training programs they attended (item No 9), and item (No 10) supports this attitude where (51%) of them feel less motivated to take initiative and do things on their own without having to wait for instructions from supervisors. On the other hand, (56.7%) of them tend to agree that employees are encouraged to experiment with new methods and try out creative ideas (item No 11). The span of autonomy is quite restricted where more than half (61.3%) of respondents express that it is not common to delegate authority to juniors to enable them to develop their abilities to handle increased responsibility even though more than two-thirds (68.9%) of them think that when seniors delegate authority to juniors, the juniors use it as an opportunity for development, (items No 12&13). On the other hand, more than half (56.3%) of them feel that spirit of collaboration is of the highest order in the ministry, and almost three quarters (74.7%) of them believe that people in the ministry are helpful to each other (See table 4 for further details).

Table 4: The OCTAPAC Culture

N	Item		SD	D	SW-D	SW-A	A	SA	M	STD
1	Employees are not afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their superiors.	<i>f</i> %	12 5.4	64 28.8	56 25.2	54 24.3	32 14.4	4 1.8	3.19	1.207
2	Employees are not afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their colleagues.	<i>f</i> %	13 5.9	30 13.5	50 22.5	51 23.0	60 27.0	18 8.1	3.76	1.356
3	When problems arise people discuss these problems openly and try to solve them rather than keep accusing each other behind the back.	<i>f</i> %	14 6.3	41 18.5	55 24.8	75 33.8	31 14.0	6 2.7	3.39	1.197
4	Employees in the ministry take pains to find out their strengths and weaknesses from their supervising officers or colleagues.	<i>f</i> %	19 8.6	61 27.5	43 19.4	59 26.6	32 14.4	8 3.6	3.22	1.321
5	People trust each other in this ministry.	<i>f</i> %	15 6.8	36 16.2	40 18.0	105 47.3	23 10.4	3 1.4	3.42	1.126
6	There is genuine sharing of information, feeling and thoughts in meetings.	<i>f</i> %	19 8.6	25 11.3	38 17.1	84 37.8	53 23.9	3 1.4	3.61	1.242
7	People in the ministry do not have any fixed mental impressions about each other.	<i>f</i> %	28 12.6	38 17.1	63 28.4	67 30.2	26 11.7	0 0	3.11	1.200
8	Employees in the ministry are very informal and do not hesitate to discuss their personal problems with their supervisor.	<i>f</i> %	26 11.7	52 23.4	65 29.3	45 20.3	29 13.1	5 2.3	3.06	1.278
9	Employees returning from training programs are given opportunities to try out what they have learnt.	<i>f</i> %	26 11.7	51 23.0	65 29.3	57 25.7	19 8.6	4 1.8	3.02	1.211
10	Employees are encouraged to experiment with new methods and try out creative ideas.	<i>f</i> %	29 13.1	26 11.7	41 18.5	91 41.0	30 13.5	5 2.3	3.37	1.290
11	Employees are encouraged to take initiative and do things on their own without having to wait for instructions from supervisors.	<i>f</i> %	33 14.9	41 18.5	39 17.6	82 36.9	26 11.7	1 .5	3.14	1.283
12	Delegation of authority to encourage juniors to develop handling higher responsibilities is quite common in the ministry.	<i>f</i> %	47 21.2	40 18.0	49 22.1	52 23.4	29 13.1	5 2.3	2.96	1.412
13	When seniors delegate authority to juniors, the juniors use it as an	<i>f</i> %	17 7.7	30 13.5	22 9.9	58 26.1	69 31.1	26 11.7	3.95	1.454

	opportunity for development.									
14	Team spirit is of higher order in the ministry.	<i>f</i>	21	34	42	79	43	3	3.44	1.263
		%	9.5	15.3	18.9	35.6	19.4	1.4		
15	People in the ministry are helpful to each other.	<i>f</i>	17	15	24	99	54	13	3.89	1.241
		%	7.7	6.8	10.8	44.6	24.3	5.9		
		Overall							3.37	.900

Note: N= Number, f= frequency, %= percentage, SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SW-D= Somewhat Disagree, SW-A= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, M= mean, STD= Standard Deviation

5. Discussion and Conclusion

In summary, this study presents that OCTAPAC culture is at the moderate level in the ministry headquarters. Employees are much more open with their colleagues than with their superiors. Confrontation culture seems debatable where employees can confront external issues but not their weakness. Trust culture is good where people trust each other in this ministry but authenticity culture is weak which makes trust culture questionable. Proactivity and autonomy cultures do not meet employee ambitions while collaboration culture is good.

Openness is there when employees feel free to discuss their ideas, activities and feelings with each other as defined by (Agrawal, 2005, p. 118; Chaudhary et al, 2011, p. 667). The result shows that there are two opposite opinions about openness in the ministry where respondents disagree that employees are not afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their superiors but they agree that employees are not afraid to express or discuss their feelings with their colleagues (items No 1&2 in Table 3). This somehow contradicts the results in the previous two sections which describe the relation between superiors and subordinate positive. Confrontation culture seems debatable where in item (No 3), the percentage of agreement and disagreement are close even though respondents tend to think that when problems arise people discuss these problems openly and try to solve them rather than keep accusing each other behind the back. However, the employees are not confrontational enough to discover their strengths and weaknesses as seen by their supervising officers or colleagues as shown in item (No 4).

Abraham (2012) described trust as “the extent to which employees individually and in groups trust each other and can be relied upon to do whatever they say they will do” (p. 619). According to the statistics, trust culture seems good where the respondents agree that people trust each other in this ministry, and there is genuine sharing of information, feelings and thoughts in meetings (items No 5&6). However, there is weakness at authenticity culture where respondents disagree that people in the ministry do not have any fixed mental impressions about each other, or employees in the ministry are very informal and do not hesitate to discuss their personal problems with their supervisor (items No 7&8). Authenticity culture makes trust culture questionable where (Lather et al, 2010, p. 352) defined authenticity as the value underlying trust.

Proactivity is when employees take initiatives and risks to explore the alternatives well in advance. It seems there is some contradiction about proactivity culture among respondents. For example, while they disagree that employees returning from training programs are given opportunities to try out what they have learnt, they agree that employees are encouraged to experiment with new methods and try out creative ideas (items No 9&10). Proactivity is overlapped with autonomy culture where item (No 11) shows that respondents, somehow, disagree that the employees are encouraged to take initiative and do things on their own without having to wait for instructions from supervisors. Bureaucracy still plays a role in the ministry’s practices preventing proactivity and autonomy. Autonomy as defined by (Agrawal, 2005) is giving freedom to let people work independently with responsibility but this has not been practiced here. Item (No 12) enhances this attitude where respondents do not think that delegation of authority to encourage juniors to develop handling higher responsibilities is quite common in the ministry. On the other hand, respondents agree that when seniors delegate authority to juniors, the juniors use it as an opportunity for development (item No 13). It becomes a matter of trust and it seems inconsistent with item (No 5), again making trust culture questionable.

Finally, Agrawal (2005) defined collaboration as “accepting inter-dependencies to be helpful to each other and to work as teams” (p.119). Collaboration culture is good where respondents express their agreement that team spirit is of higher order in the ministry, and people in the ministry are helpful to each other (items No 14&15).

This study concludes that the ministry should think about enhancing the HRD culture in the ministry which can facilitate communication, innovation and improve performance. The management should adopt an open door policy to sustain openness in the organization, letting subordinates communicate with them easily and discuss their problems face to face or using technology such as intranet or internet. These types of policies will create a comfortable climate in the organization leading to immediate problem solving, clarity in objectives and

job satisfaction. The ministry should encourage people to confront problems, to bring them up, diagnose and analyze them to arrive at suitable methods to overcome them instead of accusing each other. This culture builds problem solving abilities within organization members and enhances team discussions and decision making, reduces internal ambiguity and enables top management to deal with external or developmental issues.

6. Acknowledgements (Use “Header 1” style)

We would like to thank the Ministry of Education in Oman particularly participants from the Directorate General of Educational Evaluation, the Department of Certificates and Educational Qualifications.

7. References

- Abraham, S. (2012). Elements of Developmental Culture in Various Sectors in India. Paper presented at the International Conference on Technology and Business Management March, Dubai, 619-627.
- Agrawal, R. K., & Tyagi, A. (2010). Organisational Culture in Indian Organisations: an Empirical Study. *International Journal of Indian Culture and Business Management*, 3(1), 68-87.
- Brown, N. (2007). Employee Perceptions of Leadership and Organizational Culture in Geographically Separated Units: An Exploratory Analysis. Capella University, Minneapolis.
- Chaudhary, R., Rangnekar, S., & Barua, M. (2013). Human Resource Development Climate in India: Examining the Psychometric Properties of HRD Climate Survey Instrument. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, 17(1), 41-52.
- Chen, K.-M., Snyder, M., & Krichbaum, K. (2002). Translation and Equivalence: The Profile of Mood States Short Form in English and Chinese. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 39(6), 619-624.
- Dahl, S. (2004). Intercultural Research: The Current State of Knowledge. Middlesex University Business School Discussion Paper(26), 1-21.
- Dash, S. Mohapatra, J and Bhuyan, L.L. (2013). A Correlation of HRD Climate with Job Satisfaction of Employees: An Empirical Investigation on Mcl, Burla, Sambalpur, Odisha. *International Journal of Research in Business Management*, 1(2), 11-26.
- Del Greco, L., Walop, W., & Eastridge, L. (1987). Questionnaire development: 3. Translation. *CMAJ: Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 136(8), 817.818.
- Famina, A. (2009). OCTAPACE Profile and Human Resource Climate in a South Asian Public Sector Undertaking with Special Reference on KSFE. *Pranjana: The Journal of Management Awareness*, 12(2).
- Galer, J. B., Vriesendorp, S., & Ellis, A. (2005). *Managers Who Lead: A Handbook for Improving Health Services: Management Sciences for Health*, Massachusetts.
- Ganihar, N. N., & Nayak, S. V. (2007). *Human Resource Development and Teacher Education: Discovery Publishing House, New Delhi*.
- Hamlin, B., & Stewart, J. (2011). What is HRD? A Definitional Review and Synthesis of the HRD Domain. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 35(3), 199-220. doi: 10.1108/03090591111120377
- Hofstede, G. (1998). Attitudes, Values and Organizational Culture: Disentangling the Concepts. *Organization studies*, 19(3), 477-493.
- Kayani, M. T. (2008). Challenges of Human Resource Development to Pace with Globalization. (Master), National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad.
- Khademfar, M., & Idris, K. (2012). The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Health in Golestan Province of Iran. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(12), 218-229.
- Krejcie, R.V and Morgan, D.W. (1970), Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.
- Lather, A. S., Puskas, J., Singh, A. K., & Gupta, N. (2010). Organisational Culture: A Study of Selected Organisations in the Manufacturing Sector in the NCR. *Agric. Econ.-Czech*, 56(8), 349-358.
- Ministry of Information. (2010). *The Royal Speeches of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos Bin Said 1970-2010*. Muscat. Sultanate of Oman.
- Mittal, S., & Verma, B. (2013). HRD Climate in SBI Bank. *Pacific Business Review International*, 5(11), 17-22.

- Mohanty, B. (2012). An Empirical Study on HRD Climate and Its Impact on Job Performance in Private Insurance Companies in Odisha. *ZENITH International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 2(5), 15-28.
- National Center for Statistics and Information. (2013a). Monthly Statistical Bulletin December 2013. Issue 24. Muscat. Sultanate of Oman. http://www.ncsi.gov.om/NCSI_website/
- Ng'ang'a, M. J., & Nyongesa, W. J. (2012). The Impact of Organisational Culture on Performance of Educational Institutions. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(8), 2011-2017.
- Saraswathi, S. (2010). Human Resources Development Climate: An Empirical Study. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 1(2), 174-179.
- Siyabi, T. A. (2012). An Empirical Study of Education and Training Sector in the Sultanate Of Oman as an Indicator for the Development of Human Resources with Regard to Knowledge-Based Economy During the Period (1987-2008 G). (Master Degree), King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah.
- Srimannarayan, M. (2009). Human Resource Development Climate in Manufacturing Sector. *Management & Change*, 13(1), 131-142.
- Tan, G. (1996). *ASEAN Economic Development and Co-Operation*: Times Academic Press Singapore.
- Wani, T. A. (2013). An empirical study of HRD Climate and OCTAPAC Culture in FMCG Companies in India: A Case Study of Cadbury India-Thane Plant. *International Monthly Refereed Journal of Research In Management & Technology*, II(2320-0073), 100-106.
- Zhu, C., & Engels, N. (2014). Organizational Culture and Instructional Innovations in Higher Education Perceptions and Reactions of Teachers and Students. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(1), 136-158.

The Effect of Transfer Climate on Transfer Training

Yip Foon Yee and Norashikin Mahmud

Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract Nowadays, the workplace has become a competitive environment full of global and domestic competition, rapid changes in technology and computerization and greater demand for time management. It requires employees regularly to learn new skill and gain new information. Therefore, transfer training is getting important in organization to identify the effectiveness of training. Studies revealed that transfer climate is one of the most important factors that contribute to transfer training. Thus, the purpose of the present research is to identify the effect of transfer climate on transfer training. Four types of transfer climate (supervisor support, peer support, the opportunity to use and rewards) were measured for 183 police officers who attended driver training programs to predict the effectiveness of transfer training on driving competency. Data was analysed using *Statistic Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 19.0 and SmartPLS 3.0*. The results indicated that opportunity to use and rewards were significantly predicting driving competency. The results suggest that rewards and opportunity to use is potential tool to enhance transfer training.

Keywords: transfer climate, supervisor support, peer support, the opportunity to use and rewards, transfer training

1. Introduction

Faced with economic uncertainty, globalization, and competition, most organizations have invested a large amount of money in training program to improve employees' performance and competitive advantage. For example, the American Society for Training and Development estimated that US organizations spent about \$171 billion on employee training and development in 2011. Besides that, the report from the Tenth Malaysia Plan stated that an allocation of RM50 million will be provided to continue the matching grants for training and skills upgrading of employees in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). This represents the concern that the American and Malaysian organizations have in relation to training and developing their employees. However, the management of most organization continues to question whether employees can improve their performance through training after putting a large amount of investment in training. Therefore, it is important to investigate factors that influence the transfer of training in organizations.

According to Noe (2008), transfer of training refers to trainees' effectively and continually applying what they have learned in training to their jobs. Based on meta-analyses conducted in previous studies (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Grossman & Salas, 2011), transfer climate displays the closest relationship to training transfer compared to other components such as accountability, strategic link, opportunity to perform and social support. Previous studies have investigated several transfer climate variables such as the opportunity to perform, situational cues, supervisor support, peer support, and reward (Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Grossman & Salas, 2011). These studies showed that there is a significant relationship between transfer climate and transfer training. However, multiple measures exist for measuring transfer climate, each with a different focus, and this encourages the researcher to further clarify transfer climate as a factor. For example, Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) constructed a conceptual framework for transfer climate that includes situation cues and consequences. According to Lim & Morris (2006), transfer climate variables consist of responsiveness to change, education support, transfer opportunities and peer and supervisor support. Different measurement of transfer climate leads to the present study in the effort to investigate the effect of transfer climate and transfer training. In the present study, transfer climate is defined as the conditions in organizations that either prevent or encourage the

application of what has been learned in training to the job. Transfer climate in this study is divided into supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards.

Various studies defined transfer climate as work environment conditions that influence the generalization and maintenance of knowledge and skills learned during training (Holton, Bates, Seyler, & Carvalho, 1997; Machin & Fogarty, 2004; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). For example, the findings from Maria (2012) have confirmed that supervisor support is significantly related to transfer training. The result showed that perceived supervisor support is statistically correlated with training transfer. Harry (2010) stated that those with greater peer support have showed greater improvement than those with less peer support. A study carried out by Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe (2007) indicated that there was a significant correlation between opportunity and utilization of skills on the job. These studies indicated that transfer rewards such as verbal, praise and promotion chances moderately increase transfer training (Korunka, Dudak, Molnar, & Hoonakker, 2010). These studies also showed that transfer climate has a significant relationship with the degree of learning transferred from the training program to the workplace.

However, some inconsistent finding has been found in the literature of transfer training. According to meta-analysis study of Cheng and Ho (2001), the results from ten studies were found to have positive relationships between organizational support (one of the variables of transfer climate) and transfer training, whereas the remaining a study had negative relationships (Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006) and five studies had an insignificant link (Awoniyi, Griego, & Morgan, 2002; Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Ooi Ang Ling, Phuah Hui Woon, & Ven, 2011; Tziner & Haccoun, 1991; Van Der Klink, Gielen, & Nauta, 2001) . Besides that, the study by Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe (2007) indicated that supervisor support such as encouragement and verbal praise did not influence transfer of training. The inconsistency of these findings should serve as an encouragement for researchers to further study the effects of transfer climate and training transfer. Thus, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of transfer climate on transfer training.

2. Methodology

2.1 Respondents and settings

The respondent of this study consisted of police officers who attended police driving training for Vehicle class B and Vehicle class E2. **Each police driving training was designed to develop a foundation for drivers to make sound decisions and to ensure safe and effective vehicle operation under all conditions.** Each training consisted of two parts, which are theory session and practical practice. The duration of each training was three to four weeks. This present study used purposive sampling because the population of the study only consisted of 242 police officers, which is considered as a small-sized population and only those who attended the driving training were selected.

2.2 Procedures

Data collection was done through a guided self-administered questionnaire. Each participant was given an ID for tracing and maintaining anonymity purposes. Instructions and information about the study were given to the respondents. They were clearly informed that the results of this study would not have any influence on their training performance. Two set of questionnaires were distributed. The first set of questionnaire, which contains demographic information and Big Five Inventory, was distributed and collected from the trainees before the training start. Two months after the training, participants were asked to answer the second set of questionnaire, which includes transfer climate and driving competency.

2.3 Instrument

The questionnaire consists of demographic profile such as gender, age, race, education level, status marriage, service duration, salary per month, Big Five Personality Inventory, training achievement test, transfer climate and driving competency. Trainees' personality was assessed by using the Big Five Inventory. In the Big Five Inventory, each broad five-factor constructs represented six facets. The facets of Big Five Inventory are similar to Neo-PI-R. Each construct was measured with 8 to 10 items. The items have a 5-point response scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Big Five Inventory (BFI) is a 44-items measure

(John & Srivastava, 1999). BFI was used to measure the Big Five personality in the present as other instruments for personality have too many items and facets. The researcher used BFI as the measurement tool to avoid the problems in data collection associated with the length of the survey. Excessive survey questionnaire length is viewed as an inhibitor to response (Porter, 2004).

Transfer climate was examined by using Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) that was created by Holton and Bates (2000). The purpose of the present study is to assess the effect of four transfer climate variables on transfer training. These include supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards. Each dimension contained three to six items and each item had a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). For the purpose of this study, the researcher only selected 17 items out of 89 items that are relevant to the study, such as supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards. The item of rewards (one of the dimensions of transfer climate) is adapted from Xiao (1996).

2.4 Data Analysis

Partial least square-structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was adopted for data analysis. The validation of structural model was performed by using SmartPLS 3.0. The research model was analysed and interpreted in two stages. First, item reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed for the outer model. Second, path coefficient, path validity and predictive ability of the dependent constructs in the model were explored for the inner model.

3. Results

Prior to training, 242 questionnaires were initially distributed to the participants who attended driving training. A total number of 242 questionnaires were returned. However, a large amount of data was missing in one questionnaire, where some of the items in the criterion measures were not answered by the participant. Therefore, 241 questionnaires were considered legitimate for this research. After two months, only 183 questionnaires were returned and 59 questionnaires were not. This is because either the researcher was unable to contact the participants, or the participants changed their workplace or they were busy. With 183 returned and usable surveys out of 242, the response rate was 75.61%.

From the subjects who responded to the study, 92.3% were male, 87.9% were Malay, 0.5% Chinese, 4.4% Indian, 7.1% from other races such as Kadazan and Iban, 67.6% were married and they possessed an average tenure of 8.64 years with the organization. The mean age of the respondent was 30.1 years old.

3.1 The Measurement Model

The proposed model is graphically presented in Figure 1 and consists of five latent variables; four dimension of transfer climate (supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards) and a endogenous variables (driving competency).

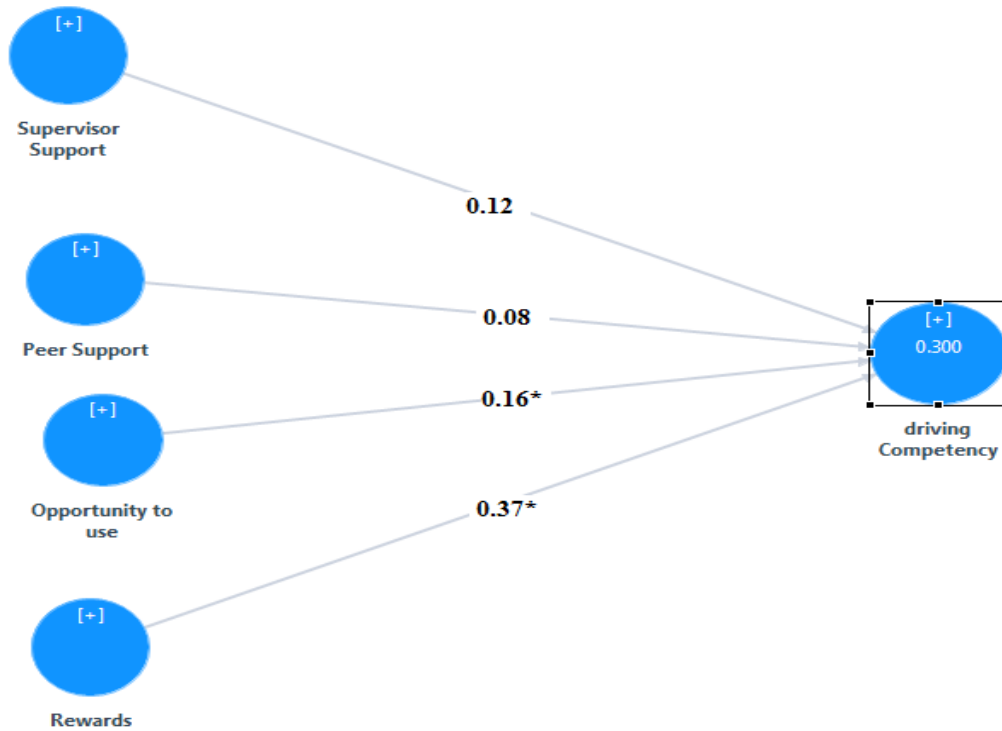


Figure 1: Structural model

The researcher evaluated the proposed model for internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity in order to establish the adequacy of latent variables with respect to capture their corresponding manifest variables. After that, the path coefficients of the present study are presented.

Table 2: Assessment of the measurement model

	Composite Reliability	AVE
Opportunity to Use	0.822	0.536
Peer Support	0.794	0.565
Rewards	0.799	0.572
Supervisor Support	0.813	0.525
Driving Competency	0.800	0.501

Reliability results are given in Table 2. The data indicates that the measures are robust in terms of their internal consistency reliability as indexed by the composite reliability. The composite reliabilities of the different measures ranged from 0.79 to 1.00, which exceeded the recommended threshold value of 0.70. In addition, consistent with the guidelines of Fornell and Larcker (1981), the average variance extracted (AVE) for each measure exceeded 0.50. Table 3 reports the results of testing the discriminant validity of the measure scales. The elements in the matrix diagonals, representing the square roots of the AVEs, are greater in all cases than the off-diagonal elements in their corresponding row and column, thus supporting the discriminant validity of our scales.

Table 3: Discriminant validity (intercorrelations) of variable constructs

	Opportunity to use	Peer Support	Rewards	Supervisor Support	Driving Competency
Opportunity to use	0.731				
Peer Support	0.439	0.753			
Rewards	0.337	0.262	0.756		
Supervisor Support	0.293	0.372	0.313	0.723	
Driving Competency	0.357	0.294	0.484	0.317	0.708

The researchers tested the indicator reliability using SmartPLS 3.0 by extracting the factor and cross loadings of all indicator items to their respective latent constructs. Based on the analysis, all items in the measurement model exhibited loadings that exceeded 0.50, ranging from 0.55 to 0.830. All items are significant at the level of 0.001. Table 4 shows the loading for each item and its corresponding t-statistic values for the respective constructs. Based on the results, all items that are used for this study have demonstrated satisfactory indicator reliability.

Table 4: Results of indicator reliability

	Opportunity to Use	Peer Support	Supervisor Support	Rewards	Driving Competency
T11	0.735 (11.867)				
T12	0.700 (9.831)				
T13	0.756 (12.781)				
T14	0.779 (13.500)				
T7		0.842 (14.223)			
T8		0.754 (8.957)			
T9		0.646 (6.045)			
T1			0.812 (15.373)		
T2			0.793 (15.281)		
T3			0.674 (8.570)		

T5	0.598 (5.808)	
T16	0.679 (9.056)	
T17	0.736 (12.349)	
T18	0.846 (26.838)	
D1		0.731 (15.131)
D3		0.700 (14.843)
D4		0.625 (10.717)
D5		0.769 (15.494)

3.2 The Structural Model

Within the structural model, each path connecting two latent variables represents a relationship between independent and dependent variables. By using SmartPLS algorithm output, the relationship between independent and dependent variables was examined. According to Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2013), the significance level and t-statistical of the path are determined by using SmartPLS bootstrapping function. Table 5 lists down the path coefficients, observed t-statistics, and significance level for all paths in the baseline model.

Table 5: Path coefficient of structural model

	Path Coefficient	t-Statistics (O/STERR)	Significance Level	p- Values
Opportunity to Use -> driving Competency	0.163	2.015	*	0.044
Peer Support -> Driving Competency	0.082	0.971	N.S	0.332
Rewards -> Driving Competency	0.370	5.266	*	0.000
Supervisor Support -> Driving Competency	0.123	1.505	N.S	0.133

N.S = Non-significant

*p<0.05

The finding from Table 5 shows that rewards and opportunity to use significantly affected driving competency. However, supervisor support and peer support did not significantly affected driving competency.

4. Discussion

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effect of four dimensions of transfer climate (supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards) on two types of transfer training (training achievement and driving competency). The finding indicated that two dimensions of transfer climate (opportunity to use and rewards) out of four affected driving competency significantly.

Opportunity to use was found to have a direct effect on driving competency. The finding is consistent with previous studies (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007). It indicates that the opportunity to use can enhance trainees to practice their training in their job by providing adequate time and resources to the employee. The finding shows the importance of opportunities to use trained skill and knowledge on the job. Trainees should be provided the opportunity to allow them to transfer their training on their job so that the performance of the company will be increased.

In addition, rewards were determined as the most important dimension for transfer climate out of the four dimensions. The result of the present study is consistent with previous research by Korunka et al. (2010). It indicated that trainee's behaviour of transfer training was improved by giving positive reinforcement to trainees. According to Expectancy Theory, when trainees feel that their efforts are appreciated, they will be motivated to learn and apply new knowledge and skill on their job and continue with their learned behaviour. Therefore, it is important to provide rewards in terms of verbal praise, promotion chance and salary increase to enhance the motivation of the employees. Consequently, high motivation to apply the learned skill or knowledge will improve not only the performance of the employee himself/herself, but will also improve the performance of the organization. It is suggested that the management of organization should enforce the reward system to encourage employees to apply new skill and knowledge.

Neither supervisor support nor peer support was affected driving competency significantly. The finding indicates inconsistency with previous study which claims that supervisor support and peer support significantly predicted transfer training. In the present study, supervisor support and peer support are more focused on encouragement and mental support of the employees. It shows that the employer or colleague in the present study may be did not influence the employees to apply their new learned skills and knowledge by providing encouragement and mental support. It can be concluded that the respondents in the present study prefer receiving instrumental support such as reward, plenty of resources and plenty of time, which is concrete and directly help them.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of the study is to investigate the effect of transfer climate on transfer training. This study would contribute to practitioners and policy makers. The finding showed that opportunity to use and rewards significantly affected transfer training. Although supervisor support and peer support were not significantly affected by transfer training, the study extends our understanding on the importance role of transfer climate on transfer training. The present study proposed that the top management of an organization should focus more on opportunity to use and rewards when planning and developing training. Besides that, future study can further clarify different constructs of transfer climate that trainees need at different stages.

There are some limitations in the present study. The first limitation is the sampling method. Purposive sampling was used due to the limited sample in the training program. It might lead to lower generalizability of research findings. Therefore, it is suggested that the random sampling method can be used to increase the generalizability of research finding. Besides that, this study can only be generalized to police officers who attend the driving training provided by Maktab Teknik Polis Diraja Malaysia. The present study is also limited to the population that was studied in the specific training program. It suggests that further study can use different field of data to identify the variables. Finally, due to the limited variables of transfer climate in the present study, it is recommended that future work can expand the transfer climate to other work environment variables such as feedback, reinforcement and accountability.

6. Acknowledgements

This study was partially done from thesis to complete the Doctoral of Philosophy study. The author is grateful to the trainer of Maktab Teknik Polis Diraja Malaysia, Muar for providing a good cooperation and facilities to carry out the research.

7. References

- Awoniyi, E. A., Griego, O. V., & Morgan, G. A. (2002). Person-environment fit and transfer of training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(1), 25-35. doi: 10.1111/1468-2419.00147
- Burke, L. A., & Hutchins, H. M. (2007). Training transfer: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review*, 6(3), 263-296.
- Cheng, E., W. L. , & Ho, D., C. K. . (2001). A review of transfer of training studies in the past decade. *Personnel Review*, 30(1), 102-118.
- Cromwell, S. E., & Kolb, J. A. (2004). An examination of work-environment support factors affecting transfer of supervisory skills training to the workplace. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(4), 449-471. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.1115
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Gilpin-Jackson, Y., & Bushe, G. R. (2007). Leadership development training transfer: a case study of post-training determinants. *Journal of Management Development*, 26(10), 980-1004.
- Grossman, R., & Salas, E. (2011). The transfer of training: What really matters. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 15(2), 103-120.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*: SAGE Publications.
- Harry, J. M. (2010). Improving training impact through effective follow-up: techniques and their application. *Journal of Management Development*, 29(6), 520-534.
- Holton, E. F., Bates, R. A., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2000). Development of a generalized learning transfer system inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11(4), 333-360. doi: 10.1002/1532-1096(200024)11:4<333::aid-hrdq2>3.0.co;2-p
- Holton, E. F., Bates, R. A., Seyler, D. L., & Carvalho, M. B. (1997). Toward construct validation of a transfer climate instrument. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 8(2), 95-113. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.3920080203
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big-Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (Vol. 2, pp. 102-138). New York: Guilford Press.
- Korunka, C., Dudak, E., Molnar, M., & Hoonakker, P. (2010). Predictors of a successful implementation of an ergonomic training program. *Applied Ergonomics*, 42(1), 98-105.
- Lim, D. H., & Morris, M. L. (2006). Influence of trainee characteristics, instructional satisfaction, and organizational climate on perceived learning and training transfer. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 17(1), 85-115. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.1162
- Machin, M. A., & Fogarty, G. J. (2004). Assessing the antecedents of transfer intentions in a training context. *International Journal of Training & Development*, 8(3), 222-236. doi: 10.1111/j.1360-3736.2004.00210.x
- Maria, S. (2012). Disentangling organizational support construct: The role of different sources of support to newcomers' training transfer and organizational commitment. *Personnel Review*, 41(3), 3-3.
- Nijman, D. J. J. M., Nijhof, W. J., Wognum, A. A. M., & Veldkamp, B. P. (2006). Exploring differential effects of supervisor support on transfer of training. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 30(7), 529-549. doi: doi:10.1108/03090590610704394
- Ooi Ang Ling, Phuah Hui Woon, & Ven, K. H. (2011). The relationship between work environment factors and transfer of training among plantation workers. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 18, 95-104.
- Porter, S. R. (2004). Raising Response Rates: What Works? *New Directions For Institutional Research*, 121, 4-19.
- Rouiller, J. Z., & Goldstein, I. L. (1993). The relationship between organizational transfer climate and positive transfer of training. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 4(4), 377-390. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.3920040408
- Tracey, J. B., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Kavanagh, M. J. (1995). Applying trained skills on the job - The importance of the work-environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(2), 239-252. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.80.2.239
- Tziner, A., & Haccoun, R. R. (1991). Personal and situational characteristics influencing the effectiveness of transfer of training improvement strategies. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64(2), 167-177.
- Van Der Klink, M., Gielen, E., & Nauta, C. (2001). Supervisory support as a major condition to enhance transfer. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 5(1), 52-63. doi: 10.1111/1468-2419.00121

Xiao, J. (1996). The Relationship Between Organizational Factors and the Transfer of Training in the Electronics Industry in Shenzhen, China. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 7(1), 55-73. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.3920070107

Pembelajaran Informal: Satu Kajian Ke Atas Pegawai Barisan Hadapan Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Di Pintu Masuk Selatan, Johor Bahru.

Prof Madya Dr Ishak Mad Shah and Suwati binti Suratman

Abstract The main purpose of this study conducted is to identify the level of involvement and most dominant activities in informal learning activities and to identify the differences of informal learning activities based on demographics factor. This study involved about 148 of front line Customs officers from Passengers Unit at south entry point of Royal Malaysian Customs, Johor Bahru at CIQ Bangunan Sultan Iskandar and CIQ Sultan Abu Bakar Complex, Tanjung Kupang, as respondents. The data for this study was collected by using questionnaires built by Lohman (2006). The data have been analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software and the descriptive and inferential statistical was used in this study. The findings of this study showed that the worker's involvement in informal learning activities at workplace were at moderate level and the most dominant informal learning activities was talking activities. Result for the differences of informal learning activities based on demographics factor showed that there were no differences of informal learning activities based on demographics factor. Therefore, the total mean indicated the level of moderate too for the informal learning activities. In overall, this research will become more important part for all the parties in order to enhance the effectiveness of performance through the informal learning activities in organization excellent

1. Pengenalan

Pekerja adalah modal atau sumber yang penting sesebuah organisasi di samping sumber-sumber lain seperti mesin, peralatan, kewangan, sistem dan prosedur kerja. Mereka merupakan tenaga organisasi yang menentukan sama ada organisasi itu mampu mencapai visi, misi, matlamat dan fungsi-fungsi yang telah ditetapkan. Dalam erti kata lain, pekerjalah yang mampu mengekalkan pencapaian organisasi.

Justeru itu pekerja ini perlu diberi perhatian serius dan dimanipulasikan secara optimum supaya mereka dapat menjalankan fungsinya sesuai dengan matlamat organisasi. Untuk itu pekerja ini perlu dibangunkan keupayaan mereka menerusi program-program pembangunan pekerja yang terdapat sama ada di dalam atau di luar organisasi. Sememangnya fitrah manusia itu tidak boleh dipisahkan dengan usaha peningkatan pengetahuan, kemahiran, kesihatan dan nilai-nilai yang mereka perlu miliki. Program pembangunan manusia adalah satu landasan untuk pekerja meningkatkan keupayaan mereka.

Program pembangunan manusia mencapai matlamatnya menerusi proses pembelajaran atau dikenali juga latihan yang berkesan. Proses pembelajaran adalah berkenaan bagaimana kita melihat dan memahami dunia serta bagaimana kita memberi makna kepadanya (Fry *et al.*, 2003) Proses pembelajaran atau latihan dianggap berjaya apabila berlakunya perubahan tingkah laku sebelum berbanding tingkah laku sekarang. Rahil Mahyuddin *et al.* (2000) menyatakan perubahan tingkah laku itu termasuklah juga ketrampilan kognitif iaitu penguasaan ilmu dan perkembangan kemahiran intelek. Fry *et al.* (2003) pula bersetuju dengan Marton & Booth (1997) yang menerangkan perubahan tingkah laku itu ialah kemampuan seseorang meningkatkan tahap pengetahuan, kemahiran dan kemampuan mereka.

Apakah hubungan pembelajaran dengan organisasi? Organisasi yang mementingkan pembelajaran pekerjanya ada kaitannya dengan kemampuan organisasi bersaing dengan persekitaran pasaran yang sentiasa berubah. Ini adalah sebahagian daripada ungkapan Mantan Perdana Menteri Malaysia, Datuk Seri Abdullah Ahmad Badawi ketika membentangkan Rancangan Malaysia Kesembilan (RMK-9). Menurut beliau, “Pembangunan infrastruktur moden dan canggih yang dinikmati negara ini tidak membawa makna sekiranya pembangunan pekerja diketepikan. Dalam konteks dunia global, pekerja bermutu tinggi satu keperluan, bukan lagi kemewahan”. (Khairina Yasin dalam Berita Harian 29.7.2010). Maksud daripada ungkapan mantan Perdana Menteri Malaysia ini ialah pembangunan organisasi adalah berpunca daripada pembangunan pekerja. Pekerja yang cemerlang memberi kebaikan kepada prestasi organisasi. Ini selari dengan pernyataan Livingstone (2000) yang menyatakan melalui pembelajaran, pekerja organisasi lebih mudah menerima perubahan yang berlaku dalam organisasi dan dalam persekitaran organisasi serta mudah mengadaptasi diri dengan perubahan tersebut.

Lebih-lebih lagi di era abad ke 21 ini yang menyaksikan perubahan ekonomi yakni daripada ekonomi berasaskan perkhidmatan kepada ekonomi berasaskan maklumat dan pengetahuan. Justeru itu bagi bersaing dalam pasaran global, organisasi dituntut mempunyai pekerja yang berpengetahuan dan berkemahiran ataupun dikenali sebagai *k-worker*. Bagi mencapai matlamat ini tidak dapat tidak, pembelajaran menjadi aspek utama yang perlu diberi perhatian serius oleh organisasi. Segala usaha perlu digembleng oleh organisasi untuk melahirkan pekerja berilmu, mahir dan berpengetahuan supaya pekerja ini aktif menjana idea dan kepakaran, kreatif dan inovasi. Pekerja berpengetahuan yang menyakinkan organisasi bersaing diperingkat global.

Menurut Brockett dan Roger (1994), pembelajaran ialah tindakan personal individu untuk menggunakan potensi diri sepenuhnya. Ianya merupakan proses merealisasikan diri kepada tahap maksimum. Pembelajaran ini boleh berlaku sama ada dalam bentuk formal atau informal. Menurut Livingstone (2000) pembelajaran informal merupakan sebahagian daripada bentuk pembelajaran bagi mendapatkan ilmu pengetahuan untuk menghadapi cabaran dan persekitaran yang sentiasa berubah. Cofer dan Lohman (2000) menegaskan bahawa 70% daripada pengetahuan kerja yang diketahui oleh pekerja diperolehi menerusi pembelajaran informal. Rumusan dari penemuan kajian lepas mendedahkan pembelajaran formal tidak menjanjikan pekerja mampu memindahkan waima 10% pengetahuan yang diperolehi dari tempat latihan ke tempat kerja (Balkisnah Shahrudin & Norhasni Zainal Abidin, 2009). Justeru pembelajaran informal tidak boleh dilihat tidak penting. Kajian ini memfokus kepada pembelajaran informal untuk melihat tahap dan aktiviti pembelajaran informal dalam organisasi dan melihat perbezaan pengamalan pembelajaran informal mengikut faktor demografi pekerja.

Marsick dan Watkins (1990) mendefinisikan pembelajaran informal sebagai proses pembelajaran yang berlaku melalui pengalaman yang dilalui setiap hari, selalunya tanpa disedari. Ia melibatkan perlakuan belajar secara tidak langsung atau secara tidak sedar. Medium pembelajaran informal boleh berbagai cara seperti didikan dan asuhan ibubapa, pergaulan atau perbualan dengan rakan-rakan, mendengar radio, menonton TV, menghadiri bengkel, seminar dan sebagainya. Pembelajaran informal diterima secara tak langsung tanpa berasaskan sebarang sukatan pelajaran. Dengan lain perkataan, pembelajaran informal tidak menetapkan isi pelajaran atau bahan-bahan pelajaran yang perlu dikuasai oleh seseorang pelajar. Pembelajaran diserap secara tidak sedar dari persekitaran melalui pemerhatian, perbualan dan pengalaman. Pembelajaran informal merupakan pembelajaran berterusan atau dikenali juga sebagai pembelajaran sepanjang hayat. Ia berlaku pada setiap masa dan setiap tempat.

Marsick dan Volpe (1999) merumuskan ciri-ciri pembelajaran informal seperti berikut:

- i Merupakan integrasi atau cantuman dengan rutin seharian.
- ii Dicituskan oleh sentakan dalaman atau luaran.
- iii Kesedaran yang tidak terlalu tinggi. Pekerja kadangkala tidak sedar bahawa mereka sedang menggunakan kaedah pembelajaran informal dalam mendapatkan maklumat.
- iv Secara sembarangan (*haphazard*) dan dipengaruhi oleh peluang.
- v Proses darongan terhadap refleksi dan tindakan.
- vi Dihubungkan dengan lain-lain jenis pembelajaran.

Lohman (2006) mengenalpasti aktiviti pembelajaran informal sebagai aktiviti yang melibatkan perbincangan dan perbualan, bekerjasama, memberi pandangan, pendapat, berkongsi bahan dan sumber pembelajaran, pencarian melalui media elektronik dan internet, pembacaan bahan penerbitan seperti buku, majalah, jurnal dan surat khabar, pemerhatian dan aktiviti cuba dan uji yang melibatkan konsep pekerja belajar daripada kesilapan mereka. Persekitaran kerja yang kondusif akan menggalakkan perkembangan aktiviti pembelajaran informal seperti yang dinyatakan. Kesemua aktiviti di atas boleh dikategorikan sebagai berikut (Lohman (2006)

-
- i Bercakap melibatkan aktiviti bertanya, perbincangan dan perbualan.
 - ii Bekerjasama melibatkan aktiviti yang berkaitan dengan interaksi dengan pihak atasan dan rakan sekerja yang melibatkan memberi pandangan, pendapat, bantuan dan pelaksanaan kerja secara berkumpulan.
 - iii Pemerhatian melibatkan aktiviti belajar daripada pengalaman individu dan rakan sekerja (konsep role model).
 - iv Berkongsi bahan dan sumber berkaitan dengan aktiviti berkongsi pengetahuan/ pengalaman serta bahan yang diterima daripada latihan/seminar/ bengkel. Selain itu melibatkan perkongsian sumber maklumat seperti komputer dan pekerja yang lebih pakar.
 - v Pencarian melalui media elektronik dan internet : berkaitan aktiviti mencari maklumat melalui televisyen, radio dan penggunaan internet.
 - vi Pencarian melalui bahan penerbitan : berkaitan aktiviti pembacaan buku, majalah, jurnal dan surat khabar.
 - vii Cuba dan Uji : merupakan aktiviti yang berkaitan dengan eksperimental yang melibatkan konsep pekerja belajar daripada kesilapan mereka. Aktiviti pembelajaran informal diukur menggunakan item-item pernyataan yang mengukur kekerapan setiap aktiviti pembelajaran informal dilakukan. Misalnya bagi

Mengapakah pembelajaran informal perlu diberi perhatian terutamanya oleh pihak pengurusan organisasi? Antara sebabnya ialah pekerja adalah aset penting dalam melaksanakan segala dasar dan peraturan yang ditetapkan, di samping mendukung imej dan kewibawaan organisasi pada mata *stakeholder* dan pelanggan-pelanggan. Kegagalan mereka menjalankan tugas pasti akan menjejaskan reputasi organisasi secara keseluruhannya. Pembelajaran formal tidak menjanjikan pekerja itu dapat memindahkan pengetahuan yang diperolehi dari tempat latihan ke tempat kerja walaupun 10% (Balkisnah Shaharuddin & Norhasni Zainal Abidin, 2009). Cofer dan Lohman (2000) telah mendapati 70% daripada pengetahuan mengenai pekerjaan dan lain-lain boleh diperolehi secara pembelajaran informal. Menurut Cofer dan Lohman (2000) lagi dalam era perubahan yang berterusan ini, pembelajaran informal di tempat kerja perlu dijadikan alat pembelajaran yang penting bagi mencapai bukan sahaja matlamat organisasi dalam jangka pendek dan jangka panjang, malahan bagi mencapai visi strategik organisasi.

Kerajaan pula telah meletakkan pembelajaran sepanjang hayat sebagai sebahagian polisi penting dalam kerangka pembangunan negara. Menerusi Rangka Rancangan Jangka Panjang Ketiga (2001-2010) secara jelas memberi penekanan kepada penggalakkan pembelajaran sepanjang hayat dengan menyediakan pelbagai kemudahan bagi menguasai ilmu pengetahuan dan kemahiran biarpun telah tamat latihan dan pendidikan secara formal. Presiden dan Naib Canselor, Universiti Terbuka Malaysia (OUM), Prof Emeritus Tan Sri Anuar Ali pernah bersuara menyatakan tahap kesedaran rakyat negara ini terhadap kepentingan pembelajaran sepanjang hayat masih lagi rendah dan ia menjadi kekangan kepada usaha menjadikan Malaysia sebuah negara maju. (Berita Harian, 29/7/2010)

Rentetan daripada pandangan Cofer dan Lohman (2000) ini pentinglah dibudayakan pembelajaran informal ini bagi meningkatkan tahap keupayaan dan kecekapan pekerja menggalas tanggungjawab yang telah diamanahkan. Oleh yang demikian, pekerja perlu mementingkan pembelajaran informal. Justeru menjadi matlamat kajian untuk mengenalpasti tahap pembelajaran pembelajaran informal dikalangan pekerja organisasi.

2. Sorotan kajian lepas

Pembelajaran informal telah menarik minat ramai pengkaji-pengkaji sama ada pengkaji tempatan atau luar negara. Pengkaji-pengkaji lepas mendapati bahawa aktiviti-aktiviti pembelajaran informal ada diamalkan dalam organisasi dan didapati memberi kesan kepada tingkah laku kerja pekerja (Rosli, 2009; Irmawati, 2008; Sekam, 2009; Cofer dan Lohman, 2000; Rodiah, 2010; Shelley dan Chyung, 2008; Kyndt et al., 2009). Hasil dari penemuan kajian-kajian lepas dapatlah disimpulkan bahawa pembelajaran informal memainkan peranan penting dalam meningkatkan secara tidak langsung prestasi pekerja dan langsung prestasi organisasi. Pekerja yang mementingkan pembelajaran informal bersikap lebih positif terhadap pekerjaannya, mampu untuk meningkatkan prestasi dan seterusnya memperoleh kepuasan kerja. Rumusan kajian di atas diperkuatkan oleh penemuan kajian Alonderiene (2010) yang mendapati penglibatan dalam pembelajaran informal mempunyai

hubungan dengan kepuasan kerja individu. Kajian ini menekankan bahawa pemahaman dan pengurusan pembelajaran informal dalam organisasi boleh membantu meningkatkan kepuasan kerja ahli-ahli organisasi.

Pembelajaran Informal atau Pembelajaran Sepanjang Hayat juga memberi manfaat kepada pekerja dalam memperbaiki dan meningkatkan kemahiran kerja, pembaikan sahsiah diri dan juga penambahan ilmu pengetahuan. Ini diakui oleh Ong Gua Pak (2007). Menurut beliau Ong Gua Pak (2007) pada masa ini telah menjadi anggapan umum bahawa pembelajaran organisasi adalah merupakan kaedah terbaik bagi mempertingkatkan sesebuah organisasi termasuklah mempertingkatkan prestasi kerja, kepuasan kerja dan komitmen pekerja dalam sesebuah organisasi. Penemuan kajian Shelley dan Chyung (2008) mendapati bahawa pengetahuan baru dan peningkatan prestasi pekerja lebih banyak diperolehi melalui aktiviti pembelajaran informal berbanding daripada yang formal. Kajian ini juga mendapati faktor yang paling mempengaruhi darjah keterlibatan pekerja dalam pembelajaran informal ialah kecenderungan pekerja dalam bidang berkaitan diikuti dengan kebolehan mengakses komputer, personaliti pekerja sendiri, hubungan dengan rakan sekerja, kepuasan kerja, persekitaran kerja itu sendiri, keintiman dalam organisasi dan akhir sekali ganjaran kewangan yang disediakan.

Terdapat juga pengkaji yang memfokus kepada aktiviti pembelajaran informal. Mereka ingin mengetahui aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang efektif. Misalnya kajian oleh Sekam (2009) yang menemui aktiviti pembelajaran informal efektif ialah melalui internet dan media massa. Justeru itu pihak pengurusan organisasi perlu menyediakan kemudahan tersebut bagi menggalakkan pembelajaran informal. Begitu juga kajian Irmawati (2008) keputusan menunjukkan aktiviti pembelajaran informal seperti bercakap, bekerjasama, pemerhatian, berkongsi bahan, pencarian melalui media cetak dan elektronik serta aktiviti cuba dan uji adalah kerap digunakan untuk memperolehi pengetahuan yang boleh membantu melaksanakan tugas dengan berkesan. Rosli (2009) dalam kajiannya juga mendapati aktiviti bercakap iaitu merujuk kepada aktiviti bertanya, perbincangan dan perbualan merupakan penyumbang utama kepada pengwujudan pekerja berpengetahuan di samping aktiviti pencarian dalam bahan penerbitan.

3. Metodologi kajian

Populasi kajian terdiri daripada pegawai-pegawai kastam barisan hadapan yang bertugas di pintu masuk selatan negeri Johor iaitu di Cawangan Penumpang, Bangunan Sultan Iskandar (BSI) dan di Cawangan Penumpang Kompleks Sultan Abu Bakar Tanjung Kupang, (KSAB) Johor Bahru. Mereka terlibat dengan tugas pemeriksaan kenderaan penumpang iaitu bas, van, kereta dan motosikal serta pemeriksaan bagasi dan diri penumpang yang masuk dan keluar menggunakan kedua-dua pintu masuk/keluar Negara berkenaan. Populasi bagi kajian ini terdiri daripada 240 orang pegawai barisan hadapan iaitu kumpulan sokongan gred W17 hingga gred W22 yang bekerja di Cawangan Penumpang, BSI (seramai 177 pegawai) dan di Cawangan Penumpang KSAB, Tg Kupang (seramai 63 pegawai). Daripada jumlah populasi itu seramai 148 dilantik sebagai responden kajian ini. Alat ukuran yang digunakan untuk mengumpul data telah dibina oleh Lohman (2006) dan diubahsuai oleh Irmawati (2008). Aktiviti pembelajaran informal dalam kajian ini termasuklah aktiviti bercakap, bekerjasama, pemerhatian, berkongsi bahan sumber, pencarian melalui media elektronik dan internet, pencarian melalui bahan penerbitan dan cuba dan uji. Kesemua itemnya ialah 28 item berbentuk soalan tertutup. Item-item ini diukur menggunakan skala Likert.

4. Keputusan kajian

Objektif pertama kajian ialah untuk mengenaplasti tahap pembelajaran informal dalam kalangan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan. Keputusan seperti dipaparkan dalam jadual 1.0. Secara keseluruhannya dapatan kajian menunjukkan tahap penglibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal adalah pada tahap sederhana (min=3.52, sisihan piawai = 0.664). Keputusan juga menunjukkan bahawa aktiviti bercakap (*talking*) berada pada tahap tinggi (min=3.68, sisihan piawai = 0.622). Lain-lain aktiviti pembelajaran informal berada pada tahap sederhana iaitu aktiviti bekerjasama (min=3.63, sisihan piawai = 0.649), aktiviti pemerhatian (min=3.55, sisihan piawai= 0.591), aktiviti berkongsi bahan dan sumber (min=3.50, sisihan piawai= 0.692), aktiviti pencarian melalui bahan penerbitan (min=3.50, sisihan piawai = 0.708), aktiviti pencarian melalui media elektronik dan internet (Min=3.43, sisihan piawai= 0.701) dan aktiviti cuba dan uji (min=3.41, sisihan piawai= 0.690).

Jadual 4.8 : Tahap Penglibatan Pegawai Dalam Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal

Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal	Min	Sisihan Piawai	Tahap
Aktiviti Bercakap (Talking)	3.68	0.622	Tinggi
Aktiviti Bekerjasama	3.63	0.649	Sederhana
Aktiviti Pemerhatian	3.55	0.591	Sederhana
Aktiviti Berkongsi Bahan dan Sumber	3.50	0.692	Sederhana
Aktiviti Pencarian Melalui Bahan Penerbitan	3.50	0.708	Sederhana
Aktiviti Pencarian Melalui Media Elektronik dan Internet	3.43	0.701	Sederhana
Aktiviti Cuba dan Uji	3.41	0.690	Sederhana
Tahap Keseluruhan	3.52	0.664	Sederhana

Objektif kedua ialah melihat perbezaan keterlibatan pembelajaran informal berdasarkan faktor demografi. Keputusan kajian seperti di jadual 2 dan jadual 3. Faktor demografi yang diuji ialah jantina, umur, tempoh perkhidmatan dan tahap pendidikan. Jadual 2 di atas menunjukkan hasil ujian t bagi melihat perbezaan keterlibatan pembelajaran informal mengikut faktor jantina. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan ($t = -1.141$, $p < 0.05$). Berdasarkan paparan keputusan kajian ini dapatlah dirumuskan bahawa keterlibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam pembelajaran informal tiada perbezaan antara pegawai lelaki dan pegawai perempuan

Jadual 2: Perbezaan Keterlibatan dalam Pembelajaran Informal Mengikut Faktor Jantina

Jantina	N	Min	Nilai t	Sig
Lelaki	75	13.95	-1.141	0.692
Perempuan	65	14.34		

$p < 0.05$

Jadual 3 memaparkan perbezaan analisis anova bagi melihat keterlibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam pembelajaran informal berdasarkan faktor umur, tempoh perkhidmatan dan tahap pendidikan. Kesemua analisis menunjukkan tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara keterlibatan pembelajaran informal dengan umur ($F = 1.124$, $p < 0.05$), tempoh perkhidmatan ($F = 1.300$, $p < 0.05$) dan tahap pendidikan ($F = 1.289$, $p < 0.05$). Kesemua keputusan ini menunjukkan faktor umur, tempoh perkhidmatan dan tahap pendidikan bukanlah faktor bagi menunjukkan perbezaan keterlibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam pembelajaran informal.

Jadual 3: Perbezaan penglibatan dalam pembelajaran informal mengikut faktor demografi

Perkara	df	min	Nilai f	sig
Umur	52	1.151	1.124	0.311
Tempoh Perkhidmatan	52	2.267	1.300	0.139
Tahap Pendidikan	52	1.167	1.289	0.146

$p < 0.05$

5. Perbincangan

Tahap Penglibatan Pegawai Dalam Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan aktiviti bercakap (*talking*) memperolehi nilai min yang tertinggi. Manakala tahap penglibatan pegawai dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang lain seperti bekerjasama, pemerhatian, berkongsi bahan dan sumber, pencarian melalui media elektronik dan internet, pencarian melalui bahan

penerbitan dan aktiviti cuba dan uji adalah berada pada tahap sederhana. Ini bermaksud aktiviti bercakap mendominasi aktiviti pembelajaran informal di organisasi kastam. Oleh itu bolehlah dikatakan bahawa tahap penglibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam pembelajaran informal tertumpu kepada aktiviti bercakap. Aktiviti ini adalah seperti banyak bertanya dan berbincang samada sesama rakan sekerja atau pihak atasan. Hal ini berlaku kerana situasi pekerjaan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan sememangnya memerlukan banyak melakukan aktiviti bercakap semasa melaksanakan tugas. Pegawai-pegawai ini terlibat secara langsung dalam pemeriksaan penumpang dan kenderaan yang dilakukan secara manual. Mana-mana perkara yang mereka perlukan perincian khususnya berkaitan dengan peraturan, mereka perlu bertanya atau berbincang samada sesama rakan sekerja atau dengan pihak atasan untuk memastikan tindakan yang diambil tidak menyalahi peraturan. Dapatan ini adalah selaras dengan kajian Lohman (2006) yang memperolehi dapatan bahawa guru-guru mempunyai penglibatan yang tinggi dalam aktiviti bercakap, diikuti oleh aktiviti bekerjasama dan pemerhatian. Situasi pekerjaan mereka mempengaruhi aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang bersifat interaktif seperti bercakap dan bekerjasama. Dapatan ini juga selaras dengan kajian daripada Rozihan (2000) yang memperolehi dapatan aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang paling tinggi di kawasan kajiannya melibatkan interaksi dan perbincangan.

Perbezaan Pembelajaran Informal Mengikut Faktor Demografi

Analisis kajian yang dijalankan melibatkan empat faktor demografi iaitu jantina, umur, tempoh perkhidmatan, dan tahap pendidikan. Hasil analisis yang diperolehi menunjukkan kesemua faktor demografi ini tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan penglibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam pembelajaran informal. Ini bermakna penglibatan sama ada pegawai itu lelaki atau wanita, berusia atau muda, sudah lama bekerja atau baru bekerja, dan lulusan university atau tidak berbeza penglibatan mereka dalam pembelajaran informal. Dapatan ini adalah selaras dengan kajian Irmawati (2008). Beliau merumuskan bahawa subjek kajiannya samada lelaki atau wanita dan berumur kurang daripada 40 tahun mempunyai tahap penglibatan yang sama tinggi dalam melaksanakan aktiviti pembelajaran informal. Begitu juga penemuan Tikkanen (2002) yang mendapati tahap penglibatan dalam pembelajaran informal dalam kalangan pekerja muda ada sama sahaja. Penemuan yang sama juga diperolehi oleh Shelley dan Chyung (2008) yang mendapati tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan dari faktor jantina dan tahap pendidikan dalam penglibatan pembelajaran informal. Dari keputusan kajian yang diperolehi dan dapatan-dapatan kajian lalu bolehlah dirumuskan bahawa tinggi atau rendahnya penglibatan dalam pembelajaran informal bukanlah bersebab dari faktor demografi khususnya dalam kalangan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan.

6. Kesimpulan

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang dalam kalangan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan. Fokus kajian ini adalah untuk mengetahui tahap dan aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang didominasi, dan adakah terdapat perbezaan penglibatan dalam pembelajaran informal mengikut faktor jantina, umur, tempoh perkhidmatan dan tahap pendidikan. Penemuan kajian mendapati tahap penglibatan pegawai kastam barisan hadapan dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal adalah sederhana. Aktiviti bercakap adalah merupakan aktiviti pembelajaran informal yang menjadi tumpuan dalam pembelajaran informal. Keputusan juga menunjukkan tidak terdapat perbezaan penglibatan dalam pembelajaran mengikut faktor-faktor demografi yang dikaji. Adalah kemungkinan dapatan ini ada kaitan dengan situasi pekerjaan pegawai yang bersifat operational iaitu terlibat dengan pemeriksaan penumpang dan kenderaan secara manual dan bekerja secara berkumpulan.

Berdasarkan hasil kajian ini pihak Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Johor perlu menggalakkan aktiviti pembelajaran informal di kalangan pegawai terutama pegawai kumpulan sokongan dengan menyediakan prasarana dan iklim organisasi yang dapat menggalakkan peningkatan dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal. Peningkatan dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal dapat melahirkan pekerja yang berpengetahuan dan lebih berkemampuan melaksanakan tugas dengan berkesan selaras dengan tuntutan perubahan dalam arus globalisasi. Penglibatan dalam aktiviti pembelajaran informal juga secara tidak langsung dapat meningkatkan tahap kepuasan kerja pegawai. Pekerja yang berpuas hati akan dapat melaksanakan tugas dengan berkesan dan kurang memberi masalah kepada organisasi.

7. Rujukan

- Abu Daud Silong, Daing Zaidah Ibrahim dan Azizan Asmuni (1998) *Self Directed Learning and the on-line technologies: Reengineering the learning process*,
- Alonderiene.R, (2010), Enhancing Informal Learning To Improve Job Satisfaction, *Baltic Journal Of Management*, Vol.5, Issue 2.
- Baharin Abu, Othman Md Johan, Syed Mohd Shafeq dan Haliza Jaafar (2007), *Kepelbagaian Gaya Pembelajaran Dan Kemahiran Belajar Pelajar Universiti di Fakulti Pendidikan, UTM*
- Bandura, A. (1977), *Social Learning Theory*, New York: General Learning Press.
- Berg, S.A.and Chyung, S.Y (2008). Factors That Influence Informal Learning In The Workplace, *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol.20 No.4, pp.229-244
- Berita Harian, 29.7.2010, The New Starits Times Press (M) Bhd,
- Brockett, R.G., and Hiemstra, R. (1991). *Self-direction in adult learning: Perspective on theory, research, and practice*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Brockett & Rodger (1994), *Self-direction in Adult Learning: Perspectives on Theory, Research, and Practice*.
- Buletin SEPAKAT, Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia, Percetakan Nasional Berhad, K.L, Jan – Apr 2009
- Cseh, M.,Watkins, K.E.and Marsick, V.J.(1999) Re-Conceptualizing Marsick and Watkins' Model Of Informal and Incidental Learning In The Workplace. : University Of Illinois At Urbana –Champaign.
- Cofer and Lohman (2000), *Informal Workplace Learning, Practice Applications Brief No. 10*, Eric Publications.
- Cohen, L. & Holiday M. (1998). “*Statistical Power Analysis for Behavioral Sciences*.” Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Danielle Colardyn & Jens Bjornavold (2004), *European Journal Of Education*, Vol.39, No.1
- Fry. H. Ketteridge *et al* (2003), *A Handbook For Teaching & Learning In Higher Education : Enhancing Academic Practice (2ed Ed)*, London.
- Ghulam Behlol Malik (2010), Concept Of learning, *Journal Of Psychologies Studies*, ProQuest Social Science Journals, Vol.2, No.2.
- Heather Skinner (2011), Accredating Informal Learning, High Education, *Skills and Work Based Learning*, Vol 1, Issue 1.
- Irmawati Norazman (2008), *Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal Dan Hubungannya Dengan Kewujudan Pekerja Berpengetahuan*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Tesis Sarjana.
- Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia, *Pelan Tindakan Strategik 2010-2014*, PNMB
- Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia, *Pelan Strategik Inovasi 2011-2015*, PNMB
- Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia (1995), *Penerapan Budaya Ilmu*. PAJ Bil 95.
- Kajian Separuh Penggal Rancangan Malaysia Kesembilan (RMK-9) Retrieved 21 Feb 2011, dari <http://www.klikkhas.bharian.com.my/>
- Khairina Yasin (29-7-2010), *Pembelajaran Sepanjang Hayat*, Retrieved 10 Feb 2011 dari <http://www.bharian.com.my/>
- Knowles, M.S and Associates (1985), *Andragogy in Action Applying Modern Principles Of Adult Learning*. United States Of America : Jossey-Bass Publisher. 8-12
- Krejcie and Morgan (1970), *Determining Sample Size For Research Activities*, Educational and Psychological Measurement,
- Kyndt, E.,Dochy, F.N Nijs, H (2009). Learning Conditions For Non Niformal and Informal Workplace Learning, *Journal Of Workplace Learning*, Vol.21 No.5, pp.369-383
- Livingstone, D.W (2000), *Exploring The Iceberg Of Adult Learning : Finding Of The First Canadian Survey Of Information Learning Practices*, NALL Paper Work. Retrieve Mac 17, 2011 from
- Lohman, M.C (2006), Factors Influencing Teacher`s Engagement In Informal Learning Activities, *Journal Of Workplace Learning*, Vol.18 (3) : 141-156
- Luthans, F. (1995). *Organisational behaviour*. (7 ed.). McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Marsick V.J and Watkins, K.E. (1990), (Eds) *Informal And Incidental Learning In The Workplace*, USA & Canada : Routledge.
- Marsick V.J and Watkins, K.E. (2001), *New Directions For Adults and Continuing Educations*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Modul Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran (2005), Academic Staff Development Center (ASDC), KUKTEM.
- Nik Hasnaa Bt Nik Mahmood, (2005) *Informal Learning Of Management Knowledge and Skills Transfer Of Learning Among Nurses*, UTM
- Nicholls, G. (2002). *Developing teaching and learning in higher education*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Pelan Operasi Latihan (POL) Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Johor Tahun 2011.
- Pelan Operasi Latihan (POL) Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia Johor Tahun 2012.
- Program Transformasi Kastam : *Pelan Hala Tuju T15*, (2010) Jabatan Kastam Diraja Malaysia

-
- Rodiah Binti Kasiran (2010), *Hubungan Antara Pengurusan Pengetahuan Dengan Kepuasan Kerja, Di Kalangan Juruteknik Fakulti Kejuruteraan Elektrik*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Tesis Sarjana.
- Rosli Bin Abd Rahman (2009), *Kesan Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal Terhadap Kewujudan Pekerja Berpengetahuan Dalam Kalangan Guru Sekolah*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Tesis Sarjana.
- Sekam Ak Anoi (2009), *Aktiviti Pembelajaran Informal Dan Hubungannya Dengan Prestasi Kerja*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Tesis Sarjana.
- Shelley A.Berg and Seung Chyung (2008), Factor That Influence Informal Learning In The Workplace, *Journal Of Workplace Learning*, Vol.20, Issue 4.
- Tikkanen, T. (2002) Learning at work in technology intensive environments. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 14(3), 88-97.
- Vroom, V.H (1964) *Work And Motivation*, New York : Wiley
- WCO : Customs In The 21st Century, *Enhancing Growth and Development*, World Custom Organization Conference, 2007
- Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1992). *Professional development in higher education: A theoretical framework for action research*. London
- Zulkarnain Bin Ya`cob (2006). *Pola Pembelajaran Informal Di Kalangan Staf Kumpulan Pendidikan Yayasan Pendidikan Johor*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia : Tesis Sarjana.

The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance among Engineering Students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Azra Ayue binti Abdul Rahman⁺ and Siti Zubaidah binti Zainon

Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor Bahru Campus, 81310 Skudai, Johor, Malaysia.

Abstract The field of engineering and mathematics are interconnected with each other. Thus, the engineering students need to perform well in their mathematics skill in order to get better grades. However, not everyone has the courage and confident when it comes to mathematics. Therefore, this study was conducted to determine the level of self- efficacy and academic performance of the UTM's engineering students and to know whether there is a relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance among them. This study adopted the set of questionnaire from the Sources of Mathematics Self-Efficacy (SMES) was distributed to 107 final year students from Bachelor of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, UTM. The self-efficacy was measured by using the four dimensions, which were mastery, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and emotional and physiological states. The result revealed that self-efficacy had a positive significant but weak relationship with the academic performance among the respondents. Finally, suggestions are offered for the UTM's curriculum developer to reconsider self-efficacy in designing the academic modules, as well as the recommendations to the future research.

Keywords: Self-efficacy, mathematics, engineering major, academic performance

1. Introduction

Mathematics is the core subjects that must be learned by engineering students (Heinze *et al.*, 2003). However, there are issues that highlight some of these students do have the mathematics phobia (Ellis, Abrams, & Abrams, 2009). This is because the students are required to possess skills such as critical thinking, problem solving and some complicated calculation in numbers when solving the mathematics problems (Louis & Mistele, 2012). They need to believe in themselves that they can solve the mathematics problems. Therefore, self-efficacy is essential in helping the students to solve the task given. According to Bassi *et al.*, (2007), students with high self-efficacy is said to be more successful because they are able to adapt effective learning strategies. Furthermore, people with high motivation in doing action usually result in the desired outcome since they believe they have the ability to act in that way (Brady, 2009). Thus, if the students believe they can solve the mathematics task given to them, they can perform well and achieve good academic grades.

According to Brady (2009), by looking at their cumulative grade point average (CGPA) in each semester, it represents their efforts and performance in total. The academic performance was measured through their CGPA. In academic setting, self-efficacy does play an important role in managing students' performance (Brady, 2009). Moreover, the previous research also shows that there was a relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance among students (Shkullaku, 2013). Therefore, the study is conducted to determine the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance especially among the engineering students that have most of the mathematics subjects to contribute to their academic performance.

⁺ Corresponding author. Tel.: + 607-5610161
E-mail address: azraayue@utm.my

2. Literature Review

2.1 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy theory was first introduced by Albert Bandura, named as Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977). It is basically emphasizing on the cognitive component exists in human being. It also stress on the understanding in human learning and motivation (Byard & Sally, 2011). According to Bandura, people learn everything through several ways. Usually, they start by observing and modelling others performing something. He then claimed that after learning something, people create a mental representation tasks. This includes specific for its performance, its purpose, and its implication on social. They also evaluate their own experiences and thought process. Hence, he produced four sources of self-efficacy which consist of mastery, vicarious experience, social persuasion, as well as emotional and physiological states.

The first source of self-efficacy is mastery, where according to Bandura (1977), it is about someone's personal achievement in the past that may give effects to the upcoming task to be performed. Next, is through vicarious experience. This is where people learn to build their efficacy belief by observing others performing the task. They compared themselves with particular individual around them such as friends, parents or lecturers in performing the certain tasks (Usher & Pajares, 2009). Third, is through social persuasion, where they get persuasion and encouragement from surrounding to enhance the self-efficacy. Lastly is through emotional and physiological states such as anxiety, stress, fatigue, and mood (Bandura, 1977). These four sources determine how they build self-efficacy within themselves. Therefore, the first objective of this study is to determine the level of self efficacy among engineering students in UTM.

2.2 Academic Performance

Academic performance can be conceptualized as an outcome measures (Bandura, 1997), and demonstrates the level of competence and effort performed by students that parallels expectations in many career paths (Brady & Fuertes, 2011). In this study, academic performance will be measure by using the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) obtained from the total of the Grade Point Average (GPA) every semester. According to Pejabat Pendaftar Bahagian Pengurusan Akademik (2010), there was a calculation done to measure the CGPA. The GPA obtained from every semester is calculated by the summation of the credit hours times with the pointer for that semester and dividing it with the summation of credits counted for that semester. Meanwhile, the CGPA is the total of the GPA from every semester. Therefore, it is calculated by the summation of credits hour times with pointer for all semesters and dividing it with the summation of credits counted for all semesters. From this model, students can know their level of academic performance. Therefore, the second objective of this study is to determine the level of academic performance among engineering students in UTM.

2.3 Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance

A study was done by Meral *et. al.*, (2012) to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance. The result shows that there was a positive significant correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance. Also, the result indicated that students with the most gain in self-efficacy belief demonstrated the highest level of achievement in mathematics (Meral *et. al.*, 2012). Apart from that, Al-Harthy and Was (2013) also revealed that there was a positive significant correlation between knowledge monitoring, self-efficacy, mastery experience goals and total exam score. This finding also showed that self-efficacy did have positive relationship with the academic performance (Al-Harthy & Was, 2013). Other than that, Shkullaku (2013) also found that students' self-efficacy did influenced their academic performance.

Furthermore, Nicolaido and Philippou (n.d.) found that there is a strong relationship between self-efficacy and achievement. The result found that self-efficacy was the more powerful predictor than attitudes in the achievement (Nicolaido & Philippou, *n.d.*). Meanwhile, Loo and Choy (2013) revealed that among all the four sources of self-efficacy, mastery was the strongest predictor when predicting academic performance among the engineering students. Therefore, the third objective of this study is to determine the relationship between self efficacy and academic performance among engineering students in UTM.

3. Methodology

This study adopted the set of questionnaire called Sources of Mathematics Self-efficacy Scales (SMES) developed by Usher and Pajares (2009). The questionnaire was divided into two parts, which consist of Part A and Part B. Part A was the demographic background which consist of the gender, race, age, as well as the CGPA of the respondents. Part B measured the self-efficacy of the respondents in terms of their mathematics self-

efficacy. It consists of 24 items from four dimensions, which are on mastery, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and also emotional and physiological states. All of these four dimensions were represented by the six items respectively. Meanwhile, the academic performance was measured through the CGPA located under the demographic background. The level of measurement used for all of the items was the nominal scale. In addition, the Likert-scale ranged from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), less agree (3), agree (4), strongly agree (5) were used in the Part B. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 18 was used to analyze all the data.

Participants in this study consist of 107 final year engineering students from the Bachelor of Electrical Engineering, UTM. The questionnaires were distributed to the total population of 118 students. However, only 107 students managed to complete the questionnaire, 8 students refused to answer, while the other 3 set of questionnaires being rejected because of the incomplete answer. Majority of the respondents were males (56.1%), while 43.9% were female students. The respondents were from various races, with majority of them were Malay (71%), followed by Chinese (17.8%), and the rest (10.3%) were from Bidayuh, Tidong, Sungai, as well as the foreigners from Arabs, Yemeni, and African. Most of them were between 22 to 24 years old (92.5%), followed by 3.7% aged between 19 to 21, and only 1.9% aged between 25 to 27 years old.

4. Findings

Objective 1: To Determine the Level of Self-Efficacy among the Engineering Students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of the four dimensions of self-efficacy. This includes mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, as well as emotional and physiological states. The level of self-efficacy according to the dimensions of self-efficacy is also presents in Table 1.

Table 1: Level of Dimensions of Self-Efficacy

Self-Efficacy Dimensions	Mean Score	Standard Deviation (SD)	Level of Self-Efficacy
Mastery experience	3.91	.5534	High
Vicarious Experience	3.76	.5661	High
Social Persuasion	3.54	.7549	Moderate
Emotional and Physiological States	3.83	.8006	High
Overall	3.76	.4818	High

Based from the above table, the mean scores gain in all the four dimensions for self-efficacy are between 3.56 to 3.93. For the mastery experience dimension, the mean score obtain is the highest among the four self-efficacy dimension, with a total of 3.91. This is followed by the emotional and physiological states with 3.83, vicarious experience dimension with 3.76 and social persuasion dimension with total mean score of 3.54. In addition, the overall mean scores for all the four dimensions are 3.76. Other than that, the highest standard deviation obtain is .80, from the emotional and physiological states dimension. This is followed by the social persuasion dimension with .75, vicarious experience dimension with .57 and the lowest standard deviation is from the mastery experience dimension, which is .55. Besides, the overall standard deviation from all four dimensions is .48.

Table 2 shows the distribution of respondents for the total level of self-efficacy. The level of self-efficacy is measures with the high, moderate and lower level. The frequency, percentage and overall mean score for self-efficacy are also show in the Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents' Total Level of Self-Efficacy

Self-Efficacy Level	Frequency (f) N=107	Percentage (%)
Low	0	0
Moderate	50	46.73
High	57	53.27
Overall Mean Score = 3.76		

Based from the table, majority of the respondents (53.27%) had a high level of self-efficacy and the rest of the respondent (46.73%) had the moderate level of self-efficacy. There was no respondent who had the low level of self-efficacy.

Objective 2: To Determine the Level of Academic Performance among the Engineering Students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Table 3 presents the level of academic performance among the respondents. The mean and standard deviation are used to measure the level of academic performance. Academic performance is measured through the overall CGPA of the respondents.

Table 3: Level of Academic Performance

Academic Performance	Mean Score	Standard Deviation (SD)	Level of Academic Performance
Overall	3.23	.5422	Moderate

Based from the table 3 above, the overall mean score for academic performance was 3.23 and was considered as moderate level of academic performance. Apart from that, the overall standard deviation obtained was .54. Other than that, Table 4 shows the distribution of respondents' total level of academic performance. The level of academic performance is measured through the high, moderate and low level.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents' Total Level of Academic Performance

Academic Performance Level	Frequency (f) N=107	Percentage (%)
Low	6	5.6
Moderate	70	65.4
High	32	29.1
Overall Mean Score = 3.24		

Based on the table, majority (65.4%) of the respondents obtained moderate level of academic performance. Apart from that, 29.1% of the respondents obtained high level of academic performance while only 5.6% of the respondents obtained low level of academic performance.

Objective 3: To Determine the Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance among the Engineering Students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Table 5 shows the correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance among the final year Bachelor of Electrical Electronic Engineering students in UTM. The values, directions and significance of the relationship between the self-efficacy and academic performance among respondents were analyzed by using the Pearson's correlation coefficient. A two-tailed statistics was selected as the non-directional hypothesis was acquired in this research.

Table 5: Correlation between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance

Variables	r	p
Mastery experience	.494**	.000
Vicarious experience	.339**	.000
Social Persuasion	.161*	.049
Emotional and physiological states	.274*	.004
Self-Efficacy	.246*	.011

Note: ** P<0.01, * P <0.05 (2-tailed); N=107

Based from the Table 5, the value of Pearson correlation (r) between self-efficacy and academic performance was 0.25. The sign of the correlation coefficient indicated that the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance was positive. In other words, this shows that as the level of self-efficacy increases, the level of academic performance also increases. The significance value is 0.011, which is less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). Hence, it indicated that the result had a significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance. However, the value for correlation coefficient was only 0.25 indicated that there was only weak relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, the first objective is to determine the level of self-efficacy among the engineering students in UTM. The finding of this study shows that there is a high level of self-efficacy among the respondents. This

finding is congruent with the study done by Javed and Nizami (2012). According to the study, the result showed that there is high level of self-efficacy among the students (Javed & Nizami, 2012). Therefore, generally it indicates that students have high belief that they have the ability to do and solves problems regarding mathematics.

Other than that, the finding of this study also shows that a high level of self-efficacy in terms of mastery experience, vicarious experience as well as emotional and physiological states among the students. This finding is supported from a study conducted by Cantrell *et al.* (2013), where the finding of the study showed that students possessed a high level of self-efficacy for mastery experience, vicarious experience and also emotional and physiological states (Cantrell *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, a study done by Loo and Choy (2013) also revealed that there was high level of self-efficacy on all four sources of self-efficacy among the students. Thus, this finding generally indicates that the sources of self-efficacy did come from their own performances experiences, modeling and observing their friends and lecturers performed the mathematics tasks, and managed to control their emotional and physiological states when doing mathematics very well.

Apart from that, among all of the four sources of self-efficacy, social persuasion is the only source that had moderate level among the students. The finding is not consistent with previous study done by Loo and Choy (2013) that had a high level of self- efficacy on the social persuasion. Besides, the previous study done by Cantrell *et al.* (2013) also showed that social persuasion was high among the students. The finding indicates that final year Electrical and Electronic Engineering students rarely hear the encouragements that they are good at learning mathematics or that they have talent in mathematics.

The second objective in this study is to determine the level of academic performance among the engineering students in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The finding of this study shows that students had a moderate level of academic performance. Thus, it indicates that majority of final year Electrical and Electronic engineering students had their CGPA above 2.00 and can be classified as good pass.

Besides, the finding of this study is supported by the previous study conducted by Nur Jumaadzan Zaleha Mamat and Fatin Fasihah Mazelan (2010) on the learning encouragement factors and academic performance for the science and technology students in Univeristi Kebangsaan Malaysia. The result of that study show that majority of the students have a moderate level of academic performance (Mamat & Mazelan, 2011). This result is also similar with a study done by Tabesh and Hukai (2013) on the level of academic performance of 208 students at the Midwest universities. The result also revealed that majority of the students had a moderate level of academic performance (Tabesh & Hukai, 2012).

The third objective in this study is to determine the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance among the engineering student in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The finding of this study shows that there is a weak but significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance among the final year Electrical and Electronic engineering students in UTM. Furthermore, the results indicates that students' performance in mathematics tests and assignments, modeling and observing others performing the mathematics task, persuasion and encouragement from the surrounding, as well as the emotional and physical states when doing mathematics, did influence their grades and academic performance.

The finding is supported by a previous study done by Amoon (2008), where it shows that there was a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance. Furthermore, there are also studies done on students, and the results show a significant result between self-efficacy and academic performance among students (Ayotola & Adedeji, 2009; Meral *et al.*, 2012; Shkullaku, 2013).

In addition, the finding of this result is also corroborate with a study done on a group of undergraduate students enrolled in Educational Psychology course at Midwestern University, and conducted by Al- Harthy and Was (2013). They found that there was positive significant correlation between knowledge monitoring, self-efficacy, mastery experience goals and the total exam score. Based from the finding, it indicates that self-efficacy do have a positive relationship with the academic performance among the students (Al-Harthy & Was, 2013).

In conclusion, as the result shows that there is a weak but positive significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance, it indicates that self-efficacy did give influence to student's achievement in academic. Thus, the management and lecturers should give more attention and encourage the blooming of self efficacy elements among students during the teaching and learning process, especially in mathematics subjects. Perhaps, the UTM curriculum developers, especially the mathematics subjects' experts, can help in designing the modules that embed self-efficacy elements among the students.

The lecturers can also play their role to increase the academic performance among the students. They can help the students to increase their level of self-efficacy by giving more encouragements. For example, the lecturers can always praise the students' efforts that they have show in learning mathematics subject, even though they may not get the good marks. Indirectly, they will feel motivated and willing to learn more. Accordingly, it will increase their level of self-efficacy of the student as well as their academic performance

6. Recommendation for Future Research

For the future research, it would be beneficial for other researcher to conduct the same study in different populations and domains as the result may differ in other populations and domains. Hence, it will help to further examine and extend the findings that were presented in this study.

Secondly, it may be worthwhile for the other researcher to further examine if students' self efficacy in mathematics subject can indeed be a strong predictor for their academic performance. Perhaps there are other predictors that could come together with this self efficacy variable to influence the academic performance of students in engineering course. Therefore, the future research can also focus on others variables in determining the students' academic performance.

7. References

- Al-Harthy, I. S., & Was, C. A. (2013). Knowledge monitoring, goal orientations, self-efficacy, and academic performance: A path analysis. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning (Online)*, 10(4), 263.
- Ayotola, A., & Adedeji, T. (2009). The relationship between mathematics self-efficacy and achievement in mathematics. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 953-957. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.169>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy; The Exercise of Control*. USA: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Bassi, M., Steca, P., Fave, A., & Caprara, G. (2007). Academic self-efficacy beliefs and quality of experience in learning. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 36(3), 301-312. doi: 10.1007/s10964-006-9069-y
- Brady, A. M. (2009). The association between self-efficacy and self-rated abilities and college students' adjustment and academic performance. (3361470 Ph.D.), Fordham University, Ann Arbor.
- Brady, A. M., & Fuertes, J. N. (2011). Self-efficacy, self-rated abilities, adjustment, and academic performance. *Journal of Counseling and Development : JCD*, 89(4), 431-438. doi: 10.1177/0011000089171008
- Byard, & Sally, L. (2011). A quantitative analysis of the relationships between teacher trust, self-efficacy, and school academic performance. (3492627 Ed.D.), The University of Akron, Ann Arbor.
- Cantrell, S. C., Correll, P., Clouse, J., Creech, K., Bridges, S., & Owens, D. (2013). Patterns of Self-Efficacy Among College Students in Developmental Reading. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 44(1), 8-34. doi: 10.1353/jhe.2006.0037
- Chong, G., & Womack, I. (2012). The relationship of self-esteem and self-efficacy to scholastic achievement among African-American college students. *Journal of the Mississippi Academy of Sciences*, 57, 222.
- Ellis, A., Abrams, M., & Abrams, L. D. (2009). *Personality Theories Critical Perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Heinze, L. R., Gregory, J. M., & Rivera, J. (2003). Math readiness: the implications for engineering majors (Vol. 3).
- Javed, S., & Nizami, N. (2012). Self-efficacy in relation to adjustment among college students. *Indian Journal of Positive Psychology*, 3(4), 422-424.
- Louis, R., & Mistele, J. (2012). The differences in scores and self-efficacy by student gender in mathematics and science. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 10(5), 1163-1190. doi: 10.1007/s10763-011-9325-9
- Mamat, N. J. Z., & Mazelan, F. F. (2011). Learning Encouragement Factors and Academic Performance. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 18(0), 307-315. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.05.044>
- Meral, M., Colak, E., & Zereyak, E. (2012). The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance. *Procedia-Socian and Behaviour Sciences*(46), 1143-1146.
- Nicolaido, M., & Philippou, G. (n.d). Attitudes towards mathematics, self-efficacy and achivement in problem solving. *European Research in Mathematics Education III*.
- Shkullaku, R. (2013). The Relationship between Self-efficacy and Academic Performance in the Context of Gender among Albanian Students. *European Academic Research*, 1(4).
- Tabesh, H., & Hukai, D. (2012). Qualitative Determinants of Undergraduate Academic Performance: A Case Study. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 12(3), 29-34.
- Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2009). Sources of self-efficacy in mathematics: A validation study. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34, 89-101. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2008.09.002

Transactional Leadership as a Moderator between Self-Leadership Strategies and Innovative Behavior

Intan Marfarrina Omar and Norashikin Mahmud

Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia

Abstract Leadership in organizations is important in shaping workers' perception and increase employee work performance. There are several types of leadership style that are important in affecting employee work performance and one of it is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership, in contrast to transformational leadership, is based more on reinforcement and exchanges approach. Previous studies that explored about the transactional leadership effect in terms of direct effect or moderating effect relating to organizational behavior such as innovative behavior are scare. Innovation is a complex process and not happened in a vacuum situation, interaction between each of the organizational members is very important. Addressing this issue, this study proposes that transactional leadership moderates the relationship of self-leadership strategies (behavior-focused, constructive thought pattern, natural reward and physical vitality) with innovative behavior. In a field study with 485 engineers from Electrical and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing in Malaysia, this study showed that behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies, natural reward strategies and physical vitality strategies of self-leadership positively related to innovative behavior when transactional leadership is high. Transactional leadership positively and significantly moderates the relationship between each of self-leadership strategies with innovative behavior. The finding contributes to the enrichment of innovative behavior concept by including the transactional leadership as moderator in helping the researcher to explore on how leadership differences contribute to difference research outcomes.

Keywords: self-leadership, innovative behavior, transactional leadership, behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies, natural reward strategies and physical vitality strategies

1. Introduction

The business environment is rapidly changing due to globalization, technological changes, tough competition and all this has affected the world of work. This situation lead to the high requirement of innovation phase in an organization in order to cope with business demands. Employees need to be more innovative with the opportunity exploration, generation of ideas, support the ideas and implementation of ideas into real environment during innovation in producing a high quality of products. Since innovation process is not an easy process, employees need to be strong enough to involve with all the innovation stages mentally or physically. An employee needs to control their own behavior, influencing and leading themselves through the use of specific sets of behavioral and cognitive strategies to behave in desirable ways. This specific sets of behavioral and cognitive strategies referring to self-leadership strategies.

However, because of the complexity of an innovation process, interaction between each of the organizational members is also important since innovation not happened in a vacuum situation. They have to connect and communicate each other especially with their leader in work process in order to get work done. Used of teamwork in organizations has been a significant increase year by year as a means to simultaneously improve productivity and employee quality of work life. The role of a leader become very important since about 70% of employees prefer to work autonomously under a supervisor (Boerner, Eisenbeis, & Griesser, 2007).

Applying of self-leadership strategies itself is not enough since employee's self-leadership strategies are not a complete substitutes for the function of organizational leader (Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). They also need support, guides, encouragement given by a leader to work towards the organization's vision. These situations also make leader's leadership as important variables that might influence innovative behavior.

Interest in leadership effect is increasing (Day, 2000). Many scholars have investigated about the direct effect of leadership. Enrichment of leadership research has become wider when there are scholars started to investigate the indirect effect of leadership in the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable. Different leadership styles may buffer or reinforce the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. For example, transformational leadership have found moderates the relationship between psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams in Ghana (Kumako & Asumeng, 2013), need for leadership moderates the relationship between leadership and individual outcomes (Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 2002) and ethical leadership have moderates the relationship between employee psychological contracts and citizenship behavior (Philipp & Lopez, 2013).

Although the leadership concept have developed more stable with the new approaches of leadership concept, transactional leadership still stay as a strong concept in the leadership development that can give big impact on a certain variables. Transactional leadership refers to leaders guide or motivates their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements. The approaches are based on contingent reward and management by exception (active or passive). Although the overall evidence seems to indicate that transactional leadership is more strongly correlated with negative findings and indirect effect with innovative behavior, it started to show a positive effect a few years ago. Politis (2004) in his research have found a positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership and the stimulant determinant of the work environment for creativity among service organization operating employees in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Furthermore, findings show that transactional leadership contribute to management innovation among 1000 Dutch firms in the Netherlands (Vaccaro, Jansen, Bosch, & Volberda, 2012). With the different population, transactional leadership style also positively predicted innovative behavior among bank managers (Khan & Aslam, 2012). Because of the inconsistent findings, transactional leadership may buffer the effect of self-leadership strategies on innovative behavior. The aim of the current research is therefore to clarify the moderating role of transactional leadership styles on the relationship between self-leadership strategies and innovative behavior.

2. Literature Review

Relationship between self-leadership strategies and innovative behaviour

Literatures have shown that personal and contextual attributes can give impact to individual innovation (Thomas & Michael, 1999). One of the personal contribute is self-leadership strategies. Previously, self-leadership strategies influenced an individual innovative behavior by the application of behavioral, cognitive and intrinsic motivation approaches. However, the realm of self-leadership strategies have expanded beyond behavioral and cognitive elements by including physiological components as founded by Muller, Georgianna and Roux (2010). Empirically have shown that physical vitality also can give impact to an individual in truly self-lead themselves (Neck & Cooper, 2000). Thus, effect of physical vitality on innovative behavior had also been studied by a few researchers. Development of self-leadership concept have shown that self-leadership strategies refer to behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies, natural reward strategies and physical vitality strategies.

In terms of behavioral strategies, study by Shalley (1995) have suggested that the highest creativity occurred when individuals had a creativity behavior-focused on goal-setting and worked under expected evaluations. It is because goal-setting is only requires to assigning workers to a challenging and specific goals on important performance dimensions included innovative behavior (Carson & Carson, 1993). Similarly, study done by Hoelg and Parboteeah (2003), they found that team with behavior-focused on goal-setting behavior has done positive effects on team innovative performance in innovative projects. Goal-setting is believes to reduce uncertainty about the qualitative properties of the output expected as well as the time and budget constraints of the project.

For cognitive strategies of self-leadership, feeling of future successful market development are major factors influencing engagement in innovative behavior (Van der Panne, Van Beers, & Kleinknecht, 2003). Thus, the supported the positive effect of visualizing successful performance on innovative behavior. In the other research, individuals who utilize constructive thought pattern strategies are able to tackle and suggest solutions more effectively during innovation stage (Carmeli, Meitar, & Weisberg, 2006). In terms of intrinsic motivation, Chen, Wu and Chen (2010) in their study to understand the relationship among marine tourism employee's personality traits, work motivation and innovative behavior have found that employees with higher intrinsic motivation (natural reward) are more likely to generate innovative behavior. It is because they will exhibit more innovative behavior if they feel enjoy and challenges in their work. For natural reward, personnel often chase delightful or suitable works to fulfill self-actualized. Positive correlation also found in the relationship between intrinsic motivation and innovative behavior in the pharmaceutical industry (Sundgren, Dimenas, Gustafsson, & Selart, 2005).

For physical vitality, how can vitality give effect to innovative behavior can be explain within two approaches. Firstly, from the perspectives of innovative behaviors' job demands. Innovative behavior is often a response to uncertainties or high levels of demand in the environment (West, 2002). Innovative behavior requires change, and the attention the group has to devote to articulating, planning and implementing the changes is likely to represent an increase over the normal levels of attention they give to work with endless meetings and extremely long working hours. Increased workload may well lead to lower levels of satisfaction, well-being and long-term viability of the group, which in turn may threaten its long-term effectiveness. In another situation, other workers in the work environment may tend to resist those changes because of the insecurity and uncertainty they may bring. It is because habits and preferences for familiar practices and actions are 'hard to break' because people have a built-in tendency to return to their original behaviors. Convincing resistant workers of the benefits of innovation can be difficult and emotionally taxing. Given its demanding nature, innovative behavior can be conceived as a potential stressor that may give rise to stress reactions. It is believed that individual who can enjoy good vitality will be able to handle these demands and stresses more efficiently and perform better because individuals who are healthy are less likely to become obese, possess higher levels of energy and enjoy enhanced feelings of well-being. They can do work tasks without undue fatigue.

Secondly, it can be seen from the perspectives of mental performances. Innovative behaviors are known to generate and promote the new ideas within work environment. Thus, it is requires an individual to have a good mental performance in order to come out with a good ideas. Healthy and active people process data faster and experience a slower decline in information-processing speed than inactive people because vitality helps in promoting concentration and stimulates mental capacities with increasing the mental aptitude and performance. All of the exercises and good nutrition will help our body to reduce levels of homocysteine, an amino acid which, if present in the body it can be a risk factor for memory loss and cognitive decline.

Transactional leadership as a moderator between self-leadership and innovative behavior

A transactional leader is one who focuses on inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers. It refers to leaders who guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements. Characteristics of transactional leadership are contingent reward and management by exception (active or passive). In its active mode, the leader actively monitors deviances from standard by the follower and takes corrective action. In its passive mode, the leader waits for follower mistakes to happen and then takes corrective action.

Transactional leadership affect innovative behavior by creating a trusted management method by rewarding organizational members for their effort after doing a task which may help employees to cope with the potential uncertainty and complexity of new processes, practices or structures especially in innovation stages (Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). By rewarding approach, an employee is more likely to involve in innovative behavior because they know that all their effort and difficulty that they have to face will be rewarded. Besides, the concept of trust in transactional leadership can give an opportunity to the employees to practices their self-leadership skill in affecting innovative behavior (Jung, 2001). It is because transactional leader is more likely to see the outcome of the task rather than the process to achieve the outcome. So, with the

concept of self-control by using self-leadership strategies, employees are freely to manage their own work without feel bonded with another.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research context

Respondents in this study were engineers of Electronics and Electricals (E&E) manufacturing company in Malaysia. The company's main responsibility was to process the industrial production in which raw materials are transformed in finished goods and ready for sale. In the survey, the participating organizations fulfilling the criteria that registered with the Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers.

3.2 Procedure and sample

Permission was sought from the Human Resource Departments of the various organizations of interest. Once permission was granted, the researcher sought specific demographical information about the teams from the Human Resources Departments. This was to purposively select only those teams that met the criteria for inclusion of teams in the study. The inclusion criteria are engineers who mostly involved in innovation process in Electronics and Electricals (E&E) manufacturing company. The questionnaires and envelopes were distributed to team members through the respective team leaders. The team leaders collected the completed questionnaires in sealed envelope and handed them to the researcher. Data collection lasted for 10 weeks. Surveys were sent to 18 companies and were be informed early about the research via phone and email. About six companies rejected to give cooperation within this study based on confidential issues. All the participants in this study are voluntary to take part. Respondents were asked to rate their own level of self-leadership strategies and the level of innovative behavior. In addition, they also required to rate the level of transactional leadership of their leader. From the 745 sets of questionnaires, only 9.3 per cent rejected due to incomplete responses given by the respondents. Therefore, the researcher uses 485 sets of questionnaire as the respond to the research objectives of the study.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Self-leadership strategies

To measure self-leadership strategies element, the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaires (RSLQ) was used (Houghton & Neck, 2002). It consists of 35 items included items that measure about behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies and natural reward strategies of self-leadership with 5-point response scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The scale consisted of 18 items of behavior-focused strategies measuring the subscales self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment, self-observation and self-cueing. The constructive thought pattern dimension is represented by 12 items with three subscales labeled visualizing successful performance, evaluating beliefs and assumptions and self-talk. A single subscale consisting of 5 items represents the natural reward dimension which focusing thoughts on natural reward.

For strategies that focus on physical vitality, eight items from Muller, et al., (2010) was used. All of the items represented the strategies that address physiological states and processes which included the dimension of health program, physical activities and healthy nutrition. Responses were given in 4 point scales ranging from '*describe me very imprecisely*' at one end and '*describe me very precisely*' at the other.

3.3.2 Innovative behavior

Innovative behavior was measured on a scale used by Jong and Hartog (2008). The scale consisted of 10 items measuring opportunity exploration, idea generation, idea championing and implementation/application dimension of innovative behavior. Responses were given in 5-point scales ranging from '*never*' as one end and '*always*' at the other.

3.4 Statistical Analysis

Data obtained were analyzed through the Structural Equation Model (SEM) and IBM SPSS 19 statistical program. The SEM was assessing the measurement models to evaluate the quality of measurement items before proceed to the hypotheses testing. The model fit indicators that were used for model fit are normal chi-square (CMIN/df), P-value, GFI (goodness-of-fit index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit), CFI (comparative fit index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) and RAMSEA (root mean squared error of approximation). All the items that meet requirement are used for the hypotheses testing by using IBM SPSS 19 statistical program. The proposed relations were tested through regression (for effect between independent and dependent variables) and hierarchical regression analyses (for moderating effect of transactional leadership).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 1 shows the demographic information with respect to the gender, age, ethnicity, education level, monthly income and year of services. It indicates that 55.3 per cent respondents were male and 44.7 per cent of respondent were female. Mean average for age of respondents is 29.72. For ethnicity information, Malay respondents contribute the highest percentages out of other ethnicity with total percentages with 65.4 per cent. Chinese respondents at the second higher percentage with 24.3 per cent and Indian respondents were at the third position with 6.8 per cent. Only 3.5 per cent of respondents were from other ethnicity (Christian, Philippines and Kadazan). The table also indicates that the demographic information about the respondents with respect to the education level which were taken in this research. About 55.5 per cent of the respondents were Bachelor Degree holder, 7.0 per cent of the respondents were Master's Degree holder, only 0.6 per cent of the respondents were Doctor of Philosophy holder and other category of education level (diploma and professional certificate) provides about 36.7 per cent out of total of respondents. Remaining 2.9 per cent of the respondents were belonging to monthly income with average RM5, 001 to RM6, 000 per month, and only 3.1 per cent were with more than RM6, 000 per month. For length of service information, respondents with service less than 2 years contribute the highest percentages with 47.4 per cent. About 24.1 per cent of the respondents belong to services between more than 2 years up to 4 years length of services. 14.2 per cent belong to respondents with length of services more than 4 years up to 6 years and this category shared the same total of percentages with more than 6 years service's respondents.

Table 1: Demographic Analysis

Personal Characteristics	Mean or % (n=485)
Gender	
Male	55.3%
Female	44.7%
Age	29.72
Ethnicity	
Malay	65.4%
Chinese	24.3%
Indian	6.8%
Other	3.5%
Education	
Bachelor Degree	55.5%
Master	7.0%
Doctor of Philosophy	0.6%
Other	36.7%
Service	
< 2 years	47.4%
>2 year - < 4 years	24.1%
>4 years - < 6 years	14.2%
>6 years	14.2%

4.2 Hypotheses Testing

4.2.1 Regression Analysis

This study has four main hypotheses in term of investigating about the effect between independent variables and dependent variable which are:

1. Behavior-focused strategies have positive and significant effect on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.
2. Constructive thought pattern strategies have positive and significant effect on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.
3. Natural reward strategies have positive and significant effect on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.
4. Physical vitality strategies have positive and significant effect on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.

Table 2: Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4.259	.141		30.167	.000
Behavior-focused	1.074	.056	.650	19.233	.000
Constructive thought	.821	.056	.546	14.540	.000
Natural reward	.709	.051	.526	13.874	.000
Physical vitality	.938	.054	.610	17.239	.000

Table 2 presents standardized regression weights, standardized beta coefficients, representing beta weights of self-leadership strategies on innovative behavior. Considering the standardized regression coefficients, strategies that focus on behavior-focused, constructive thought pattern, natural reward and physical vitality have strong significant and positive path coefficients towards innovative behavior. The standard regression weight of behavior-focused strategies for innovative is 0.650, $p < 0.001$ which means the increase in behavior-focused strategies by 1 is responsible for increase in innovative behavior by 0.650 and vice versa. This has proved the first hypothesis true that behavior-focused has a positive effect on innovative behavior. For the hypothesis 2 also has been supported by data as standardized effect on innovative behavior by constructive thought pattern is 0.546, $p < 0.001$. It shows that when constructive thought pattern goes up by 1 standard deviation, innovative behavior goes up by 0.546 standard deviation. Direct positive effect of natural reward on innovative behavior and direct positive effect of physical vitality on innovative behavior also are concerned that the findings support the hypothesis. The standardized path coefficient of natural reward for innovative behavior is 0.526 at $p = 0.000$, meanwhile coefficient for physical vitality for innovative behavior is 0.610 at $p = 0.000$, which are a significant positive effect between the both.

4.2.2 Hierarchical Regression Analysis

This study also has four main hypotheses in term of investigating about the moderator effect of transactional leadership in the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable which are:

1. Transactional leadership will moderate the relationship between behavior-focused strategies on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.
2. Transactional leadership will moderate the relationship between constructive thought pattern strategies on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.
3. Transactional leadership will moderate the relationship between natural reward strategies on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.

4. Transactional leadership will moderate the relationship between physical vitality strategies on innovative behavior among Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing engineers.

In term to analyses the moderator effect by using hierarchical regression, there are a few step must be followed. In first step, control variables were entered to control the effect of any external factor. In this research, control variables were gender and monthly salary. In second step, independent variable (behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies, natural reward strategies and physical vitality strategies) and moderator (transactional leadership) was entered. In third step, the interaction term of each of self-leadership strategies (behavior-focused strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies, natural reward strategies and physical vitality strategies) and transactional leadership were entered and regressed by innovative behavior.

Table 3 shows $\Delta R^2 = 0.479$ (change in the R2), with (F=5.752, df=479, p<0.017). The results show statistically significant values ($\beta=0.135$, p<0.01 verifying the moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship of behavior-focused strategies and innovative behavior, thus, support and accept the hypothesis where researcher hypothesize that ‘there is a significant moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship between behavior-focused strategies of self-leadership and innovative behavior’.

Table 3: Model Summary (Behavior-focused and Transactional Leadership)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change	F
1	.183a	.034	.029	.87035	.034	8.356	2	482	.000	0.116
2	.674b	.454	.450	.65506	.420	369.909	1	481	.000	1.074
3	.695c	.483	.479	.63763	.030	27.650	1	480	.000	0.305
4	.700d	.490	.484	.63450	.006	5.752	1	479	.017	0.135

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Behavior-focused
- c. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Behavior-focused , Transactional
- d. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Behavior-focused , Transactional, BVXTSL
- e. Dependent Variable: Innovative behavior

Table 4 shows $\Delta R^2 = 0.402$ (change in the R2), with (F=3.256, df=479, p<0.072). The results show statistically significant values ($\beta=0.097$, p<0.01 verifying the moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship of constructive thought pattern strategies and innovative behavior, thus, support and accept the hypothesis where researcher hypothesize that ‘there is a significant moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship between constructive thought pattern strategies of self-leadership and innovative behavior’.

Table 4: Model Summary (Constructive thought pattern and Transactional Leadership)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change	F
1	.183a	.034	.029	.87035	.034	8.356	2	482	.000	0.116
2	.573b	.329	.324	.72616	.295	211.421	1	481	.000	0.821
3	.638c	.407	.402	.68332	.078	63.216	1	480	.000	0.476
4	.641d	.411	.405	.68172	.004	3.256	1	479	.072	0.097

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Constructive thought pattern

- c. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Constructive thought pattern , Transactional
- d. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Constructive thought pattern , Transactional, CTXTSL
- e. Dependent Variable: Innovative behavior

Table 5 shows $\Delta R^2 = 0.402$ (change in the R2), with (F=8.406, df=479, p<0.004). The results show statistically significant values ($\beta=0.140$, p<0.01 verifying the moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship of natural reward strategies and innovative behavior, thus, support and accept the hypothesis where researcher hypothesize that ‘there is a significant moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship between natural reward strategies of self-leadership and innovative behavior’.

Table 5: Model Summary (Natural reward and Transactional Leadership)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change	F
1	.183a	.034	.029	.87035	.034	8.356	2	482	.000	0.116
2	.557b	.310	.305	.73630	.276	192.485	1	481	.000	0.709
3	.652c	.425	.420	.67273	.115	96.195	1	480	.000	0.522
4	.659d	.435	.429	.66760	.010	8.406	1	479	.004	0.140

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Natural reward
- c. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Natural reward, Transactional
- d. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Natural reward, Transactional, NRXTSL
- e. Dependent Variable: Innovative behavior

Table 6 shows $\Delta R^2 = 0.491$ (change in the R2), with (F=4.432, df=479, p<0.036). The results show statistically significant values ($\beta=0.129$, p<0.01 verifying the moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship of physical vitality strategies and innovative behavior, thus, support and accept the hypothesis where researcher hypothesize that ‘there is a significant moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship between physical vitality strategies of self-leadership and innovative behavior’.

Table 6: Model Summary (Physical Vitality and Transactional Leadership)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change	F
1	.183a	.034	.029	.87035	.034	8.356	2	482	.000	0.116
2	.635b	.403	.399	.68499	.369	297.167	1	481	.000	0.938
3	.704c	.495	.491	.63044	.092	87.836	1	480	.000	0.460
4	.707d	.500	.494	.62820	.005	4.432	1	479	.036	0.129

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Physical vitality
- c. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Physical vitality , Transactional
- d. Predictors: (Constant), Monthly Salary, Gender, Physical vitality , Transactional , PVXTSL
- e. Dependent Variable: Innovative behavior

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study is conducted in order to test the moderating effect of transactional leadership on the relationship between self-leadership strategies and innovative behaviour. Firstly, the effect of self-leadership strategies on

innovative behaviour is tested in the research. According to the results of analysis, it is seen that there is a positive effect of each of self-leadership strategies (behaviour-focused, constructive thought pattern, natural reward and physical vitality) on innovative behaviour. As innovation in the workplace is a complex process that often entails difficulties and obstacles, employees need to motivate themselves to accomplish tasks. People who possess good self-leadership qualities know how to achieve high levels of self-direction and self-motivation (Politis, 2006). Thus, effect of self-leadership strategies on innovative behaviour is very important. Behaviour-focused strategies are directed towards enhancing the self-consciousness and the management of essential, sometimes unpleasant, behaviours. It is important to setting guides and avoiding mistakes during innovation stages. Constructive thought pattern strategies refer to those thought patterns that are constructive in nature. Effect of constructive thought is important on innovative behaviour because individuals may alter their thought patterns to focus on potentially available opportunities in times of difficulties, rather than thinking about the difficulties as obstacles during the applying of innovative behaviour in the workplace (Ramamoorthy, Flood, Slattery, & Sardessai, 2005). Intrinsic motivation effect by natural reward strategies also important in effecting innovative behaviour as it seems that because of the complexity of the innovation process, employees have to find the work itself valuable and enjoyable. In addition, effect of physical vitality on innovative behaviour also very important as founded by when ability to perform and problem solving are increase when employees feeling healthy. It seems reasonable to suggest that when individuals are positively aroused and are feeling healthy, capable and energetic they will more actively involved in seek ideas, make suggestions, engage in thought-provoking conversations and will playfully approach novel directions.

The most important contribution of this study to the related literature is that it deals with transactional leadership as a moderating variable in the relationship between self-leadership strategies and innovative behaviour. It is seen that cohesion and pressure dimensions of transactional leadership has a moderating effect on this relationship. According to the results, the higher the transactional leadership is applied by a leader, the more positive effect of each of self-leadership strategies on innovative behaviour. The reason could be that reinforcement and reward are used by transactional leaders desirable to enhance innovation and high performance among employees. It focuses on more of the personal side of the organizational the interactions as well as vision, teamwork and values. Besides, this type of leadership is constantly meeting new people, making deals and moving on which are an important elements for innovativeness. Furthermore, leadership in organizations is important in shaping workers' perceptions, responses to organizational change, and acceptance of innovations, such as evidence-based practices. Transactional leadership moderates the relationship between self-leadership and innovative behaviour by allocates work to the employees. They can apply their self-leadership when they are considered to be fully responsible on their task whether or not they have the resources or capability to carry it out. When things go wrong, then the employees is considered to be personally at fault, and is punished for their failure just s they are rewarded for succeeding. Electricals and Electronics (E&E) manufacturing companies are private organizations where control is one of the requirement in day-today work and control is also the dominant features of the transactional leadership style. Therefore, transactional leadership believed can moderate the relationship between self-leadership strategies and innovative behaviour.

6. Acknowledgement

This study was partially done from thesis to complete the Doctoral of Philosophy study. The author is grateful to the Human Resources Officer from each of the participated electrical and electronics (E&E) manufacturing companies in Malacca, Malaysia for providing a good cooperation and facilities to carry out the research.

7. References

- Boerner, S., Eisenbeis, S. A., & Griesser, D. (2007). Follower behavior and organizational performance: the impact of transformational leaders. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 13(3), 16-25.
- Carmeli, A., Meitar, R., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Self-leadership skills and innovative behavior at work. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1), 75-90.
- Carson, P. P., & Carson, K. D. (1993). Managing Creativity Enhancement Through Goal-Setting and Feedback*. [10.1002/j.2162-6057.1993.tb01385.x]. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, 27(1), 36-45.
- Chen, S. C., Wu, M. C., & Chen, C. H. (2010). Employee's personality traits, work motivation and innovative behavior in Marine tourism industry. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 3, 198-205.

- Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: - A review in context. [doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00061-8]. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4), 581-613.
- Hoegl, M., & Parboteeah, K. P. (2003). Goal setting and team performance in innovative projects: on the moderating role of teamwork quality. *Small Group Research*, 34(1), 3-19.
- Houghton, J. D., & Neck, C. P. (2002). The revised self-leadership questionnaire: testing a hierarchical factor structure for self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(8), 672-691.
- Jong, J., & Hartog, D. (2008). Innovative work behavior: measurement and validation. *Scientific Analysis of Entrepreneurship and SMEs*, 4-27.
- Jung, D. I. (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and their effects on creativity in groups. *Creativity Research Journal*, 13(2), 185-195.
- Khan, M. J., & Aslam, N. (2012). Leadership styles as predictors of innovative work behavior. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 9(2), 17-22.
- Kumako, S. K., & Asumeng, M. A. (2013). Transformational leadership as a moderator of the relationship between psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams in Ghana. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(1), 1-9.
- Muller, G. F., Georgianna, S., & Roux, G. (2010). Self-leadership and physical vitality. *Psychological Reports*, 10, 383-392.
- Neck, C. P., & Cooper, K. H. (2000). The fit executive: exercise and diet guidelines for enhancing performance. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(2), 72-82.
- Philipp, B. L. U., & Lopez, P. D. J. (2013). The moderating role of ethical leadership : Investigating relationships among employee psychological contracts, commitment and citizenship behavior. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20(3), 304-315.
- 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.
- Politis, J. D. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership predictors of the stimulant dweterminants to creativity in organizational work environments. *The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 2(2), 23-34.
- Politis, J. D. (2006). Self-leadership behavioural-focused strategies and team performance: the mediating influence of job satisfaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(3), 203-216.
- Ramamoorthy, N., Flood, P. C., Slattery, T., & Sardessai, R. (2005). Determinants of Innovative Work Behavior: Development and test of an Integrated Model. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 14(2), 142-150.
- Shalley, C. E. (1995). Effects of coaction, expected evaluation and goal setting on creativity productivity. *Academy Management*, 38(2), 483-503.
- Stewart, G. L., Courtright, S. H., & Manz, C. C. (2011). Self-leadership: a multilevel review. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 185-222.
- Sundgren, M., Dimenas, E., Gustafsson, J.-E., & Selart, M. (2005). Drivers of organizational creativity: a path model of creative climate in pharmaceutical R&D. *R&D Management*, 35(4), 359-374.
- Thomas, B., & Michael, C. (1999). Proactive Behavior: Meaning, Impact, Recommendations. *Business Horizons*, 42(3), 63-73.
- Vaccaro, I. G., Jansen, J. J. P., Bosch, F. A. J. V. D., & Volberda, H. W. (2012). Management innovation and leadership : the moderating role of organizational size. *Journal of Management Studies*, 49(1), 28-51.
- Van der Panne, G., Van Beers, C., & Kleinknecht, A. (2003). Success and failure of innovation: a literature review. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 7(3), 309-338.
- Vries, R. E. d., Roe, R. A., & Taillieu, T. C. B. (2002). Need for leadership as a moderator of the relationships between leadership and individual outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 121-137.
- West, M. A. (2002). Sparkling fountains or stagnant ponds: an integrative model of creativity and innovation implementation in work groups. *Applied Psychology: an international review*, 51(3), 355-424.

Exploring Employees' Followership and Cognitive Style

Nur Faezahbinti Mahmud¹ and Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman²

¹Postgraduate Student, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, 81310 Skudai, Johor, Malaysia

²Senior Lecturer, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, 81310 Skudai, Johor, Malaysia

Abstract This paper reviews the relationship between followership style and cognitive style. It reviews Kelley's (1992) model of followership styles which are "the-sheep", "pragmatist", "the yes-people", "the star follower", and "alienated". Meanwhile for cognitive styles, this paper reviews Allinson and Hayes's (1996) model which consists of "analytical" and "intuitive" style.

Keywords: Followership, followers, "the-sheep", "the yes-people", "the star-follower", "pragmatist", "alienated", "cognitive style", "analyst", "intuitive"

1. Introduction

Followership research is a very interesting topic, however there is less research conducted on it (Hairuddin & Mohammed, 2008). One of the reason on why there is little research done on followership is because most of researchers believe that leadership and followership are coined together, however the truth is followership is an independent subject (Carsten et.al, 2010). Meanwhile according to the research done by Bjugstad et. al (2006) and Kellerman (2008), most researchers do not prefer to study followership because of the bad perception that people have on the terms of followers, as it is often defined as weak and passive. Focused by researchers, research and books are more on leaders, which lead people to undervalue followers (Kelley, 1992). Most of us misunderstood the concept of leaders are more important than followers, when the inalienable truth is "Leaders exist only with followers", (Dixon, 2003).

There are several researches on followership in Malaysia, amongst them are by Ismail et.al (2009), Hairuddin & Mohammed (2008) and Dania (1998), each of these researchers studied on followership in various organization. Research done by Ismail et.al (2009), studied on the relationship between transformational leadership, empowerment and followers' performance. The other research conducted in Malaysia is by Hairuddin & Mohammed (2008), which they did research on factors influencing faculty followership's perception of institutional leader in Malaysian Institutions of higher learning. And then there is a study done by Dania (1998), understanding the concept of followership in organization. These researchers had their research done on the topic followership; however majority of the researcher still studies the relation between followers and leaders.

Followers are the people who received and act according to their leaders' instruction because they shared the same goals as their leaders and at the same time they act according to the knowledge, skills and abilities that they possess to accomplish the organization goals (Kelley, 1992). However, followers are always been categorized as low ranks workers which makes

the followership aspect to be less targeted and had been neglected in most of the organizations. Nevertheless, followers are actually the one who implements the organization activities like planning, implementing and evaluating (Kelley, 1992).

Identifying the followership styles of the employees is very importance as organization would prefer to have an effective and productive worker, not just a worker that is completely dependent on their leaders for every single decision. When we can identify employees' followership styles, we can see what kind of plan and strategies to produce the best followers in the organization (Kelley, 1992).

Cognitive styles have been used in various researches especially in the organizational psychology and organizational behavior (Cools et. al, 2006; Cools & Broeck, 2008). However, there is still less research on cognitive styles for the organizational setting (Allinson & Hayes, 1996; Cools et. al, 2006). Identifying cognitive style is important as it is how individuals process information, and it provides useful information on how one does solve a problem (Grivas, 1996). Armstrong & Priola (2001), mentioned that cognitive styles are an essential factor in contributing to effective decision making, thus by identifying the employee's cognitive style, this will help organizations to understand their employees more.

The studies on cognitive style are commonly found on leadership research like researches done by Williamson (2007) and Stum (2009) where their studies focused on how cognitive style affected leadership effectiveness. As most of the researches focus on the importance of identifying leadership styles, there are fewer researches focusing on the importance of follower, the same goes with the follower's cognitive style (Zhang, 2008).

Relationship between cognitive styles and followership styles

Study from Kim (2011) suggests that there are some linkage between cognitive style and followership style.

Cognitive Style

Cognitive style may be defined as an individual's consistent approach to organizing and processing information during learning (Messick, 1984). Barbosa (2007) mentioned that an individual's cognitive style may influence their preference for different types of learning, knowledge gathering, information processing, and decision making, many of the critical intentions and actions an entrepreneur is confronted with on a daily basis.

According to Broeck and Cools (2003), there are a few terms used in defining cognitive styles, like, learning styles, thinking styles, and style of thought. Despite all of those definitions, Riding & Sadler-Smith (1997) stated that cognitive styles are often viewed as a part of learning styles just like the definitions by various researchers, however it is more deep rooted and firmly established, and it can stand by its own just like learning styles. Cognitive styles are usually used in management (Allinson and Hayes, 1996).

Every individual has consistent individual's differences in preferred ways of organizing and processing information (Messick, 1976; Allinson & Hayes, 1998). Cognitive styles are related with any individual mental behaviors, where they habitually applied while trying to solve a problem (Messick, 1984), they too are used to handle conflict, developing framework and structure (Broeck & Cools, 2003). According to Witkin, et. al (1977), cognitive styles are

individuals' differences when they try to perceived, think, solve problem and learn. It is expected that individuals' cognitive styles are vary because there are different sensing to some aspects of decisions (Messick, 1976). Therefore an individual's cognitive style can be marked as part of his or hers personal characteristic (Raffaldi et. al 2012).

Cognitive style model by Allinson and Hayes, had been used by many researches in their research as they provide a very detailed explanation and discussion regarding the cognitive style concept (Armstrong & Cools, 2009; Hayes & Allinson, 1998). Allinson and Hayes, (2004) labels cognitive style into two different dimensions, which are, 'analyst' and 'intuitive'.

Analytic are rationale person, a logical thinker. According to Allinson et. al (2001), 'analyst' are individuals that their left hemisphere of the brain more. The left side hemispheres are used for logical, complex and critical thinking, like mathematics (Allinson et.al, 2001). Allinson and Hayes (1996), states that the left hemispheres of the brain ('analyst') emphasize on primarily linear mode of operation where information gained are processed sequentially Analytical thinker are less likely to be a daredevil, they are more to focusing and achieving the goals kind of person (Nygren & White, 2002). Kickul et.al (2009), mentioned that 'analyst', are individuals that go through things in details and precisions. Usually people who are left brain dominant are usually compliant, used systematic methods for investigation, and they are comfortable with ideas that need step-by-step analysis (Allinson & Hayes, 1996). Analytical individuals are suitable for the implementation stage, where this people will be the one who put the ideas into practice (Armstrong & Cools, 2009).

'Intuitive' is a recognized patterns that individual obtained through their experienced (La Pira, 2010). 'Intuitive' are linked to our right hemisphere of the brain, as 'intuitive' are considered as nonlinear thinker (Allinson et.al). The right hemisphere, specialize in processing simultaneous inputs at once, it's also responsible for spatial orientation and have the ability to understand visual images. Intuitivist, are comfortable with open- ended approach for solving problem, they easily remembers spatial images, and are best when they work with ideas that need overall assessment. Commonly, 'intuitive' are known as the "gut feelings or "vibes" that one's feels during certain moments like when they are trying to some situations or problems (Eugene,2010). Intuitive are also known as 'direct knowing', as when we make some decisions we seems to know about it, however we are unaware of the reasons, we just seems to be sure about it (Hodgkinson et al, 2009), they too are considered as someone who makes an instant judgments based on what they felt and the adoptions of global perspective (Allinson and Hayes, 1996).

Followership Styles

Followership is still an understudied discipline (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008) because it is usually related with negative connotations (Bjugstad et. al, 2006).Kelley (1992) claimed that followers are those individuals who are courageous and honest, and who cooperate to accomplish goals without competing for leadership or power. Kelley further conceptualized followership using two behavioral dimensions which are critical thinking and active engagement upon the definition of followership. If the followers willing to be creative and innovative, and willing to offer criticism regardless of the consequences, it is highly they are independent and critical thinkers which have high levels of critical thinking (Mushonga& Torrance, 2008).

There are five basic followership styles based on both dimensions mentioned earlier. The five basic styles are “The yes-people”, “The sheep”, “the pragmatist”, “the alienated” and “the star follower”.

The ‘yes-people’, according to Brown & Thornborrow (1996), they are aggressively differential and possibly servile and widely known as the “Conformist”. They are extremely the opposite of the ‘alienated’ followers. Comparing both styles, conformist and ‘alienated’, conformist have more positive energy than ‘alienated’. Sadly, even though this type of followers is more positive, they are also some bad points of it which are, always seeks for their leaders especially to do the thinking, directions and providing them the visions. The ‘yes-people’ believe that their leader’s power entitle them, followers, to be obedience towards their leader’s order. They are also known as “good child”, as they are eager to please their superior (Kelley, 1992).

Contrasts from the ‘yes-people’, ‘alienated’ are known as mavericks, as they only think for themselves and does not think of the effects of their actions on others. Leader’s view them as cynical, troublesome and not a team player. ‘Alienated’ followers felt that leaders and organizations do not really recognize their talents and idea. They also view them as the party who exploited them for their own gain. This type of followers have a lot of negative energy which make it, to be the opposite of conformist as ‘alienated’ followers are not happy with their work situations. Eventually their negativity caused resentment in leaders and other followers, as they are trying to make it difficult for others (Kelley, 1992).

Meanwhile, ‘pragmatist’s gives you another story, it is seen to be quiet interesting as they stay on top of the fence and observe where the wind will head to. Once they know where it headed, they’ll get on board (Kellerman, 2008). Followers fall under this type does not have fix target or support as they only choose to be in a safe grounds. To be safe they need to choose and follows leaders that can provide them with security. They wouldn’t ask much on their leaders decision as they are just an observer who will went to the path that can provide them with the most benefits (Kelley, 1992). ‘Pragmatist’ always play safe in their game as they can change who they are at the very moment if it is necessary (Brown & Thornborrow, 1996). These followers have low risk of tolerance as they could do a good job but choose not to because they are afraid to fail. Surviving is a necessity for ‘pragmatist’.

‘The sheep’ followers are also commonly known as “passive”. These followers do represent their name as they are extremely passive, do not have the ability to do critical thinking, less initiative and are not responsible. These followers always seek and are too dependent on their leaders especially for doing the thinking, as they do not think by themselves and are not active in the organizations (Kelley, 1992). They do have the ability to do an excellent job, but at a certain stage they will suddenly halt as they do not know what shall they do next.

Just like their name, ‘the star’/‘exemplary’ followers are an example to others (followers/ co-workers). Opposite from followers that have negative energy and are passive, they are followers who think critically and involve themselves actively in the organizations activities. They are willing to work with others instead of competing; they work to get the tasks done and not for the power or reward. They stick to their own stand when they think it is right to do so (Kelley, 1992). ‘The star’ followers simply choose to play the role of followers and not the role of leaders. They are just comfortable and satisfied with their positions as they believe that they are best at being who they really are, the followers (Kellerman, 2008).

2. Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 below shows the conceptual framework for this research. The independent variable shows two types of cognitive style by Allinson and Hayes (1996) which are “analyst” and “intuitive”. Meanwhile the dependent variables are the five styles of followership introduced by Kelley, (2008), which are “the yes-people”, “pragmatist”, “the sheep”, “the star follower” and “alienated”.

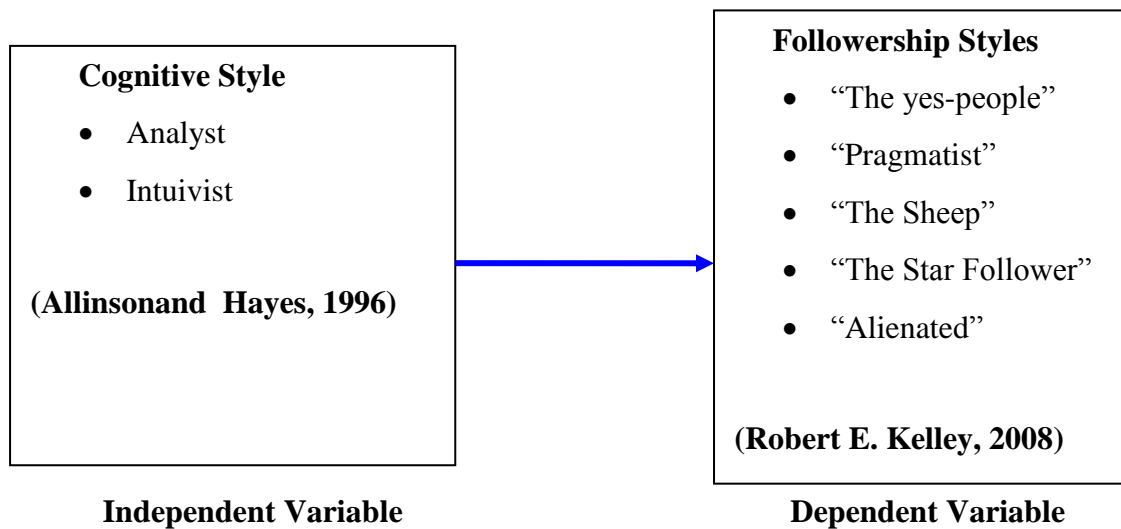


Figure1 – Conceptual Framework

3. Conclusion

This paper has reviewed the concept of cognitive style and its effect on the followership styles. Followers are the back bone of any organization, identifying their followership styles and cognitive style is important as we can help to develop and nurture them to be more productive and efficient.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Ministry of Education, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia and Vote No. (00K98) for supporting and sponsoring this publication.

4. References

- Allinson, C.W., & Hayes, J. (1996).The Cognitives Style Index: A Measure of Intuition Analysis for Organizational Research.*Journal of Management Studies*.Vol.33(1), 119-135.
- Armstrong, S. J, & Cools, E (2009).*Cognitive Styles in Business and Management: A Review of Development Over The Past Two Decades*. VlerickLeavent Gent Working Paper Series 2009/02.

- Armstrong, S.J. and Priola, V. (2001), "Individual differences in cognitive style and their effectson task and social orientations of self-managed work teams", Small Group Research, Vol. 32(3), 283-312.
- Barbosa, S. D., (2007)The Role of Cognitive Style and Risk Preference on Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy and Entrepreneurial Intentions. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 13(4), 86-104.
- Bjugstad, K., Thach, E. C., Thompson, K. J., & Morris, A. (2006).A Fresh Look at Followership: A Model of for Matching Followership and Leadership Styles.*Institute of Behavioral and Applied Management*.304-319.
- Brown, A. D., &Thornborrow, W. T. (1996).*Do Organization Get The Followers They Deserve?*Leadership & Organization Development Journal. Vol. 17, 5-11.
- Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010).*Exploring Social Constructions of Followership: A Qualitative Study*. The Leadership Quarterly, Vol. 21,543-562.
- Cools, E., and Van den Broeck, H. (2006).*The Cognitive Style Indicator: Development and Validation Of a New Measurement Tool*. Oslo:University of Oslo, Norway.
- Dania, A. R. (1998) *KefahamanKonsepPengikutanDalamOrganisasi*. University Putra Malaysia.
- Dixon, G., &Westbrok, J. (2003).*Followers Revealed*. Engineering Management Journal.
- Favara, Leonard F., Jr. (2009), Examining Followership Styles and Their Relationship with Job Satisfaction and Performance, Dissertation Doctor of Philosophy, Arizona.
- Gallen, T. (1997).*The Cognitive Style and Strategic Decisions of Managers*. ManagementDecision Vol. 35(7/8): 541–51.
- Hairuddin, M. A., Abdul Aziz M.D., Ahmad Rafee, C.K., Mazlan, S., MuhamadBustaman, A.M., &Rosnarizah, A. H. *Quality Monitoring of the Strategic Leadership Styles for Malaysian National Primary School (NPS) Heads Involved in the School Improvement Programme (SIP)*.InstitutAminuddinBaki.
- Hodgkinson, G. P. and Sadler-Smith, E.,(2003), Complex or unitary? A critique and empirical re-assessment of the Allinson–Hayes Cognitive Style Index, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 76, 243–268.
- Hodgkinson, G.P., Sadler-Smith, E., Sinclair, M. & Ashkanasy, N. (2009). More than meets the eye? Intuition and analysis revisited, *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47, 342-346.
- Ismail, Z., Rajji, T. K. and Shulman, K. I. (2010), Brief cognitive screening instruments: an update. *Int. J. Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 25: 111–120. doi: 10.1002/gps.2306
- Jehn, K. A.,&Bezrukova, K. (2003).*A Field Study of Group Diversity, Workgroup Context, and Performance*.Journal of Organizational Behavior.
- Kellerman, B.,(2004). *Bad Leadership*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kelley, R. E., (n.d), Rethinking Followership in The art of Followership, pp. 5-15
- Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The Power of Followership: How to Create Leaders People Want to Follow and Followers Who Lead Themselves*. New York Currency and Doubleday.
- Khatri, N.,& Ng, H. A.(2000).*The Role of Intuition in Strategic Decision Making*.Human Relation.
- Kickul, J., Gundry, L. K., Barbosa, D. S., &Whitcanack, L. (2009). *Intuition Versus Analysis? Testing Differential Models of Cognitive Style on Entrepreneurial Self- Efficacy and the New Venture Creation Process*.Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice.
- Kim, C. W (2011).*Followership In The U.S Federal Government: A Missing Link Between Participative Leadership and Organization Performance*.Graduate School- Newark Rutgers.

-
- Lt. Col. Paul Berg. (2014). *The Importance of Teaching Followership in Professional Military Education*. Military Review.
- Messick, S., (1984). The Nature of Cognitive Styles: Problems and Promise in Educational Practice. *Educational Psychologist* Vol 19(1), 59-7
- Mushonga, S. M., & Torrance, C. G. (2008). Assessing the relationship between followership and the Big Five factor model of personality. *Review of Business Research*, Vol. 8, 185-193.
- Nygren, T. E., & White, R. J. (2002). *Assessing Individual Differences in Decision*. Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting 2002 46: 953. doi: 10.1177/154193120204601204.
- Pira, F.P. (2010). *Entrepreneurial Intuition: an Empirical Approach*. Entrepreneurship College of Business San Francisco State University.
- Raffaldi, S., Iannello, P., Vittani, L., & Antonietti, A. (2012). *Decision-Making Styles in the Workplace: Relationships Between Self-Report Questionnaires and a Contextualized Measure of the Analytical-Systematic Versus Global-'intuitive' Approach*.
- Riding, R. J. and Sadler-Smith, E. (1997), Cognitive Style and Learning Strategies: some Implications for Training Design, *International Journal of Training and Development*, Vol. 1(3), 199-208.
- Stum, J. (2009). *Kirton's Adaptation- Innovation Theory Managing Cognitive Style in Times of Diversity and Change*. Emerging Leadership Journey.
- Vondey, M. (2012). *Followership: How Followers Understand What it Means to Follow* (Order No. 3515415). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1022645144).
- Witkin, H. A., & Goodenough, D. R. (1977). Field dependence and interpersonal behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 661-688.
- Zhang, Z. (2008). *In the eyes of the follower: Cognitive and affective antecedents of transformational leadership perception and individual outcomes* (Order No. 3318039). Available from ProQuest Central; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304601439).

Kesedaran Ergonomik Dalam Kalangan Operator Pengeluaran Di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru

Kassim Thukiman

m-kassim@utm.my

Syahirah Aqilah Othman

sheeraqila@gmail.com

Abstrak Kajian ini dijalankan untuk mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap konsep ergonomik, tempat kerja, persekitaran kerja, dan rekabentuk kerja. Di samping itu, kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti persepsi dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap program proaktif ergonomik. Seramai 181 orang responden telah dipilih secara rawak sebagai sampel kajian. Pengumpulan data dilaksanakan dengan menggunakan satu set borang selidik yang khusus. Data kajian dianalisis berdasarkan kaedah statistik deskriptif dengan menggunakan perisian SPSS for Windows versi 16.0. Hasil kajian mendapati bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap konsep ergonomik, tempat kerja, persekitaran kerja, dan rekabentuk kerja berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Selain itu, analisis kajian juga jelas menunjukkan bahawa min skor persepsi dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap program proaktif ergonomik juga berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Berdasarkan dapatan kajian, pengkaji mencadangkan agar penambahbaikan berterusan dijalankan agar pekerja-pekerja dapat menghasilkan produktiviti yang lebih tinggi dan mewujudkan persekitaran tempat kerja yang sihat dan selamat.

Katakunci: Tahap Kesedaran Ergonomik, Program Proaktif Ergonomik, Operator Pengeluaran

1. Pendahuluan

Secara umum, ergonomik bermaksud suatu kajian tentang aspek-aspek anatomikal, psikologikal, dan fisiologikal manusia dalam persekitaran kerjanya, dengan mengoptimumkan keselamatan, kesihatan, keselesaan, dan efisien manusia (T.M. Fraser, 1980). Justeru ergonomik ini berkaitan dengan kajian manusia dalam kerja sehariannya. Hal ini bertujuan untuk memastikan kerja, peralatan kerja, serta persekitaran kerja direkabentuk

atau diubahsuai bagi menyesuaikan tugas kepada manusia dan bukan manusia kepada tugas. Menurut Mohd. Rizal Mohd. Said dan Rahizah Zahari (2011), Pertubuhan Buruh Antarabangsa atau International Labour Organization (ILO), ergonomik ialah sains biologi manusia berhubung dengan sains kejuruteraan di antara pekerja dengan persekitaran kerjanya.

Merujuk pada kajian Elmy (2005), suatu sesi temuramah beliau bersama Dr. Paul Yeow seorang sarjana dalam bidang ergonomik, terdapat pelbagai cabaran yang dihadapi dalam usaha mengaplikasikan ergonomik di Malaysia. Antara cabarannya ialah (1) bidang ergonomik di Malaysia yang masih baharu dan sering disalahertikan oleh banyak pihak terutamanya pihak majikan, (2) kekurangan penyelidik untuk memperkenalkan dan mendalami bidang ergonomik, (3) pekerja industri yang kebanyakannya berpendidikan rendah dan (4) kebanyakan pihak pengurusan kurang prihatin terhadap aspek keselamatan dan kesihatan pekerjaan.

Menurut Ahasan dan Imbeau (2003), ergonomik adalah bidang baharu yang sentiasa berubah. Di kebanyakan Negara Dunia Ketiga, tahap aplikasi ergonomik dan kesedarannya masih di peringkat rendah walaupun impak ergonomik amat besar terhadap peningkatan amalan kerja serta keselamatan dan kesihatan pekerjaan (Ahasan dan Imbeau, 2003; Shikdar dan Sawaqed, 2003). Berbanding dengan disiplin saintifik lain, ergonomik secara relatifnya masih baharu dalam kalangan masyarakat dan kebanyakan daripada mereka tidak menyedari sumbangan ergonomik terhadap kesejahteraan negara dan pembangunan ekonomi (Shahnavaz, 1996). Di Malaysia, kesedaran terhadap ergonomik masih di peringkat awal oleh kerana pengetahuan yang terhad terhadap ergonomik (Sen, 1984: 1998). Terdapat banyak penyelidikan yang menunjukkan kesan positif dalam melaksanakan prinsip ergonomik di tempat kerja, rekabentuk mesin, rekabentuk kerja, persekitaran dan rekabentuk kemudahan (Das, 1987; Shikdar dan Das, 1995; Resnik dan Zanotti, 1997; Das dan Shikdar, 1999).

2. KAJIAN LITERATUR

2.1 Kefahaman Tentang Konsep Ergonomik

Persatuan Ergonomik Antarabangsa atau *International Ergonomics Association* (2014), mendefinisikan ergonomik (atau faktor manusia) sebagai suatu disiplin saintifik berkenaan dengan pemahaman interaksi antara manusia dan elemen-elemen lain dalam sistem, dan profesion yang mengaplikasikan teori, prinsip, data dan kaedah untuk merekabentuk dalam usaha untuk mengoptimumkan kesejahteraan manusia dan prestasi keseluruhan sistem.

Menurut Syed Ahmad Helmi (2003), ergonomik adalah di mana keadaan yang mementingkan kehendak manusia dalam analisisnya di mana hubungan dan kaitan di antara manusia dan kerjanya yang ditingkatkan untuk mencapai tahap kecekapan yang optimum. Selain itu, terdapat konsep utama bidang ergonomik iaitu manusia perlu disesuaikan dengan tugas dan latihan. Seterusnya, tugas dan latihan yang diberi tersebut haruslah bersesuaian dengan kerja dan tugas yang dilaksanakan. Konsep kedua bagi bidang

ergonomik pula ialah tugas perlulah disesuaikan pada manusia dan dilaksanakan terhadap rekabentuk atau pengubahsuaian dengan menepati keperluan manusia dalam menyempurnakan sesuatu tugas.

Seterusnya, terdapat juga konsep tambahan mengenai ergonomik iaitu persekitaran kerja hendaklah disesuaikan terhadap manusia semasa melaksanakan kerja dengan rekabentuk sistem kerja yang bersesuaian bagi memastikan manusia mempunyai kelebihan dan dapat mengurangkan masalah dan risiko seperti termal (suhu dan kelembapan), bising, getaran, cahaya dan sebagainya. Objektif pertama dalam kajian ini adalah untuk mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap konsep ergonomik.

2.2 Kesedaran Ergonomik - Tempat Kerja

Mohtar Mushri (2002) dari Jabatan Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan pernah menghuraikan tentang aspek ergonomic dalam kertas kerjanya yang bertajuk 'Ergonomik Asas mengikut Undang-Undang Berkaitan dengan Ergonomik. Beliau menyatakan bahawa aplikasi ergonomik dalam industri bagi keselamatan dan kesihatan terdiri daripada elemen rekabentuk dan penilaian tempat kerja, peralatan dan persekitaran tempat kerja. Rekabentuk dan penilaian tempat kerja menumpukan kepada cara kawasan pengeluaran dan pejabat direkabentuk. Dalam hal ini, ketercapaian dan jarak dijadikan sebagai titik pertimbangan agar ia dapat memenuhi keperluan fizikal manusia.

Seksyen 15, Akta Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan 1994 (AKTA 514), mengkehendaki seseorang majikan itu bertanggungjawab untuk menyediakan tempat kerja yang selamat dan sihat serta menjamin keselesaan pekerja. Ia turut termasuk dengan memastikan bahawa tiada impak negatif daripada faktor-faktor seperti susun atur serta rekabentuk stesen kerja, kebisingan, pencahayaan, suhu, kelembapan, pengudaraan, habuk, bau, getaran dan bahan berbahaya. Objektif kedua kajian ini pula untuk mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap tempat kerja.

2.3 Kesedaran Ergonomik - Persekitaran Kerja

Menurut Mohtar Musri (2002), ciri-ciri ergonomik untuk menghasilkan persekitaran yang baik merupakan faktor penentuan yang boleh membantu pekerja untuk mencapai objektif mereka. Selain itu, dalam masa yang sama juga mereka dapat mengurangkan tekanan, usaha dan kesilapan. Termal (suhu dan kelembapan), visual (pencahayaan dan kesilauan) dan auditori (kebisingan dan getaran) merupakan faktor-faktor yang terdapat dalam persekitaran utama. Faktor-faktor ini akan mempengaruhi prestasi dan keselesaan pekerja, sebagai contoh faktor termal iaitu samaada kelembapan atau suhu yang terlalu panas boleh mengurangkan prestasi kerja; faktor visual iaitu keadaan yang terlalu silau atau faktor auditori seperti kebisingan yang melampau akan mengurangkan keupayaan pekerja untuk mengenalpasti kesilapan atau dalam melaksanakan tugas mereka. Tahap getaran atau faktor termal sama ada terlalu panas atau terlalu sejuk pula akan mengurangkan keupayaan untuk mengendalikan peralatan kerja. Selain itu, tahap suhu, kebisingan dan pencahayaan yang berlebihan juga boleh mengakibatkan ketidakpuasan pekerja terhadap pekerjaannya.

Akta Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan 1994 ini memperuntukkan bagi perlindungan keselamatan, kesihatan dan kebajikan kepada individu yang berada di tempat kerja. Menurut Seksyen 4 Akta ini, ada menyatakan tentang persekitaran kerja perlu bersesuaian dengan keperluan fisiologikal dan psikologikal pekerja. Selain itu, pekerja turut mempunyai tanggungjawab secara relevan untuk menjaga keselamatan dan kesihatan dirinya dan individu lain; memberikan kerjasama kepada majikan dan individu lain; memakai alat perlindungan personal yang diberikan dan mematuhi peraturan serta arahan yang terkandung dalam polisi Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan. Objektif ketiga kajian ini adalah untuk mengetahui tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap persekitaran kerja.

2.4 Kesedaran Ergonomik - Rekabentuk Kerja

Berpandukan kepada objektif keempat kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap rekabentuk kerja. Mohtar Musri (2002) telah membentangkan aspek-aspek ergonomik yang terdiri daripada:

- i. Rekabentuk dan penilaian tempat kerja
- ii. Rekabentuk dan penilaian peralatan kerja
 - a. Prinsip Umum
 - Pencapaian dan pembersihan (*reaches and clearances*)
 - Pemeliharaan (*maintainability*)
 - Keselamatan (*safety*)
 - b. Paparan
 - Penunjuk auditori atau pendengaran (*auditory our hearing presentation*)
 - Paparan penunjuk visual untuk pengesanan signal (*visual presentation for detection of signal*)
 - c. Kawalan dan Papan Kekunci
 - Rekabentuk, pemilihan, dan lokasi kawalan.
 - d. Rekabentuk dan pemilihan alatan tangan
- iii. Rekabentuk dan penilaian persekitaran tempat kerja
 - a. Bunyi bising dan getaran (*noise and vibration*)
 - b. Pencahayaan dan kesilauan (*illumination and glare*)
 - c. Suhu dan kelembapan (*temperature and humidity*)

2.5 Program Proaktif Ergonomik

Selaras dengan objektif kelima kajian ini iaitu untuk mengetahui persepsi dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap program proaktif ergonomik, Jalaluddin dan Anita Shahaarazad (2002) telah mengutarakan cadangan program-program proaktif ergonomik. Antara program-program tersebut ialah:

-
- i. Analisis ringkas
 - ii. Pengawasan
 - iii. Kawalan kes (*Case Control*)
 - iv. Pengurusan perubatan

Menurut Betty G. Dillard dan Tina Frazier Schwager (1997), kajian mereka ini telah menyatakan bahawa pada tahun 1993, teori asas bagi kajian tentang strategi pencegahan yang telah digunakan dalam kajian lepas merupakan usul yang dicadangkan oleh Baggerman (1993) dalam *Apparel Industry Magazine*. Model tersebut telah mengaplikasikan pendekatan jenis ergonomik makro holistik yang mengandungi dua sub-sistem:

- i. Sub-sistem teknikal yang merangkumi jenis peralatan, rekabentuk tempat kerja, dan persekitaran; dan
- ii. Sub-sistem sosial yang mengandungi rekabentuk kerja, latihan, budaya dan corak pengurusan organisasi.

3. KAEDAH KAJIAN

3.1 Responden

Responden bagi kajian ini ialah seramai 181 orang dan terdiri daripada operator peluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru. Sebanyak 181 borang soal selidik telah diedarkan kepada 181 orang operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru. Seramai 90 orang responden adalah terdiri daripada lelaki dan selebihnya iaitu 91 orang responden merupakan perempuan. Kumpulan umur terbesar ialah 31 hingga 40 tahun, diikuti oleh 41 hingga 50 tahun, dan kurang daripada 30 tahun. Seramai 99 orang responden kajian yang berkhidmat di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru memiliki SPM manakala 56 orang responden memiliki Sijil dan 21 orang memiliki Diploma. Sementara itu, lima orang responden memiliki Ijazah Sarjana Muda. Kebanyakan responden kajian ini telah berkhidmat selama 16 hingga 20 tahun, seterusnya 11 hingga 15 tahun, enam hingga sepuluh tahun, kurang daripada lima tahun, 21 hingga 25 tahun dan seterusnya lebih daripada 25 tahun.

3.2 Instrumen

Borang soal selidik telah diberikan kepada operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, dan dibahagikan kepada tiga bahagian. Bahagian A mengandungi lima item soalan yang berbentuk nominal berkaitan dengan demografi responden. Bahagian B pula merupakan kesedaran ergonomik. Dalam bahagian ini, soalan yang dikemukakan kesedaran ergonomik terhadap konsep ergonomik (lapan item), kesedaran ergonomik terhadap tempat kerja (lima item), kesedaran ergonomik terhadap persekitaran kerja (tujuh item), dan kesedaran ergonomik terhadap rekabentuk kerja (sembilan item). Bahagian C pula mengandungi soalan berkaitan program proaktif ergonomik sebanyak sepuluh item. Dalam kajian rintis yang dijalankan, sebanyak 10 set soal selidik telah diedarkan secara rawak ke atas 10 orang individu. Hasil analisis kebolehpercayaan menunjukkan nilai Alpha Cronbach bagi soal selidik motivasi dan soal selidik pengekal kerja melebihi 0.70. Oleh itu, borang

soal selidik yang muktamad mengandungi 44 item. Skala Likert Lima Markah digunakan untuk menjawab item-item soal tersebut. Data deskriptif soal selidik dibentangkan dalam dapatan kajian.

4. DAPATAN KAJIAN

4.1 Objektif Pertama: Mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap konsep ergonomik

Jadual 1 menunjukkan kesedaran bahawa ergonomik merupakan elemen penting dalam persekitaran kerja. Item ini mendapat nilai min skor yang paling tinggi bagi keseluruhan item di bawah konsep ergonomik iaitu 4.40. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik responden terhadap konsep ergonomik secara keseluruhannya berada di tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai min skor yang melebihi 3.68.

Jadual 1: Kesedaran bahawa ergonomik merupakan elemen penting dalam persekitaran kerja

Tahap Kesetujuan	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)	Min Skor
Agak Setuju	13	7.2	4.40
Setuju	83	45.9	
Sangat Setuju	85	47.0	
Jumlah	181	100.0	

4.2 Objektif 2: Mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap tempat kerja

Jadual 2 menunjukkan kesedaran bahawa kesedaran bahawa organisasi ini sangat menitikberatkan aspek ergonomik dan keselamatan setiap pekerja. Item ini mendapat nilai min skor yang paling tinggi bagi keseluruhan item tempat kerja iaitu 4.43. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik responden terhadap tempat kerja secara keseluruhannya berada di tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai min skor yang melebihi 3.68.

Jadual 2: Kesedaran bahawa organisasi ini sangat menitikberatkan aspek ergonomik dan keselamatan setiap pekerja

Tahap Kesetujuan	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)	Min Skor
Agak Setuju	17	9.4	4.43
Setuju	69	38.1	
Sangat Setuju	95	52.5	
Jumlah	181	100.0	

4.3 Objektif 3: Mengetahui tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap persekitaran kerja.

Jadual 3 menunjukkan kesedaran bahawa lantai tempat kerja haruslah bersih dan tidak licin. Item ini mendapat nilai min skor yang paling tinggi bagi keseluruhan item persekitaran kerja iaitu 4.35. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik responden terhadap persekitaran kerja secara keseluruhannya berada di tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai min skor yang melebihi 3.68.

Jadual 3: Kesedaran bahawa lantai tempat kerja haruslah bersih dan tidak licin

Tahap Kesetujuan	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)	Min Skor
Agak Setuju	14	7.7	4.35
Setuju	90	49.7	
Sangat Setuju	77	42.5	
Jumlah	181	100.0	

4.4 Objektif 4: Mengkaji tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap rekabentuk kerja

Jadual 4 menunjukkan kesedaran bahawa monitor perlu diletakkan di hadapan pekerja dalam posisi yang paling ideal. Item ini mendapat nilai min skor yang paling tinggi bagi keseluruhan item rekabentuk kerja iaitu 4.41. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik responden terhadap rekabentuk kerja secara keseluruhannya berada di tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai min skor yang melebihi 3.68.

Jadual 4: Kesedaran bahawa monitor perlu diletakkan di hadapan pekerja dalam posisi yang paling ideal

Tahap Kesetujuan	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)	Min Skor
Agak Setuju	11	6.1	4.41
Setuju	85	47.0	
Sangat Setuju	85	47.0	
Jumlah	181	100.0	

4.5 Objektif 5: Mengetahui persepsi dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap program proaktif ergonomik

Jadual 5 menunjukkan pemantauan sekiranya terdapat unsur bahaya atau kemungkinan untuk berlakunya kemalangan di tempat kerja. Item ini mendapat nilai min skor yang paling tinggi bagi keseluruhan item program proaktif ergonomik iaitu 4.48. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap persepsi responden terhadap program proaktif ergonomik secara keseluruhannya berada pada tahap yang tinggi dengan nilai min skor yang melebihi 3.68.

Jadual 5: Pemantauan sekiranya terdapat unsur bahaya atau kemungkinan untuk berlakunya kemalangan di tempat kerja

Tahap Kesetujuan	Kekerapan	Peratus (%)	Min Skor
Agak Setuju	8	4.4	4.48
Setuju	78	43.1	
Sangat Setuju	95	52.5	
Jumlah	181	100.0	

5. Perbincangan

Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap konsep ergonomik adalah tinggi. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan min yang tertinggi dalam kalangan responden ialah konsep ergonomik iaitu kesedaran bahawa ergonomik merupakan elemen penting dalam persekitaran kerja. Min yang diperolehi ialah 4.40, yang mana berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Menurut Syed Ahmad Helmi (2003), ergonomik adalah di mana keadaan yang mementingkan kehendak manusia dalam analisisnya di mana hubungan dan kaitan di antara manusia dan kerjanya yang dipertingkatkan untuk mencapai tahap kecekapan yang optimum.

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan kesemua pernyataan kesedaran berada pada tahap persetujuan min yang tinggi. Manakala min yang terendah diperolehi dalam kesedaran konsep ergonomik, ialah 4.19, iaitu kesedaran melakukan pengubahsuaian yang bersesuaian mengikut keperluan untuk melaksanakan tugas oleh staf di Syarikat XYZ. Menurut Syed Ahmad Helmi (2003), konsep kedua bagi bidang ergonomik pula ialah tugas perlulah disesuaikan pada manusia dan dilaksanakan terhadap rekabentuk atau pengubahsuaian dengan menepati keperluan manusia dalam menyempurnakan sesuatu tugas.

Oleh itu, pihak organisasi perlu meneruskan usaha untuk memastikan tahap kesedaran ergonomik pekerja sentiasa berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Keseluruhannya, min skor bagi kesedaran ergonomik terhadap konsep ergonomik berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Min yang diperolehi bagi kesemua konsep ergonomik berada pada min yang melebihi 3.68, yang mana berada pada tahap yang tinggi.

Hasil analisis data bagi tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap tempat kerja. Min yang tertinggi bagi kesedaran ergonomik terhadap tempat kerja ialah kesedaran bahawa organisasi ini sangat menitikberatkan aspek ergonomik dan keselamatan setiap pekerja iaitu sebanyak 4.43. Menurut Seksyen 15, Akta Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan 1994 (AKTA 514), mengkehendaki seseorang majikan itu bertanggungjawab untuk menyediakan tempat kerja yang selamdand sihat serta menjamin kesejahteraan pekerja.

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan kesemua pernyataan kesedaran berada pada tahap persetujuan min skor yang tinggi. Manakala min yang terendah diperolehi dalam kesedaran ergonomik terhadap tempat kerja, ialah 4.13, iaitu kesedaran bahawa kesedaran bahawa perkhidmatan yang diperlukan oleh kebanyakan pekerja diletakkan di lokasi berpusat (*centralized*).

Oleh itu, pihak organisasi perlu meneruskan usaha untuk memastikan tahap kesedaran ergonomik pekerja sentiasa berada pada tahap yang tinggi khususnya tahap kesedaran ergonomik mereka terhadap tempat kerja. Keseluruhannya, min skor bagi kesedaran ergonomik terhadap tempat kerja berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Min skor yang diperolehi bagi kesemua tempat kerja berada pada min skor yang melebihi 3.68, yang mana berada pada tahap yang tinggi.

Hasil analisis data bagi tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, terhadap persekitaran kerja. Min skor yang tertinggi bagi kesedaran ergonomik terhadap persekitaran kerja ialah kesedaran bahawa lantai tempat kerja haruslah bersih dan tidak licin iaitu sebanyak 4.35. Menurut Mohtar (2002), aspek-aspek ergonomik yang terdiri daripadapertama, rekabentuk dan penilaian tempat kerja dan seterusnya rekabentuk dan penilaian peralatan kerja. Prinsip umum yang merangkumi pencapaian dan pembersihan (*reaches and clearances*), pemeliharaan (*maintainability*) dan keselamatan (*safety*).

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan kesemua pernyataan kesedaran berada pada tahap persetujuan min skor yang tinggi. Manakala min yang terendah diperolehi dalam kesedaran ergonomik terhadap persekitaran kerja ialah 4.22, iaitu kesedaran bahawa suhu tempat kerja yang terlalu sejuk atau rendah akan mengurangkan

produktiviti pekerja. Menurut Mohtar (2002), ciri-ciri ergonomik untuk menghasilkan persekitaran yang baik merupakan faktor penentuan yang boleh membantu pekerja untuk mencapai objektif mereka. Faktor termal iaitu suhu dan kelembapan merupakan salah satu daripada faktor yang terdapat dalam persekitaran utama. Faktor ini akan mempengaruhi prestasi dan keselesaan pekerja, sebagai contoh faktor termal iaitu samaada kelembapan atau suhu yang terlalu panas boleh mengurangkan prestasi kerja. Oleh itu, pihak organisasi perlu meneruskan usaha untuk memastikan tahap kesedaran ergonomik pekerja sentiasa berada pada tahap yang tinggi.

Min yang tertinggi bagi kesedaran ergonomik terhadap rekabentuk kerja ialah kesedaran bahawa monitor perlu diletakkan di hadapan pekerja dalam posisi yang paling ideal iaitu sebanyak 4.41. Menurut Mohtar (2002), menyatakan bahawa rekabentuk dan penilaian peralatan pula memerlukan penelitian terhadap empat aspek rekabentuk peralatan iaitu prinsip asas, paparan yang termasuk dial dan terminal paparan visual (VDT), kawalan dan set kekunci serta alatan tangan. Prinsip-prinsip ini amat penting untuk memastikan ketercapaian dan kejelasan, kebolehpeliharaan, dan keselamatan peralatan.

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan kesemua pernyataan kesedaran berada pada tahap persetujuan min skor yang tinggi. Manakala min yang terendah diperolehi dalam kesedaran ergonomik terhadap rekabentuk kerja, ialah 4.19, iaitu kesedaran bahawa pergelangan yang membengkok semasa menggunakan alatan tangan harus dielakkan. Menurut J. Dul *et. al.* (1993), rekabentuk tempat kerja yang selesa dan memenuhi keperluan fizikal pekerja dapat meningkatkan produktiviti pekerja dan meningkatkan keluwesan untuk mengubah postur. Oleh itu, pihak organisasi perlu meneruskan usaha untuk memastikan tahap kesedaran ergonomik pekerja sentiasa berada pada tahap yang tinggi agar dapat mewujudkan rekabentuk kerja yang ergonomik dan kondusif.

Min yang tertinggi bagi persepsi pekerja terhadap program proaktif ergonomik ialah pemantauan sekiranya terdapat unsur bahaya atau kemungkinan untuk berlakunya kemalangan di tempat kerja iaitu sebanyak 4.48. Menurut Jalaluddin dan Anita Shaharazad (2002), menyatakan bahawa tahap tekanan terhadap sistem otot dan sistem tulang diklasifikasikan dalam konteks pengawasan mengikut tahap-tahap seperti Tahap 1, Tahap 2, dan Tahap 3. *Grip strength, pinch strength, range-of-motion, Phalen's, Finkelstein's Tinei's test* dan *lift strength* merupakan data-data asas yang dicadangkan sebagai alternatif. Proses membuat perbandingan menggunakan data rujukan iaitu merujuk kepada data-data asas yang telah dicadangkan. Selain itu, digunakan sebagai rujukan untuk mengasingkan individu yang berisiko tinggi yang mana tugasnya tidak terlibat dan sebagai tujuan untuk melakukan persediaan untuk penempatan baru.

Dapatan kajian ini menunjukkan kesemua pernyataan persepsi terhadap program proaktif ergonomik berada pada tahap persetujuan min skor yang tinggi. Manakala min yang terendah diperolehi dalam persepsi terhadap program proaktif ergonomik, ialah 4.13, iaitu menggalakkan amalan pusingan tempat kerja. Deborah Kearney (1995), menyatakan bahawa terdapat elemen-elemen yang dapat menyumbang kepada program-program ergonomik. Elemen-elemennya termasuklah kawalan pentadbiran, analisis persekitaran tempat kerja, kawalan kejuruteraan terhadap bahaya, pengurusan perubatan dan latihan. Oleh itu, pihak organisasi perlu meneruskan usaha untuk memastikan tahap kesedaran ergonomik pekerja sentiasa berada pada tahap yang tinggi agar dapat mewujudkan persekitaran kerja yang sihat dan selamat.

Secara kesimpulannya, tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan operator pengeluaran di Syarikat XYZ berada pada tahap yang tinggi. Menurut Levin dan Rubi (2000), min untuk skala persetujuan yang berada pada paras yang tinggi ialah di antara 3.68 hingga 5.00. Bagi keseluruhan aspek kesedaran ergonomik yang dikaji dalam kajian ini, iaitu kesedaran ergonomik terhadap konsep ergonomik, tempat kerja, persekitaran kerja, rekabentuk kerja, dan persepsi pekerja terhadap program proaktif ergonomik, kesemuanya mencapai tahap persetujuan atau kesedaran yang tinggi iaitu min melebihi 3.68.

Selain daripada itu, organisasi juga perlulah melakukan pengawasan sebagai suatu usaha untuk melaksanakan program proaktif ergonomik untuk memantau sekiranya terdapat unsur bahaya yang boleh membawa kepada punca berlakunya kemalangan di tempat kerja. Menurut Jalaluddin dan Anita Shaharazad (2002), telah mengutarakan cadangan program-program proaktif ergonomik. Antara program-program tersebut ialah analisis ringkas, pengawasan, kawalan kes (*case control*), dan pengurusan perubahan.

Selain itu, pengkaji juga berharap agar hasil dapatan kajian ini dapat dijadikan panduan kepada pihak pengurusan Syarikat XYZ, Johor Bahru, dalam usaha untuk meningkatkan serta mengekalkan tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan pekerja sebagai usaha untuk menyediakan persekitaran tempat kerja yang selamat dan sihat. Akhir sekali, kajian ini juga diharapkan dapat menjadi sumber atau bahan rujukan kepada penyelidik lain yang ingin mengkaji berkenaan tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan pekerja serta persepsi terhadap program proaktif ergonomik yang boleh dilaksanakan dalam sesebuah organisasi pada masa akan datang.

Tambahan pula, Betty G. Dillard dan Tina Frazier Schwager (1997) telah menjalankan kajian tentang pelaburan peralatan ergonomik dari sudut kebaikan kepada organisasi. Oleh itu, Syarikat XYZ, boleh melaksanakan usaha untuk melakukan pengubahsuaian terhadap alatan kerja serta mesin kerja secara berperingkat-peringkat untuk pekerja melaksanakan tugas. Menurut Syed Ahmad Helmi (2003), konsep bidang ergonomik ialah tugasan perlulah disesuaikan terhadap rekabentuk atau pengubahsuaian dengan menepati keperluan manusia dalam menyempurnakan sesuatu tugas.

Teori kesedaran diri telah diperkayakan dengan kaedah penyelidikan baru. Menurut teori ini, apa-apa yang membuat individu menumpukan perhatian kepada diri sendiri akan meningkatkan kesedaran diri. Oleh itu, teori kesedaran diri ini telah dijadikan rujukan untuk mengenalpasti tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan pekerja di organisasi yang dikaji. Tahap kesedaran ergonomik itu boleh ditingkatkan sekiranya individu mempunyai tahap kesedaran diri yang tinggi untuk berusaha mengambil tahu aspek ergonomik yang berkaitan dengan persekitaran kerjanya seterusnya mewujudkan suasana kerja yang selamat dan sihat.

Kesimpulannya, organisasi perlu mengambil berat tentang keseluruhan aspek kesedaran ergonomik yang dikaji dalam kajian ini, iaitu kesedaran ergonomik terhadap konsep ergonomik, tempat kerja, persekitaran kerja, rekabentuk kerja, dan persepsi pekerja terhadap program proaktif ergonomik. Hal ini dapat membantu mewujudkan organisasi yang mementing aspek ergonomik, sebuah organisasi yang sihat dan selamat kepada

seluruh warga organisasi. Di samping itu, tahap kesedaran ergonomik dalam kalangan pekerja juga dapat ditingkatkan.

6. RUJUKAN:

- Akta Keselamatan dan Kesihatan Pekerjaan 1994 (Akta 514). *Peraturan-Peraturan dan Perintah-Perintah*. Kuala Lumpur: International Law Book Services.
- Baggerman, M. (1993). "Macro-ergonomics aid in meeting OSHA standards". *Apparel Industry Magazine*, hlm. 56-62.
- Betty G. Dillard dan Tina Frazier (1997). "Ergonomic Equipment Investment: Benefits to Apparel Manufacturers". *International Journal of Clothing Science and Technology*, 9, hlm. 285-300.
- Deborah Kearney (1995). "Planning for facilities compliance with OSHA's ergonomic regulations: worker's compensation and ADA". *Facilities*, hlm. 22-27.
- Duval, Shelley, dan Robert A. Wicklund (1972). *A Theory of Objective Self awareness*. New York: Academic Press.
- Dul, J. dan Weerdmeester, B. (1993). *Ergonomics for Beginners – A Quick Reference Guide*. Taylor and Francis (Printers), Basingstoke, Hants: London.
- Elmy Marina Mohamad Khamis (2005). *Aplikasi Ergonomik Dalam Sistem Kerja*.
- Fraser, T. M. (1980). *Ergonomics Principles in The Design of Hand Tools*. International Labour Office. Geneva: Switzerland.
- Jalaluddin Dahalan dan Anita Shaharazad Zakaria (2002). *Proactive Ergonomics Program for Managing Musculoskeletal Disorders*. *Ergo Consult*.
- Kamus Dewan*, (1994). Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Levin R. I. And Rubin D. S (2000). *Statistik Untuk Pengurusan*. Terjemahan Susila Muisamy dan Halimah Awang. Petaling Jaya: Pearson Education Asia.
- Mohtar Musri (2002). *Basic Ergonomics and Legal Aspect Related to Ergonomics*. Industrial Engineering.
- Mohd Rizal Mohd Said dan Rahizah Zahari (2011). *Kajian Aplikasi Ergonomik Terhadap Pelajar Ketika Melakukan Kerja-Kerja Amali Bengkel Dalam Kalangan Pelajar-Pelajar 4 SPH PKPG Fakulti Pendidikan UTM*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Sen R.H. dan Yeow P.H., (2003). "Ergonomic study on the manual component insertion lines for occupational health and safety improvements". *Industrial Journal Occupational Safety Ergonomics*, 57-74.
- Shikdar *et. al.*, (1997). "Ergonomic Factors Contributing to Mechanical Equipment Injuries in Small Manufacturing Industries". *ASEAN Ergonomics*, hlm. 97 & 56-160.
- Syed Ahmad Helmi Syed Hassan (2003). *Pengenalan Kejuruteraan Industri*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai: Johor.

MODUL INTERVENSI KONFLIK INTERPERSONAL DAN KESEJAHTERAAN PSIKOLOGI DALAM ORGANISASI: SATU PERSPEKTIF

Siti Salmah Binti Sedik,
Pelajar Ijazah Sarjana: Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
Tel : 013-7934460
Emel : cty_sally@yahoo.com

Dr. Hamdan Bin Abd Kadir
Pensyarah Kanan : Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
Tel : 012-7718464
Emel : hamdanabdulkadir@yahoo.com

ABSTRAK

Kemajuan-kemajuan dibidang teknologi dan sosial budaya mendorong perkembangan pelbagai aspek kehidupan manusia antaranya didalam kumpulan dan hidup berkelompok. Bagi memastikan sesebuah organisasi mencapai matlamat yang optimum, pelbagai aspek harus diperhalusi antaranya adalah faktor-faktor yang menyebabkan timbulnya konflik, samada melibatkan individu, kumpulan ataupun organisasi itu sendiri. Sekiranya pemahaman berkaitan faktor-faktor tersebut diteliti secara mendalam tugas dalam hal menyelesaikan konflik-konflik yang terjadi dapat diselesaikan dan sekaligus dapat menyalurkannya ke arah perkembangan yang positif. Dua faktor penting yang mempengaruhi kejayaan sesebuah organisasi dalam mencapai matlamat dan kecemerlangan ialah tingkah laku pekerja dan kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi. Dengan itu, penulisan ini membincangkan satu pendekatan konseptual berkenaan modul intervensi konflik interpersonal dan kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi yang mampu menangani masalah berkenaan.

Kata Kunci: Modul intervensi, konflik interpersonal, kesejahteraan psikologi

1.0 PENGENALAN

Konflik interpersonal merupakan masalah yang sering dihadapi dalam kalangan pekerja dalam sesebuah organisasi. Faktor dan sifat individu itu sendiri yang secara semulajadinya telah dijadikan dengan personaliti dan kemahuan yang berbeza. Sebuah organisasi bermula dengan individu, membentuk kumpulan dan akhirnya kumpulan tersebut akan membantu organisasi untuk mencapai matlamat dan objektif yang telah ditetapkan. Pola pergerakan pekerja di dalam setiap organisasi adalah berbeza, ianya bergantung kepada tabiat, dan perilaku pekerja itu sendiri. Perkara ini merupakan satu faktor wujudnya konflik di kalangan pekerja. Floyd (2009), menyatakan konflik interpersonal adalah perselisihan yang ditunjukkan antara dua pihak yang saling bergantung yang merasakan perbezaan matlamat, sukar mendapatkan sumber, dan gangguan dari pihak lain dalam mencapai matlamat. Menurut Ishak Md Shah (2006), terdapat tiga komponen yang menjadi pendorong kepada konflik, iaitu minat, emosi, dan nilai. Minat adalah penerak yang senyap memotivasikan manusia untuk terjebak dalam konflik. Minat boleh dalam bentuk subjektif dan objektif. Oleh itu, minat bukan sahaja tentang keinginan tertentu seseorang, tetapi juga tentang peranan dan status. Misalnya, seorang pengurus menyatakan sesuatu perkara yang bertentangan dengan minat pekerjanya. Minat selalunya menjadi isu sebenar dalam konflik. Emosi merupakan perasaan seseorang dalam hubungan interpersonal, meliputi perasaan marah, dendam, bimbang, penolakan, kehilangan. Sementara itu, nilai adalah perkara yang kerap mengujakan kehilangan konflik tetapi sukar untuk diselesaikan. Kesukaran wujud kerana nilai sentiasa berubah-ubah. Bagi memastikan kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi sentiasa di tahap yang bersesuaian, majikan haruslah berkebolehan mewujudkan suasana kerja yang kondusif agar pekerja sentiasa berasa seronok untuk bekerja. Kaedah yang perlu dilakukan adalah dengan mengurus konflik interpersonal dan ianya dapat memberi kesan kepada kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi. Sekiranya konflik interpersonal tidak diurus dengan bijak akan memberikan negatif kepada organisasi dan individu yang terlibat. Kesejahteraan psikologi akan menurun sekiranya kesihatan emosi dan fizikal individu tidak dapat dikawal dengan bijak. Hamdan (2008), menyatakan pihak yang terbabit dalam konflik akan sentiasa mengalami tekanan dan ketegangan kerana konflik akan menyebabkan individu menggunakan tenaga fizikal dan keupayaan mental secara melampaui batas kemampuan.

Hamdan (2008), turut menyatakan konflik yang berterusan dalam tempoh masa yang lama akan memberikan implikasi yang buruk kepada kesihatan emosi dan fizikal.

2.0 LATAR KONSEP PENULISAN

Antara perkara utama yang diulas dalam penulisan ini adalah (i) definisi konflik interpersonal (lima dimensi) dan (ii) kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi (6 dimensi). Takrifan konflik interpersonal dalam tajuk penulisan ini dipetik daripada takrifan yang dibuat oleh Willmot dan Hocker (2001), mendefinisikan konflik interpersonal sebagai perjuangan yang ditunjukkan antara sekurang-kurangnya dua pihak yang saling bergantung yang mempunyai perbezaan matlamat. Menurut Meyer (1984), dalam bukunya *Modules from Design Implementation*, modul ditakrifkan sebagai sumber rujukan pembelajaran yang khusus. *The New Webster Dictionary of the English Language* (1967), mendefinisikan *intervention* adalah istilah intervensi sebagai *act of intervening*. Modul intervensi adalah sebagai sumber rujukan pembelajaran spesifik yang bersifat campur tangan.

(i) Konflik interpersonal

Konflik didefinisikan sebagai suatu tingkahlaku kerana ianya lebih daripada sekadar pencanggahan pendapat. Situasi yang diklasifikasikan sebagai konflik adalah setelah seseorang menemui orang lain untuk menyedarkan atau meluahkan perselisihan faham kepada orang itu. Kelakuan bersifat menentang juga boleh ditunjukkan secara tingkahlaku bukan lisan seperti nada suara yang keras, Ishak Md Shah, (2006). Sehubungan dengan itu, pada era globalisasi, masalah konflik interpersonal di kalangan pekerja, merupakan perkara yang perlu ditangani dengan bijak bagi membendung masalah lebih besar timbul dari konflik yang kecil sekaligus mengganggu aktiviti dan produktiviti di dalam organisasi itu sendiri.

(ii) Kesejahteraan Psikologi

Kesejahteraan psikologi merujuk kepada kebolehan individu untuk menggunakan kognitif dan emosi dalam memenuhi tuntutan kehidupan seharian, Ryff and Keyes et al (1995). Jesteru bagi menentukan tahap kualiti perkhidmatan adalah bergantung kepada tingkah laku dan prestasi pekerja terhadap sesuatu tugas dan tanggungjawab yang diamanahkan. Apabila perkara tersebut dapat dikenal pasti maka individu tersebut dapat menyesuaikan diri dengan persekitaran sebenar. Selain daripada itu juga, organisasi perlu memberikan perhatian yang sewajarnya bagi memastikan matlamat dan halatuju organisasi dapat dicapai menerusi pembentukan tingkah laku positif para pekerja dan sokongan padu daripada staf-staf sokongan.

3.0 DIMENSI KONFLIK INTERPERSONAL

Menurut Wilmot dan Hocker (2007), terdapat lima faktor yang mempengaruhi konflik interpersonal, (i) Menunjukkan pertentangan, (ii) Kebergantungan, (iii) Melihat perbezaan matlamat, (iv) Melihat sumber terhad, (v) Gangguan.

(i) Menunjukkan pertentangan

Konflik dalam konteks interpersonal melibatkan komunikasi antara dua atau lebih pihak yang seterusnya menyebabkan konflik berlaku. Perkara ini didorong oleh konflik dalam (*intrapersonal*) iaitu pemikiran, perasaan dan tafsiran diri tentang ketidakpuasan atau penentangan yang diluahkan kepada pihak terlibat. Menurut Wilmot dan Hocker (2007), menjelaskan konflik berlaku apabila tindakan komunikasi berlaku sama ada secara bahasa badan (*nonverbal communication*) atau pertuturan untuk mengklasifikasikan sebagai konflik interpersonal. Oleh yang demikian, konflik interpersonal berlaku apabila sikap menentang ditunjukkan oleh pihak yang berkonflik disebabkan situasi-situasi tertentu yang mencetus konflik tersebut

(ii) Kebergantungan

Menurut Wilmot dan Hocker (2007), pihak yang berkonflik selalu menunjukkan pertentangan dan gangguan antara satu sama lain adalah disebabkan mereka saling bergantung. Walaubagaimanapun Braiker dan Kelly (1979), menyatakan seseorang tidak bergantung dengan orang lain atau tiada keperluan istimewa dan minat yang sama seperti orang lain akan tiada konflik dengan orang lain yang tiada kebergantungan itu. Hal ini kerana, kebergantungan antara satu sama lain wujud apabila pencapaian matlamat seseorang individu atau satu pihak bergantung pada paling kurang satu tindakan orang lain atau pihak lain.

(iii) Melihat Perbezaan Matlamat

Seseorang selalunya menghadapi konflik disebabkan ingin mencapai matlamat mereka sendiri (Wilmot dan Hocker, 2007). Setiap pekerja di dalam organisasi melakukan tugas yang hanya difahami oleh mereka sahaja terutama berkenaan masalah-masalah yang dihadapi. Pekerja-pekerja lain kemungkinan tidak memahami masalah-masalah pekerja lain. Disebabkan itu, mereka mempunyai matlamat yang berbeza untuk membolehkan masalah mereka diselesaikan dan kemahuan mereka dipenuhi. Jesteru, disebabkan kebergantungan beberapa pihak yang berbeza matlamat dalam organisasi menyebabkan matlamat beberapa pihak selalunya tidak dipenuhi dan menyebabkan konflik berlaku.

(iv) Melihat sumber terhad

Sumber yang memberi kesan positif terhadap fizikal, ekonomi atau kesan sosial (Miller dan Steinberg, 1975,65). Kuasa dan harga diri adalah sumber yang sering direbut dalam konflik interpersonal (*self-esteem*). Individu yang berkonflik sering menganggap mereka kekurangan beberapa sumber dan cuba bersaing dengan pihak lain untuk menguasai sumber tersebut. Konflik interpersonal terjadi apabila persaingan mendapatkan sumber yang sama oleh dua atau lebih pihak.

(v) Gangguan

Gangguan adalah salah satu syarat yang diperlukan untuk mengklasifikasikan sesuatu pertelingkahan sebagai konflik interpersonal. Hal ini disebabkan, konflik interpersonal adalah suatu tingkah laku. Menurut Wilmot dan Hocker (2007), jika wujud kehadiran pihak lain yang cuba menghalang usaha sesuatu pihak dalam mencapai matlamat, konflik berlaku.

4.0 DIMENSI KESEJAHTERAAN PSIKOLOGI

Terdapat enam dimensi yang diketengahkan oleh Ryff and Keyes et al (1995), (i) Penerimaan Kendiri, (ii) Hubungan positif dengan orang lain, (iii) Autonomi, (iv) Penguasaan persekitaran (v) Matlamat hidup, (vi) Pertumbuhan Personal.

(i) Penerimaan Kendiri

Adalah kemampuan untuk memiliki sikap yang positif terhadap diri, mengetahui dan menerima segala aspek dalam kehidupan. Termasuk perkara yang baik dan buruk dan boleh menerima hakikat perkara yang telah berlalu.

(ii) Hubungan positif dengan orang lain

Bersedia, bersetuju dan percaya pada hubungan dengan orang lain, memberi perhatian terhadap kebajikan orang lain, mempunyai tahap empati yang tinggi, berkasih sayang, dan bersedia memberi dan menerima.

(iii) Autonomi

Berkeyakinan dan berdikari, berkemampuan untuk membuat keputusan terhadap masalah yang dihadapi, mampu menilai diri dari perspektif diri sendiri.

(iv) Penguasaan persekitaran

Berkemampuan menguasai dan mahir dalam menguruskan persekitaran, mengawal sebarang perkara yang menyimpang dari aktiviti luaran, menggunakan peluang persekitaran bagi keperluan diri dan nilai diri.

(v) Matlamat hidup

Mempunyai matlamat hidup dan hala tuju dalam kehidupan, mengetahui makna kehidupan sekarang dan masa lepas, sentiasa percaya akan tujuan kehidupan pada masa akan datang.

(vi) Pertumbuhan personal

Sentiasa berusaha untuk meningkatkan diri, melihat potensi diri mampu dibina dan berkembang, bersedia untuk menghadapi pengalaman hidup yang baru, sedari akan potensi diri, mampu untuk mengubah diri untuk menjadi lebih berpengetahuan dan berkesan.

5.0 KONSEP MODEL HUBUNGAN ANTARA KONFLIK DAN AKIBATNYA

Konflik boleh dibahagikan kepada dua jenis iaitu konflik membina (*constructive*) dan konflik pemusnah (*destructive*). Konflik yang membina ialah konflik yang boleh membawa kepada kebaikan kepada organisasi iaitu menyokong matlamat organisasi dan meningkatkan mutu kerja. Manakala, konflik pemusnah adalah konflik yang tidak diperlukan dan diingini dalam organisasi kerana boleh membawa keburukan. Pengelasan konflik kepada konflik membina atau konflik pemusnah bergantung kepada penerimaan oleh sesebuah organisasi iaitu tafsiran dan kepakaran mereka terhadap konflik yang berlaku. Konflik yang membina dalam sesebuah organisasi boleh bertukar menjadi konflik pemusnah dalam organisasi. Konflik boleh membawa kepada kesan positif yang tinggi kepada organisasi jika ia pada tahap yang sederhana. Konflik yang sederhana bermaksud konflik yang berlaku dapat di kawal dan diselesaikan lalu membolehkan prestasi dicapai pada tahap optimum. Menurut Daft (2010), menyatakan konflik pada tahap yang sihat membantu mengelakkan wujudnya pemikiran kumpulan (*groupthink*). *Groupthink* terjadi apabila ahli dalam sesebuah pasukan tidak berani untuk menyuarakan pendapat bagi memastikan kejelikan pasukan. Ketiadaan konflik juga sebenarnya tidak begitu baik untuk organisasi kerana ia akan mewujudkan pemikiran kumpulan dan tidak merangsang daya pemikiran dalam kalangan pekerja kerana pekerja tidak dibebani dengan masalah dan cabaran yang perlu diselesaikan. Pekerja akan berada di zon selesa dan daya pemikiran tidak terangsang lalu menyebabkan akibat yang negatif seperti kemerosotan kesejahteraan psikologi di dalam organisasi. Tahap konflik yang terlalu tinggi juga tidak baik untuk organisasi kerana masalah yang timbul terlalu banyak akan menyebabkan kesukaran untuk diselesaikan.

6.0 MODEL KONFLIK BEREPIKOD

Konflik interpersonal berlaku secara berulang atau secara berperingkat berkitaran yang dikenali sebagai "episod", (Cummings, T.G. dan Worley, C.G., 2009). Isu yang mendasari konflik adalah terpendam dan tidak ditunjukkan masalah-masalah secara jelas oleh pihak yang terlibat. Selepas itu, sesuatu yang mencetuskan konflik telah membawa kepada pendedahan masalah yang dihadapi oleh pihak yang terlibat. Tingkahlaku pihak yang berkonflik yang mencetuskan kesedaran pihak lain tentang kewujudan konflik akan menyebabkan beberapa kesan hasil daripada tingkahlaku pihak yang berkonflik. Seterusnya konflik yang berlaku akan terpendam kerana tidak dapat diselesaikan. Menurut Cummings dan Worley (2009), menyatakan kesan negatif tingkahlaku iaitu persetujuan yang tidak dapat dicapai selalunya akan menyebabkan konflik terpendam semula. Setelah itu, jika sesuatu perkara mencetuskan konflik tersebut dan menjadikan konflik diketahui orang lain lalu episod konflik yang seterusnya akan berlaku sama seperti diepisod yang sebelumnya iaitu isu yang timbul diperkuat oleh sesuatu peristiwa yang tercetus menghasilkan tingkahlaku konflik dan kesan konflik terhasil.

Berdasarkan model yang dicadangkan oleh Cumming dan Worley, (2009), mereka menentang empat strategi penyelesaian konflik. Strategi pertama adalah dengan menghindarkan dari perkara yang boleh menjadikan konflik lebih teruk dengan menerangkan dengan jelas faktor pencetus yang berlaku atau berterus terang apabila simptom konflik disedari.

Strategi kedua adalah dengan membuat set penghalang konflik. Cara ini dapat dilakukan melalui undang-undang di tempat kerja atau aktiviti yang dapat merapatkan jurang antara pekerja terutamanya yang berkemungkinan besar akan berkonflik.

Strategi ketiga adalah dengan membantu pihak terlibat menyelesaikan kesan konflik yang dihadapi berdasarkan kepada kesan yang timbul. Salah satu cara yang boleh digunakan ialah dengan menggunakan konsultan iaitu pihak ke tiga.

Strategi keempat ialah menghapuskan atau menyelesaikan isu asas yang menyebabkan konflik terjadi.

7.0 KONSEP MODEL KESEJAHTERAAN PSIKOLOGI

Kesejahteraan psikologi hangat dikaji dan dibincangkan sejak kebelakangan ini dan sekaligus telah menarik ramai pengkaji psikologi khususnya dalam bidang psikologi industri dan organisasi. Perkara ini tertumpu kepada kesan tekanan dan tekanan psikologi kepada individu dan organisasi termasuk kesihatan fizikal yang semakin menurun, prestasi menurun, ponteng kerja, dan kadar penggantian kerja, (De Croon et al., 2003). Manusia akan selalu berusaha untuk mencari bagaimana kehidupan yang baik dapat dicapai dan yang berkaitan kesejahteraan dan kebahagiaan. Berdasarkan Cristhoper (1999), kesejahteraan psikologi berfungsi sebagai panduan untuk kajian klinikal yang boleh membantu kaunselor dan klien untuk mncapai matlamat mereka dan memberikan maklumat tentang tujuan dan sasaran kaunseling psikologi. Ini adalah kerana kesejahteraan melibatkan pandangan moral individu berdasarkan penilaian terhadap maksud kesejahteraan. Bagi menyokong berkaitan kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi terdapat beberapa teori yang dapat dikaitkan. Teori yang diperkenalkan oleh tokoh-tokoh psikologi terdahulu amat relevan untuk diimplentasi adalah teori (i) Hierarki Maslow dan (ii) Teori dua faktor Herzberg.

(i) Hierarki Maslow

Berdasarkan kepada teori Maslow keperluan manusia disusun mengikut hierarki dan setelah dapat memuaskan keperluan diperingkat bawahan. Perkara ini secara tidak langsung mendorong manusia untuk mencapai kepuasan keperluan diperingkat yang lebih tinggi. Walaubagaimanapun Ainon Mohd (2003), berpandangan sebagai seorang bukan islam seperti Abraham Maslow, teorinya tidak bertepatan dan serasi dengan pandangan islam di mana beliau tidak mengiktiraf satu lagi keperluan manusia yang penting iaitu keperluan kepada Tuhan. Apabila dilihat dari aspek kerohanian, aktiviti tersebut tidak ditekankan dalam teori ini malah ia masih boleh diaplikasikan selagi tidak bercanggah dengan ajaran agama dan secara tidak langsung menyelitikan nilai keagamaan dan ketuhanan dalam setiap peringkat keperluan.

(i) Keperluan Fisiologikal

Keperluan asas manusia seperti air, makanan, perlindungan dan udara diklasifikasikan sebagai keperluan fisiologi. Keperluan ini dilihat menyentuh aspek peribadi. Manakala aspek perkerjaan pula, keperluan fisiologi adalah seperti gaji yang diterima oleh pekerja. Keperluan yang dijelaskan ini adalah penting bagi meneruskan kehidupan yang mendatang.

(ii) Keperluan Jaminan dan Keselamatan

Bagi peringkat ini pula keperluan keselamatan fizikal dari sesuatu perkara yang memudaratkan adalah melibatkan elemen-elemen termasuk jaminan kewangan, (Lamberton dan Minor, 2007). Walaubagaimanapun, Ainon Mohd (2003) menyatakan keperluan keselamatan fizikal, psikologi dan emosi di peringkat ini adalah melibatkan kebebasan dari semua perkara yang berbahaya dalam hidup.

(iii) Keperluan Sosial

Keperluan sosial dilihat kepada, penerimaan diri meraka dikalangan ahli keluarga dan rakan-rakan. Impak besar dapat dilihat melalui hubungan sesama manusia sekiranya mereka di terima dan di sayangi. Ini adalah satu keperluan penting dalam hidup manusia yang juga membolehkan diri kita berkawan dan bersosial. Perkara ini disebabkan oleh sifat manusia itu sendiri saling memerlukan antara satu sama lain untuk meneruskan kehidupan. Keperluan sosial didorong oleh keinginan menjadi sebahagian daripada kumpulan manusia lain dan seterusnya mendorong manusia untuk berkahwin, mempunyai anak, menjaga hubungan dengan keluarga dan sanak saudar, (Ainon Mohd, 2003).

(iv) Keperluan Penghargaan (Self-Esteem)

Keperluan peringkat ini, melibatkan pengiktirafan yang diterima dari orang sekeliling seperti rakan sebaya, rakan sekerja dan ahli keluarga. Ainon Mohd (2003) memberi persamaan peringkat ini dengan istilah "maruah" yang digunakan dalam Bahasa Melayu. Keperluan manusia pada peringkat ini secara spesifiknya

adalah untuk dihargai, diperlukan, dimuliakan dan dihormati oleh orang lain. Jika dilihat dari aspek pekerjaan pula, pekerja mahu dianggap sebagai pekerja yang baik dan cekap.

(v) Keperluan Pencapaian Hasrat Diri

Peringkat terakhir dalam hierraki Maslow adalah pencapaian hasrat diri iaitu telah mencapai potensi keseluruhan keperluan. Individu akan berasa unik dan berpotensi apabila mencapai tahap ini. Tidak semua individu akan mencapai tahap ini di sebabkan oleh setiap tahap manusia adalah berbeza pandangan tentang perasaan bagu mencapai peringkat ini, Lamberton dan Minor-Evans (2007).

(ii) Teori dua faktor Herzberg

Berdasarkan kepada Heneman (1986), teori dua faktor Herzberg menerangkan tentang kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi dalam dua bentuk. Pertama di kenali sebagai hygiene dan pendorong (motivator). Hygien merupakan faktor yang mempengaruhi suatu pekerjaan itu menjadi lebih baik, (Lamberton dan Minor- Evans , 2007). Aspek yang terlibat di dalam persekitaran pekerjaan seperti gaji, status, jaminan, kemudahan pengangkutan, polisi dan amalan persekitaran adalah merupakan faktor di dalam hygien. Pekerja merasakan faktor ini perlu dipenuhi bagi memastikan kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi akan tercapai. Namun pada hakikatnya perkara tersebut tidak memberikan impak yang positif kepada pekerja itu sendiri. Oleh yang demikian Herzberg menegaskan faktor ini akan membuatkan pekerja lebih tidak berpuas hati atau dikenali sebagai penyebab ketidakpuasan (*dissatisfiers*). Faktor kedua dalam teori ini adalah berkisar tentang instrinsik pekerja yang melibatkan perasaan terhadap ganjaran, pencapaian, tugas yang telah dilakukan. Kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi akan meningkat sekiranya pekerjaan menguji kemampuan mereka agar hasil yang diperoleh lebih bermakna kepada diri mereka sendiri. Selain daripada itu juga pekerjaan yang mencabar membolehkan mereka mendapat peluang untuk memperkembangkan ilmu pengetahuan yang ada ketika itu dan mendapat pengiktirafan hasil pencapaian tersebut. Jesteru Herzberg menjelaskan pengiktirafan kepada pekerja mampu untuk meningkatkan tahap kesejahteraan psikologi ditahap yang optimum.

Sehubungan dengan itu, kesejahteraan psikologi organisasi dapat dioptimumkan sekiranya kedua-dua faktor tersebut iaitu *hygiene* dan pendorong perlu digunakan. *Hygiene* secara saintifiknya merupakan pelincir kepada pendorong yang membolehkan rasa ketidakpuasan pekerja dihalang.

8.0 MODUL INTERVENSI

Modul intervensi merupakan sumber rujukan pembelajaran spesifik yang bersifat campur tangan. Sehubungan dengan itu, modul intervensi bagi konflik interpersonal dan kesejahteraan psikologi di ketengahkan bagi mengatasi atau membantu individu dan organisasi yang terlibat. Modul intervensi merupakan modul yang digarap khusus untuk memberi fokus pencetus minda kearah perubahan sebagaimana yang dikehendaki oleh peserta. Modul yang dicadangkan adalah berbentuk “experiential learning” yang mana ianya mudah difahami, menyeronokkan dan dapat memberi impak besar kepada peserta jika dilaksanakan dengan berkesan. Kesemua modul dibentuk dengan mengambil kira objektif dan sasaran kursus dan dapat diterima pakai pada semua peringkat umur peserta, tahap pemikiran dan pendidikan. Modul intervensi seperti lampiran berikut.

LAMPIRAN

Jadual 1 : Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>1 Emergency boat</p> <p>(Proses kerjasama berpasukan, komunikasi berkesan, pengurusan konflik)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami konsep kerjasama berpasukan dan komunikasi berkesan serta kepentingan konsep tersebut Mengenalpasti ciri-ciri pengurusan konflik dan cara penyelesaiannya Membentuk dan meneguh semangat diri Memajukan diri sendiri dalam masyarakat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Antara ketua dan ahli kumpulan Antara ahli dan ahli kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Latihan individu Kerja kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setiap orang mempunyai kelemahan Perlu berani menegur kesalahan orang lain Untuk berjaya perlu keyakinan dan cuba atasi halangan Mengetahui peranan sebagai pemimpin

Jadual 2 : Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>II Red blue chip</p> <p>(Membina kerjasama berpasukan, proses pengurusan risiko dan kepimpinan organisasi)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mengetahui keadaan akan datang Berkebolehan merangka dan mencipta masa hadapan Kebolehan mengimbas, meneliti, memilih dan menilai 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Konsep dan kepentingan Pembelajaran utama: penilaian Kreativiti mewujudkan peluang Pengolahan dan penggunaan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perbincangan kerja kumpulan Kerja individu Kerja kumpulan Kerja kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perlu bijak mengatur dan meneliti peluang yang ada Menggalakan kreativiti dan membolehkan peserta melihat peluang di sekeliling

	menggunakan sumber	sumber		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memberi peluang kepada peserta di dalam membuat keputusan.
--	--------------------	--------	--	--

Jadual 3 : Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>III Cast away</p> <p>(Membina pemikiran kreatif, kritis, komunikasi berkesan)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memahami konsep perubahan dan pembaharuan • Membentuk keinginan dan sikap positif dan mampu berubah • Mengenalpasti faktor-faktor yang perlu diambil kira dalam membuat keputusan • Mengekal, memperbaiki dan menilai perubahan • Menjangka perubahan dan maklumat persediaan wajar bagi menghadapi akibat perubahan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pengertian konsep • Sikap terhadap perubahan • Faktor-faktor dan membuat keputusan • Langkah membuat perubahan • Menjangka perubahan • Membuat persediaan bagi menghadapi akibat perubahan • Menilai perubahan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kerja kumpulan • Fasilitator dan kerja individu • Kerja kumpulan • Kerja kumpulan • Kerja individu • Kerja individu • Perbincangan pleno 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memahami semua aspek perubahan • Belajar mengubah nasib • Mengetahui objektif, akibat dan perkara yang berkaitan dengan perubahan • Jangkaan perubahan dan nilai positif perlu ditanam • Mengetahui faktor-faktor perlu diambil kira dalam perubahan.

Jadual 4 : Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>IV Epilog Silam (Proses hubungan interpersonal, intrapersonal dan kesejahteraan psikologi)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memahami konsep menilai dan membuat pertimbangan • Membentuk norma atau kriteria pertimbangan • Menggunakan nilai dalam membuat pertimbangan • Memahami proses menilai • Kemahiran menilai 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pembentukan sikap atau nilai dan tanggapan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kerja individu 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mengetahui bahawa tanggapan setiap individu adalah berbeza.

Jadual 5 : Modul Intervensi Konflik Interpersonal – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>V Save our Soul (S.O.S) (Kemahiran menyelesaikan konflik dan masalah EQ)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Melahirkan sistem berfikir dan bertindak secara rasional • Memahami proses untuk membuat keputusan • Memahami proses menilai dan kemahiran menilai 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Melahirkan sistem berfikir dan bertindak secara rasional 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kerja Individu 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jelaskan sistem berfikir dan bertindak secara rasional • Berani membuat keputusan dan tanggung risiko

LAMPIRAN

Jadual 1 : Modul Intervensi Kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>I Black Box Orienteering (Penerapan sifat kepimpinan dan semangat kerjasama)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami konsep pemimpin, pengikut, kumpulan dan kepentingan konsep tersebut Memajukan diri dan orang lain dalam kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Konsep dan kepentingan Membentuk dan meneguhkan kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kerja kumpulan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perlu pendedahan kepada pemimpin dan pengikut dan kumpulan

Jadual 2 : Modul Intervensi Kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>II Wacky Boat Race (Menghadapi cabaran, memanfaatkan segala sumber dan mengubah tanggapan negatif kepada positif terhadap sesuatu sumber)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami konsep peluang dan sumber serta kepentingannya. Mengetahui hakikat diri dan keadaan akan datang tentang peluang dan sumber 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kreativiti mewujudkan peluang Pengolahan dan penggunaan sumber 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perbincangan kerja kumpulan Kerja individu 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kesedaran hakikat diri, dan cara penggunaan sumber. Mendapat beberapa peluang jangan menolak kerana ianya baru dan adaptasi perkara tersebut serta kenalpasti faktor kegagalan hidup

Jadual 3 : Modul Intervensi Kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>III Roller Coaster Project (Proses pemupukan semangat diri untuk kehidupan dengan cara yang positif)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami konsep menilai dan membuat pertimbangan Memahami proses menilai Kemahiran menilai Membentuk norma/kriteria pertimbangan Menggunakan nilai dalam membuat pertimbangan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pembentukan sikap atau nilai dan tanggapan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kerja individu dan perbincangan pleno 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami mengapa tanggapan dan tafsiran seseorang adalah berbeza dan apakah cara untuk menangani masalah tersebut.

Jadual 4 : Modul Intervensi Kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi – Cadangan pendekatan

Unit	Objektif	Aktiviti	Kaedah	Rasional
<p>III Roller Coaster Project (Proses pemupukan semangat diri untuk kehidupan dengan cara yang positif)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami konsep menilai dan membuat pertimbangan Memahami proses menilai Kemahiran menilai Membentuk norma/kriteria pertimbangan Menggunakan nilai dalam membuat pertimbangan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pembentukan sikap atau nilai dan tanggapan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kerja individu dan perbincangan pleno 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Memahami mengapa tanggapan dan tafsiran seseorang adalah berbeza dan apakah cara untuk menangani masalah tersebut.

9.0 KESIMPULAN

Modul intervensi yang dicadangkan dalam penulisan ini hanya meliputi sebahagian daripada modul intervensi yang berkaitan dengan konflik interpersonal dan kesejahteraan psikologi dalam organisasi. Oleh yang demikian modul intervensi ini diharapkan dapat dimanfaatkan oleh pengkaji didalam kajian mereka.

10.0 BIBLIOGRAFI

- Ainon Mohd. (2003). *Bagaimana Hendak Mendorong Semangat Kerja : Panduan meningkatkan dedikasi dan produktiviti orang-orang bawahan*. Shah Alam : PTS Publications & Distributor Sdn. Bhd.
- Braiker, H. B., dan Kelly, H. H. (1979). *Conflict in the development of close relationships. In social exchange in developing relationships*. Edited by R. L. Burgess and T. L. Huston. New York : Academic Press.
- Cristhopher, J.C (1999). Situating Psychological Well-Being: Exploring the Cultural Roots of its Theory and Research. *Journal Counseling & Development*, 77, 141-152.
- Cummings, T.G. dan Worley, C.G (2009). *Organizational Development and Change*. 9th edition. Mason, OH : South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Daft, R. L. (2010). *New Era of Management*. Canada : South - Western Cengage Learning.
- De Croon, E.M., Sluiter, J.K dan Frings-Dresen, M.H.W (2003). Need for recovery after work predicts sickness absence A 2-years prospective cohort study in truck drivers. *Journal of Psychometric Research*, 55, 331-339.
- Floyd, K. (2009). *Interpersonal Communication*. New York : Mc Graw Hill Higher Education.
- Hamdan Abd.Kadir (2008). *Pekerja Industri : Isu & Teknik Penyelesaiannya*. Skudai : Economy Express Printing & Graphic Sdn. Bhd.
- Heneman, H. G. (1986). *Personnel / Human Resource Management*. New York : IRWIN Homewood, Illinois. 92.
- Ishak Md Shah (2006). *Kepimpinan dan Hubungan Interpersonal dalam organisasi* : Penerbit UTM
- Lamberton, L. dan Minor-Evans, L. (2007). *Human Relations : Strategies for Success*. 3 th ed. New York : McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Meyer, G.R. 1984. *Modules from Design Implementation*, CPSC Publication
- Miller, G. R. dan M. Steinberg. (1975). *Between people : A new analysis of interpersonal communication*. Chicago : Science Research Associates.
- Miller, G. R. dan M. Steinberg. (1975). *Between people : A new analysis of interpersonal communication*. Chicago : Science Research Associates.
- Ryff, C.D dan Keyes, C.L.M. (1995), " The structure of psychological wellbeing revisited". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69 (4), 719-27.
- The New Webster Dictionary of the English Language. 1967. Consolidated Book Publishers, Chicago
- Wilmot, W. dan Hocker, J. L. (2007). *Interpersonal Conflict*. New York : McGraw-Hill.

KESAN KOMITMEN KEATAS HUBUNGAN ANTARA GAYA KEPIMPINAN DAN KERJA BERPASUKAN DALAM CAWANGAN TRAFIK PDRM.

Bakri Hj. Zainal Abidin¹ dan Noor Azmi Mohamad²

^{1,2} Fakulti Pengurusan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstrak

Kejayaan organisasi masa kini tidak lagi dikaitkan secara langsung dengan prestasi individu sebaliknya kejayaan ini dilihat sebagai fungsi sempurna sesebuah organisasi atau pasukan. Kerja berpasukan amat diperlukan di dalam organisasi khususnya ketika menghadapi situasi sukar. Kerja berpasukan adalah cara kerjasama yang perlu diamalkan di Cawangan Trafik bagi membantu meningkatkan keupayaan individu dan keberkesanan penguatkuasaan undang-undang. Kajian deskriptif ini bertujuan meninjau tahap keberkesanan kerja berpasukan Cawangan Trafik Bukit Aman yang merupakan organisasi awam. Di samping itu juga ianya bertujuan untuk melihat tahap perbezaan dan hubungan komitmen dengan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan dalam jabatan ini. Seramai 150 pegawai kanan polis dari Cawangan Trafik telah dipilih sebagai responden kajian ini yang menggunakan instrument kajian berupa boring soal selidik. Instrumen kajian dalam boring soal selidik mengandungi tiga bahagian utama iaitu : pertamanya : Team Assessment Inventory- (TAI untuk mengukur keberkesanan kerja berpasukan, keduanya : Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLO) untuk mengukur gaya kepimpinan transformasi dan ketiganya : Three Component Model Employee Commitment (TCM) untuk mengukur tahap komitmen pekerja di organisasi. Data mentah akan dianalisis menggunakan Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for MS Window 14.0. Dapatan kajian rintis menunjukkan tahap keberkesanan kerja berpasukan dan komitmen dalam Jabatan Trafik adalah tinggi. Ujian -t pula menunjukkan tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara keberkesanan kerja berpasukan dengan komitmen kerja Jabatan Trafik Polis Diraja Malaysia. Kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa kepimpinan ketua jabatan dan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan mempengaruhi prestasi dan pencapaian organisasi Jabatan Trafik PDRM. Jika kepimpinan dan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan meningkat, ianya akan meningkatkan prestasi jabatan dan begitu juga sebaliknya.

Kata Kunci : keberkesanan kerja berpasukan, kepimpinan transformasi dan komitmen

1. Pendahuluan

Polis Diraja Malaysia (PDRM) merupakan salah sebuah agensi penguatkuasa undang-undang yang telah diberi amanah serta tanggungjawab untuk menjamin keselamatan negara. Fungsi PDRM dinyatakan dengan jelas dalam Akta Polis 1967 Seksyen 3 (3) iaitu mengekalkan undang-undang, menjaga keamanan dan kesejahteraan negara, mencegah dan mengesan jenayah, menangkap dan mendakwa orang-orang yang melakukan kesalahan, dan mengumpul risikan keselamatan.

Tugas dan tanggungjawab PDRM, adalah satu tugas yang agak berat dan mencabar kerana ia bukan sahaja melibatkan undang-undang tetapi juga cara-cara menguatkuasakan undang-undang. Penguatkuasaan ini memerlukan tahap disiplin dan kepimpinan yang tinggi di kalangan pegawai-pegawai polis.

Jika kepuasan kerja berada pada tahap tinggi maka ia di jangka boleh mempengaruhi komitmen pegawainya terhadap organisasi. Sebagai sebuah organisasi yang besar dan mempunyai pelbagai jabatan dan dengan keadaan persekitaran kerja yang berbeza-beza, maka tahap komitmen kerja juga berbeza.

Dengan yang demikian, kerja berpasukan merupakan pra syarat amat penting untuk mencapai kejayaan organisasi masa kini, misi dan matlamat sesebuah organisasi akan dapat dicapai dengan lebih berkesan melalui kerja berpasukan. Di samping itu melalui kerja berpasukan, masalah pembaziran modal tenaga dapat dikurangkan dan semangat serta daya motivasi di kalangan ahli organisasi akan dapat dipertingkatkan.

Artikel ini akan membincangkan secara terperinci mengenai kesan komitmen keatas hubungan antara gaya kepimpinan dan kerja berpasukan.

2. **Komitmen**

Komitmen terhadap kerja amatlah penting dalam menentukan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan yang berkesan. Beberapa orang tokoh seperti Miner (1992), Mowday (1982) dan Schultz (1994) telah membahagikan komitmen kepada dua pendekatan iaitu komitmen sikap (*attitudinal commitment*) dan komitmen tingkah laku (*behavioral commitment*). Mowday (1982) cuba membezakan di antara kedua-duanya iaitu apabila dikatakan seseorang “terikat dengan tindakannya” atau tingkah laku itu “melampui jangkaan formal”, fokus adalah kepada komitmen tingkahlaku. Sebaliknya apabila dikatakan “matlamat organisasi diintegrasikan ke dalam matlamat individu”, fokus adalah komitmen sikap pekerja kepada organisasi.

Ab. Aziz (2003), menyatakan komitmen terhadap pasukan adalah tahap iltizam ahli kepada pasukan kerjanya. Ahli pasukan yang banyak terlibat dalam aktiviti pasukan dengan sendirinya akan komited, setia dan ingin terus tinggal dalam pasukannya. Sikap pengurus pasukan yang terbuka dan peraturan kerja yang fleksibel serta tempat kerja yang selamat juga dapat meningkatkan komitmen dan iltizam ahli pasukan dalam menjalankan tugas.

Dalam kontek Cawangan Trafik PDRM komitmen adalah penting dalam mengekalkan modal insan yang terlatih yang amat diperlukan oleh PDRM di dalam melaksanakan fungsinya sebagai peneraju penguatkuasa undang-undang Malaysia.

3 **Keberkesanan Kerja Berpasukan**

Beberapa kriteria asas mestilah dipenuhi sebelum sesebuah pasukan kerja itu dibentuk. Terdapat sepuluh elemen penting yang perlu ada sebagaimana yang dijelaskan oleh Rees (1991) iaitu maklumat umum, kepimpinan, komunikasi secara terbuka, interaksi

dan penglibatan semua ahli, pengendalian penghormatan diri, saling mempercayai, kuasa di dalam membuat keputusan, menghormati perbezaan pendapat, fokus kepada proses dan kandungan serta resolusi konflik secara membina. Sementara Katzenbach dan Smith (1993) pula menyatakan elemen-elemen asas bagi setiap pasukan kerja ialah kemahiran, komitmen dan akauntibiliti bagi menghasilkan hal kerja yang kolektif, hasil prestasi dan perkembangan individu.

Sebagai pengurus pertengahan, pegawai kanan trafik ini berada di dalam satu jabatan dan berperanan sebagai ketua pasukan dan ahli pasukan. Kerjasama di antara mereka amatlah penting di dalam memastikan jabatan mencapai matlamat yang telah ditetapkan serta visi dan misi organisasi tercapai. Duignan dan Macpherson (1992) menjelaskan seorang pengurus pertengahan akan mengambil bahagian dalam setiap fasa sebagai pegawai polis, pemimpin pasukan dan ahli pasukan.

Sebagai pengurus pertengahan, pegawai-pegawai kanan ini perlu mendapatkan penjelasan tentang perancangan dan prosedur pelaksanaan sesuatu tugas serta memberikan idea-idea untuk tujuan penambahbaikan. Kumpulan ini juga merupakan kumpulan pelapor kepada pihak atasan dengan memberi maklum balas tentang pelaksanaan sesuatu tugas dan keberhasilan tugas yang dilaksanakan. Mereka juga bertindak sebagai kumpulan yang

membantu meningkatkan semangat ahli kumpulannya untuk memberi sumbangan terbaik kepada organisasi.

Tambahnya lagi apa yang penting adalah bagaimana sesebuah organisasi yang besar menyusun operasi dan pelaksanaan tugas-tugasnya dan anggota di dalam organisasi dapat merasakan bahawa mereka berada di dalam satu pasukan dan diterima baik oleh anggota-anggota lain di dalam pasukan tersebut. Situasi yang sama juga perlu ada di dalam pengurusan trafik PDRM. Mathieu dan Zajac (1990) menjelaskan sebagai bukti kerja berpasukan telah diamalkan di jabatan polis New York. Pencapaian pasukan akan bertambah baik bila mana kerja secara berpasukan diamalkan.

3.1 Faktor-Faktor Penyumbang Ke Arah Keberkesanan Kerja Berpasukan

Keberkesanan kerja berpasukan di dalam kajian ini disumbangkan oleh beberapa faktor. Tujuh faktor yang menyumbang kepada keberkesanan kerja berpasukan yang dikenal pasti iaitu kepimpinan yang berkesan, matlamat yang jelas, komunikasi berkesan, penglibatan dalam membuat keputusan, penyelesaian masalah, tanggungjawab yang jelas dan hubungan interpersonal.

i) Kepimpinan yang berkesan

Gardner (1995) menyatakan kepimpinan adalah proses bagaimana seorang individu mempengaruhi kumpulannya untuk mencapai objektif yang ditentukan oleh pemimpin atau objektif yang dikongsi bersama antara pemimpin dan pengikutnya.

Pemimpin yang berkesan mampu melaksanakan sesuatu tugas dengan jayanya. Abdul Malik (1997) menjelaskan kejayaan seseorang pemimpin sebenarnya mengikuti serta memenuhi kehendak yang dipimpinya.

ii) Matlamat Yang Jelas

Biech (2001) menjelaskan dalam sesebuah organisasi, matlamat yang jelas dapat membantu setiap ahli memahami misi dan visi pasukannya di samping membantu ahli memahami arah tuju pasukan.

Huszczko (1966) menjelaskan pernyataan matlamat sesebuah pasukan perlu mencapai empat kriteria iaitu boleh diukur (*Measurable*), boleh dicapai (*Attainable*), berhubung dengan prestasi (*Performance related*) dan terperinci (*Specific*). Ianya dikenali dengan MAPS.

iii) Komunikasi Berkesan

Abd Aziz (2000) menyatakan komunikasi ditakrifkan sebagai suatu proses pemindahan maklumat dan kemahiran daripada seorang individu kepada individu lain melalui simbol-simbol yang bermakna.

iv) Penglibatan Dalam Membuat keputusan

Locke dan Schweiger (2004) menyatakan penglibatan dalam membuat keputusan adalah merujuk kepada wujudnya pengaruh dalam membuat dan menentukan sesuatu keputusan. Pengaruh yang dimaksudkan adalah pemimpin mempunyai kuasa dan autonomi dalam membuat keputusan yang berkaitan dengan tugas dan tanggungjawabnya di dalam organisasi.

v) **Penyelesaian Masalah**

Penyelesaian masalah di dalam pasukan melibatkan penglibatan secara bersama, keadaan ini menyebabkan pekerja lebih rapat dengan kerjanya dan juga merupakan cara terbaik mengatasi masalah kerja di kawasannya. Montgomery (1986) menyatakan dalam memastikan penyelesaian masalah berjalan dengan lancar dan jayanya, setiap ahli yang terlibat di dalam proses penyelesaian masalah perlu mempelajari kemahiran komunikasi, penyelesaian konflik, pengurusan kemarahan, penegasan dan kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah.

vi) **Tanggungjawab Yang Jelas**

Ridwan (1988) menjelaskan tanggungjawab sebagai suatu akibat lebih lanjut dari pelaksanaan peranan, baik peranan itu merupakan hak atau kewajiban ataupun kekuasaan. Secara umumnya tanggungjawab bermaksud sebagai kewajiban untuk melakukan sesuatu atau berperilaku menurut cara tertentu.

vii) **Hubungan Interpersonal**

Hubungan interpersonal adalah proses interaksi antara individu dengan individu lain dengan cara berkomunikasi. Komunikasi yang efektif akan melahirkan hubungan interpersonal yang baik. Ruesch dan Bateson (1995) menjelaskan bahawa komunikasi erat berkaitan dengan hubungan interpersonal.

4. **Kesimpulan**

Kajian konseptual ini menerangkan betapa pentingnya komitmen dalam menentukan gaya kepimpinan dan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan. Memandangkan hubungan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan komitmen maka satu metodologi kajian telah direka bagi menilai tahap pelaksanaan hubungan keberkesanan kerja berpasukan dengan komitmen dan hubung kait antara kedua-dua

pembolehubah tersebut dimana keberkesanan kerja berpasukan adalah merupakan pemboleh ubah bersandar yang merupakan inipati kajian ini. Manakala dimensi gaya kepimpinan adalah merupakan pemboleh ubah bebas dan komitmen ahli adalah pemboleh ubah mediator.

5. **Rujukan**

Ab Aziz Yusof. (2000). *Perubahan Dan Kepimpinan*. Sintok: Penerbit Universiti Utara Malaysia

Ab Aziz Yusof. (2003). *Mengurus Pasukan Kerja Prestasi Tinggi*. Petaling Jaya: Pearson Malaysia Sdn. Bnd.

Ab Aziz Yusof. (2004). *Kepimpinan Dalam Mengurus Perubahan dari Dimensi Kemanusiaan*. Petaling Jaya. Pearson Malaysia Sdn. Bhd.

Argyris, Chris. (1998), "*Manager, Workers, and Organization*", San Francisco: Jossey- Bass Publishers.

Abu Daud Silong dan Zaharah Hassan. (2009). *Effective Leadership: Malaysian Cases And Practices*. Kertas Kerja. Leadership and Management Development Stream.

Abdul Hadi Mohd Yusof. (1996). *Hubungan Kepuasan Kerja Dengan Prestasi Kerja Kakitangan Kilang Memproses Sawit Sedenak*, Eastern Plantations Agency Management Sdn. Bhd., Tesis Sarjana : Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Abdul Malik Abdul Rahman. (1997). *Pasukan Kerja Berkesan*. Kertas Kerja Kursus Pasukan Kerja Berpasukan Anjuran UTM. Skudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Abdul Shukur Abdullah. (1997). *Pengurusan Organisasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

Abdullah Hassan dan Ainon Mohd (2007). *Teori dan Teknik Kepimpinan: Panduan Aplikasi di Tempat Kerja* (Edisi Kelima). Kuala Lumpur: PTS Professional Publishing Sdn. Bhd.

Abdul Rahim Abdul Aziz (2009). *Kepimpinan Dari Perspektif Baru*. Pembentangan Kertas Kerja di Kepimpinan Politik Dalam Era Perubahan dan Krisis: Dilema dan Cabaran Masyarakat Negara Membangun.

Abdul Razak Ibrahim dan Ainin Sulaiman. (2002). *Pengurusan Sumber Manusia: Memperolehi Kelebihan Bersaing*. Malaysia: McGraw-Hill Malaysia Sdn. Bhd.

Ahmad Mahdzan Ayub (2005). *Kaedah Penyelidikan Sosioekonomi*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka.

Ahmad Tajuddin Abd. Hamid (1989). *Peranan Pengetua Dalam Kepimpinan Pengajaran*. Tesis Sarjana : Universiti Malaysia.

Acryl Sani Hj Abdullah Sani. (2001). *Tahap Komitmen Terhadap Organisasi : Satu Kajian Kes Di Kalangan Anggota-anggota Polis Berpangkat Rendah, Kontijen Polis Kuala Lumpur*. Universiti Utara Malaysia. Ijazah Sarjana Pengurusan.

Adair, J. (1986). *Effective Teambuilding*. London: Gover Publishing.

Ahmad Atory Hussain (1995). *Prinsip Pengurusan Di Sektor Awam Dan Swasta*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication.

Ahmad Atory Hussain (1996). *Pengurusan Organisasi*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication.

Ahmad Fadzil Yusof (2004). *Mengurus Kerja Berpasukan*. Bentong: PTS Publication.

Alias Baba (1992). *Statistik Penyelidikan Dalam Penyelidikan Sains Sosial*. Bangi: Penerbit Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Aminuddin Mohd Yusof (1990). *Kepimpinan*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka

Aminuddin Mohd Yusof (1992). *Tingkah Laku Pemimpin: Faktor Wujuddulu Dan Sumbangannya Kepada Keberkesanan Kepimpinan*. Tesis Doktor Falsafah: Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Amir Aris (2005). *Kesan Tingkah Laku Kepimpinan Laluan-Matlamat Terhadap Kejelekitan Kelompok: Satu kajian Perbandingan Antara Syarikat Elektronik Jepun Dan Syarikat Elektronik Singapura di Johor Bahru, Johor*. Tesis Sarjana: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Angelo M., Erik R. E. and Steven J. L. (2004). *The Importance of Personal and Professional Leadership*. *The Leadership and Organization Development Journal*. 25. (5): 435-451.

Angle, L. Harold and Perry, L. James. (1981). *An Empirical Assessment of Employee Commitment and Organizational Effectiveness*. Administrative Science Quarterly. 26. (1)

Arnold, K. A, Barling, K. and Kelloway, E. K. (2001). *Transformational Leadership or The Iron Cage : Which Predicts Trust, Commitment and 196 Team Efficacy?* Journal of Leadership Organization Development. 22:315-320.

Akta Polis 1967. Kuala Lumpur: International Law Book Services

Asri Yusof, (2006). *Pelan Strategik Lima Tahun (PS5T)*: Polis Diraja Malaysia.

Azmi Sukiman (1997). *Hubungan Tingkah laku Kepimpinan Laluan-Matlamat Dengan Kejelekitan Kelompok dan Tekanan Kerja: Tinjauan di Syarikat Pos Malaysia*. Tesis Sarjana: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Baharudin Othman (2004). *Gaya Kepimpinan dan Komitmen Pekerja di Jabatan Agama Islam Selangor*. Universiti Utara Malaysia. Tesis Sarjana Sains Pengurusan.

Chek Mat (2001). *Penyeliaan Berkesan*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication & Distribution Sdn. Bhd.

Croghan, H. J. (1994). *The relationship Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Organization Culture, Employee Performance and Employee Attrition*. Dissertatation Abstract International. Section A (DAI-A),50(6):1620.

Che Su Mustafa (2000). *Komunikasi Organisasi dan Hubungannya dengan Kepuasan Kerja dan Komitmen Keorganisasian di Sektor Swasta dan Sektor Awam*.Tesis Doktor Falsafah. UUM; Sintok, kedah,

Chong Ming Yang. (2003). *Transactional and Transformational Leadership in Context of Malaysia Construction Industry*. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. Projek Sarjana Sains Kejuruteraan.

Gnana Sekaran Doraisamy (2007). *Hubungan Tekanan Kerja dan Kepuasan Kerja Dengan Komitmen Terhadap Organisasi*. Satu kajian Ilmiah di Ibu Pejabat Jabatan Kerja Raya Malaysia. Tesis Sarjana Sains. Sintok: Universiti Utara Malaysia.

Laporan Tahunan Cawangan Trafik (2013). Polis Diraja Malaysia. Percetakan Nasional Malaysia Berhad.

Mohd. Kassim Mohd Ibrahim. (2003). *Perkaitan Gaya Kepimpinan Ketua Dengan Kepuasan Kerja dan Pengajaran Staf*. Tesis PH.d Kota Kinabalu: Universiti Malaysia Sabah.

Muijs, D. (2011). *Leadership and Organizational Performance : From Research to Prescription?* International Journal of Educational and Management. 25 (1): 45-60.

Othman Mad Johan dan Ishak Mad Shah. (2008), *Impak Tingkah Laku Kepimpinan Transformasi dan Transaksi Pengetua Terhadap Kepuasan Kerja dan Komitmen Guru Terhadap Sekolah*. Journal Pendidikan Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. (13:31-43.

Rosli Katiman. (2005). *Hubungan Kerja Berpasukan Dengan Komitmen, Kejelekitan dan Prestasi Ahli Dalam Panitia Matematik di Sekolah Menengah Daerah Batu Pahat, Johor*: Tesis Sarjana: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.

Innovative Work Behavior and the Way Forward in Human Resource Development

Hamdy Abdullah¹, Ahmad Munir Salleh², Mohd Shaladdin Muda³ and Khatijah Omar⁴

8.

¹ PhD Scholar, School of Maritime Business & Management, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, Malaysia.

² Associate Professor, School of Maritime Business & Management, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, Malaysia.

³ Professor, School of Maritime Business & Management, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, Malaysia.

⁴ Senior Lecturer, School of Maritime Business & Management, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, Malaysia.

Abstract

Public universities face competitive environment that makes them to be more responsive to the needs of stakeholders. Therefore, through innovation, service delivery needs to be enhanced in order to meet as per their expectation. The implementation of Innovative and Creative Circle (ICC) is aimed to build human capital in the public service in order to realize the government's aspiration to improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness in delivering services to the people. As suggested by de Jong and Den Hartog (2010), this paper is aimed to explore the dimensions of innovative work behavior (IWB) engaged by ICC which comprised of opportunity exploration, idea generation, idea promotion and idea implementation. The study is based on current literature of IWB and public sector and matching these two to find out how the dimensions of IWB of ICC should be explained. The paper describes the concept of IWB for ICC in the context of Malaysia public universities in four dimensions. By understanding of IWB, the function of human resource development in respective universities needs to be enhanced. This paper fills the gap to the extent of limited studies in IWB in public sector.

Keywords: Innovative Work Behavior, Innovative and Creative Circle, Human Resource Development, Public Universities, Malaysia

1.0 Introduction

These days, the capability to continuously perform innovation on products, services, method as well as work processes is essential for any organization. Not only private, public organizations are also required to be more responsive to the needs of public. Besides, public employees need to identify pro-active approaches as well in anticipating the potential of public requirements due to emerging expectation. Therefore, innovation has become a key success for public organization to remain competitive and success in knowledge based economy. In fact, innovation has been recognized as a key in driving Malaysia to transform into an advanced and high income nation (Mohd Faiz, Shahrier, Yanti & Nurazree, 2012). Higher education system in Malaysia was established to ensure that public universities are able to build a high reputation with the ability of dynamism and competitive edge in order to anticipate upcoming challenges and be prepared to act successfully in line with global developments. Continuous efforts to improve the capacity of public institutions need to carry out its functions and responsibilities more efficiently, transparently and effectively towards creating excellent higher education system.

This paper is aimed to explore the innovative work behavior (IWB) engaged by Innovative and Creative Circle (ICC) members of public universities in Malaysia based on four dimensions as suggested by de Jong & den Den Hartog (2010). By understanding the IWB of ICC, the function of HRD could be enhanced to cater the requirement by the government.

Traditionally, public universities have no pressures to innovate. Nevertheless, this mindset is no longer relevant these days. Although public organizations are not profit oriented, nevertheless, this may not be relevant to those under statutory bodies which is obligated to increase revenue as well as wealth generation. Despite great emphasis given on innovation in

public sector, the study of IWB in public sector Malaysia has received very little attention from the researchers (Ramlee et al., 2013). Due to emerging changes, public sector as well has been experiencing an uncomfortable way as its operation futile and beyond human capability to carry out as per stakeholders' expectation (Siddiquee, 2008; Siddiquee, 2010). Problems associated with inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the public universities has resulted wastefulness of resources in the eyes of stakeholders (National Audit Department, 2013). Public university can no longer be contented with its monopoly status as the stakeholders especially the customers have been making comparisons between public universities with the private counterparts. Innovation is still a must in order to survive in the globalization era as the landscape of values in the public sector is currently changing. Or otherwise, public universities may lose confidence from general public.

2.0 Literature Review

Innovative and Creative Circle

Prior to ICC, since 1962, Quality Control Circle was identified by Ishikawa (1980) as a small group of employees from the same workplace together voluntarily to perform quality control activities in their own workplace, to identify problems, analyze and then propose a solution to the problem. Whereas, group was defined as a cluster of employees who work together, mutually dependent, have a shared responsibility and was committed to attaining working goal in the organization (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Ramlee et al. (2013) defined ICC as a group of employees in workplace which was aimed for process improvement within the organization. The group was tasked to boost the efficiency as well as effectiveness of the execution of particular process in an organization. As stated in Kanter (1988), this group was responsible to study the problem, find an alternative solution proposal, select the best solution projected for the purpose of cost-saving, time-saving, labor-saving and so on. In this paper, ICC was defined a team comprised of organizational employees which was dedicated for improvement by engaging IWB. IWB definitely demands for creativity as well as innovation of respective ICC members by introducing new innovation for organizational betterment.

Ramlee et al. (2013) has conducted a study in order to identify and evaluate the effectiveness of the implementation of the ICC of the Royal Malaysian Customs Department (RMCD). It was reported ICC of RMCD was one of the best ICCs in Malaysia due to the extensive success locally as well as internationally. Ramlee et al. (2013) examined factors that shape the effectiveness of the group's project performance based on five dimensions, i.e. management commitment, involvement of staff, internal factors, resource management and continuous improvement. The effectiveness of ICC implementation were mostly affected by continuous improvement whereby gender of respondents have a significant effect to these factors. In the context of public sector, it is opined that ICC of the Royal Malaysian Customs Department should be taken into account as benchmark particularly in studying IWB of ICC members which finally produced tremendous impacts to the internal as well as exterior customers. Therefore, ICCs from other public universities should thoroughly study the strengths of IWB for every dimension of RMCD's ICC.

Innovative Work Behavior

West and Farr (1989) explained IWB, quoted in Yesil & Sozbilir (2013), as an action that leads to "*beneficial innovation [to be] be produced and introduced, and then applied to all the individual actions in any hierarchy within an organization*". Janssen (2000) provided the definition of IWB as an attitude in which workers innovate, exercise as well as accomplish novel idea in a determined way which eventually such organization can gain superior performance for the benefits of stakeholders. Kleysen and Street (2001) explained such behavior as "*...individual action directed at the generation, introduction or application of beneficial novelty at any organizational level*". More recent, Yeoh (2013) defined IWB as a set of manners accomplished by workers that comprised of exploration, generation, promotion as well as implementation of novel idea for betterment of performance in an organization. Niu (2014) opined IWB as sequential manner in establishment of novel ideas which requires participation from organizational members in order to realize the ideas. In this paper, IWB is defined as action performed by ICC members in sequence in order to transform novel ideas into innovation for better organizational achievement.

Social Exchange Theory (SET) has been appropriate for studying IWB. The underpinning theory was explained as the exchange, between at least two or more people, whether it was tangible or intangible and that it could be rewarding and costly for parties involved. In SET, individual should interact to each other reciprocally by providing support to those who has helped him or her in the past. This theory also advised that every individual is obligated not to cause any harm to others who have assisted them previously (Xerri, 2013). ICC members should realize the underlying principle of IWB based on SET. The act of contributing on voluntary

basis and its consequences on such behavior are well supported by SET and both principles of gift economy (Marcoux, 2009) as well as reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Employees would highly be devoted, connected and committed because they are happily grateful to perform action compassionately due to the fact that the organization has previously helped them. Therefore, ICC members are pleased to perform extra work by cultivating IWB in the workplace especially when they are highly trusted as well as fairly treated. The greater the obligation given to the ICC members indicate the greater degree of trust granted to them. Blau (1964) stated that employees with IWB are most likely to possess strong emotion of belongingness on the organization. Definitely, ICC members with IWB would significantly contribute towards organizational competitiveness in the knowledge economy.

2.2.1 Initiation Stage

This stage is mainly about opportunities exploration for the purpose of idea generation. The generated ideas should have prospective as well as chances for organizational betterment.

2.2.1.1 Opportunity Exploration

Kanter (1988) recognized the need for opportunity to innovate. The finding may be a chance to improve situations or a threat demanding for an instantaneous answer. Yeoh and Rosli (2013) described opportunity exploration as identification as well as understanding of obstruction and necessity that correspond to prospect to innovate in product and process. In this paper, opportunity exploration is defined as attentive effort performed by ICC members by engaging in acknowledgement as well as identification of setbacks and necessities to modify and make betterment on product or work process.

Drucker (1985) identified seven sources of opportunities comprising: unpredicted achievements, failures or events; gaps between 'what is' and 'what should be'; fluctuations in industrial or market structures; process needs in reaction to identified shortcomings; fluctuations in demographics such as labor force composition; changes in perception; and finally, new knowledge. ICC members should be exposed and familiar with various sources in order to recognize the best opportunity to perform innovation. The best opportunity may reflect the organizational priority and would be highly critical to the stakeholders. This opportunity exploration involves when organizations anticipate to release of the established routine and systems. In addition, opportunity exploration can also be thought of as a phase in which employees are finding ways on how the existing services or delivery processes can be improved; or it can be seen as how those workers are looking for problem solutions (Farr & Ford, 1990; Kanter, 1988). ICC members who are highly open to experience are able to look new opportunities to improve things. Therefore, ICC members with such personality normally develop dynamic social interactive activities such as continuous cooperation and shared views among themselves during idea exploration. Usually, ICC members may explore the opportunity via paying attention to the surrounding issues which are not part of his or her routine works. ICC members need also to gain knowledge on the current issues. Top management can induce a sense of empowerment among ICC members by encouraging them to function as corporate entrepreneurs or intrapreneurs ICC members should be given sufficient autonomy to perform their tasks and make decisions without excessive supervision (Borins, 2002). The ICC membership should also consider front-line employees involvement due to their ability to have direct confrontation with the customers.

2.2.1.2 Idea Generation

The basis of idea generation lies on arrangement as well as restructuring of information and current ideas to overcome identified shortcomings or to expand performance (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Messman and Mulder (2014) defined idea generation as the establishment of new, relevant, and potentially useful ideas to address recognized opportunities for improvement. In this paper, idea generation is defined as ICC member's behavior that involves energetic creation, development as well as interaction of ideas that appears in various ways in order to approach identified opportunities. De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) identified ten leader's behavior that encourages idea generation among employees namely, innovative role-modelling, intellectual simulation, stimulating knowledge diffusion, providing vision, consulting, delegating, support for innovation, organizing feedback, recognition, less monitoring as well as task assignment. These behaviors may be applied to public organization as well in accordance to its suitability. ICC members may feel appreciated with their leader's behavior during idea generation. Ramlee et al. (2013) suggested that ICC members should be encouraged to share the knowledge and skills they acquired during the course of their duties. Employees should also be encouraged to regularly exchange views and discuss to find the best formula to help achieve a work goal. Intellectual stimulation could be maximized through knowledge sharing among ICC members particularly when the group is composed of multi-functional membership. Another method for enhancing employee generating new ideas is to nurture them to develop external contacts (Syed Awais, 2014). Having external contacts not only

helps the organization to get the feedback about current practices but also it provides comparisons on current trends with other players.

2.2.2 Implementation Stage

At this stage, the identified idea will eventually be transformed into innovative output (de De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Before the real outcome comes to end-users, pilot testing should be conducted to ensure that it has met the intended goals (Kanter, 1988). Kanter (1988) mentioned that innovation process has come to the end when innovative output has become a new status quo to the intended users. In this paper, the implementation stage is defined as IWB as supporting generated ideas in order to ensure the desired output is as per expectation of the intended users.

2.2.2.1 Idea Promotion

The novel ideas are engendered from those who possess dedication as well as confidence that their ideas are feasible and will be accepted by other organizational members (Yeoh, 2013). Therefore, idea champion refers to someone who possesses hard work to transform idea into reality by overcoming all the possible organizational barriers (de De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Shih and Susanto (2011) opined that managers should provide innovative employees with good conflict management skills in the anticipation that innovative employees may be able to manage conflicts positively. A good idea champion should be able to make key organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas. ICC leaders are usually assigned great responsibility to convince management of respective departments for the innovative solution. It is crucial to obtain approval from the management prior to the implementation of innovative idea at the workplace. In this paper, idea promotion is defined as dynamic inter-personal actions that encompass usage of resources, convincing, cultivating, and thought-provoking as well as challenging in order to bring generated ideas into implementation phase. Participation of organizational members in decision-making was a great factor of IWB among ICC members (de Jong & den Hartog, 2007). By providing continuous consultation, the leader of the successful ICC involved subordinates in decision making during weekly meetings, during which he and the team worked together to set their priorities and goals. Shared leadership style which characterized by frequent consultation should be performed by leaders due to greater possibility of innovation success during idea promotion (de Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Therefore, lack of employees' involvement for input for decision making may increase tendency of failure of forthcoming innovation project. During the consultation, potential conflict with co-workers should be anticipated. This is because other employees may feel stressed and threatened due to the destabilization of routines. Besides, sufficient independence should be granted all ICCs due to the fact that it may lead to high-quality work results. de Jong and den Hartog (2007) revealed supervisor even impulsively associated delegation to IWB due to granting their subordinates freedom and autonomy during the idea promotion. Freedom and autonomy provide ICC members with more self-determination to explore, argue as well as challenge existing status quo.

ICC members need to identify a champion within its circle to lead the project in addressing the poor record of asset management. The champion needs to identify the right strategy in order to ensure the project could be implemented in the university. With the right strategy, ICC members are assigned to convince all related parties about the new project, obtain sufficient material and non-material resources and handle the conflicts and confront disputes raised by the other organizational members. Therefore, support from the senior management is essential to ensure the project will successfully be executed.

2.2.2.2 Idea Implementation

Once the new product is agreed to be developed, the implementation takes place. The product should undergo for pilot test to ensure that it may be able to overcome the identified problems as well as meet the intended objectives. Subject to necessity, the prototype should correspondingly go through modification if it fails to address the shortcomings (Yeoh, 2013). Any gap identified during pilot test should be analysed and modification should be carried out to the prototype based on the result. Then, the prototype should be re-undergone for another pilot test. This is critical to ensure the future products or services would be able to meet expectation and be tailored in accordance to customer's needs. Suggested by Yin (2011), every organization should adopt mistake management approach by convincing employees that mistake as a style of study opportunity. Error learning will influence IWB due to the fact that it requires innovativeness i.e. ability to perform innovation. Public employee's readiness is crucial in convincing and influencing the customers on the new innovation in the existing environment. The customers should also be highlighted on the benefits of new approach for working

process particularly on the customer's point of view. In this article, idea implementation is defined as interrelated actions in producing and designing, alteration upon necessity, standardization as well as practicing newly discovered concept into reality. In this stage, a continuous trial and error process should be expected. ICC members need to conduct pilot test to ensure the new project, i.e. electronic record on asset management, achieved its target setting based on the established measurement. During the pilot test, the result needs to be measured and compared with the target setting. If necessary, modification needs to be done until the desired result is achieved. Subject to the success, the new solution will be diffused in the existing environment for benefits of targeted customers. The project needs to continuously be monitored by the ICC members to ensure the new project effectively overcome the shortcomings. Definitely, the innovative project of ICC goes long way the organization as it may have other remarkable consequences to the organization such as knowledge sharing, green effect, and commercialization.

3.0 Innovative and Creative Circle and Human Resource Development

Innovation has been identified as a central key to bring Malaysia's competitiveness of public organization to the maximum level due to the emergent global competition. Being part of knowledge-intensive business services, public universities are exposed to the significance of enhancements. IWB is deemed crucial for all public universities due to the emergent changing of environment as well as stakeholders' expectation. Therefore, contribution from the ICC members in the process of innovation is highly expected. Definitely, this can be done through creative and innovative endeavor by involving various employees in cross-functional Centers of Responsibilities to look into a particular concern. ICC members may introduce new approach to perform its task in more effective and efficient as well as yield better outcome. Definitely, this requires great attention from HRD from respective public universities.

With the establishment of ICC, the role of HRD in public universities could be enriched in respond to the government's call. Human resource development can be described as a set of organized activities designed by public universities to provide its staffs with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to cater present and expected job obligations. In the context of ICC, HRD should provide specific training and development in accordance to needs for above mentioned inter-related behaviors. Firstly, ICC members should be equipped with good understanding in opportunity exploration. As the starting point, ICC members need to have good understanding on seven sources of opportunity as mentioned by Drucker (1985). By comprehending those sources, ICC member needs to analyze the reason for what actually happens out there and how it affect the organization. Secondly, HRD is expected to provide particular preparation for ICC members to have good understanding in utilizing available tools (e.g. Ishikawa diagram, SWOT analysis etc) during generating creative ideas. Definitely, every tools definitely has its own advantages as well as limitations. Therefore, selecting the right tool is crucial to ensure possible negative consequences could be minimized. Training on application of tool should be carried out for ICC members to gain exposure. Thirdly, HRD is expected to provide necessary skill during idea promotion. Basically, ICC members needs effective communication skill in convincing idea to other organizational members. Conflict management skill should correspondingly be given due to fact the undertaking of persuading others could be a challenging experience due to the attitude of resistance to change. In addition, stress management skill could also be given since ICC members would highly confront with thought provoking state of affairs.

A part from training and development, HRD in public universities may also consider ICC involvement in the criteria for career development. In career planning, ICC could be considered as an activity to be assessed for a staff in establishing a realistic career path. This is because the project conducted by ICC members can be measured its effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery to the customers.

The successful ICC project could be a contribution to the organization development in public universities. Organization development could be portrayed as the process of improving the effectiveness and efficiency of a public university and the well-being of its employees through planned involvements that apply behavioral science concepts. The contribution of ICC project could be considered as macro and/or micro changes to the public university. At the macro level, by using the same illustration, the implementation paperless approach in asset management ultimately enhance the effectiveness of public university as a whole particularly in proper record management. On the other hand, at the micro level, it improves work process of individuals, small units and teams responsible in asset management.

4.0 Conclusion

This conceptual paper contributes to the current literature by presenting a concept for the measurement of IWB in public universities. The issue is essential, because every public university has to improve its innovation

capability to become innovative, and further to manage in business. Therefore, the measurement of the IWB needs to be explained particularly with the involvement of ICC members in their Centres of Responsibility. For public services, such improvements are major significance. Its nature implies that incremental adjustments should be made continuously to meet customers' expectations. In public universities, participation from all employees definitely becomes value-creation to the innovation in order to improve the existing services, method or work process in order to remain competitive in the respective industry. This paper also concludes the new requirements of HRD in public universities when considering innovation in bringing the organization for better achievements. The innovativeness of ICC should be considered in the mind of HRD employees particularly in the needs for training and development, career development as well as organization development.

For further research, more studies are needed to evaluate the impact of IWB by using variables (e.g. leadership, leader-member exchange, social capital, personality etc.). The antecedents and effects of innovative work behaviour are highly expected in the context of developing countries. Finally, further studies may consider comparison between public and private universities due to great importance given by the Malaysia Government in education sector towards the realization of its aspiration.

5.0 References

- de Jong, J. P. & Den Hartog, D. N. Den. (2007). How Leaders Influence Employees' Innovative Work Behaviour. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 10(1), 41–64. Doi:10.1108/14601060710720546.
- de Jong, J. P. , & Den Hartog, D. N. Den. (2010). Measuring Innovative Work Behaviour. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 19(1), 23–36. Doi:10.1111/J.1467-8691.2010.00547.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York: Wiley.
- Gouldner, A.W. (1960), "The norm of reciprocity: a preliminary statement", *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 161-78.
- Ishikawa K. (1980). *QC Circle Koryo General Principles of the QC Circle*. Tokyo: JUSE.
- Greenberg J. & Baron R. (1995). *Behavior in Organisations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Drucker, P.F. (1985) *Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Practice and Principles*. Harper and Row, New York.
- Farr, J. L. & Ford, C. M. (1990), *Individual innovation*. In M. A. West and J. L. Farr (Eds.), *Innovation and creativity at work*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, NY
- Janssen, O. (2000), "Job Demands, Perceptions of Effort Reward Fairness, And Innovative Work Behavior", *Journal of Occupational And Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 73 No. 9, Pp. 287-302.
- Kanter, R.M. (1988), "When A Thousand Flowers Bloom: Structural, Collective, And Social Conditions For Innovation In Organizations", *Research In Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 10 No. 8, Pp. 169-211.
- Kleysen, R.F. and Street, C.T. (2001) *Towards a Multi-Dimensional Measure of Individual Innovative Behavior*. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 2, 284–96.
- Mohd Faiz, H. Shahrier, P. Yanti, M. & Nurazree, M. (2012). *Innovative Behavior of Malaysian Employees: An Exploratory Study*. 2012 International Conference on Innovation Management and Technology Research, 135–138. Doi:10.1109/ICIMTR.2012.6236375.
- National Audit Department (2008). *Kecemerlangan Pengurusan Kewangan dari Perspektif Jabatan Audit Negara*. p. 130-156. Kuala Lumpur: Institut Tadbiran Awam.
- Niu, H. (2014). *Is Innovation Behavior Congenital ? Enhancing Job Satisfaction as A Moderator*. *Personnel Review*, 43(2), 288–302. Doi:10.1108/PR-12-2012-0200
- Ramlee, M. Nur Fathyhah, R. & Zainol, M. (2013). *Keberkesanan Pelaksanaan Projek-Projek Kumpulan*. *Jurnal Pengukuran Kualiti Dan Analisis*, 9(1), 95–106.
- Shih, H., & Susanto, E. (2011). *Is Innovative Behavior Really Good For The Firm ? Roles of Perceived Distributive Fairness*. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 22(2), 111–130. Doi:10.1108/10444061111126666.
- Siddiquee, N. A. (2010). *Managing For Results: Lessons from Public Management Reform in Malaysia*.

International Journal of Public Sector Management, 23(1), 38–53. Doi:10.1108/09513551011012312

Siddiquee, N. A. (2008). Service Delivery Innovations and Governance: The Malaysian Experience. *Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy*, 2(3), 194–213. Doi:10.1108/17506160810902194.

Sundbo, J. (1999), “Empowerment of employees in small and medium-sized service firms”, *Employee Relations*, Vol. 21 No. 2, pp. 105-127.

Syed Awais, A. T. (2014). Employees’ involvement in developing service product innovations in Islamic banks An extension of a concurrent staged model. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 24(1), 85–108. Doi:10.1108/IJCoMA-09-2013-0095

Xerri, M. (2013). 'Are Committed Employees More Likely To Exhibit Innovative Work Behaviour: A Social Exchange Perspective', Phd Thesis, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW

Yeoh, Y. K. (2013). A Conceptual Review Of Innovative Work Behavior In Knowledge Intensive Business Services Among Knowledge Workers In Malaysia. *International Journal of Business, Humanities and Technology*, 3(2), 91–99.

Yesil, S., & Sozbilir, F. (2013). An Empirical Investigation into the Impact of Personality on Individual Innovation Behaviour in the Workplace. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 81, 540–551. Doi:10.1016/J.Sbspro.2013.06.474

Women in the Workforce

Rabeatul Husna Abdull Rahman

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract

This article reviews the participation of female employees in the Malaysian labour market. It seeks to highlight female significance and contribution towards Malaysian economy. The Malaysian government has projected an increase of female in the workforce in order to achieve a high-income nation by the year 2020; however female employees are still underutilized in the Malaysian labour market compared to male. This article discusses various issues and challenges faced by female employees particularly concerning sexist human resource practices in the recruitment, appraisal, as well as in the benefits and compensation practices.

Keywords: women/female workforce, sexist human resource practices, recruitment, appraisal, benefits and compensation.

9. Introduction

As Malaysia progresses towards achieving its Vision 2020, new labour issues have emerged, as this article documents. Women, for example, continue to experience disadvantage in many aspects of their employment. Despite an upward trend of women with tertiary education, nevertheless, according to a report published by UNDP (2014) women's participation in the workforce remains "exceptionally low when compared to neighbouring or developing countries of lesser income levels". The purpose of this article is two-fold. This article begins by reviewing the participation of women and their contribution towards Malaysian economy. It then discusses the possible factors underpinning the issue of gender disparity, lower participation rate, and unemployment of qualified and experienced women.

10. Participation and contribution of women

DOS (2014) reported that women participation has slightly increased in 2013 from 49.5% in 2012 to 52.4% in 2013. In terms of age, the participation is more among women in the 25-34 age group. By sectors, the number of women employed in the service and sales workers category has increased 17% compared to only 2.7 increment for men participation. According to UNDP (2014) male workers are highly concentrated in construction, and motor repair and trade whereby more female workers can be found in the service sector. In terms of business ownership, some 19.7% of SMEs were owned by women, also mostly in the service sector (UNDP, 2014). In 2013, three job categories were dominated by women; professional, clerical support workers, and service and sales workers. Significant difference can be seen in these categories whereby male-female participation in the professional category is 6.9% and 14.3%, in the clerical support worker category is 3.9% and 17.4%, and in the service and sales workers category is 17.9% and 27.9% (DOS, 2014). The higher number of women in the professional category compared to men is consistent with their educational attainment. DOS (2014) reported that 48% of employed women in Malaysia in 2013 are tertiary educated.

Although more women than men are employed in these three sectors, as compared to men, women unemployment rate was higher (3.4%) in 2013. Moreover majority of the population outside the labour force were also women - approximately 4.67 million people. DOS (2014) reported that two main reasons for not seeking work were 'housework' and 'schooling'. The second reason is not surprising as the report also revealed that the highest unemployment rate was recorded by youth below 20 years. A more interesting data reported by DOS (2014) is the increment of population outside the labour force with tertiary education (increased 1.7%), and also among those with working experience (increased 0.3%). The percentage of women in these populations however is unknown. Nevertheless these data suggests a need to continue attracting and retaining the population outside the labour force especially among educated and experienced workforce.

Generally, these data has highlighted the significance of women's contribution to the Malaysian economy. Their dominance in the professional work category suggests that more women than men are working as engineers, lawyers, doctors, accountants etc. Professionals are often characterised as knowledge workers, vital to

the development of the knowledge economy (Abdull Rahman, 2012a). Furthermore in 2013, nearly 30% of employed women were employed in the service sector (DOS, 2014). The service sector is considered as the largest sector of the Malaysian economy, contributing to around 55% of the country's gross domestic product (The Star, 2014). This signifies the importance of women contribution to the country.

The government of Malaysia recognises women contribution to the economy through the National Women Policy. This policy was first introduced in 1989 which was then revised in 2009 to ensure an equitable sharing of resources and benefits of development for both men and women. In specific, the policy aims to develop women's capabilities as the change catalyst in all sectors, providing a conducive working environment that are more women-friendly, and to increase and reinforce fair and just treatment towards both men and women (KPWKM, 2011). As a result, female participation rate in the labour force has increased especially among the tertiary educated (Ismail, 2014).

Despite the assurance of the National Women Policy, as well as other national policies such as the legalisation of flexi-work, from 60-day to 90-day maternity leave for women in the public sector, tax deduction to employers providing childcare facilities for their female workers (UNDP, 2014) etc., in reality, however, women still face many other obstacles in the workplace. There are many evidence in the literature that suggest women in the workforce are treated with sexist human resource practices such as in the recruitment, appraisal, as well as in the benefits and compensation practices. If these issues are not addressed effectively, they could hinder women participation and retention in the workforce. According to Abdull Rahman (2012a), certain HR practices can be used to attract, develop as well as retain the employees. This includes training and career development opportunities, provision of flexible working arrangements, equitable rewards, and fair performance appraisal.

11. Gender Discrimination in Human Resource Practices

In a recent report published by the MTUC (2014), it is reported that women shy away from the workforce mainly due to gender discrimination. In specific, Malaysian women received a lower pay than men, they are denied entry into certain occupation such as in technical and engineering field, and they have limited opportunity to advance in their career. This finding is also consistent with Chee Din, Rahmat, Mashudi (2011) and Othman (2012).

Discrimination in Recruitment Practice

This article presents two types of discrimination in recruitment practice. Firstly, companies tend to have a higher preference towards hiring male than female particularly for technical and engineering jobs, and secondly, some companies' recruitment policy prohibits entry of pregnant women.

Despite the increasing number of female undertaking technical and engineering courses in higher institutions (Tapsir & Mohd. Noor, 2005), according to Esa, Sapon & Ibrahim (2001), male still dominated the field. Esa, Sapon & Ibrahim (2001) suggested that the industry have a higher tendency to hire male than female engineering graduates as the females are lacking of hands-on skills. They conducted a study towards female electrical engineering students in a polytechnic to investigate female students' likelihood to participate in hands-on activity. Apparently the study found that male students tend to dominate hands-on activity in class, whereby female students prefer to take part in recoding data and writing the reports. As a result, women have lower readiness level towards career than men (Walker & Tracey, 2012). This calls for efforts at the tertiary institution level to adapt their programs in order to encourage female students' active participation and involvement in hands-on activity in the class. However, because engineering is still stereotyped as a predominantly masculine profession (Cech, 2005), more support are needed to enhance female self-efficacy. According to Andrews & Clark (2012) among the factors contributing to lower participation of women in the engineering field is their low confidence level, the lack of women mentors and their perception that they will be unable to manage work and family commitments. Increased self-efficacy is thus important for women to be successful in their career especially in male-dominated profession such as the engineering field (Ballout, 2009).

Pregnancy discrimination is not alien in Malaysia. In 2014, a woman was awarded MYR300000 in damages for breach of her constitutional right to gender equality after the government refused to employ her as a temporary teacher when she became pregnant (The Malay Mail, 2014). Although this case signifies bright hopes for equal rights for women in Malaysia, the ruling of this case does not apply to private companies. In specific, private companies are not held liable for breach of constitutional rights (referring to the Beatrice Fernandez case in which a former Malaysia Airlines flight stewardess sued the airline when it fired her after she became pregnant and refused to resign). Beatrice Fernandez case raised concerns of the weaknesses pertaining to

Malaysian gender equality law particularly for private sector workforce (Chee Din, Rahmat, Mashudi, 2011). Until better laws are implemented, women are not protected by law for any discrimination due to pregnancy particularly in employment.

Unfair Performance Appraisal and Career Advancement Opportunities

Although more women than men are working in the professional job category and are tertiary educated (DOS, 2014), women are still under-represented in leadership position (Subramaniam & Arumugam, 2013). Among the barriers to women career progression in Malaysian firms are family related barriers (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008), negative stereotype (Subramaniam & Arumugam, 2013), work-life balance (Lim, 2013), and sexist performance appraisal practice (Abdull Rahman, 2012b). Whilst family related barriers and work-life balance barrier can be minimized by organization providing more support such as flexible working arrangements, and quality childcare at the workplace (UNDP, 2014), sexist performance appraisal practice is a top concern as it highlights unfair employment treatment and companies wrong doings.

Abdull Rahman (2012b) has conducted a study towards Malaysian engineers' intention to stay and leave factors. Her study revealed that gender discrimination existed in Malaysian firms. One of the interview participant claimed the delay in her promotion was due to the sexist practice of her manager:

I was supposed to be promoted to E1 position in 2004-2005 but instead I got promoted in 2008. Once, I had an Indian manager. I asked him to justify his reason for not promoting me and he claimed it was because of the company's quota (the company's policy only allows every department to promote 20 per cent of its employees annually). But what made me angry was when he said that the second reason was because I fell pregnant every year (in 2002, 2004 and 2005). (Ms Nor)

This finding again, highlights pregnancy related discrimination in the performance appraisal practice. Since this conflict occur in a private engineering firm, the victim however is not protected against workplace discrimination by the Malaysian labour law.

From a different perspective, women opportunities for career advancement seem to be highly contingent on their readiness, years of education and working experience. Selamat (2009) conducted a study towards 107 career women with technical education background in manufacturing industry sector in selected districts in Johor to investigate their readiness for leadership position. The findings of his study suggest that the readiness level in knowledge, skill, and work experience among the respondents is generally at moderate level. Consequently, male have a better chance at being promoted than women. This highlights the need for women to continuously equip themselves with current and future competencies suited to the needs of the industry in order to increase their career advancement opportunities.

Unequal Benefits and Compensation

In 2013, DOS, Malaysia published the salaries and wages survey report which reports data collected from January to June 2012. The mean monthly salaries and wages of male (MYR1906) was higher than female (MYR1838) with 3.6% of gender wage gap. In terms of salaries and wages by occupation, DOS (2013) reported that managers received the highest mean and median monthly salaries and wages of MYR5213 and MYR4000, followed by professionals at MYR3807 and MYR3440 respectively. The distribution by occupation showed that male workers earn more than female in terms of mean monthly salaries and wages. Gender wage gap was high (more than 30%) in the following categories of occupation; service and sales workers, skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers, craft and related trade workers, and plant and machine-operators and assemblers. This implies that men are earning significantly more wages than women in these categories of occupation. It is imperative to take immediate action particularly to address the gender wage differentials in the service and sale sector. This sector is predominantly dominated by female workforce (DOS, 2014), and is the largest contributor to Malaysian economy (The Star, 2014). As such, it is reasonable to suggest that continued attraction and retention of women in this sector relies strongly on equitable rewards and compensation benefits.

Moreover, since women is less likely to be holding leadership and key position in the organisational hierarchy as compared to men (UNDP, 2014), they continue to lag behind men in terms of remuneration. The UNDP report indicated that male-female wage disparities are wider in low to medium skilled jobs such as production line or craft worker, and also larger between high-earning male professionals and high-earning

female professionals. The latter could be a strong barrier factor for tertiary educated women to enter, as well as to continue being employed in the workforce. According to Ismail & Jajri (2012), discriminatory practices in Malaysian firms are one of the contributing factors towards gender wage differentials. In their study towards 4535 working male and females in Peninsular Malaysia, they found that gender wage gap between male and female can be explained by training, experience and education. This finding suggests that to reduce the salary gap, women may pursue higher education, increase their competencies by attending training and development programs, as well as undertake challenging work assignments to enrich their working experience. This suggestion is consistent with Ismail (2011).

Othman (2012) conducted a study to examine gender discrimination in the Malaysian private sector. His study also reported evidence of wage differentials between men and women, whereby men received 54.8% more wages than women. Men also received 3.3% more non-monetary benefits than women, which includes uniforms and transportation. Interestingly, the study also found that married men received a higher wage than unmarried women. This result is consistent with DOS (2013) report whereby the mean monthly salary and wage of married male (MYR2253) was higher than unmarried female (MYR1524). According to a study by Ismail, Osman & A. Malek (2013) gender wage differential is highly influenced (80%) by employers' negative perception which resulted in discrimination against women. This, according to them, is contributed by unexplained factors. Clearly, this scenario accounts for government intervention as an effort to impact the enforcement of non-discriminatory human resource practices.

12. Conclusion

Increased women participation in the workforce, especially among the tertiary educated population could accelerate the growth of our country to be a developed nation by 2020. To date, several policies to encourage women participation and retention in the workforce have since been formulated. However, this article argues that these policies are insufficient to attract, develop, and retain women in the workforce. Women in the workforce are still discriminated through sexist human resource practices such as in the recruitment, appraisal, as well as in the benefits and compensation practices. More significantly, this article provides valuable insights that highlight various strategies that can be undertaken by individual female employees, organisation, as well as the government in ensuring an equal treatment particularly for women in the Malaysian workforce.

13. References

- Abdull Rahman, R.H. (2012a). Malaysian firms' role in retaining engineers. *The Economic and Labour Relations Review*, 23(4), 57-78
- Abdull Rahman, R.H. (2012b). The impact of human resource strategies on the retention of engineers in Malaysian firms. PhD Dissertation. University of New South Wales.
- Andrews & Clark (2012). Breaking down barriers: Teenage girls' perceptions of engineering as a study and career choice. SEFI 40th Annual Conference.
- Ballout, H. I. (2009). Career commitment and career success: moderating role of self-efficacy. *Career Development International*, Vol. 14 (No. 7), 655-670.
- Cech, E.A.(2005). Understanding the gender schema of female engineering students: A balanced sex-type and ideal of autonomy. *Proceedings of the 2005 WEPAN/NAMEPA Joint Conference*.
- Chee Din, M.A., Rahmat, H., Mashudi, R. (2011). Pregnancy and discrimination: Effect of the case *Beatrice a/p At Fernandez v Sistem Penerbangan Malaysia and Others*. *International Journal of the Computer, the Internet an Management*. 19(2), 29-33.
- DOS (2013). Salaries and wages survey report. Malaysia: DOS
- DOS (2014). Labour force survey report. Malaysia: DOS
- Esa, A. Sapon, N, Ibrahim, S. (2001). Kemahiran hands-on pelajar wanita bidang kejuruteraan elektrik di

Politeknik Malaysia. Seminar Majlis Dekan-Dekan Pendidikan IPTA 2011, 27-28 Disember. UPM Serdang

Ismail, R. (2007). Gender wage differentials in the Malaysian services sector. *African Journal of Business Management*. 5(19), 7781-7789

Ismail, S.N. (2014). *Population and Family Policies in Malaysia*. LPPKN.

Ismail and Ibrahim. (2008). Barriers to career progression faced by women. Evidence from a Malaysian multinational oil company. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 23(1), 51-66.

Ismail, R. & Jajri, I. (2012). Gender wage differentials and discrimination in Malaysian labour market. *World Applied Sciences Journal*. 19(5), 719-728

Ismail, R., Osman, Z. & A. Malek, S. (2013). Perbezaan upah mengikut jantina dan diskriminasi majikan dalam sektor teknologi maklumat dan komunikasi. *Jurnal Teknologi*. 63(1), 41-50.

KPWKM (2011). *Matlamat Dasar Wanita Negara*. <http://www.kpwkm.gov.my/dasar1>. (March 24, 2015)

Lim, Y-M. (2013). *A study on women's career advancement in Malaysia*. ORIC Publications. <http://www.oricpub.com/HSSR-002-033-1.pdf>. (March 24, 2015)

MTUC (2014). *Diskriminasi punca wanita Malaysia jauhi pasaran kerja formal*. <http://www.mtuc.org.my/MS/bm-diskriminasi-punca-wanita-malaysia-jauhi-pasaran-kerja-formal-kata-laporan/>. (March 24, 2015)

Othman. M.N.A. (2012). *Diskriminasi dalam pasaran buruh: Kajian kes di sektor swasta*. Prosiding PERKEM VII. 2, 922-932

Subramaniam, I.D. & Arumugam, T. (2013). Barriers to women managers' career progression in Malaysian Government Link Companies (GLCs). *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 7(2), 248-256

Selamat, A. (2009). Kesamarataan gender dalam bidang industri di Malaysia. Adakah wanita telah bersedia?. <http://eprints.uthm.edu.my/5570/1/0465.pdf>. (March 23, 2015)

Tapsir, S.H. & Mohd. Noor, N. (2005). *Women engineers in Malaysia*. JURUTERA, July 2005. <http://dspace.unimap.edu.my/dspace/bitstream/123456789/13814/1/Women%20Engineers%20in%20Malaysia.pdf>. (March 24, 2015)

The Malay Mail (2014). *Woman wins RM300,000 in landmark case on discrimination over pregnancy*. <http://www.themalaymailonline.com/malaysia/article/woman-wins-rm300000-in-landmark-case-on-discrimination-over-pregnancy>. (March 24, 2015)

The Star (2014). *Economic report 2014-15:Malaysia to grow 5%-6% in 2015*. <http://www.thestar.com.my/Business/Business-News/2014/10/10/Economic-Report-Msia-to-grow-5pc-6pc-in-2015/?style=biz>. (March 23, 2015)

UNDP (2014). *Malaysia Human Development Report*. Kuala Lumpur: UNDP

Walker, T.L. & Tracey, T.J.G. (2012). The role of future time perspective in career-decision making. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. 81, 150-158

Stress as a Mediator of the Relationship between Discrimination in Career Development and Intent to Quit

Faatin Zulaikha Amir and Norashikin Mahmud

Faculty of Management, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia

Abstract

Female workers always feel discriminated by the organization as it is difficult to attain equal opportunities to develop their career. They do not receive the same opportunities as the other sex for mentoring, training, promotion, and rewards. The discrimination may lead to stress and consequently make them feel wanted, to quit their job. Therefore, the aims of this paper is to investigate the relationship, stress as the mediator, between discrimination in career development and intention to quit among female workers. Findings indicate that discrimination in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, and rewards) occurs at a moderate level and respondents have low levels of intention to quit. There is also a significant effect between discrimination in career development and intend to quit. Results have also shown that stress is a partial mediator for every relationship between variables of discrimination in career development and intent to quit. Even though discrimination occurs in career development, female workers feel less stress and low intention to quit their job. But if they feel stress regarding the discrimination occurred, they would have personal intention to quit their job.

Keywords: discrimination, career development, mentoring, training, promotion, rewards, stress, intent to quit

1. Introduction

Nowadays, many female has started to have a job. According to Tuminez et al. (2012), there has been an increase in numbers of female entering the labour force, but gender gap still remains a problem for female leaders in Asia including Malaysia. According to a survey Malaysia was ranked at level 97 out of all countries studies in terms of economic participation. This showed that gender gap in terms of economic participation remains persistent in Malaysia even though female workforce had increased from year to year. Malaysia's Ministry of Women, Family, and Community (2012) also stated that there has been an increase in number of female workers in the labour force. In 2011, there were 4,575.3 females who entered the labour force and 4,426.4 females were employed compared to 2000 where there were 3,340.9 females who entered the labour force and 3,235.5 females were employed. Thus it shows that female participation in the labour force in Malaysia has increased from year 2000 to 2011. Then, only 3.6 percent from 96.7 percent employed in Malaysia in 2011 are managers and others are working as professionals (14.7%); technician and associate professionals (8.7%); clerical support workers (18.1%); service and sales workers (25.5%); skilled agriculture, forestry, and fishery workers (5.2%); craft and related trade workers (4.2%); plant and machine operators and assemblers (7.6%); and elementary occupations (12.4%) (Ministry of Women, 2012). According to the statistic, the percentage of females being employed as managers are less than any other occupations. Gender discrimination in workforce might be one of the reasons behind it (Noor, 2012).

Discrimination is defined as treating someone differently from others based on their membership in social group (Whitley & Kite, 2006). Females can be discriminated as cultural and social norms continue to isolate females who aspire and work towards position on top management (Tuminez et al., 2012). A study by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008) showed that Malaysian community are still biased towards female workers and male workers are seen to be better as a leader than female. Although the number of females entering the workforce is continuously increasing, advancement of female workers in management still limited (Kang & Rowley, 2005) and it may lead for them to have intention to quit their job (Shields & Ward, 2001). Kang and Rowley (2005) stated that research on female in the management field is limited, partly due to fewer female managers. So, the lack of female managers may due to the fact that they cannot develop their career and climb to the top management. Furthermore, more women in Asia are dropping out in the transition from middle to top management roles (Tuminez et al., 2012) and this can lead to intention to quit as females are seen to be given opportunity for career development (Firth et al., 2004) yet they are not able to achieve certain positions. Female employees would feel stress when there are restrictions in their career development (Broadbridge, 2002) and make them want to quit their job (Ryan et al., 2011). Given the importance of the discrimination in career development among female, the objectives of this study are to explore the relationship between discrimination in career development and intent to quit among female workers and stress as the mediator for the relationship.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Discrimination in Career Development

Career development is defined as a process which employees progress from a series of stages, and each stage characterized by different sets of development tasks, activities, and relationships (Noe, 2008). According to Catherine (2007), career development between male and female is different as female faces more interference in their career. According to Bober (2005), every worker needs to be given the opportunity to develop their career, but female workers did not receive equal opportunities to develop their career. Moreover, the discrimination that occurred makes it even harder for them to develop their career especially in the private sector. In addition, executives and managers in private sectors need to be offered for a job that requires the use of their skills; give support for career development and give opportunity for promotion; and organize the workplace not by hierarchy but interaction (Bober, 2005). Past studies have shown that gender discrimination is one of the factors causing female workers to be given less opportunities in employment (Kass et al., 2006; Pais, 2010) and restricted them from reaching the highest position (Kattara, 2005; Pais, 2010).

The key factors associated with career development that can lead to discrimination can be seen in the opportunities for mentoring (Zafir & Fazilah, 2003), promotion (Powell & Graves, 2003), training (Rothman, 1998) and rewards (Abd. Rahim, 2006). Lack of opportunity for mentoring is one of the barriers in career development (Gibelman, 1998; Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). The lack of career development for female workers is also attributable to them not getting the support of a mentor (Kattara, 2005). The finding from one year study suggests that a mentor who gives career support is important for the development of female's career (Tharenou, 2005). Likewise, Johnson et al. (2001) showed that 85 percent of respondents agreed that mentoring is important for career development by which mentors help in providing support, guidance, and solving problem. Furthermore, a research done on female workers in the United Kingdom showed that they have been discriminated due to lack of mentoring practice (Allan, 2010).

Other barriers in career development for female workers is training. Dessler (2009) states that the focus of training is more extensive today as compared to a few years ago and is called the recovery education training. Aamodt (2010) stated that workers will be more motivated to learn something when they are given feedback and at times, the learning can occur naturally when someone directs them. In order to develop a career, female workers need to get support from employers to be offered opportunity for additional training (Gibelman, 1998). Moreover, study by Zunz (1991) and also Almeida-Santos and Mumford (2004) in Australia shown that there is no significant difference between male and female workers for opportunities in training. However, Ying Chu (2005) reported that female workers in the manufacturing sector at Shanghai were given less opportunities for training (on-the-job training and off-the-job training). As a result, the true ability of female workers were hindered because they are seen as unsuitable and not committed as they receive less opportunities in training and that the organisational politics cause the working environment to be less conducive for them (Catherine, 2007).

Female workers are also hindered from getting promotion. Typically, efficiency is a priority for promotion, even though most service organisations or civil unions still provide the advantage for promotion to the senior workers especially to male workers. In addition, promoting the best workers or workers who work longer often produces the Peter Principle that is formulated by Dr. Laurence and Raymond Hull in 1969 which states that workers must be promoted until they reach the highest level of expertise (Aamodt, 2010). As evidence, a study on gender discrimination in Egypt done by Kattara (2005) showed that female is less likely to get promoted. A study in Canada revealed that male are more likely to get promoted, not to mention earlier compared to female workers (Chênevert & Tremblay, 2002). According to a study by Anonymous (2006), 28 percent of the respondents from Organisation X stated that discrimination occurs in promotion and 24 percent said it involved compensation. There are no difference in studies conducted in 90s and 2000s as they shown that the discrimination occurred on female workers in terms of promotion. Studies during the 90s showed that men are significantly promoted faster than female (Zunz, 1991) and 37 percent of female workers felt that they experience discrimination related to promotion (Snizek & Neil, 1992). This would give negative impacts to female workers (Tacneaux, 2012) as they cannot get promoted equally and easily.

Lastly, female workers also faced barrier for the opportunity to earn rewards. The development of self-respect and self-esteem in workers would due by the importance of wages and benefits (Abd. Rahim, 2006). Meanwhile, Acker (2009) stated that financial supports and rewards are not given fairly as every organization has a different reward system which mostly provides wages based on gender and race. According to study done by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008) at an oil company in Malaysia showed that female workers feel that they are not given the same wage as male workers. Moreover, there is a gap for total pension between male and female workers as female workers received lower compensation and unequal wages for the same work as male workers (Childs, 2012). Tacneaux (2012) also agrees that wages and rewards are different between male and female workers due to discrimination; and the distribution of wages will be affected if organisations still consider

female workers are incapable of becoming a leader or a manager (Mihail, 2006). Therefore, female workers are abstain from climbing to top management as they receive less opportunities in promotion, mentoring, training, and rewards which can lead them to have intention to quit the job.

2.2 Discrimination in Career Development and Intent to Quit

Discrimination in career development would greatly affect an individual if the workers need are unmet and it would cause them to have intention to leave their job. According to Federman (2009), workers would have intention to quit because of career development issue, for instance, which employers are not concerned with the development and training of existing employees. Therefore, if female workers have served longer in the organization, but each needs and opportunities are ignored, they would likely acquired this intention to quit their job. Moreover, this intention to quit will increase when the expectations of workers on issues such as development are not coincide. Research done by Dickey et al. (2011) showed that intention to quit is affected by the expectations of workers on promotion and training. When female workers do not received equal opportunity to develop their career due to discrimination, they would likely feel the need to quit their job.

Besides, intention to quit has a positive relationship with discrimination and female workers has more intention to quit than male workers (Foley et al., 2005). This showed that when female workers experienced discrimination in career development, they would have more intention to quit. Likewise, Ngo et al. (2005) also stated that discrimination has positive relationship with intention to quit. In addition, research in UK North Sea showed that when workers get expected wedges and occupation prospect such as opportunity in career development, they would have less intention to quit their job (Dickey et al., 2011). From all the previous research mention, it showed that female workers would have intention to quit their job if they get less opportunity to develop their career and when they feel stress, the intention may increase.

2.3 Stress as Mediator

Stress is a reaction to a disturbing situation and environment and require an adjustment either to the system of body or mind (Ma'arof & Haslinda, 2006). In an American society, female who perceive that discrimination is still a problem are prone to stress (Mustillo & Jackson, 2001). Moreover, female workers are likely to get stress if they perceive that they are being discriminated in their career development. According to Broadbridge (2002), the issues in career development related to discrimination are the cause of stress for managers in United Kingdom. Logically, female workers might feel stress when they regard that they are not perfect, have restrictions to advancement, treated like a subordinate and being despised (Handwerker, 1999). Thus, female workers may feel stress when discrimination occurs in career development because they are being despised and their efforts to advance are hindered.

Previous studies have shown that discrimination at workplace in terms of career development may lead to stress. Besides, the lack of opportunity in promotion has positive relationship with stress (Wickramasinghe, 2010). Moreover, the level of stress for female workers who have a goal for top management would increase because of the competition with male counterparts and their efforts to develop in the career had been sealed. If their goal is interrupted and feel stress, it may lead for them to have intention to quit the job. Therefore, stress that occurs from the discrimination in career development would affect workers morale and consequently make them want to quit their job. According to Firth et al. (2004), stress is one of the sources for workers to quit their job as they feel unsafe and cannot develop their career (Wood & Wood, 2002). In addition, Dickey et al. (2011) stated that workers who feel stress would have intention to leave their job. Past studies only showed that discrimination is the barrier for career development and the study done on the stress as the mediator for the association between discrimination in career development and intent to quit is limited. Therefore, this study will investigate stress as the mediator for the effect of discrimination in career development on intent to quit the job.

3. Methodology

The design if this study a cross-sectional using questionnaires survey method. The respondents for this study are female workers from the supervisor level and above at a telecommunication company. A letter was sent to the company to get their consent to conduct this research. After the consent was given, questionnaire was distributed to 224 female workers that fulfilled the inclusion criteria and 173 were returned back. Participation in this study is voluntary.

The operational definition for mentor is a senior worker that can help a novice worker in issues regarding career; and can provide support and recommendations for suitable career development. Training is defined as an effort by organization to increase workers' skills, knowledge, and expertise that can build the workers' flexibility and achievement. Promotion refers to promoted to upper position from current position with more challenge,

more responsibilities, and more influence. Rewards define as something that is given to workers in terms of financial support including wages, bonus, compensation and remuneration; and non-financial support including recognition and acknowledgement of the work. Meanwhile, intent to quit is defined as the probability for a person to leave the organization at any time. Stress is refer to a situation where the imbalance occur between environment and people demands on individual with the ability to meet those demands.

The mentoring questionnaire was taken and modified from Career Mentoring Scale (Carter, 2010) and Mentoring Functions Scale for the Protégé (Wilson, 2006). There were two parts in mentoring questionnaire. The first part is 4 items that measuring whether discrimination for mentoring is happening for those who do not have a mentor. The second part consists of 11 items for those who has a mentor. There are 5 items to measure training opportunity. The questions are taken and modified from Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey (Schmidt, 2007); Appraisal, Training and Promotion (Kisaakye, 2010), and Training Questionnaire (Dijk, 2003). The 6 items for promotion opportunity are taken and modified from Attitudes towards Promotion Policy (Morris et al., 2004). The 8 questions for rewards are taken and modified from Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey (Schmidt, 2007). The response from respondents were based on a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree). The higher the mean score of the career development dimensions indicating that respondents are experiencing discrimination in career development.

The five questions for intent to quit was taken and modified from Turnover Intention Scale (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). The range used is 5-point scale from 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree. Stress were measured using the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et al., 1983). This scale was used because it was designed for society sample and every item is easy to understand. The questions are also general and can be used in any population. The reliability for this scale is 0.82. A 5-point scale ranging from 1=never, 2=almost never, 3=sometimes, 4=fairly often, and 5=very often is used to assess respondents stress level.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Structural Equation Model (SEM) were used to analyse the data for this study. A simple descriptive analysis was used to determine the mean and standard deviation of opportunity in mentoring, training, promotion, rewards, intent to quit and stress. Then, the multiple regression analysis in SEM was done to measure the relationship between the four variables of discrimination in career development and mediation.

4. Results

The exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), reliability, validity, normality, and all the requirements analysis have been run and have meet the measurement model needed before SEM be continued to analyse the data. Table 1 displays the frequency and the percentage of respondent demography. There are six items in the demography sections which are age, ethnicity, education background, position in organization, job tenure, and gross monthly income.

Table 1 – The Frequency and Percentage for Demography of Respondents

Variables	Frequency (N=173)	Percentage (%)
Age		
20-30	48	27.7
31-40	47	27.2
41-50	23	13.3
51-60	43	24.9
Missing	12	6.9
Ethnicity		
Malay	163	94.2
Chinese	3	1.7
Indian	2	1.2
Missing	5	2.9
Academic Background		
SPM	46	26.6
STPM	4	2.3
Diploma	53	30.6
Bachelor Degree	50	28.9
Master/Doctor of Philosophy	14	8.1
Others	1	0.6
Missing	5	2.9
Position		
Manager	48	27.8
Administrative Officer	5	2.9
Executive	21	12.1
Supervisor	16	9.2

Assistant Officer	11	8.7
Assistant Manager	27	15.6
Missing	30	17.3
Job Tenure		
1-5	34	19.7
6-10	39	22.5
11-15	16	9.2
16-20	8	4.6
21-25	10	5.8
>25	47	27.2
Missing	19	11.0
Income		
RM 1000-RM 2000	15	8.7
RM 2001-RM 3000	28	16.2
RM 3001-RM 4000	37	21.4
RM 4001-RM 5000	41	23.7
RM 5001-RM 6000	44	25.4
>RM6000	3	1.7
Missing	5	2.9

As for age, there were 48 respondents aged from the age 20 to 30 and 47 respondents aged from 31 to 40. The least respondents are aged from 41 to 50. As for ethnicity, majority respondents are Malay with 163 respondents compared to other ethnicities. Most of the respondents obtained diploma (30.6%). Majority of the respondents are managers (27.8%), followed by assistant managers (15.6%), executive (12.1%), and supervisor (9.2%). The least of the respondents are administrative officer (2.9%). Majority of the respondents have been working in the organization more than 25 years (27.2%) and most of the respondents had a gross monthly income around RM5001 to RM6000 (25.4%).

Table 2 showed the mean, standard deviation and level of discrimination in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, rewards), intention to quit and stress. From the findings, it can be seen that the mean for promotion, training and rewards in career development is at moderate level compared to mentoring which at low level. These may indicate that female workers are experiencing more discrimination in those aspects in comparison to mentoring (M=2.272). However, the level of stress and intent to quit is low with mean of 1.982 and 1.782 respectively.

Table 2 – Mean, Standard Deviation and Level of Variables

Variables	Means (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Level
Career Development	2.558	0.258	Mediate
Mentoring	2.272	0.823	Low
Promotion	2.843	0.571	Mediate
Training	2.522	0.285	Mediate
Rewards	2.594	0.288	Mediate
Intent to Quit	1.782	0.908	Low
Stress	1.982	0.399	Low

Table 3 showed the results of regression for the relationship between discrimination in career development and intention to quit. From the findings, it showed that all of the variables of discrimination in career development have significant relationship with intention to quit. Rewards have high effect on intention to quit with critical ratio as large as 3.812 ($p < 0.05$) and increasing of 1 percent in discrimination on rewards would cause the intention to quit to increase as much as 82.3 percent. The least effect on intention to quit is training with increased ($\beta = 0.200$).

Table 3 – The Relationship between Discrimination in Career Development and Intent to Quit

Relationship	Estimate (β)	CR** (t-test)	P-value*
Career Development -> Intent to Quit	0.985	5.313**	0.000*
Mentoring -> Intent to Quit	0.497	1.856**	0.006*
Training -> Intent to Quit	0.200	2.699**	0.019*
Promotion -> Intent to Quit	0.245	2.997**	0.003*
Rewards -> Intent to Quit	0.823	3.812**	0.000*

* Significant at $p\text{-value} < 0.05$.

** Significant t-test $> \pm 1.695$

Table 4 to table 7 showed the results of stress as the mediator of the relationship between discrimination in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, rewards) and intent to quit. In model 4, the regression

analysis showed that the relationship between mentoring, training, promotion, and rewards with intent to quit is significant with the value of estimate beta is 0.793, 0.730, 0.583, and 0.531 respectively. When stress is included, the relationship between mentoring ($\beta=0.902$, $p<0.05$), training ($\beta=0.916$, $p<0.05$), promotion ($\beta=0.880$, $p<0.05$) and rewards ($\beta=0.789$, $p<0.05$) with intent to quit is significant too. It can be seen from the findings that stress is a partial mediator for the relationship between all of the discrimination in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, rewards) variables and intent to quit.

Table 4 – Stress as Mediator (Mentoring and Intent to Quit)

Path	Estimate (β)	CR** (t-test)	p-value*
Model 1			
Mentoring → Intent to Quit	0.497	1.856**	0.006*
Model 2			
Mentoring → Stress	0.046	4.242**	0.002*
Model 3			
Stress → Intent to Quit	0.923	5.802**	0.000*
Model 4			
Mentoring → Intent to Quit	0.793	4.312	0.000*
Mentoring + Stress → Intent to Quit	0.902	5.660	0.000*

Table 5 – Stress as Mediator (Training and Intent to Quit)

Path	Estimate (β)	CR** (t-test)	p-value*
Model 1			
Training → Intent to Quit	0.200	2.699**	0.019*
Model 2			
Training → Stress	0.371	3.351**	0.037*
Model 3			
Stress → Intent to Quit	0.923	5.802**	0.000*
Model 4			
Training → Intent to Quit	0.730	3.759	0.000*
Training + Stress → Intent to Quit	0.916	5.787	0.000*

Table 6 – Stress as Mediator (Promotion and Intent to Quit)

Path	Estimate (β)	CR** (t-test)	p-value*
Model 1			
Promotion → Intent to Quit	0.245	2.997**	0.003*
Model 2			
Promotion → Stress	0.024	3.957	0.034*
Model 3			
Stress → Intent to Quit	0.923	5.802**	0.000*
Model 4			
Promotion → Intent to Quit	0.583	3.313	0.001*
Promotion + Stress → Intent to Quit	0.880	5.738	0.000*

Table 7 – Stress as Mediator (Rewards and Intent to Quit)

Path	Estimate (β)	CR** (t-test)	p-value*
Model 1			
Rewards → Intent to Quit	0.823	3.812**	0.000*
Model 2			
Rewards → Stress	0.294	3.005**	0.003*
Model 3			
Stress → Intent to Quit	0.923	5.802**	0.000*
Model 4			
Rewards → Intent to Quit	0.531	2.011	0.020*
Rewards + Stress → Intent to Quit	0.789	5.021	0.000*

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings reported that respondents experienced moderate discrimination for receiving training, promotion, and rewards compared to opportunity for mentoring. The discrimination does occur in opportunity for mentoring but at low level. This may indicate that the respondent received opportunity for mentoring in assumption that the organization prepare a mentor for the workers or the workers find a mentor themselves. However, the discrimination for receiving training, promotion, and rewards were exist and at moderate level

maybe because the female workers need to use their own effort to gain those opportunities. This was supported by previous research that showed female workers get less opportunity for training (Ying Chu, 2005), promotion (Shields & Ward, 2001), and rewards (Childs, 2012) as they are being discriminated from developing their career (Kattara, 2005). So, most of the respondents perceived that they are discriminated from getting the opportunity to develop in their career. In addition, most organizations' managements are based on gender where males are viewed as more suited to become an administrator (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). So, female workers are abstained from the opportunity to be the top management.

Furthermore, there are significant relationship between each of the variables for discrimination in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, and rewards) and intent to quit. The findings is consistent with past studies that reported there are positive relationship between discrimination in career development and intent to quit (Ngo et al., 2005). According to Dickey et al. (2011), intent to quit is affected by the expectations for promotion and training in future. If the reality is not coincide with their expectations, the workers would have intention to quit their job. So, when female workers did not get opportunity in career development, they would quit their job to find a job that gives them more opportunity in career development (Federman, 2009).

The findings also exhibit that stress is a partial mediator for the relationship between each of the variables in career development (mentoring, training, promotion, rewards) and intent to quit. Past research showed that workers would feel stress if they experience discrimination and less opportunity for mentoring (Robinson, 2003). They also feel stress when they do not get enough wages and less opportunity for promotion (Gellis et al., 2004). When discrimination in career development occurs and they felt stress, female workers would have more intention to quit their job. According to Ryan et al. (2011), workers that feel excessive stress from their job would have intention to quit their job. So, stress can be a mediator to increase female workers intention to quit their job when they experienced discrimination in career development.

6. Acknowledgement

This study was partially done from thesis to complete the Doctoral of Philosophy study. I would like to thank Mrs. Mariah bt Samad, the manager of human capital of the telecommunication company for giving the permission for me to conduct the research.

7. References

- Aamodt, M. G. (2010). *Industrial/Organizational Psychology* (Sixth Edition ed.). USA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Abd. Rahim, A. R. (2006). *Agenda Perubahan: Pengurusan Sumber Manusia dan Kerjaya*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publications & Distributors Sdn. Bhd.
- Acker, J. (2009). From Glass Ceiling to Inequality Regimes. *Sociologie du Travail*, 51(2), 199-217.
- Allan, H. (2010). Mentoring Overseas Nurses: Barriers to Effective and Non-Discriminatory Mentoring Practices. *Nursing Ethics*, 17(5), 603-613.
- Almeida-Santos, F., & Mumford, K. A. (2004). Employee Training in Australia: Evidence from AWIRS*. *Economic Record*, 80, S53-S64.
- Anonymous. (2006). 9% of Workers Report Bias & Discrimination at Their Workplaces. *HR Focus*, 83(2), 2.
- Bober, A. L. (2005). *A Renewed Focus on Generational Issues in The Workplace*. (EP21491 M.P.A.), Kutztown University of Pennsylvania, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from <https://vpn.utm.my/docview/305384855?accountid=41678> ProQuest Central; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database.
- Broadbridge, A. (2002). Retail Managers: Their Work Stressors and Coping Strategies. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*(9), 173-183.
- Carter, L. B. (2010). *The Practice of Mentoring: A Comparative Study of Career and Psychosocial Functions of Mentoring Among Educational Administrators in Tennessee K-12 Public Schools*. (Ed.D. 3434582), Tennessee State University, United States -- Tennessee. Retrieved from <https://vpn.utm.my/docview/847225964?accountid=41678> ProQuest Dissertations & Theses (PQDT) database.

- Catherine, C. (2007). Barriers to Acceptance, Satisfaction and Career Growth: Implications For Career Development and Retention of Women in Selected Male Occupations in Nigeria. *Women In Management Review*, 22(1), 68-78.
- Chênevert, D., & Tremblay, M. (2002). Managerial Career Success in Canadian Organizations: Is Gender a Determinant? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(6), 920-941.
- Childs, S. (2012). *Gender Discrimination in The Workplace*. (1507005 M.A.), State University of New York Empire State College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from <https://vpn.utm.my/docview/927597494?accountid=41678> ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database.
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A Global Measure of Perceived Stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 24, 386-396.
- Dessler, G. (2009). *A Framework for Human Resource Management* (5th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Dickey, H., Watson, V., & Zangelidis, A. (2011). Job Satisfaction and Quit Intentions of Offshore Workers in the UK North Sea Oil and Gas Industry. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 58(5), 607-633.
- Dijk, V. (2003). *A Survey of The Training Opportunities and Attitude Towards Training of Staff in The Department of Public Service and Administration*. University of Pretoria.
- Dysvik, A., & Kuvaas, B. (2008). The Relationship Between Perceived Training Opportunities, Work Motivation and Employee Outcomes. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 12(3), 138-157.
- Federman, B. (2009). *Employee Engagement: A Roadmap for Creating Profits Optimizing Performances and Increasing Loyalty*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Firth, L., Mellor, D. J., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can Managers Reduce Employee Intention to Quit? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(2), 170-187.
- Foley, S., Hang-Yue, N., & Wong, A. (2005). Perceptions of Discrimination and Justice: Are There Gender Differences in Outcomes? *Group and Organization Management*, 30(4), 421-450.
- Gellis, Z. D., Kim, J., & Hwang, S. C. (2004). New York State Case Manager Survey: Urban and Rural Differences in Job Activities, Job Stress, and Job Satisfaction. *The Journal Of Behavioral Health Services & Research*, 31(4), 430-440.
- Gibelman, M. (1998). Women's Perceptions of the Glass Ceiling in Human Service Organizations and What to Do About It. *Affilia*, 13(2), 147-165.
- Handwerker, W. P. (1999). Cultural Diversity, Stress, and Depression: Working Women in the Americas. *Journal Of Women's Health & Gender-Based Medicine*, 8(10), 1303-1311.
- Ismail, M., & Ibrahim, M. (2008). Barriers to Career Progression Faced by Women: Evidence From a Malaysian Multinational Oil Company. *Gender in Management*, 23(1), 51-66. doi: 10.1108/17542410810849123
- Johnson, K. K. P., Yust, B. L., & Fritchie, L. L. (2001). Views on Mentoring by Clothing and Textiles Faculty. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 19(1), 31-40.
- Kang, H.-R., & Rowley, C. (2005). Women in Management in South Korea: Advancement or Retrenchment? *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 11(2), 213-231.
- Kass, R. B., Souba, W. W., & Thorndyke, L. E. (2006). Challenges Confronting Female Surgical Leaders: Overcoming the Barriers. *Journal of Surgical Research*, 132(2), 179-187.
- Kattara, H. (2005). Career Challenges For Female Managers in Egyptian Hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(3), 238-251.
- Kisaakye, E. M. (2010). *Employment Discrimination Against Women Lawyers in Uganda: Lessons & Prospects for Enhancing Equal Opportunities for Women in Formal Employment*. American University, Washington. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database.
- Ma'arof, R., & Haslinda, A. (2006). *Pengantar Psikologi*. Selangor: Pro-Office Shoppe Sdn. Bhd.
- Mihail, D. (2006). Gender-Based Stereotypes in The Workplace: The Case of Greece. *Equal Opportunities International*, 25(5), 373-388.
- Ministry of Women, F., and Community (2012). *Perangkaan Wanita, Keluarga dan Masyarakat 2012: Kementerian Pembangunan Wanita, Keluarga dan Masyarakat*.
- Morris, D., Arzmi, Y., & Wood, G. (2004). Attitudes Towards Pay and Promotion in The Malaysian Higher Educational Sector. *Journal of Employee Relations*, Vol. 26.
- Mustillo, S., & Jackson, P. B. (2001). I Am Woman: The Impact of Social Identities on African American Women's Mental Health. *Women and Health*, 32(4), 33-58.
- Ngo, H.-Y., Wong, A., & Foley, S. (2005). Perceptions of Discrimination and Justice. *Group & Organization Management*, 30(4), 421-450. doi: 10.1177/1059601104265054
- Noe, R. A. (2008). *Employee Training & Development* (Fourth ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Noor, N. H. A. M. (2012). *Diskriminasi Ke Atas Wanita di Tempat Kerja: Kajian Terhadap Pegawai Kerajaan Negeri di Daerah Kota Bharu, Kelantan*. (Master (Social)), Universiti Utara Malaysia, College of Arts and Sciences.
- Pais, J. (2010) Dominated by Women, Managed by Men? The Career Development Process of Retail Managers. *Vol. 28* (pp. 359-373).
- Powell, G. N., & Graves, L. M. (2003). *Women and Men in Management* (Third Edition ed.). USA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Robinson, G. E. (2003). Stresses on Women Physicians: Consequences and Coping Techniques. *Depression And Anxiety, 17*(3), 180-189.
- Rothman, R. A. (1998). *Working Sociological Perspectives* (Second Edition ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Ryan, C., Hazrina, G., & Asad, M. (2011). Determinants of Intention to Leave a Non-Managerial Job in the Fast-Food Industry of West Malaysia. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23*(3), 344-360.
- Schmidt, S. W. (2007). The Relationship between Satisfaction with Workplace Training and Overall Job Satisfaction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 18*(4), 481-498.
- Shields, M. A., & Ward, M. (2001). Improving Nurse Retention in the National Health Service in England: The Impact of Job Satisfaction on Intentions to Quit. *Journal of Health Economics, 20*(5), 677-701.
- Snizek, W. E., & Neil, C. C. (1992). Job Characteristics, Gender Stereotypes and Perceived Gender Discrimination in the Workplace. *Organization Studies, 13*(3), 403-427. doi: 10.1177/017084069201300305
- Tacneaux, N. (2012). *Discrimination in the Workplace: Race, Age and Gender Discrimination - Impact on Performance in the Public Sector*. (1534649 M.A.), State University of New York Empire State College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from <https://vpn.utm.my/docview/1317665227?accountid=41678> ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database.
- Tharenou, P. (2005). Does Mentor Support Increase Women's Career Advancement More than Men's? The Differential Effects of Career and Psychosocial Support. *Australian Journal of Management, 30*(1), 77-109.
- Tuminez, A. S., Duell, K., & Majid, H. A. (2012). *Rising To The Top? A Report on Women's Leadership in Asia*. The Rockefeller Foundation: National University of Singapore.
- Whitley, J. B. E., & Kite, M. E. (2006). *The Psychology of Prejudice and Discrimination*. USA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Wickramasinghe, V. (2010). Work-Related Dimensions and Job Stress: The Moderating Effect of Coping Strategies. *Stress and Health, 26*(5), 417-429.
- Wilson, A. J. S. (2006). *A Comparison of the Perceived Performance of Mentoring Functions of National Board-Certified and Non-National Board-Certified Teachers with Their Protégés*. (Doctor of Philosophy), University of South Florida. Retrieved from <http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd>
- Wood, S. E., & Wood, E. R. G. (2002). *The World of Psychology*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon
- Ying Chu, N. (2005). Training determinants and productivity impact of training in China: a case of Shanghai. *Economics of Education Review, 24*(3), 275-295. doi: 10.1016/j.econedurev.2004.05.005
- Zafir, M. M., & Fazilah, M. H. (2003). *Mengurus Sumber Manusia*. Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publications & Distributors Sdn Bhd.
- Zunz, S. J. (1991). Gender-Related Issues in the Career Development of Social Work Managers. *Affilia, 6*(4), 39-52.

GROUP-LEVEL SAFETY CLIMATE AS THE ANTECEDENT OF SAFETY PERFORMANCE

Nor Hidayah Abd Radzaz¹, Siti Aisyah Panatik¹

¹ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Abstract

The current research trends changed in safety climate research to view the relationship in hierarchical perspectives such as group-level safety climate. Group-level safety climate can be referred as the workers' shared perception on supervisors' practices on executed policies, processes and procedures concern on safety. It was argued that group-level safety climate can be the antecedent for safety performance. The relation of group-level safety climate and safety performance explained that safety performance is influenced by socially constructed shared perceptions among members of an organization with regards to the organizational policies, procedures and practices related to safety. Thus, this paper aims to review the capability of group-level safety climate in predicting the safety performance. First, this paper will explain the group-level safety climate definition, background and theoretical concept. Second, this paper will identify group-level safety climates as the antecedents of safety performance from reviewing the previous study. This paper also provides future research direction regarding the possible effects of group-level safety climate on safety performance based on current empirical evidence.

1. Introduction

Safety climate is prominent to be conceptual as multilevel construct as it offers both clarity and a linkage to the emerging body of literature on multilevel theory of organizational behavior (Kline and Kozlowski, 2000). Following more than three decades of safety-climate research, the literature keep growing in multilevel study which show the safety research be investigate on multilevel model. The early research on safety climate was instigated by Zohar (1980) by viewing the management commitment to safety as a major factor affecting the success of safety practices in industry. Safety climate refer as workers perception towards management policies, procedures and practices regards to safety. The workers views on management values for safety and personnel policies about safety are clearly perceptions about values and procedures in the wider work environment (Griffin & Neal, 2000). The subsequent success of this approach to safety is indicated by later studies, which show that safety climate is a robust predictor of safety subjective outcomes, such as safety performance and objective outcomes, such as accidents and injuries (Christian, et. al., 2009).

Safety climate suggested to be positively significant in predicting safety performance behaviors and to negatively influence outcomes (Griffin & Neal, 2000). A positive safety climate should encourage safe action either through reward or through principles of social exchange (e.g. Clarke, 2006; Griffin & Neal, 2000; Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Zohar, 2000). Zohar and Luria (2005) study on safety climate shows that it is possible to determine different safety practices across and within hierarchical levels in an organization. The data revealed that group-level safety climate varies in a single organization stems from the supervisor's discretion in implementing formal procedures associated with competing demands such as safety against productivity. For instance, high group-level safety climate will embrace safety performance (safety compliance and safety participation) as dominant practices (Zohar, 2008). Thus next section will explain more details on relation between safety performance and group-level safety climate.

2. Literature Review

Safety performance

Safety performance can be referred as safety-related action or behaviour demonstrated by workers while completing the work task to endorse their safety and others safety and health (Burke, & Signal, 2010). Safety performance also proposed to be any behaviour that related to safety (Griffin, & Neal, 2000). Universally,

organizations view safety performance as employees' compliance to the behavioural safety routines (DeArmond, et al., 2011). Safety performance comprise of safety compliance and safety participation (Griffin & Neal, 2000). Safety compliance related to behaviour that authorized formal working roles and procedures related to safety practices, for instance, using the personal protective equipment correctly, performing lock-out and tag-out procedures properly, applying suitable work practices to reduce exposure to potential hazards and injury, and following the safety policies and procedures (DeArmond, et al., 2011; Griffin & Neal, 2000). Safety compliance was argued to be focuses directly on workers' behaviours from considering safety rules, regulations, standards and specified criteria within a safety system (e.g., Marchand et al., 1998).

Meanwhile, safety participation is more comprehensive and would be included to represent workers' safety initiatives, such as helping to explain safety procedures to the new crew members, helping others to ensure they complete their work safely, or making recommendation on safety in performing working activities (Griffin & Neal, 2000; DeArmond, et al., 2011). In this sense, participative safety behaviours are similar to organizational citizenship behaviours but focused only on safety (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Safety participation is developed likely from voluntary and discretionary nature, including practices oriented towards safety that extend beyond normal role requirements (Clarke, 2006). Determining safety participation and safety compliance with safety rules and procedures is prominent in determining safety performance (DeArmond, et al., 2011). However, numbers of previous studies argued that safety performance is predicted by group-level safety climate (Zohar & Luria, 2005; Christian, et al., 2009).

Group-level safety climate

Definition

The group-level safety climate defines as workers' collective perception towards supervisor concern on policies, procedures and practices regards to safety (Zohar & Luria, 2005). Regarding to the climate perception, workers will form similar and simultaneous perception on certain focal issues (e.g. safety). Perceptions of climate also appear to be hierarchically structured (Griffin & Neal, 2000). The group-level climate is established from workers' perception on the supervisors' practices on certain focal issues. Group-level perceptions of supervisory practices should be aggregated within subunits, pending within-group homogeneity and between-groups variation (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Thus, there are important relations of leadership on behalf of supervisors' practices with group-level climate. In safety climate, group-level relates to workers' collective perception on supervisors' practices in executing safety policies, practices and procedures (Zohar & Luria, 2005). Supervisors are directly and indirectly (through policies, procedure establishment) shaping and encouraging safety climate in workplace and the inadequacy in group-level (e.g. supervisor concern) will result in poor safety climate (Zohar & Luria, 2003). Supervisors' role is to execute the policy according to workplace need and apply the procedure into predictable, based on situational action directives. Procedures executed at the floor plan rarely cover all situations as human-machine-environment interaction displays various contingencies, incompatible procedures indicate conflict between performance quantities versus quality (e.g., production speed vs. safety).

Background and theoretical concept

Level issues should be considered when studying a broad range of phenomena that occur in organization. There is an increasing recognition to break the single-level models, a legacy of primary disciplines that undergird organizational science. A meaningful understanding of the phenomena comprises the organizational behaviour that necessitates approaches which are more integrative, cut across multiple levels (individual-level, group-level, organizational-level and so on) and seek to understand phenomena from a combination of perspectives is known as multilevel model (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Group and organizational safety climate are shared perceptions of individuals, climate at this level is likely to be more potent in that people perceive the environment similarly and should thus be more influenced by it than if they had divergent perceptions. These findings are consistent with those in other domains regarding the relative influence of isomorphic (similar) constructs at the group and individual levels of analyses (e.g., see Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002).

The importance of supervisors in safety has been emphasized both from a theoretical and an applied point of view (Zohar & Luria, 2003, 2005). The frequency and intensity with which supervisors monitor and respond to safety issues determines the expectancy valence associated with safe or unsafe behaviour and this affects motivation and finally the workers' safe or unsafe behavior (Zohar, 2000). Supervisors' attitudes, behaviours and contingencies toward workers' behaviour have a significant effect on workers' safety attitudes and performance (Chhokar, 1990; Cox & Cox, 1991). Thus, the terminology used to refer on workers perception towards supervisor's concern on safety policies, procedures and practices known as group-level safety climate.

Group-level safety climates as the antecedents of safety performance

Supervisor safety concern is important features in enhance safety climate and consequence safety performance among workers (Fugas, et al., 2012). In group-level safety climate it reflects the consensus perception among workers towards supervisors’ practices on safety policies, practices and procedure. Thus, it can be related that group-level safety climate found to be significantly related with safety performance. From Table 1, there are numerous previous studies that attempted to investigate the relationship between group-level safety climate and safety performance.

Table 1: Literature review on the previous reported finding between group-level safety climate and safety performance

Author (Year)	Key factors/ variables	Findings related with group-level safety climate and safety performance
Zohar & Luria (2003)	Antecedents: <i>Supervisor monitor on safety</i> Outcome: <i>Safety performance</i> <i>Safety climate</i>	Supervisory safety-oriented positively significant with safety performance and safety climate.
Zohar & Luria (2005)	Antecedents: <i>Organization-Level Safety Climate</i> Mediator: <i>Group-Level Safety Climate</i> Outcome <i>Safety behaviour</i>	Group-level climate was correlated with averaged safety behaviour observations Organization climate predicts group climate level, which predicts role behavior, that is, cross-level alignment resulted in a fully mediated effect.
Meliá, & Sesé, (2007)	Antecedents: <i>Supervisors’ Safety Response (SSR)</i> Outcome: <i>Safety behaviours</i>	SSR as a diagnostic tool useful in selecting intervention goals, specifically integrating supervisors’ safety response. (a) that supervisors’ descending and self-applied safety response are consistent between them (b) that workers perceive them as being consistent
Zohar (2008)	Antecedents Outcome: <i>Safety citizenship</i>	Climates for safety and for work-ownership are likely to interact due to the two-dimensional nature of safety behavior, i.e., compliance and citizenship.
Christian, et. al., (2009)	Antecedents: <i>Safety knowledge</i> <i>Safety motivation</i> <i>Psychological safety climate</i> <i>Group safety climate</i> Outcomes: <i>Safety performance</i> <i>Safety outcomes</i>	Group safety climate had the strongest association with accidents and injuries (safety outcomes). Group and organizational safety climate generally had stronger relationships with safety performance than psychological safety climate.

Zohar and Luria (2003) present a study of interventions of supervision monitoring the safety practices of workers. The results show that the increase of safety supervision substantially resulting in significant changes in the safety performance and safety climate. The increase in worker safety performance continued in the post-intervention shows that the management policy on the role of supervisor behaviour is prominent for enhancing safety practices among workers. Thus, further study on group-level safety climate being conducted among larger number of production workers in numerous manufacturing plant in order to support the relationship between group-level safety climate and safety performance (Zohar & Luria, 2005).

In investigating safety performance among large number of production workers from numerous manufacturing plants, Zohar and Luria (2005) reported that group-level safety climate plays was significantly

related with safety performance. Thus, it supported that group-level safety climate play an important role in shaping the expected safety performance outcome. The positive perception towards group-level safety climate revealed the encouragement and support on both categories of safety performance which are safety compliance and safety participation (Zohar, 2008; Christian, et. al., 2009). In discussing the study outcome, Zohar (2008) suggested that the group-level safety climate interact with two dimension of safety performance which is safety compliance and safety participation (safety citizenship). The findings from Christian and colleagues (2009) also supported the relation between group-level safety climate and safety performance where group-level safety climate had strong relationship towards safety performance.

For workers, supervisors are models invested with authority, and, therefore, their safe or unsafe behaviour defines what is acceptable and what is not in a clear and practical manner. For example, a supervisor that demonstrates each day that work can be done without the use of the required protective equipment cancels out any message with regard to this kind of safety protection (Melià, & Sesè, 2007). Hence, workers' perception of supervisors' safety response is an important reference for their own safety performance (Melià, & Sesè, 2007).

3. Future Research Direction

Group-level safety climate and safety performance relationship was unique linkages which demand further investigation. As the hierarchical effect such as group-level safety climate found to be significantly related to safety performance outcome more empirical study should be done to support and encourage supervisors and higher management of organizational encourage safety practices among workers. The researcher suggested more research need to be done to confirm the linkages between group-level safety climate and safety performance especially in developing country such as Malaysia. It is important since the most effective country found to be practices high level of safety practices (Hämäläinen, Saarela, & Takala, 2009).

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, group-level safety climate play an important role to promote safety performance among workers. Safety performance enrichment very prominent to be practices among workers as it may be beneficial in promoting workers safety and health. Supervisor concern on safety priority lead to the enhancement on safety practices among workers which subsequently bring an advantage to the workers performance and organization's competitiveness (Hämäläinen, Saarela, & Takala, 2009). Nonetheless, in having the empirical evidence, better understanding on group-level safety climate and safety performance can reference for future researchers.

5. References

- Burke, M. J., & Signal, S. M. (2010). A multilevel, interdisciplinary perspective. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 29, 1–47.
- Chhokar, J.S. (1990) Behavioural safety management. *Vikalpa*, 15(1), 15-22.
- Christian, M. S., Bradley, J. C., Wallace, J. C., & Burke, M. J., (2009). Workplace safety: A meta-analysis of the roles of person and situation factors. *J. Appl. Psychol.* (94), 1103- 1127.
- Clarke, S. (2006). Safety climate in an automobile manufacturing plant :The effects of workenvironment, job communication and safety attitudes on accidents and unsafe behaviour. *Personnel Review*, 35(4), 413-430.
- Cox, S., & Cox, T. (1991). The structure of employee attitudes to safety: A European example. *Work and Stress*, 5(2), 93-106.
- DeArmond, S., Smith, A., Wilson, C., Chen, P. Y., & Cigularov, K. P. (2011). Individual safety performance in the construction industry: development and validation of two short scales. *Accid. Anal. Prev.*, 43, 948–954.
- Fugas, C. S., Silva, S. A., & Meliá, J. L. (2012). Another look at safety climate and safety behavior: Deepening the cognitive and social mediator mechanisms. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, 45, 468–477.
- Griffin, M. A., & Neal, A. (2000). Perceptions of safety at work: A framework for linking safety climate to safety performance, knowledge, and motivation. *J. Occup. Health Psychol*, 5, 347–358.

- Gully, S., Incalcaterra, K., Joshi, A., & Beaubien, J. (2002). A metaanalysis of team-efficacy, potency, and performance: Interdependence and level of analysis as moderators of observed relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 819 – 832.
- Hämäläinen, P., Saarela, K. L., & Takala, J. (2009). Global trend according to estimated number of occupational accidents and fatal workrelated diseases at region and country level. *J Safety Res.*, 40, 125-139.
- Hofmann, D. A., Morgeson, F. P., & Gerras, S. J. (2003). Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and content specific citizenship: safety climate as an exemplar. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 170.
- Kline, K.J., & Kozlowski, S.W. (2000). *Multilevel Theory Research and Methods in Organizations* (Eds.). Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Marchand, A., Simard, M., Carpentier-Roy, M., & Ouellet, F. (1998). From a unidimensional to a bidimensional concept and measurement of workers' safety behavior. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment, and Health*, 24, 293–299.
- Meliá, J. L., & Sesé, A. (2007). Supervisor's safety response: A multisample confirmatory factor analysis. *Psicothema*, 19(2), 231-238.
- Zohar, D., (1980). Safety climate in industrial organizations: Theoretical and applied implications. *Journal of Applied Psychology* (65), 96–102.
- Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of applied psychology*. 85 (4), 587- 596.
- Zohar, D., & Luria, G. (2003). The use of supervisory practices as leverage to improve safety behavior: A cross-level intervention model. *Journal of Safety Research*, 34(5), 567- 577.
- Zohar, D., & Luria, G. (2005). A multilevel model of safety climate: cross-level relationships between organization and group-level climates. *Journal Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 616-628.
- Zohar, D., (2008). Safety climate and beyond: A multi-level multi-climate framework. *Safety Science* (46), 376–387.

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG EMPLOYEES: AN ANALYSIS IN THE INDONESIAN INDUSTRIAL SETTING

Muhammed Fauzi bin Othman⁹, Muhammad Arief Eka Putra¹⁰ and Pocut Mudrika¹¹

¹ Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

² Bachelor of Science (Human Resource Development) Final Year Student, Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

³ Bachelor of Science (Human Resource Development) Final Year Student, Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

Abstract

Past studies have identified a myriad of determinants on employee satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction is claimed to produce advancement in organizational goals realization, increased productivity and organizational social well-being. This paper summarizes two studies on the determinant of job satisfaction in an Indonesian industrial setting. In case study 1, the factor of emotional intelligence or emotional quotient (EI/EQ) is studied on 331 respondents working at PT Semen Padang, Indonesia. On the other hand, case study 2 tries to determine how interpersonal relationship effects job satisfaction among employees at PT Perkebunan Nusantara 1, Indonesia. A total of 135 employees of PT Perkebunan in Nusantara 1 Indonesia were selected randomly as respondents. The data was analyzed using the descriptive analysis such as mean and percentage to identify the level of the respective determinants and also the level of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the Pearson correlation technique was applied to determine the relationship between the determinants and job satisfaction. The result of case study 1 showed that that the level of emotional intelligent at PT Semen Padang was high (mean 3.79), and the level of job satisfaction (mean 4.73). The relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction was significant and positive but weak ($r = 0.283$) in a 2-tailed correlation. On the other hand, case study 2 showed that levels of interpersonal relationship (mean 3.43) and job satisfaction (mean 3.44) among the employees of PT. Perkebunan Nusantara 1 are moderate. The results also suggested a strong and significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction ($r = 0.903$). These results correspond with earlier studies that identified EQ and interpersonal relationship as an important determinant of job satisfaction and give us of an insight in an Indonesian perspective.

Keyword: Emotional quotient, Interpersonal Relationship and Job Satisfaction.

1. Introduction

Job satisfaction is very important in order to obtain optimal results. Employees who feelsatisfied with work will try to do everything with all his/her capabilities to complete the task at work, so that optimal performance can be achieved. According to Robbins (2002: 36) satisfaction of employees is affected by many factors, among others, a challenging job, environmental condition and interpersonal relationships, emotional quotient and rewards. Emotional intelligent (EI) is one of the most important aspects that helps in ensuring the quality of the human resource which exists in the organization. According to Mayer and Salovey (2000) emotional intelligent is the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Emotional intelligence abilities enable individuals to recognize, understand, and manage emotions in themselves and others, and that this contributes to better relationships in the workplace (Mayer and Salovey, 2007). One of the most important thing that could be effected by emotional intelligent is 'job satisfaction'. According to Cooper & Sawaf (1997) employees with high EI are more resilient because they are able to understand the causes of stress and develop strategies and perseverance to deal with the

⁹ Senior Lecturer at the Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

¹⁰ Bachelor of Science (Human Resource Development)Final Year Student at the , Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

¹¹ Bachelor of Science (Human Resource Development)Final Year Student at the , Faculty of Management, University Technology Malaysia.

negative consequences of stress. Stress has strong relation with job satisfaction whereby job satisfaction can affect the performance of employees and produce tendencies to do some negative activities (such as absenteeism, turn over, etc). Thus, EI and job satisfaction are claimed to be associated. With high level of emotional intelligence in the long-term good interpersonal relationships within organizations which increase creativity, solving problems and helps influence the overall profitability and success of an organization (Obradovic et al., 2013). According to Shooshtarian et al (2013), employees with high EI are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction because they are more adept at appraising and regulating their own emotions than employees with low EI. The relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction shows a positive relationship. This opinion is also supported by many proves from previous researches (Ford, 2010; Anari, 2012; Ignat and Clipa, 2012; Mehdi et al, 2012). It means the higher the employees have emotional intelligence, the more likely that they are satisfied with their jobs (Dong and Howard, 2014). Job satisfaction experienced by employees will affect the quality of service they render and the impact of other variables on efficiency, such as infrastructures and internal relationships, should also be recognized (Crossman and Abou-Zaki, 2003). Studies by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007) established that job satisfaction is influenced by factors ranging from salary, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, work and effective and efficient communication.

On the other hand, interpersonal communication and job satisfaction are thought to be also closely related to each other. (Lin and Jennifer, 2011) Both are pushing each other in a performance improvement professional, in any part of the place or any positions he/she holds. Interpersonal skills are needed in interpersonal relationships. Interpersonal relationships are literally covered all the interaction that occurs between two or more people, particularly so among the people in an organization or organizational wealth formal or formal (Higgins, 1982). According to Rogers, interpersonal communication can be hemophilia and heterofili. Communication is hemophilia when individuals interacting have the same characteristics (beliefs, education, social status, etc.). However, heterofili communication occurs when interactions are of different properties. Good interpersonal relationships will facilitate the completion of daily tasks, especially in teamwork tasks. (Rubina, 2009) It would be difficult to build a strong teamwork without good interpersonal relationship because teamwork requires cooperation and cohesiveness among the members. In other words, someone who does not possess interpersonal relationship would be difficult to work in a group work well. As a result, the task will not be resolved in time and the results are less than optimal.

Donohue and Heywood (2004) argued that the level of job satisfaction of an employee is subjective. It means each individual may have different standard about their expectation in the workplace. The standard that individuals have may depend on some aspects. Thus, job satisfaction is also determined by various factors. Job satisfaction hinges on good relationships with staff and colleagues, control of time off, and adequate resources (Williams et al, 2003). Job satisfaction is not about one's own expectation, but also about factors which support the expectation.

2. Method of study and analysis of data

Study 1: The population employees at PT Semen Padang. 2376 was the population at PT Semen Padang. This study used probability sampling techniques. Random sampling was used ensuring that the sample will be the representative of the population (Keppel, 1991). The sample size was 331 (according to Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). Before the questionnaires were distributed, the researcher explained on the research questions and the purpose of this study. Then, the distribution of the questionnaires was monitored by the researcher to ensure that all respondents receive the questionnaire and answer all of the questions. After all of the questionnaire filled, researcher was collected all of those questionnaires to analyzing the information. The development of the questionnaire was categorized into four sections which are demographics of respondents (section A- 5 questions), level of emotional intelligent (section B- 26 questions), and level of job satisfaction (section C- 19 questions). The questions were translated Bahasa Indonesia for the benefit of the respondents. Some words were also changed from complex to simpler words. Section B was based on Goleman model of emotional intelligent (1995) which measure the level of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management of the respondents. Section C was based on Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) which covers; salary, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, work and communication. The questions collected and modified from JSS questionnaire by Spector (1994).

Data Analysis- Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyze the data collected. Level of emotional intelligent at PT Semen Padang became the first objective to be identified. It is analyzed by using the categories below:

Table 1: Range of Mean Scores for Level of Emotional Intelligent

Range of Mean Scores	Level of Emotional Intelligent
1.00-2.33	Low
2.34-3.66	Moderate
3.67-5.00	High

The level of job satisfaction at PT Semen Padang became the second objective to be identified in this study. A Six-point likert scale was used for each item, and score was given to each item.

Table 2: Range of Mean Scores for Level of Job Satisfaction

Range of Mean Scores	Level of Job Satisfaction
1.00-2.67	Low
2.68-4.34	Moderate
4.35-6.00	High

Relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction at PT Semen Padang became the third objective to be identified in this study. Pearson’s correlation was used, because it was able to describe the relationship between two variables. The form of this correlation supposed to be linear. The direction of correlation may became positive (+) or negative (-). The correlation also described the strength of the relationship that was compared with table 3.

Table 3: Categorization of the Correlation Coefficient by Dancy and Reidy (2004)

Value of the Correlation Coefficient	Strength of Correlation
±1	Perfect
±0.7 - ±0.9	Strong
±0.4 - ±0.6	Moderate
±0.1 - ±0.3	Weak
<0.3	Very weak-no correlation

3. Results

Table 4 shows results of the dimensions of emotional intelligent. The mean of the self-awareness dimension was 3.66 which shows a moderate level. Besides that, the mean of self-management (3.89) and social awareness (3.82) which is a high level. Furthermore, the mean of relationship management was 3.79 which is also included high. The overall mean level of the emotional intelligent dimension is 3.79 which is high.

Table 4: Analysis of the Emotional Intelligence

	Self Awareness	Self Management	Social Awareness	Relationship Management	Total
N Valid	315	315	315	315	315
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	3.66	3.89	3.82	3.79	3.79
Std. Deviation	0.52463	0.59920	0.56194	0.53514	0.46922
Minimum	1.70	1.20	2.00	1.90	4.90
Maximum	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	1.78

On the other hand, Table 5 shows the analysis of results of the dimensions of job satisfaction. The mean for the dimension of salary was 4.64 whereas the mean of promotion was 4.68. The mean of supervisor dimension was 4.76 and the mean of fringe benefit dimension was 4.73. Furthermore, the mean values of reward dimension was 4.77 and the mean of operating procedure dimension was 4.51. In addition, the mean of co-worker (4.59), work dimension (4.96), communication dimension (4.86). All the dimensions of job satisfaction were scored high. This could be seen from the overall mean of job satisfaction which is 4.73. It indicates the majority of respondents are satisfied to work in PT Semen Padang.

Table 5: Analysis of Job Satisfaction

Dimensions of Job Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation
Salary	4.6429	0.63112
Promotion	4.6810	0.93594
Supervisor	4.7595	0.83699
Fringe Benefit	4.7325	0.83947
Reward	4.7746	0.87516
Operating Procedure	4.5444	0.74307
Co-Worker	4.5873	0.65654
Work	4.9611	0.78265
Communication	4.8627	0.72490
Total	4.7273	0.59058

Table 6 shows the correlation value between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction which is the last objective of the study. There was positive relationship between both variables. The correlation coefficient was 0.283 which shows a weak correlation. The direct relationship between this two variables mean that the increase in level of emotional intelligent, it will increase the level of job satisfaction with weak influence. It was positive relationship with the significant level which is 0.01, it suggests that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction.

Table 6: Correlation between Emotional Intelligent and Job Satisfaction

		Job Satisfaction
Emotional Intelligent	Pearson Correlation	0.283**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	315

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Study 2- The whole population the Human Resources department of PT Pekebunan Nusantara 1 were chosen as the population and sample of the study. Due to the small population in the human resource department, the questionnaire was distributed to all the members of HR department which is 135 respondents. Table 7 shows the number of questionnaires distributed and collected. From the total of 135 questionnaires distributed, only 96 (71%) questionnaires were returned.

	Return	Not Return	Total
Questionnaire	96	39	135
Percentage	71%	29%	100%

The first objective of the study was to determine the level of Interpersonal relationship at PT Pekebunan Nusantara 1. The construct was divided into 7 dimensions which could be seen in the table 8 below:

Table 8: Analysis of Interpersonal Relationship Dimensions

Interpersonal Relationship Dimensions	Mean Score	Standard Deviation σ	Level of Interpersonal Relationship
Interpersonal Relationship	3.28	0.72	Moderate
Interpersonal Needs	3.33	0.89	Moderate
Interpersonal Perception	3.63	0.78	Moderate
Superiors and Subordinates	3.46	0.98	Moderate
Motivation	3.46	0.92	Moderate
Employee	3.43	1.02	Moderate
Perceptions	3.39	0.87	Moderate
Total	3.43	0.88	Moderate

As seen above, the Interpersonal perception scores the highest mean with the value of 3.63. On the other hand, the lowest mean recorded was Interpersonal Relationship with mean value 3.28. The overall construct of Interpersonal relationship is 3.43 which is a moderate level. The next objective is to identify job satisfaction levels at PT Pekebunan Nusantara 1. Table 9 below shows the summary of the results:

Table 9: Level of Job Satisfaction

Job Dimensions	Mean Score	Standard Deviation σ	Level of Job Satisfaction
Mentally Challenging Work	3.84	0.77	High
An Appropriate Award	3.38	0.97	Moderate
Supporting Working Condition	3.10	1.08	Moderate
Supportive Colleagues	3.44	0.84	Moderate
Total	3.44	0.92	Moderate

The table above shows the summary of the level of job satisfaction at PT Pekebunan 1. Of the 4 dimensions, the dimension of supporting working condition showed the lowest level with mean value of 3.10 (moderate), whereas the highest dimension is the mentally challenging work with the mean value of 3.84 (high). The average mean value for job satisfaction is moderate- 3.44.

4. Discussion and conclusions

Study 1- Based on the findings, 66% of the respondents at PT Semen Padang possesses high level of emotional intelligent with the total mean is 3.79. According to Goleman (1998) Emotional Intelligence is the capacity for recognizing owns feelings and those of others, self-motivating and for managing emotions well in and in your relationships. This means the majority of the organizations' members in PT Semen Padang have good awareness about the emotion which exist in themselves and in others. It also indicate that they are able to control and use emotional aspect of human to keep motivate themselves and manage relationship in work. Having high emotional intelligent employee is a very good advantage, because it is easier to maintain their motivation to do good productivity of work. Ravi and Christopher Moses (2002), argued that the ability to manage our relationships and ourselves effectively and the ability to maintain relationship with others make someone a great team player. Mathur's (2000) research on EI shows that a person with a commanding level of EI will have a positive attitude towards all aspects of life. Stein (2009) said that emotional intelligent helps employees to efficiently cope with change and accomplish its goals will be easier to help themselves to get satisfaction from their work. This could be seen at PT Semen Padang members show good performance.

The second objective, identifying the level of job satisfaction is next. From the findings, 83.5% of the respondents how high level of job satisfaction with the total mean is 4.73. This indicates that most of respondents at PT Semen Padang feel satisfied working there. This high score indicates that they get very good experience by working in PT Semen Padang, and they feel happy about it.

According to Andrisani (1978), job satisfaction is an employee's overall evaluation of the job or specific components or tasks associated with the job. The dimensions are based on work done by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007). These dimensions are able to express the job satisfaction in the right term. (Zeytinoglu et.al. , 2012) They also feel their operating procedure and the nature work fit them nicely and are satisfied with their work environment. It also shows they are feel very comfortable with their supervisor and co-worker.

The last objective of this research is to identify the relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction in PT Semen Padang. From the result of this research, the relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction is significant, positive and weak. This means that emotional intelligent influences their job satisfaction. This concurs with Johnson (2008) who stated that there is a correlation between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction. Many past researches show the relationship between emotional intelligent and job satisfaction such as (Norhayati, 2009; Pau and Sabri, 2012; Sebaradar and Asadi, 2013, Ford, 2010; Anari, 2012; Ignat and Clipa, 2012; Mehdi et al, 2012). It means the higher the employees have emotional intelligence, the more likely that they are satisfied with their jobs (Dong and Howard, 2014; Pau and Sabri, 2012). There is specific reason for this phenomenon. According to Shooshtarian et al (2013), employees with high EI are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction because they are more adept at appraising and regulating their own emotions than employees with low EI. This condition could happen at PT Semen Padang. However, in this case, the influence is found to be weak.

Study 2- the analysis of the level of interpersonal relationship among employee in PT Perkebunan Nusantara 1 was measured through 7 dimensions. The seven dimensions are interpersonal relationship, interpersonal needs, interpersonal perception, the relationship between superiors and subordinates. The results of the analysis show the level of interpersonal relationship between employees at the moderate level, which is 3.43 with standard deviation 0.88. The result showed that the level of interpersonal relationship within the organization is at a moderate level. This shows that the majority of respondents feel that the interpersonal communication in the organization exists but only at a moderate level. However, it does not mean that interpersonal relationship could not be improved. There is still more room for improvement in interpersonal relationship practices in the organization. The findings is consistent with Treece (1994), which argued that interpersonal relationship cannot be separated from the management functions of the organization as it ensure the organization to function as expected.

Analysis of the data also shows that the level of job satisfaction in PT Perkebunan Nusantara 1, measured by four dimensions; mentally challenging work, an appropriate award, supporting working condition, and supportive colleagues is moderate at 3.44 mean level. However, the dimension of mentally challenging work scored the highest mean of 3.87. This shows that the employess prefer challenges in their job and gets satisfaction from it. These results are consistent with Organ & Near (1985) and Robbins (1996) which found that job satisfaction comprises employee feelings regarding multiple aspects of the job. There is also a

cognitive component to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was found to be influenced by several factors as shown below:

- i. The job itself- work performed by an employee with a satisfactory element itself.
- ii. The co-worker- someone who always interacts in the performance of work, will make employees do better on the job get job satisfaction.
- iii. The employer- someone who is always giving instruction or guidance in the implementation of employment and could influence job satisfaction.

At PT Pekebunan Nusantara 1, it is therefore observed that the first factor above plays the bigger role in influencing job satisfaction. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that although both variables, interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction scored moderate mean levels, the correlation is recorded as high at a 0.9 mean score. This suggests that interpersonal relationship does indeed influence job satisfaction. As humans, employees rely strongly on their colleagues. Good relationships and organizational communication contributes to job satisfaction as suggested by Izzo (1993), Williams et al (2003) and Rubina (2009). Therefore, the employers at PT Pekebunan 1 has to develop better interpersonal skills among their staff and open communication channels in the organization. This will result in higher job satisfaction and eventually higher productivity.

As a conclusions, both studies done in the Indonesian setting has uncovered the determinants of job satisfaction. It was found that emotional intelligent could influence the level of job satisfaction. EI helps individuals to be positive in their lives and as a result always maintains a positive outlook at the workplace and therefore could achieve satisfaction in what they do. Even though the study only uncovered a weak relationship, other studies have found that EI could be a strong determinant towards job satisfaction. The second study was able to determine that interpersonal relationship and good communication could also contribute to satisfaction at the workplace. As the study shows that the relationship is strong, organizations should pay more attention in creating working spaces and environment which is conducive for open channel communication and interpersonal skills to be developed.

5. Reference

- Anari, N. N. (2012). Teachers: emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. **Journal of Workplace Learning**, 24(4), 256-269. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Andrisani, P. (1978). Levels and trends in job satisfaction, 1966-1972. In Andrisani, P. (Ed.). **Work Attitudes and Labor Market Experience**. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Bradberry, T., and Greaves, J. (2005). **The Emotional Intelligence Quick Book: Everything You Need to Know to Put Your EQ to Work**. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Christen, M., Iyer, G. and Soberman, D. (2006). Job Satisfaction, Job Performance, and Effort: A Reexamination Using Agency Theory., **Journal of Marketing**, 70, 137-150.
- Cooper, R. K. and Sawaf, A. (1997). **Executive EQ: Emotional Intelligence in Leaders and Organizations**. NY: Grosset/Putnam.
- Crossman, A., and Abou-Zaki, B. (2003). Job satisfaction and employee performance of Lebanese banking staff., **Journal of Managerial Psychology**, 18(4), 368-376. MCB UP Limited.
- Dong, Q., and Howard, T. (2014). **Emotional Intelligence, Trust and Job Satisfaction**. **Competition Forum**, 4(2), 381-388. Retrieved from <https://vpn.utm.my/docview/214854934?accountid=41678>
- Donohue, S. M., and Heywood, J. S. (2004). Job satisfaction and gender: an expanded specification from the NLSY., **International Journal of Manpower**, 25(2), 211-234. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. (2007). **Measuring job satisfaction in surveys - Comparative analytical report**. Wyattville Road, Loughlinstown, Dublin 18, Ireland.
- Ford, J. M. (2010). **The Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction: A Study of Front-Line Staff at a Large Healthcare Organization.**, Minneapolis: Capella University. (unpublished dissertation)
- Goleman, D. (1995). **Emotional Intelligence: [why it can matter more than IQ]**., New York: Bantam.

-
- Goleman, D. (1998). **Working with Emotional Intelligence**. New Delhi: Bantam Books.
- Ignat, A. A., and Clipa, O. (2012). Teachers' Satisfaction with Life, Job Satisfaction and Their Emotional Intelligence. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 33, 498 – 502. Elsevier Ltd. Selection and PSIWORLD2011.
- Lin, S. & Jennifer Shu-Jen Lin, J. S. (2011). Impacts of coworkers' relationships on organizational commitment- and intervening effects of job satisfaction., **African Journal of Business Management**, 5(8), pp. 3396-3409.
- Locke, E. (1976), The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In Durincetti, M. D. (Ed.). **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology**. Rand McNally, Chicago, IL, pp. 1297-349.
- Mathur, D.M. (2000). Emotional Intelligence in Effective Management. **Indian Management**, 39 (II), 19-21
- Mehdi, M., Habib. H., Salah, N., Nahid, J., and Gashtaseb, A. (2012). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction among Coaches in Premier Under-20 Football League. **International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences**, 2(6). HR MARS.
- Norhayati binti ahmad. (2009). **Kecerdasan Emosi (EQ) dan Hubungannya dengan Tahap Kerjaya dalam Kalangan Guru Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Nitar**. Skudai: Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. (unpublished dissertation)
- Pau, A., and Sabri, B. A. (2012). Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction in Newly Qualified Malaysian Dentists. **Asia-Pacific Journal of Public Health**, XX(X), 1–9. Sage Publications.
- Robbins, Stephen P, 2001, **Organizational Behavior**, New Jersey: Prentice Hall International, Inc.
- Rubina Bhatti, (2009) "Interpersonal relationships: students, teachers and librarians in university libraries of Pakistan", **Library Review**, Vol. 58 Iss: 5, pp.362 – 371.
- Stein, S. (2009). **Emotional Intelligence for Dummies**. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Spector, P. E. (1994). **Job Satisfaction Survey**. Department of Psychology, University of South Florida.
- Shooshtarian, Z., Ameli, F., and Aminilari, M. (2013). The Effect of Labor's Emotional Intelligence on Their Job Satisfaction, Job Performance and Commitment. **Iranian Journal of Management Studies (IJMS)**, 6(1), 29-45. Zahooshtarian.
- Williams, E. S., Konrad, T. R., Linzer, M., McMurray, J., Pathman, D. E., Gerrity, M., Schwartz, M. K. Scheckler, W. E., Van Kirk, J., Rhodes, E., and Douglas, J. (2003). Refining the Measurement of Physician Job Satisfaction: Results from the Physician Worklife Survey. **Medical Care**. 37(11), 1140-54.

PERANAN JURULATIH PROGRAM LATIHAN KHIDMAT NEGARA

Dr. Mohd Nasir Markom, PM Dr. Nik Hasnaa Nik Mahmood, Tn Hj Mohd Shukri Hj Nain

PENGENALAN

1.1 Pendahuluan

Jurulatih memainkan peranan yang sangat penting dalam proses pengajaran pembelajaran (Knowls, Halton & Swanson, 1998). Mc Lagan (1989) mencadangkan beberapa peranan iaitu penasihat strategik, perancang dan pereka bentuk sistem sumber manusia, konsultan perubahan organisasi, konsultan reka bentuk organisasi, pakar program pembelajaran, konsultan pembangunan individu dan kerjaya, konsultan prestasi dan penyelidik. Pelbagai kajian lain turut dilakukan untuk mengenal pasti peranan jurulatih; termasuklah sebagai pemudah cara, pakar bidang, kaunselor, pemimpin atau pendorong, pelajar, ahli psikologi, pengurus, model tingkahlaku, dan manusia biasa (Raduwan *et al.*, 1989); penganalisis latihan, mereka bentuk modul, membangun dan membekalkan program latihan (Richard, 1993); pereka bentuk program, penganalisis keperluan, pembangun bahan pengajaran dan jurulatih (You, 1993); pemudah cara, mengendalikan perbincangan kumpulan serta menggalakkan interaksi antara pelatih (Ibrahim, 1996); fasilitator bagi menghasilkan proses pembelajaran aktif dalam kalangan pelatih (Wan Norjihan, 2003); strategis pembelajaran, pengurus projek, pakar profesional dan rakan kongsi (Bernthal *et al.* 2004). Goodyear *et al.* (2000) menyatakan peranan jurulatih iaitu; fasilitator, penasihat/kaunselor, penilai, penyelidik, ahli teknologi, perekabentuk dan pengurus/pentadbir.berkaitan pendaftaran pelatih, keselamatan, rekod, dan sebagainya. Sementara itu Wan Norjihan (2007) telah mengemukakan peranan agak berlainan iaitu sebagai jurulatih atau fasilitator muslim. Beliau menjelaskan jurulatih muslim mempunyai pelbagai peranan dalam satu masa iaitu sebagai da'ie atau pendakwah, penasihat, naqib (ketua lelaki) atau naqibah (ketua perempuan), kaunselor, sahabat, pemerhati, jurulatih, dan agen perubahan.

1.2 Latar Belakang Organisasi

Organisasi yang dipilih untuk tujuan kajian ini ialah Jabatan Latihan Khidmat Negara (JLKN). Jabatan ini bertanggungjawab dalam merancang dan melaksanakan Program Latihan Khidmat Negara (PLKN). PLKN merupakan kursus latihan wajib bagi mereka yang baru menamatkan persekolahan tingkatan lima di Malaysia. Ia bertujuan bagi pembinaan sahsiah diri bermatlamatkan membina dan mengukuhkan semangat patriotisme dalam kalangan generasi muda, memupuk perpaduan kaum serta integrasi nasional dan membentuk perwatakan positif menerusi nilai-nilai murni. Jangka masa latihan selama tiga bulan secara berkhemah dan berasrama. PLKN melaksanakan empat modul sepanjang tempoh latihan dilaksanakan iaitu *Modul fizikal, Modul Kenegaraan, Modul Pembinaan Karakter* dan *Modul Khidmat Komuniti*. Terdapat seramai hampir 4,000 jurulatih PLKN di seluruh Negara (UM, 18/2/08). Jurulatih ini dibahagikan kepada dua kumpulan iaitu jurulatih fizikal dan jurulatih *multiskills*.

1.3 Permasalahan Kajian

Adalah penting untuk organisasi mengenal pasti peranan dan kompetensi yang diperlukan oleh jurulatih bagi mencapai hasil kerja yang diharapkan. Langkah mengenal pasti peranan dan kompetensi bukan sekadar usaha untuk memenuhi strategi organisasi tetapi ia merupakan pencetus kepada semua aktiviti-aktiviti pengurusan bagi memenangi persaingan dengan pihak lawan (Lado & Wilson, 1994). Apabila peranan dan kompetensi telah dikenalpasti, maka program latihan boleh direka bentuk sesuai dengan kehendak organisasi (Ricciardi, 2005). Sehubungan itu, kajian ini dilaksanakan bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti peranan jurulatih Program Latihan Khidmat Negara (PLKN), Kajian ini dilakukan berlandaskan kepada beberapa premis yang dirasakan boleh dijadikan sebagai asas permasalahan kajian. Pertama, PLKN melibatkan ratusan ribu pelatih, menggunakan khidmat ribuan jurulatih, menelan belanja berbillion ringgit, tetapi sehingga kini belum ada kajian yang dilakukan berkaitan dengan peranan dan kompetensi dalam kalangan jurulatih PLKN (Pn. Faridah Borhan, JLKN, 2009), sedangkan kajian-kajian terdahulu dan kajian literatur (Kevin 2001; Schrick 1992 ; Lee 2006) menunjukkan kepentingan kajian mengenai peranan dan kompetensi jurulatih dalam meningkatkan keberkesanan latihan. Justeru, kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengisi kekosongan akibat jurang yang wujud. Kedua, telah wujud banyak laporan mengenai kelemahan atau masalah dalam kalangan jurulatih PLKN yang dilaporkan oleh media massa. Kelemahan atau masalah tersebut dilihat sebagai manifestasi kegagalan untuk mengisi sebahagian tafsiran Powers (1992:8) mengenai ciri- ciri jurulatih yang cemerlang. Oleh yang demikian, kajian ini diharap dapat membantu menjelaskan sebahagian perkara berkenaan khususnya berkaitan dengan peranan dan kompetensi yang dimiliki oleh jurulatih PLKN.

1.4 Persoalan Kajian

Berdasarkan permasalahan yang dibincangkan di atas, maka persoalan asas kajian ini ialah apakah peranan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN dalam menyampaikan dan melaksanakan program latihan bagi menghasilkan pelatih yang memiliki ciri-ciri kepimpinan, ketrampilan, dan nilai-nilai murni sesuai dengan matlamat yang diharapkan.

1.5 Objektif Kajian

Berdasarkan persoalan kajian di atas, maka objektif kajian ini dibentuk dan dinyatakan seperti berikut iaitu mengenalpasti peranan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih sewaktu mengendalikan program latihan PLKN.

1.6 Matlamat Kajian

Adalah diharapkan pada akhir kajian ini, penyelidik dapat mengenalpasti peranan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN seterusnya dapat membantu PLKN dalam merangka dan melaksanakan program secara lebih berkesan. Matlamat ini seiring dengan pandangan Sun & Shi (2008) yang menyatakan tujuan utama kajian peranan dan kompetensi ialah untuk; (1) mengenal pasti kemahiran asas, pengetahuan, kefahaman, dan atribut lain yang diperlukan oleh golongan profesional untuk mengendalikan latihan secara berkesan, (2) menyediakan senarai aktiviti yang boleh membentuk satu set peranan dan kompetensi dalam pembangunan latihan.

METODOLOGI KAJIAN

2.1 Reka Bentuk Kajian

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti tanggapan responden ke atas peranan jurulatih maka kaedah kaji selidik (survey) merupakan kaedah yang paling sesuai (Borg & Gall, 1989). Menurut Chua (2006) kaji selidik boleh dilakukan dengan memberi soal selidik atau menemu bual subjek kajian, atau kedua-duanya sekali. Untuk tujuan kajian ini, penyelidik menggunakan kedua-dua kaedah kaji selidik iaitu borang soal selidik dan disokong dengan temubual kumpulan fokus.

2.2 Instrumen Kajian

2.2.1 Borang soal selidik

Borang soal selidik untuk kajian ini bertujuan untuk menjawab persoalan mengenai peranan jurulatih. Peranan jurulatih dalam kajian ini dibahagikan kepada empat iaitu intelektual, sosial, pengurusan, dan teknikal berdasarkan tafsiran Berge (1995). Soalan-soalan untuk peranan jurulatih telah diambil dan diubahsuai daripada kajian Ahmad G. Abdulla (2004) berjudul "Distance Learning Student's Perceptions Of The Online Instructor Roles And Competencies". School Of Information Studies, The Florida State University. Phd Dissertation. Skala pengukuran untuk mengukur peranan jurulatih ialah menggunakan skala likert lima mata, seperti berikut; Sangat Tidak Setuju (STS), Tidak Setuju (TS), Agak Setuju (AS), dan Setuju (S) dan Sangat Setuju (SS).

Bahagian soalan terbuka mengemukakan beberapa soalan bersifat terbuka (open-ended) yang perlu dijawab oleh responden dalam kalangan pelatih dan jurulatih. Responden diminta memberikan pandangan dan cadangan mengenai peranan untuk jurulatih PLKN. Soalan terbuka ini diambil dan diubah suai daripada Lee (2006). Ini selaras dengan Mason (1996) yang mengatakan soalan terbuka akan membantu penerokaan yang lebih mendalam mengenai sesuatu persoalan menurut pandangan responden kajian.

2.2.2 Perbincangan Kumpulan Fokus

Untuk tujuan kajian ini, proses perbincangan kumpulan fokus berasaskan soalan semi struktur. Menurut Lee (2006), kaedah semi struktur bermaksud ia mengandungi soalan yang bersifat konvensional dimana senarai soalan disediakan terlebih dahulu sebagai panduan semasa soal jawab dengan responden. Chua (2006) pula menambah, soalan-soalan semi struktur boleh disusun semula semasa sesi perbincangan dijalankan, ayat soalan bersifat fleksibel dan boleh diubah suai, aras bahasa disesuaikan dengan keupayaan responden, penjelasan soalan yang kurang difahami boleh dilakukan, soalan-soalan boleh ditambah atau dikurang mengikut keperluan sewaktu perbincangan.

2.3 Pemilihan Kem PLKN

Untuk tujuan kajian ini kem yang dipilih hanya dihadkan kepada kem-kem di Semenanjung Malaysia sahaja atas faktor limitasi masa, wang dan tenaga. Kem-kem ini telah dikelompokkan oleh pihak JLKN kepada tujuh zon (Mejar Masita, 2009). Pemilihan kem bagi setiap zon, iaitu satu kem mewakili satu zon, dilakukan berdasarkan kaedah persampelan rawak mudah.

2.4 Populasi Dan Persampelan Kajian

2.4.1 Persampelan Pelatih

Dalam kajian ini, pelatih merujuk peserta PLKN yang mengikuti program ini bermula pada bulan Januari hingga Mac 2010. Jumlah keseluruhan populasi pelatih untuk tujuh kem terpilih ialah seramai 2,748 orang; sementara jumlah sampel pelatih yang dicadangkan sebagai responden mewakili tujuh kem adalah seramai 1,356 orang. Pemilihan responden pelatih berdasarkan persampelan rawak mudah.

2.4.2 Persampelan Jurulatih

Jumlah populasi jurulatih bagi tujuh kem PLKN yang terpilih ialah seramai 260 orang. Daripada jumlah tersebut, bilangan jurulatih yang dicadangkan sebagai sampel kajian berdasarkan jadual Krejeie R.V. dan Morgan D.W. adalah 224 orang. Jumlah jurulatih yang memberi maklum balas ialah seramai 124 orang. Pemilihan responden pelatih berdasarkan persampelan rawak mudah.

2.4.2 Pengamal PSM

Pengamal PSM pula ialah mereka yang mengikuti program *Train-The-Trainer* anjuran NIOSH, Bangi, Selangor pada 23-26 November 2010, bertempat di pejabat NIOSH Wilayah Selatan, Taman Teknologi, Johor. Mereka umumnya terlibat dalam pelaksanaan fungsi-fungsi PSM sama ada perancangan, pelaksanaan dan penilaian dalam tugas-tugas hakiki mereka. Populasi pengamal PSM adalah seramai 17 orang. Kumpulan ini dipecahkan secara rawak kepada dua kumpulan kecil yang bertindak sebagai kumpulan fokus, dimana setiap kumpulan mengandungi 8 dan 9 orang ahli.

2.5 Kaedah Analisis Data

2.5.1 Kaedah analisis borang soal selidik.

Bagi mengenal pasti peranan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN, data dianalisis menggunakan perkiraan min, sisihan piawai dan peratusan.

2.5.2 Kaedah analisis soalan terbuka

Data yang diperolehi daripada soalan terbuka telah dianalisis secara analisis kandungan untuk mengenal pasti tema-tema utama dan kemudian dikategorikan mengikut topik yang bersesuaian (Lee, 2006).

2.5.3 Kaedah analisis kumpulan fokus

Secara umumnya analisis kumpulan fokus adalah untuk menentukan kategori, hubungan, dan jangkaan yang memberitahu kita tentang pandangan responden mengenai topik kajian (McCracken, 1988; dalam Lee 2006). Menurut Chua (2006), data yang dikumpul melalui kumpulan fokus perlu disusun secara sistematik. Pada kebiasaannya, setelah beberapa masa proses berjalan, kita akan dapat mengesan corak tertentu tentang jawapan responden. Corak ini boleh dijadikan panduan untuk menyusun dan menganalisis data. Walau bagaimanapun tiada cara yang tetap untuk menyusun data perbincangan kumpulan fokus. Pengkaji boleh menyusunnya secara sistematik mengikut kesukaan diri (Chua, 2006).

ANALISIS DATA

3.1 Pengenalan

Secara keseluruhan jumlah responden (pelatih dan jurulatih) yang menjawab borang soal selidik ialah seramai 1,284 (pelatih) +124 (jurulatih) = 1,408 orang. Jumlah peratus keseluruhan = $1,408 / 1,580 \times 100 = 89.12\%$. Peratus pungutan borang soal selidik dianggap baik iaitu 89.12% dan pengkaji amat berpuashati dengan bantuan dan kerjasama yang diberikan oleh pihak kem-kem PLKN sewaktu proses edaran dan pungutan borang soal selidik dijalankan.

3.2 Analisis Data Untuk Peranan Jurulatih

Analisis bahagian ini meliputi pandangan responden mengenai peranan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN bagi mencapai keberkesanan latihan yang diharapkan. Ia dibahagikan kepada empat peranan iaitu intelektual, sosial, pengurusan, dan teknikal.

3.2.1 Peranan Intelektual

Jadual 3a : Tanggapan Responden Terhadap Peranan Intelektual Dalam Kalangan Jurulatih PLKN

S	Item	Kekerapan Peratus					Min	Sp
		STS	TS	AS	S	SS		
12	Jurulatih menggunakan pelbagai kaedah pembelajaran seperti perbincangan kumpulan kecil, perdebatan, dan pertukaran idea antara perseorangan.	9 0.6	38 2.7	184 13.1	495 35.2	682 48.4	4.28	.838
17	Jurulatih memberikan nasihat, cadangan, komen atau kenyataan bersifat terbuka pada akhir sesi pembelajaran sebagai tambahan kepada kuliah yang disampaikan.	26 1.8	63 4.5	223 15.8	476 33.8	620 44.0	4.14	.962
15	Jurulatih meminta penglibatan pelatih dalam aktiviti sebagai sebahagian daripada keperluan kursus	28 2.0	63 4.5	267 19.0	568 40.3	482 34.2	4.00	.944
14	Jurulatih memberikan persoalan kepada pelatih dan melaksanakan aktiviti - aktiviti untuk pelatih menjawab persoalan yang dikemukakan serta berkongsi pengalaman mereka.	19 1.3	63 4.5	285 20.2	596 42.3	445 31.6	3.98	.905
13	Jurulatih memberikan peluang untuk perbincangan atau perbualan secara peribadi antara dua atau lebih pelatih yang mempunyai persamaan minat atau pendapat.	41 2.9	136 9.7	388 27.6	491 34.9	352 25.0	3.69	1.04 0
11	Jurulatih bersifat fleksibel, dan memberi peluang kepada pelatih untuk berbincang. Jurulatih tidak mendominasi perbincangan sebaliknya hanya memandu	40 2.8	97 6.9	458 32.5	528 37.5	285 20.2	3.65	.970

	perbincangan ke arah matlamat yang ingin di capai.							
16	Jurulatih mengeluarkan pandangan atau idea yang bersifat konflik atau berlawanan dengan pelatih, yang membuka kepada perbincangan, perdebatan atau maklum balas di kalangan pelatih.	71 5.0	203 14.4	418 29.7	461 32.7	255 18.1	3.44	1.09 6
	Jumlah	234	663	2223	3615	3121	27.1 8	6.75 5
	Purata	33	95	318	516	446	3.88	0.96 5
	Peratus Keseluruhan	2.34	6.75	22.5 8	36.6 5	31.68		

n=1408; S=soalan

Jadual 3a menunjukkan tanggapan responden terhadap peranan intelektual yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN. Min keseluruhan ialah 27.18 dimana purata min untuk peranan intelektual ialah 3.88 dengan sisihan piawai 0.965.

3.2.2 Peranan Sosial

Jadual 3b : Tanggapan Responden Terhadap Peranan Sosial Dalam Kalangan Jurulatih PLKN

S	Item	Kekerapan Peratus					Min	Sp
		STS	TS	AS	S	SS		
18	Jurulatih menggalakan pelatih memperkenalkan diri mereka masing-masing bagi membantu membentuk perasaan komuniti (sense of community).	28 2.0	58 4.1	281 20.0	521 37.0	520 36.9	4.03	.955
23	Jurulatih memberikan pujian atau dorongan kepada pelatih yang bertingkah laku baik atau mengeluarkan pendapat yang bernas sewaktu perbincangan.	47 3.3	79 5.6	300 21.3	476 33.8	506 35.9	3.93	1.046
24	Jurulatih selalu mengingatkan pelatih tentang peraturan dan etika bagi mengelakkan perselisihan pendapat atau pertengkaran.	54 3.8	101 7.2	293 20.8	471 33.5	489 34.7	3.88	1.084
20	Jurulatih mengamalkan kaedah bertolak ansur	120 8.5	161 11.4	365 25.9	418 29.7	344 24.4	3.50	1.216
21	Jurulatih menerima semua jenis komen dan pandangan daripada pelatih sama ada positif atau negatif; selepas itu barulah jurulatih menghadapi pandangan yang bersifat negatif bagi mengelakkan pelatih ditertawakan oleh rakan-rakan yang lain dan ini akan membantutkan pelatih untuk melibatkan diri.	98 7.0	192 13.6	390 27.7	391 27.8	337 23.9	3.48	1.192
22	Jurulatih menggunakan kaedah secara peribadi (privately) bagi menegur atau meminta perubahan tingkah laku yang	129 9.2	206 14.6	424 30.1	392 27.8	257 18.3	3.31	1.193

	negatif di kalangan pelatih.							
19	Jurulatih menerima kehadiran dan mempersilakan pelatih yang datang lewat.	215 15.3	255 18.1	342 24.3	358 25.4	238 16.9	3.11	1.309
	Jumlah	691	1052	2395	3027	2688	25.24	7.995
	Purata	99	150	342	433	384	3.61	1.142
	Peratus	7.03	10.65	24.30	30.75	27.27		

n= 1408; S= soalan

Jadual 3b menunjukkan tanggapan responden terhadap peranan sosial yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN. Min keseluruhan untuk peranan sosial ialah 25.24 dimana purata min adalah 3.61 dan sisihan piawai 1.142.

3.2.3 Peranan Pengurusan

Jadual 3c: Tanggapan Responden Terhadap Peranan Pengurusan Dalam Kalangan Jurulatih PLKN

S	Item	Frekuensi Peratus					Min	Sp
		STS	TS	AS	S	SS		
29	Jurulatih menggalakan setiap pelatih bertukar ganti untuk menjadi ketua dalam kumpulan perbincangan.	43 3.1	63 4.5	170 12.1	346 24.6	786 55.8	4.2 6	1.03 3
31	Jurulatih membuat kesimpulan atau refleksi secara efektif dalam setiap akhir perbincangan mengenai apa yang disampaikan.	34 2.4	57 4.0	269 19.1	428 30.4	620 44.0	4.1 0	1.00 1
30	Jurulatih merancang, membangun dan mengedarkan bahan kursus pada awal setiap program.	40 2.8	84 6.0	290 20.6	513 36.4	481 34.2	3.9 3	1.01 9
25	Jurulatih menyediakan maklumat-maklumat pentadbiran seperti pendaftaran, kemasukan, arahan-arahan terkini, dan sesi kaunseling untuk pelatih.	70 5.0	120 8.5	376 26.7	502 35.7	340 24.1	3.6 5	1.08 6
26	Jurulatih sedar dan sentiasa menepati masa yang diperuntukkan untuk beliau melibatkan diri dalam sesuatu perbincangan dengan pelatih.	82 5.8	136 9.7	352 25.0	467 33.2	371 26.3	3.6 5	1.14 0
27	Jurulatih bijak mengubah sesuatu perbincangan yang kaku, dan mengarahkan interaksi ke arah perbincangan yang lebih berfaedah.	73 5.2	135 9.6	375 26.6	476 33.8	349 24.8	3.6 3	1.11 0
28	Jurulatih menyediakan ruangan email untuk menggalakkan pelatih menyertai perbincangan, perdebatan, dan mendapatkan pandangan-pandangan mengenai topik yang telah dibincangkan.	282 20.0	306 21.7	413 29.3	269 19.1	138 9.8	2.7 7	1.24 5
	Jumlah	624	901	2245	3001	3085	25.99	7.634
	Purata	89	129	321	428	441	3.71	1.091
	Purata	6.32	9.16	22.00	30.40	31.32		

n= 1408; S= soalan

Jadual 3c menunjukkan tanggapan responden terhadap peranan pengurusan yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN. Min keseluruhan bagi peranan pengurusan ialah 25.99, dimana purata min untuk peranan pengurusan ialah 3.71 dan sisihan piawai 1.091.

3.2.4 Peranan Teknikal

Jadual 3d :Tanggapan Responden Terhadap Peranan Teknikal Dalam Kalangan Jurulatih PLKN

S	Item	Frekuensi					Min	Sp
		Peratus						
		ST S	TS	AS	S	SS		
36	Jurulatih menggalakan pelatih baru untuk berkerja sama dengan rakan-rakan pelatih yang lebih berpengalaman mengenai aspek teknikal.	46 3.3	92 6.5	322 22.9	476 33.8	472 33.5	3.88	1.051
33	Jurulatih memberikan maklum balas dengan segera jika wujud masalah teknikal.	76 5.4	130 9.2	380 27.0	502 35.7	320 22.7	3.61	1.096
34	Jurulatih memiliki satu buku kerja/buku nota yang bertindak sebagai panduan untuk hal-hal berkaitan teknikal, maklumat atau prosedur.	94 6.7	160 11.4	338 24.0	449 31.9	367 26.1	3.59	1.180
38	Jurulatih mempunyai pengetahuan asas teknologi seperti komputer.	105 7.5	143 10.2	405 28.8	425 30.2	330 23.4	3.52	1.170
35	Jurulatih menyediakan masa yang mencukupi kepada pelatih baru untuk menyesuaikan diri dengan teknologi sebelum menyuruh mereka mengambil bahagian.	123 8.7	193 13.7	403 28.6	429 30.5	260 18.5	3.36	1.183
32	Jurulatih tahu atau mengenali orang yang boleh memperbaiki atau menyediakan sokongan teknikal jika berlaku kerosakan peralatan atau bila diperlukan.	100 7.1	175 12.4	506 35.9	414 29.4	213 15.1	3.33	1.095
37	Jurulatih menyediakan bahan kuliah dalam email agar mudah dibaca oleh pelatih.	247 17.5	285 20.2	389 27.6	301 21.4	186 13.2	2.92	1.281
	Jumlah	791	1178	2743	2996	2148	24.21	8.056
	Purata	113	168	392	428	307	3.46	1.151
	Peratus	8.03	11.93	27.84	30.40	21.80		

n=1,408; S= Soalan

Jadual 3d menunjukkan tanggapan responden terhadap peranan teknikal yang dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN. Min keseluruhan bagi peranan teknikal ialah 24.21 dimana purata min ialah 3.46 dan sisihan piawai 1.151.

Secara keseluruhan dapatan menunjukkan peranan paling penting untuk jurulatih PLKN ialah peranan intelektual (min 3.88), diikuti oleh peranan pengurusan (min 3.72), peranan sosial (3.61) dan akhir sekali peranan teknikal (3.46). Purata min keseluruhan bagi peranan jurulatih

ialah 3.67 dan sisihan piawai 1.087. Min-min ini jika dikategorikan kepada tiga kategori min berdasarkan analisis skor min (Jadual 3.8.1.2); maka peranan intelektual dan pengurusan berada pada min tahap tinggi, sementara peranan sosial dan teknikal pada min tahap sederhana.

Lain-lain Peranan Untuk Jurulatih PLKN

Selain daripada keempat-empat peranan yang dikemukakan di atas, responden kajian (melalui soalan terbuka) turut mencadangkan beberapa peranan lain yang boleh dimainkan oleh jurulatih PLKN. Peranan-peranan yang dicadangkan mengikut keutamaan adalah seperti berikut; peranan berkaitan keagamaan, peranan sebagai 'role model', peranan penasihat/kaunseling/pembimbing, peranan keibubapaan, peranan pendorong dan motivasi, peranan pengurusan dan peranan mentor-mentee.

3.3 Analisis Data Untuk Proses Perbincangan Kumpulan Fokus

Hasil perbincangan kumpulan fokus telah meletakkan susunan peranan jurulatih mengikut keutamaan seperti berikut iaitu peranan intelektual, peranan pengurusan, peranan sosial dan peranan teknikal. Secara ringkasnya pandangan kumpulan fokus mengenai peranan jurulatih PLKN adalah selari dengan dapatan soal selidik.

PERBINCANGAN DAN RUMUSAN

4.1 Pengenalan

Hasil kajian mendapati peranan paling penting untuk jurulatih PLKN berdasarkan nilai min tertinggi ialah intelektual, diikuti oleh peranan pengurusan, peranan sosial dan akhir sekali peranan teknikal. Ini bermakna jurulatih perlu memberi perhatian mengenai aspek intelektual dan pengurusan dalam proses latihan yang disampaikan, disamping perlu lebih bekerja keras dalam meningkatkan peranan mereka dalam aspek sosial dan teknikal. Perbincangan mengenai peranan-peranan di atas adalah seperti berikut;

4.1.1 Intelektual

Peranan paling penting yang perlu dimainkan oleh jurulatih ialah peranan intelektual. Ini sekaligus menyokong bahawa jurulatih sepertimana juga seorang guru, pendidik, pensyarah atau mana-mana individu yang terlibat di dalam proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran perlu mengutamakan keupayaan intelektual berbanding keupayaan yang lain. Peranan intelektual berkisar tentang kebolehan dan kemahiran intelektual yang dimiliki oleh jurulatih (Raduwan *et al.*, 1989). Melalui peranan intelektual ini jurulatih sepatutnya boleh menggunakan pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang dimiliki untuk mengemukakan pelbagai pandangan dan persoalan disamping melontarkan idea-idea bersifat konflik untuk melatih memberi maklum balas. Ia juga seharusnya mampu menarik perhatian pelatih dan membantu pelatih lebih fokus dalam perbincangan. Jurulatih perlu menggunakan pelbagai kaedah pembelajaran seperti perbincangan kumpulan kecil, perdebatan, dan pertukaran idea antara

perseorangan bagi menggalakkan penglibatan pelatih. Ini selaras dengan pandangan bahawa seorang jurulatih merupakan pemudah cara yang boleh mengendalikan pelbagai kaedah perbincangan secara berkesan (Ibrahim, 1996). Jurulatih juga boleh menggunakan daya intelektual merangkumi pengetahuan dan pengalaman yang dimiliki untuk merangsang penglibatan pelatih melalui pelbagai kaedah pembelajaran, memberikan komen atau pandangan berkaitan isu-isu yang dibincangkan, melaksanakan sesi soal jawab bagi memastikan pelatih sentiasa fokus dalam pembelajaran serta menggalakkan interaksi dalam kalangan pelatih.

Walau bagaimanapun jurulatih dianggap masih kurang keberanian atau keupayaan untuk mengeluarkan idea atau hujah yang bersifat mencabar minda pelatih bagi yang membuka kepada perbincangan, perdebatan atau maklum balas di kalangan pelatih. Ia mungkin disebabkan kurang pengetahuan dan pengalaman. Oleh itu jurulatih disaran agar meningkatkan lagi keupayaan intelektual dan kemahiran dalam mengeluarkan idea, pandangan atau hujah yang berlainan atau bersifat konflik bagi mencetuskan perbincangan dalam kalangan pelatih, khususnya apabila suasana perbincangan menjadi hambar atau membosankan. Ini selaras dengan pandangan pengkaji lepas bahawa jurulatih adalah penyelidik yang mampu membina dan mengemukakan idea dan pengetahuan baru sewaktu mengendalikan proses latihan (Goodyear *et al.*, 2000; McLagan, 1989; Abu Daud *et al.*, 1989).

4.1.2 Pengurusan

Peranan pengurusan melibatkan kerja-kerja pengurusan atau pentadbiran seperti menyediakan kandungan kursus, penetapan objektif pembelajaran, jadual waktu, peraturan, menguruskan perbincangan dan sebagainya. Peranan ini diletakkan sebagai kedua terpenting, menunjukkan bahawa jurulatih bukan sekadar hanya menyampaikan silibus sahaja tetapi juga perlu memainkan peranan sebagai pentadbir (Thach, 1995) dan pengurus program latihan (William, 2000; Thach 1995) yang berkesan. Di antara aspek pengurusan yang dilihat penting ialah keupayaan jurulatih mengurus dan mengendalikan perbincangan dengan sebaiknya dan berupaya membuat kesimpulan atau refleksi secara efektif pada akhir setiap sesi perbincangan. Ini selaras dengan pandangan bahawa peranan penting seorang jurulatih ialah mengendalikan perbincangan kumpulan secara berkesan (Ibrahim, 1995) serta berupaya bertindak sebagai pemudahcara yang menggalakkan perbincangan kumpulan berjalan dengan aktif (Raduwan *et al.*, 1989).

Walau bagaimanapun, dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa pengurusan jurulatih dalam hal-hal penggunaan email iaitu menyediakan ruangan emel untuk menggalakkan pelatih menyertai perbincangan, perdebatan, dan mendapatkan pandangan-pandangan mengenai topik yang telah dibincangkan masih di tahap rendah. Ini mungkin menunjukkan proses pengajaran pembelajaran yang melibatkan penggunaan emel, komputer, atau internet masih kurang atau tidak diberi perhatian.

Jurulatih juga perlu menghadapi persoalan tentang bagaimana menguruskan pelatih yang terdiri daripada pelbagai latarbelakang, bagaimana menghadapi pelatih yang bermasalah, membina hubungan dengan pelatih, hubungan sesama jurulatih, serta bagaimana mengurus pihak atasan dan ibu bapa. Keberkesanan pengurusan yang baik akan meningkatkan hubungan antara jurulatih dengan pelatih serta pihak yang lain, seterusnya membina suasana iklim pembelajaran yang sihat dan melicinkan pentadbiran (Richard, 1993).

4.1.3 Sosial

Peranan sosial bermaksud kebolehan jurulatih PLKN untuk membina suasana mesra dan persekitaran sosial yang saling menerima antara satu sama lain. Ini akan membantu meningkatkan kejayaan dalam proses penerimaan dan pembelajaran pelatih. Keupayaan jurulatih untuk membina suasana pembelajaran yang lebih mesra dan bersifat penerimaan sosial adalah penting dalam menjayakan proses pembelajaran atau latihan (Ahmad, 2004). Peranan jurulatih menggalakkan pelatih memperkenalkan diri boleh membangunkan rasa kohesif kumpulan, sifat kepunyaan serta meningkatkan hubungan sesama pelatih dalam kumpulan. Langkah ini boleh menggalakkan interaksi atau pembelajaran yang lebih aktif dikalangan pelatih (Ibrahim, 1996; Wan Norjihan, 2003). Langkah membina kejelekitan dan kerapatan dalam kalangan ahli kumpulan adalah sangat penting dalam mempengaruhi proses pembelajaran. Dapatan ini mengesahkan pandangan pengkaji-pengkaji terdahulu bahawa proses pembelajaran adalah lebih kepada kontruks sosial. Dalam konteks ini, teknologi pengajaran hanya sebagai alat bantu, dan bukan sebaliknya (White & Weight, 2000).

Dalam konteks PLKN, kemahiran sosial lebih ditumpukan kepada bagaimana jurulatih seharusnya berinteraksi dengan pelatih. Ini boleh dicapai dengan memahami persoalan apakah yang pelatih harapkan daripada seorang jurulatih. Jurulatih PLKN seharusnya tidak sekadar melihat hubungan dengan pelatih sebagai hubungan guru-murid tetapi lebih daripada itu. Pelatih inginkan jurulatih sebagai pembimbing, penasihat, pendorong (Raduwan *et al.*, 1989; Rae, 1991; Ibrahim, 1995; William, 2000); juga sebagai kaunselor, sahabat, ibu bapa, orang yang mengambil berat dan menyayangi mereka (Abu Daud *et al.*, 1989; Raduwan *et al.*, 1989; Wan Norjihan, 2007). Oleh itu peranan sosial jurulatih menjadi semakin penting dan mencabar.

4.1.4 Teknikal

Peranan teknikal bermaksud jurulatih perlu terlibat atau berperanan dalam hal-hal berkaitan dengan aspek teknikal. Dalam hal ini, jurulatih perlu menyediakan satu keadaan dimana pelatih atau peserta kursus akan merasa selesa apabila menggunakan kemudahan teknikal, sistem atau peralatan yang disediakan. Ini selaras dengan pandangan bahawa jurulatih juga berperanan sebagai ahli teknologi yang membantu pelatih dalam hal teknologi pembelajaran (Goodyear *et al.*, 2000).

Dalam hal ini, jurulatih boleh menggalakan pelatih baru untuk berkerja sama dengan rakan-rakan pelatih yang lebih berpengalaman mengenai aspek teknikal dinilai sebagai paling penting, memberikan maklum balas dengan segera jika wujud masalah teknikal dan memiliki buku kerja yang bertindak sebagai panduan untuk hal-hal berkaitan teknikal, maklumat atau prosedur. Dapatan di atas menunjukkan bahawa pengetahuan jurulatih dalam aspek teknikal adalah penting, tetapi apa yang lebih penting ialah keupayaan jurulatih dalam hal-hal yang melibatkan pengurusan teknikal. Jurulatih mesti mengetahui keupayaan atau limitasi mereka dalam aspek teknikal, dan bersedia mencari bantuan jika berlaku masalah. Sebagai contoh, untuk memastikan tidak berlaku gangguan semasa proses pembelajaran yang boleh mengganggu konsentrasi pelatih, maka sebaiknya jurulatih mencari pembantu teknikal lebih awal bagi menolong mereka jika timbul masalah berkaitan aspek-aspek teknikal.

Proses pengajaran pembelajaran yang melibatkan penggunaan email, komputer, atau internet masih kurang atau tidak diberi perhatian dalam konteks PLKN. Dalam hal ini, mungkin sudah sampai masanya pihak pentadbiran kem PLKN atau pihak JLKN sendiri

mengambil berat mengenai aspek teknikal seperti penggunaan internet, email atau *e-learning*. Langkah-langkah ini termasuklah menyediakan kemudahan infrastruktur yang mencukupi, melatih kakitangan, mengintergrasikan aspek teknikal sebagai bahan pengajaran serta lainnya. Ini secara tidak langsung boleh membantu meningkatkan lagi keberkesanan proses pengajaran dan latihan yang dilaksanakan. Cadangan ini mengambilkira pandangan Bachler (1997) yang menyatakan bahawa jurulatih masa kini perlu melaksanakan latihan, menguasai teknologi, dan mempunyai tanggung jawab lebih besar berbanding jurulatih masa dahulu yang bersifat rutin sahaja. Oleh itu mereka perlukan kompetensi yang lebih luas. Mereka tidak boleh lagi mengajar perkara yang sama sahaja, atau menggunakan kaedah yang sama sahaja seperti dulu.

4.2 Pandangan kumpulan fokus dan kajian lepas

Dapatan kajian disokong oleh pengamal PSM melalui proses perbincangan kumpulan fokus yang bersetuju bahawa jurulatih PLKN perlu memainkan peranan intelektual dalam mendidik dan menyampaikan pengetahuan serta pengalaman yang dimiliki kepada para pelatih. Jurulatih PLKN seharusnya mempunyai kekuatan intelektual meliputi aspek pengetahuan dan kemahiran dalam menghadapi pelatih yang pelbagai latarbelakang. Jurulatih juga sepatutnya berkebolehan dalam mengurus pengajaran dan pembelajaran secara berkesan, diikuti dengan kebolehan membina iklim sosial dan interaksi yang sihat dalam kalangan pelatih, serta dibantu dengan pengetahuan dan pengalaman dalam aspek-aspek teknikal.

Dapatan kajian ini secara umumnya hampir menyamai dapatan kajian oleh Berge (1995) dan Ahmad (2004) meskipun kajian-kajian ini dijalankan di dalam suasana dan responden yang berbeza. Berge umpamanya meletakkan keutamaan susunan peranan dimulai oleh intelektual, sosial, pengurusan dan teknikal. Sementara Ahmad (2004) pula telah melaksanakan kajian persepsi pelatih terhadap peranan jurulatih di Universiti Florida dan mendapati peranan paling penting untuk jurulatih ialah peranan intelektual, diikuti teknikal, pengurusan dan akhirnya peranan sosial. Ketiga-tiga kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa peranan intelektual tidak dinafikan merupakan peranan paling penting untuk seorang jurulatih.

4.3 Lain-lain Peranan Untuk Jurulatih PLKN

Selain daripada keempat-empat peranan yang dikemukakan di atas, jurulatih juga perlu memberi perhatian kepada beberapa peranan lain yang boleh mereka mainkan. Ia termasuk peranan berkaitan dengan (a) nilai-nilai keagamaan dan kerohanian, emosi, dan moral b) peranan sebagai *role model* iaitu menjadi contoh yang baik kepada pelatih sama ada daripada aspek tingkahlaku, pertuturan, pakaian dan sebagainya c) peranan penasihat/kaunseling/pembimbing iaitu menasihati dan membimbing pelatih jika timbul masalah peribadi dan persekitaran, serta sering menyuntik semangat kepada pelatih, agar menjadikan pelatih lebih memberi tumpuan kepada latihan(d) peranan keibubapaan iaitu keupayaan untuk mendengar masalah pelatih, mengambil berat tentang pelatih, menyayangi pelatih, menganggap pelatih seperti kaum keluarga/anak.atau adik mereka sendiri, memberi perhatian kepada kebimbangan dan keresahan pelatih(e) peranan pendorong dan motivasi kepada pelatih kearah kebaikan iaitu membantu pelatih menonjolkan potensi diri, juga bertindak sebagai motivator, fasilitator pembelajaran, serta sebagai sahabat untuk berkongsi perasaan dan bercerita(f) peranan pengurusan/kebajikan iaitu mengambil berat tentang hal-hal pengurusan dan kebajikan pelatih serta menjadi penghubung antara pelatih dengan keluarga, dan (g) menjadi mentor atau melaksanakan programmentor-mentee kepada pelatih dalam hal-hal pembelajaran dan pembentukan sahsiah, dan ketrampilan diri.

Kesimpulan

Berdasarkan perbincangan diatas, penyelidik menyimpulkan bahawa seseorang jurulatih perlu dan sepatutnya boleh memainkan pelbagai peranan yang diberikan. Peranan mana yang lebih penting bergantunglah kepada matlamat atau objektif sesuatu program itu dilaksanakan. Dalam konteks PLKN, susunan peranan mengikut keutamaan untuk jurulatih ialah intelektual, pengurusan, sosial dan teknikal. Jurulatih PLKN perlu meningkatkan tahap intelektual yang dimiliki disamping aspek-aspek yang lain. Ini tidak bermakna jurulatih PLKN hanya perlu fokus kepada peranan intelektual semata-mata. Selaras dengan anggapan bahawa jurulatih perlu memainkan pelbagai peranan (Thach & Murphy, 1995), maka sudah sampai masanya, jurulatih PLKN perlu meningkatkan kebolehan mereka memainkan peranan yang kurang diberi perhatian sebelum ini seperti peranan sosial dan teknikal. Kajian Ahmad (2004) umpamanya menunjukkan pelatih mahukan jurulatih memberi perhatian dan memperbaiki peranan dan kompetensi dalam semua aspek meliputi intelektual, sosial, pengurusan dan teknikal. Mereka menganggap ia sebagai faktor yang kritikal yang perlu diberi perhatian untuk memastikan kejayaan dalam perbincangan dan interaksi dengan pelajar. Kenyataan ini disokong oleh pengamal PSM dimana mereka turut bersetuju bahawa jurulatih PLKN perlu memainkan pelbagai peranan bagi mencapai matlamat dan objektif latihan yang pelbagai, menarik minat pelatih untuk mengikuti latihan, mengelakkan rasa bosan, berkeupayaan menangani pelbagai situasi yang ditimbulkan oleh pelatih, menghadapi pelatih yang pelbagai latar belakang dan pendidikan (inclusivity), dan sebagai *role-model* yang berkesan kepada pelatih.

RUJUKAN

- Abdullah Hassan dan Ainon Mohd (2000). *Seni Bercakap-cakap Dan Berbual-bual*. Bukit Tinggi: Penerbit PTS.
- Bachler, Christopher J. (1997). The Trainer's Role Is Turning Upside Down. *Workforce*. Costa Mesa. Vol 76, Iss 6 ; pg 93.
- Barbazette, J. (2005). *The Trainer's Journey To Competence*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer, A Wiley Imprint.
- Berge, Z.L. (1995). *The Role Of The Online Instructor/Fasilitator*. Web page. Retr.from http://www.emoderators.com/moderators/teach_online.html.
- Berge,Z, Verneil,M.D., Berge, N.,Davis,L.,& Smith,D.(2002). The Increasing Scope Of Training and Development Competency.*Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 9 (1), 43-61.
- Berenthal,P.R.,Colteryahn,K. Naughton,J, Rothwell,W.J. & Wellins,R (2004). *ASTD 2004 Competency Study: Mapping The Future – New Workplace Learning And Performance Competencies*. Alexandria: ASTD Press.
- Blanchard, P.N.,Thacker,J.W. (2004). *Effective Training: Systems,Strategies And Practices*. 2nd Ed. Pearson Educational International.
- Carrie A. Van Daele (1995). *50 One-Minute Tips For Trainers : A Quick And Easy Guide*. Boston MA: Thomson NETg.

-
- Chua Yan Piaw (2006). *Kaedah Penyelidikan*. Kuala Lumpur. McGraw-Hill.
- Dolansinki, M.J. (2004). *Training The Trainer : Performance- Based Training For Today's Workplace*. New Jersey: Pearson Edu. Inc.
- Garavan, T.N. & Mc Guire, D. (2001). Competencies And Workplace Learning: Some Reflections On The Rhetoric And The Reality. *Journal Of Workplace Learning*. 13 (4), 144 – 163.
- Hamdan Abd. Kadir, Hanipah Hussin, Mohamad Saprin (2004). *Teknik Mengajar Dewasa, Panduan Untuk Jurulatih*. Bukit Tinggi: PTS.
- Ibrahim Mamat, (1996). *Reka Bentuk Dan Pengurusan Latihan: Konsep Dan Amalan*. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka.
- Idid, Syed Arabi (2002). *Kaedah Penyelidikan Komunikasi Dan Sains Sosial*. Kuala Lumpur. Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka.
- Kirkpatrick, D.L. (1996). Evaluation. In R.L.Craig (ed). *The ASTD Training and Development Handbook*. New York: McGraw Hill Companies.
- Krejcie, R.V. & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining Sample Size For Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. 30, 608
- Laporan Mengenai PLKN dipetik secara online pada 15 Ogos 2008 – 23 Disember 2008 daripada <http://www.bharian.com.my> untuk Berita Harian (BH), Harian Metro (HM), Berita minggu (BM); <http://www.utusan.com.my> untuk Utusan Malaysia (UM) dan Mingguan Malaysia (MM); serta laman <http://khidmat-negara.net/forum-plkn>, <http://mswikipedia.org/wiki/PLKN>, <http://www.mudah.com.my/vi>
- Major, E., Asch, D. & Cordey Hayes, M. (2001). *Foresight As A Core Competence*. *Futures*, 33, 91-107.
- Merriam. SB (1998). *Qualitative and Case Study Application in Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Pubs.
- Powers, Bob. (1992). *Instructor Excellence. Mastering The delivery Of Training*. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass. A Wiley Company.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Method For Business: A Skill-Building Approach*. 4th Ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sun, Li and Shi, Kan (2008). The Human Resource Competency Studies And The IPMA-HR Competency Training And Certification Program In China. *Public Personnel Management*. Washington. Vol 37, Iss 3; pg 353.10 pgs.
- Wan Norjihan Wan Abdullah (2007). *Panduan Menjadi Fasilitator*. Bukit Tinggi: Penerbit PTS.
- Zwell, M. (2000). *Creating A Culture of Competence*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Temubual Responden:

Ali Ridza (2009). Pegawai Latihan NIOSH Bangi, Selangor. Temu bual pada 30 April, 2009.
Jam 3.00 ptg.

Faridah Bt Borhan. Pengarah Kanan Pembangunan Latihan, Jabatan Latihan Khidmat Negara (JLKN). Temu bual pada 18/3/2009 jam 11.30 pg di Pejabat JLKN, Bangunan TH Selborn.

Mejar Masita Bt Sarif @ Mohd. Ali. Penolong Pengarah, Cawangan Pembinaan Karakter, JLKN. Temu bual pada 18/3/2009 jam 12.05 tgh di Pejabat JLKN, Bangunan TH Selborn.

Pembangunan Sumber Manusia yang Mampan di Era Globalisasi

Ahmad Shukri Mohd Nain, Husain Mahmood

Jabatan Pembangunan Sumber Manusia

Fakulti Pengurusan

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

Skudai

Abstrak

Tujuan kertas kerja ini ialah untuk membincangkan aspek penting untuk memperkasakan bidang Pembangunan Sumber Manusia (PSM) serta membangunkannya sebagai satu bidang pengajian dan kerjaya yang mampan dalam konteks cabaran semasa. Secara relatifnya PSM merupakan satu disiplin ilmu yang agak baru. Bermula disekitar tahun 1960an sehingga ke hari ini PSM sebagai satu bidang telah melalui pelbagai isu dan perdebatan yang mewarnai hala tuju pembangunannya dari semasa kesemasa. Bermula dari zaman moden, kini PSM sebagai disiplin ilmu sedang menghadapi cabaran baru di era pasca-moden atau lebih dikenali sebagai zaman global. Umumnya, globalisasi dalam pelbagai bentuk dan tahap mampu mewujudkan pelbagai peluang dan juga permasalahan kepada semua pihak dan perkara, termasuklah disiplin PSM. Persoalannya, bolehkah PSM sebagai satu bidang ilmu terus berkembang dengan mampan seiring dengan zaman di era globalisasi ini? Kegagalan PSM sebagai satu bidang ilmu untuk menyesuaikan diri dengan perkembangan dan keperluan semasa boleh menjejaskan profesionalisme sumbangan dan reputasinya sebagai satu bidang pengkhususan dan bidang kerjaya. Justeru, amatlah penting para pengkaji, penganalisis dan sarjana menghadam cabaran-cabaran semasa yang dihadapi oleh bidang PSM. Kertas kerja ini akan membincangkan peranan etika dalam konteks pembangunan PSM sebagai disiplin dan kerjaya yang mampan di era yang serba rencam dan mencabar ini.

Keywords: Pembangunan Sumber Manusia (PSM), Pembangunan Mampan, PSM Mampan, Globalisasi

14. Pengenalan

Menurut Chalofsky (2004) Pembangunan Sumber Manusia (PSM) merupakan satu bidang ilmu yang telah diterima sebagai bersifat antara disiplin. Kuchinke (2001) berpandangan terdapat lima disiplin ilmu yang menyumbang kepada pembentukan dan pembangunan PSM, iaitu ekonomi, psikologi, sosiologi, antropologi dan sains politik. Bidang-bidang tersebut menjadi asas kepada pembangunan dan penyelidikan dalam PSM, walaupun kepelbagaian mencetuskan dilemma dan perdebatan untuk menentukan aspek-aspek ontologikal dan epistemologikal PSM sebagai satu bidang ilmu. Setiap disiplin ilmu mempunyai fokus dan kaedah yang agak berbeza dalam mengkaji dan memahami serta menjelaskan sesuatu masalah dan isu secara teoritikal dan aplikasinya. PSM yang bersifat antara bidang ini telah mewujudkan satu cabaran yang tersendiri dalam konteks membangunkan PSM sebagai satu bidang yang benar-benar kukuh dan berasaskan satu jatidiri disiplin ilmu yang mantap. Sehubungan dengan ini, Passmore (1997) berpendapat kurangnya kejelasan asas bidang PSM telah menyebabkan bidang ini kehilangan pengiktirafan khususnya dikalangan pengamal PSM. Manakala Evarts (1998) pula menyatakan bahawa kegagalan untuk menyepadukan pelbagai disiplin tersebut akan menyebabkan bidang PSM berhadapan dengan masalah pembangunan disiplin yang tidak efektif dan longgar.

Disamping itu, satu lagi persoalan yang penting bagi satu disiplin ilmu yang relatifnya baru seperti PSM ialah memastikan bukan sahaja ianya terus berkembang secara berterusan, malah yang lebih penting ialah perkembangannya hendaklah sesuai dengan zaman dan bersifat strategik dari segi sumbangannya, khususnya kepada prestasi sesebuah organisasi. Pelbagai faktor telah dikemukakan sebagai katalis yang secara langsung dan tidak langsung mempengaruhi pembangunan PSM dari semasa kesemasa. Pada satu ketika, Gold *et al.* (2002) berhujah bahawa peningkatan tahap aktiviti ekonomi yang berasaskan maklumat dan pengetahuan akan

mempengaruhi lanskap masa depan PSM. McGoldrick *et al.* (2002) pula menggariskan empat tema yang berpengaruh untuk mencorakkan perkembangan masa depan PSM, iaitu hubungan PSM dengan pembangunan pengurusan dan kepimpinan, kaitan antara strategi PSM dengan strategi perniagaan dalam konteks peningkatan proses globalisasi, peranan PSM untuk merekabentuk dan mengorganisasi kerja dan proses kerja, serta fokus PSM terhadap topik-topik ditahap individu seperti strategi pekerjaan, pembangunan kerjaya, identiti kerja dan perbezaan gender. Manakala Ruona *et al.* (2003) pula menggagaskan lima cabaran yang dihadapi oleh bidang PSM, iaitu PSM tidak diberikan kedudukan kepimpinan yang tinggi didalam organisasi, mampu menunjukkan profesyen PSM mencapai pulangan keatas pelaburan (ROI), PSM perlu mengenalpasti kompetensi teras dan kelebihan daya saing, PSM perlu mendefinisikan komuniti yang diperlu diberikan perkhidmatan serta menilai semula peranan PSM dalam masyarakat keseluruhannya, dan PSM perlu meningkatkan proses profesionalisasi serta terikat kepada satu piawaian pengamalan dan diberi sijil pengiktirafan yang sewajarnya oleh semua pihak yang berkepentingan dengannya.

Berdasarkan pandangan-pandangan diatas, ternyata terdapat pelbagai faktor dan pelbagai cabaran yang signifikan dalam menentukan corak perkembangan dan pembangunan bidang dan praktis PSM di masa-masa akan datang. Walaupun lebih sepuluh tahun dahulu McGoldrick *et al.* (2002) telah menyebutkan pengaruh globalisasi dalam mencorakkan beberapa aspek pembangunan bidang PSM, namun sehingga ke hari ini faktor tersebut masih dianggap kritikal kepada perkembangan dan pembangunan bidang dan profesyen PSM.

15. Globalisasi

Globalisasi merupakan satu fenomena yang kompleks dan penuh dengan kontroversi, namun telah menarik ramai pihak untuk terus membincangkannya. Umumnya ramai percaya bahawa kehidupan di dunia ini telah beranjak kepada satu zaman yang baru yang berbeza dengan zaman moden atau zaman industri. Beberapa istilah telah dicadangkan untuk menggambarkan proses transformasi tersebut seperti zaman pasca-modern, pasca-industri, pasca-kapitalis, millennium baru dan sebagainya. Namun sejak dua dekad yang lalu istilah globalisasi telah mula digunapakai untuk menjelaskan sebuah anjakan paradigm yang fundamental, ekstensif dan komprehensif dalam sistem kehidupan manusia moden. Pelbagai pihak telah mencadangkan pelbagai definisi mengenai konsep globalisasi. Pelbagai ideologi juga telah digunakan untuk menjustifikasi kewujudan dan pengaruh globalisasi terhadap kehidupan manusia di seluruh dunia. Sebahagian definisi dan hujah mengenai globalisasi saling mengukuh, manakala sebahagiannya saling bertentangan antara satu sama lain sehingga mewujudkan kekeliruan kepada pelbagai pihak. Perbezaan-perbezaan yang wujud dalam memahami globalisasi berpunca daripada latarbelakang sejarah masyarakat dan negara yang berbeza, budaya hidup serta tahap pencapaian pembangunan ekonomi dan politik yang berbeza. Namun, umumnya dipersetujui bahawa globalisasi merupakan proses transformasi diseluruh dunia dalam aspek ekonomi, politik dan budaya hidup.

Friedman (2000) mendefinisikan globalisasi sebagai integrasi pasaran, negara bangsa dan teknologi yang tidak dapat dielakkan pada tahap yang belum pernah berlaku di masa-masa lepas. Ianya membolehkan individu-individu, syarikat-syarikat korporat dan negara-negara bangsa sampai ke mana-mana tempat diseluruh dunia dengan lebih jauh, pantas dan murah. Friedman (2000) juga menghuraikan sifat-sifat khusus globalisasi sebagai berikut:

- Penyebaran sistem pasaran bebas kapitalisme;
- Penyeragaman budaya di seluruh dunia sehingga boleh mewujudkan dominasi berasaskan satu budaya (seperti proses Amerikanisasi);
- Dominasi teknologi yang spesifik, seperti teknologi pengkomputeran, miniaturisasi, pendigitilan, komunikasi satelit, optik fiber dan internet;
- Pengukuran sistem globalisasi ialah berdasarkan kepantasan dalam perdagangan, pergerakan, komunikasi dan inovasi;
- Inovasi menggantikan tradisi serta masa depan menggantikan masa lampau;
- Semua kawan dan lawan ialah pesaing;
- Pola demografi memperlihatkan perubahan pantas dalam pergerakan luar bandar ke bandar serta daripada gaya hidup pertanian kepada gaya hidup bandar yang merangkumi fesyen global, makanan, pasaran dan hiburan; dan
- Struktur kuasa yang memperlihatkan perimbangan antara sebuah negara bangsa dengan negara bangsa yang lain, antara negara bangsa dengan pasaran global dan antara individu-individu dengan negara bangsa.

Tempuh lebih daripada lima puluh tahun yang lampau memperlihatkan kadar dan skop globalisasi telah berkembang secara dramatik hinggalah semua pihak merasa tertekan dan terhimpit disamping melihat pelbagai peluang dalam proses menyesuaikan diri dengan sistem yang serba mencabar ini (Friedman, 2000). Ada pihak

yang menanggapi globalisasi sebagai sesuatu yang positif seperti Sutherland (1998) yang berpendapat globalisasi mampu mewujudkan jutaan pekerjaan, perluasan pembangunan infrastruktur seluruh dunia dan peningkatan taraf hidup di Negara-negara Sedang Membangun. Yang lain pula berpandangan bahawa globalisasi lebih mendatangkan keburukan daripada kebaikan. Contohnya Farazman (1999) berpendapat globalisasi telah melebarkan jurang kemiskinan di peringkat dunia, mewujudkan diskriminasi yang semakin meluas di kalangan majoriti populasi dunia dan mengancam kedaulatan sesebuah negara melalui sistem ekonomi yang bersifat unilateral. Bangsa-bangsa Bersatu (2000) juga menyatakan bahawa globalisasi telah menambahkan ketidaksamaan dan diskriminasi yang sedia ada dikalangan majoriti daripada penduduk dunia.

16. Globalisasi dan PSM

Globalisasi merupakan fenomena yang kompleks yang mencakupi pelbagai dimensi kehidupan manusia, masyarakat, negara dan dunia diperingkat mikro dan makro dalam aspek-aspek politik, ekonomi dan budaya. Kemajuan pelbagai teknologi alaf baru serta proses deregulasi, dasar langit terbuka dan lain-lain telah memberikan impak yang langsung dan tidak langsung kepada sistem ekonomi setempat dan antarabangsa. Impak globalisasi ekonomi telah mewujudkan pelbagai cabaran baru kepada sesebuah organisasi dan kualiti sumber manusia yang diperlukannya. Chermack, Lynham dan Ruona (2003) mendapati terdapat empat faktor yang mempengaruhi masa depan PSM, iaitu fleksibiliti, globalisasi, perubahan organisasi dan tenaga kerja serta teknologi. PSM merupakan sebahagian daripada komponen utama dalam pengurusan sesebuah organisasi sudah pasti terkesan dengan globalisasi dalam bentuk apa sekalipun. Justeru, PSM juga merupakan bidang dan profesyen yang membangunkan sumber manusia sesuai dengan keperluan semasa dan akan datang juga perlu menyesuaikan dengan setiap perubahan yang dibawa oleh globalisasi. Ringkasnya, bidang PSM dan profesyen PSM perlu bersifat mampan agar ianya terus relevan dan mengukuh dari semasa kesemasa.

Sejak lebih dua puluh tahun yang dahulu, para sarjana, pengkaji dan penganalisis menyarankan bentuk-bentuk perubahan dan penyesuaian yang perlu dilakukan oleh bidang PSM dan profesyen PSM untuk terus signifikan dan relevan, antaranya ialah:

- Meningkatkan dan memperbaiki komunikasi eksternal dengan pembekal antarabangsa, subsidiari, rakan-rakan kongsi dan para pelanggan (Parker, 1996);
- Organisasi di era global memerlukan sistem sosio-teknikal yang baru, model strategik yang baru dan pembangunan pemimpin yang mampu menerajui transformasi yang mampan (Hart, 1999);
- Membangunkan pengurus yang boleh berfikir, memimpin dan bertindak dari perspektif global, memiliki kemahiran global dan pemikiran global (Kim, 1999);
- Merekebentuk struktur organisasi yang lebih responsif (Monge dan Fulk, 1999)
- Memberikan autoriti membuat keputusan kepada lapisan yang lebih rendah, menggunakan pendekatan pasukan kerja silang-fungsian dan menggalakkan pembelajaran organisasi (Barnscom et al., 1999);
- Meningkatkan kompetensi pekerja berkaitan komunikasi pengetahuan strategik (pengelakan konflik, menghargai orang lain dan penggunaan bahasa yang tepat), skil komunikasi taktikal (memberi arahan, mewujudkan jaringan, penulisan, pendengaran dan keupayaan mempengaruhi) dan kebolehan tingkah laku kognitif seperti empati, kognisi dan kompleksiti (Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam dan Jablin, 1999)

Disamping menyesuaikan dengan keperluan-keperluan kepengurusan yang bersifat global, bidang PSM dan profesyen PSM perlu juga menyelaraskan pembangunan ilmu dan peranan selari dengan kehendak pihak-pihak yang berkepentingan di era global, seperti para sarjana PSM, para pengurus PSM, para konsultan PSM, badan-badan professional PSM, kumpulan pendesak alam sekitar, masyarakat, pertubuhan wanita, pertubuhan hak asasi manusia dan lain-lain. Chermack, Lynham dan Ruona (2003) mencadangkan supaya PSM mempunyai peranan dan fokus yang baru bagi mendepani cabaran-cabaran di masa-masa akan datang. Sehubungan dengan ini, untuk bidang PSM dan profesyen lebih mampan di era globalisasi, elemen etika merupakan satu jiwa PSM yang

penting untuk diperkukuhkan dan dijadikan aksiom utamanya dalam penyelidikan, pengajaran, penulisan dan praktis profesional.

17. PSM dan Etika

Implikasi globalisasi disekitar tahun 1980an dan 1990an telah meningkatkan keperluan untuk membangunkan standard etika universal (Calkin & Berman, 2004). Ianya juga telah menyebabkan etika perniagaan menjadi semakin penting (Christie et al., 2003). Sehubungan dengan ini, banyak kajian mengenai etika telah dijalankan dalam pelbagai bidang, termasuk dalam bidang pengurusan dan PSM. Kepentingan standard etika yang tinggi dalam mana-mana bidang pengajian ilmu merupakan satu elemen teras yang amat diperlukan. Setiap bidang ilmu mempunyai akar falsafah masing-masing. Antara teras utama mana-mana falsafah ialah set nilai di mana set nilai ini secara langsung maupun tidak langsung berkait rapat dengan etika. Justeru, bidang pengajian PSM perlu menekankan kepada pembangunan kualiti etika yang tinggi di kalangan para pelajar melalui kursus yang khusus, ataupun menerapkannya dalam proses pengajaran-pembelajaran dalam kursus-kursus yang berkaitan. Seterusnya, pengurusan latihan, penyelidikan dan jurulatih latihan pula melibatkan proses membuat keputusan yang berterusan berdasarkan opsyen yang ada. Proses ini tentunya melibatkan pertimbangan nilai betul atau salah serta nilai baik atau buruk yang memerlukan kepada pertimbangan etika yang tepat serta praktikal dan ianya bukannya mudah. Ini menunjukkan hubungan antara PSM dan etika ialah berpisah tiada.

Manakala dikalangan para profesional PSM, mereka bukan sahaja memerlukan kebolehan kemahiran teknikal yang tinggi dalam bidang latihan dan penyelidikan, malah perlu memiliki kompetensi etika normatif. Disamping itu, para profesional PSM juga perlu diperkasakan dengan kod etika yang berfungsi sebagai garis panduan bertingkah laku dikalangan mereka. Piawai etika dan kod etika telah menjadi kewajipan kepada syarikat-syarikat korporat di seluruh dunia. Organisasi yang patuh kepada kod etika dan mempunyai program etika yang efektif telah berjaya meningkatkan kecekapan pengurusan (Tyler, Dienhat dan Terry, 2008). Di Amerika Syarikat, Akademi Pembangunan Sumber Manusia (AHRD) telah menghasilkan kod etika untuk semua profesional di negara tersebut tanpa mengira perbezaan budaya hasil daripada konferens yang diadakan dalam tahun 1996 (AHRD, 2012). Pada tahun 1999 pula AHRD menerbitkan *Standards on Ethics and Integrity* yang telah menetapkan set nilai yang sama kepada semua pengamal PSM (Swanson & Holton, 2001). Kod-kod etika seumpama ini akan dapat membantu bidang PSM dan profesional PSM lebih mampan di era globalisasi kerana ianya dapat menghasilkan tingkah laku yang lebih berintegriti, manakala di peringkat individu ianya dapat membantu membuat keputusan dengan lebih baik dan bertanggungjawab

Namun demikian, membangunkan kompetensi etika di kalangan seseorang individu bukanlah satu proses yang mudah. Ini disebabkan setiap individu telah di sosialisasikan dengan set nilai, norma dan kepercayaan oleh keluarga dan masyarakat sejak daripada kecil lagi. Proses indoktrinasi ini menjadi bertambah kompleks dan pelbagai apabila seseorang individu itu mengikuti pendidikan formal yang kemudiannya membangunkan keupayaan untuk membuat penilaian personal terhadap sesuatu perkara. Kesemua proses ini mempengaruhi seseorang individu membuat sesuatu penilaian atau keputusan yang bersifat etika. Seterusnya apabila seseorang individu memasuki alam pekerjaan dalam sesebuah organisasi, sekali lagi mereka akan berdepan dengan satu set etika yang tertentu yang pada kebiasaan diasaskan kepada nilai dan prinsip yang dicituskan oleh pengasas organisasi tersebut, ataupun kemudiannya diolah berdasarkan pengalaman organisasi tersebut dari semasa kesemasa. Disamping itu, pertubuhan-pertubuhan profesional turut menggubal satu set standard etika sebagai garis panduan setiap ahli mereka bagi memelihara integriti dalam profesyen masing-masing. Rangka rujukan kod etika profesional ialah berkaitan dengan pelaksanaan peranan dan tanggungjawab mereka dengan klien dan pihak-pihak berkepentingan yang berkaitan. Proses pengukuhan tingkah laku mereka kepada kod etika adalah proses yang berterusan melalui pelbagai program seperti seminar, kursus lain-lain lagi. Proses profesionalisasi ini merupakan proses yang komprehensif dan berterusan.

Berdasarkan proses penentuan serta pembangunan dan penguatkuasaan etika yang kompleks dan pelbagai sumber itu, ianya memerlukan kepada proses mengharmonikan kesemua elemen kepelbagaian tersebut agar pembangunan kompetensi etika PSM di kalangan para pelajar dan kemudiannya para pengurus dan profesional PSM dapat distruktur secara sistematik dan saling melengkapi secara berterusan dan akhirnya bersifat holistik. McLagan (1989) sejak lebih 20 tahun dahulu telah mencadangkan sekurang-kurangnya 13 pertimbangan etika dalam bidang dan profesyen PSM, iaitu:

- i. Memelihara kerahsiaan
- ii. Menolak dengan baik sebarang permintaan yang tidak beretika
- iii. Menghormati hakcipta harta-harta intelektual
- iv. Memastikan setiap kenyataan, data dan cadangan-cadangan adalah betul
- v. Menyeimbangkan antara keperluan dan kepentingan individu dan organisasi
- vi. Memastikan klien dan pelanggan dilibatkan dalam setiap proses yang berkaitan
- vii. Mengelak daripada sebarang konflik kepentingan
- viii. Mengawal dan menyeimbangkan keutamaan dan prejudis diri

-
- ix. Menghormati dan menghargai perbezaan antara individu atau budaya
 - x. Berlaku adil kepada klien dan pelanggan
 - xi. Memahami kesan langsung dan tidak langsung di atas setiap intervensi dan mengambil initiative yang maksimum ke atas setiap kesan negatif
 - xii. Menetapkan upah perkhidmatan pada paras yang berpatutan dan standard
 - xiii. Menggunakan kuasa dan pengaruh secara berhemah dan bertanggungjawab

Kesemua tonggak etika PSM yang dikemukakan oleh McLagan ini akan membolehkan bidang PSM dan para profesional PSM mencapai integriti, memastikan penglibatan yang bersifat normatif, mengelakkan sebarang bentuk manipulasi dan menerima pertanggungjawaban daripada setiap kerja yang dilakukan. Dengan standard etika yang tinggi ini, bidang dan profesyen PSM akan lebih mampan dizaman globalisasi yang kompleks dan pelbagai ini. Dalam situasi seumpama ini, profesional PSM perlu kompeten dalam mengenalpasti solusi yang paling betul dan membuat keputusan yang paling tepat dalam setiap perkara, walaupun tidak dapat mengelakkan daripada berhadapan dengan pelbagai dilemma etika dari semasa kesemasa.

18. Cabaran PSM dan Etika

Menurut Frechtling dan Boo (2012) kod etika telah begitu meluas dalam organisasi dan penerbitan hasil-hasil kajian mengenainya juga amat banyak. Namun dilemma mengenainya serta kes-kes pelanggaran etika terus berlaku (Long & Driscoll, 2008). Justeru cabaran-cabaran utama memperkasakan bidang PSM dan meningkatkan integriti di kalangan profesional PSM ialah:

- Menginstitusikan kod etika dengan menekankan peranan pemimpin dalam organisasi membangunkan budaya beretika (Sims dan Brinkmann, 2003). Menginstitusikan kod etika bermaksud ianya menjadi perlu kepada semua, ditulis dengan jelas dan diterangkan dengan sistematik (Marsick, 1997). Disamping itu, ianya juga melibatkan penggubalan polisi, penerapan dalam proses membuat keputusan, latihan, komunikasi efektif, tindakan tegas terhadap pelanggaran etika, audit etika serta menginstitusikan peniupan-wisel.
- Membangunkan kod etika yang sesuai dan berkesan mengikut budaya setempat disamping elemen-elemen universal. Umumnya, kebanyakan kod etika dihasilkan berdasarkan lensa Amerika yang sedikit sebanyak berbeza dengan budaya di tempat lain (Weaver, 2001). Kepelbagaian dimensi etika mewujudkan dilemma dalam beretika ataupun ketika memutuskan sesuatu perkara yang bersifat etika kerana globalisasi mewujudkan konflik etika.
- Membangunkan kompetensi etika dikalangan para pelajar dan para profesional PSM. Antaranya ialah kompetensi mendefinisikan masalah, mendefinisikan dilema, mengenalpasti opsyen penyelesaian masalah, memutuskan keputusan yang paling betul dan memastikan setiap keputusan dipatuhi dan dilaksanakan dengan penuh tanggungjawab.
- Mengintegrasikan nilai dan prinsip etika dalam setiap urusan dalam bidang PSM. Pembangunan budaya etika merupakan satu cabaran yang besar kepada mana-mana institusi kerana ianya melibatkan pelbagai proses serta mengambil masa yang panjang untuk mencapainya.

Keseluruhannya, cabaran utama PSM dalam konteks etika ialah memastikan proses globalisasi organisasi-organisasi dan institusi-institusi sebagai sumber dan pemangkin etika secara sinergistik. Proses ini akan membolehkan etika PSM dapat dibangunkan secara lebih komprehensif serta diperkasakan secara lebih meluas di seluruh dunia. Namun dalam dunia yang masih mempunyai sisa-sisa prejudis, stereotaip, manipulasi, kepentingan diri dan lain-lainnya menyebabkan berlakunya parokialisme pembangunan etika dalam PSM.

19. Kesimpulan

Globalisasi tidak dapat dinafikan telah memberi impak kepada aktiviti perniagaan dan ekonomi di seluruh dunia dan tentunya turut memebri kesan kepada bidang PSM dan para pengamal PSM. Proses globalisasi bukan

sahaja telah mewujudkan keperluan kepada konstruk PSM yang global, malah mencetuskan keperluan kepada etika sebagai satu etos yang mampu menyumbang kepada pembangunan bidang PSM yang mampan. Walaupun cabaran untuk meniginstitusikan etika dalam bidang PSM dan di kalangan para profesional PSM merupakan sesuatu yang tidak mudah, namun kajian-kajian mengenai utilitinya dalam pelbagai bidang dan profesyen yang lain menunjukkan ianya adalah penting dan amat diperlukan di era globalisasi. Dengan etika, bidang PSM dan pengamalannya akan memperolehi nilai tambah dan legitimasi untuk terus menyumbang dalam dunia tanpa sempadan dengan lebih efektif dan efisien. Untuk merealisasikan misi ini ianya memerlukan sinergi diantara semua pihak yang berkepentingan, khususnya penganjur-penganjur program PSM, pertubuhan-pertubuhan profesional PSM, para pemimpin organisasi serta komitmen setiap profesional PSM.

References (Use “Header 1” style)

- AHRD. (2012). *AHRD: Academy of Human Resource Development*. Retrieved from <http://www.ahrd.org/>.
- Branscombe, L. M., Florida, R., Hart, D., Keller, J. and Boville, D. (1999). *Investing in Innovation*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Calkins, M. & Berman, S.L. (2004). Business ethics in a global economy. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 14: 597-602.
- Chalofsky, N. (2004). “Human and organization studies: the discipline of HRD”, in Egan, T.M. (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings*.
- Chermack, T. J., Lynham, S. A., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2003). Critical Uncertainties Confronting Human Resource Development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 5(3), 257-271.
- Christie, P. M. J., Kwon, I. W. G., Stoeberl, P. A., & Baumhart, R. (2003). A cross143 cultural comparison of ethical attitudes of business managers: India, Korea, and the United States. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46, 263-287.
- Evarts, T.M. (1998), “Human resource development as a maturing field of study”, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, Vol. 9 No. 4, pp. 385-91.
- Frechtling, D. C., & Boo, S. (2012). On the ethics of management research: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 106(2), 149-160.
- Friedman, T. L. (2000). *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Gold, J., Rodgers, H. and Smith, V. (2002). “The future of human resource development?”, *Proceedings of the Third Conference on HRD Practice and Research Across Europe*, Edinburgh, February.
- Hart, S. L. (1999). Corporations as agents of global sustainability: beyond competitive advantage, in: D. L. Cooperrider and J. E. Dutton (Eds) *Organizational Dimensions of Global Change*, pp. 346 – 362. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kim, P. S. (1999). Globalization of human resource management: a cross-cultural perspective for the public sector, *Public Personnel Management*, 28(2), pp. 227 – 243.
- Long, B., & Driscoll, C. (2008). Codes of ethics and the pursuit of organizational legitimacy: Theoretical and empirical contributions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 77(2), 173-189.
- Marsick, V.J. (1997). Reflections on developing a code of integrity of HRD. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 8(2), 91-94.
- McGoldrick, J., Stewart, J. and Watson, S. (2002). “Postscript: the future for HRD research”, in McGoldrick, J., Stewart, J. and Watson, S. (Eds), *Understanding Human Resource Development: A Research-based Approach*. London: Routledge.
- McLagan, P.(1989). *Models for the HRD Practice, The Practitioners Guide*, American Society for Training and Development, Alexandria, VA,
- Monge, P. and Fulk, J. (1999). Communication technology for global network organizations, in: G. DeSanctis and J. Fulk (Eds) *Shaping Organization Form: Communication, Connection, and Community*, pp. 71 – 100. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Parker, B. (1996.) Evolution and revolution: from international business to globalization, in: S. Clegg, C. Hardy and W. Nord (Eds) *Handbook of Organization Studies*, pp. 484 – 506. London: Sage.
- Passmore, D.L. (1997). “Ways of seeing: disciplinary bases of research in HRD”, in Swanson, R.A. and Holton, E.F. (Eds), *Human Resource Development Research Handbook: Linking Research and Practice*. San Francisco, CA.: Berrett-Koehler.
- Ruona, W.E.A., Lynham, S.A. and Chermack, T.J. (2003). “Insights on emerging trends and the future of human resource development”, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, Vol. 5 No. 3, pp. 272-82.
- Sims, R.R., & Brinkmann, J. (2003). Enron ethics: Culture matters more than codes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 45(3), 243-256.
- Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam, N. and Jablin, F. M. (1999). An exploratory study of communication competence in Thai organizations, *The Journal of Business Communication*, 36(4), pp. 382 – 418.

Sutherland, P. (1998). Expand the debate on globalization: how to handle the phenomenon that spurs expansion but triggers dislocation, TIME.com, 2 February. Available at: www.time.com/time/magazine/1998/int/980202/special_report.expand_th25.html.

Swanson, R.A., & Holton, E.F. (2001). *Foundations of Human Resource Development*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Tyler, T., Dienhart, J., & Terry, T. (2008). The ethical commitment to compliance: Building value-based cultures. *California Management Review*, 50(2), 31-51.

United Nations (2000). Globalization and its impact on the full enjoyment of human rights, UN press release E/CN.4/Sub.2/2000/13. Available at: www.globalpolicy.org/socecon/un/wtonite.htm.

Weaver, G. (2001). Ethics programs in global business: Culture's role in managing ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 30, 3-15.