

**ATTITUDE, SUBJECTIVE NORMS AND INTENTION TO
ENLIST NON-BUMIPUTRA IN THE MALAYSIAN ARMY:
MODERATING EFFECT OF SELF-EFFICACY**

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**FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2022

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**ATTITUDE, SUBJECTIVE NORMS AND INTENTION TO ENLIST NON-
BUMIPUTRA IN THE MALAYSIAN ARMY: MODERATING EFFECT OF
SELF-EFFICACY**

ABSTRACT

National unity is important for a multi-ethnic nation to ensure peace and stability. As a result, the Malaysian government promotes national unity through several different policies, one of which is the fair representation of ethnic groups in civil service. The balanced representation of ethnic groups in the Royal Malaysian Army (RMA) is highly important. It ensures the credibility and competence of the RMA in protecting all Malaysians' interest. Consequences of single ethnic military either intentionally or unintentionally are a threat to peace and security in a multi-ethnic country. The changing nature of warfare over time effect of the end of Cold War, from ideology clashes to economic, social, ethnic and religious clashes, threatens the weak link (i.e., national unity) of a multi-ethnic country especially in military organization. RMA faces an imbalance of ethnic groups, despite substantial efforts by RMA, data shows that the number of non-Bumiputra enlisted in the army is extremely low and does not portray a fair representation of the ethnic distribution in Malaysia. To address this issue, this applied research studied the intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in the RMA. Limited literature regarding ethnic enlistment in military specifically in Malaysian context and diversity of issue in military enlistment due to ethnic disparity, preliminary investigation was conducted prior to the actual research to frame the problem statement in the RMA setting. Based on the findings of the investigation, three most important factor of non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA were identified: attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy. Thus, this study applied the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) to examine the impacts of attitude and

subjective norms on the intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in the RMA, particularly via the moderating effect of self-efficacy. Quantitative measurement scales were adopted from previous studies to design the research instrument, which rigorously assessed via pre-testing and pilot testing to ensure its validity and reliability. Data was collected from non-Bumiputra in Malaysia aged between 19 and 24 via an online survey (Google Form). Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was then employed to validate the research model and test the hypotheses. All the four hypotheses were supported. Attitude and subjective norms were found to have a significance positive relation to intention to enlist in MA. Moderation of self-efficacy for both relation (attitude and subjective norms to intention to enlist was found to be positive relationship. The findings made a significance contribution to the understanding of the relationships between the predictors of intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in RMA. Theoretically, this study enriches the knowledge base of the TRA by identifying and testing the predictors of the intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in Malaysian military setting. Introducing self-efficacy as moderator in TRA also contribute to the body of knowledge on TRA application. From managerial perspective, the findings of this applied research offer guidelines and solutions to the issue faced by the RMA regarding the low enlistment of non-Bumiputra.

Keywords: Attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy, intention, enlistment, military, TRA.

**ATTITUDE, SUBJECTIVE NORMS DAN KEINGINAN BUKAN
BUMIPUTERA MENYERTAI TENTERA DARAT MALAYSIA. KESAN
MODERATOR OLEH SELF-EFFICACY**

ABSTRAK

Perpaduan nasional penting untuk menjamin keamanan dan kestabilan bagi sebuah negara yang berbilang bangsa. Oleh sebab itu, kerajaan Malaysia melaksanakan perpaduan nasional melalui beberapa dasar. Salah satu dasar perpaduan nasional ialah representasi etnik yang seimbang dalam perkhidmatan awam. Representasi etnik yang seimbang dalam Tentera Darat Malaysia (TDM) juga penting bagi memastikan TDM berwibawa dan kompeten dalam melindungi kepentingan semua kaum di Malaysia. Penguasaan oleh satu kaum sahaja dalam TDM secara sengaja mahupun tidak, boleh memberi ancaman yang besar kepada keamanan dan keselamatan negara terutamanya kepada negara berbilang bangsa seperti Malaysia. Tamatnya Perang Dingin secara tidak langsung telah mengubah konsep peperangan dari pertembungan ideologi kepada pertembungan ekonomi, sosial, budaya dan agama, yang mensasarkan keharmonian kaum dalam negara yang berbilang bangsa termasuk juga mensasarkan organisasi ketenteraan. TDM pada masa kini mengalami ketidakseimbangan representasi bangsa yang sangat ketara. Walaupun begitu banyak usaha telah dilakukan oleh TDM bagi meningkatkan representasi kaum dalam TDM, namun demikian analisa data menunjukkan bahawa jumlah bukan Bumiputera menyertai TDM adalah sangat kecil dan bukanlah representasi yang sebenar mengenai pecahan pelbagai etnik di Malaysia. Representasi pecahan etnik ini juga jelas menunjukkan kegagalan dasar perpaduan kaum yang dianjurkan oleh kerajaan melalui organisasi kerjaan. Bagi mengatasi masalah yang dihadapi oleh TDM, kajian ini mengkaji niat bukan Bumiputera untuk menyertai TDM. Penyiasatan awal dilakukan sebelum penyelidikan sebenar dilaksanakan bagi memastikan pernyataan

masalah bersesuaian dengan kontak TDM. Hasil penyiasatan awal mendapati tiga konstruk peramal yang mempunyai kesan signifikan ke atas keinginan bukan Bumiputera menyertai TDM, iaitu *Attitude*, *Subjective Norms*, dan *Self-efficacy*. Dengan mengaplikasikan *Theory of Reasoned Action* (TRA), kajian ini menganalisa impak *attitude* dan *subjective norms* ke atas keinginan menyertai TDM oleh bukan Bumiputera. Tambahan juga, kajian ini akan meneliti kesan moderator *self-efficacy* ke atas hubungan antara *attitude/subjective norms* dan *intention* dalam keinginan bukan Bumiputera menyertai TDM. Alat pengukuran dalam kajian ini diadaptasi dari kajian terdahulu dan telah menjalani proses pra-uji dan ujian rintis yang ketat untuk kesahan dan kebolehpercayaan. Data bagi kajian ini dikutip dari golongan bukan Bumiputera di Malaysia berumur diantara 19 dan 24 tahun melalui atas talian (*Google Form*). Kajian kuantitatif ini menggunakan *Partial Least Squares–Structural Equation Modelling* (PLS-SEM) untuk mengabsahkan model kajian dan menguji hipotesis. Hasil analisa atas data yang diperolehi, menunjukkan empat-empat hipotesis disokong and hasil kajian ini memberikan sumbangan yang signifikan untuk memahami hubungkait diantara peramal dan keinginan untuk menyertai TDM oleh bukan Bumiputera. *Attitude* dan *subjective norms* didapati mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan yang positif dengan *intention* bukan Bumiputera untuk menyertai TDM. Sumbangan kajian ini dari segi teori, ialah memperkayakan pengetahuan mengenai TRA dengan mengenalpasti dan menguji peramal keinginan menyertai TDM oleh bukan Bumiputera dalam kontek tentera di Malaysia. Disamping mengkaji *self-efficacy* sebagai moderator dalam kajian ini juga menyumbang kepada pemahaman lebih menyeluruh kepada aplikasi teori TRA. Kajian ini juga menyumbang dari aspek pengurusan dan pengubal dasar dalam tentera Malaysia, dimana hasil kajian ini dapat memberikan garis panduan dan cadangan yang boleh digunakan bagi mengatasi masalah kekurangan penyertaan bukan Bumiputera dalam TDM.

Kata kunci: Bukan Bumiputera, *attitude*, *subjective norms*, *self-efficacy*, keinginan, menyertai, tentera, TRA

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(Ahmad, Tirmidhi).

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ATT	:	Attitude
CMV	:	Common Method Variance
EVM	:	Expectancy-Value Theory
MAF	:	Tricaine methanesulfonate
MCE	:	Malaysia Certificate of Education
MHSC	:	Malaysian High School Certificate
MVC	:	Malaysian Vocational Certificate
PBC	:	Perceived Behavioural Control
RMA	:	Royal Malaysian Army
RMAF	:	Royal Malaysian Air Force
RMN	:	Royal Malaysian Navy
SE	:	Self-Efficacy
SN	:	Subjective Norms
STAM	:	Sijil Tinggi Agama Malaysia
TDM	:	Tentera Darat Malaysia
TPB	:	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	:	Theory of Reasoned Action

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with introduction that describe the changes in security environment which spark the new threat in security domain including military organization. Discussion on the changes in security environment is describe in detail as it outlines the background of the study. This chapter continue with the discussion of ethnic in military and followed by an overview of the Royal Malaysian Army (RMA). Subsequently RMA enlistment was described in detail to provide understanding of the enlistment process followed by discussion on ethnic diversity in the RMA, which sets the foundation of the study. The important of ethnicity in RMA is explained in detail and relate to future conflict. Detail discussion was presented on the problem faced by RMA. Statical data was presented in this chapter to prove the problem exist. The chapter continues with understanding non-Bumiputra enlistment in RMA followed by the problem statement and discussion on research questions, and research objectives. This chapter end with the significance of the research and lastly, the organisation of chapters in the dissertation.

1.2 Background of the Study

Malaysia, as a multi-ethnic nation, does not underestimate the importance of national unity. History has shown that multi-ethnic nation is on constant threat from disunity among ethnic which will lead to civil war as happen to Malaysia in 1969. Segregation of ethnic in occupation legacy of the British administration create gap between ethnic. During that time, ethnic is easily recognizable by occupation, Chinese as traders or miners, Indian as workers in plantation and Malays as government servant. There is very least interaction in occupation among ethnic and monopoly of certain occupation by

certain ethnic create dominance of that ethnic upon other. The culmination of the unity problem in Malaysia broke out on 13 May in 1969 were the incidents of racial riots that occurred. This tragedy has claimed lives and property and is closely linked to the "10 May 1969 General Election " is a black spot in the history of Malaysia. Lesson learnt from this event determine Malaysian government to take necessary action to strengthen national unity and prevent incident happen again in future.

Government is allocating a lot of resources to propagated unity among multi-ethnic in Malaysia to foster peace and security. The 6th Prime Minister of Malaysia introduced the '1 Malaysia' campaign that is anchored in a shared culture of acceptance, excellence, education, integrity, humility, loyalty, meritocracy, and perseverance as a strategy to foster national unity. According to Desa and Yusoff (2014), the 1 Malaysia concept aims to enhance the relationship among Malaysians regardless of race, religion, and culture. The Malaysian government has also been actively promoting national unity among Malaysians through education, economic, social, and political approaches. Substantial national resources have been allocated to plan, promote, and implement the national unity agenda, one of which is to promote a sense of belonging to the nation through the fair distribution of all races in civil service as well as in corporate sectors. During the 14th Malaysian general election in 2018, national unity was high on the government's agenda with major efforts by the Malaysian government to enhance and strengthen it. The 7th Prime Minister of Malaysia, in his Chinese New Year message on 4th February 2019, called on all Malaysians to work together to enhance national unity. In response to the call and adhering to the national unity agenda, all public sector organisations, including the Malaysian Armed Forces, have been urged to diversify their recruitment to achieve a balanced ethnicity representation.

Protecting Malaysia from external threats in today's context needs not only well-armed and well-trained military personnel but also a credible and trusted military organisation. As Malaysia is a multi-ethnic country, it is important for the military to be seen and believed as acting in the best interest of all ethnic to safeguard Malaysia. Support for the military by all citizens is important in times of peace and conflict especially in defusing civil war (Blattman & Miguel, 2010). Domination of single race in military create tension, distrust and sceptical as government servant are the work force of government policy. This scenario can lead to unequal distribution in extending government policy to only specific ethnic, double standard in enforcing rule and regulation, and others issue.

1.3 Future Conflict

From the military perspective, national unity is important to protect the country from today's warfare (Dieu, 2020; Roosa, 2007). The changing nature of warfare over time due to the end of Cold War, from ideology clashes to economic, social, ethnic and religious clashes, threatens the weak link (i.e., national unity) of a multi-ethnic country especially in military organization. History has shown that in recent civil wars in Africa and Central Asia, were triggered by internal conflict among the population due to ethnicity, religion, culture, economics, and social disparities. These conflicts were then blown into full-scale war with the support and intervention of other countries on the pretext of protecting certain ethnic groups' rights.

This scenario was summarised in a book, *The Clash of Civilisations* by Huntington (2000), which describes that future conflict will be in the form of civilisation clashes rather than ideology clashes. According to Huntington (2000) the fundamental source of

conflict in this new world will not be primarily ideological or economic. The great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. The fault lines between civilizations will be the battle lines of the future. Therefore, to ensure Malaysia is not threatened by civilisation clashes triggered by ethnicity or social issues, national unity among Malaysians must be strengthened as the first line of defence in Malaysia's security.

In the future conflict Clash of Civilization, the threatening national unity in military are one of the strategies adapted by adversaries to weaken a military organization. National unity issue is either insisted by the enemy is used as a tool in war to weaken the opposing military. Adversaries will adopt psychological warfare that play the racial, ethnic, religion and cultural issue to create disunity, distrust and anger among military personnel. Military is an organization which operate as a team among the personnel to conduct operation and mission. Unity, cohesion and teamwork among military members are force multiplier beside weaponry and training. Therefore, it is paramount that the Malaysian military has a balanced composition of ethnicities to ensure military unity and cohesion to perform the main role of RMA that is to protect the nation and all ethnic.

A well-balanced military in terms of ethnicity representation is thus important not only to foster national unity but also to strengthen the core of the military organisation itself. A key lesson learned from the Bosnian civil war (Jenne, 2009), African civil war (Abubakar, 2001), and the latest Central Asia conflict (Chellaney, 2002) is that when the military is dominated by a certain ethnic group, the outcome can be severe. Bosnia military dominated by Serbian ethnic, during civil wars, ethnic Bosnian and Croatian

suffered the most. In Rwanda civil war, military dominated by Hutu ethnic, ethnic Tutsi suffered the most in the war.

Lebanon military is living proof how multi-ethnic military able to perform its role effectively and protect the country in time of crisis. During Lebanon civil war in 1975-1976, Lebanon military was overrepresentation by Christian especially in officer corps. At this time during the internal conflict in Lebanon saw the utility of Lebanon military by ruling government to suppress opposition (Enloe, 1978). The country's official authority had been degraded to the point where the national army was perceived as a weapon of one ethnic community. Consequences of the civil war, various ethnic in Lebanon began to openly debate the communal role of the military which the military fail to deliver during the conflict due to ethnic issue in military. This led Lebanon military to take drastic action and restructure Lebanon military as what it is today.

Interestingly, the scenario was different in Lebanon during the civil war in 2006 (Gaub, 2007). Lebanese fighting forces more or less reflect the nation's ethnic structure which comprises 35% are Shi'ite, 21% to 22% are Christian, 7% are Druze, and 27% are Sunni Muslims, which allowed Lebanon's military to create an image of a trustworthy and competent state institution (Khashan, 2009). As a result, Israel's effort to create disunity among Lebanon military personnel by playing religious issues between Islam and Christianity during the conflict failed. Lebanon military success in preventing the effect of psychological warfare targeting military unity clearly demonstrate how fair representation of ethnic in military is important in today context.

Military role in protecting the people is the core responsibility of its establishment. However, in certain situation especially in non-democratic country such as Cambodia,

Iraq, China and Sudan military are used to suppress opposition or certain minority ethnic by the ruling regime to gain support or cling to power during civil disturbance. In the case of Myanmar, military dominated by Rakhine ethnic is used by the government to suppress and Rohingya ethnic minority. Ethnicity in military is so important that when the military is called upon to oppress segments of the local population, the importance of troops' ethnic identities in diminishing or increasing regime loyalty is brought to light. Furthermore, in the middle of an internal conflict, civilians try to reduce insecurity by assessing who they can trust and who they should be afraid of. In such private calculations, the average person may become aware for the first time of how the military's ethnic makeup ensures or jeopardises his or her own security. According to Johnson and Lorenzo (2017), ethnic-based enlistment can affect the ability of a regime to violently repress its opponents, which shows that ethnicity has an impact on military roles.

1.4 Ethnic in Military

Ethnic in military is becoming an important issue debated in security domain lately. Conflict occurring today especially in multi-ethnic nation such as Africa, Southeast Asia, Middle East and lately in Balkan states propel the issue into hype in security agenda. This is true as understanding loyalties, especially in a multi-ethnic military, are problematic as it involves many interrelated elements (Coakley & Fraenkel, 2014). Malaysia isn't the only country with a low level of saliency associated with its ethnic-military structure. Given the large number of countries with ethnically distorted military institutions, and the fact that such distortion is often the result of deliberate political decisions (Dietz, 2021), it's surprising to find so few multi-ethnic countries where the ethnic character of the military has become a prominent or long-standing political issue. Several governments are looking for the issue of ethnic in military seriously as it threatens the survival of the nation. Countries turn to the military to secure peace and security when

conflict arise either external or internal conflict. Regardless of the conflict, either ethnic, religion, culture or social, when the need arises for military to intervene, military organization must be able to perform the job nonpartisan in any situation.

Ethnic in military are sometime used as a tool by the ruling government to cling to power. According to Thomas and Karnad (2021), to some extent government adopt strategy saturating military with one preferable ethnic that will guarantee supporting the ruling government in peace and conflict. Some democratic country as military is the biggest organization, winning and election are relatively easy with support from military organization (Clapham & Philip, 2021). Consequences of single ethnic military either intentionally or unintentionally are a threat to peace and security in a country (Lake & Rothchild, 1996). According to Favara (2017) whether including race as an influential difference in anti-violence policy or embracing racial difference as a symbol of military variety, the incorporation of difference involves concerns of power. This demonstrates the important to have a balanced ethnic representation in the military especially in multi-ethnic country

There are many ways to create a well balance military to ensure the cohesion and unity of the organization. Strategy in creating a balance ethnic in military must suit the country setting and political stand. For example, Russian create balance military in ethnic by adopting model “School of Nation” where young men of diverse ethnic origins and cultures are moulded into model soldiers (Hajda & Beissinger, 2019). This strategy model is suitable to a nation where nation institution is more dominance and has highest priority than individual compared to democratic country. However, this strategy model only sustainable if as long as an appropriate ethnic mix was available in successive call-ups. “School of Nation” model fail in early 1980 when the required ethnic mix are unavailable for the recruitment. Contrary to the strategy, democratic country doesn’t have the leverage

as autocratic country to utilise rule and regulation to create multi-ethnic military. For a democratic country, example the United States, strategy to create multi-ethnic military hinges on the highest incentive and prestige. Currently the United States military is one of the well-paid military personnel in the world coupling with special perks and privilege (Cohen, 2019). United States is able to adopt this strategy model due to the military spending is the biggest compare the rest of other country. Hence, creating multi-ethnic army through incentive and prestige are viable option. As for Malaysia, neither have the option of the strategy, rule and regulation or highest incentive and prestige to attract all ethnic and create a desirable multi-ethnic military. Thus, Malaysia needs to adopt strategy which are suitable in Malaysia setting to create multi-ethnic military.

Domination of single ethnic in Malaysia military can be trace way back during British rule in Malaya before independence. British colonial strategies and ethnic stereotype determine the original character of ethnic military in Malaysia. The military-ethnic pattern so common throughout imperial systems is a variation on the familiar divide-and-rule formula for forestalling state-destabilizing disaffection (Enloe, 1977). Previously British administration had sceptical on the capabilities and martial trait of Malays to form military and prefer Gurkhas, Nepalis ethnic predominantly to protect British interest in Malaya. Due to economic viability to form up military from indigenous ethnic rather than importing from other British rule empire, British administration form up the first Malay Regiment with 25 personnel as a test. As the name suggested, it was solely Malay in its composition, Chinese and Indians were excluded. This is the creation of mould for single dominated race in Malaysian military. Moreover, it was developed in such a way as deliberately to make the most of Malays cultural symbols. Engaging only Malays in military by British administration are understandable as British identify ethnic in Malaya at that time by occupation, Chinese as traders, miners, Indian as plantation workers, and Malay as government servant.

The period of communist insurgency witnessed the diversification of the military into multi branch services. A multi racial Federation Regiment was establish with only partial success to include other race as the main focus is expending the military and not ethnic diversity. Establishment of multi racial Federation Regiment with the purpose to bind non insurgent Chinese and Indian closer to the government somehow indirectly benefit the Malays This is because Malays in military had so much of seniority, Malays were the beneficiaries of British administration policies to replace British officers with local officers. This subsequently translate to Malays in the higher rank in military and Chinese and Indian in the lower rank in military. Furthermore, stereotype of communist insurgent as Chinese ethnicity, did not help in the assignment of rank in the military by British administration due to lack of trust.

Despite RMA expansion over 87 years in operation, ethnic participation in the RMA still does not reflect Malaysian diversity. The representation of all races in the RMA is essential as the army's prime role is the defence of the nation. It is important that Malaysian military have fair representation from all ethnic as having fair representation illustrates unity, patriotism, loyalty, and most importantly, love for the country's sovereignty (Eitelberg, 1986). The low representation of non-Bumiputra in RMA is not in accordance with government effort to promote national unity through increase participation of non-Bumiputra in government sector. A lot of effort done by the government to attract non-Bumiputra to serve in RMA, yet the success is very low.

The imbalance of race in the MA is not a new issue to Malaysian lawmakers. Countless debates have been raised in the Malaysian Parliament regarding the disparity of ethnicities in the military, the latest debate being in 2019 during the first meeting of the second term Parliamentary Debate. The importance of ethnic disparity in government organization are acknowledged by all politicians as the issue was raised during each general election and

being debated by members of the Parliament. This concern was also shared by top Malaysian military leadership, as during the 2018 recruit passing out parade, the Chief of Army issued a statement that there is a need to increase the participation of non-Bumiputra in the military. The image of imbalance representation of ethnic in Malaysian military does not help in promoting Malaysia as multi-ethnic nation in the eye of another military. Therefore, in order for Malaysian military to stay relevant in future, it is paramount important to address ethnic disparity in the military.

1.5 History of RMA

The history of the RMA began with the recruitment of 25 Malay youth as an experimental squad for trial and subsequently formed the first Malay Regiment on 1 March 1933. The initial purpose establishment of military organization was to take over security responsibility of Malaya and prepare Malaya for self-governing and subsequently independent. This is the viable option for British administration at that time as the cost to protect Malaya and other British empire are getting costly. The first Malay regiment continues to grow into a full battalion known as the 1st Battalion of the Malay Regiment on 1st January 1938. The second battalion was established on 1 December 1941, six days before the Second World War began in Malaya. After the war ended, British returned to Malaya and at the same time the security situation in the Southeast Asian region is threaten by the expansion of communism in Vietnam. Subsequently, Malaya was hit by Communist threats and a state of emergency were declared in 1948.

Threat from communism was so overwhelmingly to the point British administration fear Malaya will collapse and dominated by communist. This led to the expansion on the military rapidly assisted by British administration in terms of asset, training, cooperation and advice with the pretext to combat communism. By year 1950 the strength of the RMA

was increased with establishment another seven more battalions of soldiers It was also during this time RMA established multi-racial forces, namely the Federation Regiment Squadron in 1952. RMA continuously expanded with more non-Bumiputra joining the establishment in the Royal Ranger Regiment, Royal Armoured Corps, Royal Artillery Corps, Royal Services Corps, Royal Electrical and Mechanical Corps and Royal Engineer Corps. As Malaysia progressed in economic, social, and politic, the need to ensure its security and stability increased significantly. Thus, RMA expend alongside Malaysia development as the need to protect Malaysia interest become greater.

1.6 RMA Enlistment

RMA rank structure is divided into two categories, i.e, officers and other ranks. Applicants who enlist to join the service as officers are known as officer cadets while applicants who enlist to join the service as other ranks are known as recruits. The requirements, qualifications, and even influencing factors to enlist as officer cadets are different from those of recruits. Beside that job scope and responsibility of officers and other ranks are totally different. This research focused only on addressing the problem of non-Bumiputra recruits' enlistment in the RMA.

Applications for the enlistment of recruits are gathered and processed throughout the year to accumulate the required minimum number of potential candidates for the conduct of selection course at the end of the year. Beside cost saving by conducting the course with optima number of candidate, target number of applicant are essential to mitigate turnover in RMA. RMA has been adopting the same method of recruitment throughout the years. However, the enlistment and selection process in 2020 changed drastically due to the Covid-19 pandemic; that is, applications were shifted online and reserve application and failure lists from previous years were used to recruit potential application. Data on

recruit applications to enlist in the RMA for five years from 2014 to 2019 is illustrated in Table 1.1, Figure 1.1, and Figure 1.2 below.

Table 1.1: Recruit Applications

	APPLICATION					SUCCESSFUL				
	TOTAL					TOTAL				
	BUMI	%	NON BUMI	%		BUMI	%	NON BUMI	%	
2014	23704	98.42	381	1.58	24085	4607	19.44	70	18.37	4677
2015	28727	98.76	362	1.24	29089	5151	17.93	56	15.47	5207
2016	31720	99.31	219	0.69	31939	5866	18.49	73	33.33	5939
2017	20910	98.59	298	1.41	21208	5204	24.89	54	18.12	5258
2018	18479	95.71	828	4.29	19307	5209	28.19	175	21.14	5384
2019	19580	97.36	530	2.64	20110	5330	27.22	110	20.75	5440
Total	143120	98.20	2618	1.80	145738	31367	21.92	538	20.55	31905

Source: Army Headquarters- Human Resource Branch

Between 2014 and 2019, non-Bumiputra recruit applications ranged from the lowest percentage of 0.69 in 2016 to the highest percentage of 4.29 in 2018. The year 2016 was the biggest recruitment drive by the RMA, achieving the highest number of applications in the five years at 31939; yet non-Bumiputra applications were the lowest that year at 0.69% compared to Bumiputra applications at 99.31%. Overall, from 2014 to 2019, recruit applications by non-Bumiputra to join the RMA comprised 1.8% compared to 98.2% by Bumiputra. In the year 2018, show the highest percentage of non-Bumiputra application in 6 years. Possible explanation for the surge of non-Bumiputra application in 2018 to join military (public sector) is because of increased interest and trust in government by non-Bumiputra after the 14th General Election as according to Gomez and Osman (2019), interest and trust to government organization increased after the election among non-Bumiputra. The effect of low percentage application from non-Bumiputra for all these years can be seen in RMA today as the number of non-Bumiputra serving in RMA are very small. Low numbers of non-Bumiputra applicant are not possible to

mitigate the turnover numbers of non-Bumiputra leaving or retiring from RMA. This percentage is so low that it can even be considered unacceptable.

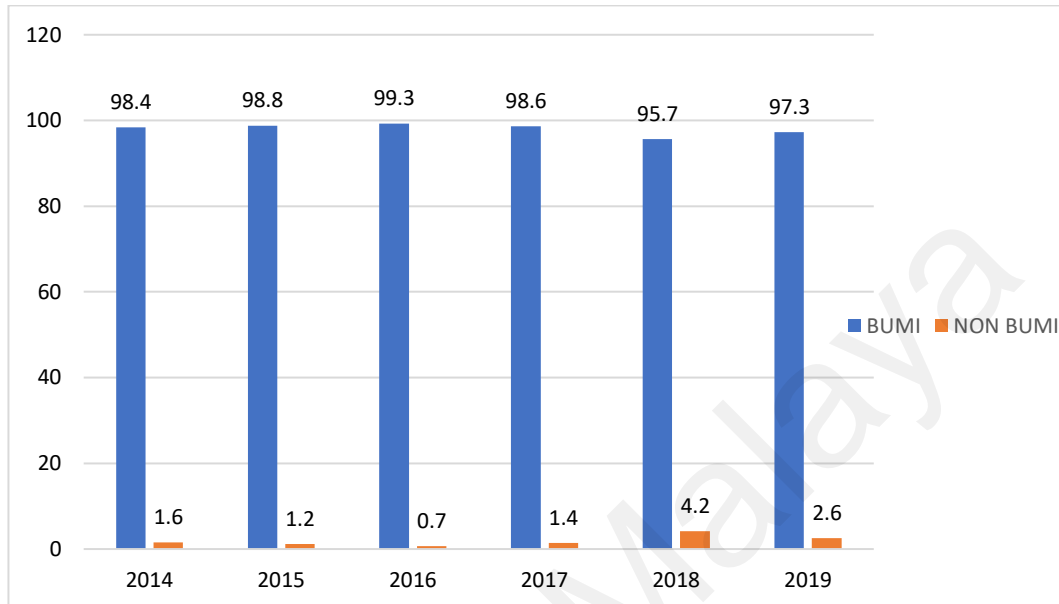


Figure 1.1: Recruit Application

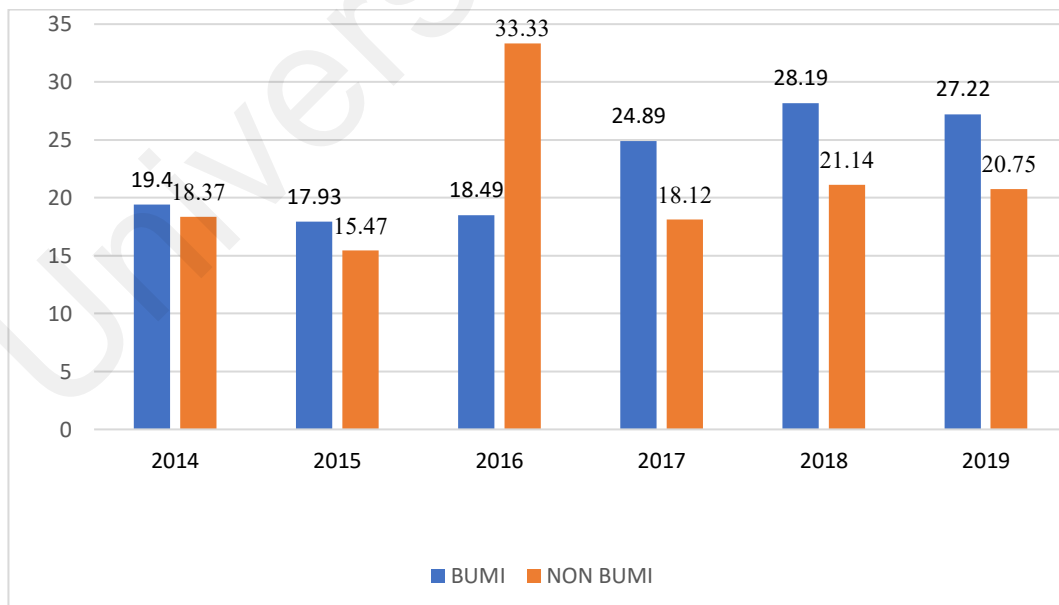


Figure 1.2: Successful Recruit Application

The success rate of non-Bumiputra recruit applicants between 2014 and 2019 recorded the highest at 33.33% in 2016 (despite it being the year with the lowest non-Bumiputra applications) and the lowest at 15.47% in 2015. Further observation indicates that the year with the highest non-Bumiputra applications, 2018, had 828 applicants and a success rate of 21.14%. Overall, from 2014 to 2019, non-Bumiputra' successful application percentage was 20.55% compared to Bumiputra' at 21.92%. Success full rate of non-Bumiputra applicant in enlistment was not an issue as the data shown. For example, in 2016 successful applicant rate for non-Bumiputra was 33.33 percent compare to successful rate for Bumiputra only at 18.49 percent. It is observed that not much different in percentage between non-Bumiputra and Bumiputra in successful application. The low number of serving non-Bumiputra in RMA is cause by low number of applications and not because of failure rate during enlistment selection process.

It is observed that in RMA, non-Bumiputra recruits comprised an average of 4.16% of the total force in 2014 and the highest percentage is in 2018, 5.46% from total force. Average percentage from 2014 until 2019 is 4.77 percent. This reinforces the effect of the low non-Bumiputra enlistment in the RMA as shown from the demographic perspective. The five-year data period showed a small increase in percentage, with the highest ratio of 5.46% recorded in 2018. The demographic details for other ranks (recruits that has been accepted in service) in the RMA are presented in Table 1.2, Table 1.3, and Table 1.4.

Table 1.2: Percentage of Non-Bumiputra in the Malaysian Army

	TOTAL FORCE	NON BUMI	%
2014	81056	3368	4.16
2015	81437	3216	3.95
2016	83634	3989	4.77
2017	82465	4099	4.97
2018	82397	4495	5.46
2019	82366	4398	5.33

Source: Army Headquarters- Human Resource Branch

Table 1.3: Percentage of Races in the Malaysian Army

SER	RACE	%	TOTAL
1	MALAY	81.39	67044
2	CHINESE	1.60	1321
3	INDIAN	2.00	1654
4	SABAH	5.20	4,289
5	SARAWAK	8.10	6,635
6	OTHERS	1.71	1423
TOTAL		100%	82366

Source: Army Headquarters- Human Resource Branch

Table 1.4: Percentage of Religion in the Malaysian Army

SER	RELIGION	%	TOTAL
1	MUSLIM	85.56	70477
2	CHRISTIAN	10.35	8526
3	BUDDHIST	1.52	1252
4	HINDUS	1.87	1542
5	OTHERS	0.70	569
TOTAL		100%	82366

Source: Army Headquarters- Human Resource Branch

1.7 Non-Bumiputra Enlistment in RMA

According to Asch and Orvis (1994), the theoretical framework that underpins youth's decision to enlist in the military is not just determined by a single factor; rather, it comprises a combination of multiple factors, including individual tendencies, financial

circumstances, labour market incentives, recruiter initiatives, and the military's image. Moreover, most studies have been conducted in European countries with completely different settings and cultures from Malaysia. Trying to understand the intention to enlist in the Malaysian military based on these foreign studies would be a flawed way to perform this research. According to Yeung, McInerney, and Ali (2014), internal and external factors have varying effects across different ethnicity group. This emphasises that a preliminary investigation is crucial in this research for the researcher to understand the enlistment setting in RMA.

The preliminary investigation was conducted as a process to gain a better understanding of the issue surrounding the intended research. It helped the researcher determine the most relevant issue out of numerous issues affecting ethnic enlistment in military, that are relevant to non-Bumiputra' enlistment in the military in the Malaysian context. The identified issues underscored a deeper understanding of the pertinent theory of the study and the development of a research framework. In other words, among many issues governing ethnic enlistment in military around the world as highlighted by literature, the main question is which of this issue are related to ethnic non-Bumiputera enlistment in RMA. That is what preliminary investigation intend to answer. However, it is important to note that, the use of a preliminary investigation does not categorise this research as a mixed-method study. It is a way how the researcher in this understand issue governing non-Bumiputra enlistment in RMA in Malaysian context.

The preliminary investigation was conducted by the researcher using semi-structured interviews of a group of 10 non-Bumiputra respondents. The selection of respondents followed the general military eligibility criteria of individuals in the age range of 19 to 24 and without glaring physical disabilities. Respondents were selected in this manner to

ensure the closest similarity to potential applicants. According to Salganik and Heckathorn (2004) respondent must be conform to some designated set of specification related to the research. The preliminary investigation aimed to obtain views and thoughts from these respondents regarding the issues influencing enlistment intention in the RMA. Accordingly, five main open-ended questions were asked in the interview, as follows: (1) What are the most important factors to consider when enlisting in the military? (2) Why are the factors mentioned important? (3) What is your opinion regarding a career in the military? (4) What can influence one's decision to enlist in the military? (5) Why do you say so? The detailed report of the analysis is presented in Appendix A.

First, the findings revealed that the decision to enlist in the RMA is not made in isolation; rather, it is influenced by important people surrounding the decision maker (e.g., family members, relatives, friends, etc.). The influencing power embedded in important people on non-Bumiputra intention to enlist are due to the respect, culture, religious obligation, knowledge, consensus decision and responsibility. This influencing power create perception of social pressure that compel non-Bumiputra to seek approval from important people. Influence of important people on non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in RMA not only in form of approval but also in form of advice. Non-Bumiputra viewed important people are knowledgeable and wise and able to give best advice in non-Bumiputra decision to enlist in RMA. In context of this research, non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in MA is influence by the perception of social pressure exerted by important people surrounding non-Bumiputra life. According to Ajzen (1991), the perception of pressure created by relevant important others surrounding the subject is known as subjective norms.

Second, the findings of the preliminary investigation highlighted respondents' belief that they would gain benefits from enlisting in the RMA, which influences their intention to enlist. In particular, they perceived potential benefits from a competitive salary, medical services, housing scheme, family benefits, social welfare, and other perks and privileges offered by the RMA. Respondents also believe that other than material rewards, they will benefit from personal development such as self-confidence, discipline, a healthy lifestyle, fitness, and adventure. Besides that, respondents want to be associated with the positive image of the RMA. In context of this research non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in RMA is weight with the positive outcome one's will received when enlist in RMA. According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), individuals seek to engage in specific behaviours when they evaluate those behaviours positively; this is known as attitude.

Third, the preliminary investigation showed that the mental and physical abilities to cope with challenging military training and life are important factors that respondents consider in making the decision to join the RMA. Mental and physical abilities are important as it will ensure coping ability in military challenging life. A person is inclined to join the military if he/she is confident about passing all the training and enduring military life. It is the optimistic sense of personal competence that seems to be a persistent phenomenon accounting for the motivation and accomplishment in human being (Scholz, Gutiérrez-Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). In the context of this research, non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in MA is influence by the belief of one's ability in mental and physical to endure life and training in military. According to Bandura (1977), in choosing any action, people are influenced by the belief in their ability to control and manage their decisions, effort, willpower, and even feelings – this is known as self-efficacy.

Interestingly preliminary investigation did reveal that patriotism is not considered as one of the most important factors influencing intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in military in context of Malaysia. This contradict to the general belief that patriotism is important attribute associated with military enlistment behaviour directly or indirectly. Several studies have been conducted on patriotism in military context and support the general belief. (Fransen, 2019; Krebs & Ralston, 2022; S. Park & Avery, 2016; Sami, 2015; Volkov, Vereshchagina, & Lubsky, 2018; Yu, 2015). Although literature in military enlistment is saturated with patriotism as one of the issues discuss, that is not the case in Malaysia setting. Possible explanation is all the study is conducted in countries with different setting and context with Malaysia. These discrepancies clearly reinforce the important for this research conducting preliminary investigation in order to better understand the issue in context of Malaysian setting. However, patriotism is not ruled out as important consideration to military enlistment in setting different from Malaysia. Researcher did acknowledge that the sample of preliminary finding are small which also might contribute to this finding.

1.8 Problem Statement

The military is known as an occupation exposed to threatening situations due to its job nature, especially pertaining to combat (Osório et al., 2018), the severity of the effects of post-traumatic stress disorder after deployment (Karstoft, Nielsen, & Nielsen, 2018) and the high level of commitment required (Shields, 2020). These qualities make the military an unattractive option for some groups of people, which has negative implications for enlistment.

RMA are not facing shortage of manpower, but facing problem diversify in recruiting. As discuss in enlistment the diversify of ethnic in RMA are vital to accommodate national strategy to foster unity, to ensure RMA are not threaten by trend of future conflict and to

ensure the cohesion of RMA in protecting multi-ethnic in Malaysia. RMA has undertaken various action to rectify the situation, but the effort proved not effective. As a result, currently RMA is being dominated by single ethnic and the trend has becoming more alarming in recent years. The situation which creates the problem can be explain in the enlistment effort and military enlistment studies as discuss below.

1.8.1 Enlistment Effort

The capability to attract human resources of the right quality and quantity is still a challenge for organisations (Rodríguez-Sánchez, Montero-Navarro, & Gallego-Losada, 2019). For the RMA, this challenge is even more severe because while the army needs skilled and qualified individuals to form a competent military, it also has to adhere to social pressure to represent the whole community even when suitable personnel are in short supply. This issue is exacerbated by the necessity to recruit talents who are flexible, adaptable, and culturally attentive to the demands of the civilians they are sworn to defend and safeguard (Smith & Heinecken, 2014). Currently RMA enlistment only managed to fulfil the requirement of required talent but not the requirement of diversity in enlistment as representation of Malaysia ethnicity.

RMA enlistment is still centred on ‘traditional’ formats such as print, registration booths, career talks, TV, radio, and selected social media platforms. This approach aims to provide as much as information on RMA as possible to attract enlistments. However, years of practice with the same approach indicates that this approach has only managed to attract a specific group (Bumiputra) as the data above proves. According to Breugh (2016), to be able to recruit efficiently, organisations must know how to advertise and, most importantly, what to advertise. Advertisements need not just provide lots of information regarding the organisation but must also be able to offer specific information

that draws in the target audience. In other words, RMA need to advertise what non-Bumiputra are expecting to benefit when enlisting in RMA. It is understandable why the same approach is adopted for all the years as the main focus of RMA at that time is to fulfil the enlistment of required talent only and not recruitment for diversity. As the focus of government change to diversity of ethnic participation in military, RMA strategy need to change to fulfil the new requirement.

Beside intensive enlistment drives, substantial efforts have been put forth by the Malaysian government and the RMA to attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in the military, such as reviewed terms of service and salaries, increased benefits and privileges, restructured military social support, higher learning opportunities, medical services, and many others (*MAF JD 1-01 Personnel Support*, 2000). Terms of service in RMA has greatly improved with lots of benefit and previllage, however the strategy still fail to attract non-Bumiputra applications.

RMA also strategy to attract non-Bumiputra by enhanced enlistment activities using media such as advertisements, road shows, exhibitions, and collaborations with other government agencies and improving terms and regulations of services to much better standards, yet the number of non-Bumiputra joining the service remains small. Both strategies adopted by RMA (intensified recruitment campaign and review terms of service for increased benefit, salary and privileged) failed to attract non-Bumiputra to enlist. This clearly show there is gap of knowledge for RMA to formulate an efficient enlistment programmed and promotion to attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in RMA. Subsequently, this failure has become a problem to RMA to diversify the organization.

1.8.2 Military Enlistment Studies

First, research on military recruitment has a huge gap in numbers between European and Asian countries, and worst still, in Southeast Asian countries. According to Gautam (2008), the study of the intention to enlist in the military in South Asia is not high on scholars' agenda due to insignificant shortfalls in recruitment targets by number. This may be true for recruitment numbers but not for the diversity of recruits as problem faced by RMA. As for Malaysia, there is only several writeup concerning ethnic enlistment in Malaysian military, article by Enloe (1978), Guyot (1976), Enloe (1975) and a book by Lim (1989) and the most recent research conducted by Yong et al. (2021). The lack of studies concerning military enlistment in the Malaysian context makes it difficult and almost impossible to understand and solve the recruitment problem faced by the RMA. RMA required a comprehensive study of the problem and possible suggestion to address the issue.

Second, findings on military enlistment are still not well-understood as study results vary. According to Ford, Gibson, Griepentrog, and Marsh (2014), studies on the US military show that only 26% of teenagers who claimed they would certainly enlist in the army later joined the military. Nearly half of the rest had expressed little to no intention of enlisting in the army, but eventually did so. Possible explanation for this as studies indicate that people possess more tangible perceptions of events that will happen sooner rather than later (Trope & Liberman, 2003), which makes making predicting the intention to join the military a challenging task. Until intention to enlist in the military is fully understood and research on this phenomenon is saturated with consistent results, there is a need to continue studying the intention to join in the military context.

Third, studies of ethnic groups' enlistment in the military have been conducted by various researchers and have enriched the understanding of ethnicity-based enlistment in the military. However, study findings show that different ethnic groups report different results. For example, some studies have revealed that ethnicities differ by their attributes in their decision to enlist and their behaviours in the military (Fair & Nawaz, 2010; Khalidi, 2001; Singh, 2017; Thibault & Marc, 2004). Recent research by Favara (2018) on the African American race and masculinity in US military recruitment showed that race has different effects on enlistment intention. In addition, Yastrzemsky (2016) in his research "The propensity to serve in the armed forces: An examination into the factors associated with military propensity during the post-9/11 era" conducted a comprehensive study to identify the reasons for different races to enlist in the military and found that black youth's enlistment is driven by more tangible, occupational incentives (e.g., pay and benefits) whereas white and Hispanic youth are attracted to more intangible and institutional incentives. The study shows clear disparity of influence among different ethnicity in intention to enlist in military. As studies point out, there is a disparity of behaviour across ethnicities in military enlistment; therefore, the generalisation of findings from previous research is difficult and may not be an accurate representation of an intended ethnic group in Malaysia, especially in the MA context. As there are no military enlistment studies done in context of Malaysia ethnic setting in particular to RMA, it has become a problem for RMA to formulate strategy to attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in military.

1.9 Research Questions

Research question is considered as an important first step that serves as a compass for a study. It is so important that research question is regarded as the crux of the research process by many authors on social research methodology and by practising social

researchers. According to Bryman (2007) research question is supposed to have a pivotal role because decisions about research design and methods are supposed to be made in order to answer research questions. In other words, a research question is a specific question to which the research aims to respond. It is at the heart of systematic study and aids in defining a clear path for the research process. Research questions can be developed from theoretical knowledge, previous research or experience, or a practical need at work (Parahoo, 2014). Appropriate research questions should highlight the population, dependent variables and design and the link between the research question and the design (Kloda & Bartlett, 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Based on the discussion and non-Bumiputra enlistment context in Malaysia setting, the research questions to be answered were as follows:

1.9.1 Does attitude affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA?

1.9.2 Does subjective norms affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA?

1.9.3 Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA?

1.9.4 Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA?

1.10 Research Objectives

According to Smith and Heineken (2014), recruiting for the military is not an easy task as several factors that influence enlistment is outside the military's control. Based on this reason, analysing the negative factors influence enlistment intention which the RMA has no control will not provide solutions to the problem. No doubt the finding might contribute to theoretical contribution but the main focus in this applied research is to solve

RMA problem. Therefore, the objective of this study is to examine the problem from a positive approach to understand the factors that promote non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in the MA, as these attraction factors are already embedded in RMA and within the control of the military organisation.

There are several criteria need to be applied in setting research objective. According to Johnson and Christensen (2019) research objective must fulfil these criteria, specific (be precise about what research going to accomplish), measurable (objective must be quantify), appropriate (relate with the needs of the target subject), realistic (capability and capacity to make the objective happen) and time (target time to accomplish). Research objective sentences must include action words that can be evaluate such as ‘to describe’, ‘to identify’, ‘to examine’ or ‘to investigate’. Based on the discussion above the research objectives of this study were as follows:

1.10.1 To examine the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA.

1.10.2 To examine the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA.

1.10.3 To investigate self-efficacy as moderator in relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA.

1.10.4 To investigate self-efficacy as moderator in relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the RMA.

1.11 Significance of the Research

The focus of this applied research was to address the managerial issue faced by the RMA and provide solutions to the problem. The study’s is significance both theoretical and practical as the study offer solution to solve the army’s problem of low non-

Bumiputra enlistment in RMA. This study also expands the literature by enriching the body of knowledge on the intention to enlist in the military by applying the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) in the MA.

1.11.1 Theoretical Significance

In social research, there are many type of theoretical significance of research such as identifying factors that moderate or mediate key relationship (Miller & Shamsie, 1996), developing logic that reconcile predictions from competing theories (Combs & Skill, 2003), extending a theory to explain a phenomenon where it has not previously been applied (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Combs, Michael, & Castrogiovanni, 2009), new phenomenon (Cowen & Marcel, 2011), explaining a theory boundary conditions (Ray, Barney, & Muhanna, 2004; Shervani, Frazier, & Challagalla, 2007), developing logic to explain a phenomenon that is not consistent (or seems inconsistent) with theory (Knott, 2003; Sanders & Hambrick, 2007) and introducing a new construct and explaining how it relates to important construct (Baker & Nelson, 2005; Finkelstein & Boyd, 1998).

In context of this research theoretical significance as follows: Predicting the intention to enlist in the military is challenging as results vary across different contexts. According to Ford et al. (2014), only 26% of those who agree to enlist when surveyed actually enlist. The challenge of understanding military enlistment in the Asian context is further exacerbated by the fact that limited numbers of military enlistment studies exist compared to Western countries. Thus, conducting this research in Asia context will enrich the literature on the intention to enlist in the military, particularly in the Malaysian setting.

Studies by Khalidi (2001), Fair and Nawaz (2010), Yastrzemsky (2016), and most lately by Favara (2018) show that when comparing ethnic groups, there are disparities in their behaviour in the military. Generalisation of previous research

ethnicities would thus be erroneous. Therefore, by conducting research on non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the RMA, this study is significance in understanding a particular ethnicity's (non-Bumiputra') behaviour in terms of their intention to enlist in the RMA.

According to Ham, Jeger, and Frajman Ivković (2015), people from individualistic cultures express more intense attitudes towards particular behaviours and care less about what others think and say. Therefore, the country setting also affects subjective norms, as according to Ham et al. (2015), people from collectivistic countries appear to be more pressured by relevant key individuals around them and have a greater willingness to adhere to their views. In other words, the country setting influences the predicting power of attitude and subjective norms in relation to the intention to enlist in the military. Therefore, the TRA's independent variables, attitude, and subjective norms, need to be studied in the Malaysian context as predictors of non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the RMA.

The introduction of self-efficacy as a moderator in the TRA to predict the intention to enlist in the military further serves as a novelty of this study to the literature. Most previous research on self-efficacy has been done in the contexts of education, business, and health. Only few have included self-efficacy in military research. However, the concept of self-efficacy in this study (i.e., one's personal belief in his/her physical ability and mental capacity) differs from that of Boe, Säfvenbom, Johansen, and Buch (2018) research, as they focused on self-efficacy in military academics (learning) and not self-efficacy in military training and life. As is known, military training and life is challenging and difficult compared to other organisations in terms of the high demand for physical strength and mental capacity. In this regard, self-efficacy is a deep-rooted internal

perception in one's skills and abilities to start a job and complete it successfully. Therefore, testing self-efficacy (the belief in one's skills and abilities) in the utmost extreme situation of the military is relevant as the result will enrich the TRA by highlighting the role of self-efficacy in the intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in RMA.

1.11.2 Practical Significance

The main focus of applied research is the practical significance of the research that assist the organization in finding solutions to specific problems. Practical significance in applied research must be able to be translated into action plan for organization to solve the problem. In context of this research, it is expected to solve managerial issue face by MA of low enlistment of non-Bumiputra in MA.

The first practical significance of this study is identifying the precise factors that attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. The identified factors can be used in the military's recruitment drives to attract more potential non-Bumiputra applicants and improve recruitment success. Time, money, and resources for recruitment can further be focused on recruits with high potential who fit the factors identified. The findings of this study would also offer a more focused guideline for the formulation of recruitment campaigns that better target the intended group.

Second, practical significance of this study are the factors that are identified to attract non-Bumiputra will serve as a basis for future planning in policy development and term of service. Formulating policy and term of service that are attracting to non-Bumiputra will increase the chance of RMA to recruit more non-Bumiputra. Beside that using these factors as a foundation to plan training and deployment will not only attract non-Bumiputra to enlist but also served to accommodate serving non-Bumiputra military personnel. Most importantly the newly formulated policy and terms of service will attract

more non-Bumiputra to military organization and subsequently increase their enlistment and solve the RMA's problem.

The third practical significance of this study is identifying the expectations of potential non-Bumiputra recruits when enlisting in the military. This knowledge can be capitalised on and used in recruitment advertisements to gain more potential recruits. The RMA's recruitment advertising will therefore be more focused and in line with the expectations of potential recruit. In other words, knowing what potential recruits are looking for will guide the RMA on what to include in its recruitment advertisements and subsequently, improve the number of non-Bumiputra applicants in the RMA.

Fourth practical significance, beside understanding what the direct influence are non-Bumiputra intention to enlist, this study will also shed understanding on the indirect influence. Additionally, this study is expected to explain how this influence occurs. This knowledge will help the RMA to formulate recruitment strategies to target not only potential non-Bumiputra applicants but also the surrounding which have influence on non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in RMA. Using dual strategies to target potential non-Bumiputra and other influencer to non-Bumiputra decision to enlist will increase the RMA's chances of successful recruitment.

Fifth practical significance is understanding the impact of one's personal belief in his/her ability to succeed in military selection will assist the RMA in mitigating the low enlistment issue among non-Bumiputra. This is due to the fact most that generally people viewed the enlistment selection are difficult and beyond the physical ability, thus influence the decision not to enlist in military. Understanding the impact on one's personal belief in his/her ability to succeed in military selection will help RMA mitigate

the issue. Several measures can be taken to ensure potential applicants are more confident with their ability to pass the enlistment selection, so that this positive belief will influence their intention to enlist in the RMA and subsequently increased enlistment of non-Bumiputra in RMA.

All the above-mentioned significance practical contributions will help the RMA attract more non-Bumiputra to enlist in RMA. A military organisation with personnel representing all the demographic groups of Malaysia will create a united and strong force. Defending something that represents one's own self is a great motivating factor for military personnel to perform their job to their best ability. Moreover, psychological war that seeks to create disunity in military organisations with mix demographics will have a smaller impact on the MA in times of crisis or civil unrest.

1.11.3 Methodological Significance

The current study has methodological significance by measuring the variables in the research framework attitude, subjective norms and self-efficacy. The study will analyse the independent variable, attitude and subjective norms direct relation with the dependent variable intention. Variable attitude and subjective norms are analysed as unidimensional as conducted by Yong et al. (2021) and Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016). In this study, the dimensions of self-efficacy which humans are influenced by beliefs about whether they have the power and efficacy to decide their options, effort, determination, and feelings are unidimensional as used in previous study. This study establishes that self-efficacy is able to influence the independent variable by modifying the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable. Lastly, this study used PLS-SEM as analysis tools which enable this study to assess the measurement outer model of the proposed frameworks which will benefit future study.

1.12 Organisation of Chapters

This thesis comprises five chapters. Chapter 1 is an overview of the research topic; it highlights the importance and background of this research, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, and significance of the study. Most importantly, this chapter presents data and discussion that support the research problem. The research problem in context of the research is explain in detail in this chapter. Chapter 1 ends by framing the problem statement in the context of the research and outlining the research contributions.

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature of the TRA, which is the underpinning theory of this research. Discussions on attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy are included in this chapter as independent variables while intention to enlist in the MA is reviewed as the dependent variable. Justifications of the importance of these variables in the military context are provided in this chapter as well. Summary of each independent variable in relation with the dependent variable from previous literature is presented in table form for easy digest. Chapter 2 ends with an explanation of the proposed framework, theoretical development and explanation for development of each hypothesis. Next,

Chapter 3 begins with a detailed explanation of the methodology adopted in this research. It comprehensively elaborates on the research design, followed by instrument development and measurement. Research processes are explained and justified in this chapter step-by-step. Most importantly the chapter explain how validity and reliability of this research is achieved and preserved throughout the research. The chapter ends by discussing the data analysis and statistical tools used in this research.

Chapter 4 begin with explanation of data verification process and followed by evaluating the measurement and structural model. Chapter 4 presents the outcomes of data analysis using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 and the SmartPLS software. The analysis will test the hypothesis presented and results from the analysis will answer the research questions which contribute to the knowledge and understanding of the research framework.

Chapter 5 is the last chapter in this thesis. It discusses all the findings from Chapter 4 and relates them to the discussion presented in Chapters 1 and 2. Notably, this chapter presents the theoretical and practical contribution from the research. Practical contribution is dwell in detail in this chapter and Chapter 5 end with conclusion of the research.

1.13 Summary

This chapter has explained and described in detail in introduction the security environment which served as the foundation of the research background and the problem statement. It is noteworthy that the framing of the problem statement is in line with the RMA's issue, as explained in depth in this chapter. It has further delineated the research questions, the research objectives, and the significance of study. The organisation of the study is explained with a brief outline of each chapter. The subsequent Chapter 2 examines the literature to develop comprehensible and precise insights of all the study constructs. Focus is given to attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and intention to enlist in the context of the RMA. The next chapter thus provides the literature review that is relevant to this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by providing an overview of the TRA from previous research and an explanation of all the variables in the TRA. Each variable (attitude and subjective norms) is analysed in literature review from previous study. The analysis includes the variable studied in various context business, academic, health, and consumer and most important in the context of enlistment in military. Comparison is made to the finding of each context of the research on the relationship of independent variable of TRA (attitude and subjective norms) to the dependent variable intention. This chapter explains the links between the TRA variables (attitude and subjective norms) in relation to the RMA research context. At the same time, the review of literature on self-efficacy in relation the intention to enlist in military explain clearly how self-efficacy is viewed from previous research views and linked to the context of the intended research. Most importantly, literature review in this chapter able to identify gap and subsequently relate to the research questions. Overall, the discussion of this chapter in general provides the foundation and lens for the research to be conducted. All the variables were reviewed and analysed appropriately and subsequently provided a basis for establishing the conceptual framework of the research. This chapter ends by discussing the theoretical framework and hypotheses development of the research.

2.2 Malaysian Army Enlistment

Understanding different types of military enlistment, and what influence the enlistment intention is essential for understanding the problem. Enlistment in RMA is on volunteer basic, which mean that the decision to join the military was an individual's personal decision (own free will) rather than enlistment in military are mandated by the

government (conscript). Country such as Russia, Israel, Singapore, Austria, Switzerland, Finland and few others adopted conscript enlistment for military, which means at certain age, male and female must mandatorily serve in military for a period of time according to the country rules and regulation. As the enlistment in conscript military is not on own voluntarily basis, research conducted in conscript army to understand what influence the decision to enlist might not reflect the true situation.

Recruitment / enlistment are used interchangeably in research as the meaning are identical. It is a way organization acquired work force for different reason. One of the reasons is to fulfill the manpower requirement to perform intended job which are required by the organization. Recruitment and selection for the most part are the major means of gaining access into an organization, and both procedures play important roles in structuring application and new-hire experiences (Rudolph, Toomey, & Baltes, 2015). Recruitment also happen within the organization and according to Compton (2009), recruitment within an organization is an integral part of that organization overall human resource management and planning process. As such it is related closely to other human resource management process, for instance, job design, human resource development, performance appraisal and management reward system, career and succession planning, promotion and transfer.

Enlistment is a process of discovering, sourcing, screening, selecting, and interviewing potential candidates for the intended job. Acquiring workforce is the task of managers or human resource department. Organization benefit in many ways from a successful enlistment such as reduce time in talent scouting, save cost and resources. A well plan enlistment can speed up these processes of recruiting suitable people with the required talent and personality for the organization. According to Leisink and Steijn

(2009) in order to hire the finest people for specific positions, an effective enlistment system must be in place for the business to succeed. It is one of the basic principles of quality management, that prevention is better than a cure. The numbers of career options and alternatives available to an individual at any given point in time are as well influenced by external factors which are the labour market, state of the economy, and many more as well as individual factors for example salary and benefits, education, family background, working environment, employers reputation, job security, attitudes and others (Tanova, Karataş-Özkan, & İnal, 2008).

The jobs in the military may be dangerous and potentially life threatening (Soeters, Winslow, & Weibull, 2006). Although military life is dangerous, it does not necessarily be a negative factor for enlistment as study show that risk is not necessarily related to negated attitude towards intention. In contrary, study conducted by Zuckerman (2007) show that risk can be an attracting factor towards intention. Risk-taking, or even risk-seeking, is identified in sports and other contexts as the positive experience of thrills or flow which reinforce attitude to commit the intention (Zuckerman, 2007). Dangerous military working environment are value differently by some people in which some view it positively as thrilling, exciting and valuable. This notion has been proof by studies conducted by Hosek and Totten (2004) that shows number and length of hostile deployments have little effect on re-enlistment decisions.

Enlistment for diversity in minority ethnic is always a challenge coupled with nature of job that are unattractive to certain group of people. However, organization still needs to fulfil the social obligation for diversity and at the same time looking the right talent among the smallest population group. This is true in context of RMA as RMA need to enlist non-Bumiputra for diversity and at the same time ensure that the small number

available for enlistment are equipped with the right talent. It is a daunting task for RMA recruiting Cell. The issue to enlist diversity in RMA was not on agenda in early days of RMA history especially during the Emergency period fighting communist threat in Malaysian jungle. At that time, priority for RMA enlistment is to fulfil work force to the maximum to fight communist threat. Issue of support and trust from Malaysian population for multi-ethnic military at that time did not arise as communist threat to Malaysia is consider external threat and the issue communist are campaigning against Malaysian government are ideology, not ethnic issue.

Ensuring RMA recruit the right person for enlistment, RMA has set a comprehensive process in enlistment selection. The enlistment selection process describe in this research are used by RMA previously until 2020 which saw big changes in procedure due to pandemic situation in Malaysia. The changing of procedure is essential to adhere to the health requirement and restriction impose by Malaysia government during Covid 19 Pandemic. Since the enlistment application data use in this researched are within the timeframe of previous method, this research will explain the method used during that time.

2.3 Terms of Enlistment

Terms of enlistment in MA are categorized into three category which interested applicant must fulfil all three categories. These terms of enlistment are applied to all applicant regardless of ethnic. The three categorized are: general condition, physical requirement and academic requirement. Detail screening was conducted at each phase to ensure applicant fulfill the requirement and eligible to applied for enlistment.

2.3.1 General Condition

It is mandatory for all applicant to fulfil the general condition to eligible applicant for enlistment. General condition requirements are as listed below:

- a. Malaysian citizen. The information provided will be checked with the National Registration Department (NRD).
- b. Aged between 18 years to 24 years old at the time of enlistment.
- c. Good eyesight without glasses or contact lenses and not color sighted.
- d. Good level of hearing without hearing aids.
- e. Healthy, no limb defects, never experience any serious injuries such as fractures, major operation, no fatigue condition, no chronic diseases and no hereditary diseases.
- f. Applicant must not have any record of criminal offences and drug abuse. All information will be checked with relevant authorities.

2.3.2 Physical Requirement

Enlistment selection process in MA is very meticulous with special attention regarding the physical abilities of applicant. This is due to the fact that military jobs entail a wide range of rigorous duties that necessitate a certain level of endurance as well as muscular strength (Erdman et al., 2006; Knapik, Reynolds, & Harman, 2004; Sharp, Patton, & Vogel, 1996). These physical fitness components are frequently examined as part of military recruitment, selection processes, or ongoing preparedness follow-up (Pihlainen, Santtila, Häkkinen, & Kyröläinen, 2018). Physical requirement in MA selection process is to ensure all potential applicants have the basic physical posture to participate in physical enlistment test. Physical requirement are as follows:

- a. Height
 - 1) Minimum height measurement for men: 1.62 m
 - 2) Minimum height size for women: 1.57 m
- b. Weight:
 - 1) Minimum male weight: 47.5 kg
 - 2) Minimum female weight: 40.5 kg

- c. Body Mass Index (BMI). Male and female BMI between 18 to 26.0

2.3.3 Academic Qualification

- a. Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) or equivalent qualification recognized by the government.
- b. Malaysian Vocational Certificate (MVC) in related areas recognized by the government.
- c. Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) or equivalent qualification recognized by the Government as well as Malaysian Skills Certificate (MSC) Level 2 in related fields or equivalent recognized qualifications.
- d. Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) or equivalent qualification recognized by the Government as well as Malaysian Skills Certificate (MSC) Level 3 in related field or equivalent qualification.
- e. Diploma in engineering recognized by the Government from local institutions of higher learning or equivalent qualification.

2.3.4 Salary and Allowances

Salary and allowances are one of the strategy MA adopt to attract enlistment. Salary and allowances which met potential applicant expectation are strong influencer for enlistment. According to Chinyio, Suresh, and Salisu (2018) monetary reward or compensation impacts on the level of attraction, motivation, job satisfaction and retention of employees. Salary, bonuses (allowances), gratuity, and pension are all components of compensation. Career decision making are influence by salary and benefits, work environment and job security (Badrolhisam, Achim, & Zulkipli, 2019). In military setting study conducted in Europe by (Tresch, 2008), highlighted that as officers have better salary, recruiting problem does not arise. Thus, can be conclude that salary and allowances are important factor in any career choosing.

As for Malaysian military, basic salary for recruit start at different levels based on the entry academic qualification during enlistment. Beside salary, military personnel also enjoy several other allowances and privilege. Amount paid for allowances are according to rank, but privilege applied to all rank across the board including officers. Individual expresses a more positive attitude, addresses the awareness of military benefits and evaluates the benefits in terms of a secured job with comfortable pay, including several fringe benefits, which they get after enlistment act as reinforcement to enlist (Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016). Basic salary for recruit is as listed below.

Basic Salary

- a. MCE -RM 1,459.00
- b. MVC-1,564.00
- c. MSC level 2- RM 1,630.00
- d. MSC level 3- RM 1,696.00
- e. MHSC / STAM – RM1,762.00
- f. Diploma in Qur'anic Recitation – RM 1,828.00
- g. Diploma in Medical Health -RM 1,894.00
- h. Diploma in Engineering – RM2,026.07

Allowances

- a. Living Allowance
- b. Service Allowance
- c. Special Incentive Allowance
- d. Technical allowances
- e. Housing Allowances
- f. Loans for Housing / Transport / Electronic

- g. Travel Allowances
- h. Medical Service
- i. *Lembaga Tabung Angkatan Tentera*
- j. Higher Learning Scheme
- k. Housing Scheme

2.4 Enlistment Process

MA documentation for enlistment process is handle by a team MA Record and Retirement department. The whole enlistment proses are divided into three phases. All three phases are conducted physically where the applicant must be present at designated military establishment for that purpose and provide original document as required. Failure to be present at any phase or failure to provide original document for verification resulted in rejected application. During the enlistment process, other department are also involved to assist in the process. The whole process takes two months to complete.

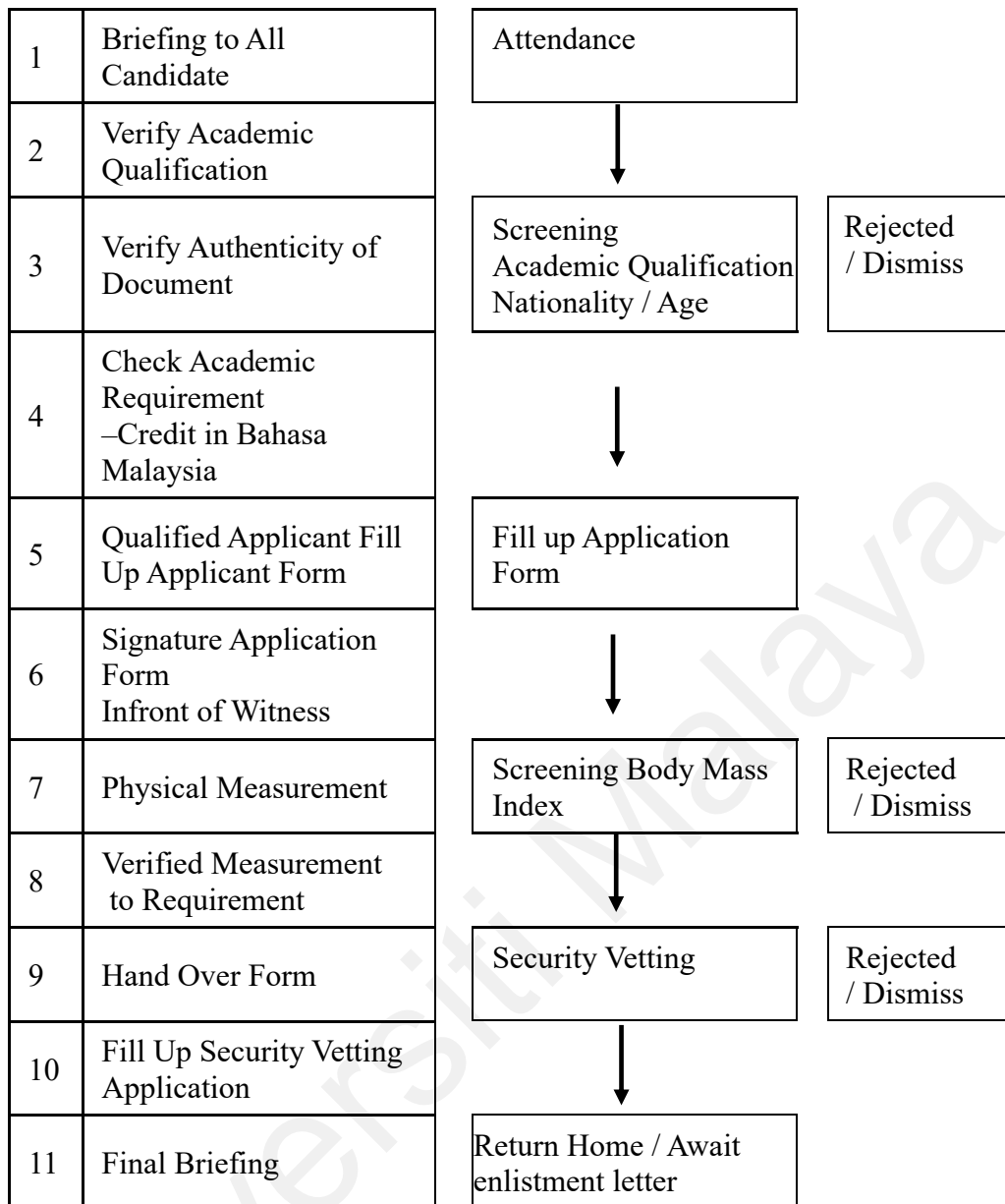


Figure 2.1: Phase 1 Enlistment

2.4.1 Phase 1

Phase 1 took three weeks to complete. This is the initial stage where potential applicant presents themselves at designated enlistment centra. Applicant must be physically present together with required document as stipulated in enlistment advertisement. Applicant forms are not yet distributed to applicant until applicant pass all the initial screening (academic qualification, nationality and age). At any stage if applicant fail the screening process, applicant is discharge from the center. Physical and medical status of applicant were thoroughly screen by military medical personnel. Security vetting by MA Intelligent

Department is the most time consuming in enlistment process. Applicants' personal information and history are cross check with the Police Department, Court, Insolvency Department and National Registration Department for any discrepancies. Strict drug test and substance use were checked thoroughly by medical staff. Once completed applicant are released home and wait for the result. Detail as shown in Figure 1.1

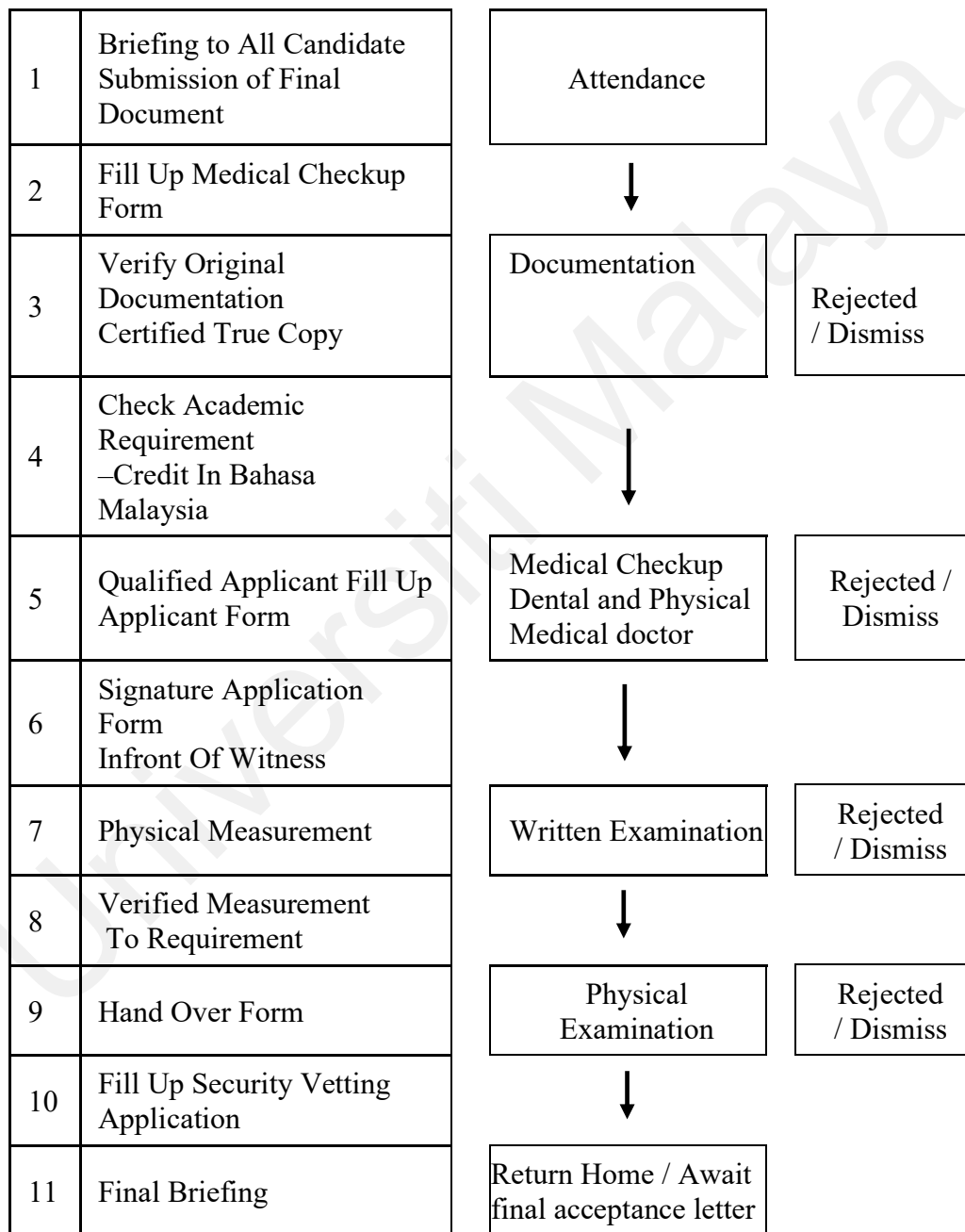


Figure 2.2: Phase 2 Enlistment

2.4.2 Phase 2

Phase 2 took three weeks to complete. Only successful applicant from Phase 1 were recall back to enlistment center for this phase. Phase 2 is design to finalize all documentation and brief the potential applicant regarding what to expect in military life. This is to ensure applicant have the right information to make decide to proceed with enlistment or not. At this stage decision to enlist or not, are still within applicant control. Special medical examination which required more detail examination were conducted for special suspected case. This is to ensure that applicant is not hiding any medical condition they are facing and certified that applicant is fit for enlistment. Written exams are conducted to certify applicant have the basic knowledge and intelligence to enlist. Question administered in the examination is more on general knowledge and problem solving. Question is also designed to highlight applicant personality and motivation to enlist. The next stage is the most difficult test which many applicants fail, the physical test. List of physical tests are 2.4 km run in 7 minutes, heaving minimum 5 times, front support exercise minimum 40 times, shuttle run and vertical jump. Beside that applicant are also expose to military environment such as, parade, teamwork, discipline, rule and regulation, daily routine, working environment and other challenges. Purpose for this is to allow applicant to reflect the decision to enlist based on this experience. Once completed applicant are dismissed to return home and wait for the result for final phase. Detail as shown in Figure 1.2

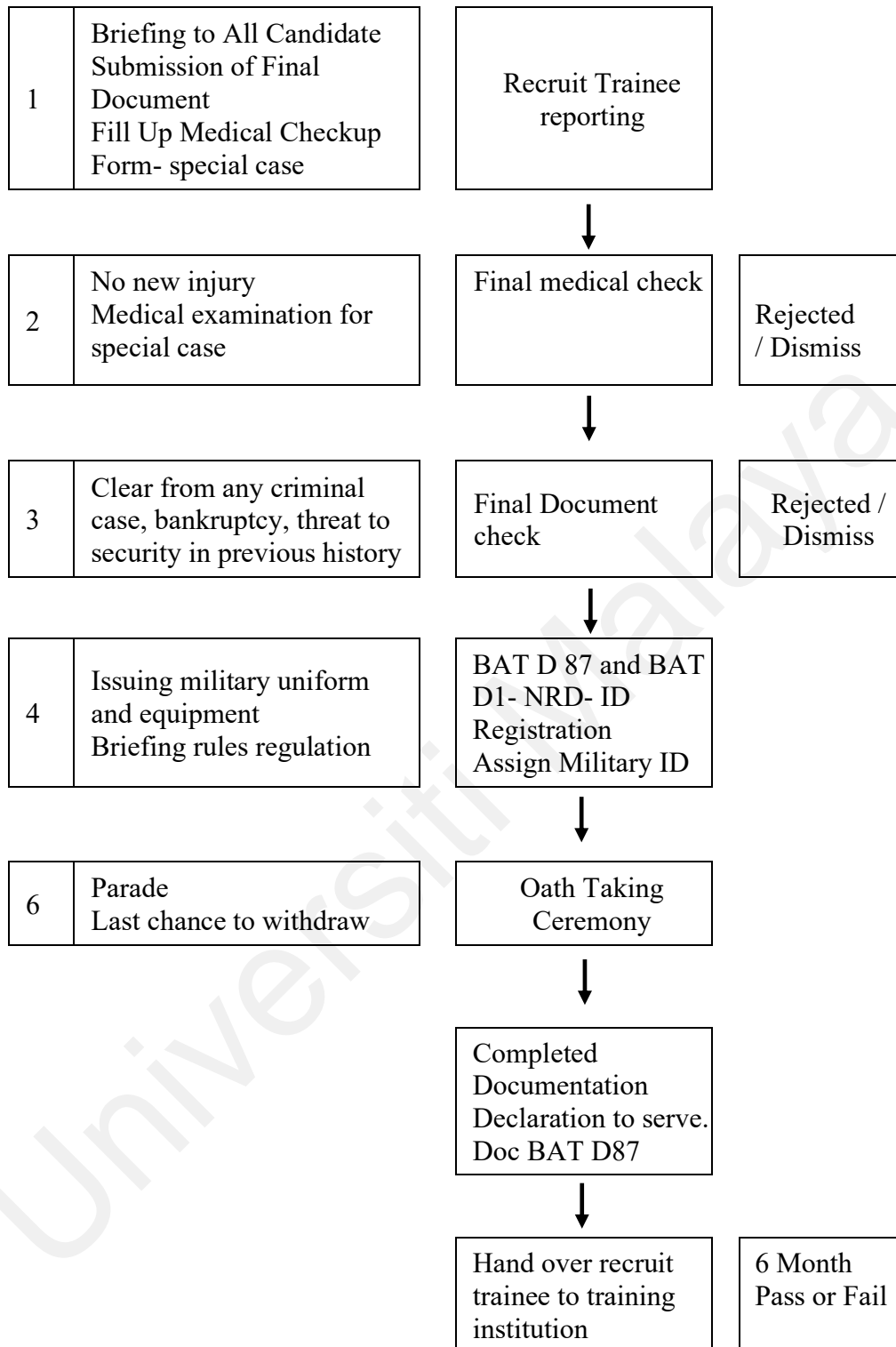


Figure 2.3:Phase 3 Enlistment

2.4.3 Phase 3

This is the final phase where only qualified applicant from phase 2 is recall back to complete the enlistment. The time gap between phase 2 and phase 3 is design to allowed applicant to reflect based on the minimum exposure of military life they experience in phase 2 for further decision to enlist or not. This is the time when the reality of enlisting in military sink down in applicant. Several counseling session and discussion were also held in this phase to allow applicant to quire any info needed to make the final decision. Once applicant has made the decided to enlist and sign a declaration form, oath taking ceremony is conducted. From this time onwards, applicant is not allowed to retract back the decision except for special cases. Applicant will also be equipped with military uniform and other equipment as preparation for basic military training ahead. The applicant will be issued military identification card and hand over to Basic Recruit Training Centre.

2.5 Theory of Reasoned Action

Predicting human behaviour is a main area of social science research, which has seen many theories and assumptions introduced to achieve such prediction. It was Fishbein's work in 1967 which increased the understanding of several types of attitudes that influence behaviour and the function of social effects on them, contribute a big step forward in this field. Fishbein's research took on Dulany's 1962, Theory of Propositional Control, which had recognized the significance of conscious intention in contributing to behaviour, as well as the effect of expected outcomes on the strength of intention.

Fishbein added a social dimension to this cognitive viewpoint on behaviour, by combining the influence of "subjective norms" or social pressures. Most significance differences of Fishbein's work and Dulany's works is the differentiated between an

individual's attitude towards an object and their attitude towards performing an action relating to that object (Ryan & Bonfield, 1975), thus promoting that attitude towards performing the action is a more effective predictor of actual behaviour. As a result TRA was proposed based on the attitude-behaviour relationship to better understand attitude, intention, and behaviour (Fishbein, 1979).

This study was based on the central construct of motivation, which is considered the most proximal determinant of intention and behaviour. The core theoretical premise of this study is anchored in social-behavioural research in relation to organisations, which is an area that has been vigorously examined and refined for decades. Specifically, this applied research is underpinned by the TRA, which focuses on predicting intention by examining attitude and subjective norms factor in the relationship to intention. The theory emphasises theoretical constructs related to individual motivational factors as predictors of people's possibility of engaging in a particular behaviour. TRA rests on the underlying premise that the most accurate determinant of behaviour is intention, which in turn, is predicted by attitude and social perceptions towards the behaviour (Hale, Householder, & Greene, 2002). According to Jones (2020), even 30 years after its conception, the TRA is still able to define behaviour with a relatively simple formula.

According to the TRA, an individual's intention is shaped by two core factors, one being internal and the other being social. The internal factor is the person's personal assessment, either negative or positive of a behaviour; this is known as attitude. The social factor is an individual's perceived social pressure to engage in or avoid the behaviour; this is known as subjective norms

According to Sutton (2001), attitude is believed to reflect a person's main behavioural ideas about the potential outcome from the intended action. A person who believes that engaging in a certain conduct would result in largely positive personal outcomes, will have a favourable attitude toward the behaviour. In particular, attitude is thought to be a function of the sum of a person's key behavioural beliefs about the action's consequence, each of which is weighted by their assessment of that outcome. The TRA defines attitude as a function of belief. One's belief that a behaviour will engender positive results will produce a desirable attitude towards the said behaviour, and vice versa. In other words, attitude is the positive or negative assessment of a future behaviour's performance. The beliefs that shape an individual's attitude towards the behaviour are called behavioural beliefs (Ajzen, 1991).

The subjective norm is a result of a person's ideas about whether or not he or she should, or should not, commit to particular behaviour. A person who believes that the majority of key referents believe he or she should engage in the conduct will feel social pressure to do so (Sutton, 2001). Subjective norms are determined by the perceived social pressure from others for an individual to behave in a certain manner and their motivation to comply with those people's views. According to (Ham et al., 2015) subjective norms refer to the expectation that a significance individual or group of individuals will approve and support a given behaviour. TRA defined subjective norms as a function of beliefs moulded by individuals or groups that make one think he/she should or should not engage in a behaviour. The beliefs underlying subjective norms are called normative beliefs. An individual who believes that referent persons/groups that he/she is encouraged to adhere to are promoting a behaviour will perceive social pressure to perform it. In other words, subjective norms represent the belief that significance referents desire the performance of the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Intention is described as the subjective likelihood that a person will engage in or attempt to engage in a behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Intention to perform a behaviour is conceptualised as a function of the two belief-based variables defined above: attitude towards the behaviour and subjective norms concerning the behaviour (i.e., the social pressure that important others believe the behaviour should be performed) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The stronger the two belief-based constructs, the more likely intention will translate into actual behaviour.

Ajzen (1986) modified the TRA to account for behaviours not within the full control of the individual by introducing Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) through his article "From Intentions to Actions". PBC was added as an additional determinant of intention besides attitude and subjective norms and renaming the model as Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). TPB also has been used extensively in predicting intention, entrepreneurial intention (Al-Jubari, 2019; Lingappa, Shah, & Mathew, 2020; Robledo, Arán, Sanchez, & Molina, 2015), consumer intention (Ha & Nguyen, 2019; Lorenz, Hartmann, & Simons, 2015), academic intention (Fauzi, Nya-Ling, Thurasamy, & Ojo, 2018; Rana, Slade, Kitching, & Dwivedi, 2019), health intention (Abamecha, Tena, & Kiros, 2019; Aliabadi, Gholamrezai, & Ataei, 2020), turnover intention (Zhao et al., 2021) and job search intention (Parikh, Patel, & Jaiswal, 2021; Zainal, Hairuddin, & Kassim, 2020). TPB has been subject to empirical scrutiny in social science more than others theory in predicting intention, rendering it one of the most applied theories in the social and behavioural sciences.

The major divergence from the TRA to the TPB is the addition of the PBC as a predictor of intention. PBC can be described as one's belief that a behaviour is easy to

perform (Ajzen, 2002). This variable was added to address circumstances in which people do not have full volitional control over a particular behaviour. Many behaviours cannot be carried out at notion; they necessitate skills, opportunity, resources, or cooperation to be carried out successfully. According to Armitage and Conner (2001) the rationale behind the addition of PBC was that it would allow prediction of behaviours that were not under complete volitional control.

In comparison to other variables, just like attitudes which are expected to be based on accessible behavioural beliefs and subjective norms on expected normative beliefs, PBC is also expected to be based on accessible control beliefs. The main concern of this belief is the presence of factors which can assist or hinder the performance of the behaviour. According to Ajzen (2020), the control factors include resources such as time, skill, ability, means, cooperation by others and so forth. Control belief is defined as a person's subjective probability that in the time of interest a given facilitating or inhibiting factor will be available to the person intending the behaviour. In other words, the supporting behavioural factor is perceived within the control of the person. Example time, transportation to enlisting centre, mobility and other resources required to assist the intention are perceived to be in control of the person in time of performing the intended behaviour. However, according to Zhang (2007), if a behaviour is completely within a person's control, PBC does not affect intention. This is in line with founder of TPB theory Ajzen, which stated that if individuals possess complete volitional control over a behaviour and believe deeply that they can engage in it if they desire to, PBC becomes irrelevant and the TPB reverts to the TRA framework Ajzen (2002). This view is also supported by the latest study by Zainal et al. (2020) which show that PBC has negative relation with job intention.

In context of this research, the behaviour of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA is within volitional control which belief that non-Bumiputra can engage the intention to enlist in MA behaviour if they want to. As the interest of this study was the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA, which is a behavioural intention that is fully volitional and within the applicant's control; thus, the TRA was adopted over the TPB as the underpinning theory of this study (see Figure 2.1).

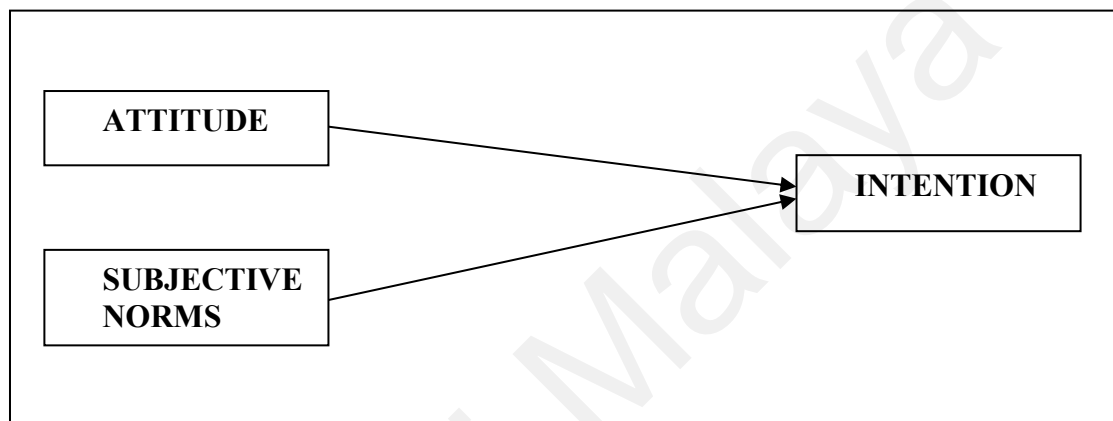


Figure 2.4: Theory of Reasoned Action

Source: (Ajzen. & Fishbein, 1980)

2.5.1 Attitude

Attitude is an individual's belief concerning the attributes of committing to a behaviour, weighed by evaluating those attributes (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). The stronger the belief in the positive outcomes of a behaviour, the better the attitude towards the behaviour. In contrast, a strong belief in its negative outcomes shape a negative attitude towards a behaviour. Therefore, people have the intention to engage in a behaviour when they evaluate it as positive (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). According to Ford, Gibson, DeCesare, Marsh, and Griepentrog (2013) in career decision process, job seekers hold expectations about how joining an organization or career chosen will impact one's life and simultaneously form attitudes toward organizational entry. The important of attitude in predicting job choice are shown in meta-analytic data which indicates that

attitudes and judgments are some of the best predictors of job choice and career path (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Khan, 2017).

The study of attitude to predict intention has been conducted by researchers in many contexts, such as job intention, consumer intention, business intention, academic intention, and health intention. Scholars like Hooft et al. (2004), Park, Kim, and Lee (2017), and Solikhah, Suryarini, and Bahri (2018) have established that attitude is a significance determinant of job intention. Van Hooft et al. (2004) highlighted the disparity of action among ethnic minorities and majorities in job intention, the study was conducted comparing two different group the Netherlands and the Dutch and the result show that perceptions of social pressure (subjective norms) predicted intentions more strongly compare to attitude for the Netherland group but not opposite result for the Dutch group. This prove that the relative importance of attitudes and subjective norms in predicting intentions can have different result across different situation (Ajzen, 1991). Possible explanation of the finding is these variables may be influenced by external variables such as demographics or personality (Ajzen. & Fishbein, 1980).

Research on attitude and consumer intention has been conducted by Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005) on organic food, Collins, Witkiewitz, and Larimer (2011) on drinking behaviour, Joohyung and Ha (2014) on recycling, Hasbullah et al. (2016) on online purchasing, Yadav and Pathak (2016) on green product purchase, and Ramkumar and Woo (2018) on fashion and beauty products. All these studies have shown that attitude is significance in predicting intention. Although Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005) found the effect of attitude towards buying organic food to be significance for intention, this effect was shown to be dependent on subjective norms. In other words, subjective norms have been revealed to influence attitude, which differs from the TRA's initial premise. Possible

explanation to his finding can be relate to study conducted by Hooft et al. (2004) that the strength of subjective norms and personal attitudes of the relation with intentions can be explained by cultural differences in individualism versus collectivism. According to Markus and Kitayama (1991) in collective cultures behaviour is influence more by social norms than by personal attitudes. This finding is supported by the latest study by Yong et al. (2021) conducted in Malaysia setting which Malaysia are also identified as collective culture country (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009).

More recent studies of attitude and business intention have been performed and confirmed by Cavazos-Arroyo, Puente-Díaz, and Agarwal (2017), Meyer (2015), and Utami (2017). However, according to Meyer (2015), attitude is not a more significance predictor than subjective norms, as it only explained 42.23% of the predicted variance in job application intention while subjective norms explained 55.58%. This finding contradicts extensive meta-analytic research conducted by C. Armitage and Conner (2010) which reported that attitude has a greater positive mean correlation with intention than subjective norms.

Fenech, Baguant, and Ivanov (2019) studied attitude in relation to entrepreneurial intention and found that attitude has the strongest positive relationship with entrepreneurial intention while subjective norms do not significantly affect such intention. A possible explanation of the differences in these studies' findings is that they were conducted in different cultures (Fenech et al., 2019). This finding show that different culture setting did affect the relationship and the result varies.

The study of attitude as a predictor of intention has also been conducted in academic contexts. For example, Zhang (2007) studied intention to choose a major in Information

Systems, Cheon, Lee, Crooks, and Song (2012) tested intention to use mobile learning, Dunn, Hattie, and Bowles (2018) examined intention to engage in ongoing teacher professional learning, and Jones (2020) looked at intention to use social networking in distance learning. In health, the attitude–intention link was studied by Jackson (2015) on seeking psychological help, Pertl et al. (2010) on skin cancer health behaviour, and Jalilian et al. (2020) on marijuana use. All these research support that attitude is a significance predictor of intention.

According Schreurs, Deros, Hooft, Proost, and Witte (2009), attitude is a key determinant of intention and is more significance than subjective norms. This is in line with claims by (Sheau-Fen, Othman, & Wee, 2013) that attitude is considered the core antecedent of various behaviours and behavioural intentions. However, this finding is not without challenges, as Schreurs et al. (2009) adopted direct global measures of attitude by (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) to reveal that despite broad evidence on the modelled linkage between beliefs and attitude, the actual strength of this relationship has often been disappointing (Ajzen, 1991). The most recent study on intention conducted by Salazar-Concha and Ramírez-Correa (2021) show that attitude emerge as strong predictor of intention compare to subjective norms.

In the military context, very few studies have tested attitude as a direct predictor of the intention to enlist in the military. Khan (2017) studied if parents' attitude influences youth's intention to enlist and showed that parental positive attitude (pro-military) encourages youth's enlistment intention. However, parents' attitude only affect youth's intention but not their attitude towards enlisting. Possible explanation for this finding is studies indicate that people possess more tangible perceptions of events that will happen sooner rather than later (Trope & Liberman, 2003). The study by Ford et al. (2013) found

that attitude predicts intention to stay in the military. Though attitude is found to be significance predictor in this study, possible explanation of the finding is the study is done in context of serving member of the military where the experience in the military might influence the intention. Wiggins, Evans, Luchman, and Gibson (2014) discovered that attitude influences the intention to join the reservist army after completing active-duty deployment. Despite this evidence, it is argued that the studies also were conducted among serving military personnel with knowledge and experience in military life, which may have influenced their intention. Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016) studied attitude as a predictor of intention to join the military with a more elaborate approach. Attitude was measured as four self-assessed constructs, namely self and physical development, working conditions and benefits, perceived risk, and teamwork and patriotism. All four constructs were shown to positively affect the intention to enlist in the military. As the intended respondent of this research is general public and not serving members of military, the finding is more relevant in context of this research compare to respondent already having military experience. The most recent research on attitude in relation to intention to enlist in the military was conducted by Yong et al. (2021) in Malaysia setting. The finding supports attitude as a significance predictor of enlistment intention. However, the finding can be arguable as 4.5 percent of the respondent in the research are not the age eligible to enlist in military, thus the respond might not relevant. Table 2.1 summarises the studies on attitude and intention.

Table 2.1: Summary of Studies on Attitude and Intention

Author	IV	DV	Findings	Context
Van Hooft et al. (2004)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Job intention (Not in military)
Park et al. (2017)				
Solikhah et al. (2018)				
Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Consumer Intention
Collins et al. (2011)				
Joohyung and Ha (2014)				

Hasbullah et al. (2016)				
Yadav and Pathak (2016)				
Ramkumar and Woo (2018)				
Gopi and Ramayah (2007)				
Utami (2017)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Business Intention
Cavazos-Arroyo et al. (2017)				
Meyer (2015)				
Fenech et al. (2019)				
Zhang (2007)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Academic Intention
Cheon et al. (2012)				
Dunn et al. (2018)				
Jones (2020)				
Sheau-Fen et al. (2013)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Health Intention
Jackson (2015)				
Pertl et al. (2010)				
Jalilian et al. (2020)				
Ford et al. (2013)	Attitude	Intention	Significance	Intention to stay in military
Wiggins et al. (2014)				Intention to join reservist by military personnel
Khan (2017)				Intention to join military (Parent Attitude)
Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016)				Intention to join military
Yong et al. (2021)				Intention to join military

2.5.2 Subjective Norms

Subjective norms are described as individual perceptions of social pressure to engage or not to engage in an intended activity. According to Ajzen (1991), the perception of pressure is created by relevant important people surrounding the subject. It is the subjects' belief of how their referent groups/people will perceive them if they perform the behaviour. This positive or negative belief created by subjective norms will reinforce the intention towards a certain behaviour. According to Emanuel, Marsh, Boehmer, and Zucker (2005), the decision to perform an intended action is not made in isolation, but is relatively influenced by one's social environment. This notion is highlighted by Keizer

and Schultz (2018) saying that information about how others are doing better than one's self (in energy conservation) are more effective to influence other to follow energy conservation than providing the information about advantages and benefit of energy conservation. Subjective norms can exert a powerful influence on behaviour as people have a tendency to underestimate their own susceptibility to the social pressure.

Subjective norms' effect on job search intention has been studied by Krithika and Venkatachalam (2014), Putra and Purba (2020), Saraih, Aris, Mutalib, Ahmad, and Amlus (2018), Schreurs et al. (2009), and Zainal et al. (2020). They revealed the significance influence of subjective norms on intention. Acikgoz (2019) adopted a more elaborate approach to examine subjective norms and job intention. The study proposed a multi-tier job search model (organisation level and individual level), wherein subjective norms is an individual-level direct predictor of intention for job search and is not influenced by recruitment activity or job and organisational characteristics. Research by Edwin, Born, Taris, and Flier (2003) comparing ethnic minorities and ethnic majorities in job intention showed that subjective norms have different effects on job intention across ethnic groups.

Subjective norms have been used to predict intention in other fields such as business intention by Aprilia and Ardana (2021), Arroyo et al. (2017), Lai Linda and To Wai (2020), Meyer (2015), and Utami (2017), consumer intention by Dalila, Latif, Jaafar, Aziz, and Afthanorhan (2020), Halim and Karami (2020), Hasbullah et al. (2016), Yadav and Pathak (2016), Ramkumar and Woo (2018), academic intention by Cheon et al. (2012), Dunn et al. (2018), Jones (2020) and Zhang (2007), and health intention by Dewi and Zein (2017), Jackson (2015) and Jalilian et al. (2020). All these studies found that subjective norms have a significance relationship with intention.

Findings on subjective norms in relation to intention are not without controversy, as acknowledged by the TRA's creator Ajzen (1991), because intention is more influenced by attitude and PBC than subjective norms. Studies show that subjective norms' predictive power for intention, while significance, varies according to context. The reason was best explained by Ham et al. (2015) in the consumer behaviour context, wherein they tested subjective norms as two separate variables, descriptive norms and social norms. Descriptive norms encompass actual activities and behaviours that others are undertaking while social norms refer to perceptions of others' opinions about how one should behave. Ham et al. (2015) considered both variables (descriptive norms and social norms) to constitute subjective norms. Their finding exhibited that social norms explained 40.8% of the variance in intention, whereas descriptive norms explained only 38.6% and the combination of both (social norms and descriptive norms) into the subjective norms construct explained the highest percentage of variance (44.5%).

In addition, subjective norms show different results for different ethnic groups. Kashif, Zarkada, and Ramayah (2018) used subjective norms to predict managers' ethical intention. They tested subjective norms as three separate variables, injunctive norms (i.e., social norms), Rivis and Sheeran (2003) Ham et al. (2015), descriptive norms, and moral norms. According to Zulfikar (2012), evidence suggests significance disparities in ethical orientation and ethical behaviour among individuals from different cultural and religious backgrounds. Therefore, moral norms were added to the variable. The results showed that moral norms explain the highest variance in subjective norms compared to injunctive norms (the lowest) and descriptive norms. The possible explanation for this finding is likely because the study was conducted in Pakistan where moral norms are rooted in Islamic religious doctrines. According to Possumah, Ismail, and Shahimi (2013), the

Islamic religion encourages its followers to be accountable for their actions and to act individually. Since Pakistan has a majority Muslim population, the result of moral norms as the most significance predictor of intention is expected. This study proves that the ethnic setting affects subjective norms findings. Indeed, culture, location, demography, race, religion, and socioeconomic factors influence social norms. According to Sun (2000), subjective norms diverge across cultures even though the process through which behaviours are performed are the same.

Some studies also show that subjective norms are not significance to intention at all. Fenech et al. (2019) found that subjective norms do not affect entrepreneurial intention, possibly because of the study's cultural context (Fenech et al., 2019). Park et al. (2017) studied job intention in the tourism industry and revealed that subjective norms are not a significance predictor of job intention, meaning that the opinions of friends and family members do not sway students' job decision. A recent study on subject (2020) reported a non-significance interaction between subjective norms and intention. Researchers suggest several possible explanations for the reason inconsistencies in subjective norms on forming intention as follows. "The studies measured individualistic behaviour and not collective behaviour; the contrast between collectivistic and individualistic behaviours may explain why results differ from those of previous studies" (La Barbera & Ajzen, 2020), "Subjective norms variable stems from the fact that a part of information that this variable contains is already present in the desirability of undertaking a particular behaviour variable" (Ham et al., 2015), "Narrow conceptualisation of the subjective norms variable, which results in a weak correlation between normative beliefs and intention" (Armitage & Conner, 2001), "Correlation between descriptive norms and intentions implies the possibility of the predictive power"

(Rivis & Sheeran, 2003), and “Environment where subjective norms took place varies according to context is the reason of this result” (Liñán & Chen, 2009).

Very few studies have been conducted on subjective norms in relation to the intention to enlist in the military. Research on parents’ influence on youth’s intention to enlist by Gibson, Griepentrog, and Marsh (2007) showed that parental recommendations of military service and communication about the enlistment process are positively correlated with youth’s propensity to enlist. Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016) established that subjective norms significantly predict the intention to enlist in the Indian military. This finding is supported by the most recent finding on subjective norms’ impact on the military enlistment intention of Malaysians by Yong et al. (2021). Table 2.2 summarises the studies on subjective norms and intention.

Table 2.2: Summary of Studies on Subjective Norms and Intention

Author	IV	DV	Findings	Context
Edwin et al. (2003)	Subjective Norm	Intention	Significance	Job intention (Not in military)
Schreurs et al. (2009)				
Krithika and Venkatachalam (2014)				
Saraih et al. (2018)				
Acikgoz (2019)				
Putra and Purba (2020)				
Zainal et al. (2020)				
Meyer (2015)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Significance	Business Intention
Arroyo et al. (2017)				
Utami (2017)				
Lai Linda and To Wai (2020)				
Aprilia and Ardana (2021)				
Fenech et al. (2019)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Not Significance	Business Intention
Hasbullah et al. (2016)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Significance	Consumer Intention
Yadav and Pathak (2016)				
Ramkumar and Woo (2018).				
Dalila et al. (2020)				

Halim and Karami (2020)				
Zhang (2007)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Significance	Academic Intention
Cheon et al. (2012)				
Dunn et al. (2018)				
Jones (2020)				
Park et al. (2017)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Not Significance	Academic Intention
Jackson (2015)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Significance	Health Intention
Dewi and Zein (2017)				
Jalilian et al. (2020)				
Earle et al. (2020)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Not Significance	Health Intention
Wiggins et al. (2014)	Subjective Norms	Intention	Significance	Intention to join reservist by military personnel
Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016)				Intention to join military
Yong et al. (2021)				Intention to join military

2.5.3 Self-Efficacy

The study of human intention and behaviour evolved further when Bandura (1977) introduced the concept of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy theory (SET) was the extension of Expectancy-Value Theory (EVT) (Bandura, 2010), which study link between intention and behaviour. Self-efficacy is influenced by four principal sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, persuasion, and judgments of one's own physiological states, such as emotional arousal (Henderson, Rowe, Watson, & Hitchen-Holmes, 2016). According to Bandura (1977), people are self-appointed change agents as they control their choice of actions. However, in choosing any action, humans are influenced by beliefs about whether they have the power and efficacy to decide their options, effort, determination, and feelings.

Self-efficacy is defined as a person's belief in his/her ability to fulfil desired goals in life, that is, to influence the events that shape their lives (Bandura, 2010). It refers to

people's strong internal belief in their skills and abilities to commence a task and bring it to success. Self-efficacy able to examine choices of an individual to commit to particular behaviour over another. The strength of these beliefs was impacted by self-efficacy, an individual's experience and the perceived difficulty.

Self-efficacy strongly affects the following characteristics of human endeavour: 1) the choice one's likely to make and his/her devotion to goals; 2) the volume of effort a person is prepared to make and their attitude in facing challenges; 3) their ways of thinking; and 4) efficiency of behaviour (Bandura, 1980). A more precise definition of self-efficacy was given by Pajares (1996) as individuals' belief in their own capability to perform an action in any circumstance. The intensity of these beliefs constitutes self-efficacy, which is one's experience with a goal and the perception of its difficulty (Gecas, 1989). In other words, self-efficacy is a person's conviction that he/she is able to successfully complete a behaviour that is necessary to achieve desired outcomes. Self-efficacy is the most critical prerequisite of behavioural change, given that it affects coping behaviour (Bandura, 1977). People are believed to engender certain outcomes of behavior based on their belief in their success or failure in performing the intended behavior. Self-efficacy is thus able to examine the choices of an individual to commit to one behaviour over another.

Studies on self-efficacy in relation to intention have been conducted by many researchers, with most finding the relationship to be significance. However, Fenech et al. (2019) reported that self-efficacy is not significance to intention, which may be because of the study's unique cultural setting. Studies conducted by Jordan, Gabriel, Teasley, Walker, and Schraeder (2015), Schreurs et al. (2009) and Edwin et al. (2003) provide support that self-efficacy is not significance for intention. Jordan et al. (2015) argued that a possible explanation for this finding is because generalised self-efficacy does not affect

a recruit's decision to join the military, recommending that trait-based self-efficacy be used in future research. This suggestion was supported by Çelik, Yeloğlu, and Yıldırım (2016), who stated that work-related measures such as occupational self-efficacy are more ideal tools than general self-efficacy in research. Therefore, this study adopted trait-based self-efficacy to evaluate the effects of attitude and subjective norms on the intention to enlist in the MA.

Studies of self-efficacy in military enlistment is relevant as military environment is a workplace with a lot of occupational demands, both physically and mentally (Dolan & Adler, 2006). However very limited studies have been conducted on self-efficacy in relation to intention to enlist in the military context. According to Boe et al. (2018), military personnel with high self-efficacy are more capable of dealing with adverse situations. Gibson et al. (2007) discovered that youth self-efficacy is significance for intention to enlist in the military. This was corroborated by Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016) finding that Indian youth's intention to join the military in India is significantly influenced by their self-efficacy.

The research of self-efficacy as a direct predictor of intention to enlist in the military has mixed findings. Gibson et al. (2007) and Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016) showed the positive effect of self-efficacy on enlistment intention. Meanwhile, Jordan et al. (2015) and van Hooft et al. (2004) found no impact of self-efficacy on the intention to enlist in the military. This finding can be explained by Ajzen (2006) statement that there is no theoretical evidence to imply predictor's constant significance relationship with intention. Table 2.3 summarises the studies on self-efficacy and intention. It shows that the results are mix and not many studies have been done on the military context.

Table 2.3: Summary of Studies on Self-efficacy and Intention

Author	IV	Moderating /Mediating	DV	Findings	Context
Collins et al. (2011)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Health Intention
Mortan, Ripoll, Carvalho, and Bernal (2014)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Business Intention
Igwe et al. (2020)		Self-efficacy	Intention	Drop (poor model fit)	Business Intention
Fenech et al. (2019)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Not Significance	Business Intention
(Ip, Wu, Liu, & Liang, 2017)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Not Significance	Business Intention
Wang, Lin, and Luarn (2006)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Consumer Intention
Kim and Um (2016)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Volunteer intention and Donation Intention
H. Wang, Hall, and Rahimi (2015)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Intention to quit
Çelik et al. (2016)		Self-efficacy	Intention	Significance	Turnover Intention
Edwin et al. (2003)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Not Significance	Job search Intention
(Schreurs et al., 2009)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Not Significance	Job pursue intention
Jordan et al. (2015)	Self-efficacy		*To contract (written commitment to join military)	Not Significance	Military career commitment *by signing the contract show intention to join military
Gibson et al. (2007)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Intention to join military
Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016)	Self-efficacy		Intention	Significance	Intention to join military

2.5.4 Intention

Intention can be described as the subjective likelihood of a person engaging in a behaviour or attempting to engage in it (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Intentions capture both the level of the set goal intention or behaviour intention. Goal intentions are one's self-instructions to accomplished intended outcome and behavioural intentions are self-instructions to execute particular actions directed towards achieving these outcomes (Sheeran & Webb, 2016).

The intention to engage in a specific behaviour is considered to be a function of two core factors: the attitude towards the behaviour and the subjective norms surrounding the behaviour, where the latter refers to the social pressure that important others desire the behaviour to be performed (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). According to the theory of reasoned action, performance or non-performance of a given behaviour is primarily determined by the strength of one's intention to perform or not perform that behaviour.

Intention to enlist in the military and the propensity to join the military are used interchangeably in military enlistment research. Propensity to join has multiple meanings, including "tendency," "inclination," and "disposition" which encompass meanings from desires and preferences to solid plans. Consequently, the widespread usage of phrases like "military propensity" or "enlistment propensity" cover not only a person's interests and wants, but also their goals and expectations to serve in the military (Bachman, Segal, Freedman-Doan, & O'Malley, 2000).

Findings on intention to enlist in the military vary according to ethnicity. Research conducted by Huerta (2015) and Khan (2017) showed that even in the military context, different ethnicities exhibit diverging findings on the intention to enlist. Studies also show that Black and Asian individuals are no more or less likely than other racial groups to

report the propensity to enlist while White and Hispanic individuals are significantly less likely to report the propensity to enlist in the military. Despite Black youth reporting an overall higher propensity to enlist, Armor (1996) discussed a trend where the propensity of Black youth is decreasing faster than that of White youth and the effect of propensity on actual enlistment is becoming weaker. These findings may be reflective of a continued general decrease in the reported propensity to enlist among Black individuals. However, Kleykamp (2006) found a generally higher propensity among Hispanic individuals to enlist in the military. Huerta (2015) expanded on this finding, noting that Hispanic high school seniors enlist in military service as a path to acquire a college degree with minimal financial burden on their family (Khan, 2017).

No matter how well prediction of intention is formulated and applied, there is no guarantee that intention translate into behavioural intention. Study conducted by (Ford, Griepentrog, Helland, & Marsh, 2009) on youth enlisting in the U.S. military during late or early adulthood discover that of those who indicated they would certainly join the military, only 26% later did join. Interestingly, the study also finds out that of those who joined the military, nearly half had previously indicated they had little or no intention of joining the military when they were surveyed during their youth. Possible explanation for this finding is perhaps because people generally under-estimate the difficulty of performing the intended behaviours (DiBonaventura & Chapman, 2008). According to Sheeran and Webb (2016) people don't do things that intend to do due to intention-behaviours gaps and the Intention -behaviour gaps can be minimise and translate into people doing the thing they intend to do. Intention set with specific goals are more likelihood the intention be achieved compare to intention with general goals (Fujita & MacGregor, 2012). According to Zhang and Fishbach (2010) optimistic goal setting can also minimise intention-behaviour gap.

Intention are not static in concept as intention are subject to change (Ajzen, 1980). Between the time an intention is measured, and the time performance of the behaviour is accessed, intention change, then the intention-behaviour relationship will necessary be attenuated. Therefore Ajzen and Madden (1986) recommended measuring intention in close temporal proximity to the measure of behaviour performance to decreased the likely hood that intention might change during the ensuing time interval. Time may impact the intention-behaviour relationship either through a change in original intention (due to changes in attitudes towards performing the behaviour, subjective norms, or perceived behavioural control) or through an inability to act on the intention due to various personal and environmental control factors (Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991).

2.6 Application of TRA

Application of TRA in research has been clearly defined by the founder, Fishbein to ensure TRA able to measure the intended research. According to Fishbein (2008), in order to apply the TRA, firstly, researcher must identify the behaviour (or behaviours) that the research intent to understand, predict, change, or reinforce. In other words, a clear behaviour categories and goal must be identified by the researcher in applying TRA. As for this research, the intent is to “predict”, and the goal is “enlistment in MA” This is in line with TRA definition of behaviour which involves several elements: an action “enlistment” and target “MA” thus application of TRA for prediction in this research is more significance. Specific goals intention in TRA research such as “to enlist, to get A in final exam, to participate in marathon”, will facilitate significance prediction by TRA compared to general goals such as “to recycle, to get good grade, to exercise, to reduce weight etc..”. Secondly, researcher must determine which population should be taken into account in applying TRA (Fishbein, 2008), as the relative importance of attitudes and

subjective norms as determinants of intention that underpin these determinants, can vary depending on the community studied. This suggestion is confirmed by literature review conducted in this research as mentioned in section 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5. Important of this aspect is that TRA can be used to explain why certain members of a target population perform the behaviour while others do not. Finally, in order to accurately anticipate and fully comprehend a particular behaviour, measures of beliefs, attitudes, norms, and intention must all correspond exactly to the behaviour to be predicted.

Application of TRA is not without limitation. According to Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988), TRA model appears to hold quite well within the constraints they are define. However, most of the research are conducted outside the realm of TRA such as: 1) the target behaviour is not completely under the subjects' volitional control, 2) the situation involves a choice problem not explicitly addressed and 3) subjects' intentions are assessed when it is impossible for them to have all of the necessary information to form a completely confident intention. In this situation power prediction of behavioural in TRA will diminish. According to Ryan and Bonfield (1975) there are three major factors that influence the size of the relationship between intention and behaviour: 1) the specificity of the intentional measure; 2) the time between the measure of intention and the behavioural observation; and 3) the degree to which carrying out the intention is completely under the individual's control.

Due to this discuss reason, a behavioural intention measure will predict the performance of any voluntary act, unless intent changes prior to performance or unless the intention measure does not correspond to the behavioural criterion in terms of action, target, context, timeframe and/or specificity. Therefore Azjen (1980) proposed measure to mitigate the issue. 1) the constraints can be minimized by paying careful attention to the correspondence between the performance criterion and the wordings of the attitude,

subjective norm, and intention questions, and 2) by administering the measures of attitudes, subjective norms, and intentions as close as possible to the performance time. Possible explanation for this is that people possess more tangible perceptions of events that will happen sooner rather than later (Trope & Liberman, 2003).

In summary, though TRA are dynamic in predicting intention, there are certain criteria setting a researcher must adhere to ensure the application of TRA measuring as accurate as TRA intended to. Applying TRA outside the realm of TRA creation, will reduce the relevancy of TRA application in the intended research. Consideration on adopting proposed measure is important to ensure the TRA are applied as accurate as the purpose of TRA creation concept.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework is a structure that identify and describe the major elements, variable or construct that organise the research. It is used to hypothesized, understand or give meaning to the relationship among the elements that influence, affect or predict the event or outcome. Theoretical framework helps to ground the research focus under study within theoretical underpinnings and to frame the inquiry for data analysis and interpretation. Theoretical frameworks also guide the design of individual research and also structure the research presentation and publication.

Building on the literature review and research gaps identified in the literature review, a research framework was developed for this applied research, underpinned by the TRA (Ajzen. and Fishbein (1980). The TRA is a broadly acknowledged social psychology theory that elucidates human behaviour from a cognitive standpoint (Ajzen, 1991). It has been employed in numerous studies on intention, including in the military

context. In this applied research, the TRA is significance as its variables (attitude and subjective norms) are relevant in the MA enlistment context as discussed above. Additionally, the preliminary investigation conducted to understand the issues in the MA enlistment context also highlighted similarity constructs relevant to the TRA.

Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his/her the ability and skill to succeed in the intended behaviour; in this research, the intended behaviour is joining the military. In this applied research, self-efficacy is viewed as the belief of non-Bumiputra in their own ability to succeed in the MA's enlistment selection. Figure 2.2 presents the research framework of this study.

2.8 Proposed Research Framework

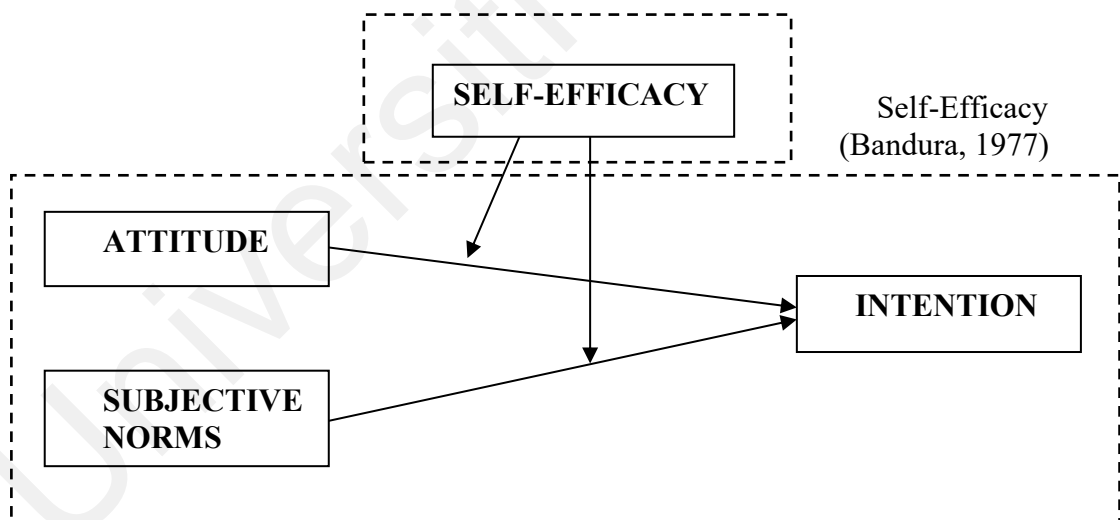


Figure 2.5:Proposed Research Framework

2.9 Hypothesis Development

2.9.1 Attitude and Intention of Non-Bumiputra to Enlist in the MA

Attitude is predicted to be a strong and direct antecedent of intention. This relationship has been supported by studies in the military context (Khan, 2017; Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016; Yong et al., 2021), which showed that attitude significantly predicts the intention to enlist in the military. According to Montano and Kasprzyk (2015), attitude is individuals' belief about the attributes of committing to a behaviour, weighed by the evaluation of those outcomes or attributes. As a result, people intend to engage in behaviours that they evaluate positively (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words, the stronger an individual's belief in positive implications from a behaviour, the stronger his/her attitude towards the behaviour.

It is expected that attitude affects non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA through the positive belief that by enlisting, one would get positive benefits from the organisation. All organisations, including the army, attract new talents through their offered benefits. According to Fransen (2019) study of enlistment in the US army, material reasons such as salary, economic benefits, and enlistment bonuses emerged as reasons for enlisting in the military. Eighmey (2006) and Woodruff, Kelty, and Segal (2006) suggested that values like patriotism, pride, strength, and duty to country influence decision-making regarding the enlistment process. Individuals join an organisation for different reasons under the influence of a positive attitude, mainly due to the belief of gaining positive outcomes from joining the organisation.

In the context of this research, it is postulated that non-Bumiputra are attracted to enlist in the MA due to the belief of positive outcomes from the enlistment. Belief/ perception has a critical role to play in our lives since it is going to influence our future decisions

(Gokuladas, 2010). This belief is influenced by the terms of service and privileges provided by the MA, which is one of the governmental organisations in Malaysia that can provide special privileges and benefits that other organisation cannot. The MA offers the highest paid salary in relation to academic qualification compared to other organisations in Malaysia, as the military's terms of service do not fall under the Public Service Act (*Perlembagaan Malaysia*, 2007). Benefits may include medical, dental, and/or disability insurance, vacation, paid sick leave, pension and others that are provided by the employer to their employees in addition to salary (Moy & Lee, 2002). Besides salary, eligible personnel are entitled to allowances, incentives in education (including for family members), social services (e.g., housing, military hospital, free accommodation and meals, discounted products at military grocery shops, etc.) and other benefits as stipulated in the terms of service (Malaysian Army Headquarters, 2009). These are the material benefits that non-Bumiputra believe they will gain from enlistment in the MA.

The positive outcomes non-Bumiputra believe they will gain from military enlistment also extends to tangible benefits such as self-development. Awareness of self and physical development tend to lead to preference intention which will translate into behaviour has been proved in study, by Javaras et al. (2008). Enlistees perceive that they will benefit in terms of discipline, self-confidence, courage, and high self-esteem by enlisting in the MA. This is supported by the MA's terms of service stipulated in its leadership training doctrine (Malaysian Army Training Headquarters, 2004). The training is designed to mould military personnel with a military profile that enhances their self-development to perform the job. This is the positive outcome of enlistment in the MA which influences non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA.

Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that attitude is a significance predictor of the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. Therefore, the hypothesis was developed as follows:

H 1 - There is a significance relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

2.9.2 Subjective Norms and the Intention of Non-Bumiputra to Enlist in the MA

Subjective norms are another strong and direct predictor of intention to enlist in the military. Research on subjective norms and intention have been conducted in the military context, though findings vary when subjective norms are applied in different contexts (Fenech et al., 2019). Subjective norms has been proven to predict the intention to enlist in the military by Wiggins et al. (2014), Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016), and Yong et al. (2021).

It is expected that subjective norms affect non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA via their perceptions of how those close to them see the behaviour and the consequent social pressure to engage in or avoid the behaviour (Wiggins et al., 2014). Reichert, Kim, and Fosu (2007) showed that "important others" (family members, relatives, and friends) have a stronger influence on military recruitment than advertising, highlighting the role of social norms. According to Emanuel et al. (2005), youth's decision to enlist in military is often made after consultation with important people in their social networks. Since strong subjective norms influence the intention to enlist in the military, recruiters promote enlistments by sending brochures to attract more positive attention from the youth's primary referents, namely parents, teachers, and career counsellors (Kleykamp, 2006).

In the context of this research, it is posited that non-Bumiputra are influenced to enlist in the MA due to the perceived social pressure created by “people of importance” in their life. First, choosing a career is one of the important decisions in life; therefore, individuals tend to consult people they trust before making the decision. Difficulties in choosing career is acknowledge by academics and professionals to the extend they consider difficulties in the career decision-making process to be a widespread problem (Fabio, Palazzeschi, Asulin-Peretz, & Gati, 2013). According to Bright, Pryor, Wilkenfeld, and Earl (2005), parents and teachers exert strong influences on youth’s career decisions. The Asian cultural setting is embedded in subjective norms, as the obligation to obey one’s parents and respected people are norms that influence intention in choosing a career (Afzal, Raza, & Aamir, 2018). According to Guay, Senécal, Gauthier, and Fernet (2003), Asian culture practices a strong acceptance of parental authority in career choices. Another contributing factor reliance on important people in career decision by non-Bumiputra is explain in the study conducted by (Greenbank & Hepworth, 2008). The study found that most students did not adopt a rational/comprehensive approach, involving the formal collection and evaluation of information on different career options utilising (for example) university careers services and information in libraries and from the internet. Instead, students preferred to use information they acquired informally from people they know (i.e. friends, family, lecturers), the media and their courses, and their “gut feeling” (i.e. their intuition). Therefore, it is expected that subjective norms are an influencing factor of non-Bumiputra’ intention to enlist in the MA.

Second, the approval of family members to enlist in the MA is important as the nature of military jobs is challenging and demands full commitment. According to Gade (2017), a military organisation needs soldiers with high levels of dedication and strong

attachment to their organisation. This demanding military commitment affects family life as studies by Green, Nurius, and Lester (2013) and Pflieger et al. (2018) show that work-family conflict is prevalent in military families. Most of the time, a career in the military requires individuals to be away from home for long periods due to deployment for operations and training. According to Angelis, Smith, and Segal (2018), military spouses have less support when service members are away from home and the responsibilities of the deployed individual in a family (father, mother, husband, or wife) are assumed by close relatives or other family members. Dependency on family members to lend a helping hand during the absence of a military family member influences individuals to seek approval and blessing from important people in daily life before enlisting in the army. In return, the approval to enlist in the MA by family members also serves as a collective decision and indirectly compels family members to lend a hand in times of the military members' absence.

Third, studies show that the effect of subjective norms on intention varies according to ethnicity (Hoofst et al., 2004; Kashif et al., 2018; Pinedo, Zembre, Beltrán-Girón, Gilbert, & Castro, 2020; Sun, 2000; Viki, Culmer, Eller, & Abrams, 2006; Zulfikar, 2012). Therefore, it is likely that non-Bumiputra' subjective norms have a unique impact on their intention to enlist in the MA.

Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that subjective norms are a significance predictor of the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. Therefore, the hypothesis was developed as follows:

H 2 - There is a significance relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

2.9.3 Self-efficacy as a Moderator

Self-efficacy has been studied extensively as a moderator of intention by researchers in business, education, and health (Ahlin, Drnovšek, & Hisrich, 2014; Carter & Young, 2020; Collins et al., 2011; Gibson et al., 2007; Mortan et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2006). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderation analysis allows researchers to assess the impact of a third construct (Z) on the relationship between two constructs (X and Y).

The results on self-efficacy as a moderator vary across several studies. Kim and Um (2016) reported that self-efficacy moderates donation intention and volunteer intention. Panatik, O'Driscoll, and Anderson (2011) found that self-efficacy has no moderating effect on turnover intention, while Çelik et al. (2016) revealed that self-efficacy moderates turnover intention. A meta-analytic review highlighted the inconsistency effect of self-efficacy moderating intention behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sheeran, 2002). Possible explanation for this finding is, due to that some people generally underestimate the difficulty (DiBonaventura & Chapman, 2008; Dommermuth, Klobas, & Lappegård, 2015; Sheeran & Abraham, 2003) or overestimate their ability to perform the tasks (Wu, 2017).

Using self-efficacy as a moderator is more relevant than as a predictor of intention because individuals' beliefs of their ability to perform a task do not necessarily mean the individuals will commit to the behaviour. For example, a man who is physically fit and strong may believe that he is able to pass all the military enlistment tests, but that does not mean he will definitely enlist in the military. Furthermore, several studies have found that self-efficacy does not directly predict intention (Edwin et al., 2003; Fenech et al., 2019; Schreurs et al., 2009). Therefore, in this applied research, self-efficacy was not used

as direct predictor but rather as a moderator of the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

Most comprehensive study on self-efficacy in relation to high risk action conducted by Slinger and Rudestam (1997), in death threatening extreme sport, The finding is in keeping with (Bandura, 1977) research, which suggests that when people judge themselves capable of handling an activity, they perform with assurance, approach threatening tasks no anxiously, experience little in the way of stress reactions, and are able to direct all effort to the task at hand rather than being disturbed by thoughts concerning their own capabilities. The finding shows even in extreme condition where there is high possibility of physical harm due to the action, self-efficacy still able to influence decision for people to commit to the dangerous action. In relation to this research, as military nature of job is dangerous and considered life threatening occupation, it is significance to investigate self-efficacy influence in intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA.

The use of self-efficacy as a moderator in this research is in line with the proposal of the founder of the TRA. According to Ajzen (2020), theoretically, self-efficacy or PBC should play a moderating role in relation to intention and conceptually, there is no difference between PBC and self-efficacy (Ajzen, 2020; Araújo-Soares, McIntyre, & Sniehotta, 2009; Bandura, Freeman, & Lightsey, 1999; Wallston, 2001). Previous studies have used the terms PBC and self-efficacy interchangeably (Bui, Droms, & Craciun, 2014). Both concepts are so identical that according to Dixon and Johnston (2005), recent findings show that even state-of-the art instruments to measure PBC and self-efficacy have been unable to reliably distinguish between them. In this research, self-efficacy was modelled as a moderator of the effects of attitude and subjective norms on intention.

Instead of evaluating a causal relationship between two constructs, moderation assesses the conditions under which the relationships exist. Moderation effects either strengthen or weaken the relationship.

2.9.3.1 Self-Efficacy as a Moderator between Attitude and Intention

Numerous studies on the TRA have confirmed that attitude plays an important role in forming the intention to enlist in the military, such as the studies by Ford et al. (2013), Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016), Wiggins et al. (2014), and (Yong et al., 2021). Notably, self-efficacy can strengthen the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA for the following reasons.

First, although the studies mentioned above have verified the strong effect of attitude on military enlistment intention, an individual's attitude is still subject to his/her beliefs about the outcomes of the behaviour (Bandura, 1977). In fact, internal beliefs about one's ability to engage in a behaviour successfully can affect the attitude towards the behaviour, and subsequently, the intention to perform it (Ajzen, 1991). According to Bandura (1980), individuals do not perform behaviours that demand more than their coping abilities; rather, they prefer to willingly participate in actions that they believe themselves to be capable of handling. Therefore, even though a person has the attitude (positive belief) that enlisting in military will be beneficial, in the absence of self-efficacy (belief concerning the ability to perform the intended behaviour), attitude will not translate into intention. In context of this research, non-Bumiputra' attitude towards the intention to enlist in the MA will not translate into intention without the belief that they are able to perform the behaviour (self-efficacy).

Second, self-efficacy has been proven to influence intention, as shown by several past studies. Chen and Wu (2014) and Yang (2010) found that different levels of self-

efficacy cause different behaviours among individuals. Non-Bumiputra with high self-efficacy are expected to try to join the MA, while non-Bumiputra with low self-efficacy are expected to avoid the enlistment selection. As the enlistment selection process must be passed to enlist in the MA, non-Bumiputra with low self-efficacy behave differently in terms of their intention to enlist compared to those with high-self efficacy. Thus, self-efficacy can modify and moderate how attitude influences the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. Hence, the hypothesis below was developed.

H 3 - Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

2.9.3.2 Self-Efficacy as a Moderator between Subjective Norms and Intention

Scholars like Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016), Wiggins et al. (2014), and (Yong et al., 2021) have confirmed that subjective norms play an important role in forming the intention to enlist in the military. It is posited that self-efficacy can moderate this relationship for the following reasons.

First, self-efficacy affects the subjective norms and intention relationship by modifying intention, as studies show that high and low self-efficacy have different impacts on intention (Hsu & Chiu, 2004; Thatcher & Perrewé, 2002; Yang, 2010). A person with high self-efficacy perceives the enlistment selection to be relatively easy and is more willing to enlist in the military, and vice versa. As a result, the link between subjective norms and non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA can be moderated by different levels of self-efficacy.

Second, some research has indicated that there is no significance relationship between subjective norms and intention (Autio et al., 2011; Liñán & Chen, 2009;

Solesvik, 2013; Tsai et al., 2014), while others have evidenced that the effect of subjective norms is significance but weak (Kolvereid, 1996; Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). Since self-efficacy can influence intention, it is likely that it can moderate the effect of subjective norms on the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. Hence, the hypothesis below was developed.

H4 - Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

2.10 Summary

This is chapter focused on the literature review describing TRA in detail and justification choosing the model over TPB model. Variable Attitude, subjective norms and self-efficacy was analysed from previous research to understand the relationship in various context. Summary of each variable relationship with dependent variable intention was summarised and presented in table form. Research gap was also identified in this process. Based on the research gap and problem statement in Chapter 1, a research model was proposed based on the following variables. Attitude, subjective norms and self-efficacy as the independent variable and intention as the dependent variable. Detail explanation was included on how hypothesis was developed with justification from literature and also in context of the research was presented. Beside that explanation for self-efficacy as moderator with justification was also included in this chapter.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the research method to explain the systematic process of the study and justify the selection of the methods. Principally, the study used a quantitative approach (positivism). The main research instrument was a survey questionnaire. This comprises of 12 aspects, namely the research paradigm, the research design, the sampling method, ethical challenges, population and sampling, unit of analysis, instrument and measurement, data coding, pilot study, data collection process, and statistical technique and tools. Most importantly this chapter explains and discusses on the operationalisation of the construct used and the construct reliability and validity assessment. The summary of the chapter is provided at the end of the chapter to ease understanding.

3.2 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is interpreted as an approach or a model or a pattern to conduct research. Basically, it is a framework of thoughts or beliefs or understandings within which theories and practices operate. It also acts as a function of how a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge. In other words, a research paradigm is a step of creating a blueprint of research.

Research is a way to discover the truth of assumed relations among ambiguities in natural phenomena using a pragmatic, organised, methodical, and analytical study of hypothetical propositions (Cohen et al., 2007). According to Chua (2012), research is conducted and framed based on perspective, which can be divided into positivist,

interpretivist, and critical perspectives. This applied research adopted the positivist perspective to study the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

Research based on the positivist orientation assumes that reality exists “out there” and is observable, stable, and measurable (Mark, 2016). This is in line with the focus on the discovery of observable and measurable facts and regulations, as well as on the creation of reliable and meaningful data (Crotty, 1998). In positivism, research is designed to harvest authentic and unprejudiced data that is free of bias. The findings discovered through the positivist orientation are acknowledged as scientific and systematic, which enable prediction, hypothesising, testing, and generalisation of the findings. Additionally, positivism emphasises the realistic nature of entities such as existing organisations and individuals (in this case, non-Bumiputra individuals and the MA organisation).

According to Park, Konge, and Artino (2019), positivism is aligned with the hypothetico-deductive model of science. Positivism relies hypothetico-deductive on the to verify a priori hypothesis that are often stated quantitatively, where functional relationships can be derived between causal and explanatory factor (independent variable) and outcome (dependent variable) (Hoyle, Harris, & Judd, 2007). Positivist research, however, does not always rely on quantitative methods. It is often operationalized through functional relationships. A primary goal of positivist inquiry in this research is to generate Explanatory associations or casual relationships that ultimately lead to prediction and control of the situation in questions (Gergen, 2001; Sciarra, 1999).

According to Mark (2016), positivist research is based on the standardisation of data and information gathered through a well-structured and well-designed research methodology. Positivist researchers think that via experiment and observation, they can arrive at a complete understanding. Concepts and knowledge are seen to be the result of

simple experience, which is then interpreted using logic. Most importantly according to Tubey, Rotich, and Bengat (2015), the positivism paradigm points to the quantitative methodology on the basis of its deductive nature that uses data to test a theory. This research adopts the positivist approach in designing and conducting the research.

The study of intention in the military has generally been conducted using quantitative methods, such as by Jaiswal, Dash, Sharma, Mishra, and Kar (2015), Meyer (2015), Singh (2017), Sorenson (2015) and Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016). According to Bielefeld (2006), quantitative methods help to generate useful knowledge about the sector, where results of studies can be applied and generalized much more easily than with non-quantitative methods. Therefore, the quantitative method was adopted in this research to study the relationships of attitude and subjective norms with the intention to enlist in the MA with self-efficacy as a moderator.

Choosing the correct research methodology is important to ensure the data collected is able to answer the research questions. This applied research sought to examine the relationships among the model variables (attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and intention to enlist in the military) via the deductive approach. Deduction enables the researcher to review and consider the consequences of the TRA by gathering facts to confirm or disprove the hypothesized relationships between the variables. Furthermore, the deductive approach provides a way for the researcher to link theory to observation.

3.3 Research Design

According to Mitchell and Jolley (2010), research design is the most important aspect of a research, as it provides the fundamental framework for the study and the method to answer the research questions. A research design sets the foundation of how the research

will be conducted to fulfil the research objectives. It ensures researchers are guided throughout the research journey, and addresses decisions such as how respondents are selected, how data is collected and analysed, and how findings are communicated (Kumar, 2012). This applied research was designed with four phases as a continuous process, as depicted in Figure 3.1.

Phase 1 was the defining of the problem statement. This phase was crucial to this research as there are no previous studies conducted by the MA on this situation to give insight into the problem. Phase 1 began by reviewing the data of the MA to confirm the problem really exists and is supported by statistics. Statistical data for the problem is reviewed from 2014 to 2019. Data for enlistment in 2020 are not take into consideration as the method of recruitment differ from previous years due to restriction of Covid 19 pandemic. This is to ensure statistical data presented supporting the problem are from the same method of recruitment. Once the problem was confirmed, a preliminary investigation was conducted to better understand the problem and help frame the problem in the MA context. Key themes were identified using content analysis and the findings provide clearer understanding the context of the problem in relation to the intended research. Extensive literature review analysis was conducted in this phase to understand relevant theory and variables, identify research gaps and justification for the proposed framework. This phase ended with hypothesis that paved the path for the research to progress to Phase 2.

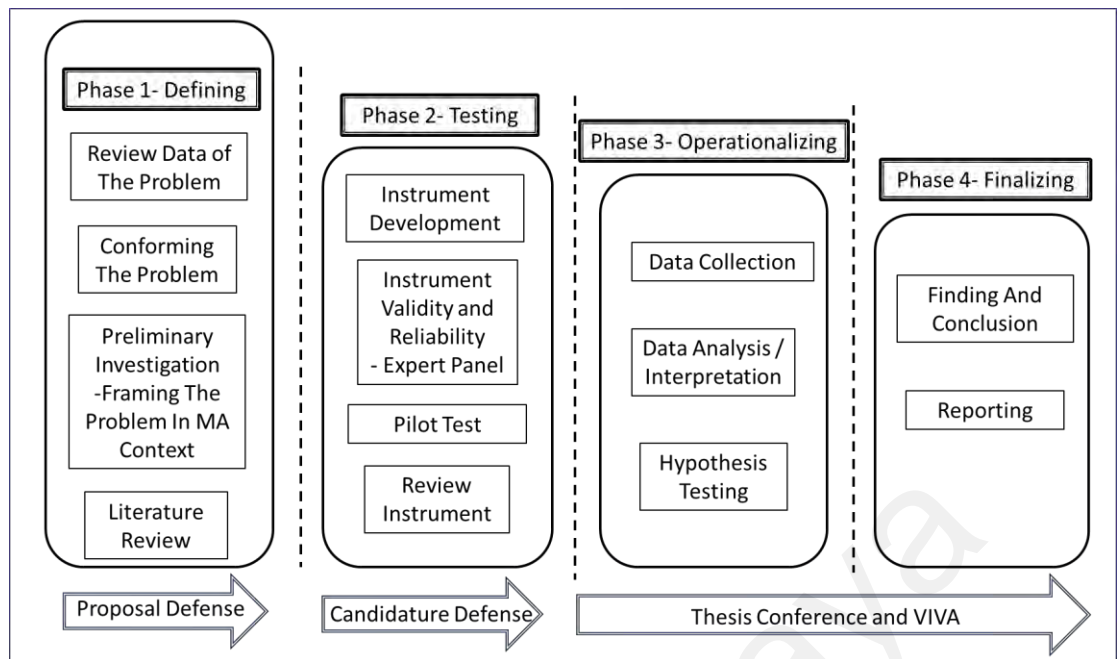


Figure 3.1: Research Process

Phase 2 was the testing phase where the instrument was developed and tested. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of the independent variables (IV), attitude and subjective norms, on the dependent variable (DV), intention to enlist in the MA, with self-efficacy as a moderator. This objective guided how the instrument was framed and developed. The instrument underwent rigorous processes to ensure validity and reliability. Expert panel was utilised to ensure the instrument are measuring in context of the research. A pilot test was performed to check the instrument, the data from pilot test was analysed to assess and validate the instrument. Result from pilot test in this phase is used to determine if the instrument is ready to be used in the next phase.

In Phase 3, the operationalisation began with data collection. The collected data was scrutinised to ensure the validity of the data and transform into determine coded for Analysis. The analysed use software to test the hypotheses. Result of the analysis was

interpreted to prove or disprove the hypotheses. Most significantly, this phase was able to provide answers to the research questions.

Phase 4 was the finalising phase, which represents the most important part of the research. This phase outlined findings and conclusions to the research problem and research questions, and most importantly for this applied research, offered practical contributions. Phase 4 ended by reporting and providing conclusions to the research.

3.4 Ethical Challenges

Ethics in research is described as a code of conduct in performing research in a manner that protects the people who are its subjects. Ethical obligations were in force throughout the present research process. According to Creswell (2018), ethical obligations may arise during data collection, data analysis, and data interpretation. Saunders et al. (2009) defined ethics as a standard of behaviour that guides researchers' conduct regarding the rights of the research subjects and those affected by the research. The importance of ethics in research cannot be stressed more as ethics give credibility to research works. In this research, researcher is aware of the ethic issue concerning this research subject. This research intent to investigate the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA which the subject is regarding military. Researcher is aware that as serving member in the military for over 30, certain knowledge regarding practice and experience in military might influence the research. Although the research is quantitative by design, ethic concern still arises. Therefore, researcher adopted neutral stand and viewed the research as an outsider from military organizational and not as serving members in MA. Adopting online survey are one of the strategies adopted by researcher to ensure ethic is keep to the utmost in this research.

Hence, this research was bonded by two ethical codes of conduct: (1) Universiti Malaya's standards, and (2) MAF's classified document protocol. Universiti Malaya's ethical standards were cleared by the Universiti Malaya Research Ethics Committee (UMREC) on 28 April 2022 (see Appendix B). All the data presented in this research concerning the MA was cleared for publication by the Army Headquarters as required by MAF's classified document protocol. Although the finding of the research is not considered as security information, yet researcher discussed briefly and explain to the MA Human Resource Department and Recruitment cell of the finding for publication clearance. In line with research ethics, to ensure the confidentiality of the respondents, no personal information was required in the questionnaire. The consent of respondents was also a mandatory requirement prior to answering the questionnaire. Respondents need to check the consent box in the online questionnaire to gain access to the question. There is no pressure for respondent to participate in the survey as it is on volunteered basis. Beside that the questionnaire was administered online. Respondents have the own free will of choice to participate or not in the survey. There is no time constrain for respondent to answer the questionnaire. Respondent can access the survey at any time of choice and completed the survey at own required time.

3.5 Population and Sampling

Quantitative research samples of populations ideally are collected by selecting participants randomly from the larger populations. A random sample generally would have the characteristics in the same proportions as the population. A population is the whole group that researcher want to draw conclusions about. Meanwhile, a sample is the specific group that researcher intend to collect data from. In research the sample size is always less than the total size of the population. The population of this research is Malaysian non-Bumiputra with the age between 19 and 24 years old. This age group are

selected as this is the age criteria set by MA for enlistment. Furthermore according to Salganik and Heckathorn (2004) respondent must be conform to some designated set of specification related to the research. Reason for selecting the population of no-Bumiputra with the age between 19 and 24 years old are as follows:

Firstly, this research adopts the same age group criteria for enlistment to ensure the closest similarity of respondent to potential applicant eligible to enlist in the military. One of the constructs studied in this research is subjective norms (social pressure) in relation to intention to enlist. The influence of subjective norms varies according to age. According to Keefe (1994) as the age increased parental and friends influence decreased thus creating lesser social pressure. Therefore, subjective norms influence in relation to intention to enlist in MA for age group 19 to 24 years old are not the same subjective norms influence with older age group. To ensure data gathered reflect similarity respond from potential non-Bumiputra respond in enlistment in MA, age group 19 to 24 years old (enlistment age criteria) is adopted.

Secondly, this age group has completed basic academic requirement the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) for enlistment in MA and mostly are looking for employment. Respondent beyond this age group (19 to 24 years old) most probably are employed which the employment experience may influence the respond on intention to enlist in MA. Beside that this group age is assumed to have acquired certain degree of knowledge of military profession in Malaysia and able to relate it to the questionnaire. Data gathered from group of respondent with high probability being employed might not reflect the respond from intended group which most are unemployed.

Thirdly, the selected age group are very important in this research as it reflect the physical abilities of the respondent which influence their decision to enlist. One of the

constructs studied in this research is self-efficacy in relation to intention to enlist in MA. Self-efficacy is the belief of a person that he/she has the ability and skill to succeed in the intended behaviour and in context of the study is military enlistment. The enlistment selection is tough, challenging and demand physical strength are one of the main concerns of potential applicant. Generally physical abilities deteriorate as age increased thus respond from an elderly person in context of self-efficacy in military enlistment might not reflect the respond of group age 19 to 24 years old. According to Maurer (2001) as age increased, there is decline in self-confidence (or self-efficacy) for career-relevant learning and skill development with age, As the subject of the research in enlistment in the military and the intended study to understand those who are physically qualified to join the military, therefore, is important to get respond from right age group (19 to 24 years old) that are most likely to have the basic physical ability to enlist in MA in context of self-efficacy.

Respondent are selected not from military personnel due to several reasons. As the intent of this research is to study intention on non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA, the respondent is person who are not yet enlist in military. Respond from an outsider of military organization genuinely reflect the influence of recruitment initiative, organization image and policy. A serving military personnel respond might be biases as they could be influence by the experience they have in the organization and not the actual factor influences their intention prior to enlistment. Furthermore, for military personnel the intention has already translated into actual behaviour while the intent of the research is to study intention only.

This research adopted strict criteria for respondent in this research as to ensure high similarity of respondent with the target of study. According to Cavana, Delahaye,

and Sekeran (2001) to ensure data gathered are relevant in context of the study, the respondents drawn from the target population or who at the very least, are highly similar to the target population. According to data extracted from the Department of Statistics (2021), demographic data categorises age brackets between 15 to 19 years old and 20 to 24 years old. As the intended population's age range (i.e., 19 to 24) was between the categories (Table 3.1), this research took the total number of both categories as the population size, which amounted to 1,389,800. This figure is more than the actual population but was used to be sure the intended population was not excluded.

As the design of this research was quantitative, several methods were considered to determine the sample size for the population. Roscoe's rule of thumb states that a sample size should be between 30 and 500. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and Uma and Roger (2016), for a population more than 100,000, the sample size is 384. Therefore, for the population of 1,389,800, the required sample size in this research was determined

Table 3.1: Mid-Year Population Estimates by Age Group, Ethnic Group, and Sex, Malaysia, 2021

Jadual 2.2: Anggaran penduduk pertengahan tahun mengikut kumpulan umur, kumpulan etnik dan jantina, Malaysia, 2021^e
Table 2.2: Mid-year population estimates by age group, ethnic group and sex, Malaysia, 2021^e

('000)

Jantina/ kumpulan umur Sex/ age group	Jumlah Total	Warganegara Citizens					Bukan Warganegara Non-citizens
		Jumlah Total	Bumiputera	Cina Chinese	India Indians	Lain-lain Others	
Jumlah Total	32,655.4	29,962.3	20,909.4	6,716.9	2,025.9	310.1	2,693.1
0 - 4	2,466.5	2,353.7	1,925.9	286.9	104.6	36.3	112.7
5 - 9	2,569.3	2,477.0	1,942.1	371.1	121.3	42.5	92.3
10 - 14	2,477.3	2,429.1	1,828.0	416.4	146.1	38.5	48.2
15 - 19	2,772.2	2,553.2	1,880.4	478.2	163.9	30.7	219.0
20 - 24	3,089.8	2,588.3	1,871.3	517.2	171.8	28.0	501.5
25 - 29	3,194.0	2,625.2	1,881.4	542.4	175.3	25.9	568.9
30 - 34	2,876.4	2,497.2	1,757.1	538.2	177.8	24.1	379.2
35 - 39	2,598.1	2,319.0	1,589.7	534.2	174.8	20.3	279.1
40 - 44	2,062.1	1,878.0	1,229.7	485.2	148.7	14.4	184.1
45 - 49	1,779.8	1,666.5	1,067.7	458.6	129.5	10.7	113.2
50 - 54	1,637.2	1,562.7	982.8	448.3	122.0	9.8	74.5
55 - 59	1,484.4	1,438.1	889.5	423.9	115.9	8.8	46.3
60 - 64	1,244.4	1,214.4	732.1	376.0	98.8	7.5	29.9
65 - 69	936.0	918.2	537.8	303.4	71.6	5.4	17.8
70 - 74	678.2	668.3	372.1	242.4	50.5	3.2	10.0
75 - 79	392.5	386.9	206.6	152.0	26.3	2.0	5.6
80 - 84	231.9	227.4	119.7	92.3	14.4	1.0	4.5
85+	165.1	159.0	95.5	49.9	12.4	1.2	6.1

Source: Department of Statistics Malaysia

Table 3.2: Determining Sample Size from a Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	246
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	180	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	190	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	200	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	210	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	220	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	230	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	240	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	250	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	260	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	270	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Note: "N" is population size
"S" is sample size.]

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

to be 384. The researcher decided to select Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sampling size because larger sample sizes offer more reliable results with greater precision and power. According to Fox, Hunn, and Mathers (2009), a larger sample size in quantitative research produces results that can be generalised to a broader population. In addition, a large sample size reduces bias and sampling error in research findings (Gill & Johnson, 2002; Taherdoost, 2016).

3.6 Unit of Analysis

Determining the unit of analysis is the most important aspect to be considered before collecting data to avoid errors in data collection. A unit of analysis indicates that the subject being studied is designated as an entity (Yurdusev, 1993). According to Kumar (2012), the conventional units of analysis in social science research are individuals, teams, and organisations. Among them, the individual-level unit of analysis is the most commonly used in social science research. This study focused on non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA. Therefore, the unit of analysis was at the individual level of a non-Bumiputra citizen.

3.7 Instrument and Measures

The research adapted the measurements of the model variables from prior studies with some modification to suit the research setting based on experts' comments. Details of the measurements are shown in Table 3.3. The measurements were chosen based on the dimensions that fit the context of this research. Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2003) recommended that content validity be determined alongside face validity with similar testing instruments. This is because both assessments seek to evaluate if the measures proposed by the researcher can achieve the research objectives. According to Hamed Taherdoost (2016), to ensure the instrument measures what it is supposed measure, it

must undergo a face validity test wherein the researcher must solicit feedback and comments from experts in the area of the measured variables.

Table 3.3: Instrument Design

Section	Variable	Dimension	No. of Questions	Source
A		Demographic	8	-
B	Attitude	Joining military	10	(Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016) ¹
C	Self-efficacy	Military learning/training	6	(Buch, Säfvenbom, & Boe, 2015)
D	Subjective Norms	Choosing career	4	(Fenech et al., 2019)
E	Intention	Joining military	3	(Schreurs et al., 2009)

The questionnaire had a total of 31 questions divided into five sections (see Appendix C). Each section includes simple instruction on answering the questions. Section A solicited demographic data with eight questions, including filter questions. Filter question number 1 is to ensure the respondent is non-Bumiputra as intended in the research and filter question number 4 regarding age to ensure the respondent is within the intended age group (19 to 24 years old). Filter questions are important as the questionnaire are distributed randomly via google forms, researcher has no control of respondent access to the questionnaires. A nominal scale and multiple-choice responses were presented, but only one response was accepted for each question in this section. The questions were on the respondents' status, sex, marital status, age, academic qualification, religion, living status, and state. Question 9 was an attention checker.

¹ Approval in Appendix D

Section B was the attitude measurement with 10 questions as follows:

1. I believe that Military Service is the right job to serve my nation in a meaningful way.
2. I feel that working in Military is adventurous, daring and makes me proud.
3. I will earn immortal pride to my family, if I join in Military Services.
4. I feel that serving Military is brave and courageous.
5. Performing adventurous activities during military services will earn more respect for me from others.
6. I feel that enlisting in Military Service will be beneficial as it will help me to earn more incentives with good pay to live comfortably.
7. Military job provides me liberal fringe benefits (health care, retirement benefits, etc).
8. Working in Military gives me educational, social benefits and resettlement employment opportunities.
9. I feel that Military job is more secured when compared with other civilian jobs (job permanent).
10. I feel that Military service offers the opportunity to practice many sports.

Section C was the self-efficacy measurement with six questions as follows:

1. I am a person who can handle being a military trainee
2. I am able to mobilize the energy needed to work hard with my military training
3. I am able to handle difficult time in military training
4. I will manage to complete the military training
5. I will achieve a result I can be proud of
6. After completing the military academy will achieve results above average among Peers

Section D was subjective norms measurement with four questions as follows:

1. My parents are positively oriented towards my future career as military personnel
2. My friends see military career as a logical choice for me.
3. I believe that people, who are important to me, think that I should pursue a career as military personnel
4. In my community, everyone is actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas.

Section E was the intention measurement with three questions as follows:

1. I am interested in military career
2. I am looking forward for selection day at recruitment centre
3. I intend to attend next selection day at recruitment centre

The ordinal scale was used as it can measure the magnitude of difference in individuals' preferences. Specifically, a five-point Likert scale was used, with the markers "1 = strongly disagree", "2 = disagree", "3 = neutral", "4 = agree", and "5 = strongly agree." This Likert scale presented a neutral option which gave respondents a neutral choice between "agree" and "disagree".

3.8 Translation

According to Maneesriwongul and Dixon (2004) The quality of translation and validation of the translated instrument play an important role in assuring that the results produced in cross-cultural research are attributable to true differences or similarities between cultures in the phenomena being investigated, rather than translation problems.

There are few method of translation adopted by researcher especially in cross cultural research. Brislin, Brislin, Lonner, and Thorndike (1973) suggested one or more of the

following techniques: (1) back-translation; (2) bilingual techniques; (3) committee approach; (4) pre-test. In back-translation, a target language version is re-translated into the source language version to ensure that the research instrument's translation is correct. The bilingual technique entails having bilingual respondents assess both the source and target language versions in order to find questions that have different replies in the two versions. The committee method employs a group of multilingual individuals to translate from the source to the target language and upon the completion of instrument translation and a pilot study should be conducted to guarantee that future users of the target language version can comprehend all questions and processes. This applied research adopts back-to-back translation and pilot test to check the accuracy of translation.

This research studied non-Bumiputra' enlistment intention as a recruit in the MA. The basic entry qualification for recruits is Malaysia Certificate of Education, with the mandatory requirement of a credit in Bahasa Malaysia. Though generally non-Bumiputra in Malaysia are more fluent in English language, this research insists to adopts Bahasa Malaysia language in the questionnaires for the following reason. The targeted respondent of this research is non-Bumiputra eligible to enlist in MA, which means the respondent must fulfil the mandatory academic requirement to enlist as recruit in MA, credit in Bahasa Malaysia. Credit result in Malaysia Certificate of Education (MCE) guaranteed that the respondent is fluent in Bahasa Malaysia. Medium of communication in MA for recruit is in Bahasa Malaysia compared to officers the medium is English language. As this study intent to study non-Bumiputra enlistment in MA as recruit, questionnaire in Bahasa Malaysia is more appropriate. Furthermore according to Samsu et al. (2020) use of Bahasa Melayu (Bahasa Malaysia) is as a mean for patriotism and according to Shariffuddin, Apandi, Ahmad, and Ayub (2020) infers that the higher the level of patriotism the higher the level of his/her motivation to join military.

The questionnaire underwent the back-to-back translation technique in translating it from English to Bahasa Malaysia. Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) used the back-to-back translation method to guarantee translation equivalence. This technique is used to achieve linguistic validity and to ensure the right meaning is preserved throughout the translation. The back-to-back translation was conducted by a linguist from the MAF Language Centre. The translation process underwent tight scrutiny from the senior officer of the language centre; the confirmation letter of the translation task is attached in Appendix D. Comparison of the translations revealed no significance differences between the original and the subsequent English version. The final version was tested on 5 respondent which have similarity characteristic with the intended respondent. This test was to ensure the questionnaire design are easy to understand and relevant to the context of the intended research. Researcher administer the test himself and observed reaction from respondent. The questionnaire required no explanation or clarification from the 5 respondents. Choice of word are simple and understood by respondent on first attempt to answer the questionnaire. Feedback from respondent that the questionnaire is good and required no modification or additional instruction.

3.9 Reliability Test

This research adapted measurements that had been proven reliable by previous researchers. The selection of measurement scales with accepted reliability is important as the measurements' reliability will ensure the data and findings of the present study are credible and trustworthy. According to Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2011), Cronbach's Alpha values ranging between 0.6 to 0.7 are considered the minimum acceptable threshold for reliability. However, this research adapted a higher standard of Cronbach's Alpha as per Pallant (2013), who deemed constructs reliable if their Cronbach's Alpha was equal to or exceeded 0.7. Therefore, the threshold accepted in this

research for Cronbach's Alpha was 0.7 and above. The summary of Cronbach's Alpha for the measurements adapted in this research is in Table 3.4. Though the measurements were proven to be valid by previous researchers, they were still required to be tested in the MA setting. Therefore, the measurements' reliability was tested again in the pilot study, the findings of which are discussed in the pilot study section.

Table 3.4: Measurements' Reliability

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Source
Attitude	0.86	(Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016)
Subjective Norms	0.76	(Fenech et al., 2019)
Self-efficacy	0.89	(Buch et al., 2015)
Intention	0.81	(Schreurs et al., 2009)

3.10 Validity

Validity refers to how well the data gathered is relevant to the investigation. (Ghauri, Grønhaug, & Strange, 2020). According to (Field, 2005) validity basically means "measure what is intended to be measured". The validity of data gathered in a research hinge on a well-developed questionnaire to extract accurate answers from respondents. It is a big challenge for researchers to formulate a precise questionnaire related to the intended study constructs. According to Cooper, Schindler, and Sun (2006) and Hair, Anderson, Babin, and Black (2010), validity pertains to the accuracy and appropriate definition of concepts by acceptable standards. Therefore, the measurements were subjected to construct and content validity confirmation, as explained below.

3.10.1 Construct Validity

Construct validity denotes to how well you translated or converted a concept, idea, or behaviour that is a construct into a working and operating reality, the operationalization. As this research adapted measurements from previous studies which are in English, measurement need to be translated into Bahasa Malaysia. This process was done via back-

to-back translation in a rigorous manner to maintain linguistic validity. Professional help qualified in Bahasa Malaysia language and English language was engaged from the Malaysian Armed Forces Language Centre. The wording, content, sequence, and layout of the questions were checked to ensure linguistic validity was preserved in the instrument after the translation. The work was further scrutinised by senior officers of in the language centre before final product was hand back to researcher. Face to face discussion was conducted between researcher and the person doing the translation for detail explanation. Details of the process of achieving linguistic validity were explained in Section 3.7.1

3.10.2 Content Validity

Content validity is defined as “the degree to which items on an instrument reflect the content universe to which the instrument will be generalised” (Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004) In general, content validity is the process of evaluating a new survey instrument to verify that it contains all of the necessary items while excluding those that are unimportant to a certain construct domain (Boudreau, Gefen, & Straub, 2001). The judgmental technique to determining content validity is doing literature reviews and then having professional judges or panels evaluate the results. In order to promote validation, the judgmental approach to content validity requires researchers to be present with experts. Definition of validity used throughout this research as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Validity

Face Validity	The extent that measurement instrument items linguistically and analytically look like what is supposed to be measured
Content Validity	The extent that measurement instrument items are relevant and representative of the target construct
Construct Discriminant validity	the extent that measures of different constructs diverge or minimally correlate with one another
Construct Convergent validity	The extent that different measures of the same construct converge or strongly correlate with one another

Reliability Internal consistency	the extent to which a measurement of a phenomenon provides stable and consist result
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In this research content validity was checked after the constructs had been precisely defined, the relevant items had been sorted, and the instrument had been constructed (Almanasreh, Moles, and Chen (2019). According to Yusoff (2019), content validation can be conducted through face-to-face or non-face-to-face approaches based on considerations of cost, time, and response rate. This research adopted face-to-face validation by engaging six expert panel members. Face to face validation enable the researcher to discuss expensively with expert panel in instrument development. Face to face validation also will ensure higher response rate from selected expert panel. The selection of individuals for the expert panel, which was tasked to review and critique an instrument (e.g., questionnaire), was done based on the person's expertise in the subject area under study. This is to ensure expert panel can advise the instrument development relevant to the intended research. There is no specific number for an expert panel; previous researchers' recommendations vary, ranging from two experts (Davis, 1992), three to five experts (Polit & Beck, 2006), or six to eight experts (Lynn, 1986).

The instrument of this study was evaluated by six experts, consisting of four qualified academicians and two senior-ranked military officers. The academicians comprised one Professor and two PhD-holder lecturers from the Malaysia National Defence University (UPNM) and one PhD-holder from the University of Malaya. The two senior military officers are also qualified academicians and practitioners in military management. Opinion from military expert panel is crucial to validate the instrument relevant in military context.

All the experts were given questionnaire validation forms (see Appendix E). Expert panel comment and recommendation on the instrument are as follows: There is no change in attitude instrument from the original. All 10 instruments were adopted. As for subjective norms, several words in the original measurement were suggested to be changed to reflect the context of the study in the Malaysian military setting. The word

Table 3.6: Expert Panel Summary

Attitude	Subjective Norms	Self-Efficacy	Intention
EXPERT PANEL 1			
Keep the original, it is design in military context	Q4 are not relevant. Don't need infrastructure to join military	Q7 are not relevant. Omit	Keep the original
EXPERT PANEL 2			
Maintain the original	Q4 are not relevant in military context	Q7 is not relevant	Maintain the original
EXPERT PANEL 3			
No issues, Original are design in military context to study intention to enlist in military. Adopt all	Q4 not relevant in the study context	Q7 not relevant in the study context. Drop the question, redundancy with Q6	No issues
EXPERT PANEL 4			
Agreed, Adopt all the original	Q4 not in context of study and not relevant	Q7 not in context of study and not relevant	Adopt all the original. Design is the same in context of military enlistment
EXPERT PANEL 5			
Keep the original. In context of the research	Q4 not suitable. Suggest excluding the Q4	Q7 not relevant. Suggest excluding the Q7	Adopt all the original
EXPERT PANEL 6			
Maintain the original	Exclude Q4. Not relevant	Exclude Q7. Not relevant	Maintain the original

“entrepreneur” is changed to “military personnel”, “entrepreneurship” changed to “military”, “university” changed to “community” and, “students” changed to “military”

Some changes were also made to self-efficacy instrument. The words “academy” change to “military” and “studies” change to “training”. Intention instrument was adopted without any changes. The most important comment which all experts panel agreed upon was to exclude two questions from the original measurement, one from self-efficacy and one from subjective norms. Two questions were dropped from the original instrument as deem irrelevant to the context of the research and should be excluded. Question from self-efficacy, “I, after completing the military academy will receive a service report above average” and question from subjective norms “There is a well-functioning support infrastructure in my university to support the start-up of new firms”. Summary of the expert panel’s comments summary as shown in Table 3.6

3.11 Scale

Likert scale is acknowledged as one of the most important and frequently used psychometric tools in educational and social sciences research. The Likert scale was introduced by Rensis Likert in 1932 as a 5-point psychometric scale to measure a series of attitude-related statements (Likert, 1932), with initial phrases that included “Strongly Approve”, “Approve”, “Undecided”, “Disapprove”, and “Strongly Disapprove.”

According to Chyung, Roberts, Swanson, and Hankinson (2017), the terminology later shifted from “Approve” to “Agree”, producing the Likert scale known today. The Likert scale has been used in countless social science studies, including in the study of intention in the military context (Alarcon, Lyons, & Tartaglia, 2010; Cistulli, Jacobs, & Snyder, 2015; Harrington, Bean, Pintello, & Mathews, 2001; Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016). Instruction is included in each section on how to select the Linkert scale in this research as follows: “For each statement below, please circle the number that indicates

your agreement or disagreement about how your attitude / subjective norms / self-efficacy relate to intention to enlist in the military. The scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neutral), 4 (Agree) and 5 (Strongly Agree)”.

All original measurements adapted in this research used the 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree) except self-efficacy which use 7 point Likert scale (Buch et al., 2015). This research adopt 5-point Linkert scale for all the measurement as study conducted by Dawes (2007) shows that the three different scales (5-point, 7-point, and 10 -point) used in research, bears no significance differences exist among the three scale formats in terms of standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. Finding also shows that a scale with a higher number of response options generates slightly lower values relative to its upper limit.

The Likert scale extracts attitudinal responses from respondents, which are turned into data for analysis. Using a 5-point Likert scale offers respondents the choice of three basic options: disagree, agree, or neutral. This means respondents can give a neutral answer between “agree” and “disagree” (Chua, 2016). The limited choices in a scale will persuade respondents to answer more accurately. As such, the data collected would be more reliable and accurate to analyse the intention of non-Bumiputra’ to enlist in the MA.

3.12 Measurement of Variables

Predicting intention is a well-researched field in social sciences with consistent findings. This enabled the researcher to adopt the most reliable measurements of the variables available in the context of this research. However, as described in Section 3.7, some modifications were done to suit this research. The measurement of each variable is described below.

3.12.1 Demography

There were eight questions in the demography section. The questions were designed to have a better understanding of the respondents, which is relevant to the context of this research. Notably, two filter questions were included in the demographic section (status and age). The status question (i.e., Bumiputra / Non Bumiputra) was a filter to ensure that the respondent was a non-Bumiputra, which was the subject of this research. The question on age also served as filter to make sure that the respondent was within the eligible age to enlist in the MA, i.e., between 19 and 24 years old. The correct age of respondents in this applied research was important so that the practical contributions can be applied to the same age group in promoting their military enlistment. One attention checker question was included in demography section, “The colour of sky is...”. The demographic items are shown in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7: Demography

No	Items	Response
1	Status (filter)	1= Bumiputera 2= non-Bumiputera
2	Sex	1= Male 2= Female
3	Marital Status	1= Single 2= Married 3= Divorced 4= Widow
4	Age (filter)	1= Below 19 years 2= 19 years to 24 years 3= 24 above
5	Academic Qualification	1= SPM 2= STPM 3= Diploma 4= Others
6	Religion	1= Islam 2= Buddhist 3= Hindus 4= Christian 5= Others
7	Living Status	1= With Family 2= Independent
8	State	1= Perlis 2= Kedah 3= Kelantan 4= Terengganu 5= P. Pinang 6= Perak 7= Pahang 8= Selangor 9- Kuala Lumpur 10= N. Sembilan 11= Johor 12= Sabah 13= Sarawak 14= Melaka
9	Attention checker	1= Green 2= Blue

3.12.2 Attitude

The operational definition of attitude in this research was individuals' belief of the positive outcomes from the intention to join the military. This research sought to explore attitude from a positive viewpoint, such that the belief in positive outcomes lead to the intention to join the military.

The measurement for attitude was adopted from Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016), who granted the approval (refer to Appendix G). All expert panels agreed that no changes were needed for the questions as the original measurement was designed in the military context and suited this applied research. All 10 questions from the original scale were adopted for this research, as shown in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3.8: Items for Attitude

No	Items	Source
1	I believe that military service is the right job to serve my nation in a meaningful way	(Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016) 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree
2	I feel that working in the military is adventurous, daring and makes me proud.	
3	I will earn immortal pride to my family if I join the military services.	
4	I feel that serving the military is brave and courageous.	
5	Performing adventurous activities during military services will earn more respect for me from others.	
6	I feel that enlisting in military service will be beneficial as it will help me to earn more incentives with good pay to live comfortably.	
7	Military job provides liberal fringe benefits (e.g., health care, retirement benefits, etc).	
8	Working in the military gives educational and social benefits and resettlement employment opportunities.	
9	I feel that a military job is more secured when compared with other civilian jobs (job permanent).	
10	I feel that military service offers the opportunity to practice many sports.	

3.12.3 Subjective Norms

The operational definition of subjective norms in this research was the perception of social pressure created by surrounding elements which influence the individual to intend or not to intend to join the military. This research explored subjective norms from the context of social pressure created by the surrounding elements leads to the intention to join the military.

The measurement for subjective norms was adopted from Fenech et al. (2019). There are five questions in the original measurement but only four were adopted. Question 4 from the original measurement “There is a well-functioning support infrastructure in.....” was dropped as it was not relevant in the current context, as suggested by all the experts. The final items for subjective norms are shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Items for Subjective Norms

No	Items	Source
1	My parents are positively oriented towards my future career as military personnel	(Fenech et al., 2019) 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree
2	My friends see military as a logical choice for me	
3	I believe that people who are important to me think that I should pursue a career as a military recruit.	
4	In my community, individuals are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas.	

3.12.4 Self-efficacy

The operational definition of self-efficacy in this research is the belief of a person that he/she has the ability and skill to succeed in the intended behaviour. This research viewed self-efficacy as the perceived ability one’s has to overcome the challenges in military enlistment which leads to the intention to join the military.

The measurement for self-efficacy was adopted from Buch et al. (2015), who designed their scale in the military context in line with this applied research. There were seven questions from the original measurement but only six were adopted. Question 7 from the original measurement “.... after completing the military academy, I will receive a service report.....” was not relevant and was dropped as suggested by the expert panel. The final items for self-efficacy are shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Items for Self-efficacy

No	Items	Source
1	I am a person who can handle being military personnel	(Buch et al., 2015) 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree
2	I am able to mobilise the energy needed to work hard with my training	
3	I am able to handle dark moments in the military life	
4	I will manage to complete my military training	
5	I will achieve a result I can be proud of	
6	After completing military training, I will achieve results above average among my peers	

3.12.5 Intention

For the purpose of this study, the operational definition of intention was the intention to enlist in the MA. Intention to join the military was considered to be a function of two main factors, attitude and subjective norms.

The measurement for intention was adopted from Schreurs et al. (2009), as it was designed in the military context and relevant to this applied research. All three questions from the original measurement were accepted as suggested by the expert panel. The items for intention are shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Items for Intention

No	Items	Source
1	I am interested in a military career	(Schreurs et al., 2009) 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree
2	I am looking forward for selection day at the recruitment centre	
3	I intend to attend the next selection day at the recruitment centre	

3.13 Data Coding

Data coding in research is the process of driving codes from the collected data. The main reason researcher conduct data coding is to reveal the core and meaning of the data that respondents have provided. Data coding targets to discover the fundamental meaning of the data given by respondents. It is a method to convert data into manageable form for data analysis. All the items in this study were keyed into a codebook file using Microsoft Excel. The details are shown in Table 3.12.

3.14 Pilot Study

A pilot study is a small-scaled version of the research performed with a set of targeted respondents to scrutinise problems in the questionnaire's design or associated instructions (Zikmund et al., 2003). In order to ensure an adequate number of answered questionnaires for the pilot testing, a sample of 30 respondents is usually favoured according to Browne (1995). Due to the big population of the study, a pilot study of 44 respondents was conducted by the researcher. Cavana et al. (2001) state that a questionnaire should be pilot tested with an adequate sample of respondents drawn from the target population or who at the very least, are highly similar to the target population. Therefore, respondents matching the population of study were randomly selected for the pilot study. Though the research intended to use the online Google Forms for the data collection process, for the

pilot study, the researcher personally administered the questionnaires to the respondents.

This approach enabled the researcher to observe respondents answering the questions.

Table 3.12: Coding

Name	Variable	Coding Instruction	Measurement scale
ID	Identification Number	Number assigned to each survey	Scale
Status	Status (filter)	1= Bumiputera 2= non-Bumiputera	Nominal
Sex	Sex	1= Male 2= Female	Nominal
Marital	Marital Status	1= Single 2= Married 3= Divorced 4= Widow	Nominal
Age	Age (filter)	1= Below 19 years 2= 19 years to 24 years 3= 24 above	Nominal
Academic	Academic Qualification	1= SPM 2= STPM 3= Diploma 4= Others	Nominal
Religion	Religion	1= Islam 2= Buddhist 3= Hindus 4= Christian 5= Others	Nominal
Living Status	Living Status	1= With Family 2= Independent	Nominal
State	State	1= Perlis 2= Kedah 3= Kelantan 4= Terengganu 5= P. Pinang 6= Perak 7= Pahang 8= Selangor 9= Kuala Lumpur 10= N. Sembilan 11= Johor 12= Sabah 13= Sarawak 14= Melaka	Nominal
ATT	Attitude	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree	Ordinal
SE	Self-efficacy	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree	Ordinal
SN	Subjective Norms	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree	Ordinal
INT	Intention	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree	Ordinal

Based on the pilot study, observation from researcher as follows: Respondents took five to nine minutes to answer the questions. Layout of the questionnaire was easy to read and understand. Instruction on the questionnaire was clear, well understood and respondent show no difficulties in performing the instruction. Researcher did ask for any improvement recommended by respondent to improve the questionnaires in layout or wording and respond received the questionnaire are fine. Overall finding from pilot study

shows that respondent was able to understand the instructions and questions relatively easily and raised no issue during the pilot study. It was observed that the filter questions to determine eligible respondents were extremely important as it was difficult to determine respondents' status and age by their physical appearance. Based on the filter questions, four responses were eliminated as they were answered by non-population samples in the pilot study.

Each scale's reliability was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. As per Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the reliability assessment represents the correlation between the items in a scale. A construct is deemed reliable if its Cronbach's Alpha value is 0.7 or higher (Pallant, 2013). For the pilot test of this applied research, the Cronbach's Alpha value for each construct is shown in Table 3.11. The researcher noted the low score of subjective norms; however, this may have been due to the small sample in the pilot study.

Table 3.13: Cronbach's Alpha from Pilot Test

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Attitude	.728	10
Self-efficacy	.878	6
Subjective Norms	.449	4
Intention	.885	3

3.15 Data Collection Process

Data in this research was collected via an online survey (Google Form), for which the link was sent to all MA Brigade Headquarters in each state. The Staff Officer Grade 3 (Admin) at the various Brigade HQs then disseminated the link via official and unofficial mediums of communication to reach the general population in each state. The researcher

had no control over the dissemination; therefore, filter questions were inserted to ensure only the intended respondents' data was analysed.

This research adopted the online survey method due to several reasons, namely the large sample size, the fair distribution of the survey, time constraints, and cost-effectiveness. Most importantly, it was difficult to secure cooperation from the population for a face-to-face survey due to fear of close proximity amid the Covid-19 pandemic. Movement restriction orders further imposed less accessibility to the population, which made it difficult to encounter and engage with respondents. Furthermore, the researcher will be exposed to the pandemic and bounded by the restrictions of being in public places. Thus, the online survey was the most practical solution. The summary of data collection details is presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.14: Summary of Sample

Population size	1389800
Language translation participants	5
Pilot test participants	44
Useful pilot test response	40
Required sample size	384
Achievable sample size	426
Incomplete responses	0
Rejected responses	42
Number of usable responses	384

3.16 Statistical Techniques and Tools

Relevant software and techniques were chosen in this applied research for data analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 24 (SPSS 24) and SmartPLS (Version 3) were used for data analysis. SPSS 24 was used to prepare the data for analysis by coding all the answers given by the respondents and keying them into the SPSS software. After data entry was completed, SPSS 24 was used to check and treat missing

values and ensure the normality of data. SPSS was also used to calculate descriptive statistics for demographic data and perform common method variance analysis.

To assess the interrelationships among the independent, dependent, and moderating variables, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was used via SmartPLS (Version 3). Using PLS-SEM, the study aimed to measure the direct effects of attitude and subjective norms on intention as well as the moderating effect of self-efficacy on these relationships. The PLS-SEM method is appealing as it enables the estimation of complex models with numerous constructs, items, and structural paths without necessitating the fulfilment of distributional assumptions. According to Hair et al. (2010), PLS-SEM is a causal-predictive method to SEM that focuses on prediction in designing statistical models to generate causal explanations.

3.17 Summary

This chapter outlined the research methodology adopted in this research in detail. It began by explaining how the research was framed in relation to the context of the study. Several justifications were presented along the way to support the design, method, and process used in this research. A reliable research philosophy, techniques, and methodology increase the possibility of addressing and solving research problems appropriately. This chapter discussed why the study adopted the positivism research philosophy and the quantitative research methodology. Most importantly this chapter explain in detail justification selection of respondent criteria in this research. Origins of the measurements and their validations were discussed, along with the results of the pilot study. Final measurement adopted after validity test were presented. Reliability testing of the pilot study data yielded commendable results, which allowed actual data collection to be carried out accordingly. The population and sampling frame were identified in

compliance with accepted research conventions. This chapter ended with the selection of appropriate statistical techniques and software for data analyses.

Universiti Malaya

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the findings of the data analysis. The chapter begins with analysing the questionnaire survey and discussion on the result in detail. SPSS version 25 and Smart PLS 3.0 was utilised to conduct the analysis. Data handling begins with data preparation, verifying, cleaning, normality test and Common Method Variance analysis, to ensure reliability of the data. Descriptive analyses were conducted followed by evaluating measurement model. The results of the analysis are based on the statistical analysis on demographic profile, outlier, normality test, and descriptive analysis. Internal consistency, convergent validity was analysed followed by discriminant validity. In the later section of this chapter describe analysis for structure model in detail with result for all the analysis. It highlights the results of the SmartPLS for measurement model and structural equation. In addition, results relating to moderating variable are also discussed.

4.2 Data Examination and Verification

Data examination and verification are important to ensure data analysis are reliable, and useable. According to Hair, Anderson, et al. (2010), data examination and verification is a process done systematically which consist of (1) cleaning/missing data, (2) inconsistent answers, (3) outliers, and (4) data distribution.

4.2.1 Cleaning / Missing Data

One of the most essential responsibilities in data cleansing is the processing of missing values. Many approaches have been developed to deal with openly missing values or to conduct analysis and data mining on noisy data sets that contain explicitly missing data.

Surprisingly, some missing values may not be clearly displayed as such in many programmes, but instead appear as possibly legitimate data values (Hua & Pei, 2007).

Data gathered must be scrutinised for any missing or flawed data. This process is important as it will ensure data analysed for this researched is correct and relevant to the intended study. Based on initial analysis, there is no missing data. This research uses online survey (google form) which enable the researcher to include particular command to google form survey which mandatorily required a question must be answered before access was granted to answer the next question. Therefore, all questions were answered by respondents and no missing data.

Once researcher disseminate the link to the survey for public distribution, researcher has no control to whom the link might be access. Therefore, to ensure the survey answered by intended sample (non-Bumiputra with age between 19 to 24 years old), two filter questions were included in the survey as Table 4.1 Total of 42 responses were rejected which comprise of 15 responses were answered by Bumiputra and 27 responses were in the wrong age categories (15 respondent under 19 years old, and 12 respondents over 24 years old).

Table 4.1: Filter Questions

Section	Question Number	Questions	Response
A	1	Ethnic	Bumiputera Non-Bumiputera
A	4	Age	Below 19 years old 19 to 24 Years old 24 years old and above

4.2.2 Outliers

Although definitions differ, an outlier is a data point that deviates significantly from the norm for a variable or population. Values that are "dubious in the view of the

researcher" are likewise considered outliers. According to (Hawkins, 1980) outlier as an observation that deviates so much from other observations as to arouse suspicions that it was generated by a different mechanism. According to Hair et al. (2010), an outlier is an extreme observation or response with values that are distinctly different from the majority in the data set. The presence of outliers in any given data set invariably distorts the assessments of regression coefficients and can lead to misleading outcomes (Verardi & Croux, 2009).

In general, an outlier can be defined as a data value that is numerically distant from a defined set of data (Hair et al., 2010). These are type of data that "fall outside" the desired data points. Essentially, outliers can be the largest values in the data set or the smallest value in the data set (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002). Moreover, because outliers are numerical data, which are distant from the existing data set, they can affect the measurements of set and spread. This means that the distortion of the outlier in a set of data can be significance in affecting the final result of any study. Therefore, it is practical for researchers to examine the set of data to detect the presence of any outliers before proceeding with further assessments and analysis. This is consistent with Sreevidya (2014) that the mean of a set of data can be skewed by the presence of an outlier. There are various reasons, which are often cited as the cause of outlier in a data set such as sampling errors, mis-reporting, and incorrect entry of data among others. There are reliable methods, which have been designed to aid in the detection and elimination of outliers in a set of data and in this study, univariate and multivariate outlier testing was performed.

Univariate outliers testing use Z score method as it is considered among the most common approach used to detect outliers. Shiffler (1988) undertook a study to examine the maximum threshold, which z score can detect. The latter established that a z score

cannot exceed 3.29 (positive or negative) while using a decision criterion of 5%. Thus, this threshold will be used to detect for outliers in this study. From the table 4.2 below the z score values of the minimum (-2.72) and maximum (1.70) can be observed to be within the acceptable threshold hence no outliers have been detected. Summary for univariate outliers testing result as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Univariate Outliers

Items	Minimum	Maximum
Zscore(ATT1)	-1.460	1.507
Zscore(ATT2)	-1.764	1.103
Zscore(ATT3)	-1.358	1.476
Zscore(ATT4)	-1.624	1.058
Zscore(ATT5)	-1.394	1.446
Zscore(ATT6)	-1.697	1.058
Zscore(ATT7)	-1.945	1.481
Zscore(ATT8)	-1.387	1.213
Zscore(ATT9)	-1.906	1.579
Zscore(ATT10)	-1.658	1.293
Zscore(SE1)	-2.815	1.062
Zscore(SE2)	-2.703	0.907
Zscore(SE3)	-2.969	1.203
Zscore(SE4)	-2.536	0.899
Zscore(SE5)	-1.979	1.368
Zscore(SE6)	-2.717	1.043
Zscore(SN1)	-1.413	1.253
Zscore(SN2)	-1.543	1.776
Zscore(SN3)	-1.422	1.298
Zscore(SN4)	-2.082	1.391
Zscore(INT1)	-1.94449	.84685
Zscore(INT2)	-2.46755	1.16635

Zscore(INT3)	-2.03396	.75796
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Table 4.3: Summary Univariate Outliers Result

Variables	Z-Score	
	Lowest	Highest
Attitude (ATT)	-1.630	1.218
Self-efficacy (SE)	-3.162	1.397
Subjective Norms (SN)	-1.595	1.609
Intention (INT)	-2.007	0.970

Some univariate outliers may also become multivariate outliers when they are combined (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, this study treats outliers by testing both univariate and multi variate. Treating multivariate outliers in a data set also takes care of univariate outliers. However, treating univariate outliers alone might not necessarily handle multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 2010). It is recommended to do both analysis to detect and treat outliers. As for multivariate outliers testing, following the suggestions of some scholars (Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), the present study employed Mahalanobis D2 to identify and deal with multivariate outliers.

This study identified multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis Distance (D2) by running linear regressions in SPSS version 22. The Mahalanobis D2 output is presented as a chi-squared variable, with a degree of freedom (df) equivalent to the number of independent variables. Threshold value of χ^2 with a probability of $p < 0.001$ is used to identify an outlier (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The higher D2 value indicates that a case

is beyond the general distribution of the observations (Hair et al., 2014). In this analysis the result show that no outliers are detected in all case. The lowest score is 0.00180 for case number 277 and still within the acceptable threshold and therefore no deletion are required.

4.2.3 Normality Test

Researchers are typically much interested in the questions of normality, does the data deviate from normal distribution? However, in today research data normality are not much an issue as available software are able to analyse not normal distribution data. Ideally, normality tests are performed to detect if the data has a normal distribution (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Typically, there are two approaches, which are commonly employed to check if data has been sampled from a normal distribution. The first approach is analysis of graphs such as frequency distribution while the second approach involves the use of normality tests. Normality tests consist of multiple methods such as Shapiro-wilk, Kolmogorov–Smirnov, skewness and kurtosis techniques (Čisar & Čisar, 2010; Öztuna, Elhan, & Tüccar, 2006). These statistical tests commonly used to examine the normality of data in a sample. For the purpose of this research, the skewness and kurtosis approach will be used to test if the data was sampled from a normal distribution (Čisar & Čisar, 2010). Skewness examines the nature of symmetry in a data. The symmetry can be positive or negative. A positive means that data is tailed to the right while a negative skew means the data is tailed to the left. In retrospect, kurtosis describes how sharp or flat the “pick” is in a set of distributed data. There are numerous ranges, which have been computed to aid in determining the acceptable value-range of skewness and kurtosis when conducting normality test. Byrne (2013) and Hair, F, et al. (2010) argued that data is considered to be normal if Skewness is between -2 and +2 and Kurtosis is between -7 and +7. Therefore, from the Table 4.4 below it can be noted that the range of skewness is between -1.198 to 0.125 and kurtosis -1.611 to 0.248. Thus, implying that the data is

normally distributed as per the proposal of Hair et al. (2010). However, PLS-SEM method does not demand data to have a normal distribution since it used the bootstrapping method, but this normality test was adopted to strengthen the credibility of the data. Summary for normality result as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.4: Normality Result

Items	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		stats	SE	stats	SE
ATT1	384	-0.271	0.125	-1.267	0.248
ATT2	384	-0.293	0.125	-1.352	0.248
ATT3	384	-0.311	0.125	-1.454	0.248
ATT4	384	-0.273	0.125	-1.502	0.248
ATT5	384	-0.364	0.125	-1.404	0.248
ATT6	384	-0.174	0.125	-1.611	0.248
ATT7	384	-0.392	0.125	-0.915	0.248
ATT8	384	-0.332	0.125	-1.469	0.248
ATT9	384	-0.237	0.125	-0.937	0.248
ATT10	384	-0.020	0.125	-1.312	0.248
SE1	384	-1.198	0.125	1.343	0.248
SE2	384	-1.044	0.125	0.384	0.248
SE3	384	-1.083	0.125	1.398	0.248
SE4	384	-1.026	0.125	0.218	0.248
SE5	384	-0.383	0.125	-0.790	0.248
SE6	384	-0.984	0.125	0.591	0.248
SN1	384	-0.252	0.125	-1.435	0.248
SN2	384	0.183	0.125	-0.744	0.248
SN3	384	-0.272	0.125	-1.383	0.248
SN4	384	-0.317	0.125	-0.857	0.248
INT1	384	-1.033	0.125	-0.348	0.248
INT2	384	-0.931	0.125	-0.041	0.248
INT3	384	-1.069	0.125	-0.361	0.248

Table 4.5: Summary Normality Result

Construct	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
ATT	384	1.20	4.70	3.2034	1.22837	-0.376	0.125
SN	384	1.25	5.00	3.1172	1.17035	-0.277	0.125
SE	384	1.17	5.00	3.8255	0.84079	-1.672	0.125
INT	384	1.33	5.00	3.8056	1.23146	-1.275	0.125

4.3 Common Method Variance (CMV).

CMV is defined as the “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest” (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991), “systematic error variance shared among variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and/or source” Richardson, Simmering, and Sturman (2009).

One of the key concerns of researcher is common method variance which effect the data collected. CMV will implicate researcher’s conclusions severely since the conclusions regarding the model’s relationships may be erroneous. CMV affect data gathered in research and this effected data will not reflect the true representative of the studied phenomena and will diminish the accuracy of the finding. Studies has been conducted by several researchers and findings show that CMV occurrence varies substantially by discipline and by the type of variable being examined. (Cote & Buckley, 1987; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), CMV is a common issue that researchers must control through any possible means. This applied research address CMV by adopting experiment design method and analysis method.

4.3.1 Experiment Design

If experiment design technique is used before to the experiment, i.e. during the design of the experiment, a variety of approaches are available to the researcher that can lessen the possibility and size of such deviations. However, some strategies are simple to apply while others may provide significance benefits but slightly complicated which required more time and resources. This research adopt strategy which are simple and applicable in this research context in when using experiment design technique.

Firstly, this research uses independent and dependent measures from separate source. This method can remove many causes of bias. Attitude (Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016), self-efficacy measure (Buch et al., 2015), subjective norms (Fenech et al., 2019) and intention (Schreurs et al., 2009). Second, anonymity of respondent are guarantee in research as no personal information which can be used to identified respondent are collected. Respondent are anonymous which to ensure respond are more align to research intent. Third, instruction stating that there is no “right or wrong answer” was include in the questionnaire to reduce respondent apprehension over their respond. This will prevent respondent overthinking the respond of a question and not answering the first thing that came to the mind. Assurance of no “right or wrong answer” will also reduce the chance of respondent to edit their answers to give what they perceive as the best answers. Fourth, researcher adopt common measurement scale that eliminate ambiguity for respondent understanding the survey. Furthermore, the measurement is well established and consistency in providing reliable data as shown from previous study. There is no reverse scale in the question to ease respondent thinking in giving respond to a question. Fifth, there is no double-barrelled question. All question is simple, short and straight to the point. Sixth, respondent group are selected with the same criteria of the intended research which age between 19 to 24 years old. This group of respondents presumably have the sufficient knowledge to address each measure and allow them to draw inferences to fill gaps when needed. Seventh, this survey instrument has undergo pre-tested (to supports the instrument’s content validity) during pilot study and tested by practitioner from military and academician to validate the instrument’s readability, clarity, length and its appropriateness for the sample frame. Lastly, As this research use online survey method, it help in preventing researcher having influence on respondent to answer or dictating respondent to participate. Online survey give leverage to respondent own will to choose to participate or not. Advantage of online survey also provide respondent the flexibility

of time and place to answer the survey at time and place convenient to respondent. Study show time constrain and inappropriate time or place for respondent answering a survey has contribute to increase of common method variance.

4.3.2 Analytical Technique

The goal of testing for common method variance is to determine to what degree any such biases exist. Analytical techniques estimate the degree to which the data may be influenced by biases caused by the survey method or tool. The present of CMV can be tested using several analytical techniques such as Harman Single Factor, Common Latent Factor and Common Marker Variable. This research use Harman Single Factor analytical technique due to the simplicity of the method. This test is based on the pretext that, if a single factor accounts for more than half of the covariance among the items, then it means that a greater amount of bias is present. According to Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, and Eden (2010), a post hoc Harman's single-factor test is commonly employed to detect if variance in the data is largely contributed by a single factor. According Fuller, Simmering, Atinc, Atinc, and Babin (2016), CMV may inflate correlations with CMV of exceed 40%. However, according to Eichhorn (2014) the CMV technique indicates that there was no significance CMV in the data as the calculated variance was below 50%. This research adopts 50% thresholds for result of presence of CMV. Result for Harman Single Factor as shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Harman's Single Factor Result

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.833	47.101	47.101	10.833	47.101	47.101
2	3.488	15.164	62.264			
3	2.667	11.597	73.861			
4	.840	3.651	77.513			
5	.676	2.939	80.452			
6	.470	2.045	82.497			
7	.397	1.727	84.224			
8	.394	1.711	85.936			
9	.383	1.665	87.601			
10	.326	1.417	89.018			
11	.300	1.305	90.323			
12	.282	1.227	91.550			
13	.254	1.106	92.656			
14	.252	1.097	93.753			
15	.229	.995	94.748			
16	.199	.867	95.615			
17	.172	.746	96.361			
18	.168	.729	97.090			
19	.164	.713	97.803			
20	.155	.674	98.477			
21	.134	.584	99.061			
22	.126	.548	99.609			
23	.090	.391	100.000			

*Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.4 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistic is a comprehensive step by steps during the initial analysis of data. Descriptive analysis is important as it set the foundation for further analysis of data and also provide statistical analysis that can be used to justify, link and explain the finding of the research. Most importantly, descriptive analysis ensures the data gathered are the relevant data according to the research design.

4.4.1 Demographic

Researchers collect demographic data to describe the persons or organisations in their study on a regular basis. For quantitative investigations, these data are presented in table format, with frequencies. The demographic data is a crucial aspect of the research and should be thoroughly analysed. Demography is a field of study in which researchers examine the quantifiable statistics of a particular population (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). Statistics are used to identify subsets of the populations and characterize them at a specific point in time. Common demographics are age, sex, ethnicity, level of education, disabilities, employment, and socio-economic status.

In this research, the profile of the participants was examined which include status, gender, marital status, age, academic and living place. The table 4.7 below outlines the result of the analysis based on the profile information of the participants. All the participants 384 (100%) had a “non-Bumiputera” status. Moreover, the 205 (53.4%) of the sampled participants were men while the rest 179 (46.6%) were women. In reference to marital status, the data shows that a majority of the participants are single accounting for 303 (78.9%) while 59 (15.4%), 22 (5.7%), of the participants are married, divorced/widowed respectively. The age of the participants is between 19 to 24 years old (100%) as intended in the sampling. The academic background of the participants was examined by the researchers. The results indicate that 259 (67.4%) of the participants have SPM level of education while 35 (9.1%) have STPM level of education. Additionally, 11 (2.9%) of the sampled respondents have diplomas while 79 (20.6%) were noted to have other level of education. In respect to religion, it was noted 16 (4.2%) of the participants were Muslims, they were Muslim convert while 117 (30.5%) of the sampled respondents were identify a Buddhists. In addition, Hindus and Christians accounted for 124 (32.3%) and 127 (33.1%) of the sampled respondents. In regard to living spaces majority of the participants indicated that they lived with family,

representing 304 (88.5%) while 44 (11.5) stated that they reside alone. The geographical representation by state was assessed by the researcher as a means to examine where each participant originated. The result in the table below indicates that 12 (3.1%), 5 (1.6%), 25 (6.5), 29 (7.6%), 44 (12.2%), and 26 (6.8%) of the participants come from Perlis, Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu, Pulau Pinang, and Perak states. Similarly, 32 (8.3%), 40 (10.2%), 47 (12.2%), 55 (13.4%), 33 (8.6%), 9 (2.3%), 8 (2.1%), and 15 (3.9%) of the participants come from Pahang, Selangor, Kuala Lumpur, Negeri Sembilan, Johor, Melaka, Sabah, and Sarawak, states respectively.

Table 4.7: Demographic

Demography Profile	Frequency	Percentage
Status (Filter)		
Non Bumiputera	384	100.0
Gender		
Male	205	53.4
Female	179	46.6
Marital Status		
Single	303	78.9
Married	59	15.4
Divorced / Widow	22	5.7
Age (Filter)		
19 to 24 Years	384	100
Academic		
SPM	259	67.4
STPM	35	9.1
Diploma	11	2.9
Others	79	20.6
Religion		
Islam	16	4.2
Buddhist	117	30.5
Hindus	124	32.3
Christian	127	33.1
Living Space		
With Family	304	88.5
Independent	44	11.5
State		
Perlis	12	3.1
Kedah	5	1.6
Kelantan	25	6.5
Terengganu	29	7.6
Pulau Pinang	47	12.2

Perak	26	6.8
Pahang	32	8.3
Selangor	40	10.4
Kuala Lumpur	47	12.2
Negeri Sembilan	55	14.3
Johor	33	8.6
Melaka	9	2.3
Sabah	8	2.1
Sarawak	15	3.9

4.4.2 Instrument

Quantitative data are synonyms to be analyse with statistical application for easy analysis and accuracy. This research used statistical tool IBM SPSS version 24 downloaded from Universiti Malaya to calculate the mean, standard deviation, variance, minimum and maximum value for each construct. Number of respondents in this research was code using generic code N, and the total is 384. Calculation of the mean use basic statistical rule (dividing the sum of individual observation with the number of observation), high mean indicates strong influence and low mean indicate weak influence. Dispersion of data is code as SD which indicate bigger SD value means, the looser data dispersion around the mean and smaller SD value means, the closer data dispersion around the mean (Uma & Roger, 2016). Standard Deviation as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Descriptive Instrument

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
ATT1	384	1	5	2.97	1.39
ATT2	384	1	5	3.46	1.40
ATT3	384	1	5	2.92	1.41
ATT4	384	1	5	3.42	1.50
ATT5	384	1	5	2.96	1.40
ATT6	384	1	5	3.46	1.45
ATT7	384	1	5	3.27	1.17
ATT8	384	1	5	3.13	1.53
ATT9	384	1	5	3.19	1.15
ATT10	384	1	5	3.25	1.36
SE1	384	1	5	3.90	1.03
SE2	384	1	5	3.99	1.11

SE3	384	1	5	3.85	0.96
SE4	384	1	5	3.95	1.16
SE5	384	1	5	3.36	1.20
SE6	384	1	5	3.89	1.06
SN1	384	1	5	3.12	1.50
SN2	384	1	5	2.86	1.20
SN3	384	1	5	3.09	1.47
SN4	384	1	5	3.40	1.15
INT1	384	1	5	3.79	1.43
INT2	384	1	5	3.72	1.10
INT3	384	1	5	3.91	1.43

4.5 Evaluating Measurement and Structural Model

PLS-SEM or partial least squares path modeling is a structural equation based on variance (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). The PLS-SEM is based on regression analysis, which seeks to examine the liner relationship that exists in various explanatory variables and multiple or single dependent variable(s) (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams, & Hair 2014). The initial step is to examine the outer loading or the measurement model. Ideally, the outer model details the “rules of correspondence” that exist between latent and measured variables (Hair et al., 2010) Furthermore, the assessment of measurement model enables researchers to utilize any type of variable numbers for singular dependent or independent constructs. Ramayah, Lee, and In (2011) points out that reliability and validity are the two primary methods used to assess outer loading or measurement model in the analysis of PLS. Sekaran and Bougie (2016), states that validity examines the accuracy of an instrument in measuring a given concept it is supposed to measure while reliability ascertains the consistency and stability of the instruments used for measuring. This means that construct validity, reliability, and internal consistency are used when assessing measurement model. To facilitate the assessment discriminant validity, convergence validity and reliability of the instruments for this research will be evaluated to facilitate assessment of measurement model (Hamed Taherdoost, 2016). After the outer model have been assessed the second step is to assess the structural model. In essence,

the structural model assessment is conducted to demonstrate that one or more dependence relationships relate to the hypothesized model's construct. To facilitate the assessment of structural model, Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, and Ringle (2019) recommended a five-step approach that involves assessment of predictive relevance, R square, F square, VIF, and path coefficient.

4.6 Measurement Model

There are three main assessment criteria for reflective measurement model (1) Internal Consistency (2) Convergent Validity (3) Discriminant Validity. Each assessment criteria are conducted separately and result determine the consistency and validity of the measurement model. (Figure 4,1)

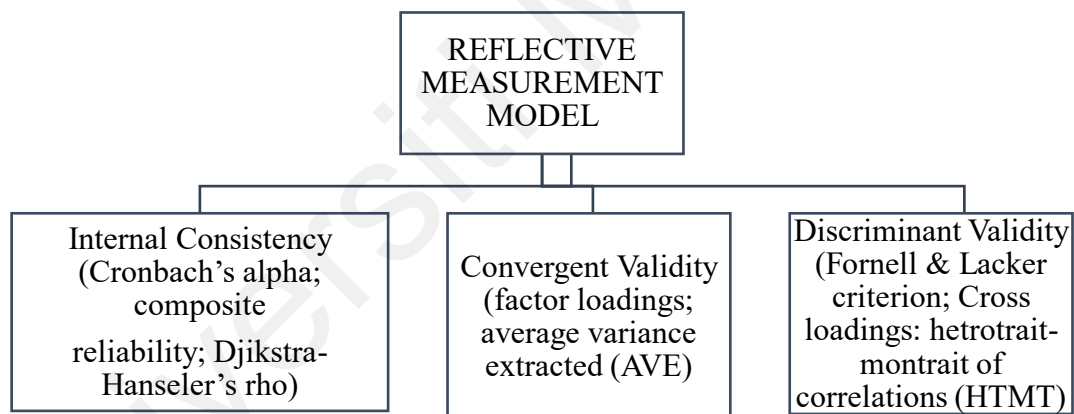


Figure 4.1: Reflective Measurement Model

4.7 Internal Consistency and Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is a parameter frequently used in sociology, psychology, and other behavioural sciences, refers to the extent to which two measures of constructs that theoretically should be related, are in fact related (Hamed Taherdoost, 2016). In brief, Convergent validity tests that constructs that are expected to be related are, in fact, related.

Convergent validity is the degree upon which a latent construct can be able to elaborate the variances of its corresponding indicators (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Gudergan, 2017). The recommended threshold of determining convergence validity is that the latent construct ought to account for 50% (0.5) on the assigned indicator variance (Hair et al., 2017). When the researcher(s) are examining the indicator reliability, Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), stated the purpose of such assessment is to examine the extent upon where a given sent of indicators or indicator are consistent with what they are measuring. There are multiple benchmarks established for measuring the acceptable range for indicator reliability. Byrne (2013) suggests the loading value of 0.5 and above as acceptable. Peterson and Kim (2013) point out Cronbach's alpha is critical in examine the "closeness" of variable in a set of data. Nonetheless, in contemporary research studies Cronbach alpha has been deemed impractical owing to the various shortcomings in assessing the internal consistency as mentioned by Hair et al. (2017). However, McNeish (2018) can be observed to proposed the use of composite reliability at the expense of Cronbach alpha when examining internal consistency reliability. The established threshold for CR is 0.7 is considered satisfactory. Furthermore, reflective measurement model relationships are estimated through outer loadings Hair et al. (2017) and Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) suggest that outer loadings should be equal to or more than 0.7. The assessment of convergent validity is based on the evaluation of indicators' outer loadings in order to evaluate the average variance extracted (AVE) of every construct. The AVE is the measure of the average reliability of each individual indicator (Hair et al., 2017). To measure the AVE a value of equal to 0.5 or more is required (Hair et al., 2017). From the table below it can be observed the values of the loading, CA (0.868-0.972); CR (0.897-0.976), and AVE (0.599-0.862) are above the desired thresholds. The values of the outer loadings are all above 0.7 except SE5 0.510. However the AVE for overall SE is above 0.5 (Hair et al., 2017) thus can be accepted. This implies that

Reliability and Validity has been sustained. Summary of outer loading is shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Summary Outer Loading

Construct	Items	Outer Loading	Cronbach Alpha (CA)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Attitude	ATT1	0.882	0.972	0.976	0.800
	ATT2	0.896			
	ATT3	0.895			
	ATT4	0.924			
	ATT5	0.915			
	ATT6	0.914			
	ATT7	0.882			
	ATT8	0.925			
	ATT9	0.853			
	ATT10	0.852			
Intention	INT1	0.946	0.920	0.949	0.862
	INT2	0.883			
	INT3	0.954			
Self-Efficacy	SE1	0.743	0.868	0.897	0.599
	SE2	0.863			
	SE3	0.742			
	SE4	0.859			
	SE5	0.510			
	SE6	0.866			
Subjective Norms	SN1	0.906	0.897	0.929	0.765
	SN2	0.838			
	SN3	0.907			
	SN4	0.845			

4.8 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is the degree to which latent variable discriminates from other latent variables. In other words, discriminant validity means that a latent variable is able to account for more variance in the observed variables associated with it than a) measurement error or similar external, unmeasured influences; or b) other constructs within the conceptual framework. If the rule is not followed, then the validity of the individual indicators and of the construct is questionable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Discriminant validity is a validity test undertaken to ascertain those measurements that do not relate are actually not correlating or relating. In essence, discriminant validity seeks to explain by how much an explanatory variable (constructs) deviates from the dependent variable model (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). There three critical method, which are commonly used to measure or assess for discriminant validity they include the Fornell Larcker, Cross Loading and the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) approaches Hair et al. (2012) and Henseler et al. (2015).

4.8.1 Cross Loading Criterion

In evaluating cross-loadings, an item's outer loading should be higher for its own latent construct than for other constructs. Cross-loading results establish discriminant validity if the Fornell-Larcker criterion is unable to (Hair et al., 2017). The effectiveness of cross-loadings is enhanced by calculating their small variance earlier to permit the non-zero cross-loading of the items is higher in the construct its representing while lower in the construct its not represent by themselves and directly confirmed the discriminant validity of the construct (Henseler et al., 2015). This concept was previously proposed by Chin (1998), which to assess discriminant validity using cross-loading, each item's loading should be higher than that of all its cross-loadings. Therefore, the results highlighted in the Table 4.10 below depicts that the values of the indicator loading are higher in its own latent variable compared to the other latent variable. This mean that the discriminant validity is valid.

Table 4.10: Cross Loading

CONSTRUCT	ATT	INT	SE	SN
ATT1	0.882	0.517	-0.413	0.315
ATT2	0.896	0.457	-0.435	0.194
ATT3	0.895	0.505	-0.440	0.273
ATT4	0.924	0.498	-0.436	0.261
ATT5	0.915	0.538	-0.430	0.307
ATT6	0.914	0.513	-0.405	0.224

ATT7	0.882	0.513	-0.405	0.297
ATT8	0.925	0.547	-0.448	0.308
ATT9	0.853	0.487	-0.340	0.251
ATT10	0.852	0.487	-0.369	0.220
INT1	0.489	0.946	-0.257	0.713
INT2	0.635	0.883	-0.165	0.398
INT3	0.484	0.954	-0.323	0.758
SE1	-0.213	-0.079	0.743	-0.218
SE2	-0.430	-0.246	0.863	-0.452
SE3	-0.264	-0.148	0.742	-0.226
SE4	-0.398	-0.245	0.859	-0.403
SE5	-0.194	-0.093	0.515	-0.154
SE6	-0.460	-0.297	0.866	-0.457
SN1	0.285	0.603	-0.476	0.906
SN2	0.240	0.553	-0.371	0.838
SN3	0.217	0.619	-0.397	0.907
SN4	0.318	0.658	-0.277	0.845

4.8.2 Fornell and Larcker Criterion

This criterion contrasts the square root of AVE with the correlation of latent variables (Hair et al., 2017), whereby a latent variable should explain more of its own indicators' variance than other constructs' variance. Hence, the square root of AVE for each construct should exceed its correlation with other latent constructs (Hair et al., 2017). The Table 4.11 below showcase the findings of the Fornell and Larcker analysis. It can be seen that the values of the AVE are higher compared to the other latent constructs. This mean that explanatory variable is able to explain much more the variances within their own indicators.

Table 4.11: Fornell and Larcker Criterion

CONSTRUCT	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4
ATTITUDE (Y1)	0.894			
INTENTION (Y2)	0.567	0.928		
SELF EFFICACY (Y3)	-0.462	-0.274	0.774	
SUBJECTIVE NORMS (Y4)	0.304	0.698	-0.467	0.875

4.8.3 HTMT Criterion

The Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) is a relatively new approach, which was design to facilitate computation of discriminant validity in PLS-SEM. A wide large of literature exists, which depict how researchers initially relied on the traditional methods of Fornell Larcker and cross loading to gauge for discriminant validity using the PLS-SEM approach. The cross loading and the Fornell Larcker criterion are insufficiently sensitive in detecting the problems associated with discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). To counter such challenges the Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations was developed. The HTMT approach is used to measures the average correlations of the indicators across constructs. It uses the Monte Carlo approach that has a high specificity and sensitivity values of (97% to 99%) and 0% in respect to cross loading and Fornell Larcker respectively (Henseler et al., 2015). There are proposed threshold, which can be used to measure absence or presence of discriminant validity using the HTMT criterion. Gold, Malhotra, and Segars (2001) propose a value of less than 0.9. While Kline (2015) suggest a value of 0.85 when assessing discriminant validity using the Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT). From the Table 4.12 below it can be above that the values of the constructs are within the acceptable range thus indicating discriminant validity was acceptable.

Table 4.12: Heterotrait-Monotrait Criterion

CONSTRUCT	ATT	INT	SE	SN
ATTITUDE (Y1)				
INTENTION (Y2)	0.609			
SELF EFFICACY (Y3)	0.457	0.261		
SUBJECTIVE NORMS (Y4)	0.323	0.747	0.475	

4.9 Structural Model

Assessing the structural model is the second stage after validating the measurement model in the PLS-SEM. This test is crucial to determine the relationship between construct in the model which the path coefficient to ensure the relationship significance or not. The test of structural model will be based on the assessment of the coefficient determination (R^2), predictive relevance (Q^2), size and significance of path coefficient, f^2 effect size, and q^2 effect size.

4.9.1 Coefficient of Determination(R^2)

R-square is the coefficient of determination. It is the measurement of the level of variance of the dependent variable that is attributed to the independent variable(s). Arbuckle and Wothke (2006) point out that the R-square for a regression equation refers to how much variance in the dependent construct is accounted for by the set of independent constructs in the equation. The earliest determine of R square value is by Falk and Miller (1992) which indicates that the R square value should be higher than or equal to 0.1 for the explained variance of an endogenous construct to be perceived as sufficient. Consequently, there are numerous proposed put forward by various researchers to ascertain the R-square value suitable in assessing predictive accuracy. There are few proposed threshold for R-square value in research. Chin (1998) proposes a R-square value range of 0.76, 0.33, and 0.19 to imply substantial, moderate, or weak respectively. However, this applied research use Hair et al. (2017) which proposed predictive value ranges of 0.75, 0.5, and 0.25 (substantial, moderate, and weak). This proposed value is used as threshold for this research. From the Table 4.13 below it can be observed that the construct “intention” has a moderate predictive power as indicate by the R square value attained.

Table 4.13: R Square (R^2)

CONSTRUCT	R Square	R Square Adjusted	Result
INTENTION	0.711	0.707	Moderate

4.9.2 Effect Size (f^2)

The effect of the F square is calculated in order to examine if an explanatory variable has sufficient impact on the dependent variable (Janadari, Sri Ramalu, & Wei, 2016). In essence, F square examine the power of the independent variables (constructs) contribution towards explaining the dependent variable(s) within the framework of R square (J. D. Cohen, 1988). There are multiple statistical benchmarks, which have been established to evaluate the effect sizes of F square. One of the most common thresholds relates to J. D. Cohen (1988) recommends an F square values of 0.35 (large effect), 0.15 (moderate effect), and 0.02 (small effect). The F square effect of the ATT*SE is 0.022 (small), attitude (0.220 (moderate), SN*SE 0.064 (small), and subjective norm 0.588 (large) as shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Effect Size (f^2)

F square	INTENTION	Effect Size
ATT*SE	0.022	Small
ATTITUDE	0.220	Moderate
SN*SE	0.064	Small
SUBJECTIVE NORMS	0.588	Large

4.10 Collinearity

Collinearity has classically been defined as a predictor-predictor phenomenon in multiple regression models. In this traditional perspective, when two or more predictors measure the same underlying construct, or a facet of such construct, they are said to be

collinear. Kock & Lynn (2012) proposed the collinearity test as procedure for the simultaneous assessment. Through this procedure, which is fully automated by the software, variance inflation factors (VIFs) are generated for all latent variables in a model. High multicollinearity contradicts the statistical assumption that independent constructs are truly independent of one another (Kock & Lynn, 2012). There are recommended VIF value-range, which can be used to determine the desired VIF values. Hair et al. (2017) recommends a VIF value between $0.2 < \text{VIF} < 5$. If the result less or more than the threshold, it indicates collinearity challenges in the independent of the variables. The Table 4.15 below indicate the values of the VIF of each construct based on intention. From the table below it can be observed that the inner VIF values for each construct are within the established range.

Table 4.15: Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

CONSTRUCT	INTENTION
ATTITUDE	2.497
SELF EFFICACY	3.843
SUBJECTIVE NORMS	1.887

4.11 Blindfolding

The PLS-SEM utilizes the predictive relevance to identify where the points of indicators are in the data. Hair et al. (2017) affirm that the data point is predicted using the SSO and the SSE. Essentially, a Q square value, which is more than 0 for a given explanatory variable suggests that the PLS path model has a predictive relevance for this independent variable (Fornell, 1994). From the Table 4.16 below it can be shown that the values of Q square achieved are 0.572. This means that in the model a predictive relevance has been achieved.

Table 4.16: Predictive Relevance

CONSTRUCT	SSO	SSE	Q ² (=1-SSE/SSO)
INTENTION	1152.000	492.977	0.572

4.12 Path Analysis (Hypothesis Testing)

Path analysis is a form of multiple regression statistical analysis that is used to evaluate causal models by examining the relationships between a dependent variable and two or more independent variables. By using this method, one can estimate both the magnitude and significance of causal connections between variables.

4.12.1 Path Coefficient

The path coefficient between two latent variable was examined to test the hypothesis and structural model. According to (Uma & Roger, 2016), the path linking two latent variables represent a hypothesis which can be tested to confirm or disconfirm the relationship. Ideally, path coefficient in used to demonstrates the direct effect an explanatory variable and its effect on the dependent variable. Path coefficient are based on correlation estimated that they are standardized; however, it is important to note that path coefficient in regression analysis in not standardized (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). For the purpose of this study, the bootstrapping technique will be used to calculate the path coefficient. Based on the bootstrapping results, there are multiple approaches to evaluate the stability of model parameters and to design bootstrap confidence intervals. This plays a critical role in enabling the researcher to examine the significance of the relation and magnitude.

The result show that attitude and subjective norms have positive influences on intention. Further analysis for hypothesis testing using bootstrapping were conducted to

determine the significance level including t-statistic result as discuss in next section. The result of the path analysis indicates that all hypotheses are supported and the significance of support is at level $p < 0.01$. The attitude and intention relationship is positive ($\beta = 0.401$ at $t = 8.954$, $p < 0.00$), implying that an increase in attitude results in the higher intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA. Similarly, the subjective norms and intention relationship is positive, ($\beta = 0.564$ at $t = 16.677$, $p < 0.00$) implying that an increase of subjective norms results in an increased in intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA. Path Coefficient Score and Research Hypothesis Analysis Result are shown in Table 4.17 and Table 4.18.

Table 4.17: Path Coefficient Score

CONSTRUCT	BETA	STDEV	T VALUE	P VALUE	95% CI	
					LB	UB
ATT->INT	0.401	0.045	8.954	0.000	0.336	0.482
SN->INT	0.564	0.034	16.677	0.000	0.511	0.622

Table 4.18: Research Hypothesis Analysis Result

Research Hypothesis		Result
Code	Statement	
H1	There is a significance relationship between attitude and intention non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA?	Supported
H2	There is a significance relationship between subjective norms and intention non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA?	Supported

4.12.2 Moderating Analysis

Moderation takes place when the impact of an exogenous construct on an endogenous construct can be enhanced by a third construct, called the moderator, which interacts with the exogenous construct (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). A moderator influences the strength and/or direction of the relationship between two constructs (Lai, 2013). In this study, the self-efficacy has been identified as a moderating variable between independent variables (attitude/subjective norms) and intention to enlist in MA. The

findings of the moderator variables have been highlighted in the Table 4.19. The results indicate that self-efficacy has a moderating impact on the link between attitude and intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA ($\beta = 0.181$, $t = 2.617$, $p < 0.05$). The strength of the relationship is positive implying that increased in self-efficacy results in increased of relationship attitude to intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in MA. Similarly, self-efficacy has a moderating effect on the relationship between subjective norms and intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA ($\beta = 0.242$, $t = 5.188$, $p < 0.00$). The strength of the relationship is positive relationship implying that increased in self-efficacy resulted in increased of relationship subjective norms to intention to enlist of non-Bumiputra in MA. Simple slope analysis was conducted to further explain moderator effect on the

Table 4.19: Table Moderator Result

CONSTRUCT	BETA	STDEV	T VALUE	P VALUE	95% CI	
					LB	UB
ATT*SE->INT	0.181	0.069	2.617	0.004	0.051	0.280
SN*SE -> INT	0.242	0.047	5.188	0.000	0.166	0.318

Level of significance ** $P < 0.05$

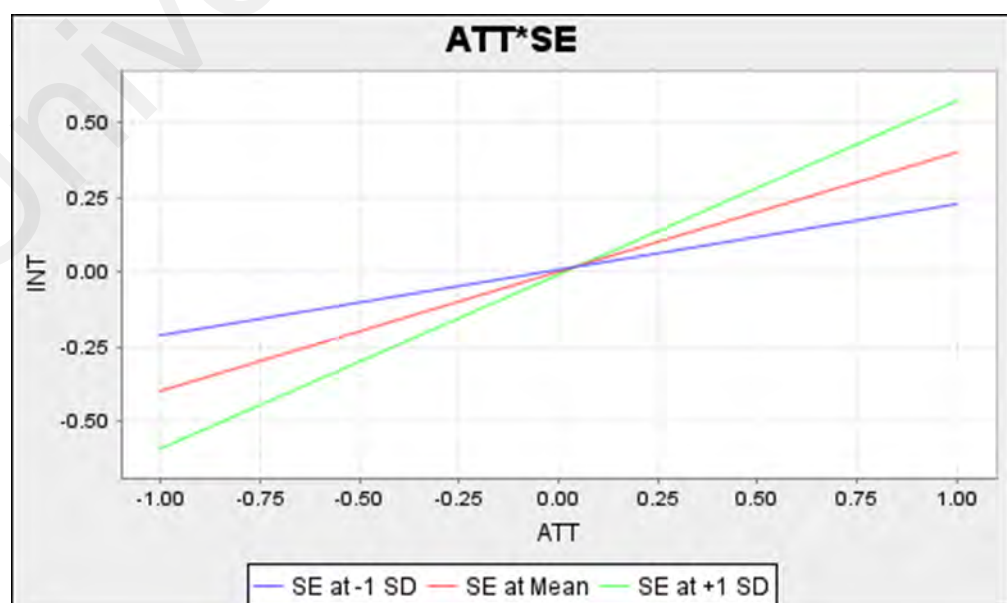


Figure 4.2: Attitude

relationship between the variable. The result revealed in Figure 4.2 show that at higher self-efficacy, attitude impact on intention is greater compared to at lower self-efficacy where the attitude impact intention is lesser. As for subjective norms, simple slope analysis as revealed in Figure 4.3 shows that at higher self-efficacy, subjective norms impact on intention is greater compared to at lower self-efficacy where subjective norms impact intention is lesser. Based on the analysis and finding, moderator hypotheses conclude that H3 and H4 are supported as shown in Table 4.20.

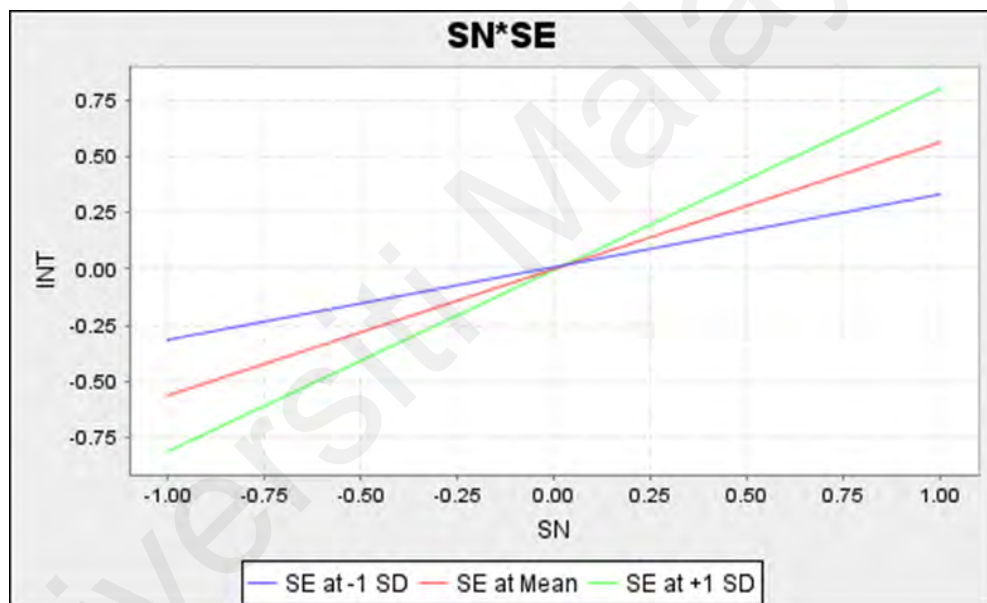


Figure 4.3: Subjective Norms

Table 4.20: Moderator Hypothesis Analysis

Code	Research Hypothesis	Result
	Statements	
H3	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between attitude and intention non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA.	Supported
H4	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA	Supported

4.13 Summary of Hypotheses Testing and Research Findings.

All the hypotheses were tested, and result are presented and discuss according to the threshold adopted in this research. The finding concludes that all hypotheses were supported and the summary of research finding as Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Summary of Hypotheses and Research Findings

Research Hypothesis		Result
Code	Statements	
H1	There is a significance relationship between attitude and intention to enlist in the military	Supported
H2	There is a significance relationship between subjective norms and intention to enlist in the military	Supported
H3	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between attitude and intention to enlist the military.	Supported
H4	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to enlist the military	Supported

4.14 Summary

This chapter presented the descriptive analysis of the data from the response rate. The main constructs in this applied research were further analysis with statistical method using SPSS for the outliers, normality, mean, mode, median, standard deviation and skewness and kurtosis. Later the main constructs are also further explored in both measurement model and structural model evaluation in the statistical significance relationship of the hypothesised determinants in affecting the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA. Measurement and structural model were found to be significance without the need to exclude any items to achieved internal consistency and convergent validity. Moderation analysis was also performed to the indirect effect in the model. All the hypotheses were supported. Attitude and subjective norms were found to have a significance positive relation to intention to enlist in MA. Moderation of self-efficacy for both relation (attitude and subjective norms to intention) was found to be positive relationship. This imply that higher self-efficacy will increase the relationship of attitude and subjective norms in

relation to intention to enlist in MA. The next chapter will discuss the finding in relation to framework in context of intention to enlist in MA.

Universiti Malaya

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the study's research findings attained from the data analysis described in Chapter 4. The chapter begins with a brief description of the research and a review of the results obtained from the measurement and structural models' assessments. As research questions were thus formulated based on the main research objectives, this chapter will thus focus on answering the research questions prior to looking at the discussion and the implications. Subsequently, implications of the findings for theory and practice, including practical suggestions, are discussed. Finally, the study's limitations are acknowledged, and recommendations for future research directions are presented.

5.2 Research Synopsis

This research was conducted in line with philosophy of epistemology, based on a positivist orientation which assumes that reality exists “out there”, and observation is possible, stable, and measurable. The deductive approach was adopted to confirm or disprove the hypothesized relationships between variables in the research. This research consisted of four phases: (1) Defining, (2) Testing, (3) Operationalising, and (4) Finalising.

The defining phase began by analysing the data of MA enlistment to confirm that the problem really exists and is backed by data. Once confirmed, a preliminary investigation was conducted to better understand the problem, especially in the MA context. Based on the discussion and framing of the problem statement in the MA context, the research questions to be answered were as follows:

- a. How does attitude affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?
- b. How does subjective norms affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?
- c. Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?
- d. Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?

Research objectives of this study were as follows:

- a. To examine the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.
- b. To examine the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.
- c. To investigate the moderating effect of self-efficacy between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.
- d. To investigate the moderating effect of self-efficacy between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

A literature review was conducted to describe the relationships among attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and intention. The TRA and self-efficacy theory were identified as the suitable theories for investigating these relationships, based on which the research framework was formulated. The next phase focused on the instrument creation, testing, and final instrumentation. This included exercises such as validation, expert panel review, pilot testing, and review of the instrument. The sample for this study was non-Bumiputra aged between 19 and 24 years old. The survey was conducted electronically

using the designed questionnaire, which contained scales adapted from past studies and translated using the back-to-back technique. The instrument in this study was evaluated by six expert panel members to ensure its suitability for the context of this study. A pilot study was then performed to gauge the instrument and internal reliability was tested to confirm the consistency of the measured constructs.

The third phase was the operationalisation, which included data collection and analysis. The targeted number of 384 responses was achieved; 42 responses were rejected for not being the intended respondent. Data was analysed in two stages. First, SPSS version 24 was employed to perform data coding, data cleaning, missing data handling, and a Principal Component Analysis. Second, the data was analysed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to test the measurement model and structural model to examine the research hypotheses. Moderation analysis was also done to check the strength of the exogenous variables' effects on the endogenous variables. This led to the experiential results which answered the research questions, and the research objectives. It was found that all the hypotheses were supported statistically, and significantly. Table 5.1 summarizes the results of the hypothesis testing, and the research findings. A more in-depth discussion of the findings is also provided in the subsequent section. The last phase was reporting and discussing the findings and presenting contributions from the research. Limitations and future research directions were described in this last phase as well.

Table 5.1: Summary of Hypothesis Testing and Research Findings

Research Question	Research Objective	Research Hypothesis	Remarks
How does attitude affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?	To examine the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	There is a significance relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Accepted
How do subjective norms affect the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?	To examine the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	There is a significance relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Accepted
Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?	To investigate the moderating effect of self-efficacy between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between attitude and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Accepted
Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA?	To investigate the moderating effect of self-efficacy between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between subjective norms and the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.	Accepted

5.3 Discussion of Findings

The discussion of the research results is based on the analysis in Chapter 4 and link discussion in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2. The research results are discussed with the relationships of constructs, moderation, and comparison with related past studies and most important the significance to the MA context.

5.3.1 Attitude and the Intention of non-Bumiputra to Enlist in the MA

The results of the study indicate that there is a significance impact of attitude on intention ($\beta = 0.401$ at $t=8.954$, $p<0.00$). The relationship is positive, implying that a

stronger attitude results in a higher intention. This proves that attitude is a key determinant of the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

This finding is consistent with prior research on attitude as a predicting factor of the intention to enlist in the military (Ford et al., 2013; Khan, 2017; Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016; Wiggins et al., 2014; Yong et al., 2021). This finding also supports the TRA, which proposes attitude as a significance predictor of intention (Ajzen, 1991).

Attitude influences the intention to enlist by evaluating the outcomes or attributes of military enlistment. The decision to enlist is made after meticulously weighing the benefits one will receive from this chosen career path. Occupations vary in terms of the levels of several reinforcer factors, and this variability has relevance for individuals' satisfaction. (Swanson & Schneider, 2013). In this study, non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA is influenced by the benefits the MA has to offer.

In the context of this research, non-Bumiputra assess the benefits of enlisting in the MA for personal gain, working condition, and compensation. From the perspective of personal gain, non-Bumiputra believe that by enlisting in the MA, one can benefit from mental and physical development in the form of discipline, adventure, courage, and respect. Non-Bumiputra with intention to enlist in MA value self-development which they expect to benefit by enlisting in MA. These expected benefit in self-development by non-Bumiputra in enlisting in MA are imbedded in the MA career, as described in MD 7.1A *TD Falsafah Latihan Individu dan Profil Anggota Tentera Darat*, which lays down the philosophy for individual training and the profile of soldiers (*MD 7.0 Training*, 2004). This training doctrine aims to mould an individual into the right profile of a military personnel as required by the MA and as expected by non-Bumiputra when enlisting in the

MA. As for the expectation of working condition, and compensation non-Bumiputra will received by enlisting in MA, are embedded in MA policy which provides attractive terms of service, such as work incentives, social benefits, job security, and a conducive living environment (*MAF JD 1-01 Personnel Support*, 2000; *MAF JP 4-01-1 Logistic Support*, 2005). This policy is in line with the attitude of non-Bumiputra in believing that they will benefit by enlisting in the MA. According to Ford et al. (2013) military may benefit more from capitalizing on recruits with positive attitudes than from persuading recruits with negative attitudes and intentions to join. The explanation of the finding that show attitude is significance predictor to intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA, lays on the pretext that MA terms of service and policy match with the expectation of non-Bumiputra to benefit by enlisting in military. It can also be concluded that this study establishes that non-Bumiputra are enticed to enlist in MA due to the term of service and policy.

As the respondent non-Bumiputra in this research has no prior experience in military, therefore the belief of benefit one can received from MA are solely based on information from, advertisement, interaction with military personnel, observation and publish material. This proves the important of advertisement, publication, engagement and others form of interaction of knowledge sharing by MA organization to non-Bumiputra regarding the benefit non-Bumiputra expected to receive upon enlisting in MA. Most importantly as attitude construct proven in this research to be significance predictor to intention, MA can use the listed measurement in attitude construct as the main information propagated to non-Bumiputra through all means of communication to entice non-Bumiputra in enlisting in MA. As the listed measurement are deem able to influence intention, chances of influencing non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA is higher. MA need not only know how to advertise recruitment but also know what to advertise.

This finding is significance as it proves that the factors influencing non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA, particularly attitude, are in line with MA terms of service and policy. This finding also highlighted to MA in terms of understanding the motive and expectation of non-Bumiputra' enlistment in the MA. In the career decision process, job seekers hold expectations how the working condition and career will impact one's life before entering an organization. Expectations about whether one will fit with a job or organization, based on judgments about one's own abilities and interests, are likely to have some accuracy, even if they are imperfect (Cable, Aiman-Smith, Mulvey, & Edwards, 2000). MA can enhance and highlight specific policies that are expected by non-Bumiputra when enlisting, which will attract more non-Bumiputra enlistments in MA in near future.

5.3.2 Subjective Norms and the Intention of non-Bumiputra to Enlist in the MA

The study findings show that subjective norms have a significance positive relationship with intention ($\beta = 0.564$ at $t = 16.677$, $p < 0.00$), implying that an increase in subjective norms results in an increase in the intention to enlist in the MA. This finding proves that subjective norms is one of the factors influencing individuals' intention to enlist in the military in the Malaysian setting.

This result corroborates previous findings on subjective norms as a predicting factor of the intention to enlist in the military (Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016; Wiggins et al., 2014; Yong et al., 2021). The finding also show subjective norms are more significance compared to attitude in influencing intention to enlist in MA. Apart from that, it supports the TRA, which proposes that subjective norms significantly influence intention (Ajzen Icek, 1991).

Subjective norms affect the intention to enlist through social pressure exerted on individuals to enlist in the military. This study shows that the decision to join the military is not done in isolation but is influenced by people of importance surrounding an individual. According to Kazi and Akhlaq (2017), youth decision in future career include attitudes and beliefs obtained during childhood, specific knowledge from a variety of sources such as parents, siblings, other family members, family friends, peers, guidance counsellors, instructors, school and public library resources, the media, and government career centre. Thus, non-Bumiputra are socially pressured by the relevant people around them in daily life in determining their intention to enlist in the MA.

This finding that subjective norms influence intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA can be explained by linking the nature of jobs in the MA and what people of important around non-Bumiputra can assist in that situation. General consensus agreed that military career is challenging and demands full commitment. According to Gade (2017) and Gade, Tiggle, and Schumm (2003), a military organisation needs soldiers with high levels of commitment and strong attachment to their organisation. Most of the time, a career in the army requires individual to be away from home for a long period due to deployment for operation and training (Segal, 1986). This means that the family role and tasks of the enlisted individual (e.g., father, mother, husband, wife, son, or daughter) are performed by close relatives or other family members. An individual in a military career is not always available at home to assist his/her family in daily life. Often, a military official's wife also acts as a father in the absence of the father and vice versa. Non-Bumiputra with intention to enlist in MA has considered that the difficult situation might arise someday when enlisting in MA and outweigh the option to mitigate it. The possible solution is the help people of important surrounding non-Bumiputra life. In this situation important people around non-Bumiputra might be able to offer helping hand to assist in

that difficult situation. Dependence on family members' help during the absence of a military family member may influence individuals to seek approval and blessing from important people in their daily life before enlisting in the MA. In return, such approval also serves as a collective decision that indirectly compels family members to lend a hand in times of the military member's absence. The link within difficult times due to the nature of job and the assistance important people can offer explain how subjective norms influence the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

The influence of subjective norms on non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in MA can also be explain in context of country setting. As Malaysia is a collective country (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009), collective cultures behaviour is influence more by social norms than by personal attitudes (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Cultural setting embedded in subjective norms compel non-Bumiputra to be influence by important people surrounding daily life due to, the feeling of indebtedness and moral obligation to obey one's parents. The notion to please the important people supporting one's daily life is also a culture-based factor driving subjective norms' influence on the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. Beside cultural setting, dependency on important people by non-Bumiputra in daily life such as basic need, education, enjoyment, security and assistance reinforce the influence of important people on non-Bumiputra decision. As the respondent in this research age between 19 to 24 years old, this group generally just finish schooling, unemployed and depend on important people for their need. Therefore, the feeling of indebtedness by non-Bumiputra to important people explain the influencing factor in decision to enlist in MA.

The use of self-efficacy in understanding career choice behaviour has been conducted by (Betz & Hackett, 1986; Falco & Summers, 2019; Garcia, Restubog, Bordia,

Bordia, & Roxas, 2015; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lent, Ireland, Penn, Morris, & Sappington, 2017; Penn & Lent, 2019). Self-efficacy for career decision making was significantly predictive of career indecision; that is, subjects who reported low levels of career decision-making self-efficacy were also more career indecisive. Contribution to indecisive are due to the career decision making difficulties and according to studies conducted by (Gati, Krausz, & Osipow, 1996), difficulties individual face when making career decision originate from a lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information.

Choosing career is a big decision on one's life as it will have impact in years to come on a person life. Furthermore, decision to enlisting in military are not taken lightly by non-Bumiputra due to the nature of job in military. Beside that non-bumiputra understood that once they are enlisted, the chance to withdraw are almost impossible. That is the reason non-Bumiputra took through consideration before deciding to enlist. According to (Amir & Gati, 2006) Students may experience lack of information in the form of inadequate knowledge about the procedures involved in the career-decision making process; lack of information about themselves, their preferences and perceived their capabilities; lack of information about occupations and their characteristics; and the ways through which one might obtain such information about themselves and prospective occupations. To cope with career decision-making difficulties, students often seek academic advice from career counselling services (Santos, Wang, & Lewis, 2018). Therefore, applicants tend to seek as much information as possible regarding their potential career. The daily life in the MA is not widely known to the public except by those who have close contact with military personnel. Information about the MA's lifestyle and family challenges is also not publicly available. Thus, apart from doing research to gain insights into a military career, people tend to seek advice from valued

others in their daily life. This behaviour is induced by the belief that parents and elderly people are wise and knowledgeable in life experience, and so can provide sound advice about enlisting in the army.

Finding subjective norms significance to predict intention to enlist in MA can also be explain in the demographic analysis. In regard to living spaces in demographic analysis, majority of the participants indicated that they lived with family, representing 304 (88.5%) while 44 (11.5) stated that they reside alone. Influence of important people on non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in MA are believed to be exerted more on non-Bumiputra living together with important people (Family members). Dependency on important people to provide basic need (accommodation and food) increased the influence of important people non-Bumiputra decision to enlist. Compared to non-Bumiputra living on their own, the perceived social pressure exerted by people of important is less.

The current study proves that subjective norms (i.e., the social pressure from important surrounding people) is a significance influencing factor in non-Bumiputra' career selection in the military. This influence can be due to the important people's knowledge, respect, moral obligation, cultural or dependency. According to Emanuel et al. (2005), youth's decisions to enlist in the military are often made after consultation with key people in their social networks. This finding is important to the MA in formulating new strategies for enlistment advertisements that target the people close to potential non-Bumiputra applicants to promote the latter's intention to enlist in the military. This new strategy in recruitment campaigns is in line with Reichert et al. (2007) finding that "important people" (i.e., family members, relatives, and friends) have a stronger influence on military recruitment than advertising.

5.3.3 Self-efficacy as a Moderator

This study introduced self-efficacy as a moderator affecting the influence of attitude and subjective norms on the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. The results indicate that self-efficacy has a significance moderating influence on the link between attitude and intention to enlist ($\beta = 0.181$, $t = 2.617$, $p < 0.05$). The positive moderation coefficient implies that higher self-efficacy strengthens the relationship between attitude and intention. Similarly, self-efficacy has a significance and positive moderating effect on the relationship between subjective norms and intention ($\beta = 0.242$, $t = 5.188$, $p < 0.00$). As such, higher self-efficacy strengthens the relationship between subjective norms and intention as well.

This study filled an important research gap by analysing self-efficacy as moderator of the intention to enlist in the military specifically in Malaysian context. Specifically, this finding enriches the TRA by introducing self-efficacy as a boundary condition in the TRA framework that affects the degree to which attitude and subjective norms impact the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA.

This finding also highlighted the importance of enlistment selection in the intention to enlist in MA. As the finding show self-efficacy moderate attitude and subjective norms relation to intention to enlist in MA in positive way, meaning higher self-efficacy in both variable (attitude / subjective norms) relation to intention, will lead to higher intention to enlist. This means that the perceived ability to success in the enlistment (high self-efficacy) will resulted in increased intention to enlist in MA.

The moderating role of self-efficacy can be explained from several perspectives. First, one possible explanation for the moderation is that high/low self-efficacy has different impacts on individuals' intention. Studies conducted by Chen and Wu (2014) and Yang (2010) have reported that varying degrees of self-efficacy produce different behaviours. Since self-efficacy is defined as one's strong internal belief in his/her skills and capabilities to start and successfully complete a task (Bandura, 2010), in context of this research non-Bumiputra with high self-efficacy are expected to attempt to join the MA's enlistment selection.

Second, the moderating effect self-efficacy can be attributed to the fact that it induces the perceived ability to succeed in the MA enlistment selection process, which is known to be very challenging and demanding. Non-Bumiputra with high self-efficacy would therefore have the confidence and self-belief to succeed in the selection process, which would encourage their intention to enlist. Since it is mandatory for non-Bumiputra to pass the enlistment selection to be eligible to enlist in the MA, an increase in self-efficacy will increase the intention to enlist. Non-Bumiputra with high self-efficacy will have self-confident to enlist in MA as he/she belief in own ability to overcome the enlistment selection in MA.

Third, self-efficacy moderates the attitude and intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA by reinforcing attitude beliefs. A positive attitude towards enlisting in the MA is reinforced by one's belief in his/her ability to succeed in the enlistment selection process. Non-Bumiputra with high self-efficacy will perceive few to no barriers that prevent them from gaining the expected benefits from enlisting in the MA (i.e., a positive attitude towards intention). Self-assurance in one's guaranteed success of benefitting from enlisting in the MA will bolster the positive attitude towards intention and subsequently

increase the intention to enlist in the MA. In context of this research as high self-efficacy out rule the obstacle in difficulties in enlistment selection process, non-Bumiputra expected benefit to gain from enlisting in MA is within grasp. The will indirectly increase attitude factor influencing intention to enlist in MA as other factor to consider the difficulties in enlistment selection are already been dealt by high self-efficacy.

Fourth, similar to attitude, self-efficacy moderates the effect of subjective norms on the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist in the MA. This moderation effect occurs as high self-efficacy reinforces their subjective norms or perceived social pressure to enlist in the MA by viewing the enlistment selection process as easy. This motivates non-Bumiputra to satisfy the important people in their lives by enlisting in the army, as their self-efficacy makes them no longer see the enlistment selection process as a difficult barrier or obstacle. This explains how increased self-efficacy enhances the effect of subjective norms on intention.

This finding proved that self-efficacy moderates the relationship of attitude and subjective norms to intention to enlist in MA. The influence of self-efficacy in intention to enlist in MA are supported by Yong et al. (2021) which stated that youths without prior service or experience in civil defence organisations would rely on self-efficacy to make up their minds whether to enlist or not. This finding is important as it show how self-efficacy able to increase intention to enlistment in MA by influencing both variable. Therefor MA need to give priority to address self-efficacy in intention to enlist in MA due to the fact that self-efficacy able to influence both variable and resulted in increased of intention to enlist by non-Bumiputra in MA. MA can address this issue by conducting awareness campaign on enlistment selection, exposing the public on enlistment requirement and standard and chances for non-Bumiputra to experience mock enlistment

selection prior to actual enlistment. Non-Bumiputra with knowledge and experience in mock enlistment will have high self-efficacy in MA enlistment and subsequently will increased intention to enlist in MA

5.4 Research Contributions

The contributions of this research were achieved by addressing the research problems and research gaps deliberated in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2 through the research objectives and hypotheses testing. The findings of this study offer two major contributions, i.e., theoretical and practical. Notably, the practical contributions derived from this research are more significance than its theoretical contributions as it was applied research which focused on managerial application. The contributions are explained in the following sub-sections.

5.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

The main focus of the research was to address the MA's managerial issue. However, in due process, theoretical contributions arose concurrently. The first and most important theoretical contribution in this research was this research was conducted in the context of the MA, which has rarely been conducted before. This contribution gives a glimpse view how TRA interaction in MA setting to predict intention to enlist in military and contribute to the body of knowledge ion TRA application to predict intention, specifically in military context. The finding also will assist other researcher to compare result using TRA with different setting (countries and ethnicity). While prior literature has put forth numerous variables to predict intention, this study has confirmed the applicability of attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy in predicting the intention to enlist in the MA setting. This outcome helps bridge the extant knowledge gaps on military enlistment, especially in Malaysia.

Second, this research enriches the TRA by introducing self-efficacy as a moderator of military enlistment intention. Novelty of the contribution by introducing self-efficacy as moderator is, the finding able to explain how and in what condition of the variable the moderation occurs. As most research use self-efficacy as direct predictor to intention, the research contribute to the understanding how self-efficacy increased or decreased other variable in prediction of intention. In other words, the moderating role of self-efficacy contributes to the literature by offering insight on how self-efficacy intensifies attitude and subjective norms in relation to intention towards military enlistment. Lastly, the study makes theoretical contributions in relation to the body of knowledge on the TRA in the context of enlistment in the military.

5.4.2 Practical Contributions

This applied research was framed in a way that the research is studying factor within MA control. Adoption of this research approach is to ensure the finding and practical contribution derived from this applied research can be turn into action plan and are within MA means to implement. Most importantly the practical contribution are able to solve MA low enlistment of non-Bumiputra. This is the rational highlighted in previous discussion why this research is framed in such manner.

The main contribution expected in this applied research is the practical contribution as listed and discuss above. The practical contribution presented in this researched need to translate into action plan for MA to benefit from it. Transforming practical contribution into action plan need take into account several factor such as, the finding of the research, identified practical contribution, MA capability to execute the plan, existing system in place in MA and most important the suggested action plan must adhere to military setting

in MA. Practical contribution and the suggested action plan derived from the research as discuss below.

The findings show that non-Bumiputra applicants who enlist in the MA possess certain characteristics and interests which are distinct from others, including being active in sports, welcoming challenges, and leading a healthy life. Besides that, individuals who are patriotic and have high self-confidence are more likely to be potential candidates for enlistment. This finding is in line with that of Breivik, Sand, and Sookermany (2017), who stated that sensation-seeking behaviour increases people's willingness to participate in risky activities related to sports, work, or the military. Identifying potential non-Bumiputra applicants who possess the aforementioned characteristics and interests is the best chance for recruitment success. Equipped with this knowledge, the MA must look into potential candidates who fulfil specific criteria regarding sports participation, extra-curricular activities, hobbies, social work, and acts of patriotism to acquire more relevant enlistment applications and increase enlistment success. This can be done by profiling potential applicant for enlistment by using the knowledge from the finding of the research. MA should also prioritise approaching outdoor clubs, organisations, or individuals that engage in challenging and thrill-seeking activities to promote enlistment. Current strategy adopted by MA promotion cell, promotion for military enlistment at entrepreneur career expos or business convention under the pretext that more non-Bumiputra attend such events, is a misguided strategy as the finding show that potential non-bumiputra applicant to enlist in MA poses unique characteristic which different for an entrepreneur characteristic. Enlistment drives actually have better chances for recruitment if conducted in conjunction with sports events rather than at typical career expos. According to Breivik, Sand, and Sookermany (2019), high-risk sport athletes and special force paratroopers exhibit analogous personality traits, which are high levels of sensation-seeking and

psychoticism (mental toughness) and low levels of neuroticism and anxiety. MA resources are limited in terms of budget and manpower especially in recruitment campaign and promotion for enlistment. Therefore, MA need to conduct specific target campaigning and promotion to the most potential group of non-Bumiputra to have better chance in enlistment. Target advertisement and campaign able to address shortages of resources in recruitment drive and at the same time increased enlistment of non-Bumiputra in MA.

Recruitment Branch from the Human Resource Department in MA is responsible to execute this practical contribution. Recruitment cells need to engage and collaborate with outdoor organization, sport club or any thrill-seeking recreation sport. Armed Forces Sport council can be used as the means to bridge the engagement between MA and those outdoor club or organization. Talent scouting by recruitment cell must be conducted in conjunction with major sport event such as “*Sukan Malaysia*” or any other major outdoor program organised by other government agency. Working together with Ministry of Youth and Sport to promote enlistment in military in conjunction with the ministry event would be more promising to attract potential application. MA need to mirror United States recruitment campaign by organizing “Military Physical Challenge Day” and the participant are open to the public. This event is basically a replication of the enlistment physical test for United States military. This objective of the event is to exposure public to the enlistment process. Most importantly this challenge attracted public participant with positive attitude towards challenges, physically fit and adventures. This will inculcate interest among public in military and subsequently increased enlistment. MA open day, which was held yearly before pandemic, is the best avenue to organise this event and attract potential applicant to enlist in MA. Bridging the gap to approach non-bumiputra can be achieved by employing more non-Bumiputra in the recruitment branch.

Cooperation with existing military veteran organization such as Malaysian Army Chinese Veteran Association (MACVA) and Malaysian Army Indian Veteran Association (MAIVA) are the best option for recruitment cell have to gain access to potential non-Bumiputra to promote enlistment.

A new advertising and promotion strategy must be adopted by the MA. Previously, the MA's recruitment advertisements only targeted participants. The interaction, advertisement and programme specifically design to potential non-Bumiputra eligible to enlist in MA. Approach targeting directly to potential non-Bumiputra clearly can see by analysing the content of advertisement, placement of advertisement, location programme conducted, time and content of the recruitment drive. Adopting the same strategy over the years show it fail to increase enlistment of non-Bumiputra in MA. Contrarily to the direct approach strategy, this research shows that subjective norms are a more significance predictor of non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the army compared to attitude. This finding indicates that important people around participants, such as parents, teachers, relatives, and friends, influence their decision to enlist. Thus, social influence is able to increase the enlistment chances of a participant. Therefore, equip with the new finding MA army need to adopt dual strategy which target the potential no-Bumiputra applicant and also important people surrounding the potential non-Bumiputra applicant. This can be done by redesigning the content and conduct of previous recruitment drive to include important people around non-Bumiputra as target too. Indonesian military are using this approach (targeting people of important) by highlighting the prestige and respect a family will earn from the community if any of the family members serve in the military. Using important people around potential non-Bumiputra applicant to influence the intention to enlist is military is MA best hope in increasing enlistment among non-Bumiputra. In the nutshell advertisements should be

formulated with a dual strategy that targets the participants directly and the people around them indirectly. This phenomenon is more applicable in the Asian context, especially in Malaysia, as findings show that family and relatives have a greater influence on non-Bumiputra' enlistment decision in the army.

Army Promotion branch are responsible to execute the suggested practical contribution. Promotion branch are task to promote MA and subsequently attract potential applicant. Promotion branch must adopt new strategy to target potential non-Bumiputra applicant and at the same time target people of important around non-Bumiputra to influence the enlistment. Therefore, promotion branch must also look at conducting campaign and promotion of military enlistment to elderly people, teachers and community leaders as these people able to influence non-Bumiputra youth to enlist in MA. Content in promotion campaign must also address important people beside the potential applicant. Currently the promotion to enlist in MA are not well distributed in mass media which limited the outreach. Never before MA enlistment promotion appear on national television in prime time to reach bigger audience. Promotion Branch also need to look advertising recruitment in media other than in Bahasa Malaysia as non-Bumiputra generally prefer media in own language. Aggressive promotion might able to capture undecisive non-Bumiputra in career decision as vast majority of the students did not plan for life after university and therefore lacked a future orientation Greenbank and Hepworth (2008). Taking in to account all the suggested practical contribution will ensure the target group non-Bumiputra able to have access to enlistment information and subsequently increased enlistment.

The perceived difficulties of the selection process hinder potential non-Bumiputra applicants from enlisting in the MA. As the findings show, higher self-efficacy promotes

the intention to enlist. Therefore, the MA must mitigate perceived difficulties in the enlistment selection process to attract more non-Bumiputra applicants. Generally military enlistment is known as challenging and tough to the general public. However, the true extend of the challenges are not known and to some extend it is just the best guess. This is due to the fact military enlistment process and conduct are not well expose to general public especially in Malaysian context. Therefore, generally majority non-Bumiputra will assume the enlistment selection are tough. To address the perceived difficulties in MA enlistment selection, MA must provide complete and comprehensive information on the selection process. Advertisements for enlistment should not only include qualification requirements but also explanations, videos, or links demonstrating how the selection process is conducted. This will ensure that potential applicants know what to expect during the selection process and will be more confident to try it. Where is it possible, MA must make known to general public especially non-Bumiputra how enlistment selection is conducted. If possible, interested non-Bumiputra are given a chance to experience it before deciding to enlist or not. Most importantly, as the target audience is non-Bumiputra, the information should be disseminated widely in all media, whether electronic or print, in multiple languages to offer applicants the chance to prepare and rehearse for the selection process. According to Mavor (2003), more knowledge of the challenges in basic training and the required physical fitness in the military may facilitate potential applicants' healthy beliefs about their competences, which in turn, influences qualified youth to enlist. Another approach can be adopted according to Vinothkumar and Subramanian (2016) is by conducting a frequent campaign by the defence personnel to guide the aspirants about the challenges embedded in basic training and required physical fitness may facilitate to form a healthy belief about their competences, which in turn, influence a qualified youth to enlist. With clear knowledge on what to expect and how

the selection is conducted, non-Bumiputra may gain self-confidence which will influence high self-efficacy and increased the intention to enlist in MA.

MA Training and Doctrine Headquarters is the relevant department to overcome perceived difficulties in MA enlistment among non-Bumiputra. As mentioned, the perceived difficulties is only general assumption by the public on MA enlistment. On the other hand, those who perceived MA enlistment are difficult, when question on the enlistment proses acknowledge not much know about it and the perceived difficulties is based on hearsay. Therefore, Training and Doctrine Headquarters need to expose general public on the enlistment process. There are many ways to engage general public and expose them to enlistment process, such as Army open day, exhibition, road show and conducting mock enlistment for those interested. Greater exposure non-Bumiputra have on enlistment or even experience the process will instil confidence and able to gauge the difficulties based on one's ability. This will increase non-Bumiputra self-efficacy on enlistment selection process and increased the enlistment in MA.

The findings also show that applicants have a set of expectations from the military which influences their decision to enlist. Potential applicants expect the military to be able to take care of their family needs with liberal fringe benefits. For instance, social benefits, health care, education, social support, and retirement benefits are the main drivers of enlistment. Knowing what non-Bumiputra expectation from MA give MA advantage in promoting enlistment among non-Bumiputra. Rather than stressing the challenges and adventures awaiting applicants, the MA's recruitment drive should promote the expected privileges and benefits non-Bumiputra can enjoy by enlisting in the military, especially family benefits. According to Ford et al. (2013), transparent and accurate job previews can make applications more enthusiastic about aspects of military

lifestyle that they had not known about before, subsequently increasing their enlistment intention. This knowledge of applicants' expectations in the military gives leverage to the MA to highlight these perks in their recruitment advertisements and thereby elicit more successful enlistments from non-Bumiputra.

Content for promotion to enlist in MA must be revised by Army Promotion Branch. Currently the content to promote enlistment concentrate on emphasising challenging life in military, adventure and hardship. The idea to include this in the promotion content is on the pretext that people join the army for opportunity to challenge themselves in this career. However, this is not true as the research found that non-Bumiputra are more attracted to the privilege, and benefit that MA has to offer. Therefore, the publish content in promoting enlistment fail to attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA. Equip with this understanding, Promotion Branch need to include the expectation on non-Bumiputra in the promotion content. Promotion Branch need not only know how to advertise but most important know what to advertise to attract non-Bumiputra intention to enlist in MA.

All the identified factors that attract non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA must be enhanced and serve as a basis for future planning. A practical and cost saving method can be adopted by MA is, rather than enhancing factor that are not attracted to non-Bumiputra, focus on enhancing factor that attract non-Bumiputra to increased enlistment in in MA. This approach will save cost but have profound impact to increase non-Bumiputra enlistment. The MA needs to ensure that terms of service and policy are designed in line with non-Bumiputra expectations during enlistment. Military personnel tend to train and perform well in training and jobs that are attractive and appealing to them. Besides that, their commitment to their training and job is enhanced when

motivation is infused with attraction. This scenario induces motivation not only to attract non-Bumiputra applicants but also to prolong their service and retain trained personnel. Without an inclusive organizational climate that retains and fully utilizes minority employees after hire, simply recruiting more such employees will not lead to sustainable changes in workforce demographic (Egan & Bendick Jr, 2018).

Planning and Development Headquarters is responsible to ensure term of service and policies in future when formulated took into consideration factor that attract non-Bumiputra to enlist. Beside that the existing factor that attract non-Bumiputra to enlist must be enhanced and improve to attract even more non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA. For example, MA must engage more family members of serving personnel. Engagement can be in form of including family members in any social activity, as volunteer in any military establishment, parade, welfare, education, or any activities which not endangering the public. Planning and Development Headquarters need to take the same approach taken by United States military where the general public engagement with the military is at highest level compared to other army around the world. In context of Malaysia, the military are more exclusive in own bubble and alienated from the public. As the research show people of important are influencing factor in non-Bumiputra daily life especially in decision making, therefore keeping important people close to the military will definitely attract more non-Bumiputra to enlist in MA.

The research finding also highlighted the expectation of non-Bumiputra in enlistment in MA. The applicants' expectations, as identified from the findings, can be turned into a list of questions be administered during applicant interviews or self-check so that recruiters/applicant can differentiate an expectation are within MA ability to offer

or not. This is true to some case where the expectation of applicant is beyond MA means to offer and most of the time is due to applicants are misinformed and misguided stem from diverging expectations of military service from what the military actually offers. A misinformed or misguided applicant if did enlist in military will feel frustrated as their expectation are not met and subsequently become turnover statistic. Ability MA to fulfil non-Bumiputra expectation will increase enlistment among non-Bumiputra and also served to retain those non-Bumiputra that are already in MA. The interview also serves as filter to ensure only suitable candidates with right the expectations of the military will enlist. This will prevent the waste of resources and time when an applicant with false expectations is accepted for training and withdraws afterward upon realising it is not what he/she expected.

MA Counselling and Psychology sell need to formulate a set of checklist / questionnaire to understand expectation from non-Bumiputra during the enlistment selection process. This will enable recruitment personnel to identify the expectation of the potential applicant and match it with what MA has to offer. This process is important the ensure that the set of expectation from applicant are within what MA has to offer and assist recruitment personnel to identify misguided applicant. The checklist / questionnaire will be used by Recruitment cell to filter applicant in enlistment process and ensure only the applicant with right set of expectation from MA are accepted.

5.5 Research Limitations and Future Research

Contrary to popular belief research limitations are not in any way negative aspects of the study. Limitations aren't always flaws or issues that detract from the research's usefulness or validity. The final effects of constraints on any research will be determined

by the researcher's expertise, proactiveness, experience, and the research type. Therefore, limitation does not have to be anything/everything bad about a project.

This research is not without limitations; nonetheless, each shortfall opens an avenue for future research. First, this research intended to measure respondents' intention from a snapshot in time rather than their actual behaviour, which was not measured. Due to time constraints, the research stopped at predicting only intention; yet there is a need to examine if the identified predictors affect actual behaviour. Future research adopting a longitudinal design would be more applicable as the results may differ if examined across time. The longitudinal approach would also confirm if intention were translated into actual behaviour, which can offer more profound knowledge of the subject.

Second, the research grouped all non-Bumiputra into a homogenous sample. Non-Bumiputra comprise of few ethnic as describe in demographic. Therefore, as this research analyse non-Bumiputra in one group, the findings are general and not specific to each non-Bumiputra ethnicity. Upcoming studies should be conducted by separating the non-Bumiputra ethnic groups to unearth more specific and accurate findings, as previous research shows that the various ethnicities exhibit intention differently. The finding will contribute significance knowledge in the theoretical contribution of TRA in intention to enlist in military by each non-Bumiputra ethnic. It notable to mention here, as this research is applied research focus on practical contribution to solve managerial problem, analysing non-Bumiputra into a homogenous sample suffice for this applied research as MA viewed non-Bumiputra as a single group in the problem lack of non-Bumiputra in MA and not by each ethnicity. Furthermore, according to the data presented, there is not so significance different in percentage of non-Bumiputra ethnic (Chinese, Indian and others) in joining the military.

Third, this research did not consider the security situation of the country. National security has a profound impact on the intention to enlist in the military in many cases. A study conducted in the United States shows that the number of applicants who intended to join the military increased significantly after the September 11 attack on the World Trade Centre (Woodruff et al., 2006). However, in this study, the incursion by armed Southern Philippine rebels in Lahad Datu, Sabah in 2013 was not taken into consideration. This is because the security situation has changed, and the threat Malaysia faced in 2013 no longer exists. As the applied research sought to solve current managerial problem based on current situation and provide possible solution, anomalies from the past were not considered. From theoretical contribution aspect, future research should include the country's security situation to better understand military enlistment in the setting of emerging security threats.

This research only focused on the MA and not MN or MAF. This is due to these divisions' different terms of service and nature of job. The MA is typically deployed to operational areas at the Malaysian border or overseas under the United Nations, and for longer periods than the navy or air force. MA personnel also rely more on physical strength and high stamina to perform their job compared to the other armed forces, which rely heavily on technology to complete tasks. Furthermore, the enlistment selection is slightly different in the army, whereas potential recruits for the navy and air force are preferably more technology savvy and have the right attitude towards technology. Consequently, future research on the navy or air force is suggested to use the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) as their framework.

5.6 Research Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to examine the influence of attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy on non-Bumiputra' intention to enlist in the MA. The background of the study, problem statement, and literature review highlighted the need for the study to be conducted. Preliminary investigation conducted was utterly important to understand the issue in Malaysia context. Subsequently, four research questions and four research objectives were formulated for the research. The hypotheses emerged from the proposed research framework provided a theoretical lens into understanding how attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy influence the intention to enlist in the MA.

The study offers several conclusions which are anchored to the four research objectives. First, attitude has a significance positive relationship with the intention to enlist. This conclusion confirms attitude as a predictor of intention and elucidates how attitude influences the intention to enlist. Second, subjective norms have a significance positive relationship with intention, which validates subjective norms as a factor predicting intention apart from attitude, specifically in the military enlistment context. The third and fourth conclusions are that self-efficacy has positive moderating impact on how attitude and subjective norms affect intention. These conclusions are important as they identify self-efficacy as a factor that is able to enhance the intention to enlist.

Six practical contribution was presented and discuss in relation to action plan for MA to execute. Despite its limitations, the study's findings support all 4 hypotheses proposed, answering all four key research questions and address the research objective. The conclusions of the research aid the MA in understanding the factors that drive the intention of non-Bumiputra to enlist and subsequently, allows the MA to formulate better strategies and approaches to increase this group's military enlistment. Most importantly,

the practical contribution derived from this research able to formulate possible course of action to MA to solve the problem.

As for the contribution to the body of knowledge, this study has broadened the knowledge on the intention to enlist in RMA setting by uniquely integrating the TRA with self-efficacy. The framework was able to obtain adequate empirical support that adds to the theoretical value of the research. The study's findings support the theoretical foundations that explain the relationship between attitude, subjective norms and intention to enlist in RMA. Most importantly the study findings confirm the role of self-efficacy as a moderator in the relationships. It also revealed a direct relationship between attitude and subjective norms to intention to enlist. This finding supports previous study that conforms TRA as significance predictor to intention. This study has provided some understanding and insight into the fundamental factors influencing enlistment decision in the military setting among non-Bumiputra. This will help the academic community better understand how attitude, subjective norms, and self-efficacy can increase enlistment in the military.

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